Challenges of Curriculum Reform in the Context of Decentralization:
The Response of Teachers to a Competence-Based Curriculum (CBC) and Its Implementation in Schools

by

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This study focuses on the time when the Indonesia government launched a new national curriculum, CBC, in response to both the need to produce human resources to survive in the era of globalization and the change in the government system from centralization to decentralization, which resulted in increasingly greater responsibility at the local level in implementing the reforms. As the reforms regarding the decentralization of certain educational functions and processes in Indonesia continue, understanding the impact on curriculum reform and the changes at local school levels will be essential.

The objective of this study was to investigate the ways in which primary school teachers respond to the implementation of CBC, particularly issues like curriculum diversification, learning materials, syllabus design, and student assessment. *Bahasa Indonesia* (Indonesian language), one of the subjects in the primary school, was selected as a focus of interest in this study. Sixty-five primary schools from two provinces were selected: Jakarta municipality (represents urban community) and Kodya Bandung, West Java (represents sub-urban community); and 286 teachers were invited to participate. The survey instrument featured “closed-ended” questions of twenty-five education-related and six demographics-related questions in different. A descriptive statistic was applied to the SPSS and used for data analysis.
The current study reveals that over the long-term, in-service teacher training (INSET) has addressed only one third of the training badly needed by teachers. Teachers claimed to know what CBC is, but in actual classroom implementation of CBC, these teachers were lost, returning instead to the former curriculum, which they were more comfortable teaching. This study also investigates the policy issues regarding teachers’ improvements using the three sets of terminology—“adopt,” “adapt,” and “implement”—to portray the connection between the conceptual and the practical sides of classroom teaching and learning activities.

The implications of this study for further policy implementation of the CBC address two issues: the needs of teacher’s training and the teachers’ quality improvements. Regarding the government policy of decentralization, the policy actors—the “center,” teachers’ forums and the Curriculum Network Group—must establish a strong collaborative team of professional agents that will improve the quality of teachers.
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1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background of the Study

Considering the important role of teachers in implementing reform, and reviewing the history of teacher education in Indonesia, it is evident that teacher involvement in curriculum decision-making at the school level has been minimal. This is primarily because use of a centralized curriculum has been mandatory since Indonesia proclaimed its independence in 1945. Teachers have had to teach according to the specific curriculum mandates of each region. For more than twenty years, Indonesian educational reform policies, particularly in the developing of curricula for primary and secondary education have focused on enhancing the overall quality of life through a centralized system for the purpose of national development.

For example, the reform of basic education in the 1990s at the national level comprised various areas, including: expanding basic education; enhancing science and technology; improving the quality of textbooks and teachers’ guides; developing the effectiveness of in-service teacher training; promoting a conducive school and classroom environment; and decentralizing the curriculum (MOEC, 1998). However, with respect to curriculum development in Indonesia, relevant studies have shown that these educational reforms, which continued into the 1990s, actually limited the effectiveness of curriculum planning and implementation (Theisen, Hughes & Spector, 1991).

The current of Indonesia’s education reform has been directed towards decentralization the government administration’s goal is to design an education: program that more adequately prepares pupils for the job market, thus providing the human resources necessary to ensure sustainable national development. In this context, educational decentralization reform in Indonesia is not only a precondition for financial assistance, it also involves the delegation of control of the schools to local level and a greater intention to redistribute power, increase
efficiency, and create greater sensitivity to local cultures. As Fuhrman and Mallen (1990) argue, curriculum reform concerns primarily control and empowerment, in which control strategies are the mechanism for increasing the efficiency of the educational system and empowerment strategies address teacher competence and teacher commitment.

The most recent curriculum reform in Indonesia, called Competence-Based Curriculum (CBC), was initiated by the Ministry of National Education (MONE) in 2000 (Appendix G). CBC provides a new paradigm with which to create a working mechanism regarding curriculum decision-making in schools. This new curriculum has been piloted in several provinces at selected schools and implemented gradually in the academic years from 2001/02 to 2005, by replacing the current national curriculum, which was put into practice in 1994. The implementation of CBC required the presence of qualified educational personnel in all regions who were able to translate the curriculum documents into practice. As a consequence, educational personnel in general, and teachers in particular, will have greater flexibility in assigning curricula at the classroom level. The teacher’s role in curriculum decision-making at individual schools will require a greater level of expertise. Teachers with qualified training and teaching experience will be assumed able to carry out the curriculum for students who are socially and culturally different. As stated in the government of the Republic of Indonesia’s (R.I.) outline of state policy for the period 1999-2004:

To implement renewal of the education system, including curriculum renewal, through curriculum diversification in response to the heterogeneity of educational stakeholders. … To improve the quality of human resources as rapidly as possible in a systematic, integrated and comprehensive manner, through a range of proactive and reactive measures implemented by all sectors of the nation, so that the younger generation-given
appropriate support and protection—can develop optimally and to their maximum potential. [Government of R.I., 1999b][My italics]

It is a fact that the teacher’s role and level of expertise in curriculum reform is often limited to classroom implementation, with no real opportunity to participate in the development of a new curriculum. A related study of school autonomy in Indonesia has shown that teachers and administrators are currently enjoying a degree of autonomy previously denied them, but the impact of the school reform has yet to produce any meaningful changes in terms of the quality of education. The study also approved that most schools’ stakeholders haven’t sense of change and they do not fully understand what their responsibility in educational decision-making encompasses (Bjork, 2001). Moreover, a current Indonesian government report on the implementation of CBC, based on experiences in several pilot schools, states that reform responsibilities at the provincial, district and school levels all remain unclear, particularly those relating to how teachers interact with the curriculum policy in the classroom (MONE, 2002a; b; & c).

Since 1989, the government of Indonesia has issued new regulations that require higher qualifications for primary school teachers; i.e., Diploma-2 or a two-year program after high school through a pre-service teacher education program (Suhaenah, n.d.). The current data (1999/2000) showed, “Almost primary school teachers have Diploma-2 (34.5%), Diploma-3 (1.9%), Bachelor or sarjana-S1 (5.8%) respectively” (MONE, 2001a). With respects to teacher quality in Indonesia, some believe that a two-year, post senior high school education is not adequate professional preparation for a primary school teacher; it is assumed that such an education has not provided teachers with enough “professional assignments.” Popkewitz and Pereyra (1993) commented, “Professional assignments as providing teachers with regards to the
planning and development of learning programs; implementing and managing the teaching-learning process; interpreting the evaluation results in order to improve learning programs; diagnosing any learning difficulties; and designing strategies to help learners facing difficulties” (p.25). Therefore, teachers in the reform process are considerable to be “moral change agents” and the moral purpose of schools is to make a difference in the lives of students, and making a difference is literally to make change that matters (Fullan, 2001, p.16). In addition, a teacher should be specialists in the knowledge of pupils, be an ethical model that commands their respect, and be able to awaken their desire to learn (Butler, 1966., in Gutek, p. 24).

In response to school reform, studies of school reform often ask how a given reform impacts schools, or how schools implement a particular policy initiative. For example, one study shows that teachers interpret, adapt and even transform reforms as they put them into practice (Coburn, 2001a). This study is known as the “cognitive approach” to curriculum implementation and has helped refocus reform implementation regarding teacher learning and change process (Spillane & Reimer, 2001). Some researchers associated with the cognitive approach to policy implementation have suggested that how teachers come to understand and enact policy or reform initiatives is influenced by their prior knowledge, the social context within which they work, and the nature of their connections to the policy or reform message (Coburn, 2001b; Spillane & Reimer, 2001). Several recent studies relating to cognitive implementation also show that “implementing agents” encounter new ideas about their work through policy, and are more likely to depict surface level connections to their prior knowledge: 1) agents’ understanding of the reform messages tended to focus on surface features rather than on the underlying structural ideas (Spillane, 2000; Spillane & Callahan, 2000); and 2) there was a tendency of teachers in reform efforts to be overly dependent on superficial features (Cohen, 1988; Cohen & Ball, 1990).
Furthermore, several studies have also shown that certain factors have a significant impact on teachers’ understanding or comprehension of change: time (Moreno, 1999; Adleman & Walking-Eagle, 1997); teachers’ expertise (Bandura, 1977; Fullan & Hargreaves, 1992); teachers’ understanding of learning materials (Sparks, 1997); and years of teaching experience (Tell, 2000). In addition, Cuban (1993) found that none of the four types of curricula: official (government); taught (teacher); learned (student); and tested (government) were truly synchronized, leading to a significantly reduced impact of curriculum reform. Edwards (1993) supports this idea that the problem between what is intended in the national curriculum and what is being implemented in the classroom results from local educators not having a sense of ownership in the curriculum reform. Fullan and Hargreaves (1992) argued that reform would not be successful until education leaders and teachers own the change process, accept the change, and have a working knowledge of how to implement the change. They further explained, “The nature of change is “…a process not an event…a lesson learned the hard way by those who put all their energies into developing an innovation or passing a piece of legislation without thinking through what would have to happen beyond that point” (p.49).

Therefore, transferring the power of responsibility from the central government to local governments in decentralization context, in general, and national curriculum reform, in particular, need time for all related stakeholders, in this case primary school teachers, to accept the change with appropriate knowledge and skills.

1.2. Problem Statement and Research Questions

The objective of this study was to investigate the ways in which primary school teachers respond to the implementation of CBC, particularly issues like: curriculum diversification, syllabus development, learning materials, and student assessment. In addition, the study more
specifically examined teachers’ responses to adopting, adapting, and implementing the CBC in classroom. In response to the objective of the study, the argument in most curriculum reform is that the largest share of responsibility for implementation and improvement was placed on those delivering the curriculum and the classroom teachers (Cavelti, 1995). Moreover, to date no empirical research regarding teachers’ perspectives of the curriculum policy, in general, and teachers’ understanding of curriculum implementation, in particular, has been conducted in Indonesia.

The Indonesian language was selected as the subject of this study for several reasons. First, only a small percentage of pupils speak Indonesian as their native language and a few of their families and communities use this language at home or for everyday communication. Second, the majority of pupils rely on their first learning of Indonesian to take place during the early years of primary school; as a result, learning Indonesian is an extra burden for them in addition to the other required subjects. The burden becomes even heavier because of the “local content curriculum” (LCC), which requires pupils to study one regional language (which can be different from their first language) in addition to Indonesian, the consequence of which is that pupils have to develop simultaneous literacy skills in two languages unfamiliar to them (Sweeting & the Early Grade Project Task Team, 2000). Finally, the current Indonesian government report shows that teachers’ understandings of core primary subjects remain low, i.e., Indonesian (51.5%); social studies (38.3%); sciences (43.5%); and math (36.5%) (MONE, 2003f). Although the Indonesian government has committed financially and educationally to increasing the quality of human resources through curriculum reform since the 1990s, this researcher found no related study that had examined the effects of national curriculum reform policies on the teachers’ perspectives on the work of teachers in classroom.
This discovery drove the researcher to raise the following question for the current study: “How do teachers respond to the CBC with respect to the following issues: curriculum diversification, learning materials, syllabus design, and students’ assessments?” Specifically, this study addresses the following three issues.

1. What are teachers’ perspectives of the implementation of CBC regarding curriculum diversification, syllabus development, learning materials, and student assessment?
2. What issues do teachers encounter regarding CBC as they implement it?
3. How do the teachers implement the CBC in classroom practice, as they perceived it in the process of adopting and adapting the CBC?

1.3. Significance of the Study

Studies of the Indonesian educational reform indicate that, with the previous national curriculum (1994), teachers and administrators are enjoying a degree of autonomy previously denied them, but the impact of school reform has yet to produce any meaningful changes in terms of the quality of education (Bjork, 2001; Yeom, et al., 2002). In addition, the Indonesian government report showed that, according to experiences at the pilot schools in the implementation of CBC, reform responsibilities at the provincial, district, and school levels all remain unclear, particularly those relating to how teachers interact with the curriculum policy in the classroom (MONE, 2002a; b; & c). However, research and reports to date have provided no in-depth study of teachers, who are considered key stakeholders in implementing the national curriculum reform in the classroom.

Considering this overall situation regarding curriculum reform, the current study focused on teachers at the primary school level and was limited to Indonesian language instruction. It
was designed to generate preliminary findings on how teachers in primary schools were responding to the CBC, and it sought to contribute to theory and reform practice in two ways.

First, this study contributes to several perspectives on curriculum implementation by expanding the small body of existing literature on how teachers make sense of the policy implementation through their prior knowledge, expertise, values, beliefs, and experiences (Spillane et al., 2002). It considers that teachers’ teaching is a continual growth process for both teachers and students (Paris, 1989). In addition, Fullan (1992, in Snyder) sees that curriculum implementation comprising educational experiences jointly created by student and teacher. Fullan (1992) further argued that change does not exist merely in observable alterations in behavior, but is also rather a personal developmental process, both for teachers and students (Snyder, in Jackson, Chapter 15).

Second, this study provides insight into policy implementation approaches by clarifying how curriculum policy should be implemented (Posner, 1992), how the new curriculum be adapted during the implementation process (McLaughlin, 1976; McLaughlin, 1987; Berman Pauley, 1975), and how the curriculum be shaped by the evolving construct of teachers and students (Fullan, in Jackson, 1992). Although curriculum policies, historically, flow down “from authoritative sources through the medium of the school” (Pinar, et al., 1995), schools have become an intermediate place of reform. Nonetheless, teachers’ voices have not been fully involved in the reform (Hargreaves, 1996). In addition, some scholars (Meyer, 1983; Ramirez & Rubinson, 1979; Ramirez & Boli, 1987) agreed that schools are products of the nation state, and usually were created in the process of consolidating those entities (in Cohen & Spillane, p. 7).
1.4. **Limitation of the Study**

Because of the current study used a sample of convenience, it is unclear to what extent the results can be generalized to the population of all primary school teachers in Indonesia. However, it is reasonable to assume that some interpretations made from the study’s findings may apply to primary teachers, in general, and Indonesian language teachers, in particular.

A second limitation is that because of time constraints it was not possible for this researcher to interview a smaller sample of teachers to collect more in-depth data. However, despite these limitations, the study did collect useful and valuable data on teacher perspectives on the implementation of the national curriculum.

1.5. **Definition of Terms**

The following are descriptions of terms utilized in the entire of study:

1. National curriculum refer to a set of plans and regulations regarding the aims, content and material of lessons and the method employed as the guidelines for the implementation of learning activities in order to achieve given education objectives (MONE, 2003e, p. 7).

2. The development of curriculum refer to national education standards for the pursuit of national goals (item 1); and the curriculum at all educational levels and types of education is developed (by the government) according to principles of diversification, adjusted to the units of education, local and learner’s potential (item 2) (MONE, 2003e, p. 21).

3. CBC refer to a series of plans and regulations pertaining to standardized-students’ competence, i.e. the least amount of learning required to be achieved, expertise for each type of material taught, and that it should be achieved according to the local and potential conditions (MONE, 2003h).
4. Curriculum 1994 consists of national curriculum and curriculum in which its contents are suitable for students’ needs and potential concerned and it should be designed appropriately in order to meet national demands as well as local concerns. In order to address the diverse local needs, the government transferred its power of curriculum development to the each provincial level up to twenty percent (developed by local governments). Eighty percent is allocated for core subjects and is developed in the central government. The percentage indicates a time allocation devoted to national as well as local curriculum (MOEC, 1989, Article 37).

5. National education is defined as education based on *Pancasila* and the 1945 Constitution; it is rooted in the religious values and national cultures of Indonesia, and is responsive to the needs of an ever-changing era (MONE, 2003e, p. 6).

6. National education standard refer to the minimal criteria for the education system in the whole jurisdiction of the Republic of Indonesia (MONE, 2003e, p. 7). The Decree explains further, “(1) National education standard consists of the standard of the content, process, graduate outcomes, educational personnel, facilities and equipment, management, funding, and educational assessment, which should be improved systematically and regularly; (2) national educational standards are used as a guideline for the development of curriculum, development of educational personnel, provisions of facilities and equipment, management, and funding” (MONE, 2003e, p. 21).

7. Classroom teacher is defined as a teacher (especially in public primary school) who teaches whole subjects such as mathematics, science, Indonesian language, and accepting religious education (Islam, Christianity, Protestantism, Hinduism, and Buddhism), and physical education.
8. Subject teacher refers to a teacher (especially in secondary school) who teaches a specific subject matter, such as Indonesian language, mathematics, or science.

9. Local governments refer to the provincial, district, and the central government (MONE, 2003e, p. 8).

10. *Pancasila*: Indonesia’s five main philosophies.

11. MGMP is the abbreviation for the Subject Matter Teacher Council.

12. PKG is the abbreviation for the Teacher Empowerment Program.

13. KKG is the abbreviation for the Teacher Working Group.

14. PGRI is the abbreviation for *Persatuan Guru Republik Indonesia* or Teachers Union.

15. MONE is the abbreviation for the Ministry of National Education.
2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1. Introduction

This section reviews some aspects related to the implementation of the CBC, as well as the decentralization of government that has impacted education, including curriculum implementation. Part one, the need for curriculum reform in the context of decentralization, describes the context of curriculum reform in relation to its demands and the government’s efforts to fulfill policy reform. In this section, this researcher examined the need for curriculum change and the efforts made regarding curriculum reform in the context of the decentralization of the government’s administration by introducing an overview of curriculum development in Indonesia.

Part two describes curriculum development in Indonesia. The process of curriculum development shows the dynamic process of curriculum change. The development of local content curriculum/LCC indicates the government’s efforts to delegate the curriculum decision-making process to teachers. Moreover, the development of the CBC presents fundamental curriculum development that required involvement of school stakeholders in the implementation process.

Part three discusses the teacher education program as one of legitimate institutions that produce teachers. Most of the educational reform efforts that seek to deeply and positively change classroom practices have been notoriously unsuccessful. The teacher’s role in this study is considered to be the primary factor of successful implementation. This implies that teachers, as key stakeholders of innovative change, know best what they should be teaching their students regarding the important decisions about the curriculum policy at local-district level (Schubert, in Klein, 1991). Competent teachers are necessity because of current issue of considering teachers to implement educational change: The 21st century workplace will become even more
technologically oriented and dependent, and rely less and less on manual labor; it will be more 
verbal and less static but more varied (National Research Council, 1989, p. 11; Porter, et al., in 
competent teachers know how to employ multiple presentations of knowledge that use students’ 
everyday experiences to motivate and assist them in connecting new knowledge to home, 
community, and global settings” (p. 46).

The final part explains two perspectives of the curriculum implementation process: one 
perspective examines three aspects of the implementation of a curriculum: fidelity, mutual adaptation, and enacted curriculum and other variables influencing curriculum implementation; and a second perspective examines the cognitive implementation process. Successful implementation of reform always measures the difference between what is intended with policy document and what is actually implemented in school. It is also a fact that the implementation of policy messages of reform was vague as they came down to various levels of educational administration. In addition, cognitive implementation perspective demonstrated that most reforms were at the surface level understanding of implementers (Spillane, 2002; & 2004).

2.2. The Need for Curriculum Reform

2.2.1. Demand and context for curriculum reform

According to Law No. 22, legislated in 1999 by the Republic of Indonesia (R.I.), regarding local government, decentralization implies that the authority to implement and manage education shall be transferred from the national government to local districts or municipal government levels. The study of social sector decentralization in Indonesia showed that regional governments supervised public schools, although teachers and curricula were still subject to the authority of the government (Malo, 1995).
A context of curriculum reform is identified as the world becomes globalized; in particular, global education-economy, which is defined as education led by economic growth. Rivera (2003) explained, “Many significant changes that have taken place in the curricula of most developing countries in decades past could be attributed to the twin metonymic conditions of greater internationalization of market economies and globalization of the cultural economy” (in Pinar, 2003, p.553). Reich (1991), responding to the importance of education challenging economic prosperity in the 21st century, argues that acquiring information skills, i.e., system thinking, has significance as a new set of principles for the curriculum of the future. System thinking pertains to a “symbolic analysis” that is the type of knowledge and skill required in innovative knowledge-based forms of production (in Guile, 2003). The future of education in which economy is increased drastically becomes perceived as being technologically driven (Tapscot, 1995). Information skills, for example, would be critical to future economic and educational success (Bates, 1995). Therefore, the national call for reform was specifically economically driven in its agenda, and in its interpretations of power and control over teachers and curriculum (Kirst, 1987; Apple, 1990; Tyack, 1990; Cohn & Kottkamp, 1993).

The implementation of regional autonomy through curriculum decentralization has recently gained popularity among developing countries in general, and in Indonesia particularly as both a plan and an alternative mechanism for delivering public service and public goods, and as a means for implementing governmental functions and duties. Chapman (2001) predicted that decentralization would become one of the dominant issues of the next decade, particularly in the area of education in developing Asia.

Demands for the latest curriculum reform, which follows logically the restructuring of the administration of a new system of government, relate to recent political and economic trends
coupled with some basic social and demographic facts. Indonesia, a country made up of about 17,000 tiny islands, nearly 6,000 of which are inhabited, the five biggest stretching across some 3,200 miles of Equatorial Ocean, is the fourth most populous country in the world. With 224 million people who are ethnically and linguistically diverse peoples, Indonesia is a unitary state, which is considered to be the best form of government to maintain national unity and national integration. Despite its diversity and size, Indonesia has one of the most centralized forms of government in terms of its social, political, and economic systems (Purwadi & Muljoatmodjo, 2000). A priority of the educational reform of 2000 in Indonesia was to restructure central education programs to offer the provinces a combination of flexibility and accountability. District educational units, in return, would be required to achieve a national standard (MONE, 2000; 2003e). As stated in the current Indonesian decentralization laws, Law No. 22 of 1999 and R.I. Government Regulation No. 25 of 2000 provides district levels in the provinces with greater freedom in spending local funding, as they see fit (Government of R.I., 1999a; 2000).

Yet this transferring of tasks and administrative responsibility does not necessarily mean a general shift in power from the central government to the provinces. Lauglo (1995) argues that local governments, as local agents, are generally only given the role of implementing decisions that have previously been made at the central level. Hurst (1985) explained that the process of decentralization implies the transfer of certain functions from a small group of policy-makers to a small group of authorities at the local level. The central government retains responsibility for other types of matters considered to be part of a national policy agenda. Moreover, Fiske (1996) argued, “Subordinate levels of a hierarchy are authorized by a higher body to make decisions about the use of the organization’s resources” (p.11). However, decentralization of decision making particularly in developed countries faces the contradictory
pressures of centralization and decentralization, i.e., increased government control over policy and direction versus more responsibility for implementation, resource management and evaluation at the local level.

This pressure has made the task of implementing reform both complex and challenging. Hopkins (1998) argued, “The task of balancing centrally derived change and locally developed improvement has proved in practice most difficult” (p. 1040). One of the financial implications of decentralization in Indonesia was the implementation of school based management/SBM, in which schools districts have more autonomy in financing each schools according to its needs.

2.2.1.1. Economic issues

Indonesia is a centralized government system resulting in weak links between local demands and decisions about local public services, as well as an absence of a mechanism for local accountability. The financial crisis of 1997 triggered the resignation of the Soeharto government; weak public support of its successor, the Habibie government, has resulted in increasing demands for political and fiscal decentralization since 1998. In April 1999, a National Parliament hastily adopted a law requiring the implementation of drastic decentralization measures in fiscal year 2001. The Law of Regional Governance specifies the political and administrative responsibilities for each level of government under a decentralized structure (Government of R.I., 1999a; 2000). The implication of economic crisis creates policy decentralization and economy regionalization. The ultimate goal is to bring the government closer to the constituents in order to provide government services in a more effective and efficient manner. It also provides strategies that assume the district and municipal governments have a better understanding of the needs of their communities and the aspirations of their constituents than does the central government.
In an education context, particularly in curriculum development, local governments together with the central government have rights and obligations, which include, among other things, guiding, supervising, assisting, and monitoring the implementation of education with the regulations in force. It also covers providing services and facilities, and ensuring the implementation of quality education for every citizen without discrimination as well as allocating the availability of funds for the implementation of education for every citizen, particularly from ages seven to fifteen (MONE, 2003e, p.11). There is considerable evidence that policies of decentralization do not increase administrative efficiency, effectiveness, or local participation (McGinn & Street, 1985). Decentralization may only transfer autocratic behavior to local institutions (Adams, 2002). Adams (2002) also argued, “Successful decentralized programs of education depend on the capabilities of local governments” (pp. 48-50). The financial crisis in Indonesia (1997) and the resulting bleak general economic picture impacted the educational sector, shifting it from one of agricultural to that of industrialization and service delivery. All of these situations created an urgent need for reform in order to meet increasing demands for the required industrial and service skills and be able to compete in the global market place.

2.2.1.2. Elevating of human resource development

Since the 1970s the education reform policies in Indonesia have focused on enhancing quality of life for the purposes of national development. Indonesia’s Second Twenty-five-Year Development Plan (or PJP 1994/95-2018/19) focuses on increasing “human resources development” in order to ensure greater competition in the global marketplace, and the government has targeted areas of the national curriculum in order to improve the quality of education (MONE, 2003a; & c). For example, both the education reforms of the 1990s and the current reforms have similar goals in terms of increasing the quality of education in order to
elevate the quality of life. The latest reforms, the implementation of CBC, focus more on learning reform and improving teaching through a teacher certification program and implementing a salary system based on merit (MONE, 2000). Based on a revised statement in “Outlines of State Policy” for the period 1999-2004, the section on education explains:

To endeavor to achieve wider and more equitable opportunities to access high quality education for the whole population of Indonesia as a means to the creation of a high quality Indonesian person, through a meaningful increase in the budget for education. … To implement renewal of the education system, including curriculum renewal, through curriculum diversification in response to the heterogeneity of educational stakeholders. … To improve the quality of human resources as rapidly as possible in a systematic, integrated and comprehensive manner, through a range of proactive and reactive measures implemented by all sectors of the nation, so that the younger generation - given appropriate support and protection – can develop optimally and to their maximum potential. [Government of R.I., 1999b][My italics]

Part one of the statement above (To endeavor to achieve…stakeholders) appears to be concerned with two aspects: the creation of a high quality Indonesian person, the need to link education to the heterogeneity of stakeholders who are sensitive to the potential of each individual. The term “Indonesian person,” however, is inherently ambiguous and may refer to all individuals. But, in this context, it is much more likely to carry with it connotations of an “idealized” type of Indonesian citizen. This statement can be broadly defined as a means for developing the type of Indonesians whose daily conduct would reflect the integrity of Pancasila, a national philosophy, the Indonesian State Ideology.

Part two of the statement (To improve the quality of human resources … maximum potential), however, places considerable emphasis on the necessity for an education system that is responsive to the needs and the strengths of individual students. Currently in force, these
Outlines of State Policy later became the foundation for constructing a new curriculum, wherein education is expected to achieve two different objectives: The creation of the ideal Indonesian person; and, simultaneously, providing the resources that will enable every Indonesian citizen to develop in his/her own way. In addition, this second part also explains the diversification of the curriculum. Later diversification became the indicating factor in the need for curriculum reform. Based on the evaluation results of the implementation of the national curriculum 1994, some researchers did not provide for sufficient diversity within the Indonesian society and differences among students (Blazely, 1999; Boediono & Sweeting, 1999; MONE, 2000; & Yeom, et al., 2002).

2.2.2. **Efforts made for curriculum reform**

Curriculum reform policies of 1994, for example, indicate the government’s attempt to adjust to global trends and to give the local districts greater autonomy at the provincial level in order to meet their needs and reflect their local conditions. The implementation of the recent local curriculum in 1994 for the Universal Nine-Year Basic Education/UNYBE program was one of the government’s efforts to increase the quality of all types, levels, and channels of education. The participation of every school’s stakeholders and each district’s personnel brought a major change in the administrative structure of curriculum development at the provincial level. School stakeholders—teachers, principals, and professional staff at both the regional and the district levels of government—became involved in the planning of their local curriculum (UNDP, 1994; NIER, 1998; Semiawan & Natawidjaya, 2000; Yeom et al., 2002; & UNESCO, 2003a).

Similar to the 1994 curriculum, the CBC is designed by the central government and structured around two main goals: The first is to retain the same level of quality education for all
students – in each school and in every region of Indonesia; the second is to prepare these generations to compete in the global marketplace (MONE, 2000).

To that end, the first goal is to retain the same level of quality education for all students through the national curriculum, such as national testing, to become a source of the government’s accountability to the public. This type of quality assurance, in terms of providing a comprehensive education product, is the government’s responsibility, indicated in the Educational Law No.20 of 2003, which states that the implementation and carrying out of education are the responsibility of the government, society, and each student’s parents (MONE, 2003e). Therefore, the national curriculum should provide a “minimum standard” of students’ learning experiences, so that every citizen, regardless of background, has the opportunity to obtain at least a fundamental amount knowledge and ability. Every citizen must meet these minimum learning requirements so that they are able to participate as active members of a community, as well as members of a nation and country.

Realizing a better quality of education through curriculum reform, CBC caters to the types of desired learning relevant to local, national, and even global contexts. CBC addresses a diverse range of each pupil’s abilities, available learning facilities, and the various cultural regions of the country. The government’s efforts to improve the quality of education relate directly to the question of whether schools in general, and schools in Indonesia in particular, perform in ways that enhance the skills and competence necessary for life in the global arena. According to Levinger (1996):

Schools often perform in ways that defeat the development of necessary cognitive competencies for life in a global era. The disjuncture between the real lives in and out of
school diminished the transferability of knowledge across environments, settings, and contexts. Yet, such transferability is critical in an era of rapid change. [p.12]

The constellation of skills required to enhance the development of human capacity and outlook correspond with adaptability, knowledge transfer, and problem solving processes (Levinger, 1996), all of which are needed to meet the challenges of the 21st century, and to cope with the demands of the future (Semiawan & Natawijaya, 2000). Human capacity development implies an individual’s ability including skills, attitudes, and behaviors, to perform tasks, which are necessary to survive and prosper, and is a by-product of participation in opportunities that are both available and accessed (Levinger, 1996).

In response to preparing younger generations to compete in the global marketplace, the second goal is the implication of a homogenized global market through the application of the human capital theory in education. The measurement of educational progress is determined by the increase in economic productivity (Spring, 1998). In terms of economic language, the government determines the output, or product, of schooling. Schools, through market competition, are motivated to find the best means of producing the type of student desired by the government (Spring, 1998). In order to improve education, the government will be more responsive and able to take advantage of existing opportunities, all of which will support national development.

In response to the role of education, Schultz (1961) argued that education was not to be viewed simply as a form of consumption but rather as a productive investment. Schultz (1961) focused on the role of education not only in improving the choices available to every individual, but also, with an educated population, in providing the type of labor force necessary for personal development and economic growth. Education is an important method for increasing the
development of human resources and for paying attention to what is emphasized in human
capital theory; the education development of human beings should provide youths with skills that
are adequate for developing their intellectual capacity, as well as enabling them to contribute to
society as a whole.

Education, therefore, is a generally good investment for both individuals and the whole
society (Psacharopoulos, 1994; 1995, in M. Bray, 2002). Modern theories, according to the
development of human capital theory, perceive education as the method for development, which
in turn, has human skill as an economic value for society at large. Education, as a consequence,
can be used for identifying and training new talent in order to make effective use of innovative
technologies, and for maintaining the social wealth established by past generations (Feinberg &
Soltis, 1998). Education, therefore, does not simply mean providing children with the ability or
knowledge they need to keep pace with global changes. Education also addresses the academic,
distributive, and socialization functions (Izquierdo et al., 1979). Izquierdo et al (1979) further
explains:

The academic function corresponds to its responsibility for inculcating those universal
cognitive skills held essential to society’s capacity to provide for its members. The
distributive function relates to education’s role in preparing individuals for their roles in
the division of labor, and providing an efficient distribution of talent through competitive
selection. The economic function (conceived similarly in human capital theory) is related
to the link between education and higher levels of productivity on the part of individuals
once in the workforce. In the context of the political specialization function the
importance of education is acknowledged as indispensable to social integration and social
The following describes curriculum development in Indonesia thus far, in particular its development from previous national curriculum (e.g., 1952) to the current curriculum reform. This section also discusses the importance of the teachers’ role in curriculum decision-making.

2.2.2.1. Curriculum development in Indonesia

Curriculum development in Indonesia has been centralized in nature and involves different agents at the pre-school, primary, and secondary levels of the education system. This has been the practice since Indonesia proclaimed its independence in 1945. These agents contribute to the recommended curriculum at different levels of specificity (Thomas, 1991a). The word “agents” refers to groups or individuals that may take part in the curriculum decision, such as individuals or members in the parliament, non-government organizations (NGO), scientists, scholars, government and private institutions, community leaders or community figures.

These agents, in determining the curriculum, examine the content in order to determine its political significance and the kind of expertise necessary for making decisions about the content of a particular subject. They are responsible for all decisions regarding all core subjects in the national curriculum, such as religious education, moral education, mathematics, science, Indonesian language, etc. At the level of curriculum implementation, a classroom teacher decides which objectives to pursue and which methods of instruction to use to achieve them. One of the agents from the administrative hierarchy is from the nation’s parliament.

Another agent oversees the series of educational organizations within the department of MONE or within the private-school foundation, including individual schools and classroom teachers. Interaction among these agents in determining the contents of the curriculum can differ from one subject to another. Other related groups, such as teachers’ unions, parents, and industrial organizations, used to voice their concern about curriculum matters, but did not
participate in the process. The agents are responsible for evaluating the national curriculum; on both internal and external sites. The government, i.e., the Curriculum Development Center/CDC and the Directorate General of Primary and Secondary Education, is still responsible for the internal sites. Government involvement is usually through activities such as collecting the data from the educational setting through monitoring and meeting teachers and parents. External sites work through related groups; among these are the teachers’ union (PGRI or Persatuan Guru Republik Indonesia), parents and industrial organizations.

Referring to the teachers’ union as the government’s counterpart, however, is not guaranteed, as it has not really played any role in curriculum development and its function is perceived as an agent for the political purposes of the government. Neither did the industrial organizations express their concern about the students’ skills, which did not meet their needs.

In Indonesia, educational change happens in order to make education more relevant, effective and appropriate to the needs of the government. In 1947 the country introduced its first national curriculum, the Rencana Pelajaran or Lesson Plan (Tilaar, 1995, pp. 251-270). Since then the Rencana Pelajaran has been reviewed and amended in 1952, 1964, 1968, 1975, 1984, and 1994 and most recently in 2000. Post-independence, education was used as a means of achieving national unity and identity. This was principally achieved through the introduction of the 1964 and 1968 curriculum reforms based on Pancawardana or five core subjects and the concept of Pancasila coupled with differentiated hours for the teaching of the Indonesian language to cater to non-Indonesia language and first language speaking pupils.

With the aim of maintaining political stability, Indonesia's second government (during period of 1966-1998) adopted an interventionist approach to the 1975 and 1984 curriculum reforms, i.e., Pancasila became a separate subject, dividing the study of history into “national
history” and “the history of national struggle”, and incorporated many themes such as national heroes, family planning and tourism into the various curriculum subjects.

On the whole, the centralized model of curricular regulation was characterized by the concentration in the system’s central levels of government of the principal regulating mechanisms for aspects, i.e., the production of the curriculum, meaning decisions about the goals and contents of education; the circulation of textbooks, that is to say the control over the forms of representation of those goals and contents; and the system of supervision, meaning the fundamental mechanism to control the relationship between the policies proposed at the central level and those implemented locally at school level. Accordingly, it is possible to represent the ways in which the central government monitored the institutional educational process, as shown in Figure 1. In the development of the 1994 curriculum, for example, the government moved toward a drastically different role for the central government. Responsibility was shifted to the provincial level of MONE for, among other things, delegating the development of student assessment, teaching modes, adaptation of core subjects in the national curriculum, and LCC development.

In doing so, and with respect to strengthening teachers’ support in the implementation of curriculum 1994, the government established a mechanism for curriculum network group (CNG) or curriculum task groups. The network’s tasks were to: (1) plan, develop and implement the curriculum according to local conditions and needs; (2) assist teachers in curriculum development through adjustments, elaboration and analysis based on the students’ immediate environment and community needs and resources; and (3) monitor and evaluate the implementation of both national and local content. The CDC, based on its roles and functions, provided, among other things, advice, assistance, and guidance to the network in the elaboration

To sum up, the CNG was established in order to: (1) involve different regions in the development of a national curriculum; (2) improve the level of professionalism in curriculum development at the various levels (national, provincial, district); and (3) establish a mechanism for curriculum dissemination and development at both national and provincial levels. With regard to the function of control, all groups belonging to the curriculum networks and regions had to follow the policy initiative made by the curriculum development center.

2.2.2. Curriculum development approach

The development of national curriculum 1994 was intended to be competence-based so that education would be more flexible in reacting to changes in society, such as the rapid developments in information and communications technology. The emphasis was on improving the quality of teaching and learning so that teachers could adapt and implement strategies appropriate to the needs of their respective region. However, this approach had not been
successfully implemented, particularly at the primary level where teachers were used to being
given precise instructions as to what they should do in the classroom. This situation was
understandable if teachers were ill prepared to implement teaching and learning strategies
because of a lack of in-service training (INSET) in terms of teaching and learning methodology,
as well as understanding of the learning content coverage. The main problem was that the
planned teachers' guides were never printed to provide teachers with detailed information about
how the national curriculum should be interpreted. Teachers' concerns were compounded by
school inspectors who, rather than providing support and training, were critical, which lowered
teacher morale and caused confusion. Teachers, as a consequence of having little opportunity to
understand the curriculum, relied heavily on the available textbooks for daily teaching rather
than trying to understand the curriculum.

In some ways, the introduction of competency-based teaching and learning was not new
to Indonesia. For example, the Indonesia language curriculum of 1964 and 1968 were intended
to be competence-based that emphasized the development of language skills by learning through
the environment. Conversely, the 1975 and 1984 curriculum reforms emphasized content based
curriculum and this resulted in many pupils not knowing anything, or not being able to perform
certain skills to help them gain a job by the time they left school. Therefore, the 1975 and 1984
curricula were much concerned with pupils’ understanding of the content coverage in the
curriculum, rather than providing them with appropriate “life skills” as the realization of
understanding the learning materials. The government educational policy from the year 2000
continued to advocate decentralization and competency-based teaching and learning. One of the
important reasons for adoption of a competency-based approach was to ensure learning
requirements of pupil achievement throughout the country, regardless of curriculum coverage, and to ensure pupils were not disadvantaged by moving from region to region.

2.2.2.3. The current of curriculum reform: CBC

The rationale for curriculum reform in Indonesia changed over the years from the need to create national unity, with its centralized control, to one of socio-economic empowerment through decentralization. However, achieving the change was difficult when the prevailing culture for many years was through *diktat* or written summary of lecture and centralized control (Kompas, 2004).

Such a dramatic change had significant implications for human resource development. Ultimately, however, the local governments will be empowered so that they can all progress and indeed compete with each other, leading to a better future. For example, the curriculum 1994 was felt to be inadequate in a number of ways. It was overloaded and too difficult for the pupils to complete; inadequate attention was paid to the importance of the natural and social environments; there was a failure to incorporate new areas of content, including education for human rights, moral education, health and nutrition education; and there was a need to update the content of Indonesian history texts (Blazely, 1999; Boediono & Sweeting, 1999).

As far as curriculum development considered the pupils’ needs; public hearings were conducting to learn public opinion regarding curriculum needs in the future. The development of the CBC, therefore, did not consider only the aspect of local context or local needs, but also the importance of considering the global or international context. Figure 2 shows *Pancasila* and international-local needs were considered to be fundamental inputs for rethinking conceptualization of the curriculum. Underlying basic competencies as a learning outcome and taking into account Indonesian pupils’ diversity, pupils’ differences, needs, interests, ability,
social, and cultural conditions. All of them were considered in the implementation of current national curriculum. In addition, along with the implementation of school autonomy and decentralization government, SBM has also been considered a successful indicator of curriculum implementation in classroom.

Figure 2. Concept of CBC

The CBC was diversified according to the level of education, local potential, and student’s learning. Schools became more autonomous; teachers consequently acquired flexibility in terms of developing a syllabus, designing materials, selecting the teaching and learning methodology, and evaluating the students’ progress. These conditions created a new
paradigm in curriculum implementation: schools with respect to implementing a national curriculum must follow one government policy in terms of standard competency, but were also free to develop a syllabus and the teaching materials needed to cater to local needs and potentials as well as individual schools. The principal and foundation of CBC were: standard content, teaching and learning process (contextual learning), school-based assessment, and SBM (Figure 2).

However, the main challenges facing the current curriculum reform still remained unsolved particularly in relation to the issues of curriculum design and curriculum implementation. Regarding curriculum design, several issues involved a divergence of opinion with regard to educational philosophy among key stakeholders; determining needs for the social, economic, political, and cultural environment of the twenty-first century; determining the aims of different levels and types of education; and defining minimum basic learning competencies for all levels and types of education.

With respect to curriculum implementation, it is a fact that the vast expanse of Indonesia geography made effective countrywide curriculum implementation very difficult, especially as the comprehensive curriculum reform incorporated all aspects of the teaching and learning process: teachers, materials and facilities, and role of society. To reduce the gap between the intended national policy and its implementation, the government decided to implement the CBC on a small scale in the school academic year 2001/02 (Figure 3). Pilot schools provided teachers with working experiences, e.g., deliberating through formal or informal meetings with other colleagues; building a working mechanism for support teaching; and practicing innovative teaching-learning methodologies.
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Figure 3. Implementation Strategy

Note: *) Primary School: 1st and 3rd grade; Junior Secondary School: 1st grade; and Senior Secondary School: 1st grade (MONE, 2001b).

2.2.2.4. **Groups responsible for developing CBC**

CBC is developed in a manner that accommodates the various institutions that exist to involve the community in the decision-making process for education; this is called the National Education Advisory Board (NEAB). The community’s involvement with the committee extends in particular to parents of current students, with the hope that in the future they will know how well their children are performing in school by comparing them with other students across the nation. However, to ensure greater participation by the community, and to include a greater number of independent groups; the MONE established two groups: the National Commission of Education Reform (NCER) and the Committee for Educational Reform (CER).
The NCER is responsible for bringing together a long-term national vision of education; it is required to submit a national report to the Minister concerning the broad and long-term concepts, vision, and mission of education that is based on both current conditions and scenarios of education in the future. The CER is responsible more for the operational, technical, and situational tasks comprising of academic papers, drafts of the proposed for education government regulation, and policy papers (Appendix G).

In terms of policy implementation, CBC brings about a change in the administrative structure of curriculum development, in which provinces are provided with greater opportunities for innovation in order to meet student needs and interests. Local districts are responsible for establishing their own level for student education, teaching methodology, and for assessment criteria. However, to maintain the minimum learning level students must achieve, the government has the primary responsibility for establishing criteria to develop both national and local curricula (MONE, 2000). Therefore, control of basic education has been transferred, in part, from the national government to the provincial and district governments. Decentralization gives a compensatory legitimization thereby reestablishing the basis of national authority (Weiler, 1993). In relation to matters involving school decisions, the district level is clearly perceived as the central authority; however, this same level is considered peripheral to the national government.

2.2.2.5. An argument for CBC

Concerning the richness of Indonesian’s local condition and global world pressures, CBC provides greater accommodation and more flexibility in local curriculum differences, allowing schools to adapt their teaching according to their own strengths and abilities (MONE, 2000; Sjoholm, 2002). Consequently, competition among schools might improve the quality of
education. So, the ultimate goal of curriculum reform in Indonesia, as in many other types of educational reform around the world, is to have more skilled, more knowledgeable graduates who are able to keep pace with both local and global changes, and to create a higher quality of human potential in its citizen’s base. Based on the literature on curricular revision, three major premises were identified.

First, the society and culture served by an educational community dictate the needs, obligations, and responsibilities expected of the educational program. Second, society perpetuates itself with educational programming, i.e., the content and methodology of instruction referenced as educational curriculum. Third, systemic change, as in the form of transitioning educational curriculum, is often difficult at best and controversial at worst. These three elements combine to offer a strong foundation from which educators can begin to address what is taught at all levels, the changing roles of classroom practitioners, and the needs of a respondent society.

In light of diversification in the curriculum, several authors agreed that curriculum diversification has led to a reduction in bureaucratic controls that has, in turn, prompted teachers and principals to exert greater initiative and to tailor their instruction to the needs of students (Psacharopoulos, 1985; Schubert, 1991; Bimber, 1993; Jacobson & Berne, 1993; and RAND’s Institute on Education & Training, 1995). By reducing bureaucratic control within the central government, provinces can then trade flexibility for accountability; in return, each district educational unit would be required to achieve a national standard. However, in order to monitor and control the quality of education nationally, as a form of public accountability of providers of education in relation to stakeholders, the central government still has a power over a national curriculum and national testing. This condition leads to schools, particularly teachers, becoming inflexible in implementing curriculum. Teachers tend to force students to achieve targets in a
national curriculum for national testing rather than for mastery of learning. Apple (2001) argued, “The imposition of national testing locks the national curriculum in place as dominant framework of teachers’ work whatever opportunities teachers may take to evade or reshape it” (p.26).

The teacher’s role in curriculum decision-making at individual schools becomes more demanding depending upon of his/her level of expertise. The largest share of responsibility for implementing and improving of curriculum reform is placed on those who deliver the curriculum: the classroom teacher (Cavelti, 1995). However, the teacher’s role and level of expertise in curriculum reform is often limited to classroom implementation, with no real opportunity to participate in the actual development of a new curriculum (Cavelti, 1995; MONE, 2002a; b; & c). The CBC aims to provide clear expectations about student performance; instruction aligned with these expectations of student performance; and instruction aligned with these expectations and coherent, coordinated support from policy levers such as pre-service and in-service education (MONE, 2000). Consequently, the teacher’s role as an agent of implementation appears to become more demanding.

This situation refers particularly to designing and enacting educational policy in ways that will most likely influence instruction productively; it stands in direct contrast to the implementation of both current and past curricula, which have their roots in the history of Indonesian independence. As a result, educational policy makers, researchers, and practitioners must better understand how policy, in specific ways, affects a teacher’s classroom practices of encouraging and providing opportunities for students to learn, for example, the content and skills included in national curriculum. Teachers and other district level stakeholders, therefore, should respond positively to the reform as far as they are an integral part of the change process, accept
the changes, and have a working knowledge of how to implement those changes (Fullan & Hargreaves, 1992). Relevant studies of education decentralization in Indonesia have shown that the stakeholders of most schools have very little awareness of the CBC changes, nor do they fully understand the scope of their responsibilities in the education decision-making process (MONE, 2002a; b; & c). Therefore, in transferring, through decentralization, such responsibility from the central government to local governments, all related stakeholders need time to integrate and to accept those changes with knowledge appropriate for such changes.

CBC is directed toward establishing a competency-based curriculum that is able to serve a diverse range of student capabilities, available learning facilities, and cultural variety. It ensures every student a quality education, which contributes to establishing a peaceful, democratic, and globally competitive atmosphere for the advancement and benefit of Indonesian citizens. It is not centralistic; local governments have the opportunity of developing better and more elaborate education programs in autonomy capacities in planning, implementing, and evaluating an education program. CBC is developed with consideration of the following aspects.

First is the consideration of diversifying the curriculum. This accommodates student differences in their readiness to discover their academic potential and motivation, and in their environmental and cultural differences. It is all-inclusive, and attempts to provide every student with meaningful learning opportunities that will then provide an overall quality education. Ideally, this curriculum can be developed, through school-based management, to include interactive learning and teaching activities that provide students with opportunities to explore a range of ideas. This all-inclusiveness is intended to help maximize learning achievement for all students, thereby contributing to the empowerment and development, to their fullest potential, of the country’s cultural and ethnic groups. Therefore, curriculum differentiation cannot be fully
understood apart from the two contexts in which it is embedded: the schooling, and the social milieu. According to Oakes, et al (1992), “curriculum differentiation” can be explained thusly:

The schooling context includes the ways in which schools organize curriculum and instruction generally and the impact of being a part of a particular curriculum on students’ school and classroom experiences. *Curriculum differentiation exists within a wider social milieu, in which the members of the particular culture acknowledge norms and expectations about what schools ought to accomplish—the beliefs, values, and circumstances that originally influenced the institution of differentiation and those that continue to shape current practice.* [in Jackson, 1992, p. 571] [My italics]

The second consideration takes into account the current changes and future trends; here, a revised curriculum ought to be relevant, flexible, and accountable to both academicians and to the society in which it is implemented. This accountability requires a clear orientation of the curriculum, which is realized through increased emphasis on learning outcomes as well as on learning processes. Within this orientation, the basic competencies for students are determined for each grade level, and can be achieved through various means, according to the conditions set by each school and region.

Third, in order to develop Indonesian human resources who posses competent skills and attitudes, the four pillars of Universal Education—as the foundation for reform in universal education—explore and empower the potential and talents of children: learning to be; learning to know; learning to do; and learning to live together (UNESCO, 2003a; & b). Those four pillars become tools for creating and developing a process conducive to learning (Soedijarto, 2000) and for enhancing personal growth and development, as well as providing learners with a sense of rootedness (Miralao, 1999). Such life skills provide learners with an anchor while allowing
them skills for adapting flexibly to changes in their wider environments without conforming specifically to the usual categorization of learning skills and competencies (e.g. cognitive, affective, psychomotor, etc.), but require new ways of conceptualizing learning behaviors, processes, and outcomes. Proposing that the four education pillars be added to the new curriculum also indicates that the aims of education are not only to produce a trained or skilled labor force and good nationalist citizens, but to prepare learners for the larger, global environment (MONE, 2000).

Taking into consideration the policy themes of curriculum change, the 1999 State Guidelines of the R.I. underscore that the school program is based on a “diversified curriculum” that reflects the heterogeneity of stakeholders. A diversified curriculum can serve the wide range of student abilities and offer suitable learning programs for a heterogeneous society; and it also attempts to provide all students with meaningful learning opportunities, which will ultimately provide them with a quality education. This, however, creates a paradoxically different perception compared to the Indonesia 1945 Constitution, which provides an apparently value-free statement regarding education. The Indonesia Constitution states:

(1) Every citizen has the right to receive instruction. (2) The government will organize and implement one national system of instruction, which will be regulated by legislation. [MONE, 2003b]

Necessary diversity within a national framework is based upon the fact that the social fabric of Indonesia is demographically diverse; diversification of the school curricula meets the needs of such diversity and, at the same time, respectfully ensures a quality education for future generations of children. Braslavsky (1999) argued that the challenge of combining richness and flexibility give rise to the need for different curricula.
A rich curriculum framework is understood as one that can guide the actors through the daily educational routine with respect to a great variety of aspects that affect the quality of learning achieved with students in different schools. It is a framework that refers not only to what has to be taught, but also what for, why, when, where, and to whom. *A flexible curriculum framework is understood as one that can admit variations according to the characteristics of the individual establishments in which it is being implemented.* [p. 15] [My italics]

Moreover, the concept of “basic competencies” became a major theme in recent current work in order to review interim revisions of the 1994 curriculum and, ultimately, to prepare for a completely new national curriculum in the future. As Boediono, et al (1999) argues,

A new approach to the improvement of the 1994 Curriculum is being carried out by identifying the basic competencies which must be mastered by pupils in particular subjects at certain levels of education. Through this new approach, it is possible to formulate those basic competencies required by pupils at primary, junior high and senior high schools. [p. 82]

The concept, however, was not yet clearly defined as to how it will be interpreted. Nevertheless, the 1994 curriculum has been analyzed in light of the degree to which “basic competencies” can be identified there:

The interpretation of “basic competencies” used in the mapping depends entirely on the interpretations and terms employed in that curriculum. It is important to emphasize that the interpretations and terms used do not match the concept of “basic competencies” which should be used as a starting point in its the revision. [Boediono, et al., 1999, p. 83]
Based on these arguments, the terms of “basic competencies” ought to be used in the present process of curriculum renewal; however, this creates an ambiguity. As Brady (1995) observes:

Competence is an elusive concept. What at first sight appears to be a useful and commonsense idea is found, on further reflection, to be complex and possibly misleading. In particular, the relationship between competence and knowledge is controversial. [in McKenzie, Mitchell, & Oliver, 1995, p. 1]

Moreover, Asworth and Saxton (1990) also pointed out the risks involved in employing this term:

…in particular, it is not clear whether competence is a personal attribute, an act or the outcome of an action; moreover the idea of competence, as currently used, is open to complaints that it is atomistic. [p. 3]

Hyland (1994) and Wolf (1995) agreed that a competence-based approach may be inappropriate or even dangerous in certain circumstances. The reasons are partly because (1) it may lead to a neglect of knowledge through an over-emphasis on easily measurable skills, and (2) it may lead to a neglect of the overall pedagogical process and the quality of learning by focusing on the mechanistic achievement of predetermined outcomes. Considering the demographics of Indonesia, government control over the national curriculum is important in a geographically mobile society like Indonesia and it will provide for geographic mobility for students.

Students moving from one school district to another do not have to spend time reviewing and repeating material they have already learned in another school. Indonesia’s motto of life Bhinneka Tunggal Ika or “unity in diversity” indicates a strong awareness of togetherness and
connectedness. The beauty of this philosophy derives from a deep sense of social responsibility on behalf of the individual. In order to maintain national cohesion, students need to learn about their country, an argument that supports some level of governmental control over the national curriculum. Schools, however, have now been given the responsibility of making adjustments in the content of their individual curriculum. In this particular case, the decentralization of education could mean that decisions made regarding elements of the national curriculum are in the hands of provincial or regional teachers. In the past, a teacher’s primary responsibility was simply to transmit to his/her students the information outlined in the textbooks.

Reducing bureaucratic controls at the central government level will prompt teachers and principals to exert greater initiative in the curriculum planning process and to tailor instruction to the needs of their students. Because the concept of CBC provides schools with greater autonomy in their curriculum decision-making, school- or SBM and community participation then become two primary concerns in the implementation of CBC.

The development of current life and future, on the one hand, requires community awareness in order to participate actively in education; on the other, a readiness of the school to reach out into the community and work together with various parties in implementing education programs is required. Community participation is an important part of decentralization in that it promotes greater parental and community involvement. Community members and parents can provide valuable insight into how schools can be improved in order to better educate the children of the community. Parents, having a greater stake in the education process, would then have a greater understanding of the problems facing schools, and would likely increase their support (Thomas, 1991b). To this end, the educational reform in general and the curriculum revision process in particular are still undergoing review, revision, and constant change.
The following describes the teacher education system in Indonesia and discusses several issues regarding teacher qualification, teacher professionalism, professional competence and education qualifications for teacher-candidates, and professional preparation of teaching personnel.

### 2.3. Teacher Education

#### 2.3.1. Teacher education system in Indonesia

The history of teacher education in Indonesia goes back to the 1950s, and has tertiary education level status (Purwadi & Muljoatmodjo, 2000). Indonesian teacher education, since then, has changed from being an independent school of education (PTPG in 1954-1957) to being part of the Faculty of Education of the University (in 1957-1964), to becoming the independent Institute of Education with University status (or IKIP, which stands for Institute of Teacher Training in 1964-1999): At present the IKIP has been incorporated into the general university system, in addition to having various Faculties of Education in various public and private universities around the country (Djojonegoro, 1995).

Teachers from preschool to high school are provided with teacher training institutions such as the Institute of Teacher and Educational Sciences (IKIP), the College of Teacher Training and Educational Sciences (STKIP), and the Faculty of Teacher Training and Educational Sciences (FKIP); private institutions can also offer STKIP and FKIP (Semiawan & Natawijaya, 2000).

These institutes and colleges are independent institutions, while the faculty is part of a university. Teachers who graduate from these three institutions (IKIP; FKIP; and STKIP) have earned the same qualifications and possess the same rights to be employed in public and private
schools as those who graduate from the university system. With respect to teacher qualifications, education requirements have become increasingly rigorous.

For example, prior to 1945, primary school teachers could get either a two-year or four-year education after they finished primary school (or SGB-Teacher Training School following under the Dutch Normal School) and become eligible to teach in primary school. However, in 1989, primary school teacher qualification required a two-year education after secondary school (or Diploma-2).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>Teacher qualification</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Prior to 1945 up to 1956</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary school teacher</td>
<td>2-year or 4-year Teacher Training School under the Dutch Normal School/SGB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior secondary school</td>
<td>3-year after junior secondary school or SGA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary school</td>
<td>2-year after secondary school or B-1 (specialized in subject matter)</td>
</tr>
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Figure 4. Teacher Qualification Prior to 1945 up to 1956, and 1989

Examining the history of teacher education in Indonesia (Figure 4) reveals that the government’s efforts are considered to have elevated the quality of teacher education in terms of professional competence and readiness for the classroom (Djojonegoro, 1995; Semiawan &
Natawijaya, 2000; Soedijarto, 2000). This leads to the question of whether more stringent education requirements have produced a greater number of qualified teachers who, in turn, would be able to carry out reform in a more professional and thorough manner.

2.3.2. Teaching: the question of professionalism

Teaching as an occupation is somehow different from teachers’ perceptions of their job. Teachers in Indonesia were central government employees and their placement was determined by the center authorities (Oey-Gardiner, 2002). Relevant study showed that public bureaucracies that control education inhibit the formation of effective schools, ultimately creating a system that is almost entirely beyond the reach of public authority (Chubb & Moe, 1993).

The ideology of professionalism can be used by members of an occupational group, including educators, in order to maintain both a monopoly of the market for their expert services and thus obtain higher remuneration and an elevated social status and autonomy in their work (Abbot, 1988). In relation to the ideology of professionalism, some careers such as engineering and others professions have a professional hierarchy. For example, levels of unskilled workers, skilled workers, technicians, semi-professional, and professional engineers are acknowledged; the medical profession conducts itself similarly, regarding positions such as paramedics and medical doctors.

Education as a profession in Indonesia is only recognized by teaching or non-teaching staff members (MONE, 2003e). Within the teaching profession it seems that, in Indonesia’s education system, teachers do not have hierarchical divisions. The differences among them are acknowledged only regarding the level to which they are assigned to teach, such as primary or secondary school teachers. This characteristic of teaching as an occupation according to Freidson (1983) argues for seeing a profession, as “An empirical entity about which there is little
ground for generalizing. This has implications for current debates about teacher professionalism particularly in the twenty-century” (in Whitty, 2000, p. 282).

According to Adams and Tulaslewicz (1995), “Teaching is being “de-professionalized” as a result of recent education reform and teachers are being turned into “technicians,” rather than “reflective professionals” (in Whitty, 2000, p. 285). However, they further argued, “The advocates of the reforms might wish to characterize the process as one of “re-professionalization” (p.282). It means that to make teachers become professionals will require them to keep up with the needs of a new era. Were levels to be instituted, however, there would arise the danger of a monopoly of power. This would create social distance between the professional and the teachers, a more likely, to undercut the democratic ideals of schooling. The relationship between schools and their communities are important because of a greater insensitivity within the school in order to get legitimate interests of parents and other community members (Pickle, 1990 & Skyes, 1957, in M. Ginsburg, 1996).

In an Indonesia context, teachers indicated that they would try to avoid becoming involved in political practices, and not be concerned with how to increase their power over others. This “power over” others is manifested in the capacity of getting people to do or not to do something, or even not to consider doing something, that doesn’t coincide with their interests: in contrast to the power over, “power with” has to do with the relationship between co-agency and others (Ginsburg, 1995, 1996). Ginsburg (1995) concluded, “People involved in “power with” are characterized by mutual benefits dialogue and co-operating in finding ways to satisfy their desires and fulfill their interests without being coerced or imposing on one another” (pp. 6-7). From this viewpoint, it is evident that educators are political regarding their involvement both in-and outside of their work, such as teachers’ participation in curriculum decision-making,
political pedagogy, student evaluations, research, and relationships with colleagues. All those things may relate to being political.

As far as educators’ involvement, particularly teachers in political spheres, it can be assumed their roles involve political action, although they also have a professional responsibility in educational matters, such as teaching. Therefore, teachers are subjected to conducting all professional assignments with regard to the planning and development of learning programs, implementing and managing the teaching-learning process, interpreting the evaluation results in order to improve learning programs, and diagnosing any learning difficulties, and then designing strategies to help learners facing difficulties. Those activities can be categorized as “teacher competence” and are valuable components by which to assess the input or output of teacher education (Popkewitz & Pereyra, 1993, p. 28).

2.3.2.1. Professional competence and education qualifications

With reference to the teacher’s competencies discussed earlier, a two-year education after senior high school or Diploma-2 might not be enough to produce a qualified teacher. This is one factor, hypothetically, that makes primary school teachers, for example, unable to perform teaching assignments professionally and effectively especially in the areas of reading, writing, and arithmetic (the 3Rs).

For example, a collaboration between the Testing Center, MONE, and the Australian Council for Educational Research, involving 7,355 15 year-old-students from 290 schools, with every 10 schools representing one province, produced recent research in reading comprehension for 15-year-olds that revealed 37.6 percent of them were able to read without understanding and only 24.8 percent of them were capable of making a connection between the text and only one source of knowledge. These research findings indicated that many students are not able to learn
by themselves because of their inability to interpret information because of relatively low reading skills (MONE, 2003d).

In order to prepare pupils for the demands of the 21st century, teachers should possess the knowledge, skills, and methods students need, such as problem solving skills, management development, working both in teams or individually, and how to use the world wide web. Robertson (2000) argued, “Schools are viewed as competitive units within the national and the global economy and they are enterprises committed discursively and practically to the competitive state project” (p.166). Robertson’s (2000) statement gives meaning to the term teaching methodology, which, in turn, contributes to increasing the quality of education. In response to learning competency needs in the global era, Delors et al (1996) also suggested that one of the educational challenges due to globalization is the need to favor the development of skills alongside knowledge like learning to be, learning to know, learning to do, and learning to live together and should be addressed with students in school at an early stage (Yeom, et al., 2002; UNESCO, 2003a; & b).

These kinds of learning attitudes, in turn, will enhance students’ self-adequacy and promote self-confidence and self-realization in different situations and settings of life. Redefining an education program in this context through the Indonesian government’s efforts of reforming CBC implies that school curricula should focus on students attaining a designated number of clearly defined skills or competencies at the end of each stage and level of school education. The constellation of those skills and outlooks corresponds with adaptability, knowledge transfer, and the problem-solving process, all of which are needed to meet the challenges of the 21st century, as well as to cope with the demands of the future.
In response to developing the relevant skills for a global economy, Reich (1992) explains that teachers should be empowered in order to make effective and efficient use of resources that are entrepreneurially-oriented to economic demands. Therefore, teachers are subjected to greater involvement in school-level administration and greater accountability to regulatory bodies, such as school audit agencies and more prioritization in the development and teaching of workplace competencies (in Robertson, 2000, p.167).

2.3.2.2. Professional preparation of teaching personnel

In response to teacher preparation, the Indonesian government has established nine centers for INSET under the Directorate General of Primary and Secondary Education, MONE and each center has the responsibility of organizing those teachers with specialized skills according to the subjects they have taught. These centers functioned independently of the Pre-Service Teacher education. This model of INSET appears to be ineffective in keeping teachers regularly up-to-date and in improving their teaching competence in terms of the power-knowledge relationship. Regardless of teacher education reform, reform in teacher education articulates the tensions and conflicts that exist within the economic, demographic, cultural, and political organizations of the state (Popkewitz & Pereyra, 1993). This leads to an examination of the main issues appropriate for pedagogical training for new teachers, which are related to multiculturalism, regional autonomy, and national identity.

A study of eight developed countries (Popkewitz & Pereyra, 1993) showed, “Reform in teacher education relates to changes in societal regulations and power. Societal regulations and power are apparent in the intersection of universities, research communities-schools, and the state as reform of teacher education produces new social regulations” (in Popkewitz, 1993, p.15). Moreover, there are lessons to learn from other nations in preparing teachers: there was no clear
agreement as to which is the most important—mastery of the subject matter or mastery of the methodology. However, the discussion rarely examines the issue of the importance of understanding and knowing the learners (Paine, 1990).

Several assumptions for pedagogical training of teachers can be made as follows: First, the importance of the role of teaching depends upon the acquisition of knowledge. The acquisition of knowledge involves working with texts; knowledge is best gained through an immersion in these texts. Teacher education, therefore, devotes a majority of time to studying and reviewing texts. Second, teaching and learning have similarly significant outcomes regarding time allocation and the content of teacher education course work and field experience. It is assumed that students are more alike than different. Learning in a group activity, for example, has been implemented through course organization and practicum. Teacher-candidates must be evaluated through written examinations of key subjects, and are required to demonstrate their abilities as potential teachers. They must also possess the capacity for developing an effective relationship with their students. Teacher-candidates, in pre-service and in-service education, must also learn to regard teaching as both “a science and an art” (Paine, 1990).

In addition to mastering both subject matter and teaching methodology, as explained above, another issue involves the training of teachers to deal with the problematic phenomenon that children should practice the knowledge they have gained in their real-world lives. Green and Cynthia (1995) suggested:

Teachers need to encourage students to see social conditions as problematic, as well as to facilitate classroom dialogue about them and take the initiative to discover “humanizing possibilities” in an effort to “awaken” students and help them see clearly and name those
social inequalities. That form obstacles in the students’ own lives. This kind of awareness is necessary for individuals to be willing to resist identified obstacles and to work toward envisioned alternatives. [in M. Ginsburg & Lindsay, 1995, p.193]

With regard to mass education and heterogeneous learners in terms of socio-economic-cultural backgrounds, curriculum should consider the importance of culture. Several scholars (Taba, 1962; Print, 1993) have maintained that culture is one of the fundamental bases in developing school curricula. The importance of knowing culture is because it governs how people share information and knowledge as well as how they construct meaning (Oliver & Howley, 1992). Darling-Hammond (1996) also stressed the significance of understanding culture in order to recognize students’ learning and environment by observing:

We all interpret behaviors, information and situation through our own cultural lenses; these lenses operate involuntarily, below the level of conscious awareness, making it seems that our own view is simply, the way it is. [p.12]

Culture, in this context, can be defined as the whole life of human beings; it is not only a fundamental basis upon which a curriculum should be developed, it also functions as a product of the developing curriculum. Teachers, therefore, should also consider learners based upon socio-economic-cultural backgrounds in teaching-learning process.

Examining pre-service teacher education in Indonesia has been the subject of criticism for some years for having been irrelevant to the actual needs of the current situation and alienated from the roots of development--in science for example, despite efforts to improve the science education program and curriculum. By developing topics that serve as “common ground,” mastery of the subject matter has greater proportion compared to subject material on the teaching and learning methodology (Suhaenah, n.d.). Underlying the assumption that the
teacher-candidate has mastered the course content of that studied by university students, teachers would be able to carry out their tasks professionally.

2.4. Approaches to Curriculum Policy Implementation

2.4.1. Aspects that influence school stakeholders to conceive reform

CBC, which, from the point of view of the local school, is flexible in its implementation, changes its complexion in significant ways. The difference in what schools may actually teach could reflect broad social trends, such as the delegation of a central decision-making authority in education and the emergence of an ideology of school autonomy. Schools, in effect, have greater discretion over curriculum decisions. The accountability for each school that exercises autonomy at the local level may include the challenge of finding human resources and faculty who are competent and experienced. Not all schools in Indonesia will have similarly qualified personnel according to their credential and teaching experiences. As a result, curriculum autonomy becomes an obstacle for local administrators and school stakeholders in defining and implementing their own curricula.

2.4.1.1. The concern of time

In light of curriculum implementation policy, the nature of stakeholders—teachers, principals, and supervisors—has to be considered important regardless of their roles in the implementation of a school curriculum. Moreno (1999) argues:

To understand the process of curriculum change, particularly in the beginning of the process, it should promote a basic understanding by all participants. The involvement of all stakeholders is required through open dialogue in order to recognize the contributions made by each and to agree on a common language for the discussion. A mutual
understanding of what is written in a new curriculum is necessary for ensuring that all stakeholders communicate clearly and work together productively. [pp. 569-577]

However, in the process of curriculum reform, schools have been strongly resistant to any reorientation that is markedly different from what has been accomplished previously. If curriculum change does occur, it is a slow and almost unconscious process; attempts to make practicable certain ideal visions of personal growth, social life, or intellectual activity have run head on into institutionalized manifestations of school life when they use traditional and all too limited modes of conceptualizing their concerns (Apple, 1973). The term curriculum, in this context, is understood not only as a prescribed text but also as a discursive field which includes guidelines or suggestions for constructing cultural authority within a particular society and plays a central role in contemporary educational reform (Pinar et al., 1995).

To comprehend a new paradigm of curriculum change, stakeholders need ample time (Moreno, 1999). It is a change at the personal level and those affected should be allowed ample time to accept and understand the changes. Such curriculum change has also created teacher concerns during its implementation. Pritchett (1993) agreed that the degrees of success of the changes are dependent upon the individual perspective accepting the change. Research conducted by Adleman and Walking-Eagle (1997), which focused on a key element in implementing an innovation, found that teachers need time in order to comprehend the purpose of the innovations, review the outcomes that might be expected, discuss the proposed new approach among their colleagues, and practice using the innovations themselves. Research also identified that failure of implementation, especially in the large scale, is often related to the decision to introduce the change rather quickly, without allowing for proper preparation and practice.
Moreover, teachers always faced the conflict of rapid implementation versus the lengthy time needed in order to fully implement such education reform. Concerns were particularly critical when the innovations required teachers to update their knowledge and skills (Adleman & Walking-Eagle, 1997). However, Coleman (1990, in M. Fullan, 2001) argued that a school’s time requirement is not only in order to transfer information, but also to develop “social capital” and “intellectual capital” in the school. Coleman (1990) further explains:

…termed ‘social capital’—to help produce citizens who have the commitment, skills, and disposition to foster norms of civility, compassion, fairness, trust, collaborative engagement, and constructive critiques under conditions of great social diversity. Schools also need to develop intellectual capital—problem solving skills in a technological world—so that all students can learn. [p.17] [My italics]

Teachers, as the close implementers at schools, should understand clearly the fundamental changes as well as the messages behind curriculum reform, so that, in turn, they may pass that information on to their students and in a larger context to the schools. Therefore, the recognition of a time factor was an essential prerequisite of the effective implementation of change (Hord, et al., 1987). However, but also typical, the decision to introduce change was generally accomplished in a rapid manner, which did not provide opportunities for proper preparation and practice of the implementation. This rapid approach conflicted with the need for a long-term period of several years in order to fully implement such education reform and created concerns for teachers, particularly when innovations required them to learn new skills or update their knowledge.

The necessity of time in order to implement change properly was emphasized while defining the need for change to occur over a longer period of time rather than be considered a
short-term specific event. With regard to the process of reform Fullan & Stiegelbauer (1991) commented:

First, the length of time taken to come to a decision to actually reform is too long; second, not all schools are involved in the reform, nor do all schools expect to be improved by the reform; and third, it takes three, six, or even eight years to achieve the results expected from the reform, but these results are still fragile. [pp. 17-18]

Therefore, recognizing that time is also a key factor in implementing change was an essential prerequisite of its effectiveness (Hord et al., 1987). Providing time for acceptance and for practice of the changes enhanced teacher self-efficacy, thereby reducing teacher concerns, such as adequate resources.

2.4.1.2. Teachers’ expertise

The process of implementing change affects a teacher’s perceptions of his/her expertise. Therefore, teachers are considered to be self-efficacious. In response to this self-efficacy, Bandura (1977) noted that efficacy expectations were a major determinant in people’s choices of activities: how much effort they spend, and how long they will keep trying in stressful situations. Personal teacher efficacy was demonstrated in discussions regarding changes that affect the teachers themselves, the effect change has on a teacher’s acceptance of it, and a teacher’s understandings of the results of the change. Self-efficacy, therefore, can be described as how teachers feel about themselves when experiencing change. The consequence of change involves the teacher’s acceptance of and preparation for the change (Bandura, 1977).

Regardless of a teacher’s acceptance of and preparation for change, Fullan and Hargreaves (1992) agreed that reform would not be successful until education leaders and teachers own the change process, accept the change, and have a working knowledge of how to
implement the change. A teacher’s expertise regarding specific reform was seen as critical— if teachers were to implement the change successfully. They agreed that change involves a teacher’s acceptance of and preparation for the change. Reform would not be successful unless both the administration and the faculty understand the change process, accept the changes, and have a working knowledge of how to implement them. Therefore, the need for expertise regarding specific curriculum reform is critical if teachers are to implement.

2.4.1.3. Lack of teachers’ involvement in the process of curriculum change

As the implementers of change, teachers bear the burden of responsibility for its success. In curriculum reform, the largest share of responsibility for implementation and improvement is placed on those who deliver the curriculum, the classroom teacher. However, their role and expertise in the reform is often limited to the classroom, with no real opportunity to participate in the development of the new curriculum (Cavelti, 1995). Cuban (1993) emphasized the impact of the teacher’s personality on the curriculum. Cuban claimed there were four different types of curricula: official (government); taught (teacher); learned (student); and tested (government). The claim was that typically none of the four curricula were truly synchronized and thus the impact of any curriculum reform was significantly reduced.

One reason given for this lack of alignment according to Edwards (1993), “Local educators did not have a sense of ownership in curriculum reform and often remained comfortable with their own efforts at improving education” (pp. 85-88). Regarding other ways to present reform, strong arguments exist against implementing reform in schools where teachers were not involved in the decision-making and their opinions and participation were not invited. In such cases, teachers who had no voice in curriculum reform should not be responsible for the negative consequences of the reform efforts (Sarason, 1990).
2.4.1.4. Years of teaching experience (impact on reform)

Teachers’ retention positively impacts reform. This includes empowering teachers by giving them more influence over the development of policies. It includes providing teachers with opportunities to develop curricula and work with administrators on school and/or district policy, and providing them access to relevant professional development. Shen (1998) argued, “Administrative support was defined as providing the aforementioned empowerment opportunities” (pp. 81-84). Further, Tell (2000) noted, “Teachers, regardless of their years of experience, need the opportunity to develop their expertise as educators” (pp. 1-8). Teachers’ participation in the development of school policies, including curriculum, was critical to teachers believing that their expertise and opinions were valued by the school administration.

Principals mired in the top-down administrative approach experienced higher teacher attrition rates than those who engaged teachers in the decision-making process (Hope, 1999, pp. 54-56). Administrators who invited teachers into discussions and empowered teachers increased those teachers’ commitment to their profession. Barth (2001) commented, “These administrators trusted their teachers, as demonstrated by teacher participation in curriculum development (pp. 443-449). Moss and Fuller (2000) also added, “Administrators who supported teachers by giving them their trust developed teachers who became innovative in the classroom” (pp. 273-274).

2.4.2. Some related approaches to curriculum policy implementation

In this section, this researcher explains two perspectives: cognitive implementation and fidelity-mutual adaptation and curriculum enactment perspective. The arguments are: First, the cognitive perspective sees that a key dimension of the implementation process is whether and in what ways
implementing agents come to understand their practice, potentially changing their beliefs and attitudes in the process (Spillane, 2002).

Second, curriculum policy implementation can be seen as how far curriculum can be implemented as intended policy and how implementers can adapt the policy, and how the implementer or teachers and students shape the curriculum policy.

2.4.2.1. Cognitive implementation perspective

Most of educational reform efforts that seek to deeply and positively change classroom practices have been notoriously unsuccessful. Fewer studies (Weatherley & Lipsky, 1977; Cohen & Ball, 1990; Tyack & Cuban, 1995;) reported reforms that impacted schools, and researchers suggested that policy influences teachers’ practice regarding teachers ability to shape policy--teachers interpret, adapt, and even transform reform as they implement it. The cognitive implementation perspective assumes that individuals assimilate new experiences and information through their existing knowledge structures (Spillane, et al., 2002). The policy, from this perspective, comes to mean for that agents depend largely on their repertoire of existing knowledge and experience to implement changes.

Curriculum policy is the formal body of law and regulation that pertains to what should be taught in the schools (Elmore & Sykes, 1992), and focuses on issues of content in school subjects as well as on ideological responses to one traditional curriculum question: what knowledge is of the greatest worth? (Pinar, et al., 1995 & Apple, 2004). The core of education policy concerns very much how to determine what children need to learn (Schubert, 1986). Curriculum policies, historically, have flowed down “from authoritative sources through the medium of the school” (Pinar, 1995). Nevertheless, as schools became intermediate places of reform, teachers’ voices were not fully involved in the reform (Hargreaves, 1996). This is
because teachers, like students, were viewed as passive recipients rather than as valid, authoritative sources of curriculum knowledge (Fosnot, 1989, p.7; Kliebard, 2002, pp. 135-136).

Based on this perspective, the policy messages are vague as they filter down through the various levels of the education administration. The implementer or local education administrators have always been seen as relatively passive conduits of national policy (Spillane, 2002). Further Spillane argued that this simplistic approach to local policymaking is common also in the scholarly literature, which has largely disregard the role of school districts in educational reform. This perspective attempts to fill the gap between the policy message and the role of local education administrators by demonstrating the active and critical roles played by local policy-makers in interpreting and shaping the policy, which involves three core elements, e.g., the individual implement agent, the situation in which sense-making occurs, and the policy signals (Spillane, 2004).

With respect to three core elements of interpreting and shaping policy, the first component involved mechanisms of comprehension and sense-making to an analysis of implementers making sense of policy and the complex practices of learning and teaching. The second component considered how aspects of the situation influence what implementing agents notice and how they interpret what they notice. A third component is the policy. Although policy might be treated as one element of the situation, Spillane (2004) singled it out because of its special significance in considering issues of implementation.

The study, regardless of the design challenges for policymakers, involves representing ideas about instruction in ways that enable the implementing agent’s sense-making. Inherent in this task is a critical tension between the abstract and the concrete in communicating the ideas. Spillane (2004) adopted a cognitive perspective when he analyzed the implementation process of
Mathematics and Science teaching reform in Michigan between 1992 and 1996. This perspective demonstrates how agents (education personnel at school) of the implementation process make sense of the policies upon which they act. Spillane (2004) argued, “Based upon the conventional account, policies fail to be implemented because the policy is muddled or weak, or because it does not fit with the interests of utility-maximizing local officials” (pp. 6-7).

However, the implementation of reforms in the Michigan classrooms sought tremendous changes. Based on this study, Spillane (2004) concluded, “The standard reform was not a matter of “adding to, subtracting from, or shuffling”, rather it required “reconceptualization,” e.g., procedural knowledge (i.e., “following predetermined steps to accurately compute correct answers”) to a curriculum that balances procedural and principled knowledge (i.e., conceptual understanding)” (p.29). This shift, according to him, had to be manifested in the classroom practice reform.

2.4.2.2. Fidelity-mutual adaptation-and curriculum enactment perspective

Several approaches to or perspectives of curriculum implementation can be used to determine to what extent curriculum reform should be implemented in schools: (1) fidelity perspective; (2) mutual adaptation; and (3) curriculum enactment. The fidelity perspective was the first generation of curriculum research, and examined and measured the implementation of the goals and objectives of a written curriculum (Posner, 1992). Mutual adaptation, on the other hand, considered teachers as the key to curriculum concerns by studying how the innovation is adapted during the implementation process rather than measuring the degree to which the innovation is implemented as planned (Berman & Pauley, 1975; McLaughlin, 1976; McLaughlin, 1987). Curriculum enactment, in contrast to the two other perspectives, focuses on studying how the curriculum is shaped by the evolving constructs of teachers and students.
The fidelity perspective sees curriculum knowledge as being created primarily outside the classroom by experts who design and develop the curriculum innovation. Fullan and Pomfret (1977) assume:

…the main intent is to determine the degree of implementation of an innovation in terms of the extent to which actual use of the innovation corresponds to intended or planned use and to determine factors which facilitate and inhibit such implementation. [p. 340]

Curriculum change, based upon the fidelity perspective, is conceived of as a linear process, with teachers implementing the innovation as developed in the classroom. The curriculum is then evaluated to determine whether the planned outcomes have been achieved: the implementation is successful when teachers carry out the curriculum as directed. The teachers, according to this perspective, are considered to be the policy recipient (Darling-Hammond, 1990, p.234). The teacher’s role in the implementation process is that of consumer— one who should follow the directions and implement the curriculum according to those possessing curriculum knowledge have designed it. They are recognized as being critical to the success of the curriculum implementation. The curriculum cannot achieved its aims or be fairly evaluated unless the teacher implements it in the manner in which it was intended to be implemented. It can be concluded here that school curricula would be implemented as intended if there were adequate training prior to the start of the implementation process, with support and monitoring during the stages of implementation.

The mutual adaptation approach is seen as a curriculum implementation process whereby adjustments to a curriculum are made by both curriculum developers and those who actually use it in the school or classroom context. This implies a certain amount of negotiation and flexibility on the part of both designers and practitioners. Tyree (1993) examined studies using
the mutual adaptation approach in order to determine how policy and individual teacher practice interrelated, for it was acknowledged that teachers have always had “considerable discretion” in spite of state policies (p.34). Similarly, McLaughlin (1987) examined what happens to the curriculum depending upon the individuals throughout the policy system who interpret and act on them. In this way, the process of policy diffusion did not result in either uniform implementation or uniform change.

The fidelity perspective views curriculum knowledge as something created outside the school; mutual adaptation researchers, in contrast, whether practical or critical in orientation, tend to see curriculum knowledge as one facet of a larger, complex social system that cannot be taken for granted. Practical researchers, in this particular case, are likely to see change as a linear process. Critical researchers’ orientations, on the other hand, are likely to see the change process as convoluted, nonlinear, and as unpredictable as it is complex (Snyder et al., 1992). However, researchers who follow the mutual adaptation perspective have a different type of perception than those researchers categorized as having a fidelity perspective. The mutual adaptation perspective, according to the application of the social sciences theory of education, assumes that implementation should involve adjustments regarding the needs, interests, and skills of the participants and organizations, as well as in project goals and methods. Bird (1986), in response to this emergent perspective, argues, “Mutual adaptation has an agreeable political and social flavor; it grants a measure of deserved respect both to the proponents and to the adopters of an innovation and therefore lets them meet on the equal terms” (p.46). The role of teachers, similar to the fidelity perspective, is a determinant factor because their input in the curriculum is required if the curriculum is to be successfully implemented in the particular settings.
Curriculum enactment, the third perspective, views curriculum as educational experiences jointly created by student and teacher. According to Fullan (1992), the curriculum enactment perspective underlying the change does not exist merely in the observable alterations in behavior, but is also rather a personal developmental process, both for teacher and student (in Snyder, et al., p. 418). Therefore, curriculum that is enacted in the classroom has a particular meaning different from, which is written in a curriculum document.

The curriculum enactment perspective regards the curriculum as what is being implemented or lived out in the classroom from the point of view of the teachers and others. Beyond that, curriculum can be defined as the meaning that students take away from their classroom experiences not what happens there. The term curriculum, from the enactment’s perspective, can be exemplified as “curriculum as lived” (Aoki, 1990) and “curriculum is something experienced in situations” (Connelly & Clandinin, 1988, p. 6). Cornbleth (1990) sees curriculum implementation as “what actually occurs in the school classrooms, that is, an ongoing social process comprised of the interactions of students, teachers, knowledge, and milieu” (p. 5). Therefore, the success of curriculum implementation demands relate to the understanding and acceptance of the subjective realities of the players undertaking the change process. The role of teacher in the enacted perspective is the one who develops the curriculum and who, together with the students, grows ever more competent in constructing positive education experiences. The process of implementing an enacted curriculum is one of continual growth for both teacher and student. The teacher is integral to its implementation. There would be no curriculum without teacher and student both giving to and taking from it in the classroom.

In response to the context of curriculum changes, Paris (1989) focused her research on the complex process of curriculum reform, which often contained conflicting historical,
interpersonal, and ideological contexts of the individuals and organizations involved in the process of change. Based upon her research, she found that conflict and consonance resulted from a conflict between the fidelity perspective of district-level administration, which required all teachers to follow a standard curriculum in order to provide uniform quality and the enactment perspective of the teachers. Paris (1989) further explains:

…to teachers, the skills, talents, and knowledge necessary to enact a curriculum were context specific and had to be achieved “again and again” by exploration. [p.13]

The best way to perform a quality curriculum, from the point of view of the enacted curriculum, was for teachers to pursue ideas through (1) classroom exploration; (2) discussions and observations with colleagues; and (3) formal instruction. These ideas are then “subjected to the teachers” ongoing evaluation and revision and practiced in the teacher’s own classroom. It was not expected that a particular teacher’s knowledge would be imposed on others, but that his/her knowledge would be a resource to others as they sought their own ways” (Paris, 1989, in P.W. Jackson 1992, p. 426).

Curriculum reform in the context of teaching and learning bring us to understand that successful implementation depends upon of teachers’ roles and their professional ability to make use of resources in order to understand curriculum policy. The study explained above (Coburn, 2001a; & b) has demonstrated the two approaches—mutual adaptation and enacted curriculum—provide a greater focus on the role of teachers in implementing curriculum policy. Teachers have been considered important to the curriculum that was being implemented. As Tyack and Cuban (1995) argued, “Reforms that are inconsistent with the basic structures of schooling, such as replacing the subject with something else or sharply redefining the roles of teacher and
student, tend to collapse even when they meet initial success in terms of implementation” (In Kliebard, 2002, p.5).

2.5. Summary

The context of the current curriculum reform in Indonesia relates to citizens increasing awareness of politics, facing problem of economic matters, and increasing human capacity development. Those factors can be classified as effects of curriculum revision demands. The impetus of decentralization for curriculum reform in Indonesia does not necessarily mean that the implementation of a new type of education in such a regional economy will be a simple shift from centralized to decentralized education planning and practice.

The rationale for curriculum reform has over the years changed from the need to create national unity and with it centralized control to one of socio-economic empowerment through decentralization. Such a dramatic change has significant implications for human resource development. Ultimately, however, the regions will be empowered so that they can all progress and indeed compete with each other, leading to a better future. The development of CBC is an indication of how the government responds to finding a new working mechanism for helping education meet the needs of the society, the marketplace, and the globe, and for establishing an efficient and effective working collaboration between the central government, the provinces, the districts, and the schools.

It is a fact that teachers are targets for change. Relevant study of sense-making has shown that education policy reforms impact the schools less, but they do influence teachers’ practice in relation to their ability to shape policy: Teachers interpret, adapt, and even transfer reforms as they put them into practice. A current Indonesian government report on the implementation of CBC, according to experiences at several piloting schools, also reports that
reform responsibilities at the province, the district, and the school levels all remain unclear, particularly those relating to how teachers interact with the curriculum policy in the classroom.

Regarding teachers qualifications, the government has been trying to up-grade the teacher education system since the 1950s, and continues to so today. One of the primary concerns regarding the teacher education program is that teachers acquire knowledge of certain subject matter within their teaching specialization; however, at the same time, they are not required to have an understanding of individual learners. Preparing qualified teachers in response to global demands and the requirements of a revised curriculum draws the attention of the government in providing the necessary facilities and infrastructure, incentive system, and evaluation and monitoring program. The government’s efforts to upgrade teacher quality through in-service teacher training (INSET) have resulted in no link with pre-service training. Reports have shown that the government’s efforts to provide pre-service teacher education in Indonesia have been criticized for some years because of its irrelevance to the actual needs of the current situation.

The current curriculum reform, CBC, requires teachers to be professional and competent in their work, particularly in implementing school curricula in the context of school autonomy. Teachers, therefore, are expected to carry out all professional assignments with regards to planning and developing learning programs, implementing and managing the teaching-learning process, interpreting evaluation results in order to improve learning programs, and diagnosing learning difficulties and designing strategies to help problem learners. Government concerns about upgrading teacher quality indicate that teachers have become an important part in improving the quality of education in general and, in particular, in developing human capacity in a democratic system. It can also be said that the government has been trying to establish various
new strategies to educate teachers and to implement a populist and democratic system of education.

Several research studies in relation to curriculum implementation particularly in the United State supports that failure of implementation, especially large scale implementation, is often due to the decision to introduce the change quickly, without allowing for proper preparation and practice or teachers involvement in the reform (Fosnot, 1989; Kliebard, 2002; & Spillane, 2002). Moreover, teachers have always faced the conflict of rapid implementation as opposed to being allowed the time they need to implement such education reform (Moreno, 1999). Concerns were particularly critical when innovation required teachers to update their knowledge and skills (Elmore & Sykes, 1992; Pinar et al., 1995; Apple, 2004).

Other aspects regarding implementation of curriculum reform include teachers’ expertise, involvement in the process of curriculum change, and experience (Elmore & Skyes, 1992; Spillane, et al., 2002). In addition, successful curriculum implementation can be seen from a variety of perspectives (fidelity, enactment, mutual adaptation, and cognition) and have considered teachers as key factors of successful implementation (Fullan & Pomfret, 1977; Paris, 1989; Posner, 1992; Snyder, et al., 1992; Tyree, 1993; Coburn, 2001a; Spillane, 2004).

All of the above have similarities to the Indonesian case in which teachers are required to follow a national curriculum in order to provide uniform quality. Not all teachers, particularly those in public schools, have proper college training. Primary school teachers with a Diploma-2 qualification or 2-year college after secondary education seem to need additional training to implement the reform. Otherwise, teachers’ understanding of the reform would be “superficial” and they would perceive reform with regard to their prior knowledge and level of understanding (Cohen, 1988; Cohen & Ball, 1990). Therefore, learning from those studies mentioned above
will provide a deeper understanding of how to implement reform particularly in a large-scale population with differing social and culture aspects.
3. RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

In this chapter, the procedures of the study are presented under the following categories: (1) population and sampling; (2) research instrument; (3) pilot testing; (4) data collection, and (5) data analysis. Primary school teachers were expected to respond with their perspectives about adopting, adapting, and implementing the CBC in their classroom practices.

Adopting the CBC has to do with the teacher’s attempt to understand the national curriculum in comparison to the previous national curriculum, curriculum 1994. Adapting CBC reflects the teacher’s attempt to understand CBC, adjust and implement it to the classroom context while attempting to apply his/her understanding of the curriculum to the teaching-learning process in the classroom.

“Adopting” and “adapting” are concerned with the process of understanding the national curriculum: the former in its relation to the earlier document, and the latter in its relation to the classroom. Both “adapting” and “implementing” deal with the application of the curriculum to the classroom setting; the former has to do with the syllabus, material development, and classroom assessment development, and the latter with the teaching process, i.e., the actual action in the classroom.

This typical descriptive study was also concerned with the assessment of opinions, perspectives, practices, and procedures (Gay, 2000). Therefore, the method used to collect data was a combination of quantitative, through questionnaire, and qualitative, through direct discussions with teachers. A quantitative approach was chosen as the primary approach in order to collect data from a large number of teachers. It would not be feasible to carry out interviews with a large sample. In addition to using the survey, it was decided to conduct interviews with
the teachers in order to obtain more in-depth information and gain greater understanding. Data gathered were analyzed using SPSS and descriptive analyses.

**3.2. Population and Sampling**

Because time for data collection was limited, this researcher decided to collect data in only two provinces. The Jakarta municipality was chosen to represent an urban community; Bandung was chosen to represent a suburban community. In Jakarta, this researcher was informed about a meeting that would be held to introduce teachers to the new policy on curriculum. A questionnaire was distributed to 97 teachers from a number of different schools. In Bandung, this researcher visited several schools, asking principals if they would distribute the surveys to their teachers.

This researcher left an appropriate number of surveys with the principals, and returned to each school to pick up the completed surveys. A total of 286 teachers from sixty-five primary schools completed the survey: 189 from Bandung, and 97 from Jakarta (Table 1 & Appendix E). Because participation was voluntary, grade levels were not equally represented in the sample (Table 2).

Table 1. Participating Teachers by Type and Region

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Province</th>
<th>Classroom Teachers*</th>
<th>Subject Teachers*</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Jakarta</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bandung, West Java</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>189</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>214</td>
<td>286</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*) Note: In private schools, most teachers in grades 1-2 are classroom teachers who teach all subjects except religion, whereas most teachers in grades 3-6 are subject teachers who teach only one subject. There are special teachers for religion and physical education. In public schools
there is variability in teacher assignments. In some public schools there may be classroom teachers for some of the higher grades.

Table 2. Participating Teachers by Grade Level and Region

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Province</th>
<th>1&lt;sup&gt;st&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
<th>2&lt;sup&gt;nd&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
<th>3&lt;sup&gt;rd&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
<th>4&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
<th>5&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
<th>6&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Jakarta</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bandung</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>24.7</td>
<td>11.3</td>
<td>11.6</td>
<td>28.0</td>
<td>11.6</td>
<td>9.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The sampling method used in this study would best be described as a non-probability convenience sampling method based on the accessibility of the participants. In Bandung, the public and private schools chosen were those principals agreed to provide access to their teachers for completing the survey.

The advantage of this sampling process was convenience and timeliness. The disadvantage of this sampling process was a possibility of bias that may have been introduced into the sampling process. Moreover, the generalizability of its results to a larger population was diminished because the study did not use a random process.

3.3. Research Instrument

The survey instrument was a questionnaire containing 25 questions about teachers’ perspectives on curriculum policy reform and 6 demographic questions (Appendix H). The instrument was designed and previously piloted by the researcher. Requested demographic information included 1) gender, 2) age, 3) educational background, 4) teaching status, 5) years of teaching experience,
and 6) years of implementing CBC. The researcher included information regarding ‘years of implementing CBC’ in the demographic with the expectation that teachers’ responses would differ depending on how long they had been implementing the reform.

In order to measure teachers’ responses regarding curriculum policy reform, this researcher used mostly close-ended questions (Appendix C). Several different formats were used. For some items, respondents were asked to choose only one out of several options. For example, item 1 asked respondents to choose one of five options regarding who should develop the syllabus. For other items, respondents were allowed to choose more than one option.

For example, in item 20 teachers were allowed to check more than one option regarding topics for in-service training (INSET) that would be useful to them. A third format asked respondents to choose one of only two options, for example, agree/disagree or right/wrong. Some items that were partly open-ended included blanks for respondents to fill in with appropriate information. For example, item 8 asked respondents to write in the blanks the topics they considered important in teaching the Indonesian language.

The questionnaire called for both structured and unstructured responses and included items related to the following issues: 1) adopting—how is CBC supposed to be delivered, what is the teacher’s understanding of the principles of CBC; 2) adapting—the teacher’s responses regarding teacher qualifications for CBC, the teacher’s attitudes towards material development, and the teacher’s responses regarding curriculum content; and 3) implementing—CBC from the students’ and teacher’s points of view, classroom based assessment, teacher’s professional development, and school infrastructure.

This researcher developed the instrument after reviewing related literature, such as how teachers adopt a new curriculum (Cuban, 1993; Edward, 1993; Coburn 2001a; & 2001b; Spillane
& Reimer, 2001); adapt a new curriculum (Spark, 1977); implement a new curriculum (Adleman & Walking-Eagle, 1997; Moreno, 1999); need time for implementing a new curriculum (Bandura, 1977; Fullan & Hagreaves, 1992); and teacher’s expertise in particular subject areas (Tell, 2000). Summarizes of the questionnaire used in this study can be seen in Appendix H.

3.4. Pilot Testing

In the beginning of the research planning, this researcher proposed a five-point Likert scale, including 65 items to indicate degree of agreement or disagreement with each of a series of statements about the new curriculum reform (Appendix C). In the course of piloting the instrument with 40 primary school teachers at five public schools, the researcher noticed that there were a number of participants who chose the same response, for example, “strongly agree”, for a whole series of items. Participants completed the questionnaire very quickly.

It appeared that participants were not carefully considering each item. For that reason, the researcher decided to replace the Likert scale format with a variety of other formats described in the Instrument section. The researcher also decided to add some open-ended questions in order to get more detailed responses.

The modified questionnaire was re-tested in a second pilot study. The researcher noted that participants in the second pilot study appeared to think about each item rather than respond in an automatic way.

Based on the results of both pilot studies, the researcher formulated and designed a new instrument, containing 25 questions that addressed issues on how teachers adopt, adapt and implement the new curriculum in the classroom, in addition to six respondent demographic questions. The formats used in the questions were described in the previous section. In order to evaluate readability and clarity in the new instrument, the researcher asked several teachers to
review it. Teachers were asked if they understood the instructions, the terminology used, and the format of the items.

3.5. Data Collection

Before collecting data in Indonesia, the researcher obtained permission from the University of Pittsburgh Institutional Review Board (IRB) to conduct the research involving human subjects (Appendix A). The data collection process for the study was coordinated through local staff members of MONE at the provincial level.

Prior to confirming the arrangements with school principals, permission to conduct the research was obtained from the Center for Curriculum Development, National Institute for Research and Development -MONE in Jakarta (Appendix F). In addition, the researcher had problems because of time delays and bureaucratic matters regarding obtaining official permission to visit schools. Prior to collecting field data, the researcher had to determine the current issues regarding curriculum implementation.

In the study, teachers were assured of confidentiality and encouraged to be forthright in their responses. The instrument did not identify the teacher. However, unknown to the teachers, the researcher did color-code the instrument by school. The participating sample was made up of 286 primary school teachers from 65 public and private schools (Appendix E).

At the 42 primary schools selected in Jakarta, 94 of the 97 classroom and subject teachers participated, producing a 96.9 percent response rate. The researcher distributed the questionnaire in Jakarta through the teachers’ workshop. In the 23 schools selected in Bandung, 181 out of 189 primary school classroom and subject teachers responded to the questionnaire for a 95.8 percent response rate. The total number of primary school teachers participating in the study was 286. A 70 percent response rate is very good, with a 50 percent response rate being adequate for
analysis and reporting purposes (Babbie, 2001). The response rate in the current study would be considered very good, based on Babbie’s guidelines.

This researcher also conducted follow-up meetings with teachers during one or two visits to each school. Each meeting took 1 to 2 hours during school time. In total, 20 primary teachers from six public and private schools in Jakarta and Bandung volunteered to meet with the researcher (Table 3). In these meetings, teachers were asked to clarify any responses that were incomplete, unclear, or difficult to understand, and to provide more detail about some responses.

Table 3. School Visits and Time Duration for Meetings with Teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Province</th>
<th>School</th>
<th>Time duration</th>
<th>Number of teacher</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Jakarta</td>
<td>SDN. Menteng (public)</td>
<td>2hrs (2 times)</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SDN. Merdeka Timur (public)</td>
<td>2hrs (2 times)</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SDN. Ar-Rahman (private)</td>
<td>2hrs (1 time)</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bandung</td>
<td>SDN. Pelita (public)</td>
<td>2hrs (1 time)</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SDN. Andir (public)</td>
<td>1hr (1 time)</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SDN. Dr. Cipto (public)</td>
<td>2hrs (1 time)</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>6 school</td>
<td>11hrs (8 times)</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.6. Data Analysis

Data were analyzed using the SPSS statistical package. Descriptive statistics such as frequencies and percentages were used to describe selected variables. Descriptive statistics were used in order to present quantitative data in a descriptive way. Babbie (1989) argues, “Descriptive statistics is a method for presenting quantitative descriptions in a manageable form” (p. 437). Frequencies and percentages were used to summarize responses to each survey item. In addition,
cross-tabulation and chi-square analysis were used to explore the relationship between demographic variables and selected survey items.

As for the data gathered from the questionnaire, the researcher first coded the data variables into the SPSS software. Data were classified into 2 (two) categories: numeric and descriptive narration from each of the selected survey items.

In part A, demographic responses, percentages were used for analyzing data regarding respondent responses on several issues such as, teaching experience, educational background, gender, age, teaching assignment, and years of implementing the new curriculum. In part B, three research questions were analyzed using frequencies and percentages for each selected variable and item.

The findings were analyzed by combining data gathered from the surveys and from follow-up meetings with teachers. These data were analyzed based on each of the research questions. To answer research questions 1, 2, and 3, responses to survey items addressing each research question were summarized. Summary of questionnaire describes the survey items that relate to each research question (Appendix H).
4. RESEARCH FINDINGS

4.1. Introduction

This chapter presents the findings of the study in two sections: 1) Respondent demographics, and 2) Discussion of the results in relation to the research questions. The main purpose of the study was to investigate the ways in which primary school teachers respond to the implementation of CBC, particularly issues such as curriculum diversification; syllabus development; learning materials; and student assessment.

The data were collected from primary school teachers in two provinces: Jakarta municipality and Bandung, West Java during July and August 2004.

4.2. Respondent Demographics

Table 4 presents the demographic breakdown of survey respondents by teaching experience, educational background, age, and gender. More females (87.1%) than males (12.9%) participated in the survey. The largest single group of teachers according to years of teaching experience was that with fifteen or more years of teaching experience (66.8%).

The percentage of participants holding a “Sarjana/S-1 degree (34.6%) was greater than the percentage of those with Teacher Education Senior High or SPG (22.4%) and Diploma-2 (22%). The minimum requirement for teaching primary school, junior secondary school and senior secondary school used to be graduation from the Teacher Education Senior High (SPG/PGA), Diploma-2 and Diploma-3, respectively.

The primary school teachers involved in this study come from different schools that have been implementing the CBC since academic year 2001/2002. Implementation of the CBC reform took place in three overlapping phases: mini-pilot (2001-2004), limited implementation (2002-2004), and full implementation (beginning 2003). Trials of the draft CBC began in a
small number of schools in October 2001 and were completed in June 2004. In this study, most participants (68.2%) had been implementing the CBC in the academic school year 2004.

Table 4. Respondent Demographics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Respondent Demographics</th>
<th>Participants (N=289)</th>
<th>Population (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Teaching Experiences</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fewer than 5 years</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>10.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 to 10 years</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>8.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 to 15 years</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>14.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 or more years</td>
<td>191</td>
<td>66.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Educational Background</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Education Senior High or SPG (3 years)</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>22.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma-2 (2 years)</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>22.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor (4 years or sarjana-S1 degree)</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>34.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fewer than 35 years</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>18.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35-44 years</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>44.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45-54 years</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>30.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55 or more years</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>6.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>249</td>
<td>87.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>12.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.3. Study Findings

Teachers’ responses to the implementation of CBC can be divided into two categories: those that reflect their perspectives of CBC (research question 1) and those that implement the CBC include issues of and suggestions for the implementation (research questions 2 and 3).
4.3.1. Teacher’s perspective of CBC

This section describes teachers’ perspectives regarding 1) curriculum diversification, 2) syllabus development, 3) learning material development, and 4) student assessment.

In general, across all educational backgrounds (SPG, Diploma-2, and Bachelor or Sarjana/S1 degree) more than 90 percent of teachers indicated a need to learn more about the CBC (item #4). The reported need was similar across levels of education. Considering years of experience, the findings were similar for teachers at the lowest level of experience (less than 5 years) and teachers at the highest level of experience (more than 15 years). Within both of these levels approximately 97 percent of the teachers indicated the need to learn more (item #3).

With respect to the teachers’ qualifications and teaching experience, teachers with a higher level of education (Bachelor or S1 degree) and more teaching experience had similar responses, arguing that the CBC and the 1994 curriculum were not similar in terms of curriculum approach (item #24e). In addition, teachers with five or more years of teaching experience had equivalent responses about the differences between the two curricula. Teachers with fewer than five years of teaching experience responded that the two curricula were similar. The length of time CBC had been implemented in a school was not significant in teachers’ understanding of the curriculum. In relation to professional teacher development, the study also found that teachers with experiences more than fifteen years agreed to have INSET and plan by teachers’ forums, e.g., teacher empowerment program or PKG (28.7%) (item #21).

4.3.1.1. Curriculum diversification

Curriculum diversification deals with two issues: treatment of pupils and material development. The issue raised in the study by this item focused only on pupil treatment and more specifically
on two questions: what had the teachers been doing (Item #10) and what did they think the CBC expected them to do (Item #11).

Responses regarding issues related to learning materials were collected through teachers’ discussions emphasizing the importance of considering culture differences and gender issues. They were aware of the differences among the pupils and treated them accordingly: 84.3 percent of the teachers treated the fast and slow learners equally, 13.3 percent paid more attention to the slow learners, and 2.5 percent paid more attention to the fast learners (Item #10).

Surprisingly, when asked what the CBC expected them to do with respect to pupil treatment, 79 percent thought that more attention was to be paid to both the fast and slow learners, while 18.9 percent thought they should be more attentive to the slow learners (Item #11). The interviewed teachers, however, felt that they were supposed to take care of the differences, paying more attention both to the slow and fast learners and that fast learners were challenged to become “peer tutors” to the slower ones. Moreover, attention to every child according to their ability and motivation, particularly in the large classes, was time consuming and teachers were anxious that learning objectives would not be achieved in a timely fashion.

Teachers perceived variation of curriculum implementation in terms of diversity of culture and ethnic groups in the form of local content curriculum (57%), such as arts, crafts, music, and dance for children in the specific area (Item #25). In addition, teachers with more than five years of experience are in support of the local relevance, while those with fewer than five years of experience are not. But, these groups disagreed with the view that local content curriculum included local language(s), because children’s literacy should not be in the mother tongue.
In addition, teachers argued that they were not aware of cultural and gender issues in their teaching. With respect to cultural issues, for example, they were not much concerned about the differences in terms of students’ religious and ethnic backgrounds when selecting reading or listening texts for assessment purposes, to ensure that there was no potentially sensitive material.

4.3.1.2. Syllabus development

Two issues were raised with respect to the curriculum: whether its development curriculum was centralized or decentralized, and the differences and similarities between the CBC and the earlier curriculum of 1994. When teachers were asked about syllabus development according to the CBC (item #1), almost all of them understood that the syllabus was not to be developed at the central level (MONE): 57 percent of the teachers were for the development of the syllabus at the school level; 15 percent at the provincial level office of local government; 13 percent at the sub-district level office of local government, and 7 percent at the district level office of local government. Only a few of them (8%) were in favor of centralization (Figure 5).

When asked to compare the CBC with the earlier curriculum 1994, teachers were split in their answers: 46.2 percent said that the two curricula were not significantly different; while 53.8 percent viewed the two as being different (item #24e). Teachers’ responses regarding the differences between CBC and the previous curricula in terms of variables such as education qualification, teaching experience, and years of implementing CBC can be described as follows.

All teachers agreed that it was difficult to differentiate between syllabus and curriculum. They preferred to have the curriculum 1994 that fully described, among other things, teaching objectives, contents, suggested teaching-learning modes, etc.
Figure 5. Syllabus Development Level

With respect to the issues of curriculum diversifications, most teachers had difficulty working with the syllabus design (item #24d). Further, they argued that the syllabus design required them to plan the presentation of information according to a national curriculum. Most teachers agreed that they had difficulty in developing a syllabus particularly in examining the national curriculum based on the flow of the process of syllabus development as presented in Figure 6.

Teachers differentiated between the CBC and curriculum 1994 by saying that the 1994 was concerned with the content that was supposed to be taught and CBC focused on students’ outcomes. For example, teaching with the topic ‘environment’ will result in four learning outcomes, such as the reading skill of reciting literature in a formal style; the speaking skill of discussion based on text content; the writing skill of correcting text punctuation; and the listening skill of listening to the reading of compositions (MONE, 2003g, p.13).
Stage 1: National level: Examining the National Curriculum

![Diagram of syllabus development process]

Stage 2. School Level: Developing a Syllabus

![Diagram of syllabus development process]

Figure 6. Flow of the Process of Syllabus Development

In addition, teachers apparently perceived that the 1994 did not provide students with learning experiences in which they were supposed to demonstrate the knowledge they had
acquired. CBC, according to the teachers, was the application of life skills, including social skills and emotional maturity, which students developed as a result of their learning. Teachers noted that with CBC students turned out to be more active and responsive in learning and the classroom environment resembled real life and became fun (item #24c).

However, teachers argued that developing a syllabus was time consuming in terms of planning all of the subjects and including professional judgment regarding the appropriate depth and breadth of content according to specific required competencies (except religious education, physical and health education). With respect to shortage of learning materials, teachers agreed that they were critical elements of syllabus design. Government policy, according to them, was the most important source of instructional guidance. Whatever policy was put forth by the government, teachers perceived that they had to implement it at the classroom level.

4.3.1.3. Learning materials

What may be inferred from these findings was that, in the “cognitive” sense, teachers already understood some of the principles of the CBC, but they did not wholly understand all of the principles. Teachers’ perceptions of CBC were in congruence with their teaching practice (Table 5). Many of the respondents (40.9%) did not know that CBC did not support the following statement, i.e., “Learning materials should be different; this is because it is impossible to teach a new curriculum with the learning materials used from the 1994 curriculum” (item #5b).

Teachers still believe in traditional teaching. For example, when they were asked about the purpose of teaching Indonesian (item #6) more than half (65.4%) were in favor of teaching grammar, and only 28.7 percent expressed the idea of developing language skills like speaking, listening, reading and writing (Figure 7).
Table 5. Teachers’ Responses Regarding Learning Materials

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>5. How do you perceive the following statements concerning issues of learning materials?</th>
<th>Right</th>
<th>Wrong</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5a) Learning materials from the previous curriculum 1994 can be used to achieve student learning competency as expected in the CBC.</td>
<td>87.4%</td>
<td>12.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5b) Learning materials should be different; it is impossible to teach the new curriculum utilizing learning materials from the previous curriculum.</td>
<td>40.9%</td>
<td>59.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5c) Teaching a language, according to the 1994 curriculum, focuses on learning materials that are supposed to be taught to students. Teaching a language based on the CBC focuses on skills that students should develop.</td>
<td>93.0%</td>
<td>7.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The fact that their understanding of CBC was still at “written document” (cognitive level) and had not yet reached the “enactive” level was apparent from their response: “CBC is not quite different with the previous curriculum (content based).” Life skill as the goal of teaching was low when contrasted with “grammar” and “passing the exam.”

When life skills, as a teaching objective, was not contrasted with “grammar,” but only with “the students’ pass the exam” (item #24a), the number of teachers opting for “life skills” rose sharply to 87.6 percent, with those opposing at 16.4 percent. When teaching “grammar” was involved in the question, teachers were asked to make a list of items other than grammar that needed to be presented as teaching materials and in what order (items #8, #9).
What they listed as number one and two were grammar and punctuation/spelling; 96.9 percent of the teachers’ ranked grammar as number one, 58 percent ranked punctuation/spelling as number two (item #9). Other language skills were ranked consecutively, including reading and literature (55.6%), writing together with spelling/capital letters (52.4%), speaking skills (44.4%), and listening skills (42.8%).

In relation to text book use (item #17), teachers knew that, according to CBC, the teacher or group of teachers (36.7%), not the center (government) (24.8%), was supposed to compose the textbook (Figure 8), but when they were asked for their personal opinion (item #16), they preferred to have a single “centralized textbook” that was used nationwide (57.7% agreed, 42.3% disagreed). In contrast to their statements regarding the textbook writer, data from discussions revealed that as the major source of ideas on how to teach reading and writing, the contribution and influence of the Indonesian language textbooks was far reaching.
These textbooks have been written by people with little experience in teaching, particularly in primary school and no access to the current curriculum. In addition, the study also showed that teachers with less than five years of experience support the centralized textbook, but those with longer experience do not. Teachers were concerned about two aspects of having a single widely used Indonesian textbook (item #16). First, they were not in favor of thinking about other pupils who came from different cultures and ethnic groups from West (Sabang Island) to the East (Papua Island) of Indonesia. Second, the worst thing would be that they treated the CBC as a “syllabus” rather than as a “curriculum”; the items listed in the CBC, when developed into teaching materials, had to be followed exactly as listed and sequenced in the CBC (as they indicated in their answers to item #1) whereas they preferred that the syllabus be developed at the school. This was in contrast to their responses when asked whether or not the CBC was similar to curriculum 1994 (item #24e).
4.3.1.4. Student assessment

The two issues raised relating to evaluation and assessment dealt with portfolio and school based assessment (items #11, #12). The results indicated that teachers already understood what a portfolio was and what school-based assessment meant (item #13). Some of the teachers, however, admitted that they did not know what a portfolio was.

In addition to the two issues, most teachers (72.7%) agreed that the school exam should be designed by a group of teachers at the school (items #14, #15). Based on meetings with teachers regarding issues assessment methods, teachers consistently reported that they assessed students’ progress using objective tests only. Teachers perceived that the objective tests, such as multiple-choice and checklist type assessments, were the only way to assess students’ progress. For example, a multiple-choice test was used to assess students’ competency in writing types of essays in grade 3. A traditional test was used to assess children’s knowledge of the Indonesian language rather than their skills in using the language.

A portfolio of writing, according to these teachers, was difficult to understand and complicated the recording of student progress regarding writing competency. This was despite the fact that the CBC emphasized development of the four language skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

Teachers added that large classes created another problem in putting classroom assessment into practice. They further reported that writing skills were not assessed at the end of primary cycle examinations, such as by the national exam/EBTANAS or quarterly-exam/CAWU and this led them to see little need for developing these skills in children.
4.3.2. Issues of implementation of CBC

This section describes several issues regarding the implementation of CBC (research question 2). As for the view that the CBC was very demanding and burdensome (item #24d), almost half of the respondents (43.4%) agreed and slightly over half (56.6%) disagreed. Based on the discussions with teachers, they all agreed that teaching using CBC was very burdensome, mostly having to do with the administrative tasks.

There are several reasons why teachers found using the CBC to be burdensome in teaching. For example, under the CBC teaching in primary education and the schooling situation pointed to language as being the major problem for developing literacy and numeracy skills in the early grades. Only a small percentage of children speak the Indonesian language as their mother tongue, and only a small percentage of their families and communities use this language at home and for everyday communication. In addition, teachers also agreed that most children entering the first grade of primary school have a heavy workload: (1) they must learn to communicate in Indonesian, (2) they must start to develop literacy skills in the Indonesian language, and (3) they also have to learn other subjects through this new language.

Teachers added that for those children with access to a kindergarten, the task was a little easier: (1) they had pre-literacy and numeracy experience, (2) they had begun to develop more formally their fine motor skills for handling pencils through drawing, coloring, handling smaller items, (3) they had learnt a little of the Indonesian language, and (4) they were used to being in a more formal learning atmosphere, and sitting and working. Teachers agreed in contrast to the 1994 curriculum that CBC hampers the development of oral/aural skills in Indonesian by implying that literacy is the more important skill to develop. Therefore, when the ability to read
is the main criterion for progressing to the next grade, teacher perceive that oracy (or spelling skills) is reinforced.

In addition to the teaching pedagogy, teachers agreed that current teaching (using 1994 curriculum) in primary schools was characterized by a didactic, whole-class frontal style of teaching. Great emphasis was placed on the transmission of knowledge and content and very little on developing children’s strategies to find and apply knowledge, learn how to learn, problem solve, read with comprehension, use a range of resources including the rich local environment or become independent learners.

Teachers also agreed that they found it difficult to organize their teaching or their classroom so that they could easily assist individuals. Rather, they were used to teaching the whole class, regardless of their pupils’ progress or lack of it. There was very little attention given to children’s needs as individual learners and little recognition that children enter school with ideas, opinions and conceptions about their world. It was rare for more than one topic to be covered in a lesson or for links to be made to previous lessons or to other areas of the curriculum. A variety of activities within a sixty-minute period was also rare. Much time was wasted as children sat idle, watching their friends perform an activity at the board. Faster learners had to wait for others to finish, with no extension activities to keep them meaningfully occupied. Teachers also reported that they did not know how to make use of this prior knowledge and make links with their lessons. The CBC, in contrast, tends to open creativity in teachers in terms of selecting learning materials, learning methodology, assessment, etc.

This was contradicted by the assessment system, which relied very heavily on multiple choice testing. Some children and teachers may have had to use the “local language” up to the later grades of primary school. Children studied several subjects (i.e., religion education, moral
education, Indonesian language, math, science, social studies, arts, handicraft, and health education) in the national curriculum but the Indonesian language and math both received more hours of teaching time per week. Classroom activity was driven by the term tests and these were mostly “multiple-choice” tests.

These tests had a strong impact on teaching-learning activities and on what little formative assessment teachers felt able to carry out during the normal course of their teaching. Teachers agreed that under the 1994 curriculum the great emphasis of assessment was on finding out what facts and knowledge students had remembered; the purpose of assessment was mainly to report a result to parents, the school, employers, etc. With the CBC, there was still a need to assess the knowledge and facts that students had acquired, but there was more emphasis on finding out whether students could use, apply and reflect on what they had learned. There was still a need to report to interested people and groups, but there was more emphasis on using assessment information for feedback into the teaching and learning process, to support students in progressing along a learning path.

Most teachers agreed (94.8%) that implementation of the CBC encouraged teachers to work collaboratively with their colleagues for such sharing of learning experiences (item #24g). In addition, they agreed that classroom activities involved a hybrid of conventional and standard-oriented practices.

Therefore, sharing ideas among teachers according to them was useful, such as how to incorporate a variety of teaching methods into large classes and activities so as to retain motivation, how to ensure that the majority of pupils were learning at their own level, and how to cater to the variety of learning styles and abilities within the average classroom.
4.3.2.1. Learning materials

What may be concluded from teachers’ responses “when asked what to do with the material, according to CBC,” is that they already knew that the important thing was that it was permissible to use any textbook as long as the goal was to achieve the required basic competence (items #5a and #5b). In addition to the problem of learning resources, teachers (with a variety of teaching experiences and qualifications) agreed that the CBC as a curriculum document should be accompanied by a syllabus. Teachers also reported that sometimes groups of teachers produced annual and term plans and these were then translated into daily plans, which briefly outlined classroom activities, particularly textbook page number(s). These were not very helpful in teaching and the majority of teachers did not have access to either the curriculum or to any yearly or term plans. Therefore, teachers used the textbook in place of the curriculum in their daily teaching.

In response to lack of new textbooks regarding new curriculum, almost teachers (79.7%) made use of curriculum guidelines and added some relevant topics (item #18) (Table 6). Moreover, teachers also reported that textbooks for the CBC were not yet published or available on the market. Private textbooks being sold in the market were labeled as covering the CBC, but the content was from the 1994 curriculum. In terms of textbook content, particularly in the Indonesian language, the concentration was on grammar rather than developing skills. Reading passages in these books were often too long compared with the level of individual reading skills in primary schools. Teachers used learning materials such as students’ textbooks as sources of the curriculum document in the teaching-learning process.
Table 6. Teachers’ Responses on Lack of Textbooks for CBC

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18. If textbooks are not accessible at your school and only the CBC</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>guidelines are available, I will</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a) Utilize the curriculum guidelines and teach every topic written in</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>them.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) Make use of the curriculum guidelines, but arrange the topics</td>
<td>18.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>according to my students’ needs and class level/grade</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) Use the curriculum guidelines and add some topics that are not</td>
<td>79.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>available in the guidelines</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

However, there were a small number of resources available that teachers could give to children to practice and develop their skills in the 3Rs. These restricted how the teachers could organize their class so that they would be free to work with a group of more or less able pupils.

Teachers suggested that textbooks needed to be written by teachers with primary school experience. The books should contain examples and activities related to daily life and more exercises for children to work through in order to consolidate their skills. The accompanying teachers’ books needed to contain more activities and teaching suggestions of a concrete nature, and examples of common children’s errors for teachers to look out for while teaching a topic, along with several suggestions of how to remedy those errors.

4.3.2.2. **School based assessment**

Teachers’ opinions about learning content in relation to student assessment were heavily influenced by their prior knowledge of implementing the previous curriculum. For example,
teachers with five to ten years of experience support the application of school based assessment, while those with fewer than five years of experience are against the view.

Table 7 shows that more than half the teachers (61.5%) agreed with the statement “all learning materials should be assessed” (item #7a). Most teachers (87.4%) also agreed with the statement “only materials learned by students might be assessed and if they were not, those would not be necessary to teach” (item #7b). In contrast, most teachers agreed (89.9%) when asked whether they should focus on specific skills when teaching Indonesian, such as speech and writing. However, those skills would not be assessed (item #7c).

Table 7. Teachers’ Responses on Learning Materials and Assessment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>7. How do you perceive the following statements regarding the relationship between learning materials and assessment according to the CBC?</th>
<th>Right</th>
<th>Wrong</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) All learning materials should be assessed.</td>
<td>61.5%</td>
<td>38.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) Only materials learned by students can be assessed. If those materials would not be assessed, those are not necessary to teach.</td>
<td>12.6%</td>
<td>87.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) I should teach, among other things, speech and writing skills; although, those skills would not be assessed.</td>
<td>89.9%</td>
<td>10.1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Most teachers (93%) agreed that the CBC required a school based assessment (item #12), but such an assessment had not been practiced yet in their schools. The study also found that teachers with five to ten years of experience support the application of school based assessment, while those with fewer than five years of experience are against the view. These same teachers
knew what a portfolio was, and may have even implemented portfolios in their school, but they had no idea how to score the students’ portfolios. Most teachers did not know the kind of evidence a portfolio contains, such as paper and pen assessments, projects, products and records of performances. According to data gathered from discussions with teachers, they faced two main problems in relation to the assessment.

First and most important, teachers did not understand clearly what the main purposes of assessment were. They understood that the purpose of assessment was to give an account of students’ achievement. But, not many teachers understood assessment for improving the teaching-learning process. Second, most teachers did not know how to use a variety of different assessment methods in order to enable students to demonstrate that they could use what they have learnt in different contexts. Teachers agreed that they did not much consider the variations in students’ aptitudes or differences in learning styles, e.g., with some learning better through oral instruction and some learning better through written information.

Teachers also reported that they had had difficulty integrating classroom assessment into the learning program. According to them, their students saw assessment as a “frightening” event and teachers had difficulty changing these kinds of activities, such as occasions when teachers could find out what students have learned and, if necessary, go back and review some material.

Most teachers felt that assessment performance was difficult because there were too many students in the classroom (45 students on average). Such difficulty with implementation in the classroom, for example, in informal performance assessments, required observation of a number of student performances in order to collect sufficient relevant evidence over time. Teachers, therefore, needed to focus observations on specific indicators of learning achievement, categorize behavior and record observations systematically. However, they agreed that the
school in coordination with the provincial office had designed the examination at the end of primary cycle in the last academic year 2003. It was MONE (78%) and mostly teachers (20.2%) who designed the tests (item #14).

4.3.3. Teachers’ responses on curriculum implementation

This following section describes the study findings with regards to research question 3: How do the teachers implement the CBC in classroom practice, as they perceive it in the process of adopting and adapting the CBC. This question includes the following variable, such as teacher’s qualification, school infrastructure, teachers’ professional development, and teachers’ forums.

4.3.3.1. Teacher’s qualification

The teachers’ responses to the question of which way they preferred to learn CBC, revealed that 71% were in favor of oral learning in the form of workshops or other training, while 59.8% preferred a written medium (item #4). When asked for a possible enrichment teacher program, they were willing to learn more about curriculum reform: 95% of them agreed with the idea and only 5% did not. Workshops, classroom trials, and comparative studies were the most favored methods of learning the curriculum reform. As some teachers responded that they received information regarding the policy implementation of CBC from different sources, such as INSET (64.3%), colleagues (29%), book or leaflet published by the government (28.3%) (item #2).

The findings from the meetings supported this, and teachers said further that they liked workshops more than they did trainings. They preferred the workshops because they could learn and carry out actual simulations according to the problems they faced in daily classrooms teaching or hands-on learning experience. However, when they were asked whether they were confident about teaching the Indonesian language, they responded that information they gathered
from the accessible sources was sufficient for them to teach Indonesian using the new teaching paradigm (item #3).

Almost all of the teachers responded (item #24i) that CBC required qualified teachers with teaching experience (88.9% agree). As shown in the demographic respondent, their educational background broke down as follows: 35 percent had the equivalent of a bachelor’s degree (S-1 level, a four-year university program), while the majority (43%) were “Diploma-2” graduates. Many teachers had earned their degree through the Open University distance education scheme, which entails studying alone.

Almost teachers (83.6%) agreed with the statement that the implementation of CBC makes teaching activity more challenging and lead teacher like teaching as a profession (item #24b). Therefore, teachers requested an opportunity to upgrade their qualification to S-1 levels and to be encouraged to pursue additional studies beyond S-1. What may be inferred from this finding is that, if offered the chance, these teachers were willing to pursue further studies at the university level.

4.3.3.2. School infrastructure

Most respondents (85.0%) devoted considerable resources for teaching and learning aids to implementing the CBC. Fifty-two percent of them needed extra time and energy to prepare learning materials, as CBC based textbooks for primary schools were temporarily unavailable in the market (item #23) (Table 8).

As for additional funding (item #24f), half of them (51.4%) agreed that the CBC required schools to provide additional funding, while the other half did not (48.6%). Other specific topics commented on in relation to the successful curriculum implementation included: teachers’ knowledge and skills, teachers’ motivation, continuous monitoring, professional leadership, a
well planned school program, parents’ support; less teacher to student ratio, teachers’ and parents’ association, socialization of the CBC to parents, and teachers’ sense of belonging.

Table 8. Supports for Successful Curriculum Implementation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Support</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) Teaching and learning aids are necessary</td>
<td>85.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) Extra time is needed for teachers to prepare learning materials</td>
<td>52.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) Others: parent support</td>
<td>15.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Once the schools became autonomous institutions, teachers had additional information regarding issues of school-based management/SBM, particularly in the context of curriculum implementation. However, this issue was not part of the survey. Teachers reported that SBM allowed schools to choose and decide the best ways to use the available resources effectively in order to meet their particular needs, policies and priorities. Teachers perceived the role of the principal to be that of facilitator: the principals’ approaches to communication varied from formal to informal. Some principals chose a more informal, personal approach when it came to discussing school matters with teachers and students. Others scheduled regular meetings and reviewed the progress on any current development matter or explored new areas of concern.

On the teachers’ side, they needed personal welfare, professional development and instructional support. Teachers reported that if their welfare was addressed, they could focus more attention on instruction. They were supported for upgrading their qualifications to S-1 degree levels. Some schools provided direct support for instruction by allocating funds for instructional materials, library resource development and allowing teachers to be more creative in the classroom. Teachers added that schools that expressed concern for student needs found
greater acceptance by students, parents, and the community. Student needs involved improving instruction. By providing interesting and skill developing extra-curriculum activities, the students were more motivated to attend school.

With regard to the integration of school and community, teachers reported that schools played an important social role in the community. Community in this context included the parents of the students as well as the local community or society. The Council of Support for Educational Implementation (BP3) served as the primary forum for exchange between schools and parents. At that time, relationships between the school and its parent community and BP3 were variable. The process of BP3’s work was primarily based on the principal’s recommendations. These recommendations then were reviewed in BP3 meetings and the members voted on those they wished to support both financially and as a priority issue. The principal’s recommendations were based on his/her concerns, but all reflected the thoughts of teachers, students, parents and the community. Teachers also commented that parental participation was expected to become more constructive and demanding with more cooperation.

4.3.3.3. Teachers’ professional development

The CBC, according to almost all of the respondents (95.1%), required teachers to participate in enrichment programs (item #19). When they were asked which institutions or groups should design or conduct such programs, almost half of the respondents (41.6%) were in favor of the Professional Teachers Group/PKG (Table 9).

Teachers added that professional development at the school level was actually conducted in weekly meetings led by leading teachers or principals within each school. Not all schools or groups of schools received assistance from academic teacher training personnel from universities. Teachers suggested the following topics for such meetings: development of
teaching programs, collection of resources, addressing outcomes in an integrated curriculum, similarities in competencies across subject areas, alternative teaching strategies, and alternative assessment strategies.

Table 9. Teachers’ Responses on Professional Teacher Development

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>21. Professional teacher development would be better if it could be designed by</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) Provincial level office of local government</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) District level office of local government</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) Sub-district level office of local government</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d) Schools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e) Teachers’ forums, e.g., PKG</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.3.3.4. Teachers’ forums

The study showed that there were several ways for the school to understand the CBC. First, there was a series of meetings through teachers’ forums, such as Teacher Working Group (KKG). Members of a KKG unit are usually teachers from both public and private schools. Government schools involved usually took turns hosting the regular weekly meetings of members, in which discussions are held. These meetings are mainly related to teaching-learning interactions and teaching of the important concepts of specific subjects.

Since some of primary school teachers are classroom teachers, they arrange themselves into groups of teachers according to the grade they teach and take turns presenting at the weekly meetings. For example, grade 1 teachers were scheduled for the first week; grade 2 teachers for the second week, and so on. Occasionally a competent resource person was invited to the weekly
meetings. The presence of such a person was one factor that attracted teachers to come to the forum. One interesting point to note here is that teachers were used to working based on detailed and uniform guidelines provided by the central government. Almost teachers (83.9%) agreed to have the following topics for INSET, such as how to enhance knowledge and skills in teaching Indonesian language according to the CBC; how to assemble or design test items according to the CBC; and how to develop and design learning materials according to the CBC (item #21).

Second, teachers were involved in teachers’ professional forums, such as Subject Matter Teacher Council/MGMP and Teacher Empowerment Program/PKG. These turned out to be sources of information for understanding the CBC policy (88.8% agree with the statement on item #24h: “the CBC encourages them to attend the PKG regularly”). However, some teachers commented that their experiences in attending workshops were not providing them with enough knowledge and skills in practicing the CBC in real classroom activity.

Table 10 shows that the teachers received information regarding the CBC from INSET conducted by several units under the MONE with a range of attendance from one to three times (item #19). Teachers reported in the follow up meeting that training was heavily focused on imparting content knowledge, largely using didactic methods. Further, INSET neglected the pedagogical aspects of subjects and rarely linked the materials and methods to the developmental level of the target children.

Teaching the Indonesian language, for example particularly in the early grades (1 and 2), was time consuming. INSET was not focused on discussing essential problems such as mistakes commonly made by pupils; for instance, many children were unaware of or had forgotten the standard norms of writing, especially the rules for the use of capital letters, standard punctuation and page layout with paragraphing. In the case of upper grade levels (4, 5, and 6), teachers
reported that policy implementation of the CBC was not clearly related to issues pertaining to policy implementation of teaching through the “thematic approach,” particularly in interpreting the proportion and allocation of time for the 3Rs’ and other related subjects.

Table 10. Units that Conducted INSET

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institutions</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Provincial office of MONE</td>
<td>10.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Center for Curriculum Development</td>
<td>9.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-district office of MONE</td>
<td>5.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers’ Professional Development/PKG</td>
<td>4.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>District office of MONE</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervisors</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University</td>
<td>0.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These aforementioned problems made them burdensome to the CBC, which concentrated on learning skills. Teachers suggested further that teacher training needed to stress a concentration on learning skills, particularly for the new Indonesian language curriculum, which emphasized skills development. Teachers needed more examples of activities to help children develop all four-language skills: reading, writing, listening, and speaking.

Teachers agreed that an understanding of the principal knowledge of concepts as well as principles and strategies for certain subjects was required for better implementing CBC. Regarding resource persons for professional teacher development (item #22), the study found that half of the teachers (49%) preferred to have subject matter specialists from universities followed the second choice working group (supervisors or head teachers) (43%) and subject matter teachers’ group (40.2%) (Table 11).
In addition to these presenters, they opted to have presenters from the Curriculum Development Center/CDC, MONE. Teachers added that they had received brief training on collaboration between the provinces and the CDC. External experts, according to them, were important, but not primary suppliers of instructional knowledge. Further, they reported that ongoing discussions among teachers, administrators, and external experts were viewed as occasions for struggling with the meaning of national curriculum, particularly what these ideas mean for classroom practice. However, teachers commented that their involvement in INSET so far made them knowledgeable in understanding new curriculum reform; awareness of changing teaching modes from classical to effective learning; getting new learning experiences; and working closely with other teachers.

Table 11. Institutions of Professional Groups for Conducting INSET

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution Description</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) Subject matter specialist from the university</td>
<td>49.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) Supervisors</td>
<td>9.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) Working groups: supervisors or head teachers</td>
<td>43.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d) Subject matter teachers’ group</td>
<td>40.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e) Education committee</td>
<td>15.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f) Teachers</td>
<td>25.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g) Others</td>
<td>7.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.4. Summary

This chapter shows study findings that can be categorized into two parts: 1) respondent demographics and 2) those that reflect teachers’ perspectives of CBC and those that describe issues and their expectation of the implementation of CBC. In the first category, this researcher analyzed findings based on teacher responses using percentage and chi-square. The later method was used in order to trace the relationship between demographic respondent and selected variable.

In the second category, teachers’ perspectives of understanding CBC are to be distinguished into three sets of terminology: adoption, adaptation, and implementation. The study shows that teachers’ perspectives of CBC were still at the level of “adopting,” in which teachers attempt to understand the national curriculum reform. This shows that teachers with different study backgrounds claim that they know what CBC is, while all teachers with varying years of teaching experience wanted to learn more about CBC.

These two responses contradict the statement that, when asked what was the focus of their teaching in Indonesian language, more than half of them (65.4%) chose “teaching grammar” and only six percent agree for teaching “life skills,” such as asking questions (Figure 7). Regarding implementing the CBC, teachers face problems having to do with learning materials and assessment. For example, in Tables 5 and 7 reveal the need for teachers to learn more about learning materials and school based assessment.

Therefore, teachers’ knowledge of the CBC remains at the level of adoption. Their responses to the purpose of teaching the Indonesian language, for example, show that teachers have not achieved the level of understanding either adaptation or implementation of the CBC. Another finding that shows teachers at the level of adoption in understanding CBC is their response to having the school rather than the government develops the syllabus. However,
teachers reacted to making syllabus on their own because such a task is time consuming and presents problems with learning resources as well as with text or script resources (Figures 5 and 6).

It can be concluded that teachers’ preference for the school to develop a syllabus reflects their understanding of the CBC at the level of adoption. Moreover, teachers prefer to have a “well guided” curriculum, like the previous curriculum 1994, indicating their inability to understand the CBC at the level of either adoption or implementation.

Problems that teachers face in implementing CBC relate to learning materials and school-based assessment (Tables 5 and 7). Teachers are still of the opinion that old materials cannot be used for the CBC, and new textbooks are required. It is in fact not demanded. Similarly for student assessment, almost all teachers know that they are not supposed to teach only materials that can be assessed, but almost two thirds of them feel that all learning materials should be assessed (Table 7). This indicates that teachers have not fully understood CBC at the level of adoption.

In relation to research question 2, issues that arose when teachers were confronted with the problem of school based assessment; current study found that teachers with ten years of experience support the idea of school based assessment. On the other hand, teachers with five years of experience are against the view. Teachers’ perspectives also divide the following two issues. First, it regards to centralized textbook. The study found that teachers with fewer than five years of experience support having a centralized textbook, but teachers with greater experience do not. The second relates to curriculum diversification and more specifically concern about learning material of local relevance. Teachers with more than five years of experience are in support of the local relevance; those with fewer years of experience are not.
Finally, teachers’ recommendations focus on two major issues: dissemination of CBC and teachers’ professional development. In disseminating CBC, most teachers (71%) were in favor of workshops (classroom trials and comparative studies among schools) rather than a written medium (59.8%). With regard to teachers’ professional development, two issues were raised: the topic of training; and the person or institution delivering the training. In terms of the topic of training, teachers prefer to use something from their daily class problems. The study also found that teachers prefer to have experts in subject matter for INSET, such as university, subject matter teacher, teachers’ college, rather than local government officers (Table 11).
This final chapter provides a summary of the current study as well as implications of its findings and recommendations for future research. It opens with a summary of the problem statement, research questions proposed, and major related literature themes of the study.

In the next section, summaries of the study are presented and discussed. The implications of the study are discussed in the following section in light of the study findings with suggestions for further implementation. The chapter closes with suggestions for further study.

5.1. Summary of the Study

The main purpose of the study was to describe primary teachers’ responses to the implementation of the CBC for socially and culturally diverse students while teaching bahasa Indonesia, focusing on four main issues: curriculum diversification; syllabus development; learning materials; and students’ assessment. Some suggestions were given for better national curriculum implementation in the future.

The study sample consisted of 65 public and private primary schools (Appendix E) representing urban and sub-urban communities from two provinces: Jakarta municipality and Kodya Bandung, West Java. There were 286 participant primary school teachers (classrooms teachers or subject teachers from 1st grade to 6th grade).

To accomplish the objective of this study, the following research questions were addressed:

1. What are teachers’ perspectives of the implementation of CBC regarding curriculum diversification; syllabus development; learning materials; and student assessment?
2. What issues do teachers encounter regarding CBC as they implement it?

3. How do teachers implement the CBC in classroom practice, as they perceive it in the process of adopting and adapting the CBC?

The close-ended questions called for both structured and unstructured responses. The 25 research questions and six demographics questions were designed and piloted in the five public schools at Kodya Bandung, West Java (Appendix D). Teachers were expected to respond from their perspective regarding CBC. The analysis of data findings was based on three dichotomies: adopting, adapting, and implementing.

This researcher conducted the questionnaire in two ways: First, in Jakarta, through the teachers’ workshop meeting, with 97 classroom and subject teachers from 42 primary schools (public and private). The response rate was 96.9 percent. Second, in Kodya Bandung, the research instruments were distributed directly to 189 classroom and subject teachers in 23 public and private schools. The response rate was 95.8 percent.

This researcher, visiting each school once or twice, also conducted meetings with twenty teachers from several schools in Jakarta and Bandung, with each meeting lasting one to two hours during school time. Interviewing was used to add depth and understanding to survey responses, particularly those in completed instruments.

Data were analyzed using the SPSS statistical package. Descriptive statistics were used to describe respondents and responses on the selected variables.

The following are summary of the study findings.

A summary of the study finding can be categorized into two issues: 1) the teacher’s perspective of CBC and 2) implementation of CBC: issues and teachers’ responses on further curriculum implementation.
5.1.1. Teacher’s perspective of CBC

A number of teachers’ responses reflecting their understanding of CBC, albeit in contradiction, are explainable. These seemingly contradictory findings, with respect to the issues of CBC as a whole as well as syllabus design, learning materials, school based assessment, textbook, are presented in order below and each is accounted for using the terminology used in the current study: adoption, adaptation, and implementation.

The first issue, about which teachers’ responses are in contradiction, refers to the question regarding their understanding of CBC, i.e. their responses to item (3) and item (4) of the questionnaire (Appendix D). In the former item all teachers with different study backgrounds claim to know what CBC is, while in the latter item all teachers with different years of teaching experience wanted to learn more about CBC.

These two responses, while seemingly contradictory, turn out to be on the contrary. That these two responses are in fact not in opposition is only observable upon examining the teachers’ responses of item (6): more than half of the teachers, when asked what the focus of their teaching is, chose “teaching grammar” and only five percent opted for “life skills” teaching (such as how to ask questions) (Figure 7).

Teachers’ responses to item (6) are explainable when one looks into the teachers’ “knowledge of CBC” from the viewpoint of the analytical device used in the current study. Teachers’ knowledge of CBC is to be distinguished into: the understanding of CBC at three levels: “adoption”, “adaptation”, and “implementation”.

Thus, the claim that they sufficiently know CBC is only valid at the level of “adoption.” Their responses to item (6) indicate that they have not achieved understanding at the level both
of both “adaptation” and “implementation” of the CBC. Therefore, as revealed in their responses to item (4), teachers do need to learn more about CBC (in the sense of “adaptation” and “implementation”).

A similar finding is evident in the comparison of Figures 5 and 6. More than half of the teachers in the questionnaire prefer to have “school” rather than “centralized curriculum” (Figure 5) and almost all of the teachers in the interview hold the view that the syllabus is not to be developed at the central level.

Conversely, when asked to create a syllabus on their own, they reacted with two negative responses. Not only do teachers regard syllabus design as a time consuming activity, they are also confronted with problems in finding “learning resources” as well as “text/script resources” (as reflected in Figure 5). Instead of facing such a challenge, these teachers would rather return to “Curriculum 1994”, which is more of a syllabus than a curriculum. The contradiction between the teachers’ responses in Figures 5 and 6 is also explainable in terms of the terminology of adoption, adaptation, and implementation. Teachers’ preference that the school develops the syllabus reflects their understanding of CBC at the level of adoption, while their return to Curriculum 1994 is a sign of their inability to understand CBC at the level of either adoption or implementation.

When in response to item (4) the teachers wanted to learn “more” of CBC, what more do they need to learn? Table 5 reveals the need for teachers to learn more about learning materials, while Table 7 indicates teachers’ expectations to learn more about assessment. Almost all teachers know the difference between Curriculum 1994 and CBC with respect to how to treat the learning materials. Half of the teachers, however, are of the opinion that old materials cannot be used for the new curriculum and that a new curriculum requires a new textbook – something
which in fact is not required by CBC. As for assessment, almost all teachers know that they are not supposed to teach only material that can be assessed (item #7c).

Conversely, however, almost two thirds of them hold the view that all learning material should be assessed (item #7a). Thus contradiction, as apparent in Table 7, indicates that the teachers have not fully understood CBC even at the level of adoption. Furthermore, they also lack an understanding at the level of implementation, as reflected in the follow up (probing), as exemplified by the following statement: While admitting that the only type of test they have been using is an “objective test”, they also expressed a need to learn how to test large classes.

Contradictory responses also came to light when the teachers were confronted with the issue of “school based assessment”. Teachers with five to ten years of experience support the application of “school based assessment”, while those with fewer than five years of experience are against it. Teachers with greater experience admitted that such an assessment has not been a common practice in schools.

Thus, it can be inferred from these findings that teachers with fewer years of experience – those at the level of adoption – lack an understanding of CBC with respect to school-based assessment. As for the issue of “portfolio”, almost all teachers claim they understand what portfolio is and that they have already applied portfolio to their classroom. However, it is not clear for them what to do with or how to score portfolio. Assistance at the level of implementation is what they really need.

Teachers’ views also differ with respect to two other issues: First, whether there should be one textbook for the whole country, i.e. whether the textbook should be centralized. Teachers with fewer than five years of experience support having a centralized textbook, but those with longer experience do not.
Second, regarding “curriculum diversification”, and whether content (material) should have local relevance. Teachers with more than five years of experience support local relevance, while those with fewer years of experience do not.

5.1.2. Issues of implementation of CBC

Teachers’ suggestions address two major issues: dissemination of CBC and teachers’ professional development. When asked the best means of disseminating CBC, teachers preferred CBC policy to be delivered orally rather than in written form: 71% were in favor oral learning in the form of workshops, while 59.8% preferred a written format (item #4). Workshops, classroom trials, and comparative studies among schools were the most favored methods of learning the curriculum reform.

When coming to terms with teachers’ professional development, of the two issues raised, the topic of greatest interest and the type of person needed to deliver or to lead the discussion of the topic, teachers have the following responses. The topic of training should be something arising from “classroom problems” rather than “conceptual explanation” or “theoretical discussion”, as they used to do in the past. Skill learning is also a topic teachers think they need for their professional development; particularly test composition and material development (83.9%).

Another topic they call for is knowledge and skills in teaching Indonesian according to CBC. Those who yearn for enhancing knowledge and skills in teaching Indonesian are teachers with fewer than fifteen years of experience and teachers who have graduated from secondary teacher school education program (SPG).
5.1.3. Teachers’ responses on curriculum implementation

When asked their preference of presenters or source persons for the “empowerment program” or “in-service teacher training” (INSET), teachers with more than five years of experience prefer to have such meetings (discussions or workshops) with their fellow teachers in the “Teacher Empowerment Program” (PKG), rather than with the local government officials.

Teachers with fewer than five years of teaching experience, however, are in favor of having a university expert lead them in increasing their knowledge of subject matter and skills of teaching methodology through the teacher professional development. Overall teachers favor resource persons, like subject matter specialists (49%), a working group of superintendents/principals (43%), and subject matter teachers (40.2%) as shown in Table 11.

5.2. Implications

The data presented in the previous chapter signal the importance of training and professional development for teachers. A primary goal of education reform in general and the national curriculum effort in particular is to impact positively on schools, teachers, students, and the education process implemented in the classrooms. As Fullan & Hargreaves (1992) argued, “Reform would not be successful until education leaders and teachers own the change process” (p.54).

The current study focused particularly on teachers’ responses on the implementation of the current national curriculum reform, CBC. The teacher’s role in the current study was considered the main factor of successful curriculum implementation because a qualified teacher is a significant variable of challenge in meeting curriculum decision-making at school.
As Schubert (in Klein, 1991) argues, teachers, as key stakeholders of innovative change, know best what they should be teaching to their students. Because of competent teachers in this era should become more competent in order to employ knowledge that students use for their daily life activities (Irvine, 2003).

5.2.1. Teacher training

Looking at the history of teacher education in Indonesia in the past (Figure 4) and teachers’ experiences in implementing CBC, it seems that teachers had been conditioned to implement policies based on a top down approach and await instructions or guidelines to be downloaded to them. As Hargreaves (1995) commented, “teachers are afraid of drastic innovations, partly because they prefer the familiar, and partly because they vested interests of most people are normally bound up with the existing set-up” (p.72). It can be assumed that the appointments of teachers in the past were not based primarily on their professional ability, and they were not accustomed to handling the current reform in limited conditions, such as shortage of school resources.

Government efforts to upgrade the quality of primary school teachers with a two-year education after secondary school or Diploma-2 in 1989 appears not to have made a significant impact on teachers’ competency in teaching main subjects (MONE, 2003f). On the other hand, the strategic means of developing qualified human beings is a goal of education, and teachers are one of the stakeholders of education.

Therefore, teachers and teacher education programs play a strategic role in the attempts to improve the quality of human resources. In response to the topic of the current study, the implementation of national curriculum reform in the context of decentralization depends greatly on the availability of local governments from each respective province to implement it according
to the availability of their resources, including teachers (UNDP, 1994; Semiawan & Natawijaya, 2000; Yeom et al., 2002; & UNESCO, 2003a).

For that reason, professional groups at the lowest level of the Indonesian education system (i.e., the schools) include the Teacher Working Group of primary school teachers (KKG) and Subject Matter Teacher Council of secondary teachers (MGMP) should be maintained in order to discuss, and to assist teacher in facilitating technical problems of implementing a national curriculum. So, teachers will have a greater opportunity to make decision for implementing national curriculum for classroom teaching.

Turning to the study findings, they show that teachers’ understanding of CBC was perceived differently. Most teachers from all backgrounds and experiences know the CBC well enough at the level of adoption to have responded that teaching “grammar” was more important than teaching “life skills” to students learning the Indonesian language. Lack of teachers’ understanding of learning materials and student assessment were also identified as problems in curriculum implementation.

The latter finding can be interpreted as teachers not fully understanding the CBC at the levels of both adaptation and implementation. Teachers suggested that training should be conducted in the form of workshops rather than through written materials. Mostly teachers prefer to have in-service teacher training (INSET) for further development. Thus, the INSET has to be in effective in keeping teachers with regularly up-to-date and improving of teaching competence about knowledge of particular subjects.

5.2.2. Teacher’s professional development through INSET

In response to the needs of teacher training through teacher professional development for further implementation of CBC, the following INSET should be described in several components: aims;
working conditions; responsibility structures; training approaches (includes didactic approaches); topic of training; and teacher prospects for further career options.

- Aims of INSET

The INSET should emphasize the qualitative improvement of the professional abilities of primary school teachers. There are various objectives to be derived from the aim to improve quality. They can be subsumed by the extension of scientific and didactic knowledge and the corresponding professional skills teachers need in their capacity as agents of knowledge transfer and producers of new knowledge.

In response to study findings regarding the issue of treating student’s learning, the objective of INSET should focus on equipping teachers with pedagogical, psychological and sociological components aimed at enabling them to communicate with young learners. Therefore, INSET should also provide teachers with the importance of understanding and knowing the learners (Paine, 1990). In addition, teachers should have competencies in coping with the “school” and the “social environment” beyond the “classroom.” As Green and Cynthia (1995) argue that teachers need to encourage students to see social conditions as problematic, as well as to facilitate “classroom dialogue”, which form obstacles in their lives.

- Working conditions of the INSET

In response to study findings regarding teachers’ needs to learn more about CBC in order to update their knowledge, this will have an impact on working conditions of the INSET, such as dichotomy between the teacher’s need to continuously update his/her qualifications and the absence of mandatory requirements, which is caused, in part, by budgetary concerns. Making mandatory further training in organized forms requires legislative bodies at various levels to provide financial means to do so.
Looking more deeply into the problems of teacher autonomy (in the decentralization context) and teacher self-awareness as well as social status of teachers, certain trends from supervisory to advisory of inspection for teachers are revealed.

- Responsibility structures of the INSET

The current study’s findings show that units conducted for INSET are mostly derived from the government institutions, such as provincial office of MONE, Center for Curriculum Development/CDC, Sub-District Office of MONE. Based on these study findings, INSET is clearly considered to be an instrument of national policy, initiated and conducted by steering agencies formed by central institutions that are grouped around the MONE.

At the opposite end of the spectrum, the study also showed that initiatives take place at the “grassroots” level in individual schools. According to government policy regarding decentralization, the policy actors – “the local governments” (including schools) and the Curriculum Network Group (CNG) – should build a strong collaborative teamwork of professional agents of change for improving teacher quality.

In addition, findings recorded that teachers also expect two types of trainers: (a) university experts, and (b) PKG or MGMP resource persons. In this respect, there three things the local governments should do. First, there should be a strong network between local governments (primary schools under supervised local governments) and universities/teacher colleges. This network should create opportunities for local officials (at district level), universities and other educational stakeholders to shape and take ownership of programs in order to provide effective INSET in the decentralization context.

Second, local governments should conduct an inventory of teachers’ needs for improvement as well as their problems. Third, local governments should encourage collaboration
among interschool teachers to participate actively in teachers’ meetings between schools. This collaboration among the experts (university/teacher colleges, teacher forum) should serve as teamwork and to focus attention on shared purposes.

Between the “initiatives from above” and the “initiatives at the grassroots”, diverge arrangements at local governments as to whether these “intermediate” agencies mainly reinforce national policies, or are orientated toward supporting local innovation. The study findings found that “teachers’ involvement in INSET made them knowledgeable of understanding CBC; awareness of changing teaching modes from classical to effective learning; getting new learning experiences; and working closed among other colleagues.”

Based on these findings, it showed that there is a direct correlation between the responsibility structure and the institutional models. Whereas centralized agencies, such as MONE, tend to establish and maintain specific governmental institutes for INSET, grassroots-oriented initiatives prefer local arrangements. Two areas of training are necessary for the training to be beneficial to the classroom practice: within the school and between the schools.

First, the principal of each school should compile a regular report of “need analysis” of the teacher. Second, local governments should build a mechanism for monitoring and evaluating teacher performance after the training. Therefore, school-based INSET initiatives should be created in response to teachers’ needs for qualitative improvement in professional abilities as well as skills of teachers. In this context, it is useful to consider “private” sector (as opposed to “public”) groups, such as teacher associations or religious missions (Islam organization or churches), to conduct the INSET program.
• Training approach of the INSET

The study showed that in attending workshops were not providing teachers with enough knowledge and skills in practicing CBC in real classroom settings, for those who were used to working with detailed and uniform guidelines set up by the central government. This finding connotes that the classical method used by INSET has been a lecture format, which still prevails in the course, which are still organized by the government.

“Innovative models” lectures are enriched by seminars and working groups, which, however, often prove to be an extension of the lecture’s demonstration, thereby limiting the trainer’s role to that of a passive “trainee.” These suggestions for conducting training, in response to the study findings, focused on imparting content knowledge using a “didactic method.”

In order to meet teachers’ expectations, topic of training should cover the following two topics: 1) How to “realize/translate” CBC competencies into classroom practice (including instruction);

2) How to improve teachers’ skills in conducting assessments.

The first topic might focus on issues such as how to make use of old materials to serve the principles of the CBC and how to develop a variety of “text/scripts” (oral or written) into activities, for both inside and outside classroom. This topic becomes the cornerstone of school improvement. Meaningful curriculum development should involve teachers.

As Gordon (2004) argued, “The involvement of teachers in this curriculum development will facilitate a sense of a teacher’s ownership and help the teacher understand and effectively apply new curriculum” (p. 237). Teachers cooperating in translating the national curriculum can share knowledge, engage in mutual problem solving, and help each other to elaborate
competencies into the classroom practice. Because teacher’s input in the curriculum is required if the curriculum is to be successfully implemented in particular settings (Bird, 1986).

Second topic of training: Follow up the government’s policy of “school-based assessment”, respond the teachers’ need to test large classes, and make use of the fact that the “objective test” is the only type of test teachers’ use. This topic should help empower the teacher to be a better test maker (evaluating and improving tests they themselves made). Based on study findings, teachers had difficulty in designing a portfolio as a purposeful collection of students’ work that illustrates their efforts, progress, and achievements. Portfolio as “authentic assessment” provides a more valid assessment of holistic learning in order to provide better evidence of the ability of students to be successful in real-life situations.

In addition, teachers in the current study have different expectations in terms of areas topics they regard as needing self-improvement. The choice of topic depends on their type of experience (fewer than or more than five years of experience) and study background (SPG or S1 graduate). It is for this reason that the choice of the topic for the training should take into account the types of trainees and their level of experience.

- Teacher prospect for further career

It is a fact that INSET is regarded as an essential component of a teacher’s professional task, in particular, and, teacher professional development in general. The current study showed that teachers with different study backgrounds and levels of teaching experience agreed that they all need to learn more about the national curriculum. It can be recommended, however, that this may be the result of the tension between the mandatory and voluntary quality of teachers’ involvement in INSET that leads to the search for “additional” incentives, such as credits for their future career.
In addition, school-based INSET should also be considered to be only one solution in response to teachers’ needs for instant information regarding the implementation of curriculum. As described earlier, that CBC—which is diversified in terms of implementation—prompted teachers and principals to exert greater initiative and to tailor their instruction to the needs of students (Psacharopoulos, 1985; Schubert, 1991; Bimber, 1993; Jacobson & Berne, 1993; and RAND’s Institute on Education and Training, 1995).

Therefore, school principals would be acting as initiators of school-based INSET in their respective schools by making use of existing teacher professional groups, such as teacher forum (KKG, PKG, and MGMP) or Curriculum Core Group (CCG). However, the question of how to prepare principals for this new task and for their specific professional tasks seems to be open. In this respect one should pay attention to current efforts brought about by the experience that in modern societies effective principals cannot just rely on former “good” teaching practices when assuming new functions in the schools.

Moreover, paying attention to an essential deficiency with regards to both initial and in-service training, namely the training of teacher trainers, such as teacher forum (KKG) be identified with special regard to the fact that teacher trainers are appointed only on the basis of their careers, which are often totally lacking in school experience. Therefore, local governments together with the schools should encourage experienced teachers to become teacher leaders, assuming that they are qualified in terms of both knowledge of subject and teaching experiences.

This argument proposes such assumptions because, since the findings indicate that universities have been appointed as one source of trainers for the INSET, the problem of poorly prepared trainers has reached wider dimension. This overall deficit is often aggravated by the
fact that the university lecturers are not familiar with the classroom problems that teachers faced in daily teaching.

5.3. **Recommendations for Future Study**

The study collected data about teacher responses to national curriculum reform in the primary school. Also, the study identified teachers’ perspectives on aspects such as curriculum diversification; syllabus development; learning materials development; and student assessment as well as gathering teachers’ comments on issues regarding the implementation of the national curriculum. Future study in the following areas would contribute to the results of this study:

First, the current study indicates that teacher’ perspectives on the national curriculum were still in the level of “adoption.” Future studies focusing on in-depth analysis of how teachers adapt and implement a national curriculum in the classroom practice need to be conducted.

Second, the current study found that teachers prefer to use a curriculum designed by the school; the current policy of the national curriculum suggests that schools should develop a curriculum according to the availability of local resources. However, the current study also showed that those teachers who responded to the development of a curriculum in the form of syllabus faced several problems, such as shortage resources. Therefore, it will be necessary to carry out case studies on the development of a syllabus at local levels (school or district), in particular subjects by local resources, such as groups of master teachers, principals, or professional (MGMP, PKG, or CCG).

Third, teachers perceived that the assessment of instruction is an essential element of instructional guidance. However, the study found that teachers’ perspectives of assessment included a tool for assessing only material that students learned and none for assessing the
complete learning process, particularly when teachers were asked about the implementation of portfolio format. Traditional standardized tests have been used to measure student achievement. In addition, student assessment in the form of portfolio was not a common practice among nearly all teachers, and has not been used in the classroom since the implementation of national curriculum in Indonesia. Considering the importance of assessing students’ progress during their learning process, further study should focus on the process of conducting student assessments in the classroom, such as planning, implementing, and reporting the results of students’ progress.

Fourth, in relation to learning materials, the study showed that learning materials in the form of textbooks were important in the implementation of the curriculum. Despite this finding, textbooks used in the classroom were not consistent with the purpose of teaching as stated in the national curriculum. For example, teachers reported that many Indonesian language textbooks for primary school focused on grammar rather than on developing language skills. Teachers felt that there were inconsistencies between the guidance received from textbooks and from the national curriculum framework. The government published some of the textbooks, while other texts were published privately. Few textbooks exist concerning the implementation of the current national curriculum; therefore, an in-depth study regarding the use of textbooks (e.g., Indonesian language textbook) in the classroom is necessary with a focus on consistency between what is stated in the national curriculum framework and what and how the textbooks describe those policies. In addition, such a study could investigate the possibility of teachers as textbook writers and evaluate those textbooks written by teachers.

Fifth, the current study also found a need for further teacher training in order to comprehend the implementation of the curriculum in the classroom. The importance of INSET
seemed useful for teachers in adopting the new national curriculum and later adapting and implementing it in classroom practice.

In doing so, study of teachers training through the INSET will be useful for further training. The following issues of INSET for further study are: a) program objectives: staff development (professional and/or personal), curriculum development, and improvement of instruction; b) modes of delivery: school designed courses/workshops, college or university designed courses/workshops, group of schools, teachers’ forum programs (like KKG, MGMP), Curriculum Core Groups); c) trainers who develop, direct, and teach the program: master teachers, principals, supervisors, university professors, or consultants; d) advantages for the teachers: pedagogical experimentation, access to materials, inter-school collaboration, sharing ideas among participants, theme focus, cost efficiency; e) should INSET be: voluntary, mandatory, or based on teacher-contributed or teacher-compensated time.
APPENDIX A: Exempt and Expedited Reviews IRB
TO: Erry Utomo

FROM: Christopher M. Ryan, Ph.D., Vice Chair

DATE: July 9, 2004

PROTOCOL: "Challenges Towards Curriculum Reform in Decentralization Context: How Teachers' Response to 'Curriculum-Based Competency' (CBC) and Its Practice at Schools"

IRB Number: 0406124

The above-referenced protocol has been reviewed by the University of Pittsburgh Institutional Review Board. Based on the information provided in the IRB protocol, this project meets all the necessary criteria for an exemption, and is hereby designated as "exempt" under section 45 CFR 46.101(b)(2).

The regulations of the University of Pittsburgh IRB require that exempt protocols be re-reviewed every three years. If you wish to continue the research after that time, a new application must be submitted.

- If any modifications are made to this project, please submit an 'exempt modification' form to the IRB.

- Please advise the IRB when your project has been completed so that it may be officially terminated in the IRB database.

- This research study may be audited by the University of Pittsburgh Research Conduct and Compliance Office.

Approval Date: 07/09/2004
Renewal Date: 07/09/2007

CR:ky
APPENDIX B: Cover Letter for Conducting Survey

Subject: Conducting Survey

July 20, 2004

Dear Teachers,

I am a graduate student at University of Pittsburgh. This questionnaire has been developed as a part of my doctoral dissertation. It is designed to describe the implementation of current national curriculum -CBC- at school. Your assistance in filling out the questionnaire will contribute to a better understanding of the implementation of national curriculum.

Please complete the questionnaire as directed to the best of your ability, regardless of your experience so far in implementing this curriculum in the classroom. If you are unsure about how to answer some of the questions on the enclosed questionnaire, please feel free to receive help for answering these questions.

Your identity and all responses to this questionnaire are strictly confidential. Moreover, all study participants will be notified about the final report when it is completed.

I thank you in advance for your cooperation.

Sincerely,

Erry Utomo
APPENDIX C: Pilot Test Copy of the Instrument

IMPLEMENTATION OF CBC AT PRIMARY SCHOOL

The purpose of this survey is to determine primary school teachers’ response of the implementation of CBC. The results of the study will be used for further implementation nationwide.

The individual responses to this survey will remain confidential and anonymous. Therefore, you feel free to response your choices according to the stated statement.

Thank you for your participation

Directions:
Beside each of the statements presented below, please circle whether you strongly Disagree (SD); disagree (D); are undecided (UD); agree (A); or strongly agree (SA)

Statements SD D UD A SA

A. Teachers’ beliefs of the implementation of CBC

1. Teacher should implement CBC when directed to do so by:
   Central government ................................. SD D UD A SA
   Provincial government ............................. SD D UD A SA
   District government................................. SD D UD A SA

2. A teacher has personally participated:
   in the development of CBC ....................... SD D UD A SA
   in the development of local curriculum ............ SD D UD A SA

3. A teachers works collaboratively and closely in developing curriculum with:
   Colleagues .......................................... SD D UD A SA
Principal and other key-teachers

4. Time for collaboration with peers’ teachers is necessary for effective implementation

5. A teacher has autonomy to choose the content taught to his/her students

6. A teacher can teach equally well in all of his/her certification

7. Experience of teaching helps you enough to implement CBC

8. A teacher feels confident to implement CBC when he/she has expertise in particular content

9. A teacher feels confident in implementing CBC when he/she understands it

10. Adequate professional development should be provided when introducing new curriculum

11. Textbooks and other learning materials should be correlated to the new curriculum

12. Instructional materials supportive of the new curriculum should be available

13. The amount of planning time provided for school piloting is relevant to the effective implementation of CBC before disseminating nationwide

14. Time collaboration with groups of teachers/peer teachers is necessary for effective implementation of CBC

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15. A longer time is necessary in planning to prepare implementation of CBC…………………

16. The kabupaten/district measurement of student achievement of CBC ensures teachers teach the new curriculum…………

17. The level of student achievement should be based on a learning competency written in national curriculum…………

18. A teacher will teach what he/she wants to teach………………

19. A teacher works collaboratively in developing local curriculum subjects with peer teachers, other teachers, and committee school committee members………………

20. A teacher considers social and cultural conditions as well as students’ potential when teaching…………

21. Textbooks should be written according to social and cultural conditions……………………

22. A teacher feel confident if he/she holds qualified credentials bachelor/S1 degree in teaching CBC………………

23. Reading competency in the Bahasa Indonesia is necessary for children to follow………

24. Textbooks should be written in accordance to the competency required in national curriculum…………

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B. Teachers’ responses regarding the implementation of CBC

25. Methods of teaching as well as the methods of assessment should be subjected to whole school decision-making………

26. Children should have direct experience of using bahasa Indonesian in a wide range of contexts across the curriculum

27. Teaching reading should be taught through another resource, like magazines, newspaper, folk stories, history, literary work, real event stories, reference books, etc……………

28. Teachers can manage time freely……………………

29. Teaching students reading in local language(s) has significant impact on teaching reading in bahasa Indonesia………………

30. The classroom teacher has to teach a local language subject

31. Teachers understand the impact of cultural diversity on classroom content, context, and instructional strategies………

32. Teachers always consider social and cultural conditions of locality concerned in teaching reading to the students …

33. The teacher selects appropriate literature of thematic reading

34. Assessment should include that of pupils’ attitudes toward reading bahasa Indonesia……………………

35. I need special guidelines for assessing students’
achievement..................................................  SD  D  UD  A  SA

36. Teachers use a variety of methods to assess students’ achievement..................................  SD  D  UD  A  SA

37. Teachers should assess on the basis of pupils’ learning based on products rather than the learning process……  SD  D  UD  A  SA

38. When a students get better grade, it is because I found better ways of teaching ..........................  SD  D  UD  A  SA

39. Teachers are not influence on student achievement ...............  SD  D  UD  A  SA

40. When students get higher grade, it is because I am better in teaching approaches ……  SD  D  UD  A  SA

41. If a student reading quickly, this because I knew steps in teaching reading………………  SD  D  UD  A  SA

C. Policy and support infrastructure

42. Reading skills are included in national curriculum……  SD  D  UD  A  SA

43. Reading skills are included in the textbook……………..  SD  D  UD  A  SA

44. Reading skills are included in the test……………………  SD  D  UD  A  SA

45. Reading skills are important for children to learn………..  SD  D  UD  A  SA

46. Reading skills always been taught in class…  SD  D  UD  A  SA

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47. The students need knowledge of these skills for future classes……………….. SD D UD A SA

48. Indonesian language subject standards are clear enough… SD D UD A SA

49. Professional Teacher Development is encouraged by the Kabupaten/district…………………………………………………… SD D UD A SA

50. The principal provides me with professional development opportunities……………………………………………… SD D UD A SA

51. Teacher collegiality within school or district encourages me in my professional development ………………………………..SD D UD A SA

52. Instructional materials selected depend on a national standard………………………………………………………… SD D UD A SA

53. INSET deals with problems I have in daily teaching ……… SD D UD A SA

54. INSET relates to problems of teaching and assessment………………………………………………………………… SD D UD A SA

55. Specialized teachers must be provided with materials to teaching local language(s)…………………………………….. SD D UD A SA

56. I should teach reading appropriately …….. SD D UD A SA

57. Teacher meeting help me to solve teaching problems…… SD D UD A SA

58. Book availability in my school supports the process of teaching……………………………………………………………….. SD D UD A SA

59. Teachers have easy access to learning resources at school…… SD D UD A SA

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60. Learning resources like magazines, newspapers, journals, etc support my teaching efforts…………………

61. Materials used for this class written by a commercially published textbook……………………..

62. Materials designated for this class were developed by Kabupaten/districts, school, or other non-commercial source

63. Materials have been selected or adapted by teacher, from a commercially published textbook……………………

64. Materials have been selected or adapted by the teacher, from a non-commercial source……………………

65. Materials have been developed by the teacher………………

Thank you for your participation in this study.
APPENDIX D: Revised Survey Instrument
(Indonesia version):

Survai Pelaksanaan Kurikulum Berbasis Kompetensi (KBK) di SD

Penelitian ini bertujuan menjaring informasi tentang pengalaman guru selama ini dalam melaksanakan KBK di SD. Hasil penelitian ini akan digunakan sebagai bahan masukan pengambilan kebijakan lebih lanjut mengenai pelaksanaan kurikulum di sekolah.

Jawaban Saudara dijamin kerahasiaannya. Oleh karena itu, jangan ragu-ragu memberikan jawaban sesuai dengan kenyataan yang sebenarnya.

Petunjuk: Mohon diisi informasi berikut sesuai pernyataan yang ada.

1. Domisili Sekolah

   Propinsi : ………………………………………………….
   Kabupaten/Kota : ………………………………………………….
   Nama sekolah : Negeri/Swasta……………………………………
   Alamat sekolah : ………………………………………………….
   No. telepon atau E-mail : ………………………………………………….

2. Jenis Kelamin

   Perempuan  □

   Laki-laki  □

3. Umur

   Kurang dari 35 tahun  □

   35–44 tahun  □
4. Pendidikan Terakhir

- [ ] Tamat SMU atau sederajat
  Spesifikasi/Jurusan: …………………………………………………

- [ ] Tamat Diploma (D-1/D-2/D-3)
  Spesifikasi/Jurusan: …………………………………………………

- [ ] Tamat Sarjana (S1)
  Spesifikasi/Jurusan: …………………………………………………

- [ ] Tamat Sarjana Utama (S2)
  Spesifikasi/Jurusan: …………………………………………………

- [ ] Tamat Doktoral (S3)
  Spesifikasi/Jurusan: …………………………………………………

5. Status Pembahan

- [ ] Guru Mata pelajaran: ……………………Mengajar di kelas (1 s.d. 6)

6. Pengalaman Mengajar

- [ ] Kurang dari 5 tahun

- [ ] 5 - 10 tahun

- [ ] 10 - 15 tahun

- [ ] Lebih dari 15 tahun

Petunjuk:

Beri tanda silang (X) pada pilihan Saudara dan isilah tempat yang kosong sesuai dengan pengetahuan atau pendapat Saudara.

1. Menurut pendapat saya silabus sebaiknya dikembangkan di tingkat (Pilih satu saja)
   (a) Pusat
   (b) Provinsi
   (c) Kabupaten/kota
   (d) Kecamatan
   (e) Sekolah

2. Saya tahu tentang Kurikulum Berbasis Kompetensi (KBK) dari (Bisa pilih lebih dari satu)
   (a) Buku KBK terbitan Depdiknas
   (b) Penataran yang diselenggarakan oleh ______________ sebanyak _____ kali
   (c) Sesama guru
   (d) _____________________________________________________________

3. Pengetahuan yang saya peroleh tentang KBK itu cukup membekali saya agar dapat mengajar bahasa Indonesia sebagaimana yang diharapkan oleh KBK (Pilih satu saja)
   (a) Setuju
   (b) Tidak setuju
4. Saya masih merasa perlu menambah pengetahuan tentang KBK (Pilih satu saja)

(a) Setuju

(b) Tidak setuju

Kalau tidak setuju, langsung kerjakan nomor 5.

Kalau setuju, tanggapi pernyataan yang berikut ini.

Penambahan pengetahuan tentang KBK, menurut saya, sebaiknya melalui (Bisa pilih lebih dari satu):

(a) penjelasan tertulis (misalnya, buku, artikel)

(b) penjelasan lisan (misalnya, penataran)

(c) _________________________________________________________________


   ____ (a) Bahan ajar boleh sama, tetapi yang penting siswa saya dapat mencapai kompetensi dasar (KD) sebagaimana yang diharapkan oleh KBK.

   ____ (b) Bahan ajar harus berbeda; sebab, bagaimana mungkin mengajar berdasarkan KBK kalau bahan ajar yang dipakai adalah buku teks yang ditulis berdasarkan GBPP yang sebelumnya?

   ____ (c) Mengajar bahasa, menurut GBPP sebelumnya, lebih menekankan pada bahan ajar apa yang harus disampaikan kepada siswa, sedangkan mengajar bahasa mengikuti KBK fokusnya pada kemampuan apa yang diharapkan dapat dicapai oleh siswa.
6. Tujuan apa yang harus saya capai dalam mengajar bahasa Indonesia? (Pilih satu saja)
   (a) Agar siswa mengetahui segala seluk-beluk tentang tata bahasa Indonesia – antara lain – apa itu “kalimat elips,” apa itu imbuhan –*kan*, kapan tanda koma atau titik digunakan.
   (b) Agar siswa dapat lulus dalam mata pelajaran bahasa Indonesia.
   (c) Agar siswa – antara lain – mampu mengajukan pertanyaan secara jelas.

7. Bagaimana kaitan antara bahan ajar dan bahan ujian, menurut KBK?
   (Jika salah, tuliskanlah S dan, jika benar, tuliskanlah B pada tempat kosong yang disediakan).
   ____ (a) Semua hal yang diajarkan di dalam mata pelajaran bahasa Indonesia harus diuji.
   ____ (b) Hanya bahan-bahan yang dapat diujikan saja yang diajarkan. Kalau bahan itu tidak akan keluar sebagai salah satu soal ujian, untuk apa diajarkan?
   ____ (c) Saya tetap saja akan mengajar – antara lain – kemampuan berpidato atau menulis surat pembaca untuk surat kabar, meskipun saya tahu bahwa tidak akan keluar dalam ulangan atau ujian.

8. Kalau saya mengajar mata pelajaran bahasa Indonesia, hal-hal yang akan saya ajarkan adalah (Isilah sebanyak yang diperlukan)
   (a) tata bahasa Indonesia
   (b) 
   (c) 
   (d) 
   (e)
9. Bagi saya, di antara semua yang disebutkan pada nomor 8 itu, yang penting adalah

(Tuliskan beberapa) _______________________________________________
____________________________________________________, sedangkan yang kurang
penting adalah (Tuliskan beberapa) ____________________________

10. Di dalam mengajarkan bahasa Indonesia, selalu saya jumpai ada siswa yang pandai (cepat
menangkap) dan ada siswa yang kurang (lamban memahami).
Menghadapi masalah ini, selama ini dalam mengajar bahasa Indonesia, saya mencurahkan
perhatian pada (Pilih satu saja)
(a) anak yang cepat menangkap
(b) anak yang lamban memahami
(a) dan (b)

11. Menurut KBK, bagaimana guru seharusnya menyikapi keadaan seperti yang digambarkan
pada nomor 10 itu? (Pilih satu saja)
(a) Saya tidak tahu
(b) Perbedaan itu diabaikan saja, yang penting mengajarkan kompetensi dasar (KD)
(c) Beri perhatian yang lebih pada siswa yang kurang mampu
(d) Siswa yang berkemampuan lebih harus diberi latihan ekstra
(e) Lakukan (c) dan (d)

12. Selama ini, kalau saya memberi nilai pada siswa saya, dasar saya adalah penghitungan dari
(Pilih satu saja)
(a) hasil mengerjakan ulangan-ulangan harian
(b) hasil mengerjakan pekerjaan rumah (PR)
(c) kemampuan yang saya amati sepanjang pelajaran dari hari pertama sampai hari terakhir
(d) (a) dan (b)
(e) (a), (b), dan (c)

13. Bagaimana cara penilaian siswa menurut KBK? (Pilih satu saja)
(a) Saya tidak tahu.
(b) Sama dengan yang saya lakukan selama ini.
(c) Menilai semua jenis kegiatan siswa.

14. Apakah pada tahun ajaran yang baru lalu, selain ulangan yang saya buat sendiri, ada juga ulangan umum bersama (UUB)? (Pilih satu saja)
(a) Ya.
(b) Tidak.
Jika ya, siapa yang membuat soal UUB itu? ______________________________

15. Menurut KBK, bagaimana tentang soal ulangan akhir tahun? (Pilih satu saja)
(a) Harus dibuat oleh kelompok guru dalam sekolah yang sama.
(b) Harus dibuat soal bersama antarsekolah.

16. Menurut pendapat saya, buku pelajaran bahasa Indonesia untuk SD sebaiknya dibuat seragam untuk seluruh Indonesia.
(a) Setuju.
(b) Tidak setuju.

17. Menurut KBK, buku pelajaran bahasa Indonesia seharusnya disusun oleh *(Pilih satu saja)*
(a) Pusat, bukan oleh Daerah
(b) Daerah, di tingkat provinsi
(c) Daerah, di tingkat kabupaten/kota
(d) Guru atau kelompok guru

18. Kalau tidak ada buku pelajaran yang tersedia, dan hanya ada buku Pedoman KBK, yang saya
lakukan adalah *(Pilih satu saja)*
(a) Mengikuti saja semua yang tercantum di buku pedoman itu, dengan urutan penyajian persis
seerti yang tertera di buku pedoman itu.
(b) Saya ikuti apa yang ada di buku pedoman itu, tetapi urutannya saya atur sendiri sesuai
dengan kelas saya.
(c) Saya ikuti apa yang ada di buku pedoman itu, dan jika menurut saya perlu untuk siswa saya,
saya tambahkan bahan yang tidak terdapat pada buku pedoman.

19. Pernahkah Saudara ikut penataran untuk meningkatkan kemampuan mengajar bahasa
Indonesia?
(a) Ya
(b) Tidak

Jika ya, penataran oleh siapa atau lembaga mana? ____________________________
Tentang apa? _____________________________________________________

Berapa lama? _____________________________________________________

Sudah berapa kali selama ini? ________________________________________

20. Menurut saya, bahan penataran yang perlu bagi kami, para guru SD, adalah (Bisa pilih lebih dari satu dan, jika perlu, bisa tambahkan pada butir e).

(a) Bagaimana meningkatkan pengetahuan dan keterampilan bahasa Indonesia yang diperlukan agar dapat mengajar sesuai KBK

(b) Bagaimana menyusun soal ujian sesuai dengan KBK

(c) Bagaimana menyusun dan mengembangkan bahan ajar sesuai KBK

(d) (a), (b), dan (c)

(e) Ada lagi yang lain yaitu:________________________________________

21. Menurut saya, cara pembinaan guru yang profesional sebaiknya dilakukan di tingkat (Pilih satu saja)

(a) propinsi

(b) kabupaten

(c) kecamatan

(d) sekolah

(e) antarsekolah, misalnya, PKG

22. Menurut saya, pembinaan guru yang profesional dilakukan oleh (Bisa pilih lebih dari satu, dan bisa tambahkan yang lain lagi.)
(a) ahli mata pelajaran dari perguruan tinggi
(b) pengawas
(c) kelompok kerja (pengawas sekolah/KKPS, kepala sekolah/KKKS)
(d) tim mata pelajaran
(e) dewan pendidikan
(f) kolega guru
(g) ______________________________________________________________

23. Agar KBK dapat terlaksana di sekolah secara optimal diperlukan (Bisa pilih lebih dari satu)
(a) alat bantu belajar-mengajar
(b) waktu dan tenaga ekstra dari guru untuk persiapan bahan ajar
(c) Ada lagi yang lain yaitu: ______________________________
(d) ______________________________

24. Bila saya diminta untuk memberikan kesimpulan tentang pelaksanaan KBK di sekolah selama ini, saya akan mengatakan pernyataan-pernyataan berikut.
(Jika setuju dengan pernyataan berikut, tuliskan S, jika tidak setuju, tuliskan TS di tempat kosong yang disediakan).

   _____ (a) KBK tidak sekadar menghasilkan siswa lulus ujian, tetapi siswa yang mampu – antara lain – menjelaskan sesuatu, mengemukakan pendapat, mengajukan pertanyaan.

   _____ (b) KBK menjadikan kegiatan mengajar lebih menantang dan membuat saya lebih suka menekuni profesi guru.
(c) KBK membuat siswa lebih tertarik pada mata pelajaran bahasa Indonesia.

(d) KBK terlalu banyak menuntut dan membebani guru.

(e) KBK tidak jauh berbeda dengan kurikulum yang terdahulu.

(f) KBK mensyaratkan sekolah untuk mencari tambahan dana.

(g) KBK membuat saya merasa perlu untuk secara kontinyu bertukar pengalaman dengan sesama guru.

(h) KBK membuat saya makin merasa perlu untuk mengikuti program pengayaan guru.

(i) KBK menuntut kualifikasi pendidikan guru yang lebih tinggi.

25. Menurut saya, untuk mengajar siswa di kelas-kelas awal (kelas 1 dan kelas 2) masih diperlukan bahasa daerah sebagai bahasa pengantar (Pilihan).

(a) Setuju.

(b) Tidak setuju.

Terima kasih atas bantuannya.
Implementation of the Competence Based-Curriculum (CBC) at Primary School

The purpose of this survey is to investigate the ways in which primary school teachers respond to implementation of the CBC. The results of the survey will be shared with policy makers in an effort to help improve implementation nation-wide.

Individual responses to this survey will remain confidential and anonymous. Therefore, please feel free to respond openly, according to the statements provided.

Thank you for your participation in this research.

Directions: Please complete the information requested below about your school and yourself.

1. School location

   Province: .................................................................
   District: .................................................................
   School name: ............................................................
   Public/Private: ............................................................
   Address: .................................................................
   Tel. & E-mail: .............................................................

2. Gender

   □ Female
   □ Male
3. Age

☐ Fewer than 35 years old

☐ 35 – 44 years old

☐ 45 – 54 years old

☐ More than 55 years old

4. Education

☐ Secondary School Program: ........................................

☐ Diploma Program: ...................................................

☐ Bachelor/Sarjana Program: ........................................

☐ Master Program: ..................................................

☐ Doctor Program: ..................................................

5. Teaching status

☐ Classroom Teacher

   Teaching class (1st – 6th grades): ....

☐ Subject teacher

6. Teaching experience

☐ Fewer than 5 years

☐ 5 - 10 years

☐ 10 - 15 years

☐ More than 15 years
7. When did your school implement the CBC:

- School academic year 2001
- School academic year 2002
- School academic year 2003
- School academic year 2004

**Directions:** Please answer the following questions by putting a cross (X) beside the closed statements and specify your comments on open statements in the space provided.

1. The syllabus would be better if it had been developed by *(Choose one of them)*
   
   (a) Central government
   
   (b) Provincial level office of local government
   
   (c) District/Municipal level office of local government
   
   (d) Sub-district level office of local government
   
   (e) School

2. I am familiar with information regarding the new curriculum CBC from *(Choose more than one and specify your answers)*

   (a) Book published by the MONE
   
   (b) INSET conducted by ______________ how many times _____
   
   (c) Colleagues
   
   (d) (Others; please specify)__________________________________
3. Knowledge that I gained about the CBC is sufficient for me to teach a particular subject, e.g., Indonesian language (Choose one)

(a) Agree
(b) Disagree

4. I think that I should have learned more about the CBC (Choose one)

(a) Agree
(b) Disagree

If you DISAGREE, go directly to item #5.

If you AGREE, please give complete the following statement.

I prefer to find information about the new curriculum in the form of (Choose more than one)

(a) Written document (e.g., curriculum guidelines)
(b) Spoken explanation (e.g., workshop)
(c) (Others; please specify)_____________________________________________________

5. How do you perceive the following statements concerning issues of learning materials?

(For the following statements, put **R** if it is Right and **W** if it is Wrong)

___ (a) Learning materials from the 1994 curriculum can be used to achieve student learning competency as expected in the CBC

___ (b) Learning materials should be different; it is impossible to teach the CBC utilizing learning materials from the 1994 curriculum
(c) Teaching a language, according to the 1994 curriculum, focuses on learning materials that are supposed to be taught to students. Teaching a language based on the CBC focuses on skills that students should develop.

6. What is the purpose of teaching Indonesian? (Choose one)
   (a) Students are able to learn certain aspects of language, e.g., grammar
   (b) Students are able to pass the exam
   (c) Students are able, among other things, to raise the question clearly.

7. How do you perceive the following statements regarding the relationship between learning materials and assessment according to the CBC? (For the following statements, put R if it is Right and W if it is Wrong).
   (a) All learning materials should be assessed
   (b) Only materials learnt by students can be assessed. If those materials would not be assessed, those are not necessary to be taught.
   (c) I should teach, among other things, speech and writing skills, although those skills would not be assessed.

8. What topics concerning the Indonesian language should be taught?
   (Please list as many topics as you feel are important to be taught)
   (a)
   (b)
   (c)
9. Which are the most important topics listed in item #8 (Specify your answer)

_____________________________________________________________________________

Which are the least important topics (Specify your answer) ____________________________

10. Which students do you focus on in your teaching? (Choose one)

(a) Fast learners

(b) Slow learners

(c) (a) and (b)

11. How would you tackle problems related to your answer item #10? (Choose one)

(a) I don’t know

(b) Students’ differences should be considered; the important thing is to teach according to the competencies required in the new curriculum

(c) I give attention to the slow learners

(d) Fast learners are given priority in terms of having extra to do exercises

(e) (c) and (d)

12. I assess my students on the basis of (Choose one)

(a) Students’ daily exams

(b) Students’ homework

(c) The total of students’ daily progress

(d) (a) and (b)

(e) (a), (b), and (c)
13. According to the CBC, what is the way to assess students’ progress? (Choose one)
   (a) I don’t know
   (b) Close to what I did before (students’ daily exam)
   (c) Students’ whole daily progress

14. Based on your teaching experience in the last academic year 2003, were school exams planned by a group of schools in your district? (Choose one)
   (a) Yes
   (b) No
   If Yes, who designed the school exams? (Specify your answer) ________________

15. According to the CBC, who should devise school exams? (Choose one)
   (a) Group of teachers at one school
   (b) Group of schools

16. Should the Indonesian language textbook for primary school be written in the same way for all Indonesian pupils who come from different ethnic and cultural entities?
   (a) Agree
   (b) Disagree

17. According to the CBC, who should design the textbook? (Choose one)
   (a) Central government
   (b) Provincial level office of local government
(c) District/municipal level office of local government
(d) Teacher or group of teachers

18. If the textbooks are not accessible at your school and only the CBC guidelines are available, I will **(Choose one)**
   
   (a) Utilize the curriculum guidelines and teach every topic written in them
   
   (b) Make use of the curriculum guidelines, but arrange the topics according to my students’ needs and class level
   
   (c) Use the curriculum guidelines and add some topics that are not available in the guideline

19. Have you ever participated in INSET to increase your knowledge of teaching Indonesian?
   
   (a) Yes
   
   (b) No

   If **Yes**, who conducted the training? ____________________What was it about? ____________

   Did the training last? ____________How many times did you participate? ____________

20. Which topics of in-service training do you consider useful for primary school teachers?

   **(Choose more than one and/or add information in the space provided)**

   (a) How to enhance knowledge and skills in teaching Indonesian according to the CBC
   
   (b) How to assemble or design test items according to the CBC
   
   (c) How to develop and design learning materials according to the CBC
   
   (d) (a), (b), and (c)
   
   (e) Other (please specify your answer) ________________________________
21. Professional teacher development would be better if it could be designed by (Choose one)
(a) Provincial level office of local government
(b) District level office of local government
(c) Sub-district level office of local government
(d) Schools
(e) School neighborhood, e.g., PKG

22. Professional teacher development should be carried out by (Choose more than one and/or you add information)
(a) Subject matter specialists from the university
(b) Supervisors
(c) Working groups: supervisors or head teachers
(d) Subject Matter Teachers’ Group
(e) Education Committee
(f) Teachers
(g) (Others; please specify) ____________________________________________

23. To make curriculum implementation most advantageous (Choose more than one)
(a) Teaching and learning aids are necessary
(b) Extra time is needed for teachers to prepare learning materials
(c) (Others; please specify) ____________________________________________
(d) _______________________________________________________________
24. I conclude regarding the implementation of the CBC at my school that

(Put A if you Agree and put D if you Disagree in the space provided)

___ (a) the objective(s) of the CBC are not only to produce students who can pass the exam, but students who are able, among other things, to explain, to raise questions, and to argue

___ (b) the CBC makes teaching activity more challenging and it makes me enjoy teaching as a profession

___ (c) my students are becoming interested in their learning, particularly in learning the Indonesian language

___ (d) the CBC makes me work extra hard and is time consuming

___ (e) the CBC is similar to the curriculum 1994

___ (f) the CBC requires the school to get more funding for curriculum realization

___ (g) the CBC makes me try to learn from other teachers’ experiences

___ (h) the CBC encourages me to attend the PKG regularly

___ (i) the CBC needs highly qualified teachers in terms of education level and teaching experience

25. It is necessary for local language(s), as a medium of instruction, to be learned by pupils in the early grades (grade 1 & grade 2)

(a) Agree

(b) Disagree
APPENDIX E: School Surveyed
<table>
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<th>Private</th>
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<td>SD. Bethani</td>
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APPENDIX F: Exempt Letter from CDC-MONE
DEPARTEMEN PENDIDIKAN NASIONAL
BADAN PENELITIAN DAN PENGEMBANGAN
PUSAT KURIKULUM
Jl. Gunung Sahari Raya No. 4 (Eks Komp. Siliwangi),
Jakarta 10002
Telepon: 3804248, 3453440 Fax. 3508084

Lamp : 1 (satu)
Hal : ijin penelitian

Kepada

Dengan hormat,

Dalam rangka penyelesaian tugas akhir disertasi doktoral, staf kami yang bernama Erry Utomo akan melakukan serangkian pengumpulan data lapangan tentang pelaksanaan Kurikulum Berbasis Kompetensi (KBK) di Sekolah Dasar (SD) yang memerlukan keterlibatan guru kelas untuk pengisian kuesioner dan wawancara. Untuk keperluan tersebut yang bersangkutan akan melakukan pengambilan data sesuai dengan jumlah guru terlampir pada tanggal

Berkaitan dengan hal pokok surat tersebut, kami mohon yang bersangkutan dapat diberikan izin untuk melakukan penelitian tersebut.

Atas bantuan dan kerjasamanya, kami ucapkan terima kasih

Kepala Pusat Kurikulum

Dr. Siskandar, M.A
NIP 130 517 632
Ministry of National Education
The National Institute for Research and Development
Center for Curriculum Development and Educational Facility
Address: Jalan Gunung Sahari Raya, No. 4 Jakarta Pusat 10710
Telephone: 3804248, 3453440; Fax: 021-3508084

Jakarta, July 23, 2004

Attachment: 1 (one)
Subject: Conducting research for doctoral study

Dear Sir/Madam

As part of his doctoral studies, a member of our staff, Erry Utomo, will conduct a field study about the implementation of CBC in primary school that requires classroom teachers’ involvement by filling out a questionnaire and being interviewing by him. He will plan to work with the number of teachers available at your school.

With reference to the subject of this letter, I hope that your school will permit him access to your school faculty.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Director,
Curriculum Development Center
Dr. Siskandar, M.A.
NIP. 130 517 632
APPENDIX G: CBC at National and Local Level

CENTRAL GOVERNMENT:

CENTRAL GOVERNMENT:

NEAB

MONE

R & D

CDC

TESTING CENTER

UNIV

TEACHERS

INSTITUTIONS

NCER

CER

D.G. PRIMARY & SECONDARY EDUCATION

PROVINCIAL LEVEL:

MONE

UNIV

TEACHERS

BOARD OF EDUCATION

CURRICULUM GUIDELINES

DISTRICT LEVEL:

MONE

SCHOOLS

SCHOOLS

SCHOOLS

Note: ↔ Structural hierarchy ↔ input dialogues
## APPENDIX H: Summary of Questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research Questions</th>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Distribution of items &amp; types of questions</th>
<th>Method of analysis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Part A:</strong> Demographic respondents</td>
<td>Gender; age (in years); educational background; teaching status; teaching experience (in years); years of implementing new curriculum</td>
<td></td>
<td>Cross-tabulation and chi-square</td>
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<td><strong>Part B:</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>1. What are teachers’ perspectives of the implementation of CBC regarding curriculum diversification; syllabus development; learning materials; and student assessment?</td>
<td>1.1. Curriculum diversification</td>
<td>#10: closed-ended #11: closed-ended #25: closed-ended</td>
<td>Frequency distribution; Percentages</td>
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<td>1.2. Syllabus development</td>
<td>#1: closed-ended #24c: closed-ended #24d: closed-ended #24e: closed-ended</td>
<td>Frequency distribution; Percentages</td>
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<td>1.3. Learning materials</td>
<td>#5: closed-ended #6: closed-ended #8: open #9: open #16: closed-ended #17: closed-ended #24a: closed-ended #24e: closed-ended</td>
<td>Frequency distribution; Percentages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research Questions</td>
<td>Variable</td>
<td>Distribution of items &amp; types of questions</td>
<td>Method of analysis</td>
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<tr>
<td>Part B:</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. What issues do teachers encounter regarding CBC as they implement it?</td>
<td>2.1. Learning materials</td>
<td>#5: closed-ended #18: closed-ended</td>
<td>Frequency distribution; Percentages</td>
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<td>Frequency distribution; Percentages</td>
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<td>3. How do the teachers implement the CBC in classroom practice, as they perceive it in the process of adopting and adapting the CBC?</td>
<td>3.1. Teacher’s qualification</td>
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<td>3.3. Teacher professional development</td>
<td>#19: closed-ended with completed answers</td>
<td>Frequency distribution; Percentages</td>
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<td>3.4. Teachers’ forums</td>
<td>#19: closed-ended #21: closed-ended #22: closed-ended #24h: closed-ended</td>
<td>Frequency distribution; Percentages</td>
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BIBLIOGRAPHY


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http://www.ibe.unesco.org/Regional/AsianNetwork/asiafine.htm

http://www.ibe.unesco.org/Regional/AsianNetwork/asiafine.htm

