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EDITOR'S NOTE



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

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

August 2012 is very important moment. Not only Moslems in Indonesia and in the world is fasting but also in this month, Indonesian people celebrate the 67th Indonesia Independence Day, exactly on 17 August 2012. We should thank our Almighty, Allah SWT, for all His bless to all Moslems in Indonesia.

For UMP (Muhammadiyah University of Purwokerto) – as one of the Islamic private higher education institutions in Central Java, Indonesia – in this August, EDUCARE journal was firstly published on 17 August 2008. It is not felt that the international journal concerning about education studies has been in the 5th year. We should thank for the success of on-time, continual journal publication presenting the study findings and ideas about quality education from various countries.

As I frequently say, publishing a scientific journal is not an easy matter. There are at least three important requirements, such as: (1) the availability of quality writings; (2) the availability of fund for the publication; and (3) the availability of human resources as driving force to make this journal published on-time, continually, and has a good quality. The last requirement is very important and needed by a dilligent, careful, spirited, hard working person who are competent in his field.

Actually, UMP in Purwokerto, Central Java, Indonesia has to learn much about scientific journal publication management. Therefore, I myself, as a Rector of UMP, welcome well the cooperation with ASPENSI (Association of Indonesian Scholars of History Education) in Bandung to publish scientific journal. I think this cooperation will be beneficial for both parties, so that such three requirements for the success of scientific journal publication can be performed well. Insya Allah, the cooperation of this scientific journal publication can be continued in the future.

As a Rector of UMP, I thank and highly appreciate, especially to the writers who are able and willing to contribute their quality writings to the EDUCARE journal. These writers come from various countries and, surely, it is in line with my wish that EDUCARE can be international journal. Without the writings from various countrious around the world, EDUCARE may only be a local or national journal which speaks in international language.

It is true Ditjendikti Kemdikbud RI (Directorate-General of Higher Education, Ministry of Education and Culture of the Republic of Indonesia) states that this scientific journal publication should be done by proffesional organization, then, it should be cooperated with Higher Education Institution, either Study Program, Faculty, or University. The publication of EDUCARE journal, therefore, has been in the right way. Our next challenge is how to make this EDUCARE become familiar journal and be reference for academic communities, either nationally or internationally. It is not easy and needs harder effort in the future.

I finally agree with opinion of Prof. Dr. Abu Bakar Nordin of UM (University of Malaya) in Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia – as quoted in this journal – that democratization of education implied that all children of school age should have the right to be in schools and also have the right to be assisted to achieve as much as what their cohorts have achieved or what has been specified by the curriculum. Education, in other words, is driving force for Indonesia and other countries around the world to be modern and civilized nation-states.

*However, the strong will and hard working has still been being done. Only to Allah SWT we surrender and trust. 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.*

BULLYING AS GENDERED VIOLENCE: GIRLS TALK OF THEIR CLASSROOM EXPERIENCES WITHIN A HETEROGENEOUS CLASSROOM

CHINEDU I.O. OKEKE

ABSTRACT: *Bullying is a global phenomenon with devastating consequences for the victims, their families, and the societies at large. Bullying is a serious social ill; a lived experience capable of turning individuals within a given society into social misfits with long-term implications. This paper reflects on the account of the stories by some Nigerian school girls of their classroom experiences in a heterogeneous school setting. Aspects of the deliberations from among the 25 girls (and 25 boys as well) who took part in the study are employed in this paper to interrogate how gendered bullying played into the girls' perceptions of their classroom. Results from the study show that within co-educational classroom, girls are more likely to be bully-victims than boys. Results also revealed that boys are more likely to be perpetrators of bullying than girls in a mixed-sex classroom. Bullying as lived experience, therefore, emerges in the study as a form of belligerent masculinity; and is germane to the understanding of the girl participants' submissive posture as they struggled for space and identity within the classroom in complex and subtle ways. The implications of this for co-education and co-educational policy-making are highlighted and recommendations for changes in policy and practice are equally suggested.*

KEY WORDS: *Schooling, classroom bullying, girls' participation, gender, Nigerian school girls, and co-education and co-educational policy-making.*

INTRODUCTION

"Boys like to make noise round the class commanding us all the time. We are tired of having them around us" (Nneka).

Little did he know the concept would generate such an enormous concern and attention from researchers the world over when in the late 1970s and early 1980s, Dan Olweus in Sweden pioneered his research on school bullying and the aggression (Rigby, 1999; Olweus, 2001; Roland, 2002; Olweus, 2003; Young & Sweeting, 2004; and Olweus, 2005). Today, research on school bullying has become the focus of many psycho-behavioural, sociological, as well as health researchers in many parts of the world (Mazza & Overstreet, 2000; Hasting & Bham, 2003; Delfabbro *et al.*, 2006; Egbochuku, 2007; Solberg, Olweus & Endresen, 2007; and Crews, Crews & Turner, 2008). Bullying has been conceptualized by most of these authors to

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involve aggressive behaviours against another (or others) who would have run out of favour in the psyche of the perpetrator(s). According to P. Delfabbro *et al.* (2006:72), “*such aggression need not be physical, and can include a variety of non-physical forms such as emotional and verbal abuse, threats, as well as exclusion in which a person directly, or indirectly, ostracizes another person from a social group*”.

Bullying as a phenomenon has been defined variously in literature. According to B.A. Omoteso (2010:498), “*a wide range of physical or verbal behaviours of an aggressive or antisocial nature are encompassed by the term bullying ... These physical actions can take the forms of physical contact, verbal abuse or making faces and rude gestures*”. Bullying is intentional act (Nickel *et al.*, 2005); an exposure to repeated negative actions by a child from other child or children (Balogun, Olapegba & Opayemi, 2006); interaction in which a dominant individual repeatedly exhibits aggressive behaviour intended to cause distress to less dominant individual (Maliki, Asagwara & Ibu, 2009); and as an action intentionally inflicted on someone to cause injury, fear or distress (Kenny, McEachern & Aluede, 2005).

E.O. Egbochuku (2007) has defined bullying as peer aggressive behaviours encompassed in the acts of kicking, hitting, extortion of money by a child or a group from other(s), locking another inside a room, verbal threats as well as teasing. A number of other studies have defined bullying as a form of school violence (Lowry *et al.*, 1999; Farrell, Meyer & White, 2001; Karcher, 2002; Flouri & Buchanan, 2003; Hasting & Bham, 2003; and Aluede, 2004). Thus, whatever forms bullying takes within or outside of the schools, M.C. Kenny, A.G. McEachern and O. Aluede (2005:13) note “*the goal of bullying is generally to cause distress in some manner and it usually takes place among children who are not friends*”.

However, studies have shown that differences exist on how both teachers and pupils perceive as well as define the concept of bullying within the school system (Naylor *et al.*, 2001). Research also suggest that the differences in the definition appear to be informed by the impact of bullying behaviours on victims, as well as by who is at the receiving end (Mazza & Overstreet, 2000; Lewis, 2001; Naylor *et al.*, 2001; and Karcher, 2002).

In their study on teachers’ and pupils’ definitions of bullying, P. Naylor *et al.* (2001) adopted two separate open-ended questionnaire instruments to account for any differences on the responses from 225 teachers and 1,820 pupils in fifty-one UK (United Kingdom) secondary schools. P. Naylor *et al.* (2001:557) compared “*teachers’ and pupils’ definitions of bullying ... regarding whether or not for the bully’s behaviour, the ideas of power imbalance, physical abuse, verbal abuse, social exclusion, repetition and intention to cause harm have been invoked*”. They found out that pupil-victims of bullying behaviour have lesser understanding and definitional representation of the act, “*to the extent that pupils may not always realize that they are being bullied*” (Naylor *et al.*, 2001:573). Other studies have also noted these differences in the perceptions of bullying amongst teachers and students while cautioning on the implications of such differences for teaching-learning, policy-making, and for parents themselves (Olweus, 2001; Karatzias, Power & Swanson, 2002; Yoon & Kerber, 2003; Lawrence & Green, 2005; and Georgiou, 2008).

According to M.E. Solberg, D. Olweus and I.M. Endresen (2007:443), “*a bullying relation is characterized by the fact that one or more individuals repeatedly direct negative and hurtful actions on individual who has difficulty defending himself or herself*”. Research has shown bullying behaviours to be copious and multi-faceted (Rigby, 1999; 2000; and 2002; Yoon & Kerber, 2003; Smith *et al.*, 2004; and Young & Sweeting, 2004). These include physical and non-physical, as well as verbal and non-verbal behaviours, however, the connecting “*identifying criteria of the term ‘bullying’ are that the negative behaviour is intentional and repeated over time to some extent*” (Solberg, Olweus & Endresen, 2007:443).

Thus far, various typologies of bullying behaviours found within literature, include physical aggression such as hitting, kicking or punching, *name-calling and threats* (Newman, Murray & Lussier, 2001; Lawrence & Green, 2005; Olweus, 2005; and Delfabbro *et al.*, 2006); and *social exclusion* (Hanish & Guerra, 2000; Naylor *et al.*, 2001; and Flouri & Buchanan, 2003). Other types of bullying behaviours include *the use of force against another* (Lowry *et al.*, 1999; Smith, Shu & Madsen, 2001; Fox & Boulton, 2005; and Galand, Lecocq & Philippot, 2007); and *the intention to cause harm* (Baldry & Farrington, 2000; Andreou, 2001; Tolan & Guerra, 2002; and Baldry, 2004).

SOME FACTORS THAT CAN CAUSE BULLYING

Many studies have attempted to provide some explanations as to the possible causes of bullying amongst children, and most of these studies have linked bullying experiences to the families and precisely to parents (Baldry & Farrington, 2000; Hunter, Boyle & Warden, 2007; and Georgiou, 2008). How is it that some children are socialized into bullies?

S.N. Georgiou (2008:109) provides an explanation by noting “*children learn to be aggressive towards others ... by watching the daily interactions of their family members*”. The basic mode of learning, especially for the child, is through imitation whereby the child simply learns by looking at what other members of his/her immediate family environment may be doing. Thus, in the home where both parents usually quarrel and fight before their child, such home would eventually assist the child into socializing such social ills as quarrelling and fighting as normal, and may carry such habits into various fields as the school and classroom environment (Andreou, 2001 and 2004; Dill *et al.*, 2004; and Fox & Boulton, 2005).

Specifically, S.N. Georgiou (2008) notes some specific parental practices, which correlate school and childhood bullying. Studying two hundred and fifty-two, 4th, 5th and 6th grade elementary school Greek-Cypriot children and their mothers in ten schools; S.N. Georgiou (2008) used also four different set of scales to test the relevance of a theoretical model describing the family parameters of bullying and victimization. The study revealed that maternal responsiveness was positively related to the child’s adjustment at school (i.e. achievement and social adaptation), while the same factor was negatively related to school aggression (bullying and disruptive behaviour). Other studies, which have notably contributed

to the increasingly growing international literature on the link between family characteristics and bullying/aggressive behaviours, include that of W. Craig, R. Peters and R. Konarski (1998), which note that specific parenting style as well as some types of family management patterns or practices can indirectly impact on bullying behaviours amongst children from within such homes.

Moreover, I. Connolly and M. O'Moore (2003) have listed some family factors contributory to bullying behaviour in children. They include over-protection of children by parents, absence of fathers in the home, incidence of depression in parents, especially mothers, as well as domestic violence where children are onlookers (Baldry & Farrington, 2000; Flouri & Buchanan, 2003; Ellis & Shute, 2007; and Crews, Crews & Turner, 2008). Away from the family, studies have shown that bullying at school may result through frustration caused by lack of success at school among perpetrators (Maliki, Asagwara & Ibu, 2009). Specifically, bullying may result because some children "*may try to control someone else to get some relief from their own feelings of powerlessness*" (Maliki, Asagwara & Ibu, 2009:210).

CONSEQUENCES OF PEER BULLYING

Numerous studies have equally noted that bullying behaviours result in very many psychosocial, physiological, as well as medical consequences for both bullies and their victims; for families and the larger society (Andreou, 2001; Bond *et al.*, 2001; Farrell, Meyer & White, 2001; Karcher, 2002; Connolly & O'Moore, 2003; Seals & Young, 2003; Andreou, 2004; Baldry, 2004; Dill *et al.*, 2004; Fox & Boulton, 2005; and Ellis & Shute, 2007). According to P. Delfabbro *et al.* (2006:72), "*bullying has many undesirable consequences for individuals. Children who are bullied tend to have poorer self-esteem ... the effects of bullying have also been found to extend beyond psychological well-being to influence physical health*".

M.E. Solberg, D. Olweus and I.M. Endresen (2007) also note that bully-victims experience multiple personality problems. According to the authors, victims of bullying and other aggressive behaviours present very many emotional and behavioural problems, especially when in company of their peers at school or even when with their parents. The study by C.L. Fox and M.J. Boulton (2005:324) reveals that victims of peer bullying at school were generally perceived as having greater social skill problems than non-victims.

Studies have shown that the consequences of bullying extend well beyond the bullies themselves, the school community, and the society at large. B.A. Omoteso (2010:501) notes "*the findings on bullying indicated that bullying is a physically harmful, psychologically damaging, and socially isolating aspect of a large number of children's school experience*". Frustrations caused by bullying behaviours appear to play significant part to why some victims' want to take drastic life-threatening decisions as suicide (Mazza & Overstreet, 2000; Lawrence & Green, 2005; Hunter, Boyle & Warden, 2007; and Omoteso, 2010).

A.E. Maliki, C.G. Asagwara and J.F. Ibu (2009) have equally noted that bully-victims have the tendency to stop thinking about schooling and education generally.

Most importantly, “*bullying also has bad effect on the bullies themselves ... children develop behaviour pattern that endured into adult life. They were also more likely, to have criminal record than those who were not bully*” (Maliki, Asagwara & Ibu, 2009:211). This is a feeling shared by B.A. Omoteso (2010:502) when the author noted those who bully are more likely to drop out of school, use drug and alcohol, as well as engage in subsequent delinquent and criminal behaviour. It has equally been found that victims of bullying often experience anxiety and depression, low self-esteem, physical and some psychosomatic complaints (Smith *et al.*, 2004). Victims of bullying also possess very serious personality defects; such persons tend to have positive attitudes towards violence, while lacking positive concept of themselves (Andreou, 2004).

GENDERED BULLYING

Generally, research has shown that more boys than girls engage in acts of bullying; boys also engage in the use of aggressive, physical, and intimidating bullying behaviour (Bond *et al.*, 2001; Farrell *et al.*, 2001; Kenny, McEachern & Aluede, 2005; and Lawrence & Green, 2005). On the other hand, studies show that girls are less aggressive when engaged in bullying behaviour; however, they tend to use more of social exclusion, back-biting, and somewhat facial expressions against their victims irrespective of gender (Kenny, McEachern & Aluede, 2005; Balogun, Olapegba & Opayemi, 2006; and Egbochuku, 2007).

P. Delfabbro *et al.* (2006:71) reveal that girls were more likely to be subject to bullying if they attended co-educational private schools. More so, it has been revealed in a study of 49 boys and 68 girls (Baldry, 2004) that within a co-educational setting, female pupils are more readily inclined to blaming their male counterparts for the prevalence of bullying within the classroom. Gender differences also appear to be implicated in the way both boys and girls perceive bullying behaviour. In a UK (United Kingdom)-based study conducted among 466 boys and 460 girls, P. Naylor *et al.* (2001) noted the differences, which persisted in the manner both boys and girls in their study defined acts of bullying. P. Naylor *et al.* (2006:553) also reveal that girls are more likely than boys are, to mention verbal abuse and the effects on the target.

Within the societies of Nigeria, bullying as a social ill is no longer any news. Following media interests generated across the country over the years, “*schools, parents and children alike, started demanding investigations and intervention to conquer this seemingly large and serious problem*” (Egbochuku, 2007:65). Many researchers across institutions in the country began various attempts to offer better understanding of the social ill, while at the same time offering solutions as part of intervention strategies (Kenny, McEachern & Aluede, 2005; Balogun, Olapegba & Opayemi, 2006; Egbochuku, 2007; Maliki, Asagwara & Ibu, 2009; and Omoteso, 2010).

However, these attempts at understanding school bullying have only enriched our understanding in two broad contexts, which include bullies and victims. Our knowledge still appears to be limited about how say, for instance, early childhood

experiences of gendered bullying have a propensity to mediate much of later adult female somewhat submissive and suppressed posture within the patriarchal Nigerian societies. Against this background, this paper while seeking to bridge that perceived gap in research and knowledge on the gendered impact of bullying on the female later life, equally seeks to contribute to the body of international literature on discussions in this regard.

COLLECTION AND ANALYSES OF DATA

The larger qualitative study, which has influenced this paper, was aimed to investigate the gendered perception of schooling amongst some senior secondary school students in a school located within a Nigerian suburb. The larger study was anchored on the interactionist approach to research. Interactionists presume the self appears to be almost certainly shaped by influences from the outside (Stewart & O'Neill, 1999; Neumann & Dickinson, 2002; and Tepperman, 2005). A symbolic interactionist studying how gendered bullying impacts young girls' social interactions within co-educational setting would examine how the agencies of peer bullying contribute to the shaping of the self-concepts of the girls. Moreover, the interactionist would want to understand how young girls are pressurized through acts of bullying from their male classmates into accepting their subordinate and/or submissive positions as normal. The paper draws from the girls' talk of their classroom interactions with the boys to illuminate how their classroom gendered bullying experiences mediate much of the girls' later adult lives.

The study was ethnography of some fifty (50) purposively sampled senior secondary school students in a co-educational setting located within a Nigerian suburb. Around 25 of this sample were girls. Four data collecting methods were used in the main study namely: participants' observation, unstructured in-depth interviewing, focus group discussions, and the diaries. However, this article is informed by data from the participants' observation and focus group discussions. Both the analytic induction and grounded theory approach were employed in the analysis of collected data. Analytic induction represents "*a process where by the researcher attempts to develop a theory or an explanatory model that satisfactorily accounts for some phenomena ... that have assumed prominence from information obtained ... in the course of the fieldwork*" (Obikeze, 1990:76). Grounded theorizing emphasizes the generation of theory through data from empirical studies (Glaser & Strauss, 1999; Plummer, 2000; and Popenoe, 2000).

The researcher was interested in offering an explanatory model of the young adults' perception of schooling through a systematic study of their activities. Data analysis was done through an initial or preliminary analysis on a daily basis as the data rolled in. Themes and categories discovered in the body of the four data sets were used in the description of the account of the gendered perception of schooling through the main analysis. The second stage of the analysis was made through the connection of the four data sources in order to achieve the aims of triangulation. This connection was made through the metaphor of the statue and

the lenses (Wildy, 1999). The statue in the study was the “gendered perception of schooling” and the “four data sets” were the lenses through which the influence of gender on how the participants perceived schooling and other classroom experiences were explored.

RESULTS

First, Bullying Behaviour Found in the Data on Coercive Front-Row Seating Position for the Girls in the Classroom. It was observed that the girls in the study occupied the front rows, while the boys were usually permanently seated behind them with the “big boys” taking the last back rows while in their classroom. Though this appeared to be the general practice in the school, e.g. on the assembly ground as was the case in the rest of the classes, but the arrangement was not official as was later discovered.

This issue was taken up during the focus group discussions, and the girls revealed that a major reason why they were seated in front rows was because they were responsible for wiping the chalkboard; “boys were not supposed to do certain duties when the girls are around” (according to one of the girls). For example:

Researcher: “But why should girls alone wipe the chalkboard?”

Ann: “Boys do not like wiping the board”.

Chioma: “Yes it is true. They think they are not supposed to wipe the board when the girls are around. The boys think girls must serve the boys in class”.

Nneka: “Yes it is true!”

John (boy): “Boys are not supposed to do certain work when the girls are there to do it”.

Joy: “If we girls refuse to wipe the board, it is problem for us; sometimes they seize our bags after school”.

Within the above statements, there were deliberate attempts to define roles, duties, and responsibilities in prescriptive tones, albeit coercively, as was evidenced in Joy’s statement. Gender as well as force was invoked as a major determinant of classroom responsibilities. Not surprising of course, within the Nigerian traditional societies, domestic duties were defined along gender lines; such practices it would then seem had forcibly permeated classroom relations for the boys and girls in the study.

It appeared, therefore, that the traditional vocabularies, that were employed by the girls and boys in the study, were manifestations of the prescriptive gender informed domestic roles found within the larger societies of Nigeria. In line with this, therefore, gender informed what were supposed to be proper boys and girls duties. This is consistent with O. Parry (1996) who in her study found that there was gendered differences within heterogeneous classrooms, and maintained that male responses to classroom activities were influenced by the presence of the girls. Within this context, allowing boys to wipe the chalkboard amounted to a violation of the traditional ideal type; a risk the girls were not prepared for, knowing the consequences were painful.

Thus, fears that the boys might attack them, rather than willingness and acceptance of such gender-typicalness of duties, informed the girls' submissive approach to classroom responsibilities. Within such classroom climate where the girls always and necessarily felt intimidated by the boys, most often unprotected, it was possible for the girls to be bullied into subordination. However, one justification for co-educational arrangement appears to be that both boys and girls would experience education jointly hoping that this would enhance effective learning. The observed situation, in which the boys wittingly separated themselves from the girls while they (the boys) defined what proper girl duties were, raises some concerns for co-educational arrangements.

Evidences from the focus group discussion data revealed that schooling for the girls in the study was an experience marred by fear, unhappiness, lack of confidence, low self-esteem, and defeatist tendencies to classroom activities. This finding is consistent with that of B.A. Omoteso (2010:507) which noted "*these unhappy students could be those that were bullied ... other consequences exhibited by the students were fear, loneliness, depression and lack of confidence*".

Second, Evidence of Threat and Intimidation in Classroom Interactions.

Again backed by observations, it was noted that boys in the study were not very participatory in formal discussions during lessons with their teachers like the girls. During the focus group discussions, it was noticed by this researcher that the boys were not fully participating in classroom discussions except when their "authority" positions were challenged by the kind of statements the girls made. In such case, the boys became very vocal and somehow threatening. For instance, when the researcher asked why the boys were not contributing during the discussions, boys in the focus group were not happy with the girls' explanation that they (the boys) were not talking because of not being sure of what to say. For instance:

Researcher: "*But why are the boys not talking?*"

Helen: "*Because they don't know what to say*".

Obi: "*Shut up your mouth, you are lying*".

John: "*Don't mind her until after school, continue talking rubbish. Who told you we don't know what to say? Fool!*"

This revelation was in consonance with that made by R.K. Shelly (1996) which revealed that differential gendered interaction becomes possible when gender is activated such as the case with heterogeneous task group (for instance such taking place within co-educational institutions). As the author puts it, "*males and females in task groups will exhibit such interaction patterns differentially only in heterogeneous groups*" (Shelly, 1996:56). Similarly, the revelation was also consistent with that of N.H. Wolfinger and J. Rabow (1997) which noted differences in the speech and conversational patterns of both males and females, and agreed that men and women speak differentially. According to N.H. Wolfinger and J. Rabow (1997:59), "*these differences pervade speech to the extent that gender is recognizable in short, context-free segments of transcribed talk These findings provide new insight into the role of gender in conversation: gender is part of listening as well as talking*".

Another case in point was when the issue of classroom compartment was raised by this researcher during the group discussions. The girls in the focus group noted that boys always wanted to be noticed. The girls also believed that it was in the nature of the boys to show-off always, and did not think they needed them around anymore. According to one of the girls in the study, "*Boys like to make noise round the class commanding us all the time. We are tired of having them around us*" (Nneka).

It must be noted that bullying has been defined as interaction in which a dominant individual or group of individuals repeatedly exhibit aggressive behaviour intended to cause distress to less dominant individual (Maliki, Asagwara & Ibu, 2009). Bullying behaviour has equally been explained as an action, which is intended to cause fear or distress on the victims (Kenny, McEachern & Aluede, 2005), as exemplified in John's reaction above.

Thus, it would therefore seem to suggest, as evidenced in the data from observations and the group discussions, that the girls' classroom experiences in the hands of the boys were akin to gendered violence. This revelation is supported by that made by M.C. Kenny, A.G. McEachern and O. Aluede (2005) which noted that bullying occurs mainly among children who are no longer friends within such settings as the school.

DISCUSSION

The findings of the present study and findings from previous studies have confirmed that bullying amongst pupils and students in schools in Nigeria is a very serious act of violence against the victims. This article intends to enrich our understanding of the form of bullying, which appears to coercively socialize girls and females into subordinate, second class individual only good at serving the boys and men. While previous studies, for example by E. Andreou (2001); S.K. Balogun, P.O. Olapegba and A.S. Opayemi (2006); E.O. Egbochuku (2007); and B.A. Omoteso (2010) have emphasized the magnitude of bullying occurrences among boys and girls, and as well as on who among the two groups are most bullied; the present article highlights the almost, always neglected effects of excessive classroom bullying, and other machismo elements on the overall later socialization of the girls in my study.

The evidence from the present study appears to suggest that in term of the aftermath of bullying, girls appear to be mostly affected. Therefore, schooling experiences for the girls in my study were that of pains, unfriendliness, aggression, victimization, stress, depression as well as disinterestedness.

The revelations of the present study indicate that bullying is part of the everyday experiences of students in a heterogeneous setting; such experiences are equally gendered. For instance, girls in the study expressed the difficulties they faced in the hands of their male classmates, as well as the readiness to be separated from the boys. The study revealed that within heterogeneous setting, girls are more likely to be bullied than their male counterpart; a finding, which contradicts the finding of E. Andreou (2001); E.O. Egbochuku (2007); and B.A. Omoteso (2010:506)

which noted that female students were more involved in bullying than their male counterparts.

The girls in the present study were most certainly forcibly socialized into accepting the second class/subordinate positions, *first*, in the classroom, and during routine manual labour as weaker sex; and *second*, consequently, within the larger society. This revelation may partly explain why Nigerian girls and women, appear to be excessively subordinated by their male counterparts in public places as well as offices. The situation in which the girl-child while within co-educational setting is socialized into accepting the position of the weaker, perhaps through experiential bullying, and other coercive mechanisms appear to inform the perceived general lack of self-belief among some Nigerian girls, and women. It is argued by this author that such society is in great danger, where girls and women lack self-belief and confidence. Bullying is a very arduous challenge of the twenty-first century societies.

CONCLUSION

Bullying is a global phenomenon with devastating consequences for the victims, their families, and the societies at large. Bullying is a serious social ill; a lived experience capable of turning individuals within a given society into social misfits with long-term implications. As a result the challenges, which accompany acts of bullying, require concerted efforts and decisive actions from individual families, schools, clinical counseling psychologists, policy-makers, and the government if these challenges are to be dealt with. A tripartite intervention approach to tackling bullying problems has been recommended by this author.

By this, therefore, the home, school, and the government must work together in order to find solution to this problem. The government must give necessary assistance to schools to enable them establish specialized counseling and advice centres/units within the schools, to deal with both bullies and victims. These centres must on the hand, ensure that appropriate intervention programmes are put in place to support both bullies and their victims. Finally, every parent is equally challenged to model appropriate behaviour at home as children learn from their parents and other family members.

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Picture of Nigerian School Girls
(Source: www.google.com, 3/7/2012)

Within the societies of Nigeria, bullying as a social ill is no longer any news. Following media interests generated across the country over the years, *“schools, parents and children alike, started demanding investigations and intervention to conquer this seemingly large and serious problem”*.

THE INVOLVEMENT OF GRADUATES YOUTH IN COMMERCIAL AGRICULTURE: ISSUES AND CHALLENGES

NORHASNI ZAINAL ABIDDIN & SYAMSUHADI IRSYAD

ABSTRACT: *Recently, involvement and sound achievements of today's generation of youth in the commercial agricultural sector are increasingly strong and on the increase, even though the percentage is still very small. Thus, this article is aimed to examine the key factors that drive the youth to venture into commercial agriculture; graduates' perceptions towards commercial agriculture; the contributing factors and why many young people refuse to venture into commercial agriculture; and trainings and skills needed as well as personal attributes of successful commercial agricultural entrepreneurs. This is a qualitative study with in-depth-interviews of five respondents among youth graduates. Results of this study have answered all of the research questions as well as identified a new finding which is the roles of informal mentor in helping the respondents to successfully venture into agriculture commercially. Respondents participated in virtual mentoring for direct access of information from the informal mentors who supervised and assisted them in starting up their first ground of commercial agriculture and throughout their success. Finally, based on the interviews, conclusion can be made that changes in time, respect, comprehensive supports, and incentives offered by the government agencies are vital in motivating young farmers to be successful agricultural entrepreneurs.*

KEY WORDS: *Youth generation in Malaysia, mentor, mentoring, agriculture, graduate students, entrepreneur, and business.*

INTRODUCTION

Commercial agricultural sector in Malaysia until these days is still lack of young people, especially educated youth and university graduates. This young workforce is needed by the Malaysian government in the process of improving the agricultural industry, modernizing agro-based industries, and developing skilled workers of the commercial agricultural sectors. Hence, graduates youth who decided to venture into commercial agriculture can be considered as special and commendable.

There are many factors that drive the youth conscious decision to venture into agriculture and what is certain, today's generation of youth with diplomas and degrees in other fields began to realize that the mentality of professional careers

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as the main wage earner must be left behind. In line with the government serious commitment to attract the graduates to become agricultural entrepreneurs; and, so, this study has approached successful graduates agricultural entrepreneurs to share their insights and experiences in the field of commercial agriculture and to get valuable inputs to be used as examples by the next generation of agricultural youth, as well as for those who are still thinking to venture into commercial agriculture and also for the stakeholders.

This article summarises the results of a research project which tried to answer the following questions: (1) What are the driving forces that influenced the respondents' decision in venturing into commercial agriculture?; (2) What are respondents' perceptions towards commercial agriculture?; (3) What are the contributing and rejecting factors of youth involvement in the commercial agriculture?; (4) What types of training and skills needed?; and (5) What are personal attributes of successful commercial agricultural entrepreneurs?

YOUTH AND AGRICULTURE IN MALAYSIA

A survey conducted by the Ministry of Higher Education in Malaysia showed that of 22,016 working graduates under reviewed, only 2.8% is self-employed. Similarly, only 1.4% of 11,313 of diploma holders are self-employed (FAMA-LP3, 2007a). In an effort to promote entrepreneurship in higher education, entrepreneurship courses are offered by universities, polytechnics, and community colleges across the country. The courses are aimed to cultivate business theories and good entrepreneurship values in students, as well as to develop knowledgeable and capable graduates in terms of technology.

Based on the definition of youth by the Ministry of Youth and Sports that "youth" refers to those aged between 15 and 40 years old, based on a number of reasons made by the Malaysian Youth Council (KBS, 1995). They are deemed to have matured and able to think positively. Entrepreneurs are defined as those who take risks, opportunities, and, above all, are innovative. Agriculture is a very broad field which includes efforts of farming, planting, fisheries, and downstream agro-based or agro-processing industries. Commercial agriculture refers to farming activities which are undertaken in the form of plantation productivity on a large scale, the total cultivated land area is large, viable and developed with potential crops for sale which ensure profitable income and value added to the land used for commercial returns.

The government hopes to attract many young people into the sector, and to produce full-time young farmers and successful agricultural entrepreneurs. At present, there are successful young agricultural entrepreneurs to prove that agriculture is a profitable business, but the number or percentage involved in this area is still too small (Aidit & Husnizam, 2005). Thus, there are young farmers who gave up half way due to certain constraints and some agro-based agencies provide only short term formal assistance. The key points to be successful agriculture

entrepreneurs are initiatives and mental strength in facing the challenges of the business as well as personal strength.

PERSONAL TRAITS NEEDED TO BECOME SUCCESSFUL ENTREPRENEURS

According to J.L. Glick-Smith (2008), there are 12 main characteristics or traits required for those who want to succeed in their own business, they are as follow: (1) Good health; (2) Comfortable with the environment where they have the maximum authority and responsibility, as they do not work well in traditional structured organisation; (3) Highly self-confidence; (4) High energy level and never ending of sense of urgency or impatient to do or to complete something; (5) Comprehensive awareness; (6) Realistic outlook; (7) Having superior conceptual abilities; (8) Low need for status; (9) Objective approach; (10) Emotional stability; (11) Attraction to challenges; and (12) Describe situations by numbers.

A. Chuck and S. DeFiore (2008) laid out certain traits that make a person succeed in their business. The traits need to be first evaluated before one decides to launch into one's own business. According to A. Chuck and S. DeFiore (2008), a successful entrepreneur: (1) is a goal setter who continuously develops new goals and works to achieve them; (2) knows his own strengths and weaknesses; (3) knows how to maximise opportunities; (4) knows the business inside out and understands the competitions/competitors ; (5) knows how to effectively manage the budgets and finances; (6) strives for excellence; (7) enjoys the business; (8) has high determination and work hard; and (9) gets help when necessary and he knows where and when to get help.

A research conducted by D. Gray (2008), on successful businessmen, had indentified the common traits of successful entrepreneurs, they are: individualistic, optimistic, and possess high capabilities in problem solving. D. Gray (2008) added that successful entrepreneurs should have special traits as follow:

First, Tenacity and orientation drive. This means that entrepreneurs need to set clear goals and continuously evaluate the goals and change the goals based on personal interest, talents, and business needs. A successful entrepreneur will always work on new goals to challenge himself and his business.

Second, the Ability to sustain the business. Successful entrepreneurs are not afraid of failure and learn from the failure to rebuild.

Third, Risks taker. They are able to indentify risks and able to make good judgement of the risks. Successful entrepreneurs enjoy the risks in order to achieve their goals realistically. But the degree of risk taking is varies and based on the areas of businesses.

Fourth, Independent and posses the overpowering need to achieve. Many businessmen have the ability to lead and always want to be in control. As leaders, they are highly disciplined as well as proactive in managing their own activities towards the successful path. They maintain good contacts and extending certain relationships in the hope to get lots of information in problem solving.

Fifth, Posses the ability to get things done. Successful entrepreneurs possess the ability of self-control especially in handling problems, failures, and uncertainties. They also have the common sense of accepting failures and problems as parts and parcels of the business.

Sixth, Possess the ability to implement ideas creatively. As they are persistent and hardworking, they eventually become innovative. They have creative thinking ability as well as unique insight and always able get things done in a different way or find different approach for certain things.

Seventh, Goal setting. Successful entrepreneurs set their own goals and mission which motivate them into the business. They know that their actions lead to certain outcome. Their missions need to be profitable, and their products or services are unique.

According to D. Tucker (2008), successful entrepreneurs need to have the following traits or characteristics: (1) They are careful and concern about money since they were children; (2) They are competitive by nature in terms of school participation, active in sports, and competitions; (3) They trust their own capabilities and have high energy; (4) They are risk takers; and (5) They have abundance of new ideas and new approaches to upscale their business profits as well as never afraid to put forward new ideas.

And such, those traits are seen as the fundamental factors for those who are involved in businesses including commercial agriculture. In the context of this study, individuals who possess those traits will have the driving force to venture into commercial agriculture even though they have sound academic achievement. Without those traits, it is impossible for the young entrepreneurs to face the challenges and to take certain risks of the agricultural business. Respondents' personal justifications will be discussed further in the findings of the study.

FORMAL AND INFORMAL MENTORS

According to S.G. Weinrach (1979), the relationship of a mentor and his/her mentee normally initiated spontaneously and without realizing it, a mentor already contributes towards career success of his/her mentee. In formal mentoring, a mentor is formally introduced or assigned to his/her mentee by the coordinator of a structured program with time expectation; this sometimes may cause awkwardness. However, the relationship of informal mentoring tends to be longer as it is structure free and without any formal or written obligation. It is more to help and non-profit. Meeting is not programmed and it is scheduled when necessary; and the interaction can be done through various sources of communication tools such as via the internet and telephone.

The relationship of a formal mentoring is structured for certain period of time based on maybe between 6 months to a year contract. The meeting between the mentor and his/her mentee is scheduled and pre-determined in the agreement contract, which is signed by the both parties. On the other hand, the relationship

pattern of informal mentoring is more casual but motivational in guiding the mentee. There is a sense of kinship in a conducive communication, even without proper recognition as the present of the mentor is merely to help.

The primary function of informal mentoring is to provide a significant contribution in terms of career advancement and psychosocial. The roles of the mentor in career success are: (1) to guide; and (2) to expose. In guiding his mentee, a mentor advises, assists, recommends, or counsels his/her mentee to learn something new as well as for career advancement. A mentor also exposes his/her mentee on long term benefits by sharing his professional knowledge and indirectly provides information on types of future occupations for the mentee. A mentor also encourages his/her mentee to move forward in his career.

In terms of psychosocial functions, the mentor's primary role is to strengthen the friendship and be a role model. The closeness of the relationship is based on mutual helps for mutual benefits. As a role model, a mentor is seen as an idol that inspires the mentee to strive harder to be as successful as his/her idol. Hence, career advancement is the main concern of informal mentoring compared to formal mentoring.

Similarly, Pitts observed that people running their own businesses can't see the wood for the trees (cited by Osipow, 1983). The problem being that they find it difficult to stand back and reflect on the problems they are experiencing, getting too tied up with the urgent, and immediate actions and not leaving time to take the bigger picture, strategic view into consideration. Engaging with a mentoring relationship can allow the entrepreneur to step into "pools of reflection" and to see situations more clearly and from different perspectives. It is particularly difficult for small businesses to find time to reflect (Super, 1957; Brown & Brooks, 1984; and Mohd Noah, 2001). Generally, this article is aimed to identify the roles of informal mentors on the young graduates who are the novices in managing commercial agriculture projects.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Respondents of the research are five young successful farmers of the commercial agriculture, who started off the business gradually from small scales. The entrepreneurs were selected based on the following criteria: (1) Respondents are youth at the age range of 15 to 40 years old, as defined by the Malaysian Ministry of Youth and Sports; (2) Successful in the field of agriculture and in setting up downstream agro-based industries as well as those who gained net income more than RM 3,000 per month; (3) Posses business assets, for example have more than 10 acres of land; (4) University graduates; and (5) Previously worked in the public or private sectors.

All selected respondents are graduates youth with different farming activities. The respondents are HO (landscaping and ornamental plants); KA (vegetables fertilization); FZ (mango planting); SY (planting lemon grass, bananas, coconuts, and goat livestock); and HK (mushroom cultivation).

This study uses qualitative methods to obtain data through in-depth interviews of five young entrepreneurs to gain information and to answer the research questions. The questions are semi-structured. The purpose of in-depth interview is to elicit depth of information as opposed to surveys and questionnaire. In-depth interview also allows the interviewer to deeply explore respondent's feelings and perspectives on a subject.

RESEARCH FINDINGS

First, Contributing factors in making decision to venture into commercial agriculture. Respondents decided to become agricultural entrepreneurs because of: (1) Interest; (2) Influence and previous work experience before venturing into agriculture; and (3) Family influences with the background of commercial agriculture. Those three aspects are indentified as the prominent factors to reshape the attitudes, characteristics, perceptions, and positive outlook of the respondents towards agricultural sectors. It also began with an awareness of the shortage of *Bumiputra* or native of country's youth who seriously consider farming as a solid career (FAMA-LP3, 2007b).

It is true and proven by the respondents that interest motivates individual to move forward. Interest and the need to be self-employed had influenced and motivated the respondents to change the paradigm in becoming successful entrepreneurs in the field of commercial agriculture. Their experience as wage earners had also influenced the respondents to venture into this sector commercially. The respondents also overcame skeptical and narrow insights on the agricultural sector. Apart from that, their self-confidence and determination to succeed in the industry had made them strong, competent, creative, and innovative in finding new technologies and making changes. However, family involvement and agricultural background are somehow playing some roles in influencing the respondents to venture into commercial farming sector themselves.

Second, Perceptions of commercial agriculture. The aspect of respondents' perceptions on commercial agriculture can be divided into four main themes, as follow: (1) Marketing facilities and potential; (2) Media publicities and cropping period; (3) Systematic plans of projects; and (4) the Perceptions of the community.

Most people and the youth are still sceptical with the concept of young farmers and they are still concern with the prospect. And, thus, comprehensive efforts are needed to attract the youth venturing into the sector. Among others of the negative perceptions towards agricultural sector are limited marketing and potential of commercial agriculture, uncompetitive and perishable for commercialisation, and lack of media publicity to promote agriculture as a solid career and as a profitable platform. In addition, certain agro-based activities need a long production period or planting time which can double up the operational costs, which do not promise a better profit.

Respondents agreed that perceptions towards commercial agriculture can be changed through systematic planning. With proper and detail planning, agricultural business will be successfully launched into a profitable business project. This in the long run will gradually change negative mentality and narrow perceptions of the community to be more and wide-open at the potential for those indulging in agriculture. They have to shift the old paradigm and stigma which regarded agricultural sector as sustenance of life and to realize that agriculture is a profitable business and they can become successful entrepreneurs in the field of agriculture. All of these will be achieved through careful planning, strategies, determination, and perseverance.

At present, there is a promising development in Malaysia when university students are introduced with the basic knowledge of business and entrepreneurship during their studies. The purpose is to widen and change the mentality of the graduates that they can no longer rely on the work as wage earners. The unemployment rate will be reduced if more university graduates decided to become entrepreneurs. The study of "Agriculture and Men" is now compulsory for all university students in Malaysia. Due to several awareness campaigns and promotions, the perception of university leavers has changed little by little and the educated youth of today are more open on the potential of agriculture as a profitable and solid career (FAMA-LP3, 2007c).

Third, Key factors of youth involvement in commercial agriculture. There are always two contradicting factors in every effort, the attracting and rejecting factors. Careful consideration is needed in answering the third research question on those two contradicting key factors in influencing youth involvement in the commercial agriculture. This is important for the success and sustainability of the youth agricultural development programs. Another vital element is their mental strength. They are two contradicting key factors indentified from the responses of the respondents that influenced them in venturing into commercial agriculture, as follow: (1) Family factor; (2) Financial factor; and (3) Facilities factor.

Supports from family and friends would help an individual to succeed. All of the respondents agreed that their success is due to undying support from the family members. In terms of financial, they need to have the capital and be able to develop appropriate financial stability in starting up agricultural ventures. Financial stability will empower them to have control over the resulting financial returns from their activities.

While a significant number of young people are involved in independent agricultural activities and providing agricultural support to their families, it was also noted that the young entrepreneurs benefit from communal agricultural sources, either through the traditional financial and banking systems, government agencies, and investors. Those are their immediate support groups; however, the birocracy and unnecessary long process of getting the financial supports will dampen the spirit. Another obstacle is the operational costs which are getting higher despite the static selling prices.

Government, through existing agencies led by the Ministry of Agriculture and Agro-Based Industry and Ministry of Youth and Sports, really shows the commitment to open up opportunities for university graduates to venture into commercial farming. Meanwhile, there are many facilities and support provided by various government agencies, including technical assistance and advisory services on a regular basis, to enable the young farmers get the work done as well as to attract more youth to venture into this field (FAMA-LP3, 2007d). They also learn and benefit from this communal agriculture support systems, such communal endeavours help the youth to build up self-esteem and a sense of community. This emphasis the importance of immediate support groups for the young farmers and also highlights the need to improve the institutional “enabling environment” provided by these groups if young people are to developed as agricultural entrepreneurs.

Fourth, Training and skills. Basic knowledge is essential in starting up a new business, and the knowledge is gained through the following: (1) Formal training and skills; (2) Previous working experience; (3) Extra knowledge and mentoring; and (4) Communal agricultural groups either through the local traditional systems, advisory services, or as members of agricultural groups.

Becoming young farmers and agricultural entrepreneurs is not an easy job; it needs times, energy, and financial stability. Managing a farm is challenging, which involves crops or livestock management as well as farm labours. And, thus, the young people not only need determination and strong-willed, but valuable information. This means, comprehensive trainings and skills programs for young farmers are vital, in addition to their experience in farming activities.

The common scenario and main efforts of the government are in attracting the young inexperienced people to venture into commercial farming. However, in the process, the government and support system are neglecting the present and successful farmers. And such, the concept or system of mentor-mentee is a very good method to be applied to young entrepreneurs who want to venture into commercial farming. Successful farmers should provide guidance and assistance to the new entrepreneurs, formally and informally. However, incentives should be given to those experience entrepreneurs who willing to guide the young ones in starting up the business in various management and technical aspects. Successful and experienced farmers should be the mentors in the youth agricultural development programs.

Fifth, Personal traits of successful agricultural entrepreneurs. There are six main themes of traits indentified as essential in successful agricultural entrepreneur, as follow: (1) Knowledgeable; (2) High determination; (3) Self-discipline in time management; (4) Proactive; (5) Smart and creative; and (6) Risk takers.

Entrepreneurs need to possess those traits to help them uphold the business, especially when they are facing hard times and in the verge of failure. It is proven by all of the five respondents that agricultural entrepreneurs will only succeed in their commercial agricultural ventures, if they are risk takers who have business knowledge, determination and resilience, self-discipline, and also good time management.

A part from those, young farmers need to have their own mission and vision. They need to be creative and innovative, especially in marketing and promoting, rebranding, and labelling their products. They also need to be smart in finding new business ventures for their agricultural products.

CONCLUSION

Producing agricultural entrepreneurs is a comprehensive and long term process. Coordinated implementation programs are needed by implementing a package of development strategies, along with skills and entrepreneurship trainings; providing infrastructure and business premises; financing; product development; fiscal incentive, credits supports, application of new technologies; and comprehensive infrastructures. The main problem now is the shortage of agricultural talents among young people. Therefore, hopefully the implementation of certain programs would be able to attract young people, especially the graduates into the sector. The Ministry confidants that through careful planning, structured programs, and mobilization efforts of all parties are able to make the agricultural sector favored by the young people.

The five agricultural entrepreneurs, selected as respondents of this study, are university graduates with diplomas and masters degrees. Based on their educational background and qualification, they can no longer be considered as traditional farmers. They are young educated farmers who no longer rely on the work of wage earners, they have decided to shift from the old paradigm to become successful entrepreneurs in the field of agriculture.

They are the role models for the educated youth to be more open on the potential and to grab the opportunities provided by the government for those interested in venturing into agriculture. However, venturing into commercial agricultural is a pure challenge which needs smart handling. Those interested in indulging into commercial agriculture need to be ready in facing common difficulties, especially physical challenges, financial constraints, and crops problems. On the other hand, determination, strength, and preverance will overcome those challenges. This is proven by all of the respondents, who are now successful entrepreneurs.

Today's globalization and modernization era and working culture witnessed the information is easily accessible just at the fingertips on the new development and networking. These facilities and modernization aspects allow the respondents to update on the progress of agriculture. Their knowledge, educational profiles, and spirit would give them strength to venture into the business with new brilliant and creative ideas of agro-business.

Sharing of information, skills, and knowledge with others in the same business is a good way to be successful agricultural entrepreneurs. Family and community are the two dominant entities in decision making to those who decided to venture into agrobusiness. However, they are no longer key constraints, as the main catalyst is the person himself, who should posses self-determination and confidence, as well

as competitive, innovative, and creative in their strives to succeed in their ventures. Based on the interviews, conclusion can be made that changes in time, respect, comprehensive supports, and incentives offered by the government agencies are vital in motivating young farmers to be successful agricultural entrepreneurs.

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THE EFFECTS OF USE OF LEARNING STRATEGIES TRAINING ON STUDENTS FOREIGN LANGUAGE VOCABULARY LEARNING

SEYED REZA FALLAHCHAI

ABSTRACT: Foreign language vocabulary learning, in this case is English, is not the same as memorizing words in the context of serial lists. To master a foreign language, words must be recalled and recognized in new and unexpected contexts. The paper describes a research project which investigated how vocabulary can best be learned or taught with 558 primary (6th grade) students (four groups of from sixteen intact classes). Four approaches to vocabulary instruction: (1) Vocal rehearsal + phonological awareness training; (2) Sub-vocal rehearsal + phonological awareness training; (3) Vocal and sub-vocal rehearsal + phonological awareness training; and (4) No rehearsal and phonological awareness training were examined in this study and a comparison was made of their effects on students vocabulary acquisition. Pre-test and post-test vocabulary knowledge scales were administrated and an ANOVA analyses was conduct to identify any significant difference among four groups. The results indicate that all three methods resulted in significant vocabulary gains. Furthermore, the difference between first group, vocal rehearsal phonological awareness training; and second group, sub-vocal rehearsal phonological awareness training, was not significant; participants in the third group did significantly better than those.

KEY WORDS: Learning strategies, rehearsal, phonological awareness, foreign language, teaching vocabulary, and English as second language.

INTRODUCTION

Learning a new language is a difficult job, especially when it is to be carried out in a foreign language situation; the reason being that a “foreign language situation” provides language learners with little authentic communication in the foreign language (Hodge, 1998). For most learners, it is a long painstaking process. In addition, interference from the learner’s mother tongue, as well as the great difference between the native and the target language, render the task of language acquisition even more difficult.

One thing that students, teachers, materials writers, and researchers can all agree upon is that learning vocabulary is an essential part of mastering a second language (Schmitt, 2008). Vocabulary learning is central to language acquisition, whether the language is the first, the second, or a foreign language (Decarrico, 2001). It is

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related to other aspects of learning and use. It is also crucial to the learner's overall language acquisition (Gao, 2003).

However, the best means of achieving good vocabulary learning is still unclear, partly because it depends on a wide variety of factors (de Groot, 2006). Therefore, one of challenging topics in language learning in general concerns vocabulary learning; that is learning lexicon or words of specific language. Second Language Acquisition (SLA) researches have become heavily interested in vocabulary acquisition, because many strongly believe that vocabulary learning is central to language acquisition, whether the language is first, second, or foreign (Decarrico, 2001).

VOCABULARY AND LEARNING ENGLISH AS FOREIGN LANGUAGE

Learning vocabulary in another language is an incremental and recursive process. It involves the integration of different kinds of knowledge of a particular vocabulary item, which is demonstrated by the learner's ability to use that knowledge in communication at different levels (Gass, 1999). Learning a word is a cumulative process involving a range of aspects of knowledge and that learners need many different kinds of meetings with words in order to learn them fully (Nation, 2001:4).

Vocabulary is an essential component in learning a foreign language and understanding another culture. Research has shown that vocabulary is the building block of all four language skills: reading, listening, writing, and speaking. B. Laufer and D.D. Sim (1985) found in their study that among foreign language learners, vocabulary was needed more than subject matter knowledge and syntactic structure. That is vocabulary knowledge should be the top priority when it comes to learning a foreign language.

Despite the many factors that may contribute to the low achievement among most EFL (English as Foreign Language) learners, research demonstrates that vocabulary plays a crucial role in learning a second/foreign language (L2), and for most students it takes substantial time and effort to acquire the target vocabulary, both receptively and productively (Nation, 2001).

Second language (L2) learners at all levels are faced with the difficulty of learning vocabulary. The acquisition of new English vocabulary, one of the important skills necessary for English as Foreign Language (EFL) learners, frequently involves much representational learning. In addition to needing a large number of lexical items, a learner must also know a great deal about each item in order to use it well. This is often referred to as the quality or "depth" of vocabulary knowledge, and is as important as vocabulary size (Schmitt, 2008).

The ability to hear and apprehend a foreign word to be learned is crucial for several reasons. Firstly, in order to learn the word, it is necessary to hear it accurately, to be able to break the word down into its individual sounds and phonemes, and to rehearse the word. People can rehearse a foreign word aloud to themselves or as part

of a class drill, but they can also do it silently, inside their heads, using their inner speech. During the initial stages of foreign language learning, this inner speech is primarily used to play with “funny” sounding words and to rehearse words and utterances to be learned.

The ability to form phonological representations of words and rehearse them is crucial to learning foreign or novel words. Rehearsal is the process by which phonologically encoded information is maintained and refreshed in the phonological loop until it can be stored in long-term memory. Rehearsal of the target language can occur vocally or sub-vocally in inner speech, but the mechanisms for rehearsal are assumed to be the same. This study adopts a version of A. Baddeley, S. Gathercole and C. Papagno (1998) working memory model, which claims that auditory stimuli is automatically encoded and entered into the phonological loop where it is rehearsed in short-term memory.

Sub-vocal rehearsal in the form of inner speech is viewed as one of the first and most basic functions of inner speech, along with language play, and which is key to foreign language learning (de Guerrero, 2005). If the phonologically encoded material is not rehearsed via vocal or sub-vocal rehearsal, it will decay within about two seconds and the words will not be correctly recalled. Inability to rehearse has been found to inhibit word learning.

Phonological Awareness (PA) is one aspect of meta-linguistic awareness and refers to sensitivity to units of sound (Yopp & Yopp, 2000); for example understanding that a sentence can be divided into words, a word can be divided into syllables, and syllables can be divided into onsets and rimes. C.F. Hu (2003:434) writes that initial foreign language learning involves being sensitive to unfamiliar sounds, in unfamiliar patterns, with different stresses and syllable configurations. This sensitivity, includes the ability to reflect on and manipulate speech sounds, has been consistently shown to relate to decoding and to word reading within language (Schatschneider *et al.*, 2004); and across languages (Droop & Verhoeven, 2003; and Gersten & Geva, 2003). In order to successfully comprehend connected text, accurate, and fluent word reading is necessary. Therefore, there is not only a reciprocal relationship between PA (Phonological Awareness) and word reading, but PA is indirectly also related to reading comprehension via decoding skill.

PA and decoding interventions have been demonstrated to be highly effective at improving reading outcomes for *students at-risk of reading difficulty* (Vadasay, Sanders & Peyton, 2006); *students with LD or Learning Disabilities* (Torgesen *et al.*, 2001); *at-risk EL or English Learners in both first* (Gerber *et al.*, 2004); and *second language instruction* (Leafstedt, Richards & Gerber, 2004; and Richards, 2004). For example, in a recent study, students in Spanish instruction schools at risk of reading difficulty received an intensive PA and decoding intervention (Vaughn *et al.*, 2006). Instruction in this case included vocabulary and comprehension strategies using oral texts, so it is difficult to untangle constituent components. However, students who received the explicit, systematic intervention outperformed the control group on PA, fluency, decoding, and comprehension measures at post-test, indicating its efficacy.

Most people in fact associate learning a language with “words”. However, foreign language vocabulary learning is often viewed as a solitary activity to be accomplished by the individual student. Vocabulary is rarely practiced systematically in classrooms. Students are left to learn vocabulary on their own and, then, are expected to apply it in communicative activities in the classroom and perhaps in the target culture. But, to the frustration of students and teachers alike, there is often a large gap between the targeted and the actually learned vocabulary.

Most current studies of vocabulary learning have focused on aspects of *incidental word learning, including reading and guessing* (Hulstijn, Hollander & Greidanus, 1996; and Huckin & Coady, 1999); *the role of cognates in vocabulary learning* (Treville, 1996); *the role of context in vocabulary learning* (Hulstijn, 1997); *the general process of vocabulary acquisition* (Altman, 1997); *vocabulary learning strategies* (Kojic-Sabo & Lightbown, 1999); and *vocabulary testing* (Read, 1997). With the advent of constructive views, language theorists claim that vocabulary, not grammar, is at a heart of language learning, as language consist of grammaticalied lexis, not lexicalized grammar (Lewis, 1993).

Traditionally, the teaching and learning of vocabulary has long been neglected in Second Language Acquisition or SLA research (Zimmerman, 1997). The argument in SLA to focus on form in communicative classroom activities tends to put the acquisition of grammar in the spotlight (Long & Robinson, 1998). Therefore, in favor of syntax, vocabulary has generally been given a secondary place in the language curriculum (Nation, 2001). However, many L2 (Second Language) learners share the difficulties of learning vocabulary, and are often frustrated and discouraged by the unfamiliar words contained in reading texts.

A critical component of reading comprehension, highly interrelated with other component skills, is vocabulary knowledge (Muter *et al.*, 2004). Vocabulary is an important contributor to second language reading comprehension, as well (Proctor *et al.*, 2005). This broad construct includes some meta-linguistic components of word analysis and its relationship to other skills changes over time. Expressive vocabulary is among the most robust predictors of future reading scores, along with phonological awareness, sentence imitation, and story recall (McCardle, Scarborough & Catts, 2001). Later, in development vocabulary becomes increasingly important as a facilitator of word recognition and as a facilitator of reading comprehension (Muter *et al.*, 2004).

Vocabulary instruction has been deemed critical for the reading development and reading success of ELLs or English-Language Learners (Gersten & Baker, 2000). Proficient reading depends on various sub-skills and for students who have limited knowledge of word meanings, comprehension is greatly affected.

Many researchers agree that if a student has a large vocabulary, the student will also have good comprehension of written material; and if a student has a limited vocabulary, his or her comprehension level will also be limited (Maria, 1990). Research indicates that a balanced literacy approach includes direct, explicit, and systematic instruction in specific skills such as decoding, vocabulary, spelling, and

comprehension; and content matter instruction in all relevant curriculum areas and that a whole new pedagogy is not necessary (Goldenberg, 2001). Much of the vocabulary research has suggested several different strategies to developing reading skills in English language learners.

These strategies include explicit vocabulary instruction, repeated reading, class wide peer tutoring, and previewing, but no specific approach to teaching vocabulary has been deemed superior. Y.F. Liao (2004) investigated the vocabulary learning strategies used by 625 Taiwanese EFL (English as Foreign Language) freshmen. Meanwhile, N. Schmitt (2008) vocabulary strategy questionnaire was adopted for this survey. The results showed that meta-cognitive and social strategies were the two least used strategy categories. She argued that the possible reason for the low frequency use might be because English vocabulary learning was viewed as an individual learning process in general; therefore, students tended not to seek other's help when encountering unfamiliar words.

Moreover, based on Y. Gu and R.K. Johnson (1996) who indicated that meta-cognitive strategies can be a positive predictor of general proficiency. Y.F. Liao (2004) concluded that the low frequency used in meta-cognitive strategies may be that these participants' general English proficiency was limited. By examining isolated strategies use, the researcher found that Taiwanese students preferred to use bilingual electronic dictionaries, write the word several times, and study the sounds of the word.

It has also demonstrated the importance of explicit instruction and learning in helping students to acquire vocabulary of a foreign language (Laufer, 1997; and Zimmerman, 1997). McCarthy, as cited in B. Laufer (1997:viii), asserts that "*No matter how well the student learns grammar, no matter how successfully the sounds of L2 are mastered, without words to express a wider range of meanings, communication in an L2 just cannot happen in any meaningful way*". Vermeer, as cited also in B. Laufer (1997:147), echoed the same point of view that "*Knowing words is the key to understanding and being understood. The bulk of learning a new language consists of learning new words. Grammatical knowledge does not make for great proficiency in a language*". Finally, Gass and Selinker, as cited in B. Laufer (1997:270) simply put it this way that "*The lexicon may be the most important component for learners*".

There is comparatively little research to report on methods of presenting and practicing vocabulary in the classroom (Read, 2004). Therefore, vocabulary learning is an important topic that needs experimental studies to determine the best method of learning vocabulary for foreign language learners. Most current studies of vocabulary learning have focused on *aspects of incidental word learning, including reading and guessing* (Kost, Foss & Lenzini, 1999); *the role of cognates in vocabulary learning* (Lotto & de Groot, 1998); *the role of context in vocabulary learning* (Hulstijn, 1997); and *vocabulary testing* (Read, 1997). But a few research was focused on vocabulary learning strategies.

In educational system of my country Iran, teaching English language is started at 6th grade formal education and most of students have difficulty in learning

English language. In this case, no research or few research was conducted. The present study aimed to gain further insight into the effects different manners of rehearsal and phonological awareness training on foreign vocabulary learning of the beginning learners of English language. The purpose of this study was to examine three distinct approaches described above and compare their effects on vocabulary learning in Iranian primary school students. The findings from this research can expand our understanding of the optimal manner of rehearsing and phonological awareness training on foreign words to be learned.

As a result, this study was guided by the following general research questions: (1) Whether rehearsal strategies and phonological awareness training effects foreign vocabulary learning?; (2) to Compare the effects of different manners of rehearsal and phonological awareness training on foreign language vocabulary recall and recognition; and (3) Which form of rehearsal plus phonological awareness training is optimal for foreign vocabulary learning?

METHOD

Participants. Five hundred fifty-eight primary students (6th grade) from sixteen intact general English (eight boys and eight girls) classes participated in the study. In order to determine the effect of manner of rehearsal and phonological awareness training on participants' ability to recall, recognize, and react to previously learned foreign words, each classes were randomly assigned to one of four rehearsal groups: (1) Vocal rehearsal + phonological awareness training; (2) Sub-vocal rehearsal + phonological awareness training; (3) Vocal and sub-vocal rehearsal + phonological awareness training; and (4) No rehearsal and phonological awareness training.

Research Design. This study utilized a semi-experimental research design with four treatment groups. The study employed a pretest-posttest design carried out over a period of four months; this included a four-months training and practicing, which varied depending on the groups.

Measures. Firstly on the Michigan test. To assess participants' language background and homogeneity of students, a 90-Item Michigan test was administrated in the first session. All of student took part in the test. Secondly on the Vocabulary tests. A checklist of 85 words was designed for this study and administered among the students to assure that the words are new to the students. After all, only those words with which none of the students were familiar were included in the study.

Based on those words, two tests of recall and recognition were designed for this study and administered among the groups (pretest and posttest). Vocabulary recall was measured by a vocabulary (Word Recall Test) and vocabulary recognition was measured by a vocabulary (Word Recognition Test). Those tests prepared by the researcher himself and had been standardized and validated before. The scores of the vocabulary post-tests were used to measure the participants' vocabulary learning.

Procedure. The treatment involve training and practicing three manners of rehearsal and phonological awareness was conducted during the participants'

regular class times, and required sixteen consecutive 50-minute sessions. The three manners of rehearsal plus phonological awareness training included in this study are: (1) Vocal rehearsal + phonological awareness training; (2) Sub-vocal rehearsal + phonological awareness training; (3) Vocal and sub-vocal rehearsal + phonological awareness training; and (4) No rehearsal and phonological awareness training. All participating students were individually tested pre and post treatment. To assess students' vocabulary knowledge, a researcher-generated assessment was administered prior to training (pre-test) and post of training (post-test).

RESULTS

This study was designed with two main objectives. The first objective was to investigate the various manners of rehearsal and phonological awareness training on foreign language vocabulary learning. Secondly, the study sought to determine which one manner of rehearsal was more effective than another in learning foreign language vocabulary. To answer this study's research questions, a statistical analysis were performed to determine: (1) Whether there were any significant differences between groups regarding their performance after the treatments; and (2) Whether there were any significant changes within groups regarding their manner of rehearsal and phonological awareness training.

To examine the effect of the independent variables, *first*, the mean scores for the vocabulary (recall and recognition) tests were compared. *Second*, the raw scores on the vocabulary (recall and recognition) tests were submitted to a one way ANOVA (Analysis of Variance) design. *Third*, when the ANOVA showed the significance for them, follow-up analyses were run on each of the groups.

This part presents the results of this study according to the two dependent variables: (1) Recall of learned L2 or Second Language vocabulary in the training period; and (2) Recognition of them, or the vocabulary items, in sentences.

First, Participants' performance on the general test. The participants' language background was assessed. A general English (90-item Michigan) test was administrated to assess the homogeneity of English background of students who participated in the study. All of them took part in the test.

Table 1:
One Way ANOVA for Performance on the General English Test

Source	D.F	SS	MS	F	P
Between group	3	11.44	3.813	0.51	NS
Within group	555	1166.39	7.525		
Total	558	1177.83			

A one way ANOVA was utilized to find whether the selected groups were almost homogenous. To do this, their grades in the general English test were used. The ANOVA analysis did not show any significant effect for the general English

test. The results in table 1 shows, F ratio (0.51) doesn't exceed the F critical value (2.65) on the .05 level of the significance. This implies that there is no significant difference and four groups were almost homogenous.

Second, Participants' performance on the vocabulary recall and recognition test (pre-test). To assess the homogeneity of vocabulary knowledge of students who participated in the study, two vocabulary tests (Recall and Recognition) were administrated. All of them took part in the tests.

Table 2:
 One Way ANOVA for Performance on the Vocabulary Recall Test (Pre-Test)

Source	D.F	SS	MS	F	P
Between group	3	66.125	22.041	1.641	NS
Within group	555	2122.25	13.431		
Total	558	2188.375			

Table 3:
 One Way ANOVA for Performance on the Vocabulary Recognition Test (Pre-Test)

Source	D.F	SS	MS	F	P
Between group	3	51.25	17.083	1.145	NS
Within group	555	2311.25	14.911		
Total	558	2362.5			

A one way ANOVA was utilized to find whether the selected groups were almost homogenous. To do this, their scores in pre-test of vocabulary recall and recognition tests were used. The ANOVA analysis did not show any significant effect for two vocabulary tests (Recall and Recognition). The results in tables 2 and 3 shows, F ratio (1.64) and (1.145) don't exceed the F critical value (2.65) on the .05 level of the significance. This implies that there is no significant difference and four groups were almost homogenous.

Third, Participants' performance on the vocabulary recall and recognition tests (post-test). To examine the effect of the independent variables, *first*, the mean scores for the vocabulary (Recall and Recognition) tests were compared. *Second*, the raw scores on the vocabulary (Recall and Recognition) tests were submitted to a one way ANOVA design. *Third*, when the ANOVA showed the significance for them, follow-up analyses, the Scheffe post hoc comparisons for the post-tests, were run on each of the groups.

After the training phase, the vocabulary recall and recognition tests (post-test) were conducted. The mean and standard deviation Recall and Recognition scores is displayed in tables 4 and 5, broken down according to rehearsal plus phonological awareness training groups and control or no rehearsal plus phonological awareness training group.

Table 4:
 Mean and Standard Deviation of Words Recalled by Four Groups

Groups	M	SD
Vocal rehearsal + phonological awareness training.	33.3	6.89
Sub-vocal rehearsal + phonological awareness training.	35.7	6.18
Vocal and sub-vocal rehearsal + phonological awareness training.	40.3	8.76
No rehearsal and phonological awareness training.	28.5	4.99

Regarding vocabulary recall, table 4 shows that all of three treatment groups led to better results than control group. The highest overall recall was found for vocal and sub-vocal rehearsal + phonological awareness training group, and lowest overall recall was found for control group.

Table 5:
 Mean and Standard Deviation of Words Recognized by Four Groups

Groups	M	SD
Vocal rehearsal + phonological awareness training.	44.2	5.91
Sub-vocal rehearsal + phonological awareness training.	45.3	3.41
Vocal and sub-vocal rehearsal + phonological awareness training.	51.7	6.05
No rehearsal and phonological awareness training.	35.3	6.41

Regarding vocabulary recognition, table 5 shows that all of three treatment groups led to better results than control group. The highest overall recall was found for vocal and sub-vocal rehearsal + phonological awareness training group, and lowest overall recall was found for control group.

To test for main effects of treatment condition, Analyses of Variances (ANOVAs) were performed for each outcome variable. Differences in treatment group posttest scores were examined by computing ANOVAs for each variable. Recall scores were analyzed in an ANOVA. Based on the results, there were some differences among the four groups. The main effect of Words Recall test (post-test) was F ratio (10.13) that exceeded the F critical value (2.65) on the .05 level of the significance and (3.88) on the .01 level of the significance.

Table 6:
 The Scheffe Post Hoc Comparisons for the Words Recalled by Four Groups

	Experimental 1	Experimental 2	Experimental 3	Control
Experimental 1		0.67	2.81 *	4.05 **
Experimental 2			2.88 *	4.34 **
Experimental 3				7.29 ***
Control				

Note. * = $p < .05$, ** = $p < .01$, *** = $p < .001$

Recognition scores were analyzed in an ANOVA. Based on the results, there were some differences among the four groups. The main effect of Words Recognition test (post-test) was F ratio (12.41) that exceeded the F critical value (2.65) on the .05 level of the significance and (3.88) on the .01 level of the significance.

The Scheffe post hoc analyses vocabulary recall mean showed that the main effect for group was due to differences between the control group and the experimental groups. In post-test 1, all three experimental groups performed significantly better than the control group ($p < .01$, $p < .01$, and $p < .001$). However, the experimental groups 1 and 2 were not significantly different from each other, and the experimental group 3 was performed significantly better than the experimental groups 1 and 2 ($p < .05$ and $p < .05$).

Table 7:
The Scheffe Post Hoc Comparisons for Words Recognized by Four Groups

	Experimental 1	Experimental 2	Experimental 3	Control
Experimental 1		0.81	3.01 *	4.27 **
Experimental 2			2.78 *	4.86 **
Experimental 3				8.11 ***
Control				

Note. * = $p < .05$, ** = $p < .01$, *** = $p < .001$

The Scheffe post hoc analyses vocabulary recognition mean showed that the main effect for group was due to differences between the control group and the experimental groups. In post-test 2, all three experimental groups performed significantly better than the control group ($p < .01$, $p < .01$, and $p < .001$). However, the experimental groups 1 and 2 were not significantly different from each other, and the experimental group 3 was performed significantly better than the experimental groups 1 and 2 ($p < .05$ and $p < .05$).

DISCUSSION

The current research aimed to examine the various manners of rehearsal and phonological awareness training on foreign language vocabulary learning. In this part, the results reported in the previous part will be discussed and evaluated in light of previous research on foreign language vocabulary learning, and data are discussed in detail, in terms of the research questions. The major findings provided qualified support for the effectiveness and efficiency of all the various manner of rehearsal and phonological awareness training.

To determine the effect of the various manners of rehearsal and phonological awareness training on recall and recognition of foreign English language words, each participant took the two post-tests as a vocabulary learning measure. Mean scores were calculated for the Recall task, the Recognition task. Statistical analysis

revealed that there appeared to be differences between four groups on each of the two dependent measures. The effects of manner of rehearsal plus phonological awareness training on foreign vocabulary learning were examined. Findings suggest that manner of rehearsal plus phonological awareness training experience facilitates subsequent foreign vocabulary learning, and that different types of language-learning experience incur specific benefits.

The results of this research demonstrated that all manner of rehearsal plus phonological awareness training were successfully used by monolingual English speakers to learn novel foreign words. The findings from this study are consistent with research Guerrero, indicating that sub-vocal rehearsal is one of the first and most basic functions of inner speech, along with language play, and which is key to foreign language learning (cited by Gu & Johnson, 1996).

It seems that the positive effects of vocal and sub-vocal rehearsal on vocabulary learning were due to vocal articulation or to the participants' ability to hear (and modify) their vocal production based on their own auditory feedback. I had questioned whether one manner of rehearsal was more effective than another manner of rehearsal in learning foreign language vocabulary.

The results of this research were showed that the experimental groups 1 and 2 were not significantly different from each other, and the experimental group 3 was performed significantly better than the experimental groups 1 and 2. The findings from this study are consistent with research by J.M. Leafstedt, C.M. Richards and M.M. Gerber (2004) and C. Richards (2004), indicating that phonological awareness and decoding interventions have been demonstrated to be highly effective at improving learning foreign language vocabulary. It has also demonstrated the importance of explicit instruction and learning in helping students to acquire vocabulary of a foreign language (Laufer, 1997; and Zimmerman, 1997).

The paradigm used in this study may be extended to examine the rehearsal component of the phonological loop more closely. The working memory model suggests that in addition to a phonological store that maintains novel memory traces, rehearsal mechanisms that facilitate translation of a novel phonological trace into a long-term representation are fundamental for foreign vocabulary learning.

CONCLUSION

The first conclusion that can be elicited from the study is that the all the various manners of rehearsal and phonological awareness training had significant effects on recall and recognition of foreign language vocabulary and play an important role in second language acquisition. The next conclusion is that the vocal and sub-vocal rehearsal along with phonological awareness training has the most positive effect on learning foreign language vocabulary. The third conclusion that can be observed from the study is that the findings from this research expanded our understanding of phonological awareness training and the optimal manner of rehearsing foreign words to be learned.

Similarly, future work may examine whether modality of rehearsal – auditory (vocal) *versus* visual (written) – influences retention of foreign words differently at different levels of cross-linguistic overlap. For instance, it is possible that written rehearsal (writing the foreign word three times) would be a more efficient strategy than auditory rehearsal (saying the foreign word out-loud three times).

Further, a comparison between written and sub-vocal rehearsal is an interesting one to consider, since both involve more abstract phonological codes than vocal rehearsal, and thus may reveal whether activation of phonology during writing is qualitatively and quantitatively comparable to phonological activation during silent rehearsal.

PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATION

Foreign language vocabulary learning is not the same as memorizing words in the context of serial lists. To master a foreign language, words must be recalled and recognized in new and unexpected contexts. Phonological awareness training has been successful at improving phonological awareness (de Jong, Seveke & van Veen, 2000) for at-risk learners; and can be conducted as part of native language remediation or as part of the second or foreign language curriculum (Hodge, 1998).

There is a dearth of research on vocabulary instruction for EL (English Language), particularly EL at academic risk. The current study contributes to the literature by demonstrating that relatively sophisticated, content area vocabulary can be taught to EL very early in their reading development. The results in the current study revealed that rehearsal strategies along with phonological awareness training influenced the student's vocabulary learning. Therefore, adopting vocabulary learning for vocabulary learning is necessary.

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STRENGTHENING THE CHARACTER: UPHOLD ETHICS IN INDONESIAN LANGUAGE STUDY PASS BY SUPPLEMENTARY BOOKS

SITI MARYAM

ABSTRACT: Nowadays, characters reinforcement matter has been taken into account for the sake of the nation. We can learn from other countries that succeed in managing education; so that the integration of character education in our country, Indonesia, must be conducted. For that objective, the writer assumes that supplementary books are facility usable for teacher of Indonesian language and literature subject to be exploited. Meanwhile, the effort of Indonesian language study teachers in strengthening student character and upholding ethics is one of effort in improving human resource quality. This effort is very essential, considering the quality of Indonesian citizen is still unsatisfying. Through speaking and writing skills, teacher can evaluate the use of language ethics among students, both directly and indirectly. This article aims to present a study of optimizing language learning to form students' character and ethics. By combining creativity, character, and ethics to Indonesian language and literature learning, the writer optimizes also implicitly the role and function of Indonesian language and literature learning in accordance to its target, among others for character and students language ethics reinforcement. So, students as the next generation should be prepared to socialize and live properly. Therefore, Indonesian language and literature learning should optimize the students' role through supplementary books.

KEY WORDS: Character education, teaching and learning process, supplementary books, Indonesian language, and students as the next generation.

INTRODUCTION

Change and growth toward positive is everybody's expectation. Nowadays, characters reinforcement matter has been taken into account for the sake of the nation. We can learn from other countries that succeed in managing education. General study held on Friday in January 27, 2012, at the Pakuan University in Bogor, West Java, Indonesia revealed that ethics implementation has made New Zealand as the best education organizer in the world. Besides, we also must anticipate ten life phenomenon posed by Thomas Lickona, namely: (1) the increasing of violence at adolescent; (2) the use of harsh words; (3) strong peer group influence in conducting violence; (4) the increasing of drug abuse, alcohol, and free sex; (5) the fade of moral value; (6) the decreasing of working ethos; (7) less respect to parents and

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teacher; (8) less responsibility as individual and citizen; (9) dishonesty; and (10) suspicious and hate among people (cited by Syihabuddin, 2009).

The effort surely has to be comprehensive, not merely among academic society but also public society must participate actively. Moral degradation aspect must be considered in every activity. The effect of any activity should be beneficial for societies. It is relevant, if these days discussion about character education is frequently increasing compared to the past time. That discussion is based on desire for always upgrading life quality through education.

Number of research results express moral degradation; among others Cucu Lisnawati (2004) stated that students' or adolescents' behavior and conduct at this time is very worrying, a student now behaves not as a student should be. They tend to communicate in harsh language. They also behave impolitely to their parents and teachers. It is influenced by less moral value education they get from their surroundings. Then, Dedi Mulyasana (2007) research result showed that children behavior is affected by: (1) peer and sibling with their environment; and (2) parents ignorant because of their work load.

Certainly, those facts should be handled by many parties, including Indonesian language and literature teachers. It is true, up to now there is no special subject as such character education as expressed by the Head of National Curriculum Center in Jakarta that government, starting at 2010, will include cultural education and nation character through curriculum reinforcement from elementary level until university level as part of national education system reinforcement, and will not add distinctive subject for cultural education and nation character but merely reinforcing each subject which considered weak (<http://m.berita8.com>, 13/1/2010).

Important question to be raised is why character education must be related to Indonesian language and literature study base supplement books? Can student character be repaired by supplementary books at Indonesian language and literature study? If it is possible, in what way it is implemented?

Based on the previous question, then, integration of character education must be conducted. For that objective, the writer assumes that supplementary books are facility usable for teacher of Indonesian language and literature subject to be exploited.

ON THE CHARACTER EDUCATION

National education vision is realizing Indonesia citizens who are peace defenders, democratic, competitive, developed, secure, and prosperous Indonesian society in the form of Republic of Indonesia that supported by healthy, independent, religious, noble, patriotic, obey the law, environmental oriented, science and technology savvy, and hard working (Depdiknas RI, 2005:6).

Besides those visions, we can also learn the value within the Law of National Education System or UUSPN (*Undang-Undang Sistem Pendidikan Nasional*), especially number 2/1989, section 4, containing national education target which is to brighten the nation life and to develop Indonesia humans, who obey and

believe in God the Almighty and are kind hearted, knowledgeable and skillful, healthy, independent and socially responsible, and have high sense of nationality (Depdikbud RI, 1990).

Afterward, in order to implement Law Number 20/2003 on National Education System, government releases the Government Regulation or PP (*Peraturan Pemerintah*) number 19/2005. Section 4 from PP referred as Standard of National Education or SNP (*Standar Nasional Pendidikan*) in order to guarantee national education quality to brighten nation life and to form character and prestigious nation civilization (Depdiknas RI, 2006). Indonesia follows holistic education, or education that aims to give chance to the students to develop themselves intellectually and facilitate their soul and body growth as a whole to create Indonesia citizens with strong character that can elevate the nation pride (<http://www.character.org/key-topics/what-is-character-education>, 13/1/2010).

To realize it, many parties must participate. Further, in order to be effective, character education must involve everyone, because basically education cannot stand alone. Education is influenced by other strengths; it needs support from family, society, social organization, political policy, economy strength, and others. It must be integrated into the curriculum as well as school character. When school communities unite in developing character, schools will gain amazing results.

Character education is the intentional effort to develop good character among young people. As stated by Thomas Lickona, Eric Schaps and Catherine Lewis (2010) that “*When we think about the kind of character we want for our children, it’s clear that we want them to be able to judge what is right, care deeply about what is right, and to do what they believe is right*”. The following eleven principles serve as criteria that schools and other groups can use to plan a character education effort and to evaluate available character education programs, books, and curriculum resources.

First, character education promotes core ethical values as the basis of good character. Character education holds, as a starting philosophical principle, that there are widely shared, pivotally important core ethical values – such as caring, honesty, fairness, responsibility, and respect for self and others – that form the basis of good character.

Second, character must be comprehensively defined to include thinking, feeling, and behavior. In an effective character education program, character is broadly conceived to encompass the cognitive, emotional, and behavioral aspects of the moral life. Good character consists of understanding, caring about, and acting upon core ethical values.

Third, effective character education requires an intentional proactive and comprehensive approach that promotes the core values in all phases of school life. Schools committed to character education look at themselves through a moral lens and see how virtually everything that goes on in school affects the values and character of students. An intentional and proactive approach plans deliberate ways to develop character, rather than simply waiting for opportunities to occur.

Fourth, the school must be a caring community. The school itself must embody

good character. It must progress toward becoming a microcosm of the civil, caring, and just society we seek to create as a nation. The school can do this by becoming a moral community that helps students form caring attachments to adults and to each other. These caring relationships will foster both the desire to learn and the desire to be a good person. All children and adolescents have a need to belong, and they are more likely to internalize the values and expectations of groups that meet this need.

Fifth, to develop character, students need opportunities for moral action. In the ethical as in the intellectual domain, students are constructive learners; they learn best by doing. To develop good character, they need many and varied opportunities to apply values such as responsibility and fairness in everyday interactions and discussions.

Sixth, effective character education includes a meaningful and challenging academic curriculum that respects all learners and helps them succeed. Character education and academic learning must not be conceived as separate spheres; rather there must be a strong, mutually supportive relationship. In a caring classroom and school where students feel liked and respected by their teachers and fellow students, students are more likely to work hard and achieve.

Seventh, character education should strive to develop students' intrinsic motivation. As students develop good character, they develop a stronger inner commitment to doing what their moral judgment tells them is right. Schools, especially in their approach to discipline, should strive to develop this intrinsic commitment to core values.

Eighth, the school staff must become the learning and moral community in which all share responsibility for character education and attempt to adhere to the same core values that guide the education of students. Three things need attention here: (1) all school staff – teachers, administrators, counselors, coaches, secretaries, cafeteria workers, playground aides, bus drivers – must be involved in learning about, discussion and taking ownership of the character education effort; (2) the same values and norms that govern the life of students must govern the collective life of the adult members of the school community; and (3) the school must find and protect time for staff reflection on moral matters.

Ninth, character education requires moral leadership from both staff and students. For character education to meet the criteria outlined thus far, there must be leaders (a principal, another administrator, a lead teachers) who champion the effort and, at least initially, a character education committee (or several such support groups, each focused on a particular aspect of the character effort) with responsibility for long-range planning and program implementation.

Tenth, the school must recruit parents and community members as full partners in the character-building effort. A school's character education mission statement should state explicitly what is true: Parents are the first and most important moral educators of their children. Next, the school should take pains at every www to communicate with parents about the school's goals and activities regarding

character development – and how families can help.

Eleventh, evaluation of character education should assess the character of the school, the school staff's functioning as character educators, and the extent to which students manifest good character. Schools can also assess the three domains of character (knowing, feeling, and behaving) through anonymous questionnaires that measure student moral judgment (for example, "*Is cheating on a test wrong?*"); moral commitment (for example, "*Would you cheat if you were sure you wouldn't get caught?*"); and self-reported moral behavior (for example, "*How many times have you cheated on a test or major assignment in the past year?*"). Such questionnaires can be administrated at the beginning of a school's character initiative to get a baseline and again at later points to assess progress (Lickona, Schaps & Lewis, 2010).

ON THE CHARACTER BUILDING AND LANGUAGE EDUCATION

Therefore, content standard that exists in curriculum is expected to have a positive effect, not only on student life, but also teacher, parents, school, and nation. Indonesian language and literature subject intrinsically aims to enable students to: (1) Communicate effectively and efficiently in accordance with applicable ethics both orally and literally; (2) Respect and proud to uses Indonesian language as the unified and nation language; (3) Comprehend Indonesian language and use it correctly and creative for various objectives; (4) Use Indonesian language to improve intellectual ability, as well as emotional and social maturity; (5) Enjoy and exploit literary work to extend knowledge, to refine ethical conduct, and to improve language knowledge and ability; and (6) Respect and proud to Indonesia literature as part of Indonesian cultural and intellectual richness (Maryam, 2003; and Sauri, 2006).

Description above directs education activity to be cornered to the improvement of national prestige quality. It is clearly stated, but the clarity cannot guarantee the success of the practice. Dorothy Strickland and Donna Alvermann (2004) confirm that all students or human can learn. That statement can be made to motivate teachers to educate students at school, so that they can be formed to be the national asset in improving, extending knowledge, wisdom, excellence, skill, personality, and independence. Therefore, at the end it might create educated and highly qualified nation.

Idra Djati Sidi (2001) explains that future school is not merely processing linguistics intelligence and logical-mathematic, but it must include lesson that can develop personality as a whole. This statement demands the teachers to hold learning process that makes the students learns; how to learn through various sources to get complete competence in knowledge and technology, religion, personality, and at the end it will form the students' characters.

Characters as part of culture, slivers it's bearing with values, like: truth, sincerity, and justice. It's clear that ethics as a value is a matter of having an important, and ideal meaning in human life. It is in line with Dahlan who affirms that words that

glide from someone tongue is his heart content (cited by Sauri, 2006). Discussion content empirically can be recognized as existence of saying word in high, usual, low, and skin-deep quality.

Language with high quality and high contain will process good person who is comprised with idea, solution, science/knowledge, and recitation that realized in standard, good, beautiful and correct language. Language with high quality usually comprises expression which is situational, and be based on speaker experience. Language with skin-deep quality more presents itself arrogance, itself greatness, and speaker egoism (Maryam, 2006).

From explanation above, it shows that ethics is related not only to ethics itself but also to values. Based on his research result, Sofyan Sauri (2006) expresses that principle and meaning have the decent language that are derived from *Al-Qur'an* (holy book of Islam), namely *sadida* such as gentle, clear, downright, precise, fair, and good; *ma'rufa* such as polite, fine, beautiful, correctness, please, appreciation, and standard; *baligha* such as correctness, communicative, get an impression, and touch liver; *maysyuro* such as easy, soften, fine, nice, and optimism; *lawayyina* such as gentle, touch liver, and good; and *karima* such as glorifying, respect, exalting, and appreciation.

Ethics is attitude of speaker to respect his talking partner that is being realized in polite utterance. Respect is ability for implementing our value to others. Its materialization needs emotion, cognate, and social maturity. The students need to know how to learn from various sources indicate that education is a process. Good education only can be obtained through good process. For getting the good student character, it requires learning process that involves students in education activity. It is in accordance to John Dewey (2002) that affirms that three basic factors that determine education goals are students, problem matter, and society.

The importance of students to learn to adapt to changing that happened in society is based on the essence of learning process that aims at forming students' behavior to be in line with social norm and conduct. Therefore, students must learn social values and culture that have been planted in society (enculturation) and also new values (acculturation) so that they can anticipate the future.

We need to know the definition of character first, before knowing the real meaning of character education. Anton M. Moeliono *et al.* (1988:389) explain that "character" is psychological characteristics, character or ethic of conduct that differentiate one with another, personality, noble character; have personality. Human values usually relate to: (1) God, (2) Human himself, (3) People, (4) Environment, and (5) Nation.

Character education is being synergized with Indonesian language and literature study based on supplementary books in purposively. "Supplementary books" are compiled based on a number of requirements including high values such as the truth, kindness, beauty, interest, faith, religion, dignity, justice, patience, toughness, sincerity, and benefaction. In other hand, supplementary books must be compiled in accordance to Indonesian context.

Indonesian context means that books content supports the Constitution or UUD (*Undang-Undang Dasar*) 1945, sections 32/1 which states that government should encourage Indonesia national culture in the middle of world civilization by guarantee the society freedom in maintaining and developing its cultural values (Setneg RI, 2000). Through Indonesia context, students are directed to grow their horizon, professional, and superior, futuristic, have self confidence and pride, so that they can be the role model as it is dreamt by society and the nation.

By concerning how huge the national education burden is, as teacher of Indonesian language of study, we must take role in influencing and coloring our students' life. As the process of character forming, character education can be interpreted as a systematic and systemic activity in building good character. It is called systematic because education process takes place through continuous stages. It is also called systemic because takes place in all condition, in environment that fills each other (house environment, school, and society). At school, teacher must bring students to a better life – having perfect ability and awareness to their social relation and task. Students' success to play a part in their social environment is basically their education success as process of preparing good citizen.

ON THE SUPPLEMENTARY BOOKS

For getting an understating about supplementary books, we should cite the textbook definition beforehand. It is needed because supplementary books are part of non-text resource. By differentiating between textbook and non-textbook, we are expected to be able to differentiate also the referred books role and function. Henry Guntur Tarigan defines completely textbook definition as follows:

Textbook is school book in a certain study that is standard, and arranged for instructional objectives, equipped with compatible instruction mediums, and easy to understand by its users at schools and college, so it can support the instruction program (Tarigan, 1986).

Further, Henry Guntur Tarigan (1986) cited the definition from Lange that states that textbook is standard book of special study consists of two types which are main course books and supplementary course book. Main course book refers to textbook and supplementary course book refers to supplementary books.

In brief, non-text course book is supplementary books function to enrich certain subjects. Certain words in detail can refer to field of study taught at schools. In general, it refers to various areas of science studies such as literature, art, and culture. Hence, it can be assumed that “non-text book” is book that can be informational about science, technology, literature, and culture deeply and widely (Depdiknas RI, 2009). In addition, it is not used as subject. The differences between the two can be seen completely at the following tables.

Table 1:
Differences between Text Book and Supplementary Books

No	Characteristic	Text Books	Supplementary Books
1.	Target.	Consist of written material that should be comprehended by student in the unit of education.	Add knowledge to students and teacher in the unit of education.
2.	Function in unit of education.	Main source.	Not as the main source, just a complement.
3.	Position in unit of education.	Obligatory.	Not as the main source, just a supporting.
4.	Need of supporting tool/assistant.	High.	Not high.
5.	Writing reference.	Bounded by curriculum.	Unattached to curriculum (scientific discipline, life need, progress or era growth, life experience).
6.	Teacher help.	Obligatory.	Not is obligatory.
7.	Book anatomy.	Always consists of subject matter, discussion, practice, and evaluation completely.	--
8.	User.	Student dominant.	Not student dominantly.
9.	Usage place.	Dominantly in class/school.	Not dominantly in class/school (house, waiting room, public hall, etc).

(Source: Depdiknas RI, 2011)

Table above informs that supplementary books as one of non-text books offer some advantages compared to textbooks; supplementary books can be read all the times, in any place, and for various targets. If students have had no awareness to read supplementary books, it is better for teachers to integrate its use in the learning process. The rigor explanation above is to give an understanding about the difference between textbooks and supplementary books. As for what included into supplementary non-text books are reference books and teacher guide-books. Afterward, the discussion will be focused on supplementary books.

Minister of Education regulation number 2 years 2008 explains that supplementary book is books that contain material that enrich elementary, secondary, and tertiary education (Depdiknas RI, 2009). Supplementary books can be grouped into three types those are knowledge enrichment, skill enrichment, and personality enrichment books. To know the role and function of the three of types of supplementary books are referred, in successively discussed one per one.

First, Knowledge Enrichment Book. These days, formal education uses curriculum at unit of education level or KTSP (*Kurikulum Tingkat Satuan Pendidikan*). The curriculum implementation demands the teachers to compile and present subject matter by themselves. It is not so easy though. There are number of teachers who are not yet ready to do it. It is true that textbook has been available. However, to fulfill demand of KTSP, it is necessary to provide more books. That

needs actually gives opportunity for teacher to develop supplementary books. Many teachers only rely on the existing textbooks, though the use of those books has not yet fulfilled student need and curriculum demand. It means that the learning process has not yet matched with what is expected. Textbook that is used has not yet fulfilled the needs of current and future education. Therefore, supplementary books are needed to broaden the students' knowledge and horizon.

The breadth of insight can stimulate human brain to think. Human brain has the extraordinary power. Many spectacular events are the results of human thinking (Suwirta, 2005). That greatness does not occur by itself, it must be stimulated, conditioned, and processed correctly; and directed to think positively. Hernowo (2002) explicates that human with his brain can jump and make amazing leaps. There is a passion to produce meaningful ideas.

To realize it, the conducive learning should be created. It is expected to lead the students to have willingness and ability to read supplementary books. This effort can be considered as literary development. However, it is still insignificant as showed by research result of Centre for National Assessment in 2003 (cited in Maryam, 2006). Further, it also requires efforts to develop healthy school.

Second, Personality Enrichment. Indonesian socio-culture puts emphasize on language politeness. Indonesian society still maintains East cultural features. Then, supplementary book must direct its reader to have good conduct. In consequence, the usage of its language must refer to the previous target. Consequently, the diction also must consider politeness.

Politeness equals to manner or etiquette. According to W.S. Hasanuddin (2009), politeness is a matter that includes conscious to others prestige. The implementation is in form of accepted procedures, traditions, or habits in a civilized society. Politeness is rule of conduct that has been specified and agreed on together by a certain society. Therefore, politeness becomes a requirement that is agreed on in social behavior.

Politeness can be seen from various facets: (1) it shows attitude that contain manner value or etiquette in everyday interaction; (2) politeness is very contextual, it is only applicable in a certain society, place, and situation, but it might not be applicable in other society, place, and situation; and (3) politeness is always bipolar, or has two polarity relationship, like the relationship between children and parents, the young and the younger one, and readers and writers. Politeness is reflected in the way of communicating, acting, and behaving.

Language politeness, according to S.C. Levinson (1985), at least can be conducted within five ways: (1) it is necessary to apply politeness in language use. This principle tries to maximize enjoy and wisdom, advantage, respect or put other benefit beyond everything, less respect to one self, and emphasize on empathy to others; (2) language politeness should avoid taboo words in communicating; (3) the use of euphemism in order to maintain language politeness; (4) politeness can be reached by using honorific words, which is expression to show respect and soft utterance; and (5) politeness can be formed by applying appropriate non-linguistics

aspect. By applying this language politeness, offensiveness can be avoided until the conflict in society can be minimized.

To maximize the use of personality enrichment books, teachers' willingness to select supplementary books that have criteria above until students get the meaningful learning from the books.

Third, Skill Enrichment. These days, life is getting more competitive in various areas. Skill of all nation elements must be optimized. Considering graduates of higher education cannot get the job indirectly. Data indicates that huge numbers of graduates wait for job formation with slight possibility to be accepted. While in other side, the demand of working force is very high. Till now, there is no link and match between academics content and expectation of user as the consumer. As the consequence, in the future it is necessary to prepare skillful generation.

New paradigm must be developed by education, including supplementary books for building life skill and entrepreneurship in addition to professionalism. For Indonesian language study, for example, skills and professionalism that can be developed are in areas like: tour guide, master of ceremony, priest, holy Qur'an reciter, religious speaker, consultant, instructor, authors, editor, poet, novelist, short story writers, dramatist, broadcaster, journalist, and many others.

The forming of those professions needs supplementary books that can answer challenge from the future. Professional ability must be prepared so that Indonesia will have the ability to create independent job market. From the three of type of supplementary books above, book of personality enrichment is the most important to be developed for character building and reinforcing students' ethics. Both types of other supplement books even also can play a part in Indonesian language and literature study, but for the cognitive and psychomotor purpose.

Application of character education in Indonesian language and literature in supplementary books is relevant to Rule of National Education Minister Number 2/2008. Section 6 verses (2) sounds that "*Besides course textbook as referred to verse (1) teacher can use educator guide-books and can use supplementary books and reference book in the learning process*" (Depdiknas RI, 2009).

It is referred that classroom activity can use various sources. Ideally, book variation would give wide opportunity to see world. If the use of knowledge enrichment books in school is optimized, then student will be able to follows the progress of communication science and technology these days.

Utilization of personality supplementary books in literature study is very possible. Research result of Siti Maryam (2003) proved that short story as one of cultural product can be made as medium or material to teach social value and culture. Supplementary books can be made as medium of truth conveyor. In the old Indonesian society, literature becomes inseparable part of everyday life. Ajip Rosidi (1995) affirmed that poets were placed in high position. Their words were more valuable than pearl.

Literary work is considered not merely as the solace but also as medium of truth conveyor that have strength which was not limited by space and time. In

fact, literary reading not only can be made medium of the truth conveyor but, as Siti Maryam (2006) finds, that varieties of essay writings can be also used as the medium of truth conveyor.

Besides, language ethics reinforcement must be done in comprehensively until students' possess language politeness. If it is realized, then its contribution to society especially to student will be very significant. In order to reach it, the language learning must be based on ethics. Therefore, teacher must be role model of using polite language. Furthermore, students must be facilitated more in using polite language. The gist that often is forgotten is giving appreciation to children that can use polite language, so it can fertilize student habit as person that not merely polite but also can express their opinion in all situation and condition.

By increasing knowledge quality, skill, and student personality, then Indonesian language study must include supplementary books in reading, speaking, listening, and writing courses. Of course its execution must be based on KTSP (*Kurikulum Tingkat Satuan Pendidikan* or Curriculum at Unit of Education Level). After teacher determines basic competence and indicator, then teacher can plan at which step supplementary books can be used as supplementary material in learning activity. Cutoffs of the supplementary books can be made as course material or example. It also can be used for practice activity, tasks, evaluation, or other exercises.

CONCLUSION

Effort of Indonesian language study teachers in strengthening student character and upholding ethics is one of effort in improving human resource quality. This effort is very essential, considering the quality of Indonesian citizen is still unsatisfying. Through speaking and writing skills, teacher can evaluate the use of language ethics among students, both directly and indirectly.

Written language that learnt by student can be in the form of textbook and also supplementary books. One of the types of supplementary books is personality enrichment book, which can be use as medium to support the forming of student character in school. Supplementary books can fulfill student need, in a sense that it can develop personality, extend knowledge, and uplift life skill which is beneficial in building social independence.

As it is explicated earlier, directly and indirectly that education environment would form students' behavior to live in society, especially in minimizing or even preventing social conflict. Teachers must involve in learning activity, since it has closed relationship to the reinforcement of moral values that suitable with general rule of conduct admitted as common truth.

Those varied of truth can be obtained through personality enrichment book. Open mindedness will effect on someone behavior. Many social problems are caused by ignorance or lack of society knowledge. Students as the next generation should be prepared to socialize and live properly. Therefore, Indonesian language and literature learning should optimize the students' role through supplementary books.

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RE-EXAMINING IMPLEMENTATION OF POLICY ON EQUITY IN EDUCATION IN MALAYSIA

ABU BAKAR NORDIN

***ABSTRACT:** Democratization of education implied that all children of school age should have the right to be in schools and also have the right to be assisted to achieve as much as what their cohorts have achieved or what has been specified by the curriculum. However, owing to variations in factors such as family economic and education backgrounds, ethnicity, school locations, school and teacher distributions, allocation of school funds, diversity in the implementations of specific reforms, the presence of physically and mentally handicapped students and parent-teacher association involvement in school activity; accessibility and achievement fell short of the expectation. In examining the current forms of policy implementation and reforms discrepancies found run not only counter to the sacred doctrine of democratization of education but also work against the sacred goals of providing equal education opportunity for all children. Streaming according to performance, despite having its own advantages, does not help in either accessibility or achievement and thereby antithetical to equity. Therefore, the current practices in the implementation of the policy and reforms should be re-examined within the context of a reliable framework, so that remedial and much more innovative considerations such as purposeful distributions of teachers, making additional fund available for needy schools, streaming according to the needs of children to be able to learn effectively, and dispensing some allocation and organizational skills to educate parents to be actively involved in school activities can purposefully be undertaken.*

***KEY WORDS:** Equity in education, education policy in Malaysia, re-examining policy in education, and education and equity.*

INTRODUCTION

In 2011, there were approximately 5.37 million children between the age of seven and eighteen enrolled in the government schools in Malaysia. Out of this, 2.22 million children were in secondary schools and the rest were in primary schools. Despite its proud achievements in ensuring that every child enrolling in primary education and even better still came out in 10th and 20th placings in mathematics and science achievements respectively in TIMSS (Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study) in 2003 – although the placings in those two subjects plunged down to 20th and 21st placings respectively in TIMSS in 2007 – the success story was not shared by every group in the country. Measured by a number of public

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examinations conducted by the Ministry of Education, the bulk of Malay pupils in rural areas or in the poor areas of the main cities performed much lower than the Chinese counterparts in all public examinations in almost all of the school subjects.

Inability to master 3Rs (Reduce, Reuse, and Recycle) at grade three among pupils from low income groups was higher than 5 percent which is the national average rate. Dropout percentage out of the primary school population was at 1.9 percent in urban area and 1.2 percent in rural area, while for the lower secondary school level the percentage of dropout was much higher and larger discrepancy seen, that is at 9.3 percent and 16.7 percent respectively for urban and rural areas. The dropout percentage for the aborigine pupils was much higher. The problems of equity in education at both the primary and secondary school levels were still far from being resolved even when these problems gained attention fifty years ago, particularly in its *Second Five-Year Malaysia Plan* in 1963. In the New Economic Policy or DEB (*Dasar Ekonomi Baru*) in 1969, the main policy thrusts were the eradication of poverty, particularly in the rural areas of the country and restructuring of the society so that stratification was not identifiable with ethnic groups and also compounded by locations. In this context, education was viewed as playing an important role in the long run, in achieving those two thrusts. However, to achieve those thrusts education needs to be equitable.

As it is there were a number of discrepancies found in the schooling process. These were discrepancy between accessibility or participation and achievement; discrepancy in infrastructure and basic facilities among regions and areas, particularly between urban and rural areas, Peninsular Malaysia and East Malaysia; discrepancy between the main stream population and the specific minority groups like the aborigines; discrepancy in terms of group awareness and involvement in education and group ignorance and apathy towards education; and discrepancy in economic terms and certain political decisions which led to the discrepancies in both psychological and educational readiness for success in schooling. Realizing the importance of bridging the gaps if equity were to be realized the Ministry of Education Strategic Blueprint or PPIP (*Pelan Induk Pembangunan Pendidikan*) in 2006-2010 and NKRA (National Key Result Areas or *Bidang Keberhasilan Utama Negara*) were launched and endorsed in much of the planning in RMK-10 (*Rancangan Malaysia ke-10* or *Tenth Five-Year Malaysia Plan*) in 2011 which re-emphasized steps of bridging the identified gaps towards equity.

In order to comprehend the policy implemented by the government, first of all the term equity needs to be clearly understood. Equity, in this context, is interpreted in terms of accessibility and achievement. Accessibility is translated into equal opportunity offered to all children to attend schools which was translated into providing adequate facilities for effective learning to take place. Achievement is translated in terms of performance in the school and public examinations which reflects the mastery of specified knowledge and skills and the imbibement of acceptable values (Hutmacher, Cochrane & Bottani, 2001; and Meuret, 2002). As to enable policy on equity to be successfully implemented, the cause of inequality

must first be understood, then, only adequate measures can be undertaken to bring about equity.

IMPLEMENTATION OF EDUCATION POLICY ON EQUITY

Historically, the focus of the education policy was on building of schools in urban areas where rapid economic development took place. Schools were well equipped and manned in contrast to low priority given to rural areas as seen in terms of slow development taking place in many rural areas. The gaps in the provision of educational facilities and, thus, opportunity were also witnessed between schools of different types. All these led to the differences in the achievement among students. However, in the *Third Five-Year Malaysia Plan*, the discrepancies were the subjects of focus as witnessed the statement of the goal pertaining to education as, “to close the gaps in the educational opportunity between the rich and the poor, among the regions, and among the ethnic groups through fair allocation of national resources and facilities” (*Third Five-Year Malaysia Plan*, 1976:3).

As in 2005, there were 5,077 (66.8%) primary schools and 792 (39.0%) secondary schools in rural areas. Many of these schools did not have proper infrastructure and learning facilities. Around 767 primary schools and 28 secondary schools, for example, did not enjoy 24 hour electricity supply and some did not have regular supply of diesel to run their generators. Some were supplied with low voltage electricity which was able for ICT (Information and Communication Technology) use. Clean water supply was not available in 1,517 primary schools and in 68 secondary schools. Quite a sizeable number of schools in rural areas are unable to access ICT. Teachers are not able to be placed in rural schools, while the schools for *orang asli* (indigenous people) and in remote parts of the country, particularly in Sabah and Sarawak, are normally manned by teachers who are not trained, thus not well versed to manage both the students and learning. Similar problems faced by teachers who were teaching disadvantaged children and other at risk groups of pupils.

Aware of these problems, the Ministry of Education redoubled its efforts to improve the situations. For example, as found in the system there were 15,444 untrained temporary teachers in primary schools and 2,895 in secondary schools. In order to provide teachers in critical subject areas in rural and remote areas, the Ministry of Education launched school based teacher training programme. To reduce the digital gap between rural and urban schools in the *Eighth Five-Year Malaysia Plan* in 2000, the Ministry of Education in put up infrastructure and ICT laboratories provided equipments such as computers in many schools in rural and remote areas of the country.

Registration in the higher secondary schools was 71.7% as compared with 84.4% for lower secondary schools and 96.0% for primary schools. The attrition rate of registration was addressed in many forms of aids and supports for children of *orang asli* (indigenous people) and other minority groups, including those from

poor families to attend and continue schooling until form five. To overcome high rate of failure to master 3Rs (Reduce, Reuse, and Recycle) at the primary school level, the Ministry of Education launched pilot program for problem class at 71 schools in 2004 and later changed to early intervention programme for reading and writing. Teachers who handled these classes were trained in remedial teaching. For the disadvantaged children, the Ministry of Education identified those children categorized as having learning problems such as behavioral problems, autism, down syndrome, attention deficit disorder (ADD), attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD), and dyslexia from those who are defective in hearing and seeing. Consequential to that, the Ministry of Education until 2005 provided 28 special education at primary schools, 2 each at the secondary level and for vocational stream. At the same time, inclusive education was put in place at 739 schools.

Topping all the compensations in order to overcome the problems of discrepancies in the opportunity in education, the Ministry of Education spent RM (Ringgit Malaysia) 1.0 billion every year giving aids and supports to students from the disadvantaged families in the forms of supplementary food (RMT, *Rancangan Makanan Tambahan* or Food Supplementary Program); milk (PSS, *Program Susu Tambahan* or Milk Supplementary Program); hostel food fees; payment of school and examination fees and school uniforms through trust fund for poor students or KWAPM (*Kumpulan Wang Amanah Pelajar Miskin*), and transport cost for going to schools.

RE-EXAMINING THE POLICY AND ITS IMPLEMENTATION

After fifty years, even with so much inputs being undertaken, the gaps in inputs, in the process, and in attainment between different groups of students and between inputs and attainments are still noticeably significant. Because of these gaps, there is a need to scrutinize and identify the possible weakness in the policy and in its implementation, so that a revised effort could be launched in bringing about equal opportunity in education.

Policy implementation by the Ministry of Education is difficult to interpret due to a number of reasons. *Firstly*, there is confusion in differentiating the identified gaps in education, be they the inputs, the cause, the process, or the results. *Secondly*, the approach to equity seems lacking clear framework, and exclusive in its assumption, causes, and impacts which were not helpful in formulating of policy and forwarding steps for action. *Thirdly*, there were elements in the policy which were antithetical to the attempt of attaining equity.

As to the first question, inequality gaps were almost lumped together and in so doing creates confusion as to the question of causality. This confusion does not help in the diagnosing of the problems of inequality and, hence, formulation of equity policy will not be easy. In examining the policy embarked, it appeared that the cause of inequality in both accessibility and achievement is assumed to stem from ascription factors such as social class, gender, ethnic group, and locality; while

factors were identifiable with natural endowment such as intelligence, aptitudes, and psychological characteristics were regarded to be functionally and, therefore, equal among the various groups of students (Mosteller & Moynihan eds., 1972; and Kozol, 1995).

Unequal outputs are the result of the disadvantageous modalities of primary socialization for those identified groups. Consequently, the focus in bringing about equity is to ensure accessibility was equitable. The allocation of resources was based on compensating for those who are being handicapped by the circumstances such as being poor, being in the rural area, and belonging to at risk groups. This could be seen in terms of giving priority to providing of school facilities and equipments, taking care of student health and welfare, opening of opportunity for boarding school placement, and allocating of other forms of aids to these groups.

This interpretation of deficit theory, unequal accessibility to education due to cultural deprivation, is the main cause of shortfall in the outputs leads to almost simple solution which sometimes fails to connect between cause and effect. Thus, it is viewed that equal treatment in terms the amount of resources allocated would worsen the results. Hence, according to Talcott Parsons, it is strongly felt that the right step to take is to propose policies of increasing equality of opportunity through equity of treatment in the form of compensator policy (cited by Meyhew ed., 1983). This is, in fact, the basis of the policy being pursued in the *Third Five-Year Malaysia Plan* in 1976.

More schools were built in rural areas and facilities in those schools were vastly improved. Qualified teachers were sent to these schools. Science subjects were emphasized and students were streamed into science streams. More boarding schools were built and priority was given to the students from rural background. Scholarships of various kinds were provided at all levels for those who deserved to be helped. As a result in the seventies, large number of students from rural and low income families were able to follow tertiary education. Many successfully came out filling up vacancies as professionals in both public and private sectors. At that time, it appears that policy implementation is on the right path, moving towards equity in educational opportunity.

Continuing into the 1980s to 2000, the Ministry of Education keeps on identifying gaps in achievement and coming out with programmes to improve the shortcomings in the implementation of the compensatory policy. Unfortunately, after about forty years of adopting the deficit model through the implementation of the so-called compensatory policy, inequality in inputs, between inputs and outputs, and among outputs of various groups in the society are still significant. The *Tenth Five-Year Malaysia Plan* in 2011 is a good example to illustrate why inequality of opportunity in education is unattainable.

A number of reforms were introduced of which some were running counter to the spirit of equity. Introducing of high performance school, selection of students for special schools based on assessment at the end of primary school, pitting schools against each other in terms of performance which inevitable leads to the

focus on examination, and those students identified to be potentially beneficial to schools' ranking apart from continuing the old policy of selecting students for boarding schools based on ability with only token regard of the social background are examples how policy implementation departs from the spirit entrenched in the *Second Five-Year Malaysia Plan* in 1963.

The introduction of smart schools (*sekolah bestari*) with an emphasis of using ICT (*Information and Communication Technology*) in pedagogical approach added to the inequality of the opportunity since many of the schools in rural areas for a number of reasons such as lacking in infrastructure, trained teachers, and computers will not be able to embark on the project at the same time as the smart schools. Although by 2005, about 92,685 schools were able to be connected by broadband through the *SchoolNet Project*, student readiness and facilities in rural areas, both at schools and at home particularly, are far inferior to those able to be enjoyed by those in urban schools. Thus, in the Ministry of Education Development Master Plan or *Pelan Induk Pembangunan Pendidikan* (PIPP), the intention to decrease the gaps with regards to locations, socio-economic standard, and levels of students' ability (and) the aims of the Ministry of Education (MoEM, 2006:32) was to ensure that all schools and the students have the same opportunity and ability for excellence inclusive of national schools and national type schools so that access, equity, and quality could be upgraded will remain as a dream.

In examining a long list of activities and achievements as recorded some did comply with modality of compensation, but many others seem to promote meritocracy, favorable to those groups which had a good headstart. Failing to pursue the deficit theory, as shown in the inconsistency of implementing compensatory model, is caused by the confusion in the adopting of a clear policy frame work which inadvertently leading to the introduction of the elements of meritocracy consistent to the concept of contest mobility. Establishing of high performance school, pitting schools against each other, and selection of students for different streams and for different schools are some of the practices subscribing to the structural-functionalist model of equity in which achievement namely natural endowment characteristics such as aptitude, intelligence, and personality are functional therefore equitable.

Forging forward for equity in education requires consistencies in differentiating symptoms, causes, effects, and process or action to be overcome the symptoms, the causes or the effects. Success in overcoming failure with regards to requires both policy and procedure differentiations. A student could not attend the school regularly because of poor health or unable to follow mathematics lessons because he/she was unable to read and calculate would require different compensatory treatments in the deficit model, from a student who did not attain excellence in examination or dropped out from school. Therefore, policy must identify the symptoms and be based on causes and not effects which could only act as pointers to policy ineffectiveness.

Thus, in formulating a policy and its implementation, the underlying assumption taken needs to be consistent and comprehensive, while at the same time taking into

consideration of the implementation of the policy vis-vis compensatory model, in the past. Merely pursuing the deficit theory, as exemplified in the implementation of compensation alone, is not enough. Inequality opportunity in education policy must be tackled on many fronts, nevertheless they must be consistent. Through pursuing of compensation hopefully inadequacy in the opportunity to access and achieve in education is overcome.

Unfortunately, compensation alone as proven by the past records does not help and is unable to explain persistency in the gaps in opportunity in access and in achievement. Providing amenities, tailored made programs, and others do ensure that every one gets equal opportunity to education and equal opportunity to learn. Compensating of amenities, for example, will not act directly in opening of access to education or in changing of student performance. Policy on compensation will only help if efficiently implemented to change the culture of the actors involved in teaching and learning namely students' attitude and motivation to learn, teachers' ability and disposition to teach, schools' climate and environment conducive for learning, and the supportive neighbourhood.

R. Bourdieu and P. Passeron (1978) refer the educationally conducive environment for change as cultural capital. In the cultural capital, it is postulated that individuals' total compliance to external forces acting on them without their awareness will not be able to bring about any change. Individuals are instrumental of the culture of the group to which they belong, and of the structure of the culture which is hierarchically based in the form of the dominant and dominated cultures. By virtue of hidden influence, individuals are induced to want what scholastic and occupational status society allows them to attain, as members of particular social classes or sub-classes. This concept of cultural capital has proven to be very useful for understanding the mechanisms for which compensation is transformed and, hence, determined educational groups' inequalities. The very question raised at this juncture how is compensation able to transform the culture of the individuals trapped in the cage of social structure.

DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Going back to the drawing board, there are a number of important concepts need to be constructed so that objective reality is clear and understood for policy implementation to be pursued. First of all, the concept of equal opportunity or equity in education needs to be clear, but current notions of equity are much more complex that even American authors who advocated a closer approach to equality, while calling it a key value on which everyone ought to agree, admit that it is unfortunate that general equality or equity is almost impossible to define. Similarly, in commenting on this difficulty, D. Boorstin wrote as follows:

Take our concept of equality, which many have called the central American value. No sooner does one describe a subject like this and try to separate it for study, than one finds it diffusing and evaporating into the general atmosphere. "Equality", what does it mean? In the United

States, it has been taken for a fact and an ideal, a moral imperative and a sociological datum, a legal principle, and a social norm (Boorstin, 1953:176).

Despite the difficulty in defining the precise meaning of the term, equality or equity at least three interpretations could be forwarded. The classic and still widespread concept is based on the principle of equal opportunity for students belonging to different types of social groups (class, stratum, race, gender, community types, etc.); meaning that scholastic outcomes must be independent of ascriptive variables. This, then, falls more clearly within the meritocratic perspective. This concept of liberal equality of opportunity provides distinctions between genetically inherited *versus* socially acquired ability, and between freely chosen effort and effort in resulting from socially determined aspirations. The second way of defining equity is to identify the inequities one hopes to eradicate. Two sources of inequity are evident; those arising from the system's structure and practices, and those arising from the student's ethno-cultural and socio-economic context. The third way of defining equity is to consider the broad sequential elements comprising a common trilogy emerging from resource allocation (supports, finances, and taxes); the process of schooling (the school experience, program, content, and access); and the outcomes (learning achieved and impacts on later life).

The second concept which needs to be clear is related to the clarification of the modality to build the framework for action. For this, one needs to go back and examine a number of proposed sociological theories and approaches which would be able to explain the fundamentals and the mechanism of policy formulation and policy implementation. So far, the deficit theory as proposed by the functionalist originated from the works of Emile Durkheim and Talcott Parsons seemed to be convincing and managed to gain widespread support (cited by Mestrovic, 1988; and Meyhew ed., 1983).

Educational inequalities, according to this view, stem from ascription factors such as social class or stratum, gender, ethnic group, or nationality which are residual traces of pre-modern society. So, the deficit theory was proposed in which the cultural dynamic of cultural deprivation is considered to be the main cause of unequal outputs in school. In order to grasp the value of the educational output in terms of equity, the nature of the overall socio-economic context which influenced the functioning of all social sub-systems should be taken into consideration. On the process side from this theoretical standpoint, the amount of resources allocated to compensatory education should be the focus of action. In such a perspective, equity of treatment requires some kind of compensator policy rather than simply equality of educational provisions.

Inequality can also be considered from the perspective of social or cultural reproduction theory. Inequalities among groups are produced by social constraints and not by genetic endowments and individual choices (Bourdieu & Passeron, 1978). All inequalities are inextricably interwoven into the global structure of our society. One of the important contributions of this theory is that it believes educational systems also contribute to the reproduction of unjust inequalities

in a subjectivist way. In one of the strains of this theory, there is a belief that cultural factors do not directly affect but mediate structural factors which, in fact, affect individual behavior. The concept of cultural capital, introduced by the cultural reproductionist, opens the room for the formulation of equity policy to consider the process of cultural change resulting from structural change. Variance found in academic success than might help in explaining the process of cultural transformation resulting from structural change. If this is true, then, one has to be cautious and selective in providing compensation in the hope of bringing about educational equity. What needs to be thought through is how to support a rational pedagogy aimed at compensating initial disadvantages of cultural capital.

Opposing to the Weberian matrix of determinism, the cultural relativist and pluralist on the contrary believes that schools do not simply ratify externally generated inequalities, but they also actively produce inequalities. Thus, the source of school inequity is shifted from the characteristics of the failing children, their families, and their cultures towards more general societal processes, including schooling through their social actors in school (teachers and students), making resistance or change possible (Mehan, 1992). Inequalities among groups are due to the characteristics of agency and culture, rather than structure of the society.

A different perspective, however, was taken up by the new directionists who look into curriculum as the source of inequality. School curriculum sometimes demonstrates bias and through conflicting social interests produces ideological effects. In this case, curriculum operates as discriminatory institutions and being exploited by culturally dominant groups, so as to reproduce their dominance over the dominated groups (Foster, Gomm & Hammersley, 1996). As a result, the new directionists propose that fairness in education essentially means differentiated and appropriate curricula for all social groups; that is, equal rights to reproduce their specific cultures and languages through schooling without any dominance or interference on the part of any other group.

Almost similar to this stance is the American interpretive sociology which believes that inequalities in achievement at school are due to the mismatch between linguistic patterns and socialization practices in the home and the classroom (Mehan, 1992). In contrast to the deficit theory in which language use and socialization practices of certain social groups are deficient thus needs to overcome through compensatory education. The interpretive sociologists hold that all kinds of patterns and practices in which both teachers and students modify their behavior in the direction of a common goal are worth considering (Foster, 1971).

J. Coleman (1986) representing the methodological individualism approach put the individuals, as an intentional and rational actor whose choices, are influenced by social constraints but not completely determined by them. He conceptualizes students' school careers in terms of a sequence of decision-making processes in which they compare benefits, costs, and risks connected to each possible choice: to stay in *school* or to drop out, to enroll in one scholastic channel or track rather than in another, to be more intensely engaged in studying or less so, etc. The

choice requires, on the one hand, taking into account objective and subjective resources and, on the other, the goals to be pursued. The amount of available resources, more than the character which the culture inculcated through primary socialization, is considered crucial to explaining individual choices.

J. Coleman (1988), in his concept of social capital in which his stand on individualism entrenched, forwarded also a broader and more culturally inspired way of insofar as it includes not only interpersonal ties and information but also other dimensions such as values, norms, and trust which embrace components of student social background not addressed by cultural-capital theory. If we look at educational inequalities as part of a process determined by an individual's decisions, and subject to influence by external and internal factors, then we have to analytically consider the different decision-relevant variables acting on such a process. Nonetheless, J. Coleman (1988) believes that complete equality of educational opportunity is impossible to reach because it would require a dramatic change in public policy which inevitably too expensive to be accepted by any society. A certain reduction of existing inequalities is possible which, then, presupposes a more active role for schools.

In reflecting upon the definition and the theories upon which a frame work of equity is to be formulated, it is fair to assume that equity refers to equality in the outcomes of schooling and, as for the framework to mount the policy, one cannot rely on any specific theory or approach (Schoeck, 1958; and Kristol, 1972). If sequential elements comprising a common trilogy of input, process, and outcomes were of any guide then, at all these levels steps need to be taken to identify the problems and to propose for the solutions. In the process of identifying the problems and proposing the solutions, perhaps the deficit theory seems logical and convincing in explaining and in suggesting the solutions.

However, providing of compensation alone without looking into how transformation for equitability takes place will not be helpful for policy formulation. At this juncture, the concept of social capital and cultural capital which mediate structural change and social change needs to be considered in the policy formulation. In the social and cultural capital, student is seen as an intentional and rational actor whose choices are influenced by social constraints but not completely determined by them and he/she will normally go through a sequence of decision-making processes in which he/she will compare benefits, costs, and risks involved in his/her schooling (Silberman, 1967; and Rothbard, 1970).

In trying to find the equity solution, there should also be a balance between the deterministic and the phenomenological views of active roles of social actors about social change. The idea that the source of inequality is the societal processes, including schooling and not the the characteristics of the failing children, their families, and their cultures must be taken into consideration by re-evaluating the roles played by the school actors namely the students, the teachers, and many others. In relation to that, the school curriculum also should be scrutinized as it normally works in favour of specific social interests which in turn can lead school to be a discriminatory institution.

Following the above argument, it seems that equality of education opportunity in the absence of the principle of fairness will allow only for the rise to meritocracy and contest mobility in education and the world of works. Therefore, to enable the principle of justice to prevail the option taken should introduce policy and programme intervention in the forms of reversed discrimination and sponsored mobility, as to ensure that every individual and every group of individuals be provided with the conditions in which they can succeed (Dyer, 1972; and Lipset, 1972). This is what equity means.

In the United States of America, for example, SES was found to be the most important factor in academic success (Coleman *et al.*, 1966; and Silberman, 1967). While in OEDC countries, parental qualifications correlated highly with earning of degrees. Other factors such as gender, location, and being minorities are no less important directly or indirectly in contributing towards inequality. These are the factors needed to be scrutinized and intervened. But as mentioned, the mechanism of how the compensators work need to be understood. Providing of compensation without ensuring that they are able to generate social and cultural capital will not bring about positive change (Martin, 1926; and Ardrey, 1970).

Employing the deficit theory and using of social and cultural capital to undermine and eradicate the force of inequality will not be adequate. The present curriculum and the surrounding political climate of the classroom (among other things) which perpetuate inequality have to be examined and overhauled. Politics plays a major role in the atmosphere of the classroom and the schools, and the level of equity or otherwise dispensed by social actors *vis-à-vis* teachers, schools and education managers policy, and students is far reaching.

Within the classroom, everyone including the student has certain responsibilities for creating an atmosphere of equity. He/she must put forth the effort to understand both the material and the context in which the material is learned. However, it cannot be expected that student will understand the impact of learning the material discussed, presented, and/or discovered. It is the teacher who is responsible to provide the impetus (through activity or through explanation) for learning materials where application is not immediately evident.

However, the teacher is limited in what he/she can do with the kind of students in his/her classroom, with the curriculum and the surrounding political climate imposed on him/her. One needs only to look at the current political antagonism and indecision towards using of English in teaching of science and mathematics in recent years to see how politics can influence curricula and pedagogy (for good or for ill). And not to mention is the policy and the practice of streaming of students into special schools and boarding schools which determine the classroom and school atmosphere detrimental to equity. It is through political means that curricula are developed, standards are set, and teachers are promoted, hired, or fired. These political pressures can serve to promote or (more often than not) hinder equity in schools and outside of the schools.

As mentioned earlier, curriculum also plays a major role in the level of equity found in schools. It serves as a guide for teachers as well serving as a measuring

tool against which teachers and schools are evaluated. By manipulating the curriculum, political powers are able to manipulate the classroom, but, due to the necessary input of teachers in the development of curricula, the classroom does not become a purely political arena. In many ways, the curriculum serves as a mediator between the wants and needs of the power structure and the wants and needs of the teachers and students (Resch, 1998; and Rothbard, 1999). In its role as mediator, the curriculum goes a long way toward setting the tone for educational equity, but, ultimately, the teacher is the one who deals with the students directly and mediates the subject and the students. The teachers as the leading actors hold the key to equity depending on the ways curriculum, facilities, political pressure, policy, and even compensators are manipulated in the interest of the students to bring about equity.

In the light of the interpretations of equity and the frameworks derived from theories on equity, it is safe to say that equity policy and its implementation in the education system in Malaysia needs to be revamped. It is inadequate to rely only on the deficit theory. An adequate framework should encompass how all sectors in the education environment: the society, the various social and political institutions including the schools, the curriculum, and the social actors within the schools like the teachers and the students are to be brought together in formulating social capital, thus, set the stage for the enhancement of learning. At the same time, any form of discriminatory measures promoting meritocracy should be approached with caution (Bell, 1972).

CONCLUSION

Since each child brings a repository of cultural knowledge, and with all-pervasive variations especially in aptitudes, abilities, and characters, it can be concluded that equality in its fullest sense and true to the tradition of the non-functionalists is only an ideal and unrealizable goal unless drastic changes to society and affirmative action is seriously undertaken in education. Because of that, many sociologists of education believed that by trying to make them equal *vis-à-vis* each individual is unique than one unintentionally destroyed most of what is human in him/her. To be fair to the idea about equity, there is no intention to create equality in man/woman. What equity purports to do is to ensure that every one gets his/her fair share of what is due to him/her. In education, the principle of justice works to ensure that all students are able to learn as much as others in his/her cohort.

The challenges to equity are still dominant with at least in three areas. The first one is even by subjecting all children to the same curriculum; however, we would still be unable to achieve the desired equality. The inborn differences among individuals are too fundamental as a part of their natures to be obliterated even by any form of scholastic engineering. Compulsory schooling not only fails to achieve its egalitarian goal, but by subjecting all to the same studies in lockstep fashion, we effectively deny them any real opportunity at all.

The second one is the existence of a potent force in the society which will always try to maintain its dominance. One way to ensure this dominance is by sending children to selected schools. In Malaysia, there are a number of schools categorized as premier schools, boarding schools, and excellence schools of which both students and teachers are specially selected, while the schools also are given special treatments in terms of allocations of funds and facilities.

As observed in the United States of America by J. Kozol (1992), a policy known as the magnet system was highly attractive to the more sophisticated parents who with their ingenuity and having political connections manage to uphold an ideal of white race dominance by sending their children to magnet schools where teachers are hand-picked and the schools operate much like private institutions. The third one is the confusion in the planning and implementation of the equity policy, and at time compounded with the advocacy of meritocracy which always gains the upper hand in the policy formulation and implementation, especially in the face of the need to meet the global challenges.

With those challenges at hand, there was an urgent need for the authority in Malaysia, or for any country having similar problems, to review the policy both at its planning and implementation levels. Deficit theory alone does not explain students' failure and likewise compensation will not help in bringing about success in learning. Students' failure and steps to help them will only be effective when the cultural context of learning or education is taken into account. This implies that at the macro level, one has to be aware of and work on cultural and social capital theories in converting students to be skilful, knowledgeable, and motivated learners. In this context, the facilities provided and the curriculum implemented need to be genuinely consistent with equity policy. At the micro level, teachers in classrooms have to play the roles of active actors of change, so that students apart from acquiring knowledge and skill they also feel needed and valued by the society.

In spite of the policy drawn and implemented and various inputs provided, it is believed that at the micro level that change can be effectively brought about. Teachers hold the key to some forms of equity. In daily dealing with the students, teachers are able to understand the students' needs, their cultures, and their ideas. This means that teachers are in the positions to provide an atmosphere within which students can explore their own cultural understanding of the subjects learned and get a glimpse of other perspectives on the same subjects. In studies cited by R. Gutierrez (2003), despite such negative curricular tools as streaming and lacks of facilities and instructional materials, students can essentially achieve equally given that the teacher resources are equally distributed.

Today, teachers act as parents, disciplinarians, psychologists, politicians, and above all of equity dispensers. Once teaching can be scaled down from merely the dissemination of information, the more can teachers' skills and attitude be focus towards dispensing equity in other areas of their profession apart from teaching the school subjects.

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THE INFLUENCE OF TEACHERS' PERFORMANCE EMPOWERMENT IN IMPROVING THE QUALITY OF EDUCATION IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

WASPODO TJIPTO SUBROTO

ABSTRACT: Teachers have importance position and roles to increase the quality of teaching and learning process, so that the performance of the teachers must also be improved. Empowering the teachers' performance is visible to increase the quality of education in the elementary schools in Surabaya city, East Java, Indonesia. This study is intended to explore on how to implement the empowerment for teachers (education qualification, training, and briefings) related to education quality. The study was conducted to the sample of 174 small clusters by using stratified cluster sampling technique. Applying structural equation modeling analysis, the research-intensive as the findings followed. This research finding showed that education qualification of teachers influenced the teachers' performance and also the education quality at elementary schools. Besides that, it influenced education in service training to teachers' performance and education quality. Moreover, teachers' professional training also influenced the performance and the education quality. The research conclusion stated that empowerment of teachers has influenced the increase of performance with indicators of knowledge, attitude, and skills to increase the education quality. So, the quality of elementary schools with value indicator increased not only the quantity but also quality of teaching and learning process.

KEY WORDS: Teacher performance, empowering, Indonesia human resources, elementary schools, teaching and learning process, and quality of education.

INTRODUCTION

Indonesian government's efforts to enhance the quality of teachers have actually been done through various forms of policy. The enactment of UU (*Undang-Undang* or Act) Number 14 Year 2005 about teachers and lecturers is the basis of policies to strengthen the existence of teachers as professionals, like other professions. Professional quality of teachers has always been pursued, either through the provision of educational qualifications or in-service training activities, with its various forms such as education and training, refresher courses, and involvement in various seminars to update his/her insights in pedagogy and academic competence.

The government began to realize how strategic the role of teachers in delivering the younger generation to be qualified and competitive human resources (HR)

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to realize common prosperity (Supriyono, 1989). The history of civilization and progress of nations in the world showed us that instead of natural resources abundance of the dominant nation to usher in prosperity, the toughness of competitiveness and excellence of science and technology (science and technology) were exactly what role the nation to reap welfare. Even mastering science and technology, human resources tended to use technology to master the natural resources of other nations.

IMPROVING THE TEACHERS' QUALITY

Dynamic development of society is rapidly moving along with the progress of science and technology that requires all parties to adapt the changes occur in the community. The advance of science and technology has given rise to a new paradigm for success, namely the competition. Challenges of increasingly keen competition in the era of globalization requires increased quality and efficiency of the profession on an ongoing basis, so that competitiveness can be more competitive professionals. The era of globalization changes the nature of the work of amateurs toward professionalization in all areas and life aspects. Included in the global change is the teaching profession. In accordance with the changing demands of global society, teachers are also required professional tasks in the field (Deckey & Adam, 1995; and IE, 2000). Professional teachers, rather than as tools for transmitting the culture, are to transform it into a dynamic cultural direction and require mastery of science and technology, high productivity, and quality of work that can improve competitiveness.

Adequate educational development investment will be able to move the local economy with a large multiplier effect through school construction, procurement and maintenance of education infrastructure, and increasing teachers' quality. Quality public is not only able to seize every available job opportunities through investment but also to create new jobs. Moreover, the problem of education is a cross-sectoral issue, so there must be commitment from all parties, especially the educational policy makers, to take policy-oriented quality of education. For policies, to improve higher education quality, if it is addressed consistently, it will produce graduates who are competent and finally able to produce competitive citizen role in large numbers.

Educational programs to improve the quality of human resources become very important because many problems found in government institutions, community institutions, and activities in the community that its effectiveness depends on the quality of human resources, both in intellectual ability and moral integrity in its responsibility to society. Human resources, according to T.L. Leap and M.D. Crino (2002), is one key factor in moving towards prosperity. Creating highly competitive and quality human resources and skills is the demand of development towards prosperity. Economic globalization is a process of economic and trade activity that brings together market forces increasingly integrated for efficiency and enhance competitiveness.

The low human development index of Indonesia has had an impact on the competitiveness of Indonesia's declining ability. Deterioration of competitiveness

is resulted in the low quality of Indonesia education. The low quality of Indonesian education is affected by several components supporting the education process, among others: the quality of teachers, learning tools such as textbooks, instructional media, learning resources, and learning laboratory equipment that has not been adequate. The lack of educational support component is influenced by the lack of educational fund allocation from the State Revenues and Expenditures Budget or APBN (*Anggaran Pendapatan dan Belanja Negara*) as well as donations from the public education such as parents.

The teacher's role is very important in improving the quality of education in Indonesia, so that Law Number 14 Year 2005 on Teachers and Lecturers, article 8 asserts that teachers must have academic qualifications, competency certificates, educators, and mental and physical health as well as having the ability to realize the goal of national education (Depdiknas RI, 2006).

To improve the quality of teachers, the Education Office or DISDIK (*Dinas Pendidikan*) in East Java Province cooperated with the UNESA (*Universitas Negeri Surabaya* or State University of Surabaya) organized a partnership in improving the teachers' competence through refresher education or continuing education. According to Sahudi (2009), implementing this program is due to the competence of teachers in Surabaya that has not been optimal. Furthermore, E. Mulyasa (2005) states that state schools in general are still apprehensive. Whereas the development of education in Surabaya as a metropolitan city is very rapid, when the capacity is inadequate, teachers will hurt students.

Other program to improve the quality of teachers is to encourage further studies for teachers who have Bachelor degree (S1) at a cost from Surabaya City Education Office. Training and Professional Teacher Education or PLPG (*Pendidikan Latihan dan Penataran Guru*) held by the State University of Surabaya on Elementary School teachers is also in an attempt of teachers' performance empowerment to improve the quality of the estuary profession in improving the quality of education. Further studies and a variety of trainings given to teachers are expected to have an impact on improving the quality of learning services that ultimately improves the quality of education.

The problems above are summarized in the formulation as follows: "*How does the empowerment of teachers' performance to improve the quality of education at the elementary school in Surabaya?*" The present study aims to examine the effectiveness of further study and a variety of trainings given to teachers in improving the quality of education at the elementary schools in Surabaya, East Java, Indonesia. Add note that there are some terminology paradigm that had evolved among others: populist-based development, characterized by participatory development, and human development. Today, the building based on economic growth has indeed succeeded in making the wealth, but failed in realizing equitable prosperity and even reverse many of which pose difficult problems to be solved. Community development is basically emphasizing on the importance of poverty eradication through various empowerment of marginalized groups, namely an increase in living standards for people who are lack of capacity in a sustainable economy.

THEORETICAL REVIEW

Government is required to create and optimize human resources in various fields according to its needs. The analysis of this study is based on the theory of empowerment of human resources in accordance with the need to improve the quality of education towards the creation of superior human resources and competitive begins from the improved quality performance of professional education personnel. Empowerment contains two terms, namely: (1) to give the power, transferring power, and delegating authority to others; and (2) to give abilities to attempt, or to give the ability (Haris, 2002). It means that the concept of improving the quality of education has not optimized yet the performance of teachers' empowerment, which has a role in improving the quality of education. Empowering educators embodies a nuanced capacity building of human resources in empowering educators through the development of various abilities (performances) and responsibilities as well as synergistic atmosphere between government (public) with the teacher. Effort to optimize the ongoing performance of teachers is an important factor than other factors in improving the quality of education. This has been recognized and implemented by the government through the assignment of further studies, a variety of trainings, and upgrading of teachers.

Teacher performance as well as job performance are results of activities that have been implemented or will be done by the teacher according to his/her profession as a teacher. In this context, Andrew Eaglen *et al.* (2000) define performance as “*something done or products / services produced or provided by someone to a group of people*”. While Rao (cited by Mulyasa, 2005) suggests that the performance is the result of ability and effort. According to D. Furtwengler (2002), the performance is successful achievement role earned one of his/her deeds. Performance is the behavior displayed by individuals or groups. In reaching something, one is usually motivated by the performance. Motivation is an important element that should be owned by everyone, because the role of motivation serves as a spur to performance. Performance is the capacity that one has to perform or complete a job.

Enterprises are the time and effort spent to achieve one's motivation. While the motivation is the hope, desire, impulse, and urge to achieve something. Motivation is defined as an attitude (accept or reject) related to interest, ability, skill, or strength. In connection with someone, then, the motivation is intended as an ability, skill, or force someone to perform a task that becomes their responsibility. The ability of a person is basically a result of the learning process, which includes aspects of knowledge, attitudes, and skills.

According to Richard M. Steers (2001), learning outcomes are changes that include cognitive, affective, and psychomotor. Furthermore, the opinion of Jerome S. Arcaro (2005) states that the learning outcomes includes three domain, namely cognitive, affective, and psychomotor which is often called “taxonomy of education objectives”. Capability which includes three aspects will affect the performance of someone who in turn will affect the organization's success rate, which in this case the quality of education.

McClelland states that there is a positive relationship between a person's motivation and performance (cited by Steers, 2001). This means that every worker who has high motivation to work will produce a high performance as well. Likewise, that empowerment has a positive relation to one's motivation. Techniques to motivate the performance of teachers, according to Mangkunegoro (2005), among others are: (1) engineering needs, and (2) persuasive communication techniques. Meeting the needs of teachers is an essential foundation for work behavior. Management may not be able to motivate teachers without an adequate needs. According to Maslow, hierarchy of teachers' needs includes: physiological needs, safety needs, social needs, esteem needs, and self-actualization needs (cited by Coombs, 2005; and Sudradjat, 2005).

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK AND RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS

This study tried to uncover the role of teacher empowerment in promoting the quality of its performance in the hope of improving the quality of education in elementary schools in Surabaya, East Java, Indonesia. The framework that has been designed in this study is as follows:

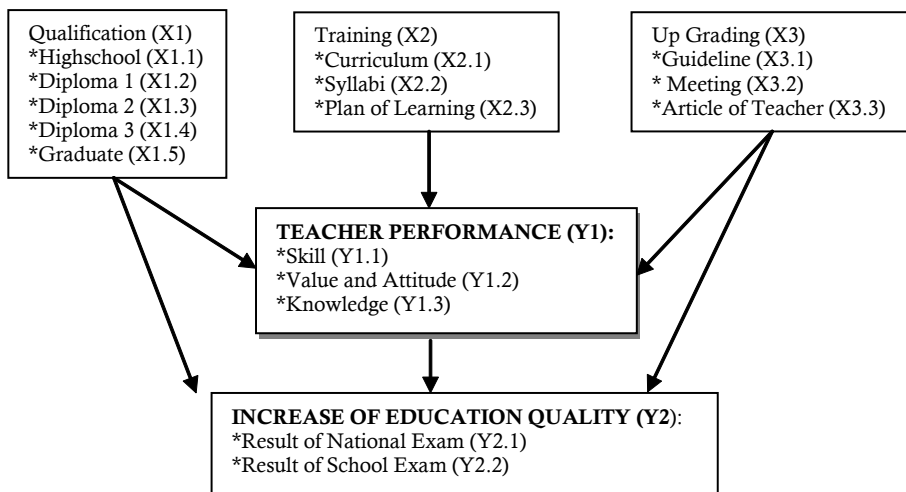


Figure 1:
Conceptual of Framework

Based on the background and the basic theoretical framework in this study, the research hypothesis can be formulated as follows:

First hypothesis: “Increased educational qualifications of teachers will bring significant influence to the improvement of teachers’ performance, among others in knowledge, skills, and attitudes to implement the learning”.

Second hypothesis: "Performance of teachers in the syllabus and learning implementation plan or RPP (*Rencana Pelaksanaan Pembelajaran*), implements and evaluates the learning effect on student learning outcomes in improving the quality of education in elementary schools, such as the quality of the national examination and school final examination".

Third hypothesis: "Increased empowerment of the teacher's performance such as educational qualifications, training, and upgrading will bring a significant effect on improving the quality of education in elementary schools which includes quality of the national examination and the school final examination".

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This study aims to describe and analyze the effect of empowerment on improving the quality of teacher performance in elementary school education in Surabaya city, East Java, Indonesia. This study is also an attempt to discover, develop, and test the truth of the influence of the empowerment of teachers' performance on productivity performance in an effort to improve the quality of education in elementary schools. In accordance with its objectives, the study was designed as a research model explanatory, i.e. to explain how the role of empowerment of teachers' performance in improving the quality of its performance in order to enhance productivity performance, so as to improve the quality of education in the elementary schools.

Scope of Research. To focus the study, the topic was limited to the empowerment of teachers in improving productivity performance in improving the quality of education at the elementary schools in Surabaya, East Java, Indonesia. The focus of this research is to increase teachers' empowerment through increased educational qualifications and training and upgrading. While the productivity performance of teachers includes the ability to develop syllabus and learning implementation plan or RPP (*Rencana Pelaksanaan Pembelajaran*), and implementing the learning and skills to guide students in intensive learning in school. Improving the quality of education is embodied in the criteria for increasing the grade of National Examination or UNAS (*Ujian Nasional*) and the School Final Examination or UAS (*Ujian Akhir Sekolah*).

Population and Sample. The population in this study was all elementary school teachers who served in the city of Surabaya, both public elementary schools and private elementary schools which amounted to 11,650 people that spread out in 569 of public elementary schools and 415 of private elementary schools. The determination of the sample in this study was using cluster techniques or cluster sampling based on the area; and the population of elementary school teachers was divided according to sub-districts in Surabaya. Districts that serve the study site consist of 29 districts in the working area of the Government of Surabaya Municipality. Each cluster is determined six respondents consisting of three teachers at 6 grade of public elementary schools and three teachers also at 6 grade of private elementary schools. Thus, each of these clusters will be taken six districts

of elementary school teachers as a sample to be representative of the population sub-districts, so the overall sample size is $29 \times 6 = 174$ samples.

Finally, the appropriate type of data analysis is an important factor in addressing the research. To consider the issue after the proposed goals and hypothesis and data are available, then this study used two kinds of analysis, namely: (1) Descriptive analysis, and (2) Multivariate regression analysis model with SEM or Structural Equation Modelling version 4.0 (Ferdinand, 2000; and Langbein, 2002).

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

The Description of Research Variables. *First*, it is about the “Educational Qualification”. Based on the indicators studied, it appears that some essential things are associated with: (1) Undergraduate qualification S1; (2) Diploma 3; (3) Diploma 2; (4) A diploma; and (5) Graduate. The data indicates that higher educational qualifications categorized will have an impact on the ability of teachers in developing adequate performance. A good performance will support the achievement of good work.

Table 1:
 Frequency Distribution of Respondents' Educational Qualification

No	Education Qualification	Criteria	Frequency		
			F	%	% Cumulative
1	High School	Very poor	6	3	4
2	Diploma 1	Poor	45	26	29
3	Diploma 2	Quite	24	37	66
4	Diploma 3	Good	24	14	80
5	Graduate	Very good	34	20	100
N:			174	100	

Second, it is about the “Training of Learning”. Based on the indicators studied, it appears that some essential things are associated with: (1) Activity in adequate training; (2) An adequate source of training materials; (3) Adequate training instructor; (4) Facilities supports; and (5) Colleagues to support. This shows that the preparation of training syllabus and lesson plans with high category will have an impact on the implementation of learning.

Table 2:
 Frequency Distribution Training of Learning Respondents

No	Training of Learning	Criteria	Frequency		
			F	%	% Cumulative
1	Never	Very poor	6	3	9
2	Rarely	Poor	45	26	34
3	Frequently	Quite	24	37	65

4	More	Good	24	14	87
5	Very often	Very good	34	20	100
N:			174		

Third, it is about “Professional Upgrading” in scientific work and innovative learning. Upgrading the data shows that by the upgrading of the categories will often have an impact on the completion of the task as well. The upgrading is like: (1) Training of scientific writings; (2) Training to develop the instructional media; and (3) Training of innovative learning models. By the good work, it will have an impact on the achievement of high performance.

Table 3:
 Frequency Distribution of Professional Upgrading Followed by Respondents

No	Upgrading	Criteria	Frequency		
			F	%	% Cumulative
1	1 – 3	Very rarely	6	4	4%
2	4 – 6	Rarely	49	28	32%
3	7 – 9	Fair	72	41	73%
4	7 – 9	Often	35	20	93%
5	10 – more	Veri often	12	7	100%
N:			174	100%	

Fourth, it is about the “Teacher Performance”. The data below shows that the presence of categorized high performance will impact the good work culture. A good working culture will support the achievement of good work, then, it will impact on achieving high performance.

Table 4:
 Frequency Distribution of Respondents Performance Levels

No	Teacher Performance	Criteria of Plan	Frequency		
			F	%	% Cumulative
1	Very low	60 – 65	13	7.47	7.47%
2	Low	66- 70	31	17.81	25.20%
3	Self	71 – 75	43	24.71	49.91 %
4	High	76 – 80	74	42.52	92.43%
5	Very high	81 – 100	13	7.47	100%
N:			174	100%	

Fifth, it is about the “Quality of Education”. Based on the indicators studied, it appears that some essential things are associated with: (1) Intellectual ability; and (2) Mastery of the knowledge and skills which are possessed by work. It shows that with a lot of teachers who have the ability to work with the high category will have an impact on the completion of the task as well. The good work will have an impact on the achievement of high performance.

Table 5:
 Frequency Distribution of Educational Quality in National Examination

No	Quality of Education	Criteria	Frequency		
			F	%	% Cumulative
1	3 – 5	Very low	4	2.29	2.29%
2	5 – 6	Low	35	20.15	22.44%
3	6 – 7	Self	59	33.90	56.34%
4	7 – 8	High	62	35.63	91.97%
5	8 – 10	Very high	14	8.04	100%
N:			174	100%	

On the SEM (Structural Equation Modelling) Test Results. Judging from the below data (table 6), the probability of CR and its significance on the significance level can be found that the effect of empowerment including educational qualifications, training, upgrading of teachers affect teacher performance, and quality of education in elementary schools at the City of Surabaya, as following here: (1) Educational qualifications of teachers have positive influence on the performance of teachers; it means that hypothesis is accepted; (2) Training preparation of the learning device has a positive effect on teacher performance; it means that the hypothesis is accepted; (3) Upgrading to write scientific papers to the teachers has positive influence on the performance of teachers; it means that hypothesis is accepted; (4) Teacher education qualifications have a positive influence on the quality of education at the elementary schools in Surabaya; it means that hypothesis is accepted; (5) Training the learning positively affects the quality of education at the elementary schools in Surabaya; it means that hypothesis is accepted; (6) Upgrading to write scientific papers on the teacher does not affect the quality of education at the elementary schools in Surabaya; it means that the hypothesis is rejected; (7) Empowerment of teachers has a positive effect on the quality of education at the elementary schools in Surabaya; it means that hypothesis is accepted; and (8) The most dominant variable influences the empowerment of teachers is the education and training qualification, while the most dominant influence of the education quality is empowerment.

Table 6:
 Test Results Analysis of Teacher Empowerment that Include Educational Qualifications, Training, and Upgrading

No	Variable	Co-efi- ciency	SE	CR >1.96	Probability <0.05	Result
1	Performa – education	2.36	0.258	2.815	0.004	Significant
2	Performa – training	1.24	0.09	2.326	0.013	Significant
3	Performa – upgrading	0.68	0.502	1.98	0.06	Significant
4	Qualility – education	0.89	0.392	1.97	0.06	Significant
5	Quality – training	2.56	0.56	2.812	0.007	Significant
6	Quality – upgrading	0.03	1.341	1.036	0.002	No-significant
7	Quality – performa	3.05	1.341	1.981	0.046	Significant

ANALYSIS OF RESEARCH RESULTS

The analysis of exposure data is based on empirical and theoretical findings and previous studies relevant to the research conducted. The discussion is intended to explain the appropriateness and relevance of each dependent variable and independent variables.

From the tests using the program AMOS 4.0 by the analysis of SEM (Structural Equation Modelling), test results of both models through the overall test and measurement test can be drawn that the multilevel model can explain the phenomenon of quality of education in elementary schools in Surabaya in several important aspects. The results of this study gives an answer that is very good multilevel model to explain the business model of empowering teachers to improve the quality of education at the elementary schools in Surabaya, or accept the hypothesis.

By analyzing the effect of empowerment that includes educational qualifications, training, and upgrading of learning media as well as scientific writings on teachers' performance and quality of education in primary schools at the Surabaya city expected us to develop an understanding that the empowerment of teachers will affect the performance of teachers; and finally it can also affect the quality of elementary schools in the city of Surabaya.

The current study found a model that links the five variables proposed in the conceptual model. The five variables include: (1) Education qualifications, (2) Training device development learning, (3) Upgrading writing the scientific papers, (4) Teacher performance, and (5) Quality of teacher education. Indicators of the five variables were identified, and the researcher eliminated one indicator because it does not qualify loading factor, an indicator of educational quality variable is the value of semester. So that indicators that can be used as a measure of the variables are as follows:

First, Education variable is measured through indicators: High school, Diploma 1, Diploma 2, Diploma 3, and Graduate; and two indicators are jointly able to explain the variable. One of the two indicators that are most explainable is a formal education or Graduate (S1).

Second, Training variable is measured by indicators: Development of syllabus, Learning implementation plan, and Devices learning. All three indicators are jointly able to explain the variable, and one of these three indicators which is the most capable to explain the variable is the preparation of training syllabus and preparation of learning implementation plan or RPP (*Rencana Pelaksanaan Pembelajaran*), and the most recent is a learning device.

Third, Upgrading of teacher variable is measured through indicators: Activity in-service classroom action research or PTK (*Penelitian Tindakan Kelas*) and innovative learning. The indicators are jointly able to explain the variables of these indicators. The most capable indicator to explain the variable is an innovative learning model development activities.

Fourth, Teacher performance variable is measured through indicators: Knowledge, Attitudes, and Skills of teachers. All three indicators are jointly able

to explain the variable and of these three indicators which are the most capable to explain the variable are the knowledge and attitudes and skills.

Fifth, the Variable quality of education is measured through indicators: the Quality and Quantity of learning value. Both indicators are jointly able to explain the variable and the two indicators are the most capable of explaining the value of variable quality and quantity of learning.

In addition, for finding a new model as mentioned above, it is also found the influence of the variable effects of empowerment that includes educational qualifications, training, and upgrading of teachers which affect the performance of teachers and quality education in the elementary schools in Surabaya as the results of hypothesis testing. An explanation of the effect of empowerment variables, including educational qualifications, training, and upgrading of teachers on the performance of teachers and quality education in the elementary schools at Surabaya city, are as following here:

First, the influence of empowerment includes educational qualifications, training, and upgrading of the teacher against teacher performance. From the results of descriptive analysis, it is found that the elementary school teachers in the city of Surabaya, in general, have a high performance in the criteria. The high performance of teachers is supported by the empowerment of teachers, including educational qualifications, training, and upgrading as its attributes. The analysis of SEM (Structural Equation Modelling) found that teacher performance is influenced by the empowerment of potential teachers.

Second, from the above test, it is obtained that the three indicators that can be used as a measure of empowerment in explaining variables namely: educational qualifications, training, and refresher courses. Three indicators are jointly able to explain the variables of empowerment, of these three indicators are most capable to explain educational qualifications, followed by his/her username and inservice training for teachers. It can be concluded that the test results with the analysis of SEM program AMOS 4.0 shows that empowerment has positive effect on teacher performance.

In particular, the empowerment has three indicators, namely: education qualifications, training and learning device, and upgrading of teachers. All three indicators are jointly able to explain the variables of empowerment, of these three indicators are most capable to explain the educational qualifications, followed by training his/her username, then the most recent scientific work is the upgrading of teachers. It is meant to enhance the empowerment of teachers in the primary schools in Surabaya that needs to improve the educational qualifications, followed by adequate training and refresher courses, and upgrading courses should be in accordance with its activity. The influence of empowerment includes educational qualifications, training, and upgrading of teachers against the quality of education. From the results of descriptive analysis, it is found that the quality of education in primary schools in Surabaya shows the quality of education in the high category, while the low category is the indicators of the quality and quantity.

Finally, from the results of SEM analysis, the indicators that can explain the variable quality of education are: the value of the national exams and the school

final exams. Both indicators are jointly capable to explain and both indicators which are the most capable to explain the quality value and quantity of learning.

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

Based on the results of research and discussion that have been done above, it can be summed up as follows:

Empowerment of teachers' abilities, including an increase in educational qualifications, training, preparation of syllabi and lesson plans, as well as the upgrading of the teachers, have positive influence on the performance of teachers. Empowerment of teachers' abilities that includes an increase in educational qualifications, training, preparation of syllabi and lesson plans, as well as the upgrading of scientific writings have also influenced positively to the quality of education.

Teachers' performances (through the indicators of knowledge, attitudes, and skills) have had the positive influence on the quality of education (quality and quantity of the study). Performance of teachers has an important role in influencing education quality improvement at the elementary schools in Surabaya city, East Java, Indonesia.

Some suggestions are put forward in this study, among others are as following here. *First*, the educational qualifications of all elementary school teachers in Surabaya needs to be synchronized to the Graduate (Strata 1). Improving the teacher education qualification should be pursued because the teacher's performance is affected by teacher empowerment, including education qualification. *Second*, it needs periodic training to enhance teachers' ability in formulating the syllabus and lesson plans and teaching tools, because such training can improve the performance of teachers in planning and implementing learning. Finally, *third*, the upgrading of teachers about writing scientific papers and innovative learning need to be given to the teacher because it may indirectly improve its performance in implementing the learning and teaching process.

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Picture of Indonesia Human Resources
(Source: www.google.com, 15/7/2012)

The low human development index of Indonesia has had an impact on the competitiveness of the nation's declining ability of Indonesia. Deterioration of competitiveness is derived from the quality of education in Indonesia is still also low.

LEARNING EFFECTIVENESS AND SATISFACTION IN STUDY GROUPS: A CONSIDERATION OF THE MODERATING FACTORS

ELVY PANG & HUMPHRY HUNG

ABSTRACT: *The emerging predominance of group learning in the business world represents a significant trend of group work assignments in the context of formal education. Group learning effectiveness and satisfaction has been analyzed on the basis of traditional theories of group dynamics. However, the assessment of learning effectiveness and satisfaction has its uniqueness and requires special attention. Based upon equity theory, we propose a model to highlight the significant impact of workload equity and mutual collaboration on members' performance and satisfaction in the group learning process. We conduct a study to validate the relationship and the results support our proposition. In addition, with reference to predicted outcome value theory, we propose that information transparency has a highly significant moderating effect in the group learning process. Hence, the findings of this study are consistent with the results of previous studies on team effectiveness that found conflicts and individual satisfaction to be negatively associated, and interpersonal understanding amongst team members to be positively correlated with team learning. On top of this observation, our study contributes to literature by highlighting the significance of information transparency in the group learning process. Finally, some implications, limitations, and recommendations of our study are discussed.*

KEY WORDS: *Group learning, learning effectiveness and satisfaction, workload equity, mutual collaboration, and interpersonal understanding.*

INTRODUCTION

The emerging predominance of group learning in the business world represents a significant trend of group work assignments in the context of formal education (Senge *et al.*, 1994; Brown, Bull & Pendlebury, 1997; and Gottschall & Garcia-Bayonas, 2008). Group work can enhance students' understanding and interest. This collective way of learning provides an excellent opportunity for students to share their learning experiences and, thus, learn from each other through cooperation and interaction among themselves. It also motivates students and helps them to develop a sense of responsibility (Hackman, 1997).

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The objective of our study is to explore the complex underlying factors which influence group learning effectiveness and satisfaction in post-secondary education. We develop a model to explain the inter-relationship between group interactive factors such as equity and collaboration and group learning outcomes, including effectiveness and satisfaction. To validate our model, we conduct a study on group learning process in three English-speaking universities in an Asian metropolitan city. Based on our findings, we propose that workload equity and mutual collaboration are important antecedents of group learning effectiveness and satisfaction. In addition, we also observe that information transparency is a powerful moderating factor in the learning process.

LITERATURE REVIEW

We begin our literature review by considering the various approaches to the assessments of group learning effectiveness and satisfaction. We, then, go on to consider two notable antecedent factors: workload equity and mutual collaboration, with a view to exploring the causal relationship between these two factors versus group learning effectiveness and satisfaction. Last but not least, based on predicted outcome value theory, we propose that information transparency will facilitate and enhance the effects of workload equity and mutual collaboration on group learning effectiveness and satisfaction.

Group Learning Effectiveness: A Review. In an organizational setting, group learning refers to the acquisition of new skills, attitude, perspectives, and behaviors as needed by changing circumstances (Edmondson, 2002). It is through these learning activities that groups can improve group understanding, learn about changes in the environment, cope with the market and organizational demand, and encounter unexpected threats of the environment.

We review the literature on group learning effectiveness from five different perspectives: structural, systemic, cognitive, outcome-based, and process perspectives. *First*, from a structural perspective, studies of work groups in organizational settings have revealed that group learning effectiveness is enabled by structural factors such as organizational culture and structure, reward systems, task nature and design, and group structure, including roles, objective, and size (Hackman, 1997). From this perspective, the focus is on how to design an efficient group structure and its environment so that group learning can be fostered effectively.

Second, adopting a systemic approach, E. Lizeo (2005) proposed that since work groups could be regarded as complex social systems, the quality of learning, and the effectiveness of a work group lies in the interrelations of intermediating factors such as group dynamics and leader behavior. *Third*, based on a cognitive approach, some studies emphasized cognitive and interpersonal factors such as shared visions, group beliefs, and understandings to explain group learning effectiveness (Argyris, 1993). *Fourth*, focusing on the outcome of learning, some scholars suggest that group learning is the result of group operations which may include intra-and inter-group interaction processes (Ancona *et al.*, 1996).

Last but not least, *fifth*, considering learning as a process, A.C. Edmondson (2002) proposes a model that consists of three basic elements, namely antecedent conditions, team beliefs, and team learning behavior. Antecedent conditions refer to group structures such as group and task design, rewards, and information system, as well as leadership style, which can influence a group's competence. Team beliefs refer to common visions and understandings among group members which will determine the learning behavior. Team learning behavior refers to the actual learning activities performed by group members, including sharing information, soliciting assistance, and experimenting with new ideas. This is an integrative approach to group learning and effectiveness in which both structural factors and cognitive structures (socio-psychological traits) have a direct as well as indirect impact on group outcomes (Boud, Cohen & Sampson, 1999; and Edmondson, 2002).

Group Learning Satisfaction: The Current State. Group learning satisfaction reflects the level of affective response that individual team member holds toward the team experience, and the extent to which the team satisfies members' needs (Scott-Ladd & Chan, 2008). In the context of education, student satisfaction is often used as a critical indicator of teaching quality and has become a key concern for academic staff (Moore, 2006). We review the literature on group learning satisfaction from five different perspectives: perception, participation, achievement, leadership, and process perspectives.

First, from a perception perspective, J. Burdett and B. Hastie (2009) proposed that perceptions of learning and feelings of group-based achievement contributed most to learning satisfaction. They reported that knowledge of factors contributing to satisfaction allows teaching staff to identify potential problems in groups and improve the quality of the group learning experience. The basic argument is about how learning satisfaction would be linked closely to a learner's perception and feeling (Volet & Mansfield, 2006; and Burdett & Hastie, 2009). However, since learning may be influenced by perceptions of the group work experience, it is imperative that trainers should be well aware of the feelings of trainees, instead of just making sure that they learn what is taught (Ramsden, 1992).

Second, from a participation perspective, learners' satisfaction is observed to be linked to the participative activities of members in a group such as drop-out rates and learning performance (Suhre, Jansen & Harskamp, 2007; and Burdett & Hastie, 2009). Through participation in group work assignments, members in a group can learn about managing group dynamics and resolving conflict and about obtaining specific work-related knowledge (Cranmer, 2006). When group work is not involved, such valuable learning opportunities are missed (Volet & Mansfield, 2006).

Third, from an achievement perspective, group learning requires changes to conventional individual-based learning styles and may contradict the motivations, aptitudes, and learning preferences of high achievers (Yazici, 2005). Those with high-achievement orientation are often competitive, seek to work alone, and are less accepting of group-based rewards (Trank, Rynes & Bretz, 2002). M. Bahar (2003) found that students with achievement-oriented motivational styles were significantly less satisfied with group work, compared to those with curious,

conscientious, and sociable learning styles. It was expected that achievement orientation would be negatively related to overall satisfaction with group work. Dissatisfaction with assessment processes and marks awarded for group work assignments are a primary source of student complaint (Boud, Cohen & Sampson, 1999). Individual contributions of group members may not be acknowledged in the group mark awarded (Sharp, 2006). Differing standards may also influence students' reactions to a group's marks, along with achievement orientation. Students with higher standards would be expected to be more dissatisfied with low shared marks or to feel that they missed opportunities, because the group could not match the performance expected by the higher achiever (Bacon, 2005). It is expected that satisfaction with marks would be positively associated with overall satisfaction with group work.

Fourth, from a leadership perspective, although most group work assessment tasks involve leaderless groups, in practice, one or more students often end up taking responsibility for completing the work, whether or not they want to perform the leadership role (Mills, 2003). In some cases, these de facto leaders may be encouraged by others in the group to do more, resulting in higher responsibility and workload, while other become "free riders" in the group (Payne & Monk-Turner, 2006). This is likely to lead to resentment and dissatisfaction. It is expected that taking on a leadership role of an individual member in a group will, in general, feel unhappy and over-burdened with the group work (Pfaff & Huddleston, 2003).

Last but not least, *fifth*, considering learning as a process, different group interaction patterns may give rise to a variety of learning outcomes, including learner satisfaction of learning and team performance outcomes. In fact, the nature of peer interaction in an educational context can significantly influence students' achievement and satisfaction (Baldwin, Bedell & Johnson, 1997).

A Process Approach to Learning Effectiveness and Satisfaction. Our literature review of theories related to group learning effectiveness and satisfaction has given us insights about our research. Among the various perspectives of learning effectiveness and satisfaction, a process approach to our study seems to have common importance in both issues. Based on the process theory, we identify two key factors that contribute to group learning effectiveness and satisfaction: workload equity and mutual collaboration.

First, Workload Equity. In the context of group working process, workload refers to the extent that work is shared among group members. Workload equity, therefore, can be considered as the degree to which each group member takes up a fair share of the work assigned to the group (Werner & Lester, 2001). Equity theory suggests that workers expect a fair return for what they contribute to their jobs (Carrell & Dittrich, 1978). They compare their inputs and outcomes with those of their co-workers, and will likely seek to reduce the perceived inequity by altering and adjusting the relationship between inputs and outcomes (Huseman, Hatfield & Miles, 1987).

Uneven workload sharing in group assignments often seems linked to student frustration and conflict. Groups need to take responsibility for organizing their

collaboration and individual inputs in out-of-class time (Lizzio & Wilson, 2005). E. Pfaff and P. Huddleston (2003) reported that the perception of the fairness of workload distribution was a significant predictor of student attitudes towards group work. Overall satisfaction with group work will be positively associated with the satisfaction with workload distribution in group work tasks (Carrell & Dittrich, 1978). This is consistent with the empirical study by J.M. Werner and S.W. Lester (2001), who concluded that workload sharing is positively related to team satisfaction.

Respondents in this research felt that team members in their groups did a fair share of the work, everyone contributed equitably to the work, and no member relied on others to do work for them. This suggests that they divided responsibilities fairly within the group, and had confidence and trust in other team members to complete the task and produce high quality work. Such individual attitude and behavior enables the development of friendship within the team and satisfaction with cooperation (Chou *et al.*, 2008).

In a learning environment, a fair share of work, including group work and reports, is seen to be crucial to many people when they are involved in a group project work. On the contrary, uneven distribution of workload in group assignments frustrates group members. According to the study of M.A. Campion, G.J. Medsker and A.C. Higgs (1993), it is argued that fair workload distribution enhances group effectiveness by preventing free-riding. Social loafing happens when some group members decrease individual effort or find ways to avoid doing a fair share of the work (Latané, Williams & Harkins, 1979). Free riding occurs when an individual collects the benefits of group output without contributing to the input at all (Abernathy & Lett, 2005). Research suggests that social loafers who do not contribute often can manage to receive the same rewards as other hardworking members (Jassawalla, Sashittal & Malshe, 2009).

However, studies also show that perceived loafing to be detrimental to project success (Bacon, Stewart & Stewart-Belle, 1998; and Hasan & Ali, 2007); as well as team members' overall satisfaction with group work (Burdett & Hastie, 2009). Behaviors of social loafers are responsible for dysfunctional teamwork and are considered the greatest hindrance to members' potential performance in a group (Burdett & Hastie, 2009). Groups can learn more when the workload was evenly distributed and perceived fair workload sharing was a significant predictor of group performance and members' perceived satisfaction (Erez, LePine & Elms, 2002; and Erez Ellis *et al.*, 2003).

Hypothesis 1a: "*Workload equity has a positive impact on group learning effectiveness*".
Hypothesis 1b: "*Workload equity has a positive impact on group learning satisfaction*".

Second, Mutual Collaboration. In a group learning environment, mutual collaboration is defined as the presence of influence, communication, and support amongst group members with a view to enhancing learning effectiveness (Aram & Morgan, 1976). The process of mutual collaboration allows the occurrence of social dynamics, including mutual support, cohesion, cooperative goals, and collaborative interactions which includes group participation, information exchange, and joint

problem solving (Andres & Shipps, 2010). The presence of mutual collaboration is purposive for problem solving with an intention to achieving positive results (Peters & Manz, 2007). Performance of teams can be enhanced if members help each other and have positive social interactions (Campion, Medsker & Higgs, 1993). Open and smooth interpersonal relations, including supportiveness, improve team satisfaction, and performance (Gladstein, 1984). Successful collaboration can bring along synergy in which the output is significantly enhanced in comparison to the input.

For the group learning satisfaction, mutual collaboration can enhance team morale (Heaney, Price & Rafferty, 1995); and has a significant relationship with work satisfaction and perceived learning (Hoegl & Gemuenden, 2001). In assessing research on student projects, J.M. Werner and S.W. Lester (2001) found mutual collaboration to be a significant predictor of team member's perceptions on satisfaction. A study on higher education showed that collaboration mode can impact teamwork and project-based task outcomes, through creating a social structure that influences the capacity for a team to maintain a mutual supportive and positive climate (Andres & Shipps, 2010).

Hypothesis 2a: "*Mutual collaboration has a positive impact on group learning effectiveness*". Hypothesis 2b: "*Mutual collaboration has a positive impact on group learning satisfaction*".

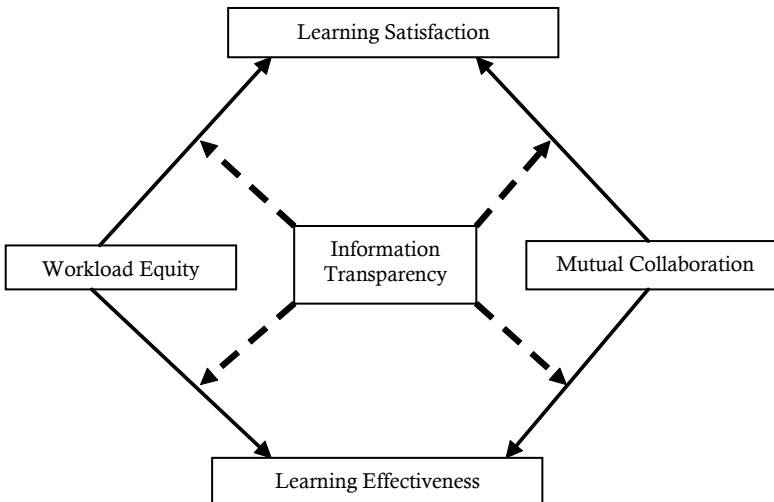
Impact of Information Transparency on Workload Equity. Information transparency is related somewhat to team behaviors which involve information sharing (Jassawalla & Sashittal, 1999); and the degree to which team members have access to the information required for the tasks (Street & Meister, 2004). Research shows that information transparency exists when team members are willing to collaborate as well as be open to inspection in order to receive valid feedback (Popper & Lipshitz, 2000); and can communicate and share information frequently (Andres & Shipps, 2010). The higher the trusting relationship amongst team members, the more comfortable they are in sharing their information and knowledge (Jassawalla & Sashittal, 1999).

Group work provides an opportunity for students to engage in peer-to-peer learning. Learning is enhanced when students are able to share and clarify their knowledge and build creative problem solving capabilities (Almond, 2009; and Johnson & Johnson, 2005). Openness of the information exchange and sharing facilitates communication within a team can bring high satisfaction and greater personal growth (Hoegl & Gemuenden, 2001). Sharing and communication of information amongst team members may also lead members to perceive opportunities for learning (Ng & Butts, 2009); and enhance the feeling of attachment to the team (Sharp, 2006). Likewise, team performance outcomes are impacted by the level of transparency and communication practices within a team (Lovelace, Shapiro & Weingart, 2001; Street & Meister, 2004; and Andres & Shipps, 2010). R.J. Vandenberg, H.A. Richardson and L.J. Eastman (1999) asserted that high performance work teams emphasize increasing transparency of information and knowledge amongst team members.

Hypothesis 3a: “Information transparency positively moderates the impact of workload equity on learning effectiveness”. Hypothesis 3b: “Information transparency positively moderates the impact of workload equity on learning satisfaction”.

Impact of Information Transparency on Mutual Collaboration. Mutual collaboration depends on trust in inter-personal relationships which is related to the frequency of transactions and the length of time the commercial relationship has been in place. More frequent transactions allow persons to demonstrate their reliability and good faith more quickly; thus, potentially building trust sooner (Jassawalla & Sashittal, 1999). People who meet frequently for transactions also have more opportunities to share information. As the commercial relationship becomes increasingly long term, person owners build confidence in each other and expectations grow that the relationship will continue. Expectations of a continuing commercial relationship act to curb opportunism and promote risk-taking and investment (Street & Meister, 2004). Trust is more difficult when some persons have information that others do not. In practice, asymmetric information about general market conditions, benefits, opportunities, and risks is the rule rather than the exception. Information asymmetries can hinder the establishment of trust as individuals with less information may suspect that they are being unfairly exploited by those with more information (Lovelace, Shapiro & Weingart, 2001).

Figure 1:
Testing the Moderating Role of Information Transparency on Learning Effectiveness and Satisfaction



Note:

- (1) A solid line and arrow represents a direct effect.
- (2) A broken line and arrow represents a moderating effect.

Information transparency facilitates trust by reducing uncertainty and allowing persons to negotiate with each other on the basis of similar information. Even though trust is the lubricant that allows commercial machinery to turn more smoothly, blind trust is a risky proposition in commercial relationships. A more prudent approach is to “trust but verify”. In the best case scenario, information transparency evolves into the active exchange of information and learning (Ng & Butts, 2009). This enhances opportunities for upgrading as vertical and horizontal linkages become conduits for the transfer of knowledge, skills, and technology.

Hypothesis 3c: “*Information transparency positively moderates the impact of mutual collaboration on learning effectiveness*”. Hypothesis 3d: “*Information transparency positively moderates the impact of team collaboration on learning satisfaction*”.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

We conduct our research in three English-speaking universities in Hong Kong, a major metropolitan city in the southern region of China. With the assistance of some helpful Professors and Instructors in these universities, questionnaires were distributed to students during class breaks in the academic year of 2009-2010. Around 501 questionnaires were distributed to eligible respondents, 492 (98%) questionnaires were collected, of which 53 questionnaires were incomplete, thereby providing 439 usable questionnaires for data analysis.

Measures. All items were rated using 5-point Likert scales with the response scale ranges from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Learning effectiveness was measured by using three items adopted from the team diagnostic survey by R. Wageman, J.R. Hackman and E.V. Lehman (2005).

Learning satisfaction was measured by three items, of which two items came from the team diagnostic survey by R. Wageman, J.R. Hackman and E.V. Lehman (2005) with special focus on assessing the general satisfaction of team members ($M = 3.89$, $SD = 0.84$, $\alpha = 0.84$). The remaining item used for measuring individual satisfaction in this study was re-developed by the researchers based on D.G. Hackman's (1997) normative group effectiveness model ($M = 3.92$, $SD = 0.61$, $\alpha = 0.85$).

The items for measuring workload equity were adapted from those used by M.A. Campion, G.J. Medsker and A.C. Higgs (1993) in their studies on job design, interdependence, composition, context, team process, and team effectiveness in group work ($M = 3.22$, $SD = 0.92$, $\alpha = 0.84$).

Mutual collaboration is measured as the extent of cooperation which targets to achieve common team goals. We adopt six items developed by M. Hoegl and H.G. Gemuenden (2001) to measure this variable ($M = 4.13$, $SD = 0.55$, $\alpha = 0.93$).

Information transparency refers to communication within the team relating to the frequency, formalization, structure, and openness of information exchange. The five-item scale from M. Hoegl and H.G. Gemuenden (2001) was used to measure this variable ($M = 4.20$, $SD = 0.44$, $\alpha = 0.94$).

STUDY RESULTS

All 439 respondents were undergraduate students. Female students (53.1%) were more prevalent than male students (46.9%). Participants in the questionnaire survey were asked to specify the total number of team members in the student group work with which they recalled having been involved. All the constructs, except the objective-based measurement, will be assessed by a 5-point scale (5 = highly agree, to 1 = highly disagree). We control for individual demographic data such as age, gender, education level. Table 1 shows the means, standard deviations, and reliabilities of all dependent and independent variables.

Table 1:
 Descriptive Statistics and Reliability

	Mean*	Std. Dev.	Skewness		Kurtosis	
			Statistic	St.Err	Statistic	St.Err
Learning Satisfaction (LSAT)						
Generally speaking, I am satisfied with this team.	4.01	.908	-.633	.110	-.374	.220
I enjoy the kind of work I do in this team.	3.82	1.013	-.523	.110	-.467	.220
My personal needs are more satisfied than frustrated by this team experience.	3.67	.912	-.543	.110	-.641	.220
Learning Effectiveness (LEFF)						
Our team is able to achieve our objectives.	3.81	.657	-.823	.111	2.045	.221
If conflicts came up, they were easily and quickly resolved.	3.59	.782	-.703	.110	.550	.220
I learn a lot from other members in the group.	3.67	.710	-.498	.110	.568	.220
Workload Equity (WorkEQ)						
Everyone on my team did a fair share of the work.	3.41	.908	-.729	.110	-.314	.220
No one in my team depended on other team members to do the work for them.	3.30	1.013	-.309	.110	-.629	.220
Nearly all the members on my team contributed equally to the work.	3.28	.912	-.383	.110	-.641	.220
Mutual Collaboration (MutCol)						
Team members helped and supported each other.	3.76	.779	-.688	.110	.855	.220
Suggestions of team members were respected.	4.05	.622	-.650	.111	2.120	.221
Suggestions of team members were discussed and developed.	3.85	.672	-.834	.110	1.836	.220
Information Transparency (InfoTran)						
There was frequent communication within the team.	3.63	.851	-.483	.110	.200	.220
The team members communicated often in spontaneous meetings, phone conversations, etc.	3.50	.816	-.412	.111	-.044	.221

	Mean*	Std. Dev.	Skewness		Kurtosis	
			Statistic	St.Err	Statistic	St.Err
The team members communicated mostly directly and personally with each other.	3.66	.833	-.556	.111	.197	.221
Project-relevant information was shared openly by all members.	4.04	.741	-.674	.111	.788	.221
The team members were happy with the timeliness in which they received information from other team members.	3.53	.762	-.685	.110	.797	.220
The team members were happy with the precision of the information received from other team members.	3.66	.691	-.859	.110	1.201	.220
The team members were happy with the usefulness of the information received from other team members.	3.75	.714	-.925	.111	1.495	.221

* 1 = strongly disagree; and 5 = strongly agree.

Factor Analysis and Instrument Validity. We use the method proposed by Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin to measure sample adequacy by means of the SPSS program (Kaiser, 1974). The result is 0.824, showing that the sampling adequacy is very good and meets the assumption of Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA).

Cronbach's alpha was used to measure the internal consistency of the multi-item scales used in this study. As the Cronbach's alpha values of all of the constructs were over 0.7, it can be claimed that they are all reliable.

The correlation matrix of the data set is shown in table 2. This enables us to examine all potentially overlapping constructs. If the items comprising a construct do not overlap much with other constructs (i.e. the AVE of a construct is larger than its squared intercorrelations with other constructs), then discriminant validity of the construct is assured (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Table 2 shows also that the diagonal elements (reporting the square root of the variance shared between a construct and its measures) are all higher than the correlations between target constructs without exceptions, which suggest discriminant validity of all the constructs in this study.

Table 2:
 Correlation Matrix

	AVE	1	2	3	4	5
Learning satisfaction.	.693	(.833)				
Learning effectiveness.	.579	.387**	(.761)			
Workload equity.	.519	.355**	.496**	(.720)		
Mutual collaboration.	.668	.329**	.474**	.580**	(.818)	
Information transparency.	.726	.127**	.245**	.237**	.303**	(.714)

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Diagonal elements (shown in parenthesis) report the square root of the variance shared between a construct and its measures.

To check the existence of common method bias, we conducted the Harmon one-factor analysis suggested by P.M. Podsakoff and D.W. Organ (1986). A factor analysis combining every variable in the research framework did not detect a single factor explaining the majority of covariance. In addition, the results of the regression analysis showed different degrees of significance for the regression coefficients. The above evidence collectively suggests that common method bias was not a serious concern in this study.

Test of Hypotheses. The results of the regression analysis are presented in table 3. Both Workload Equity (WorkEQ) and Mutual Collaboration (MutCol) have some significant influences on Learning Satisfaction (LSAT) and Learning Effectiveness (LEFF). The interaction effects of Information Transparency (InfoTran) on the significant influences of both Workload Equity and Mutual Collaboration are also significant. Hence, all hypotheses in this study were supported.

Table 3:
 Multivariate Analysis

Dependent Variable	Parameter	B	Std. Error	T	Significance
LSAT	Intercept	2.822	.337	8.387	.001
	WorkEQ	.356	.075	4.768	.001**
	MutCol	.200	.071	2.818	.005*
	WorkEQ * InfoTran	.098	.019	-.035	.972*
	MutCol * InfoTran	.147	.020	2.396	.017*
LEFF	Intercept	.334	.289	1.153	.250
	WorkEQ	.354	.064	5.507	.002**
	MutCol	.285	.061	4.658	.003**
	WorkEQ * InfoTran	.135	.016	2.130	.034*
	MutCol * InfoTran	.079	.017	.081	.966*

** Significant at the 0.01 level.

* Significant at the 0.05 level.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

The findings of this study are consistent with the results of previous studies on team effectiveness that found conflicts and individual satisfaction to be negatively associated and interpersonal understanding amongst team members to be positively correlated with team learning (Druskat, 2000; and De Dreu & Weingart, 2003). On top of this observation, our study contributes to literature by highlighting the significance of information transparency in the group learning process.

Because of changing economics and increasing competition in the business environment, the use of teams to undertake projects are likely to continue to be popular in both business and educational settings. This study makes two contributions to the body of knowledge relating to the effectiveness of such teams and in particular of the individuals within them.

First, this research contributes to business pedagogical research by providing evidence of team process effects on the effectiveness of individual satisfaction. It produced an empirically verified model to provide insights for management educators and students on factors contributing to individual satisfaction in a team experience. Results of this research indicate that team process impacts individual satisfaction. The findings of this study indicate that although students are working together on a temporary basis on group assignments, they exhibit behavior consistent with those of permanent teams in the workplace.

Second, this study dispels the generally held assumption that students instinctively know how to work together as a team and will find group work a rewarding experience. Identification of the effect of the different dimensions of team process on student satisfaction lays an important foundation for educators and students when considering process interventions for improving team attitude, knowledge, and skills in student projects.

LIMITATIONS

Despite of the study's success in producing practical suggestions for enhancing team process and improving personal satisfaction in student teams, the research itself has limitations that need to be identified and explained. A basic limitation of this study involves its inability to predict causal relationships because the data were cross-sectional rather than longitudinal. The findings can only show the influence between the independent and dependent variables, but no conclusions can be drawn on whether the relationships are causal.

This research has applied a quantitative methodology to study team process as a positive and significant influencing factor on individual satisfaction. Specifically, the research examined the positive effect of three team process characteristics on individual satisfaction. Although it is recognized that there might be other contributing factors, this research only studied the effect of these three factors as antecedents to individual satisfaction. Last but not least, since the survey sample was restricted to a business student population in Hong Kong, there is a limitation to generalization of the results to a more diverse student population.

RECOMMENDATION

Based on the findings of the study, several recommendations are made for future research. *First*, as this study collected data on a cross-sectional basis only, a longitudinal research aimed at investigating the effects over time of a variety of interventions, using multi-method measurements, could further the knowledge of causality of relationships and help determine what strategies enhance satisfaction, and learning over time when students undertake group work. *Second*, as this research was limited to Hong Kong's business students, it is not clear if the factors investigated in this study apply equally to university students of disciplines other than business or indeed to non-university students.

Future research is needed to examine this. Last but not least, only five constructs were examined in this study for the purpose of understanding determinants of student satisfaction in team work. Further studies are recommended to consider other constructs which might also have an impact on learning effectiveness and satisfaction. Examples of such variables are team diversity, group cohesion, and leadership.

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Picture of Chinese Students in Hong Kong
(Source: www.google.com, 15/7/2012)

Group work can enhance students' understanding and interest. This collective way of learning provides an excellent opportunity for students to share their learning experience and, thus, learn from each other through cooperation and interaction among themselves.

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND STUDENTS ATTITUDE TOWARDS CO-CURRICULAR UNIFORM BODIES IN MALAYSIA

NAJEEMAH MOHD YUSOF

ABSTRACT: *The purpose of this study is to identify the relationship between emotional intelligence and students attitude towards co-curricular uniform bodies among secondary school children. The research is to determine the level of emotional intelligence, the difference between emotional intelligence based on gender and ethnicity, and relationship with students' attitude towards uniform bodies. Sample for the study were 120 form four secondary school children from Penang, Malaysia. Emotional intelligence is measured using the Bar-On EQ-1:YV. The data were analyzed using the SPSS package version 16. The independent t-test was used to analyze whether there is any significant difference in the mean score of emotional intelligence based on gender. The one way ANOVA was used to analyze any significant difference in the mean score of emotional intelligence based on ethnicity. Pearson correlation was used to show the relationship between emotional intelligence and students' attitude towards uniform bodies. The results show a significant difference and relationship which will be elaborated in this paper. The implication of this research is that the emotional intelligence should be emphasized in and outside the classroom as it is significant in improving students' attitude and academic achievement.*

KEY WORDS: *Emotional intelligence, students attitude, co-curricular activities, secondary school children in Malaysia, and human life.*

INTRODUCTION

In line with the era of globalization, the academic culture is seen as an important element in a balanced human capital formation in terms of intellectual, social, skills, and personality. Based on the academic qualifications alone, it is not capable of delivering a first class human capital. Holistic human capital development is a necessity no longer a luxury. The holistic development emphasizes knowledge, skills, and values that is progressive, high ethics, and morals.

However, educational institutions today are to focus more on the importance of Intellectual Quotient (IQ). Malaysia's education system more oriented to academic intelligence of logical and linguistic with less attention to the types of intelligence such as musical, intrapersonal, interpersonal, and naturalist (Gardner, 1983) that can be done outside the classroom as in the uniform bodies activities.

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Many researchers began to argue that intrapersonal and interpersonal competence or emotional intelligence (EQ, Emotional Quotient) is more important to succeed in life compared to IQ. According to R.K. Cooper and A. Sawaf (1997), successes of a student actually include the intellectual, spiritual, emotional, and physical ability. Emotional intelligence is one of the main aspects of the national education philosophy. Through the national education philosophy, the importance of emotional intelligence (EQ) is very clear and significant as intellectual intelligence (IQ) and spiritual intelligence (SQ).

When students have positive emotions towards their curriculum, they will be fully involved and the objectives to form the core of human capital can be easily achieved. Unfortunately, in the passion to pursue excellence in curriculum, many parents forget about the importance of co-curricular activities for their children.

RESEARCH BACKGROUND

The psychologists, R. Wylie and S. Burus (1979), stated that students who are emotionally stable feel more confident of their abilities and, thus, they are more successful in their lives. Emotional intelligence is the intelligence that is in a person associated with the level of ability to deal with other people, feelings, and daily social environment. Individuals with high levels of intelligence are the people who are able to control their feelings and behaviors. They will keep their own feelings of stress they faced, so that it does not disable the ability to think wisely. Normally, individuals with high levels of emotional intelligence will be successful in their career and life. This finding would agree with A.J. Michael (2006), he states that students who have the skills to overcome their emotions perform better in any kind of assessment test.

Statement of the Problem. Many people believe that attitude has all the efforts and actions to be about something. Attitude is one of the most important factor in determining success. It affects human relations and our acceptance of a new experience. If the attitude towards a task is positive, the individual is certainly happy to do it. However, if the environment is opposite, we will try to avoid and not do the job in earnest. It is proved that the attitude is influenced by emotional intelligence.

Emotional intelligence is able to encourage motivation level, organizing, directing, and activating the child's behavior at school. According to Mohd Azhar Abd Hamid *et al.* (2005), emotional intelligences help the students to facilitate an efficient response, adapt, and react to change the environmental situations to achieve success in areas where they are involved. Therefore, the levels of emotional intelligence of students need to be studied to help students achieve personal excellence in any field they are involved.

In actual fact, parents and teachers are giving more focus on intellectual intelligence by finding a variety of alternative for the development of the student's mind, so that they will achieve excellent results in examinations until the formation

of emotional intelligence are neglected. According to Ainon Mohd and Abdullah Hassan (2002), most students who do well in exams are less able to maintain a record of excellence after graduating.

According to D. Goleman (1998), students with emotional intelligence skills are able to maintain excellence at all times. Therefore, the nurturing of emotional intelligence among the students need to be addressed by parents and teachers to keep it parallel with the emotional intelligence of mental development of students.

Therefore, this research objective is to identify to which extent emotional intelligence can influence students' attitudes to the uniformed body. If all students have a positive attitude and actively involved in the uniformed body, it is certain that student's emotional intelligence will increase and this will also affect the overall student achievement.

Objectives of study are as follows: (1) to identify the level of emotional intelligence of students; (2) to identify whether there are differences in emotional intelligence based on demographic factors such as gender and race of students; (3) to identify whether there is a relationship between the dimensions of emotional intelligence in students' attitudes on the activities of uniform body; and (4) to identify whether there is a relationship between the attitudes of students to the activities of uniform body.

Research Methodology. The sample of study consists of Form Four students of different race and gender in four schools in Penang, Malaysia. A total of 120 students were randomly selected in a simple random technique. The selection of the sample is about 15% of the population because, according to L.R. Gay and P. Airasian (2003), sampling for descriptive studies is from 10% to 20%. Independent t-test, one-way ANOVA (Analysis of Variances) test, and PC (Pearson Correlation) were applied to measure the research hypothesis.

BRIEF LITERATURE REVIEW

The concept of emotional intelligence began to be discussed in 1940 by David Wechster. He said there are two intelligence quotient that is the cognitive (intellectual) and non-cognitive intelligence (emotional). In 1980, Dr. Reoven Bar-On began research to determine the success and the ability of a person. Findings from the study found that non-cognitive intelligence have contributed success in life. Beginning in 1985, Dr. Reoven Bar-On has created the term EQ (Emotional Quotient) to illustrate his approach to the assessment of general intelligence. He describes emotional intelligence as a mirror to reflect one's ability to negotiate well with others and to the feelings of self-control; in addition, he also describes emotional intelligence as the ability to negotiate with daily environment challenges and helps predict success in life, including personal and career matters. Upon this discovery, the term emotional intelligence has also received a place in academic writing (cited by Gardner & Krechevsky, 1993).

J.D. Mayer and P. Salovey (1997) also were the first to present academically about their discovery in the field of emotional intelligence. They define emotional intelligence as a social intelligence that involves the ability to control emotions of self and others, as well as to differentiate between types of emotion, using information to guide thinking, and actions of a person. J.D. Mayer and P. Salovey (1997) have refined the definition of emotional intelligence. According to them, emotional intelligence is the ability to detect emotions, to access and create emotions, to assist thought, and to understand emotions and emotional knowledge acquired; hence, it is thought to control emotions to promote emotional development of the intellect.

J.D. Mayer and P. Salovey (1997), then, suggested four domains of emotional intelligence to recognize emotions, using emotions, understanding emotions, and managing emotions. Besides, H. Gardner (1983) has criticized the meaning of the concept of intelligence involving only rationalistic, intellectual, and cognitive development in the narrow sense. According to H. Gardner (1983), human intelligence not only limited to intellectual intelligence, but includes nine intelligence of mathematical and logical intelligence, language intelligence, musical intelligence, visual intelligence and space, body language intelligence, intrapersonal intelligence, interpersonal intelligence, naturalist intelligence, and existential intelligence. Intelligence involves the ability to solve problems or create a work such as changing a song, create a poem, or a choreographed dance in its cultural context.

According to H. Gardner (1983), a person's intelligence can be identified by intelligence tests or test of IQ is not accurate because the intellect is not the only way of solving problems. Individuals can use a number of cognitive processes to solve problems and produce success. H. Gardner's "Diversity Intelligences Theory" in 1983 has opened the eyes and attracted psychologists to explore a variety of human intelligence as well as intellectual intelligence. Intrapersonal and interpersonal intelligences emphasized in the two-dimensional theory which are important in the development of the idea of emotional intelligence. According to H. Gardner and M.C. Krechevsky (1993), both intrapersonal, interpersonal, and emotional intelligences are the skills to solve problems.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

First, Min Difference in Emotional Intelligence between Male and Female Students. Emotional intelligence of both the student group represented by the min score and standard deviation values calculated from the data. After that, independent t-tests were conducted to test the null hypothesis of the study which says: "*Ho1. There is no min significance difference in emotional intelligence between male and female students*". The following is a table showing the results.

Table 1:
Results of Independent T-Test of Emotional Intelligence Differences between Male and Female Students

Sex	N	Min	SP	dk	t-value	Sig
Male	60	74.75	9.31			
				118	0.170	0.024
Female	60	70.18	7.77			

Notice: Significant mean difference in the level of significance $\alpha = 0,025$ (0.05/2) (sig. 2 End).

Students' emotional intelligence min score between male and female students was 74.75 for male, while female students' attitudes min score was 70.18. This means that male and female students have a level of students' attitudes of different uniformed body. The standard deviation value for boys is at 9.31. Meanwhile the standard deviation of the group of female students is 7.77.

The difference and standard deviation value for the group of male students than female students is about 1.54. This means that the male student group is more homogeneous or diversified in terms of emotional intelligence than girls. This indicates a significant difference in min score of emotional intelligence between male and female students; thus, the null hypothesis was rejected.

Second, Emotional Intelligence Differences between Students of Malay, Chinese, and Indian. Emotional intelligence for the three groups of Malays, Chinese, and Indians tested by the min score and standard deviation values calculated from the data. Then, one-way ANOVA used to test the Null hypothesis: "Ho2. There is no significant mean difference in emotional intelligence between Malays, Chinese, and Indians". The following is a table showing the results.

Table 2:
Results of One-Way ANOVA Test Analysis of Emotional Intelligence Differences between Malays, Chinese, and Indians

Emotional Intelligence	N	Min	SP	Minimum	Maximum
Malay	40	73.45	8.26	48	88
Chinese	40	72.75	7.06	50	84
Indian	40	71.65	10.14	47	88
Total	120	72.62	8.54	47	88

Variation Source	SS	Df	MS	F	Sig.
Between Groups	65.867	2	32.933		
				0.447	0.640
Within Groups	8614.500	117	73.628		
Total	8680.367	119			

Notice: Significant variance differences in level of significance $\alpha = 0,025$ (0.05/2) (sig. 2 End).

One-way ANOVA tests performed to determine whether there is significant difference in the emotional intelligence of students based on different ethnic. At the

significant level $\alpha = 0.05$, null hypothesis failed to be rejected. ANOVA test results showed that the Malays, Chinese, and Indians fail less ($F = 0447$, $Df = 2/117$, $p = 0.640$). With the value of $p > 0.05$, then it can be said that the mean emotional intelligence of students based on race are the same. This means there is no significant difference in the emotional intelligence of students based on different ethnic.

Third, the Relationship between Emotional Intelligence Intrapersonal Dimensions of Student Attitudes on Uniformed Body. Pearson correlation analysis was used to test the null hypothesis of the study which read as follows: “*Ho3 (a). There is no significant relationship between emotional intelligence dimension of students’ attitude on uniformed body*”. The following is a table showing the results.

Table3:

Pearson Correlation Test between Intrapersonal Dimensions of Emotional Intelligence in Student’s Attitudes on Uniformed Body

Research Items	N	Min	SP
Intrapersonal Dimensions of Emotional Intelligence.	120	70.45	14.64
Student’s Attitudes on Uniformed Body.	120	74.43	11.60

Research Items	Item Statistic	Intrapersonal	Student’s Attitude
Intrapersonal Dimensions of Emotional Intelligence.	Pearson Correlation	1.000	0.168
	Sig. (2 ends)	.	0.067
	N	120	120
Student’s Attitudes on Uniformed Body.	Pearson Correlation	0.168	1.000
	Sig. (2 ends)	0.067	
	N	120	120

Notice: Significance min difference in the level of significance $\alpha = 0,025$ ($0.05/2$) (sig. 2 End).

Pearson correlation values between emotional intelligence intrapersonal dimension of students’ attitudes to the uniform body was 0.168, so it can be said that the relationship between two variables is a direct relationship because the correlation is positive. The strength of this relationship is very weak. Meanwhile, the value of p is 0.168 which is a greater value than 0.05. Thus, the null hypothesis of this research fails to be rejected. This indicates that there is no significant relationship between students’ emotional intelligence intrapersonal dimension of student attitudes on uniformed body among form four students in this study.

Fourth, the Relationship between Emotional Intelligence Interpersonal Dimensions of Student Attitudes towards Uniformed Body. Pearson correlation analysis was used to test the null hypothesis of the study which read as follows: “*Ho3 (b). There is no significant relationship between emotional intelligence interpersonal dimension of student attitudes on uniformed body*”. The following is a table showing the results.

Table 4:

Pearson Correlation Test between Interpersonal Dimensions of Emotional Intelligence with the Attitude of Students towards Uniformed Body

Research Items	N	Min	SP
Interpersonal Dimensions of Emotional Intelligence.	120	76.55	12.27
Student's Attitudes on Uniformed Body.	120	74.43	11.60

Research Items	Item Statistic	Interpersonal	Student's Attitude
Interpersonal Dimensions of Emotional Intelligence.	Pearson Correlation	1.000	0.771
	Sig. (2 ends)	.	0.000*
	N	120	120
Student's Attitudes on Uniformed Body.	Pearson Correlation	0.771	1.000
	Sig. (2 ends)	0.000*	.
	N	120	120

Notice: Significance min difference in the level of significance $\alpha = 0.025$ ($0.05/2$) ($0.000^* = p < 0.001$).

Pearson correlation values between emotional intelligence and interpersonal dimension of students' attitudes to the body uniform was 0.771, so it can be said that the relationship between two variables is a direct relationship because the correlation is positive. The strength of the relationship is strong, which is close to 0.8. While the value of p is 0.000* which is a value smaller than 0.001. Thus, this study successfully rejects the null hypothesis. This indicates a significant relationship between emotional intelligence dimensions of student interpersonal behaviors among students on uniformed body of form four students in this study.

In summary may be expected that students who are high levels of emotional intelligence of the intrapersonal dimensions also have good attitude towards uniformed body. While students with low levels of emotional intelligences of the interpersonal dimensions tend to have less attitude towards uniformed body.

Fifth, the Relationship between Emotional Intelligence Managing Stress Dimensions with Student's Attitude towards Uniformed Body. Pearson correlation analysis was used to test the null hypothesis of the study which read as follows: "*Ho3 (c). There is no significant relationship between emotional intelligence managing stress dimensions with student's attitude towards uniformed body*". The following is a table showing the results.

Pearson correlation values between the dimensions of managing stress and student's attitudes to the uniformed body is 0.894, so it can be said that the relationship between two variables is a direct relationship because the correlation is positive. The strength of this relationship is very strong which is close to 0.9. While the value of p is 0.000* which is much smaller value of 0.001. Thus, this study successfully implicates that null hypothesis was rejected. This indicates a significant relationship between students' emotional intelligence managing stress dimensions with student's attitude towards uniformed body among form four students in this study.

Table 5:

Pearson Correlation Test between Emotional Intelligence Managing Stress Dimensions with Student's Attitude towards Uniformed Body

Research Items	N	Min	SP
Managing Stress Emotional Intelligence Dimensions.	120	71.79	13.16
Student's Attitudes on Uniformed Body.	120	74.43	11.60

Research Items	Item Statistic	Managing Stress	Student's Attitude
Managing Stress Emotional Intelligence Dimensions.	Pearson Correlation	1.000	0.894
	Sig. (2 ends)	.	0.000*
	N	120	120
Student's Attitudes on Uniformed Body.	Pearson Correlation	0.894	1.000
	Sig. (2 ends)	0.000*	.
	N	120	120

Notice: Significant mean difference in the level of significance $\alpha = 0.025 (0.05/2)$ ($0.000^* = p < 0.001$).

In summary may be expected that students who have high levels of emotional intelligence dimensions on managing stress also have good attitudes towards uniformed body. While a student who has low level of emotional intelligence dimensions on managing stress also has less attitudes towards uniformed body. Perhaps, the students who are able to manage his stress problems were more interested in uniformed bodies in schools.

Sixth, the Relationship between Emotional Intelligence Mood Management Dimensions with Student Attitudes towards Uniformed Body. Pearson correlation analysis was used to test the null hypothesis of the study reads as follows: "*Ho3 (d). There is no significant relationship between emotional intelligence mood management dimensions with student attitudes towards uniformed body*". The following is a table showing the results.

Table 6:

Pearson Correlation Test between Emotional Intelligence Mood Management Dimensions of Student Attitudes on Uniformed Body

Research Items	N	Min	SP
Emotional Intelligence Dimensions of Mood Management.	120	78.50	12.08
Student's Attitudes on Uniformed Body.	120	74.43	11.60

Research Items	Item Statistic	Mood Management	Student's Attitude
Emotional Intelligence Dimensions of Mood Management.	Pearson Correlation	1.000	0.872
	Sig. (2 ends)	.	0.000*
	N	120	120
Student's Attitudes on Uniformed Body.	Pearson Correlation	0.872	1.000
	Sig. (2 ends)	0.000*	.
	N	120	120

Notice: Significant mean difference in the level of significance $\alpha = 0.025 (0.05/2)$ ($0.000^* = p < 0.001$).

The strength of this relationship is very strong which is close to 0.9. While the value of p is 0.000* which is a value smaller than 0.001. Thus, this study successfully rejects the null hypothesis. This indicates a significant relationship between students' emotional intelligence mood management dimensions with student attitudes on uniformed body among form four students in this study. In summary may be expected that students who are not very efficient in the mood management ability was not active in the uniformed body in school.

Seventh, the Relationship between Emotional Intelligence Attitude Adjustment Dimensions with Students Attitude towards Uniformed Body.

Pearson correlation analysis was used to test the Null hypothesis of the study which read as follows: “*Ho3 (e). There is no significant relationship between emotional intelligence attitude adjustment dimensions with students towards uniformed body*”. The following is a table showing the results.

Table 7:

Pearson Correlation Test between Emotional Intelligence Attitude Adjustment Dimensions with the Students Attitude towards Uniformed Body

Research Items	N	Min	SP
Emotional Intelligence of Adjustment.	120	75.19	10.04
Student's Attitudes on Uniformed Body.	120	74.43	11.60

Research Items	Item Statistic	Attitude Adjustment	Student's Attitude
Emotional Intelligence of Adjustment.	Pearson Correlation	1.000	0.720
	Sig. (2 ends)	.	0.000*
	N	120	120
Student's Attitudes on Uniformed Body.	Pearson Correlation	0.720	1.000
	Sig. (2 ends)	0.000*	.
	N	120	120

Notice: Significant mean difference in the level of significance $\alpha = 0.025 (0.05/2)$ (0.000* = $p < 0.001$).

The strength of this relationship is very strong which is close to 0.8. While the value of p is 0.000* which is a value smaller than 0.001. Thus, this study successfully rejects the null hypothesis. This indicates a significant relationship between emotional intelligence attitude adjustment dimensions with the attitude of students on uniformed body among form four students in this study. In summary one can say that students less able to adapt to the school environment have little interest in uniformed bodies carried out in school or in society at large.

Eighth, the Relationship between Emotional Intelligence as a Whole with the Attitude of Students towards Uniformed Body.

Pearson correlation analysis was used to test the null hypothesis of the study which read as follows: “*Ho4. There is no significant relationship between emotional intelligence of students with student attitudes towards uniformed body*”. The following is a table showing the results.

Table 8:

Pearson Correlation Test between Emotional Intelligence of Students as a Whole with Student Attitudes on Uniformed Body

Research Items	N	Min	SP
Emotional Intelligence of Students as a Whole.	120	72.62	8.54
Student's Attitude to the Uniformed Body.	120	74.43	11.60

Research Items	Item Statistic	Emotional Intelligence	Student's Attitude
Emotional Intelligence of Students as a Whole.	Pearson Correlation	1.000	0.902
	Sig. (2 ends)	.	0.000*
	N	120	120
Student's Attitude to the Uniformed Body.	Pearson Correlation	0.902	1.000
	Sig. (2 ends)	0.000*	.
	N	120	120

Notice: Significant mean difference in the level of significance $\alpha = 0.025$ ($0.05/2$) ($0.000^* = p < 0.001$).

Pearson correlation values between emotional intelligence as a whole with the students' attitudes to the uniform body is 0.902, so it can be said that the relationship between two variables is a direct relationship because the correlation is positive. The strength of this relationship is very strong, exceeding 0.9. While the value of p is 0.000* which is a value smaller than 0.001. Thus, this study successfully indicates that null hypothesis was rejected. This indicates a significant relationship between emotional intelligence as a whole with the attitude of students towards uniformed body among form four students in this study. In summary, one can say that students who have high level of emotional intelligences also have better attitude towards their uniformed body in school. Overall, students with high emotional intelligence are more interested in uniformed bodies in schools.

CONCLUSION

The study of emotional intelligence among school children should be expanded as the pressure in the era of globalization of education is increasingly challenging the mental and physical strength of students. Failure to manage emotions will bring undesirable effects. On the other hand, emotional intelligence provides space for individuals to explore their own potential as well as provide opportunities for individuals to adjust to the emotional self and develop the appropriate emotions in the interest of themselves and others. Individuals with high emotional intelligence are able to handle the emotional aspects of life.

Emotional intelligence is enriched with spiritual elements that can educate people to be more balanced human being. Emotional intelligence is a unique field and should be fully understood before digging ahead to study other human characteristics. We reserve the right to choose the feelings, thoughts, and behaviors that we want to be controlled by our emotions.

To date, there is still consensus among researchers about the strength of the influence of emotional intelligence in various aspects of human life, especially in students' attitudes to extra-curricular activities, so that more research on emotional intelligence can be carried out. The study showed that the cultivation of emotional intelligence has not yet reached a high level. In expanding the dimensions of emotional intelligence, such as student background factors of gender and race, should be considered to meet individual differences. The efforts in developing emotional intelligence should follow the right pace to cultivate the skills and can be leveraged to free students from emotional disorders.

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Picture of Malays Students in Primary and Secondary Schools

(Source: www.google.com, 1/5/2012)

However, educational institutions today are to focus more on the importance of Intellectual Quotient (IQ). Malaysia's education system more oriented to academic intelligence of logical and linguistic with less attention to the types of intelligence such as musical, intrapersonal, interpersonal, and naturalist that can be done outside the classroom as in the uniform bodies activities.

THE APPROPRIATE *PANCASILA* EDUCATION CONTENTS TO IMPLANT LOFTY VALUES FOR INDONESIAN STUDENTS

TUKIRAN TANIREDDJA, MUHAMMAD AFANDI & EFI MIFTAH FARIDLİ

ABSTRACT: *“Pancasila” (Five Basic Principles of the Republic of Indonesia) Education subject, which was before Reformation era (1998) known widely by Indonesian community, nowadays has undergone marginalization process in social, national, and state living. It is due to, one of the factors, that “Pancasila” Education subject has been made as indoctrination means and authority political needs in performing development in the New Order government era (1966-1998). Although “Pancasila” Education subject has not been exit in educational curriculum in Indonesia since 2003, but now it is realized the need of developing awareness about “Pancasila” lofty values toward college students as the candidate of next national leader. Of the appropriate “Pancasila” Education subject contents to implant lofty values toward Indonesian students, the study finding shows that the respondents agreed with re-emphasizing the matters related to: (1) the foundation and aim of “Pancasila” Education; (2) “Pancasila” in historical context of Indonesian struggle; (3) “Pancasila” as philosophical system; (4) “Pancasila” as political ethic; (5) “Pancasila” as national ideology; (6) “Pancasila” in state administration of Indonesian Republic; and (7) “Pancasila” as social, national, and state living paradigm in Indonesia to be developed continuously in Indonesian community.*

KEY WORDS: *“Pancasila” education subject, lofty values, Indonesian college students, globalization process, and national character and identity.*

INTRODUCTION

Since the prevalence of the Act Number 20 Year 2003 about National Education System, *Pancasila* (Five Basic Principles of the Republic of Indonesia) Education subject has been omitted from educational curriculum in Indonesia, either in primary, secondary or tertiary education. Educational curriculum in Indonesia – primary, secondary, and tertiary education – has not contained *Pancasila* Education subject. According to UU (*Undang-Undang* or Act) No.20/2003, especially Article 37 subsection 1 states that primary and secondary educational curriculum has to contain the subject of: (1) Religion Education; (2) Civic Education; (3) Language; (4) Math; (5) Science; (6) Social Sciences; (7) Art and Culture; (8) Sport and Physical Education; (9) Vocational/Skill; dan (10) Local Matter Content. Furthermore, the Act in article 37 subsection 2 states that higher education curriculum should contain

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the subject of: (1) Religion Education; (b) Civic Education; and (c) Language. Meanwhile, according to the Act No.2 Year 1989 about National Education System, *Pancasila* Education is a compulsory subject in Indonesia educational curriculum starting from primary, secondary to tertiary education. Moreover, in New Order government era (1966-1998), *Pancasila* Education subject is compulsory to be given starting from primary to higher education.

In fact, according to Sofyan Effendi (2006:2), since the Reformation movement emerged in 1998 from campuses in Indonesia, it seemed that there was the developed tendency to ignore *Pancasila* as an ideology in nation and state living. Although, the Act No.20 Year 2003 about National Education System has still stated the basic ideology of *Pancasila* as a basis of national education, but in its implementation did not state such national ideology education in national education curriculum. The effect of such omission, according to Sofyan Effendi (2006) again, was very worrying. The process of “colonialization of the mind” would be more and “*salah asuhan*” (poor upbringing) higher education would occur without any obstacle, resulting in graduates who comprehend more the other nation’s knowledge paradigm than their own knowledge which was stemmed from their original national culture.

PANCASILA AS A BASIS OF SOCIAL, NATIONAL, AND STATE LIVING IN INDONESIA

Philosophically, the essence of *Pancasila* (Five Basic Principles of the Republic of Indonesia)¹ existence as national development paradigm has consequence that in all national development aspects, we have to rely on the essence of values in *Pancasila* moral principle. Therefore, Kaelan (2002:216) stated that the essence of *Pancasila* values was based on human ontologism basis as the main supporting subject of *Pancasila* moral principles and also as national principle support. It is based on objective fact that *Pancasila* is a state basis, and the state is human organization (living federation). Therefore, in realizing its goal through national development to realize the whole people’s goal, the state should refer to the basis of “monopluralis” human essence.

Based on the letter from Director-General of Higher Education, Ministry of National Education No.06/D/T/2010 dated 5 January 2010, addressed to State and Private University/Institute Rectors, the Head of State and Private Higher Education, State and Private Polytechnic/Academy Director, and the Head of KOPERTIS (*Koordinator Perguruan Tinggi Swasta* or Coordinator of Private Higher Education Institutions) Regional I to XII, aiming to improve the awareness toward *Pancasila* values on college students, thus, it is stated philosophically, juridically, and

¹*Pancasila*, or Five Basic Principles of the Republic of Indonesia, contains: (1) the belief in on God Almighty; (2) humanity that is just and civilized; (3) the unity of Indonesia; (4) democracy guided by the wisdom of representative deliberation; and (5) social justice for all Indonesians. About the *Pancasila* as the Indonesia’s nation-state ideology as well as philosophy see, for example, Ismaun (1967, 1969, and 1980); and John M. Echols & Hassan Shadily (2003:406).

sociologically the implementation of *Pancasila* Education subject do not violate the prevailed regulation and law. In the letter, it is recommended that the universities which have implemented *Pancasila* Education subject should improve active, innovative, creative, contextual, and fun learning process (Dirjendikti, 2010).

The research finding about the perception of *Pancasila* from the young generation in Yogyakarta, Indonesia states that: (1) implementing *Pancasila*, either as life philosophy or state foundation, has not been optimal. In some cases, *Pancasila* is perceived no more than theory, symbol, formality, discourse, and slogan; and (2) most of state institution and administration have not implemented it well yet, it is only formality and, moreover, it is diverted (Pitoyo *et al.*, 2006:14).

In developing *Pancasila*, campus should be in front position and be a pioneer for this nation to face bigger globalization wave which is exploited by neo-capitalism spirit and liberalism market. In facing “new colonialism and imperialism”, according to Soekarno’s words, campus should be inspired to develop ideas to make *Pancasila* as ontological, epistemic, and axiological basis of contextual science in Indonesia. Besides that, campus should pioneer the ideas to develop such philosophy as development paradigm and national development ethic foundation (cited by Effendi, 2006:2-3).

University, in political perspective, is an institution which is hoped to be able as recruitment, selection, and education media for citizens to involve in political elite group. Gradually, community of political elite and Indonesian politicians will be the graduates of higher education institution. In such rational action, it is hoped that the decision taken will give not only personal and family benefit but also social and national benefit (Zamroni, 2003:10). Therefore, *Pancasila* Education subject in university should be able to realize the students who understand, comprehend, and implement *Pancasila* moral principles well in social, national, and state living in Indonesia context.

University is frequently not responsive, in which there is difference between what develops in the class room and daily social reality in community. It is due to the learning process only focusing on one dimension, which is cognitive dimension; while the other dimensions, such as affective and psychomotor, are disregarded. In fact, if we are consistent in relying on such three education domains, the learning output will be realistic and responsive learning. In this context, university has not been able to transform education, as stated by Paulo Piere, on the awareness process (cited by Siswomihardjo *et al.*, 2002).

According to the Decree of Director-General of Higher Education, the Ministry of National Education No.43/DIKTI/Kep/2006 about Regulation of Personality Development Subject Implementation in University, then, the mission of *Matakuliah Pengembangan Kepribadian* (MPK), or Personality Development Subject, is to help the students stabilizing their personality to be consistent in realizing religious and cultural basic values, national sense, and love of fatherland along their lives in mastering, applying, and improving technological and art science they have responsibly (Dirjendikti, 2006).

THE METHOD AND IMPLEMENTATION OF RESEARCH FINDING

This study is a combination of quantitative and qualitative studies as developed by John W. Creswell (1994 dan 1998). The method used in this study is survey of university students in Central Java, Indonesia, including the efforts to: (1) gain appropriate contents in *Pancasila* Education subject to implant lofty values for the students; (2) obtain interactive, fun, challenging, and motivating *Pancasila* Education learning model in order that the students participate actively in *Pancasila* Education learning process; (3) implant *Pancasila* values on university the students; (4) realize campus as *Pancasila* laboratory embryo; and (5) create *Pancasila* Education text book for the students.

The population of study was all Civic Education lecturers and students in Central Java who contracted *Pancasila* (Five Basic Principles of the Republic of Indonesia) Education subject when the study was conducted. Sample selecting technique of this study was area random sampling (Cresswell, 1994 and 1998).

Model implementation, observation, and questionnaire in form of opinioner and result were then compared. Modification of study instrument was done by using measurement scale, reliability level, and validity. Data collecting method used in this study was attitude scale, questionnaire, observation, interview, and searching the documents. Quantitative data analysis uses the procedure of: (1) Data normality testing by chi-square; (2) Data homogeneity testing, Barlett testing; (3) hypothesis testing by non-statistic technique, which was percentage; and (4) statistic testing by Analysis of Variant testing or ANAVA, *t-test*, and correlation product moment. ANAVA post-analysis by Scheffe testing and significance testing used was 5% or 0.05. Qualitative data in form of interview was described, so it had comprehensive and systematic meaning by using data reduction, display, and conclusion.

This study finding can be applied in university all around Indonesia because since the Reformation movement had occurred from campuses in our fatherland in 1998, the tendency to neglect *Pancasila* as ideology in our national and state living emerged. Based on the survey conducted by the Directorate-General of Higher Education toward 81 state universities, it was stated that *Pancasila* Education subject was not contained in curriculum of most of such universities (Effendi, 2006:2). If it is neglected, it will worry us, which is *Pancasila* moral values will not be known by next generation and *Pancasila* will be only the historical relic.

STUDY FINDING AND REFORMATION IN PANCASILA EDUCATION

Modification of role, content, and approach in *Pancasila* (Five Basic Principles of the Republic of Indonesia) Education learning approach, as stated in the Decree of Director-General of Higher Education, Ministry of National Education No.265/Dikti/Kep/2000 about GBPP-MPK (*Garis-garis Besar Program Pengajaran – Matakuliah Pengembangan Kepribadian* or Guideline of Teaching Program – Personality Development Subject) of *Pancasila* Education, should be socialized widely to all lecturers teaching *Pancasila* Education subject. It is hoped that

Pancasila Education and other Personality Development Subjects or MPK (*Matakuliah Pengembangan Kepribadian*) can give real contribution in constructing pious Indonesian people who have superior intelligence and lofty moral, firm and independent personality, and social and national responsibility (Pusposutardjo, 2002:1).

According to the Article 5 of “the Decree of Director-General of Higher Education, Ministry of National Education No.38 Year 2002”, it is emphasized that the learning methodology of Personality Development Subjects should started from: (1) *Approach*, positioning the student as education subject, partner in learning process, and the member of religious community, family member, society, and citizen; (2) *Method*, learning process and discussion are conducted critically, analytically, inductively, deductively, and reflectively through participatory creative dialog to believe in substance of study principle; (3) *Activity form*, learning process or face-to-face lecturing should be done by variation, lecturing, creative dialog, or interactive discussion, inquiry method, case study, individual task, seminar, and various academic activities which emphasize more in the students’ meaningful learning experience; and (4) *Motivation*, stimulating the awareness that personality development learning is life need (Dirjendikti, 2002:4).

Meanwhile, the Article 5 of “The Decree of Director-General of Higher Education, Ministry of National Education No.43/DIKTI/Kep/2006 about Regulation of Personality Development Subjects Implementation in University” emphasizes that the methodology of Personality Development Subjects should be:

First, learning process should be interactive, inspirative, fun, challenging, and motivating the students to participate actively and provide the sufficient space for initiative, creativity, and independence in positioning the students as education subject, partner in learning process, and the member of religious community, family member, society, and citizen.

Second, learning should be an educating process which contains critical, analytic, inductive, deductive, and reflective discussion through participatory creative dialog to reach the understanding of the truth of study principle substance, real creation, and stimulate long-life learning motivation.

Third, the activity form of learning process can be in form of face-to-face lecturing, lecture, dialog or interactive discussion, case study, individual task, reading assignment, seminar, and co-curricular activities.

Forth, motivation to stimulate awareness that Personality Development Learning is life need to be exist in global community (Dirjendikti, 2006).

According to K.W. Siswomihardjo (2004:10), between 1995 to 2020 is a “repositioning” level of *Pancasila*. Different with 55 years ago, today the world is faced with rapid, basic, and spectacular change wave as an implication of globalization wave striking the whole world, especially in this 21st century. The globalization implication shows the development of a standardization in various aspects of life, either national or state administration. Apart from ideology system or social system, it has the questions as follows: “*Is human right still be respected? Is democracy developed? Are freedom and justice owned by every citizen? And is environment managed well?*”

Pancasila Education subject in the university has principle, vision, mission, competence, and specific goal. The principles of *Pancasila* Education as a subject in the university are the Introduction of 1945 Constitution or UUD (*Undang-Undang Dasar*) 1945 paragraph four stating clearly that Indonesia Republic is based on "*Pancasila*". Besides that, the Act No.20 Year 2003 about the National Education System has stated that education is based on *Pancasila* and 1945 Constitution or *Undang-Undang Dasar* 1945 (Depdiknas RI, 2002).

The vision of *Pancasila* Education subject becomes a value source and guidance in implementation of study program in leading the students to develop their personality as *Pancasila* citizens. Meanwhile, the mission of *Pancasila* Education is to help the students being able to realize the lofty values of *Pancasila* and develop national, state, and social awareness in applying their knowledge and thinking responsibly toward the humanity.

The competence of *Pancasila* Education subject is aimed at mastering thinking competence, rational and dynamic attitude, and wide point of view as an intellectual person. Besides that, the competence of *Pancasila* Education subject is hope to be able to lead the students to have the competence to: (1) take responsible attitude in line with the conscience; (2) know the life problems and prosperity and the way to solve it; (3) know the changes and development of science and technology; and (4) explain the meaning of history and national cultural values to unite Indonesia (Siswomihardjo *et al.*, 2002:164).

The goal of *Pancasila* Education subject is hoped to make the students are able to have knowledge and understand the basis of *Pancasila* philosophy, and be proud of *Pancasila* as Indonesian great works similar with other great ideology works in the world. *Pancasila* as a paradigm in social, national, and state living can expand thinking and develop democratic attitude in actualizing the values contained in *Pancasila*. Meanwhile, the specific goal of *Pancasila* Education subject is to make the students be able to: (1) conduct critical study about Indonesia national struggle history and historical chronology of formulating *Pancasila* as state philosophy and principle; and (2) explain the Introduction of 1945 Constitution or UUD 1945, articles in UUD 1945, and dynamic of UUD 1945 implementation (Siswomihardjo *et al.*, 2002:166).

The questionnaire findings about the appropriate contents of *Pancasila* Education subject and can develop the lofty values in social, national, and state living in Indonesia are following here:

No	CONTENTS	ST	T	AT	KT	TT
1	CHAPTER I: PRINCIPLE AND GOAL OF <i>PANCASILA</i> EDUCATION	19	8	0	0	0
2	A. <i>The Principle of "Pancasila" Education</i>	26	20	0	0	0
3	<i>1. The Historical Principle of "Pancasila" Education</i>	31	23	0	2	1
4	<i>2. The Cultural Principle of "Pancasila" Education</i>	23	26	2	2	2
5	<i>3. The Juridical Principle of "Pancasila" Education</i>	32	16	5	2	0
6	<i>4. The Philosophical Principle of "Pancasila" Education</i>	30	19	4	1	0

No	CONTENTS	ST	T	AT	KT	TT
7	B. The Goal of "Pancasila" Education	19	6	0	1	0
8	1. Vision, Mission, and Competence of "Pancasila" Education	29	20	5	2	0
9	2. The Goal of "Pancasila" Education	37	17	0	2	0
10	CHAPTER II: PANCASILA IN HISTORICAL CONTEXT OF INDONESIA NATIONAL STRUGGLE	20	7	1	0	0
11	A. The History of Indonesia National Struggle	27	16	1	0	0
12	1. The Period of National Fame	22	26	1	2	2
13	2. The Period of Dutch Colonialization	19	31	3	1	0
14	3. The Struggle of Indonesia Nation	34	16	0	0	0
15	B. The Historical Chronology of Formulating "Pancasila" as National Philosophy Principle	19	11	0	0	0
16	1. The Period of Japanese Occupation	13	31	1	0	0
17	2. The Meeting of BPUPKI I (29 May – 1 June 1945)	25	30	1	0	0
18	3. The Meeting of BPUPKI II (10 – 17 July 1945)	19	31	2	0	5
19	4. The Meeting of PPKI 18 August 1945	29	28	0	0	0
20	C. The Historical Chronology of Formulating the Introduction of UUD 1945	35	19	1	0	0
21	D. The Historical Chronology of Formulating Articles in UUD 1945	27	22	5	0	1
22	E. The Existence and Meaning of the Introduction of UUD 1945	34	19	1	0	0
23	F. The Dynamic of UUD 1945 Implementation	18	26	2	0	1
24	CHAPTER III: PANCASILA AS PHILOSOPHY SYSTEM	10	10	2	0	0
25	A. Definition of Philosophy	19	27	3	1	0
26	B. Definition of Philosophy System and its Branches	14	34	4	2	0
27	C. The Unity of Moral Principle in "Pancasila" as a Systematic, Hierarchical and Logical Unity	27	20	2	0	0
28	D. The Elements of "Pancasila" as a Philosophy System	21	30	5	0	0
29	E. The Core of First Moral Principle	37	22	0	1	0
30	F. The Core of Second Moral Principle	34	20	0	1	0
31	G. The Core of Third Moral Principle	34	21	0	1	0
32	H. The Core of Fourth Moral Principle	38	22	0	1	0
33	I. The Core of Fifth Moral Principle	39	21	0	1	0
34	CHAPTER IV: PANCASILA AS POLITICAL ETHIC	10	9	5	0	0
35	A. Introduction	11	14	0	0	0
36	1. Definition of Ethic	33	27	1	0	0
37	2. Political and Governmental Ethic	25	33	1	0	0
38	3. "Pancasila" as an Ethic System	22	32	1	0	0
39	B. "Pancasila" as Political Ethic and Values Contains in it	24	7	1	0	0
40	1. "Pancasila" as Political Ethic	19	31	5	1	0
41	2. Values Contained in "Pancasila"	30	23	2	0	0
42	C. Implementing Ethic in Profession, Community, and State Living, and Give Critical Evaluation toward the Implementation of Ethic	20	11	0	0	0
43	1. Implementing Ethic in Profession Living	29	34	1	0	0
44	2. Implementing Ethic in Community Living	31	30	4	0	0
45	3. Implementing Ethic in State Living	31	23	3	0	0
46	4. Give Critical Evaluation toward Ethic Implementation	15	28	9	3	0

No	CONTENTS	ST	T	AT	KT	TT
47	CHAPTER V: PANCASILA AS NATIONAL IDEOLOGY	20	5	0	0	0
48	<i>A. Definition and Meaning of Ideology for Nation and State</i>	28	9	1	0	0
49	<i>1. Definition of Ideology</i>	36	18	1	0	0
50	<i>2. Meaning of Ideology for Nation and State</i>	31	18	1	1	0
51	B. The Types of Ideologies	21	7	1	1	0
52	<i>1. Liberalism</i>	12	34	4	3	4
53	<i>2. Communism</i>	12	31	2	1	8
54	<i>3. Facism</i>	12	29	8	2	5
55	<i>4. "Pancasila" Ideology</i>	27	30	0	0	0
56	C. The Meaning and Role of "Pancasila" as National and State Ideology	34	10	1	0	0
57	CHAPTER VI: PANCASILA IN STATE ADMINISTRATION CONTEXT OF INDONESIA REPUBLIC	28	5	0	1	0
58	<i>A. The Position of "Pancasila" as the Basic Law Source of Indonesia</i>	34	23	0	0	0
59	B. The Content of the Introduction of UUD 1945 and the Position of UUD Introduction	25	22	0	1	0
60	<i>1. The Content of UUD 1945 Introduction</i>	32	24	0	1	0
61	<i>2. The Position of UUD 1945 Introduction</i>	29	27	0	0	0
62	C. The System of Indonesia State Administration Before and After Amendment of UUD 1945	23	14	2	0	0
63	<i>1. The System of Indonesia State Administration Before the Prevalence of UUD 1945 Amendment</i>	24	22	5	0	0
64	<i>2. The System of Indonesia State Administration After the Prevalence of UUD 1945 Amendment</i>	23	20	4	0	0
65	D. Realization of Human Rights in Indonesia Republic	22	13	0	0	0
66	<i>1. Definition of Human Rights</i>	34	18	3	0	0
67	<i>2. Human Rights in UUD 1945</i>	27	24	1	0	0
68	<i>3. Right and Obligation of Citizen</i>	30	17	0	0	0
69	<i>4. Realization of Human Rights in Indonesia Republic</i>	19	22	7	0	0
70	CHAPTER VII: PANCASILA AS PARADIGM IN SOCIAL, NATIONAL, AND STATE LIVING	21	8	2	0	0
71	A. Definition of Paradigm	15	25	3	1	0
72	B. "Pancasila" as Development Paradigm	18	23	2	0	0
73	<i>1. "Pancasila" as Development Paradigm of Political Aspect</i>	17	35	1	0	0
74	<i>2. "Pancasila" as Development Paradigm of Economic Aspect</i>	20	31	3	0	0
75	<i>3. "Pancasila" as Development Paradigm of Social Aspect</i>	19	30	1	0	0
76	<i>4. "Pancasila" as Development Paradigm of Cultural Aspect</i>	19	28	3	1	0
77	<i>5. "Pancasila" as Development Paradigm of Law Aspect</i>	21	23	0	0	0
78	<i>6. "Pancasila" as Development Paradigm of Religious Life Aspect among the Members of Religious Community</i>	13	31	0	0	0
79	<i>7. "Pancasila" as Development Paradigm of Science and Technology Aspect</i>	15	30	5	1	0
80	C. "Pancasila" as Reformation Paradigm	22	26	2	1	0
81	D. "Pancasila" as Campuss Life Paradigm	13	21	13	2	1

Note: ST = *Sangat Tahu* (Very Know), T = *Tahu* (Know), AT = *Agak Tahu* (Quite Know), KT = *Kurang Tahu* (Not Know Well), and TT = *Tidak Tahu* (Not Know Absolutely).

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

Based on the above explanation, it is clear that *Pancasila* (Five Basic Principles of the Republic of Indonesia) Education subject before Reformation era (1998), which was known widely by Indonesia society, currently has undergone marginalization process in social, national, and state living. It is caused by the New Order government (1966-1998) that *Pancasila* Education subject had been conducted as indoctrination means and political interest in performing development.

Although *Pancasila* Education subject has not been contained in education curriculum in Indonesia since 2003, but now it is realized the need of developing awareness about lofty values to the students as the candidate of future national leader. It is also realized that a nation that does not have philosophical basis and principle in social, national, and state living will lose its identity and genuine character in one side; and in other side, such nation will be scraped down by globalization modernization process all around the world.

Of the appropriate *Pancasila* Education contents to implant the lofty values to the students in Indonesia, the study finding shows that the students agree to re-emphasize the matters related to: (1) the principle and goal of *Pancasila* Education subject; (2) *Pancasila* in historical context of Indonesia national struggle; (3) *Pancasila* as philosophy system; (4) *Pancasila* as political ethic; (5) *Pancasila* as national ideology; (6) *Pancasila* in state administration context of Indonesia Republic; and (7) *Pancasila* as the paradigm of social, national, and state living in Indonesia to be continuously developed in Indonesia society.

Finally, based on the study findings, there are some recommendations as following here: (1) Government, in this case is Ministry of Education and Culture of the Republic of Indonesia, should prevail the curriculum containing the lofty values of *Pancasila* in schools starting from primary to tertiary education; (2) Educators, in this case is the lecturers of *Pancasila* Education subject, should try to impland the lofty values of *Pancasila* through active, creative, inspirative, fun, and challenging education and learning-teaching process in critical, analytical, inductive, deductive, and reflective thinking context to reach the understanding of the substantial and real truth; and (3) Young generation, in this case is the Indonesia students, should try continuously to understand, comprehend, and implement the lofty values of *Pancasila*.

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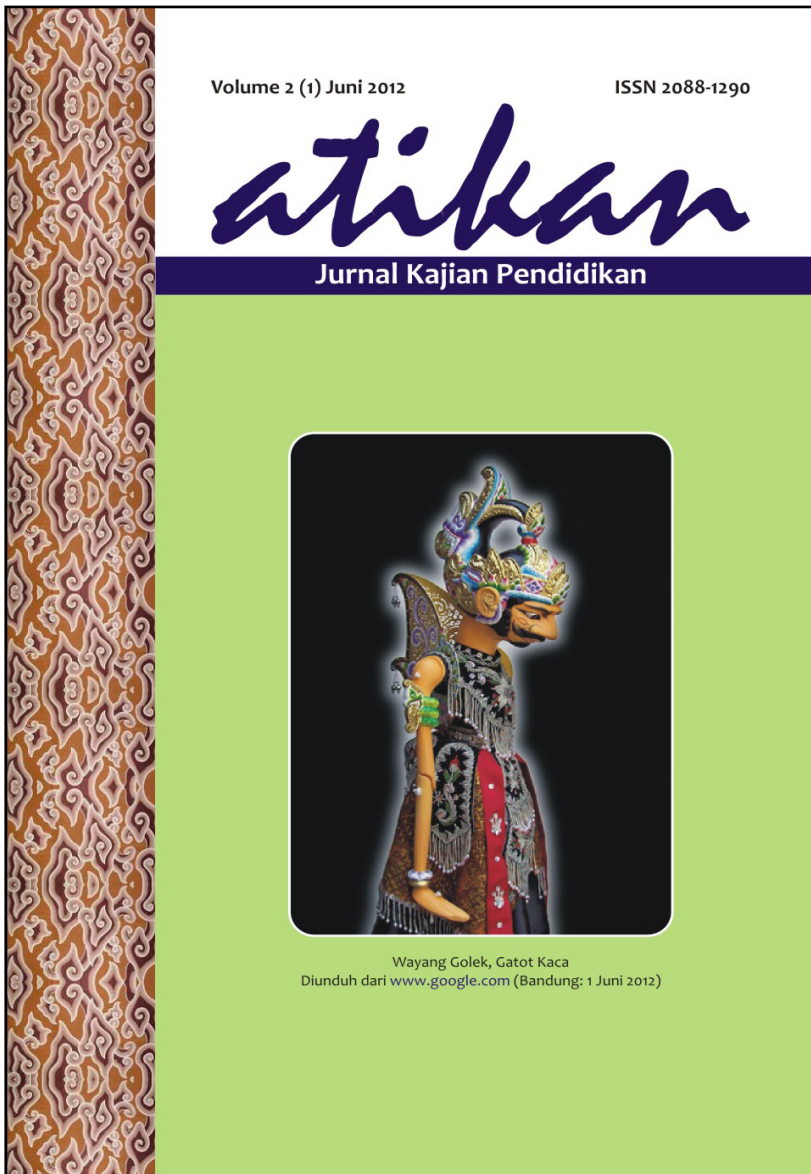
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Signing ceremony of MoA (Memorandum of Agreement) between Rector of UMP (Muhammadiyah University of Purwokerto), Dr. Haji Syamsuhadi Irsyad, on the left, and Chairperson of ASPENSI (Association of Indonesian Scholars of History Education), Andi Suwirta, M.Hum., on the right, related to joint publication of *EDUCARE* journal, in UMP Campus on April 23, 2011. “*We are really professional managers of the scientific journals*”.

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