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Teacher Self-and Collective Efficacy in Teaching Javanese: A Study of Indonesian Urban and Suburban Teachers

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Abstract

This study aimed to reveal Indonesian urban and suburban teachers' self- and collective efficacy in teaching Javanese, to look at the difference between them, and to know the possible influential factor in predicting their self- and collective efficacy. This quantitative research used cross-sectional survey with 200 teachers who taught Javanese in urban and suburban high school level in East Java Province, Indonesia, as the research respondents. Data were collected using Javanese Teacher's Efficacy Scale with six-point Likert's scaling method (α = .97). The obtained data were analyzed using descriptive statistics analysis, MANOVA, and hierarchical multiple regression. Results showed that Indonesian teacher self- and collective efficacy in teaching Javanese were in a high category, of 72.74% and 72.19% respectively. Moreover, there was a significant with large difference between urban and suburban TSE and CTE. In this case, urban teachers perceived higher TSE and CTE than suburban teachers. Another finding showed that teaching motivation was the most significant predictive source that affected the formation of high TSE (β = .241) and CTE (β = .247).

Keywords: *Teacher self-efficacy, teacher collective efficacy, urban, suburban, Javanese teaching*

Introduction

Among other factors, teacher's quality becomes a prominent aspect in establishing a well-accredited educational institution. This is due to the fact that the aspect also participates in determining school's performance, students' achievement, and social trustworthiness. In 2009, Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS) indicated that teacher's function is more than to transfer knowledge, rather, it engages multilayers of cultural backgrounds, develops suitable students' learning needs, promotes informative and technological awareness, considers proper learning strategy, and deals with parent involvement (Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development, 2009). In America, teachers are obligatory to promote leadership skills besides transferring knowledge and enabling students to master required competences. Moreover, they cannot resist pockets of professional development as mandates issued in the recent American education policy (Jaquith, Mindich, Wei & Darling-Hammond, 2010; Lucey, 2021).

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That is, the presence of teachers has been considered crucial and meaningful since it deals with diverse scopes that include both their professional and institutional developments.

In coping with European context, Toom & Husu (2016) describe varied Finnish teachers' roles as well as their tasks in dealing with administrative and pedagogical decision-making processes, developing individual and institutional professionalism, and managing institutions by high-respected collaborative works among stakeholders in charge, i.e. the Principal, administration officers and other teachers. To contrast with American and Finnish teachers' roles, Indonesian teachers are asked to deal with some predominant mandates. First, it deals with numbers of professional developments, i.e. the presence of teachers' qualification test, demands of conferences or workshops and publications (Indonesia Ministerial Regulation Number 35 Year 2010), and teachers' certification. Another mandates put Indonesian teachers in interlinked works dealing with school administration, colleague, and personal responsibility related to any matters of pedagogical problems (Zulfikar, 2009; Ma'arif, 2018). Thus, by seeing the diverse lenses of teacher's roles in different settings, it can be concluded that teachers indeed play a salient figure in succeeding school's goals (Agostinelli & McQuillan, 2020; Gairola, 2019; Idowu et al., 2020; Lee & Lee, 2020; Moody, 2020; Shrestha, 2019; Waychunas, 2020).

At the heart of the issue of teacher's presence, it is also important to consider kinds of threat possibly faced that may hamper teachers in performing their roles. A school location could become a special challenge for teachers, yet the Government Education Office in approaching with budgeting allocation, rapid distribution, monitoring, and other infrastructure supports (Liaw, 2017). Henceforth, it is indeed important to see teachers' challenge by disseminating their school locations; urban schools or those in metropolitan areas (OECD, 2013), and suburban ones or those in suburbs (Tefera, Frankenberg, Siegel-Hawley & Chirichigno, 2011), where the criteria of metropolitan areas refer to Indonesian Law Number 26 Year 2007 about Spatial Planning. As unequivocal differences, teachers of urban schools may get easier access to fulfil their roles, involving the vast accessibility of information and technology (IT), learning aids, and community development (Liaw, 2017; Goddard & Goddard, 2001; OECD, 2013; Tahili et al., 2021). Conversely, those in suburban ones may face difficulties in multifarious problems, such as transportation, IT access, authentic materials, appropriate learning sources and many more (Liaw, 2017). Thus, working in either urban or suburban schools could be another outside factor interfering how well teachers perform (Solikhah & Budiharso, 2019).

To provide with practical evidences related to the unequivocal distinction between urban and suburban schools in Indonesia, there were only 5.5% from 268,734 total schools which were categorized as urban schools (Indonesia Ministry of Education and Culture, 2016; Indonesia Ministry of Education and Culture, 2017; Indonesia Ministry of Home Affairs, 2015). On the contrary, 94.5% of them, or about 253,873 schools, were categorized in suburban (Indonesia Ministry of Education and Culture, 2016; Indonesia Ministry of Education and Culture, 2017; Indonesia Ministry of Home Affairs, 2015). The data basically shows that the numbers of suburban teachers are distinctly higher than those in urban ones. Consequently, there are still numbers of Indonesian teachers who deal with multifarious problems mentioned by Liaw (2017). That is, it is important to see the spread of schools and numbers of teachers in both urban and suburban settings to get distinctive teachers' roles as well as their challenges in order for them to perform better.

Regarding hard and diverse roles and challenges, yet in coping with effort to overcome them, teachers need to possess good efficacy, of which further is known as teacher self-efficacy (TSE). At glance, Bandura (1977) explains that perceived self-efficacy means one's belief in carrying particular tasks out to achieve the best outcome, by that, TSE can be meant as teacher's beliefs in executing courses of action to enable their students to get the best achievement (Gibson & Dembo, 1984; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). TSE is much to do with teacher's self-ability rather than the teacher's actual level of competence (Bandura, 2006; Tschannen-Moran, Hoy & Hoy, 1998; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2010). It is "an important distinction, because people regularly overestimate or underestimate their actual abilities, and these estimations may have consequences for the courses of action they choose to pursue" (Tschannen-Moran, Hoy & Hoy, 1998:211). Moreover, its domains diverse across various activity settings, levels of demands within the activity settings, and environmental settings to enable performances (Bandura, 1977). That is, good TSE contributes an important point in dealing with teachers' roles and challenges, involving on determining the results of their performance.

In addition, another type of teacher efficacy that also takes part in influencing teacher roles and challenges is so-called collective teacher efficacy (CTE). This type has occurred since more than a decade due to the wider growth of TSE up to engaging a faculty scope dealing with other stakeholders at school and self-belonging to the institution (Goddard & Goddard, 2001; Klassen, 2010; Kurz & Knight, 2004; Parker, 1994; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007; Tschannen-Moran & Barr, 2004; Versland & Erickson, 2017; Voelkel & Chrispeels, 2017). Donohoo (2017) defines CTE as

both perceptions and judgments addressed to a group of teachers or educational instructors based on their capabilities to enhance student performance. Since many studies have verified that CTE is interlinked with student achievement (Goddard, Hoy & Hoy, 2000; Tschannen-Moran & Barr, 2004), it seems also being interfered by variations of teacher self-efficacy (TSE) which contributes to the successful negotiation in a conjoint share to carry on courses of action (Bandura, 1997 in Tschannen-Moran, Hoy & Hoy, 1998; Zonoubi, Rasekh, &Tavakoli, 2017; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007; Kurz & Knight, 2004; Goddard, Hoy & Hoy, 2000; Goddard & Goddard, 2001; Goddard, Hoy & Hoy, 2004). Henceforth, good CTE also yields better results in accomplishing teacher roles and challenges.

Assuming both TSE and CTE are prominent at the issue of teachers performing their roles and facing challenges (Kurz & Knight, 2004; Pratama *et al*, 2018), there must be factors affecting the success level of TSE and CTE. To cope with that, there are two models generated from Bandura (1977) namely TSE cyclical model (Tschannen-Moran, Hoy & Hoy, 1998) and CTE cyclical model (Goddard, Hoy & Hoy, 2000) that mostly reveals the sources of information of both types of efficacy. The two models basically exhibit similar four factors namely mastery experience, vicarious experience, social persuasion, and emotional state (Bandura, 1977; Bandura, 1986; Tschannen-Moran, Hoy & Hoy, 1998). The difference of the two models lays on the *referent* used in the instruments; self-referent mode for TSE and group-referent for CTE (Goddard, Hoy & Hoy, 2004). A self-referent mode is usually known as "I-referent" model that makes personal efficacy inside out (Goddard, Hoy & Hoy, 2004). Meanwhile, "We-referent" model is used in CTE to reveal how an individual gives an attempt to organizational works for the sake of a conjoint share (Tschannen-Moran, Hoy & Hoy, 1998; Goddard, Hoy & Hoy, 2004). Thus, the two models indeed very helpful in determining the level of TSE and CTE.

Unfortunately, in coping with Javanese language teaching in Indonesia, there are still lacks of information in accordance with Indonesian teacher self- and collective efficacy in teaching Javanese. Such information is vital since Javanese teachers should not only cope with Javanese instruction planning, but they are also demanded to deal with school administration, many extracurricular responsibilities, and even foreign language mastery. The unavailable information raise difficulty for those in charge of providing professional developments (e.g. seminar, training, and workshop) as they do not know how efficacious Indonesian Javanese teachers deal with their responsibilities (Solikhah & Budiharso, 2019). Thus, providing the profiles of Indonesian TSE and

CTE in Javanese teaching is essential to enhance their personal and institutional developments. Even there are some previous studies investigating on TSE and CTE (Hallinger, Hosseingholizadeh & Kouhsari, 2017; Voelker & Chrispeels, 2017), but mostly they could not provide information of TSE and CTE in Javanese teaching in urban and suburban settings. For instance, Basikin (2006) investigated TSE in Indonesian ESL context, of which it is different research scope. Moreover, Sugiana & Former (2015) and Lailiyah & Cahyono (2017) deal with TSE only in an Early Childhood Education field and in using technology which are extraneous to Javanese teaching context. The information given by some current scholars regarding TSE and CTE in Javanese teaching, specifically in Indonesia urban and suburban schools, are still limited (Ma'arif, 2021). Therefore, this study aims to reveal Indonesian urban and suburban teachers' self- and collective efficacy in teaching Javanese.

Methods

The present study was in a form of cross-sectional survey research that aims to measure a wide range of varieties of unobservable data such as self- and collective efficacy (Battacherjee, 2012). There were 200 teachers who voluntarily participated as the research respondents representing both urban and suburban schools in East Java Province. The respondents were selected without considering their teaching experience, school status, and also the grade they taught since those aspects were extraneous to the present study focus. However, the information regarding their ages, teaching experience, genders, school's accreditation status, and school types (e.g. public or private schools) were important in portraying the demographic data. (Table 1).

Data were collected using Javanese Teacher's Efficacy Scale (JTES) in which its content and face validities along with the reliability test had been carried out during the primary research ($\alpha = .97$). To get the data, the questionnaire was administered through online (N = 167) and offline (N = 33) forms. JTES has 7 items consisting of 30 items revealing five sub-skills of efficacy namely Efficacy to accomplish teaching responsibilities, Efficacy to do student advisory, Efficacy to use Javanese for classroom communication, Efficacy to create Javanese milieu, and Efficacy to accomplish institutional tasks and 7 items revealing seven possible factors influencing the shape of TSE and CTE in Javanese teaching namely mastery experience, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, emotional state, personality characteristics, perceived IT competency, and teaching motivation. The questionnaire was in a form of closed-ended format with six-point Likert's

summative scaling method from strongly disagree to strongly agree without anchors to reduce scaling confusion. There was no neutral option because participants might have a tendency to choose being neutral when they were unwilling to finish the questionnaire. The obtained data were then analyzed using SPSS software under the process of descriptive statistics, MANOVA, and hierarchical multiple regression.

Table 1
Demographic Data of the Respondents

Information	School Location	Categories	Percentage (%)
Gender	Urban	Male teachers	39%
		Female teachers	61%
	Suburban	Male teachers	38.9%
		Female teachers	61.1%
Education Degree	Urban	Undergraduate	87.6%
		Master	12.4%
	Suburban	Undergraduate	97.9%
		Master	2.1%
University Status	Urban	Public University	89.5%
		Private University	10.5%
	Suburban	Public University	85.3%
		Private University	14.7%
Teaching Experience	Urban	Less than 5 years	41.9%
		5 to 10 years	20%
		10 to 20 years	19.1%
		More than 20 years	19%
	Suburban	Less than 5 years	34.7%
		5 to 10 years	30.6%
		10 to 20 years	17.9%
		More than 20 years	16.8%
School Accreditation	Urban	A	88.6%
		B	6.6%
		Others	4.8%
	Suburban	A	70.5%
		B	19%
		C	1%
		Others	9.5%
School Status	Urban	Public School	55.2%
		Private School	44.8%
	Suburban	Public School	55.8%
		Private School	44.2%

Results and Discussion

Classic Assumption Results

In this research, there are 2 types of data processing used, namely Manova and Hierarchical Multiple Regression, so that the researcher grouped 2 types of classical assumptions. In the classical Manova assumption test, the normality test uses the mahalanobis distance test and the homogeneity test uses the Box's M test. In the classical Hierarchical Multiple Regression assumption test, the normality test uses the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, the multicollinearity test uses the VIF test, and the heteroscedasticity test uses the Glejser test. See table 2.

Table 2
Classic Assumption Results

Classic Assumption	Type	Value	Label
Manova			
Normality test	Mahalanobis distance test	9.676	Fulfilled
Homogeneity test	Box's M test	All sig > 0.05	Fulfilled
Hierarchical Multiple Regression			
Normality test	Kolmogorov-smirnov	All sig. > 0.05	Fulfilled
Multicollinearity test	VIF	All < 10	Fulfilled
Heteroscedastisity test	Glejser Test	All sig > 0.05	Fulfilled

Preliminary assumption was first conducted to check for multivariate normality and homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices, and equality of variance. This study conducted multivariate normality test using Mahalanobis distance. This study suggested that the data were normal and no multivariate outliers because the Mahalanobis distance value (9.676) was smaller than the critical value applied for two dependent variables (13.82). Based on the homogeneity test, it is known that the results of the Box's M test show that if all significance values are above 0.05, it can be said that the data is homogeneous. The results of the classical assumption test for Hierarchical Multiple Regression note that all the Kolmogorov-Smirnov significance values are above 0.05 or the normality test is fulfilled, the multicollinearity test shows that all VIF values for each independent variable are below 10 so it can be said that there is no multicollinearity or multicollinearity test. Fulfilled, and the heteroscedasticity test using the Glejser test, it is known that all significant results of the absolute regression residuals have no value below 0.05, so it can be said that the heteroscedasticity test is fulfilled.

Descriptive Statistic Test Results

The Profiles of Indonesian Teacher Self- and Collective Efficacy in Teaching Javanese

Before portraying the profiles, the obtained mean scores were needed to be transferred into Swanson's leveling method to look at the exact efficacy level. Both TSE and CTE are measured based on five indicators as follows:

1). Efficacy to accomplish teaching responsibilities

2). Efficacy to do student advisory

3). Efficacy to use Javanese for classroom communication

4). Efficacy to create Javanese milieu

5). Efficacy to accomplish institutional task

Each mean score of TSE, CTE, and every sub-skill was divided by the maximum TSE, CTE, and sub-skill scores and the results were multiplied with 100% to get Swanson's percentages that consisted of three different categories namely very low (< 25%), low (25%-50%), high (50%-75%), and very high (> 75%). Diagram 1 and diagram 2 show the results of the profiles of TSE and CTE, including each sub-skill followed of urban teacher and sub-urban teachers.

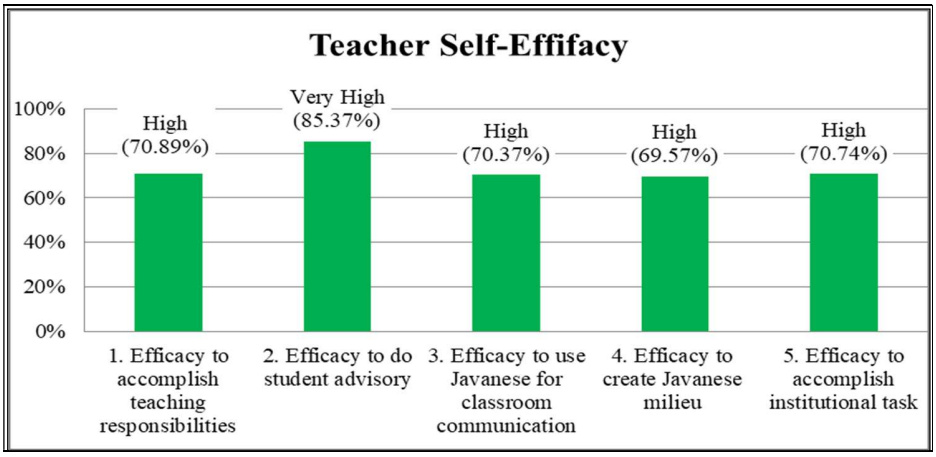

Diagram 1. TSE of Urban Teacher (N=100)

Diagram 2 indicates TSE of suburban teachers. Data show that Indonesian teacher self- and collective efficacy were in a high category based on Swanson's leveling method. There were several differences in the efficacy sub-skills portrayed by TSE and CTE.

For instance, efficacy to do student advisory showed high level in TSE (74.89%)and depicted very high level in CTE (76.21%), of which the difference was only 2%. This means that teachers were more confident to conduct student advisory when they committed to work with their colleagues at

the faculty level. Another interesting finding was that efficacy to accomplish institutional task was in a very high level for TSE (76.89%), whereas, was in a high level for CTE (66.97%) with the difference of 10%.

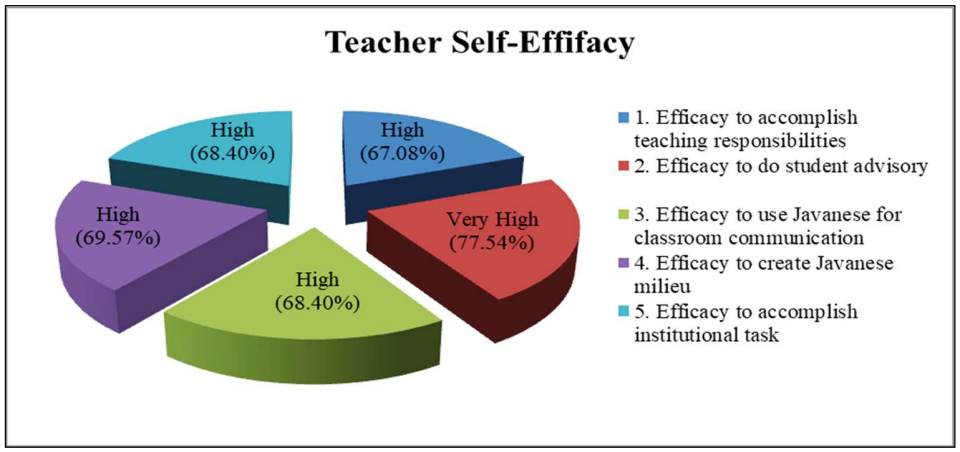

Diagram 2. TSE of Suburban Teacher (N=100)

Furthermore, the teachers conveyed good self-beliefs especially in accomplishing teaching responsibilities, performing student advisory, using Javanese for classroom communication, creating Javanese milieu, and accomplishing institutional task. Their belief was indeed very high in accomplishing their teaching responsibilities regardless coping with personal or collective matters.

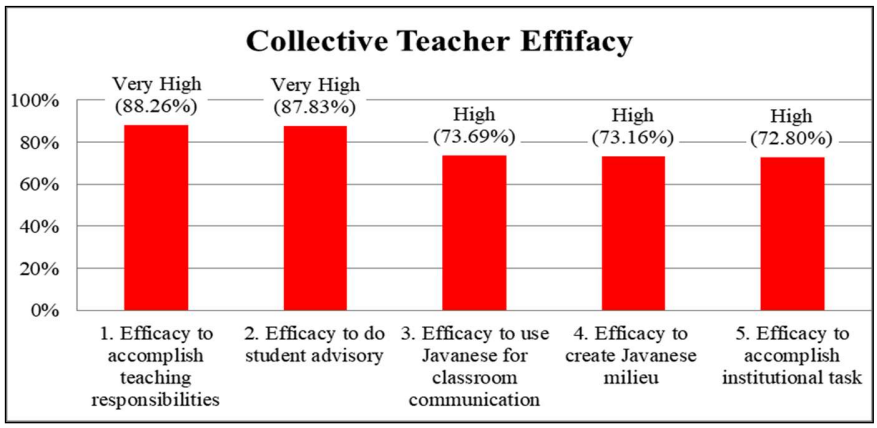

Diagram 3. CTE of Urban Teacher (N=100)

In diagram 3, we look at the CTE of urban teachers. It displays that the CTE is achieved as the following:

1). Efficacy to accomplish teaching responsibilities (88.26%)

2). Efficacy to do student advisory (87.83%)

3). Efficacy to use Javanese for classroom communication (73.69%)

4). Efficacy to create Javanese milieu (73.16%)

5). Efficacy to accomplish institutional task (72.80%).

Compared to sub-urban teachers, CTE of urban teachers is better. As indicated in diagram 4, the following is the display of CTE of the sub-urban teachers.

1). Efficacy to accomplish teaching responsibilities (77.27%)

2). Efficacy to do student advisory (78.60%)

3). Efficacy to use Javanese for classroom communication (67.61%)

4). Efficacy to create Javanese milieu (65.07%)

5). Efficacy to accomplish institutional task (66.36%).

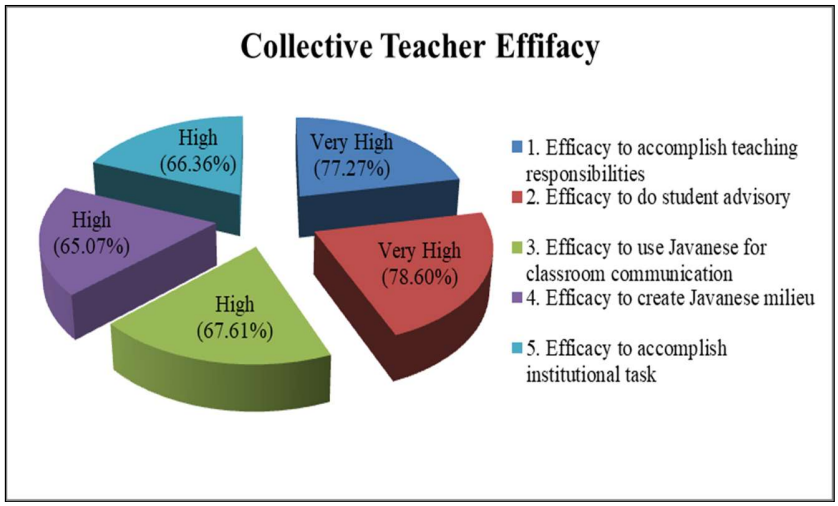

Diagram 4. CTE of Sub-urban teacher (N=100)

Results of comparison of skills and sub-skills as well as competence indicators appear in table 3 below.

Table 3

Sub-skills in teaching Javanese

No	Sub-skills	Urban	Sub-Urban
		Average	Average
1	Sub-skill 1: Accomplishing teaching responsibilities	95%	90%
2	Sub-skill 2: Conducting student advisory	88%	80%
3	Sub-skill 3: Using Javanese for Classroom Communication	92%	88%
4	Sub-skill 4: Creating Javanese Milieu	90%	90%
5	Sub-skill 5: Accomplishing institutional task	95%	90%
	Total	460	438
	Mean	92%	87.6%

As table 3 suggests, of five sub-skills Javanese teachers required, urban teachers surpass than sub-urban teachers. The average achievement of urban teachers is 92% and the sub-urban teachers are 87.6%.

The elaboration of sub-skill competence is indicated in table 4. The indicators present 10 competences each of which represents the skills in caring Javanese during teaching and in social interaction with students. Data on table 4 shows that the average competence of urban teachers is 90.2% that is very high, and the sub-urban teacher achieve 87.8% (high). This means that urban teachers are better than sub-urban teachers both on accomplishment of 5 skills competence and in its 10 indicators of teaching performance.

Table 4

Competence to accomplish teaching Javanese of urban and sub-urban teachers

No	Indicators of sub-skills		Urban	Sub-Urban
			Average	Average
1	Personal characteristics		92%	90%
2	Perceived IT competency		90%	88%
3	Teaching motivation		95%	90%
4	Awareness to use media		88%	80%
5	Perceived IT competency		85%	80%
6	Awareness to serve personal guidance		90%	90%
7	Mastery experience		90%%	92%
8	Vicarious experience		90%	90%
9	Verbal persuasion		95%	90%
10	Emotional state		87%	88%
		Total	902	878
		Mean	90.2%	87.8%

Hypothesis Testing

The Difference between Indonesian Urban and Suburban Teacher Self-and Collective Efficacy in Teaching Javanese

Henceforth, this study could proceed to conduct MANOVA analysis. The analysis results showed that there was a significant difference between urban and suburban teachers on the administered dependent variables named TSE and CTE, F (1, 197) = 77.275, p = .000; Pillai's Trace = .000; η_p^2 = .440. Since the partial eta squared showed .440, there was a large difference (Pallant, 2010:210). Meaning that, the urban teachers showed higher confident in accomplishing teaching responsibilities than the suburban teachers. When the results for the dependent variables were considered separately, both TSE, F (1, 198) = 147.874, p = .000, η_p^2 = .428, and CTE, F (1, 198)

= 148.745, p =.000, η_p^2= .429, contributed to reach statistical difference, using Benferonni adjusted α value of .025.

Further inspection of the mean scores indicated that urban teachers perceived higher TSE (M = 75.048, SD = 9.163) than suburban teachers (M = 54.88, SD = 14.01). Moreover, urban teachers also perceived higher CTE (M = 74.98, SD = 9.07) than suburban teachers (M= 53.91, SD = 14.918). In regard to Swanson's level, urban teacher self- and collective efficacy was in the highest quartile, or known as a very high efficacy level, with percentage values of 83.38% and 83.30% respectively. However, the suburban teachers were in the third quartile known as a high efficacy level with percentage values of 60.97% for TSE and 59.89% for CTE. The statistical data of the mean scores also proved that urban teachers showed higher TSE and CTE in teaching Javanese. In other words, they had better self- and collective belief regarding to accomplishing their responsibilities.

The Predictive Sources of Information in Affecting Indonesian Teacher Self- and Collective Efficacy in Teaching Javanese

In accordance with Table 5, teaching motivation became the most predictive source of information in affecting the teacher self-efficacy (β = .241). It also became the most predictive source of information for TSE eventhough the four Bandura's (1997) sources of information had been included as a control. Similar phenomena occurred in the administered five TSE sub-skills in which teaching motivation became the most predictive source ($\beta_{\text{sub-skill 1}}$ = .205, $\beta_{\text{sub-skill 2}}$ = .204, $\beta_{\text{sub-skill 3}}$ = .256, $\beta_{\text{sub-skill 4}}$ = .225, $\beta_{\text{sub-skill 5}}$ = .236). Moreover, the source showed significance for sub-skill 3 and 5 ($p < .005$). Another important result was the fact that mastery experience, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, and emotional state only conveyed small contributions of 1.7% to the formation of Indonesian Javanese teacher self-efficacy. Meaning, eventhough the inspection was conducted for each TSE sub-skill, the four Bandura's source of information still did not show significant changes to predict the formation of TSE. At last, Table 5 implies that teaching motivation became the most predictive source of information, then respectively followed by perceived IT competency, emotional state, personal characteristics, vicarious experience, mastery experience, and verbal persuasion.

Table 5
Results of Hierarchical Multiple Regression for TSE

Dependent Variables	Model	R^2	Change Statistics		B
			ΔR^2	F Change	
Accomplishing	1	.172	.172	13.571*	
teaching responsibilities	- Personal characteristics				.166
	- Perceived IT				.096
(Sub-skill 1)	competency				.225
	- Teaching motivation	.193	.021	1.235	
	2				.190
	- Personal characteristics				.101
	- Perceived IT				.205
	competency				.065
	- Teaching motivation				-.085
	- Mastery experience				.023
	- Vicarious experience				-.132
	- Verbal persuasion				
	- Emotional state				
Conducting student advisory	1	.147	.147	11.247*	
	- Personal characteristics				.071
(Sub-skill 2)	- Perceived IT				.135
	competency				.236
	- Teaching motivation	.160	.013	.750	
	2				.074
	- Personal characteristics				.123
	- Perceived IT				.204
	competency				.071
	- Teaching motivation				-.054
	- Mastery experience				.057
	- Vicarious experience				-.098
	- Verbal persuasion				
	- Emotional state				
Using Javanese for Classroom	1	.180	.180	14.331*	
Communication	- Personal characteristics				.037
	- Perceived IT				.171
(Sub-skill 3)	competency				.273
	- Teaching motivation	.201	.021	1.255	
	2				.068
	- Personal characteristics				.183
	- Perceived IT competency				.256*
	- Teaching motivation				.087
	- Mastery experience				-.113
	- Vicarious experience				.005
	- Verbal persuasion				-.117
	- Emotional state				
Creating Javanese Milieu	1	.125	.125	9.308	
	- Personal characteristics				.015
(Sub-skill 4)	- Perceived IT competency				.141
	- Teaching motivation				.240
	2	.135	.011	.584	
	- Personal characteristics				.037

Dependent Variables	Model	R^2	Change Statistics		B
			ΔR^2	F Change	
	- Perceived IT competency				.152
	- Teaching motivation				.225
	- Mastery experience				.074
	- Vicarious experience				-.110

In coping with the first question related to the profiles of Javanese teacher self- and collective efficacy, the findings suggest that Javanese teachers in Indonesia have already perceived high TSE and CTE. Meaning that, they are confidently able to accomplish their teaching responsibilities. Skaalvik & Skaalvik (2017) confirm that teachers with high level of self-belief will see the responsibilities as challenges, not as fear arousals. By interconnecting the assertion with the findings here, Indonesian Javanese teachers are supposed to get every single job done because they see the tasks as challenges, not as threats. Kurz & Knight (2004) convey that teachers with high TSE and CTE might perceive a positive mindset and motivation in regard to achieving a better accomplishment or performance (Kurz & Knight, 2004). Efficacy and motivation cannot be separated due to the tight bond between them (Dybowski, Sehner & Harendza, 2017; Jungert, 2009); the higher one's motivation, the higher the efficacy. Accordingly, if teachers with high TSE and CTE are put in a particular circumstance of a working suppression, they could feel motivated and confident to complete the works regardless the task types assigned. Therefore, high TSE and CTE always benefit Indonesian Javanese teachers in dealing with Javanese teaching responsibility. Furthermore, the findings of the present study show that there is a significant with large difference between urban and suburban teacher self- and collective efficacy. The difference of teacher efficacy level can be caused by the condition of the school areas. For instance, urban schools are located in the city center with all accessible supporting facilities such as private courses, extracurricular communities, and vice versa (Goddard & Goddard, 2001; OECD, 2013). Moreover, the teachers who teach urban students tend to have a high demand given by parents to provide better learning experience (ACDP, 2014). Consequently, the teachers are obligatory to provide more innovative learning process and more conducive learning atmosphere compared to those of suburban (Kaikai & Barker, 2016). In addition, the societies surrounding the school might have certain influence how the school determines regulation for the whole members, including but not limited to their teachers. In other words, there is a social influence affecting the formation of

teacher efficacy (Yulia, 2013). Therefore, those factors might be considered influential in determining the level of teacher efficacy, i.e. TSE and CTE.

At last, there are seven sources of information used in the present study; mastery experience, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, emotional state, personality characteristics, perceived IT competence, teaching motivation (Gibson & Dembo, 1984; Bandura, 2006; Bandura, 1997; Johnson, 2017; Oh, 2011; Lailiyah & Cahyono, 2017). Among others, teaching motivation becomes the most predictive source in affecting Indonesian teacher self- and collective efficacy in Javanese teaching. The findings suggest that teacher's teaching motivation most influences the level of teacher efficacy; the higher their teaching motivation, the higher the efficacy. Dybowski *et al* (2017) convey that motivation and efficacy are both interconnected yet influential between one another. Higher teaching motivation triggers teacher's confidence and belief in executing all responsibilities so that the teacher could attain better teaching performance.

Conclusion

This study concludes that Indonesian teacher self- and collective efficacy in teaching Javanese are considered high to slightly very high. There is a significantly large different between TSE and CTE perceived by urban and suburban teachers. Besides, their high efficacy level is conceived as they perceive high teaching motivation as one of their main responsibilities. Such findings could be the fact that Javanese teachers are still motivated to teach and promote Javanese even if their students are comprised into the hype of mastering international language. Moreover, even if burden of mastering foreign language is also addressed to Javanese teachers for the sake of professional development, these teachers seemed to face that as challenges, not as threats. This present study has portrayed that Javanese teachers still fight for preserving the local languages as well as conducting their professional duties. Thus, this study suggest that the results of this study might become a concern for those in charge in creating teacher training program to develop appropriate development program for Javanese teachers. Moreover, this study invites further research to look for the efficacy level of teachers who teach native languages in different regions.

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