



An Evaluation of Competency-based Curricula Implemented in the English Language Education Programs in Five Universities in Indonesia

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DECLARATION

I certify that except where due acknowledgment has been made, the work is that of the author alone; the work has not been submitted previously, in whole or in part, to qualify for any other academic award; the content of thesis is the result of work which has been carried out since the official commencement date of the approved research program; any editorial work, paid or unpaid, carried out by a third party is acknowledged; and, ethics procedures and guidelines have been followed.

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my loved ones:

My parents

Late father (*Bapak Waridin*) and mother (*Ibu Tri Waridin*)

My wife

Titin Kurniawati

My daughters

Ifa
Ira

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

BPM (Biro Pengendali Mutu)/ Quality Assurance Bureau
CBC (Competency-based Curriculum)
CBE (Competency-based Education)
CBLT (Competency-based Language Teaching)
CSS (Credit Semester System)
DGHE (Directorate General of Higher Education)
EED (English Education Department)
EFL (English as a Foreign Language)
ELT (English Language Teaching)
ESL (English as a Second Language)
FGD (Focus Group Discussion)
GKM (Gugus Kendali Mutu)/Quality Circle)
HEI (Higher Education Institution)
HoD (Head of Department)
HoDs (Heads of Department)
ICT (Information and Communication Technology)
IP (Ignatian Pedagogy)
IQF (Indonesian Qualification Framework)
NAA-HE (Indonesian National Accreditation Agency for Higher Education)
NSHE (National Standard for Higher Education)
PPKM (Pelatihan Pengembangan Kepribadian Mahasiswa/ Training for developing students' character)
QA (Quality Assurance)
SCL (Student-centered Learning)
SCS (Semester Credit System)
SWOT (Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats)
TCL (Teacher-centered Learning)

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ABSTRACT

The pedagogical approach of Competency-based Curriculum has only been implemented since 2000 in Indonesian Universities. Prior to that, Indonesian universities implemented the so called 'National Curriculum' which was more Content-Based espoused by the decree of the Minister of Education, No. 056/U/1994. In its design, this curriculum structure was heavily loaded with a great number of subjects dictated by the study programs. This had given rise to the notion that knowledge acquisition became vital. In 2000, the Ministry of Education changed the National Curriculum into the Competency-based Curriculum (CBC). While the National Curriculum was driven by an 'inward looking' impetus, namely the intention to develop the study programs, the idea of CBC was triggered by the external factor challenging universities to produce globally competitive graduates. In fact, according to Choudaha (2008), in a global village where the competitive landscape is leveled by globalization and technology, there has occurred a changing of the knowledge roles and the increasing complexity of work at the boundary of advanced technology, thus creating the need for knowledge workers. Given the societal and global context for the increasing needs of producing competitive graduates, the Directorate General of Higher Education (DGHE) of Indonesia recommended universities to implement the CBC. The DGHE also provided a guideline for designing the CBC including the format and steps in designing the curriculum structure, the teaching and learning techniques and the assessment process.

This research was interested in evaluating the implementation of the CBC in the five English education departments in the Yawalla province of Indonesia. The research question was "how well has the Competency-Based Curriculum policy of the Directorate of the Higher Education been implemented in the English Teacher Education Institutions in Indonesia since its introduction?" The research question was articulated in four objectives: 1) to describe the English language curriculum recently introduced into Indonesian higher education institutions; 2) to ascertain the perceptions of the implementation of the Competency-based Curriculum from the perspectives of the heads of departments, lecturers and students; 3) to ascertain the classroom practices of the lecturers and students in the teaching and learning process, including the use of teaching learning methods, the incorporation of soft skills and the assessment processes; and 4) to ascertain the challenges surrounding the implementation of the Competency-based curriculum. The research study was a program evaluation and employed an amalgamation of qualitative and quantitative methods, even though the core methodology was the use of the case study. According to Sherman and Webb (1988), the qualitative case study is a direct concern with lived, felt and undergone experience so that it fits within the general framework of qualitative research. Several data collection methods were used including interviews, focus group discussion, classroom observation, survey, and document analysis. The participants of this study were five heads of departments, ten lecturers, and 165 students selected through purposive sampling and 55 lecturers selected through convenience sampling. The data obtained through the research strategy were analyzed through SPSS statistical analysis, content analysis and data triangulation.

The results show that the degree to which the principles of CBC proposed by DGHE were implemented was different among the five English Education Departments (EEDs). Employing the fidelity approach of curriculum implementation, EED I fully implemented the principles of CBC in the areas of the curriculum structure, teaching and learning methods and the student assessment process. The other four EEDs had partly implemented the CBC principles. EED II had successfully enacted the CBC by adopting its organizational values. The formulation of the graduate competencies in all five EEDs had referred to the four teachers' competencies including professional, pedagogical, personal and social competencies. All five EEDs also attempted to equip their graduates with 'other' and 'supporting' competencies to pursue careers outside the teaching profession although there was confusion in formulating these additional competencies. As the data in the survey indicated, most lecturers believed that they had applied the student-centred learning modes in teaching. However, the data from the observation and interviews with students indicated that most of them had only implemented it partly. With regard to soft skills development, EED I and EED II had successfully designed a systematic training program for developing their students' soft skills. Only EED I had integrated the soft skills as the learning outcomes and a part of student assessment in all subjects. Other EEDs still developed soft skills through teaching several 'stand-alone' subjects. In terms of student assessment, instead of "assessment for learning", "assessment of learning" (summative assessment) still heavily characterized the assessment process in EED III, IV and V. Hence, the assessment process in these departments was inconsistent with the principles of the competency-based assessment. As recommendations, sharing ideas among lecturers was important for raising the understanding of the CBC. The student-centred learning approaches needed to be adopted by lecturers. In terms of curriculum implementation, professional development opportunities should ensure that scholarship of teaching and learning were enhanced, valued, recognized and rewarded. The Indonesian government through the DGHE needed to encourage EEDs to use the 'adaption' or 'enactment' approach for the curriculum implementation, thus providing room for innovation and alignment of positive organizational aspects of the institutions into the curriculum.

CHAPTER 1 • INTRODUCTION

This research study is an evaluation of the Competency-based Curriculum (CBC) approach implemented in the English Education Departments (EED) in five universities in Indonesia. The Competency-Based Curriculum was mandated by the Directorate General of Higher Education (DGHE) in Indonesia in 2008 to address the challenges and opportunities in the globalization era during the national accreditation program. Each university is required to show how it has operationalized the CBC philosophy.

1.1 Global Challenges Facing Higher Education

During the last two decades, the issue and processes of globalization have received substantial attention. According to Choudaha (2008), in a global village where the competitive landscape can be leveled through globalization and technology, there has occurred a changing of the knowledge roles together with the increasing complexity of work at the boundaries of advanced technology, thus creating the need for knowledge workers. As Morell (2007) points out, the position and centrality of knowledge as the primary factor of production beside capital, labor and land has become the basic premise of globalization. The shift from the key importance of capital, labor and land to knowledge capital demonstrates the metamorphosis from an industrial to a new knowledge based economy which is distinctively characterized by the reliance on competence, knowhow, skill and expertise (Choudaha, 2008). The pressing force of globalization generated by the knowledge economy leads to a particular discourse about curriculum planning in higher education. The deployment of a competency-based curriculum will be required in order to deal with the demands of the job market and to sustain the quality of human resources in the knowledge economy.

The increasing awareness of the advent of the knowledge economy is also experienced in Indonesian higher educational institutions which are viewed as places where knowledge is developed, education and the market are connected, the learning society is cultivated and international collaboration is nurtured. This significant change in the higher education sector in Indonesia continues the past strategic policies of the Directorate General of Higher Education (DGHE) in the form of: 1) the framework of higher education long term development III, 1995-

2005; and 2) the long term strategy plan of Indonesian higher education 2003-2010 and 3) a third phase which was introduced in 2008 and based on UNESCO's educational visions (DGHE, 2008).

In order to produce globally competitive graduates, the Indonesian government in 2008 through its Directorate General of Higher Education (DGHE) developed policies based on UNESCO's vision and mission for higher education in the twenty-first century (Directorate General of Higher Education, 2008). The first point in the DGHE's policy referred to the future expectation in which higher education institutions in Indonesia must cultivate the global perspective. As the globalization is leveling the competitive milieu, the nature of knowledge work is changing. As knowledge has become a primary factor in production, higher education institutions should be able to produce the human resources equipped with the necessary competences and expertise. In the Indonesian context, the high quality of human resources will also contribute to the development of a democratic and civil society. In fact, highly qualified graduates from higher education institutions are expected to take active roles in improving the social, political, and economic conditions of Indonesia.

The second point from the UNESCO vision is concerned with the principles of educational development gained through four educational values, namely: 1) learning to know; 2) learning to do (changes from skill to competence); 3) learning to live together (learning to live with others and discovering others and working toward common objectives) and 4) learning to be (learning to understand his or her own potential and using those potentials for self-development).

The third point relates to the future directions in the development of higher education institutions. Such institutions are considered as places for learning where research studies are developed and education for developing knowledge and skills is nurtured. The development of higher education institutions is also directed toward anticipating the changing job market, developing centres of excellence and enhancing international networking and collaboration.

Within these institutions in Indonesia, English teacher education cannot avoid the global challenges. This is particularly because the English language has a very significant position in Indonesia. English, as the foreign language in Indonesia, is taught to students from primary to tertiary education. Government policy to include English in educational institutions cannot be

separated from the role of English to develop the national economy. Hence, within institutions producing English teachers, English teacher education should keep abreast with the global changes facing higher education in particular and the Indonesian economy generally in order to produce professional and competent English teachers.

1.2 Status of English and Other Languages in Indonesia

Since Indonesia is an archipelago consisting of multiple ethnic groups and hundreds of local languages, there can be more than one language and culture within an island. Consequently, each person generally speaks two languages, namely, the national language ‘Bahasa Indonesia’ and a local language such as Javanese, Sundanese or Maduranese. Basically, languages used in Indonesia can be classified into three categories, namely local or vernacular languages, the national language and foreign languages (Dardjowijoyo, 2000).

The vernacular language is usually used as a means of social communication within the family. Additionally, before learning ‘Bahasa Indonesia’, most Indonesian children learn their native languages in regional areas (Dardjowidjojo, 2000). For example, in the Yogyakarta Province, the sociolinguistic context is characterized by the Javanese language and Bahasa Indonesia and is now being made richer with English as a foreign language. Linguistically, the Javanese language is marked by a complex set of speech styles called language levels which convey the nature of the relationship between addressee and speaker. Errington (1985) argues that the language levels were used by Yogyakarta residents inside and outside the still-active Javanese sultanate, manifesting an intricate symbolic differentiation status. According to Smith-Hefner (1989), during the Dutch colonial period, the speech styles of language levels in Javanese were expanded, entering into many areas of Java’s countryside areas. As an expression of the symbolic differentiation of status in Javanese society, the Javanese language requires speakers to gauge their relative social standing and select the appropriate language level. Hence, in Javanese social intercourse, asymmetric interactions emerge and are never linguistically neutral. Such a situation can be easily found in the family where children are to address their elders with a refined Javanese and in return, they would receive a lower Javanese language level.

Two major distinctions characterize the multiple speech levels of Javanese. Its basic level is called *ngoko*, which is familiar-low level and is normally learned through informal interaction

among friends and family members. Another language style is called *basa*, referring to the respect level of Javanese which is more complex and must be nurtured. *Basa* can be divided into *madya* and *krama*. The former refers to a middle respect level and the latter refers to a higher respect level. The *krama* itself can be broken down into the *krama inggil* (high *krama*) and *krama andhap* (humble *krama*). Smith-Hefner (1989) points out that the use of these two *kramas* depends on the relative relationship of familiarity and status of the interlocutors.

The national language, Bahasa Indonesia, is used as a formal language in schools and offices and is also a lingua franca with other Indonesians from different language backgrounds. Historically adopted from Old Malay, Bahasa Indonesia became the national language of Indonesia after it proclaimed independence in August 1945. Sneddon (2003) states that less than five per cent of the population of the republic spoke Indonesian in the first decades of the twentieth century. Today, however, 90 per cent of the Indonesian population can speak Indonesian. For Sneddon (2003) and Errington (1998), this suggests a significant linguistic and political accomplishment. While Javanese continues to be spoken, Bahasa Indonesia is placed in a special position as it is regarded as the formal code of official, governmental and intergroup interactions (Nababan 1991).

Foreign languages are used for international communication. Before Indonesia's independence, Indonesian people were more familiar with Dutch and it was taught in many schools in Indonesia to a restricted group of people since it was a colonialist language (Dardjowidjojo 2000). English began to be offered as a foreign language in high schools in 1950. During the initial period of Indonesia's independence beginning in 1945, the government paid little attention to education, including foreign language education. When the political situation became more stable in 1950, the Indonesian government decided to choose a foreign language to be taught in schools.

According to Darjowidjojo (2000) and Lowenberg and Nur (2004), the Indonesian government had been aware of the usefulness of English as a means of international communication in order to promote Indonesian economic development. In fact, in neighbouring countries such as Singapore, the Philippines and Malaysia, English had become the dominant or second language. Hence, considering the global reality of English as the dominant international language and its utility as a communication tool with the neighbouring Asian countries, the government

eventually decided that English as the foreign language, rather than Dutch was to be taught in schools.

The position of English as a foreign language, not a second language, was preferred as most Indonesians spoke the national language and a local language (Dardjowidjojo, 2000). Dardjowidjojo (2000) asserts that the status of English remains as a foreign language in Indonesia today although Lowenberg (1991) also claims that English can be seen as an additional language given the function of English in the linguistic repertoires. The privileged position of English in Indonesia cannot be separated from the phenomena of the globalization of English.

1.3 Globalization of English

English became a truly global language towards the end of the 20th century and now commands a special position compared to other world languages. To borrow Kachru's terminology, the term 'global English' manifests diverse functions of English spreading out on all continents (Kachru & Nelson, 2001). In the 'Inner Circle countries', English is the majority and first group language (ibid, 2001). There are also the 'Outer Circle' countries such as Singapore, Pakistan, Nigeria and India where English is spoken as a second language together with other languages for intra-national communication. In the 'Expanding Circle' countries covering many countries, English is considered and taught as a foreign language in educational institutions. Hence, without doubt, compared to previously established world languages such as Latin in the Roman Empire, French in the 18th and 19th centuries and Russia after the Second World War, English has become the most significant global language as the lingua franca at international level.

Generally, two opposing opinions flourish in the discourse on the globalization of English. The first perspective is put forward by Wardaugh (1987) stating that the dominant position of English as the global language is due to the natural outcome of the interconnected historical and cultural factors. Wardaugh (1987) points out that the factor which makes English remarkable is its ability to spread throughout the world and to exert its influence on world affairs.

Taking a different view, the second perspective, pioneered by Phillipson (1992), proposes that the globalization of English is made possible by the dialectical process between the global use of English and the political, ideological, and capital interests of the Inner Circle countries including

the USA and the UK. Inspired by the seminal work of Phillipson's 'Linguistic Imperialism' (1992), such researchers as Pennycook (1998) and Singh, Kell and Pandian (2002) agree that British and American efforts in maintaining their political and economic interests as well as their endeavour to maintain control over the dominant position of English through national organizations and the English Language Teaching industry which are responsible for the globalization of English.

Kell (2005) asserts that while the British Councils claims to be non-political and an independent organization, it is, at another level, used as an instrument of the English governments' economic and cultural policies. This is, according to Kell (2005), done by providing English ideas and expertise through books; information on the arts, science and technology and the English language training and education. Pennycook's estimation in the late 1980s of the value of the world EFL (English as a Foreign Language) and ESL (English as a Second Language) training market earned from the tuition courses paid by students and through exam administration and textbook sales was approximately £6.25 billion and the UK took £1 billion of this sum (Pennycook, 1994). As reported by the British Council as cited in Clark (2012), by 2020, two billion people will be studying English, which means that the business value of English language teaching remains high. In fact, this figure supports Pennycook's statement that ELT (English Language Teaching) not only promotes British political and economic goals, but has become an economic goal in itself as well (Pennycook, 1994).

The local educational policies of the periphery countries also have contributed to the dominance of English as a global language. In fact, many countries prefer English to other languages to be taught in schools. Phillipson (1992), for example, pointed out that in Africa English has been adopted at the expense of the African languages. Moreover, according to Crystal (2000: 3), "none of the 1,200 or so languages indigenous to Africa is used as a medium of instruction in secondary schools"

The dominance of English can also be viewed from the cultural perspective. Culturally, the leading position of English is integrally related to the neo-colonial stratification of societies. This view dictates that success is associated with the western model of education and mastery of the English language. Hence, many people living in the periphery countries associate English with

material benefits and prestige. Going beyond its neutral means of communication, for many people English acquisition symbolizes the line between poor and affluent societies.

Concerned with ESL, the social perception of English is a factor affecting learners' decisions to learn English. English is perceived as a language which will equip people with better working and academic opportunities. Holly (1990: 17) labeled this phenomenon with a beautiful phrase that English "is a means of approaching nearer the throne of world economic dominance". Viewed from the sociolinguistic point of view, Stern (1984) asserted that the instrumental motivation to learn a language is greater when the sociolinguistic status of the target language is higher than that of the learners.

Phillipson (1992) and Pennycook (1998) consider that ESL and EFL teaching is responsible for the asymmetric position between non-native and native English speaking countries. Furthermore, Phillipson (1992), drawing on Galtung's imperialism theory and Marx's conflict theory, maintained that the ways ELT is carried out have contributed to the unfair distribution of cultural, economic and linguistic power.

1.4 Globalization of English and English Language Teaching (ELT) in Indonesia

Indonesia is one of many countries which is influenced by the globalization of English. In terms of local educational policies, for example, the usefulness of English as an asset to promote its economic development has become the major reason for government to prefer English to other foreign languages to be taught in schools and universities (Darjowidjojo, 2000; Lowenberg and Nur, 2004). This is, in fact, in line with Holly's assertion (1990) on the economic dimensions as driving factors in learning the English language.

In the Indonesia educational system, English instruction starts in secondary schools. In 1967 the Decree of the Ministry of Education and Culture stated that the role of English at secondary schools aimed to accelerate national development, to establish relationships with other countries and to carry out its national foreign policy (Nur, 2004). Every student studied English for 136 meeting hours each year in which each meeting lasted for 45 minutes (Dardjowidjojo, 2000). Hence, students would have studied English for an average of 408 meeting hours. When the

students completed their high school by the end of the third year, they would have studied English for more than 800 meeting hours.

According to the 1967 Decree, the attainment of a well-developed reading skill was the main goal of English instruction in secondary schools as this would facilitate the transfer of knowledge because 75 to 80 per cent of knowledge texts are still only written in English (Nur, 2004). On the other hand, English speaking skills were not prioritized since they were believed to endanger national identity and English was regarded as a luxury (Nur, 2004).

English gained its compulsory status in primary schools in 1994 after the government through the Ministry of Education allowed elementary schools to teach English to students of grade four, five and six. In the implementation, however, only state primary schools located in urban areas and private schools could recruit sufficient teachers to teach English. On the other hand, given the shortage of teachers able to teach English, the primary schools in rural areas did not provide English to their students. Different from the secondary school, the focus of English teaching at elementary school is oral communication in which the order of focus is speaking, listening and writing (Dardjowidjojo, 2000). The time devoted for teaching English at elementary school is on average 60 to 90 minutes a week (Dardjowidjojo, 2000).

At the tertiary education level, for students of non-English departments, English is taught for two to three hours a week in two semesters (Nur 2004). The type of English teaching at the university level is English for Specific Purposes since the main goal is to improve students' reading ability related to their field of study. For students majoring in English, the university curriculum is directed toward developing both theoretical knowledge and language skills (Dardjowidjojo, 2000). Furthermore, students should complete their English study of between 145 to 160 credit hours to obtain a bachelor degree (ibid, 2000).

1.5 Challenges in English Language Teaching and Paradigm Shift in Curriculum

Despite serious efforts to strengthen the quality of English teaching in Indonesia, English teaching has been facing at least two major problems. The first problem is concerned with the teachers' inability in implementing a successful teaching methodology and teachers' low English proficiency. For example, in 1984 the Communicative Curriculum was implemented as a result

of the view that language acquisition is reflected in the individual's interaction in her or his environment, thus focusing teaching more on language use than language usage (Widdowson, 1978, as cited in Lie, 2007). Hymes' concept of competence focusing on language use which replaced Chomsky's Language Acquisition Device theory emphasizing the grammatical features of a language also contributed to this shift. Despite the claim that the Communicative Curriculum was implemented, the syllabus did not reflect the philosophy of the communicative approach. Supriadi (2000) asserts that the majority of teachers relied heavily on textbooks, leading to textbook-driven teaching and learning. Since the textbooks were structural-oriented, the communicative principle was merely a slogan. Additionally, a great number of English teachers have not mastered the language they teach. Hamied (1997) and Lie, Renandya and Ridwan (1996) indicated that many English teachers are poor English speakers. Hence, the reliance on the teachers to teach in English, as expected by the curriculum, is ambitious. This is a paradox because the three curricula which have been introduced by Indonesian schools, namely the communicative approach in 1984, the meaning-based curriculum in 1994 and the competency-based curriculum in 2004 employ the communicative approach.

The second problem is related to the mismatch between the curriculum and the expected competence of the students. The current English curriculum implemented in secondary schools is labelled a competency-based curriculum. In fact, the 2004 Curriculum clearly mentions the goals of English instruction in junior and senior high schools as follows; 1) enhancing communicative competence in spoken and written English comprising speaking, listening, writing and reading; 2) raising awareness of the nature and significance of English as a foreign language and as a chief means of learning; 3) enhancing cross-cultural understanding and improving understanding of other cultures. Despite the goals oriented to the mastery of English competence and the implementation of the communicative approach in the classroom, Lie (2007) and Gunarwan (2000) note that competence in English among high school and university graduates is generally low.

In addition to the absence of quality teachers, other major reasons might be responsible for the low English competence of Indonesian students. It is generally known that in Indonesia, English is treated as a foreign language. Being a foreign language, English is not used for daily communication, nor is it used for formal language in the governance, education, law and media

sectors but it is sometimes used by people working in the tourism industry, business and other non-government areas (Richards, 1985). The position of English as a foreign language has led to the low frequency in using English among students in their daily communication. Despite many paths through the World Wide Web, students rarely use English in their daily communication as English has never been widely used as the lingua franca of the majority of Indonesian people.

The low level of the English competence of English teachers and students becomes a challenging agenda for English teacher education as their students are being prepared to teach English. Serious attempts are required to be made in order to improve the quality of English teaching in the teacher training colleges. One of the ways is through mapping out broad possibilities for how the global challenges are connected to and given solutions through the curriculum.

In the academic milieu of higher education, the curriculum is instrumental in strengthening the educational system. While many definitions of the term ‘curriculum’ prevail, one of the most comprehensive definitions is put forward by the Indonesian Ministry of Education. “The curriculum of higher education is the planning and regulation of learning content and teaching methods which are used for guidance and reference for the teaching and learning process in higher education” (DGHE, 2008). Hence, the curriculum can be viewed as both documents and programs. In terms of documents, the curriculum contains details of courses, syllabus, lesson plans and learning assessment details. With regard to the program, curriculum entails the teaching and learning process conducted in the classroom. Therefore, the change of the curriculum should involve a comprehensive change of its documents and the overall teaching and learning process. In fact, in a wider perspective, curriculum can be viewed as: 1) the policy of higher education to determine the direction of education; 2) the educational philosophy which colors the academic climate; 3) the pattern of the teaching and learning process; 4) quality assessment of the teaching and learning process and 5) the success standards of higher education in producing graduates who can give benefits to society (Directorate General of Higher Education, 2008).

The expectation of implementing the curriculum which accommodates and develops the skill renders it important to view the curriculum paradigm shift occurring in Indonesian higher education. The paradigm shift in this context refers to the national curriculum of higher education from the 1994 curriculum to the 2000 curriculum. The 1994 curriculum was triggered

by internal problems within the higher education system in Indonesia, namely the absence of clear guidelines in the management and development of higher education. To manage the educational system in higher education at that time, the Indonesian Ministry of Education designed the *Kerangka Perguruan Tinggi Jangka Panjang* or “The Long Term Framework of Higher Education” containing three elements involving institution management, study programs management and direction and purpose of higher education. Higher education was divided into the academic track and professional track. The division was based on the idea that the graduates of higher education should have the ability to solve the problems confronting them in their work lives. The decree of the Ministry of Education no. 56/U/1994 also mentioned that the curriculum was aimed at mastering the content of knowledge (DGHE, 2008).

In the current global situation signified by the acceleration of knowledge and technology, it is difficult to focus on the content of knowledge as the bases of the curriculum. Such a curriculum cannot keep abreast with the skills and competences needed by the global changes impacting on Indonesian society. As a result, the Indonesian Ministry of Education issued a Decree No. 232/U/2000 and No. 045/U/2002 on the use of a competence-based curriculum in higher education (DGHE, 2008)

The paradigm shift from the content-based curriculum to the competency-based curriculum was triggered by several factors. The primary reason was that the competency-based curriculum might reflect an endeavour to fulfill the demands of globalization. Second, global competitiveness leads the universities of the world to produce graduates with global competitive advantages. Third, higher education’s orientation has changed from producing graduates who master knowledge to equipping them with both hard and soft skills needed by the global market. Thus, the graduates of higher education should be able to apply their knowledge as required by their stakeholders.

In addition to the global demand, the paradigm shift toward competency-based education is oriented by the current policy of the Indonesian National Education System which gives adequate autonomy for higher education institutions to develop their curricula. Under this policy, the role of the DGHE does not determine the curriculum for higher education, but is restricted to facilitate, empower and motivate higher education academics to achieve their goals. As a result,

higher education institutions can develop themselves based on their ability, resources, strategic plan, vision and mission.

The Decree of the Ministry of Education No. 232/U/2000 and No. 045/U/2002 referred to features of the fundamental change from content-based curriculum to competency-based curriculum (DGHE, 2008):

- 1) In the content-based curriculum, the curriculum of a study program is designed by government through the National Curriculum Consortium. In the new curriculum, the core curriculum is designed by the higher education institution and their stakeholders.
- 2) In the content-based curriculum, the graduates of higher education are to acquire knowledge as dictated by the study program while in the competency-based curriculum they are to develop competence in order to perform tasks or jobs. Thus, the program evaluation is not only done by the higher education authorities but the stakeholders as well.
- 3) Based on the decree of the Ministry of Education no. 056/U/1994, in the content-based curriculum, the curriculum is composed of two elements, namely the national curriculum and local curriculum. On the other hand, the components of the competency-based curriculum, as stated in the decree of the Ministry of Education no. 232/U/2000, embrace the core curriculum and institutional curriculum. The core curriculum pertains to the core competence and is designed by higher education institutions, the academic community and the employers. The institutional curriculum involves specific competences according to the specific study program.
- 4) In the previous content-based curriculum, the courses were grouped into general subjects (*mata kuliah umum*), basic vocational subjects (*mata kuliah dasar keahlian*) and vocational subjects (*mata kuliah keahlian*). In the decree of the Ministry of Education number 232/U/2000, by contrast, the subjects offered in the competency-based curriculum involve the generic competencies subjects (*mata kuliah pengembangan kepribadian*), disciplinary knowledge and skill subjects (*mata kuliah keilmuan dan ketrampilan*), job and occupational skill subjects (*mata kuliah keahlian berkarya*), work ethics subjects (*mata kuliah perilaku berkarya*) and civic education (*mata kuliah berkehidupan bersama*).

- 5) The changing of the curriculum presupposes the changing of the learning process in higher education. The mode of transfer of learning and rote learning in the content-based curriculum is replaced by the method of inquiry, thus expecting the graduate qualities which can fulfill the societal, industrial and professional needs and can integrate intellectual and affective dimensions in real life.

The changing curriculum has witnessed the ongoing spread of English in various parts of the world proceeding within a global context of power which permeates the current centuries. Hence, if the continued spread of English is an unavoidable aspect in the globalization of English and its social and political effects, Indonesia does not have much option other than teach English to its young generations in order to leverage their global competitiveness in the knowledge age. The very first step is, therefore, to improve the quality of the institutions producing English teachers.

The research will focus on the curriculum, specifically the competency-based curriculum implemented in the English Language Teaching Programs implemented in English Teacher Education in Indonesia, which is one of the most important strategies to improve the quality of English teaching in Indonesia. In fact, as part of the higher educational system in Indonesia, English departments are challenged by the change in curriculum philosophy.

1.6 Research Question and Research Objectives

This research study aimed to evaluate the Competency-based Curriculum Implemented in the English Language Teaching Programs in Indonesian universities, specifically in English Teacher Education.

1.6.1 Research Question

The evaluation research was focused on the English language components of the curriculum implemented by five English education departments. The central research question based on the objectives of the research was formulated as follows:

How well has the Competency-Based Curriculum policy of the Directorate of the Higher Education been implemented in the five English education departments in Indonesia since its introduction?

1.6.2 Sub-Research Questions and Objectives of the Study

The research question was articulated in four sub-research questions:

1. What is the English language curriculum recently introduced into Indonesian higher education institution?
2. What are the perceptions of the heads of department, lecturers and students regarding the implementation of the Competency-based curriculum?
3. How do lecturers and students carry out the teaching and learning process including the use of teaching and learning approaches, the incorporation of soft skills and the assessment process in the classroom practices?
4. What challenges surrounding the implementation of the Competency-based curriculum are encountered by the five English Education Departments?

Based on the sub-research questions, the objectives of the study are:

1. To describe and to analyze the English language curriculum recently introduced into Indonesian higher education institutions.
2. To ascertain and to analyze the perceptions of the implementation of the Competency-based Curriculum from the perspectives of the heads of departments, lecturers and students.
3. To ascertain and to analyze the classroom practices of the lecturers and students in the teaching and learning process, including the use of teaching learning approaches, the incorporation of soft skills and the assessment processes
4. To ascertain and to analyze the challenges surrounding the implementation of the Competency-based curriculum.

1.7 Research Framework

Many writers advocate their own preferred definition of curriculum. According to Portelli (1987), more than 120 definitions of the term had been proposed till that time by scholars in the professional literature devoted to curriculum. The example of a short definition of curriculum was given by Print (1993) who defined the curriculum as “all the planned learning opportunities offered by the organization to learners and the experiences learners encounter when the

curriculum is implemented”. Similarly Wojtczak (2002) defined curriculum as “an educational plan that spells out which goals and objectives should be achieved, which topics should be covered and which methods are to be used for learning, teaching and evaluation”.

Marsh (2009) quotes several definitions appearing in the professional literature: First, “curriculum is such permanent subjects as grammar, reading, logic, rhetoric, mathematics, and the greatest books of the Western world that best embody essential knowledge” (p.5); second, “curriculum is those subjects that are most useful for living in contemporary society” (p.6); third, “curriculum is all planned learning for which the school is responsible” (p.6) and fourth, “curriculum is the totality of the learning experiences provided to students so that they can attain general skills and knowledge at a variety of learning sites” (p.7).

Portelli (1987) suggests that the numerous definitions of the curriculum were presumably because authors are concerned about either delimiting what the term means or creating new meanings which have become associated with it. Several authors focus on the subjects such as the second definition proposed above by Marsh (2009). For instance, Rothstein and Jacobsen (2009) suggest that a balanced curriculum should be concerned about contemporary living skills such as critical thinking, project-based learning and social skills. Wilson (2002), as cited in Marsh (2009), argues that the curriculum must involve high-order skills such as teaching students to think critically and to communicate complex ideas clearly. There are also exponents of curriculum as a plan whose view corresponds with Marsh’s (2009) definition of the curriculum including Saylor, Alexander, and Lewis (1981), Beauchamp (1981) and Posner (1998).

Several curriculum experts, such as Goodlad (1979), maintain that an analysis of the definitions becomes a useful starting point for examining the field of curriculum. Other writers contend that there are important concepts or characteristics that need to be taken into consideration and which offer insights into how and why specific value orientations have evolved (Westbury, 2007). Walker (2003) lists several fundamental elements of the curriculum including content, purpose and organization. Beane (2001) outlines five major principles concerning curriculum: 1) concern with the experience of learners; 2) making decisions about both content and process; 3) making decisions about a variety of issues and topics; 4) involving many groups; 5) decision-making at many levels.

In the Indonesian context, as the Government Regulation No. 19/ 2005 stipulates, the curriculum is concerned about plans, programs and rules related to goals, content, methods and the teaching and learning materials which serve as a guide to carry out the teaching and learning process in order to meet the national education standards. The CBC guideline produced by the Directorate General of Higher Education (DGHE) includes the elements of curriculum design such as the formulation of graduate competencies, curriculum structure and the teaching and learning approaches. This study is to evaluate the implementation of the CBC by triangulating the English department's curriculum through interview, focus group discussion, documentation, survey schedule, as well as class observation.

1.8 The Structure of the Thesis

The subsequent chapters will be framed as follows. Chapter Two discusses the literature review including the concept of competence; competency-based education and curriculum design; the CBC proposed by the DGHE; the teaching and learning process in the CBC; competency-based language teaching; assessment in CBC; the development of soft skills; competencies for English Language Teachers and approaches in curriculum implementation. Chapter Three deals with the research strategy deployed in this curriculum evaluation, comprising research methodology and epistemology; evaluation research strategy; case study methodology; participants and venues; sampling strategy; methods of data collection and data analysis; reliability and validity of the case study data; experience in the data collection and ethical issues in the data collection and analysis. Chapter Four covers the findings regarding the roles of the Heads of departments (HoDs) and lecturers including the profiles of the HoDs; the responsibilities of the HoDs in relation to the curriculum; the HoDs and departmental culture; the profiles of lecturers in the five EEDs. Chapter Five will discuss the perspectives of the HoDs and lecturers, covering the understanding and experience of the CBC, the formulation of the graduate competencies; the curriculum structure in the five EEDs, the incorporation of the organizational values into the curriculum, and the problems in the curriculum implementation. Chapter Six will outline perspectives of lecturers and students in terms of the teaching and learning process; the use of student-centered learning modes; the teaching practice in the classrooms; the development of soft skills and the assessment process. Finally, Chapter Seven presents the discussion of the key findings and the recommendations.

CHAPTER 2 • COMPETENCY-BASED EDUCATION AND COMPETENCIES FOR LANGUAGE TEACHER: A LITERATURE REVIEW

The emergence of the Competency-based Curriculum (CBC) has led to radical changes in the learning, teaching and assessment process within higher education institutions (HEI) in Indonesia. The CBC for Indonesian universities has been formulated since 2004 (DGHE, 2008). However, prior to 2007 there was only 60 per cent of 372 universities which implemented the CBC (ibid, 2008). Due to low participation of the universities in implementing the CBC, the Indonesian government, through DGHE, had disseminated the CBC to HEI in Indonesia until 2008 (ibid, 2008). One fundamental reason for the introduction CBC in HEI was to provide education with outcomes which were considered relevant by the professional bodies for entry into specific jobs, including teaching.

In fact, as pointed out by Richards-Wilson (2002), designing curricula relevant to the world of jobs is a challenging task for educators. It requires revisiting the existing curriculum so that gaps can be identified and the educational institutions can produce human resources which meet the needs of the job market. In the Indonesian context, the higher education institutions used to be preoccupied with content-based curricula in which the focus was on knowledge mastery. Hence, the task of lecturers as the purveyors of knowledge was to transfer the knowledge to students' minds (DGHE, 2008). While lecturers were at the centre of the teaching and learning process, students became passive recipients of knowledge. The Indonesian government ascertained the shortcomings of this and the launching of a new curriculum in 2000 reflected the revisiting of the curriculum in order to produce more employable graduates.

The government's initiative for the introduction of the CBC gave impetus for educators to realize that their task was not only to equip their students with knowledge, but also with skills important for the graduates to provide better human resources in the workforce. As the curriculum is not only a set of subjects arranged within a structure, but also the teaching and learning process to achieve the goals of the curriculum, educators are expected to develop teaching and learning practice which promotes the development of students' competencies. The following sections will review the existing literature about the CBC. The concept of competency and CBC proposed by the Indonesian Directorate General of Higher Education (DGHE) will be outlined. The English

teachers' competencies in the Indonesian context will be highlighted and the teaching and learning methods advocated in the CBC as well as the development of soft skills will also be reviewed.

2.1 The concept of Competence

According to Garavan and McGuire (2001), the term 'competence' lacks a generally accepted operational definition. In much of the literature, however, there exist a number of definitions emphasizing different aspects put forward by authors on competence-related issues. For example, Garavan and McGuire focus on competence as output or what someone can do. For Garavan and McGuire (2001), competence can be defined as behaviour, action or outcome that someone should be able to demonstrate. Different from Garavan and McGuire, Kirschner et al. (1997) define competence as an ability to select from a set of available behaviours and to execute suitable actions to reach certain purposes in certain contexts, thus emphasizing more the meta-cognitive attributes or ability to select and use particular attributes (knowledge skills and attitudes). Field and Drysdale (1991) proposed a definition referring to the ability to perform at a needed level or standard, namely, competence refers to the ability to perform in work roles required by job standards in employment. Referring to the definitions proposed by these authors, Kouwenhoven (2009) summarizes that the term competence pertains to such aspects as ability to do something, ability to select and use knowledge and skills, ability to possess certain attributes and ability to perform at a needed level or standard in the world of work. Mulder (2001) offers a more comprehensive definition of competence covering all aspects summarized by Kouwenhoven.

For Mulder,

Competence is the capability of a person or an organization to reach specific achievements. Personal competencies comprise: integrated performance oriented capabilities, which consist of clusters of knowledge structures and also cognitive, interactive, affective and, where necessary, psychomotor capabilities, and attitudes and values, which are conditional for carrying out tasks, solving problems and more generally, effectively functioning in a certain profession, organization, position or role (Mulder, 2001, p 120).

Viewing competency through the perspective of a general concept, Kouwenhoven (2009) relates the term competency with the core competency which is defined as the set of competencies required to execute a key occupational task at a superior standard. Core competency can then be

broken down into two forms, namely domain-specific and general competencies (ibid, 2009). The former is associated with groups of knowledge, skills and attitudes related to the profession while the latter is linked to the skills needed to help the core competencies in performing the tasks (ibid, 2009). The term ‘life skills’ is generally attributed to the latter skill, indicating their importance in supporting today’s lives.

An interesting point concerns whether characteristics or personal traits are parts of a competency. Some authors argue that they are included in the competence while others view them as instrumental competences as such competences result from personal characteristics. In fact, the pendulum of today’s construct of curriculum development, which is largely influenced by the pragmatic approach (Stoof at al., 2002), has swung towards the inclusion of personal characteristics as elements of people’s competency. The famous model known as the ‘iceberg’ competency model was proposed by Spencer and Spencer (1993). The tip of the iceberg represents noticeable competency dimensions called knowledge and skills, while the hidden part of the iceberg which is unobservable comprises attitudes, self-concept and personality traits. Despite being intangible in nature, those competencies become instrumental factors in driving professional behaviour. In the same vein, Korthagen (2004) advocates the integration of personal traits by proposing the onion model of competence comprising mission, identity, beliefs, competencies, behaviour, and environment.

2.2 Competency-based Education and Curriculum Design

According to Teitlebaum (2007), there are more than 120 definitions of curriculum in the educational literature. For the purpose of this research, however, the following selected examples have been considered as most relevant. Bobbitt (1918 p. 42, as cited in Teitlebaum, 2007) might provide one of the earliest definitions of curriculum saying that curriculum is “That series of things which children and youth must do and experience by way of developing abilities to do the things well that make up the affairs of adult life”. Later, Kelly (1999) mentions Kerr’s (1968) general definition of curriculum as: All schools’ planned and guided learning which is conducted individually or collaboratively, inside and outside the school. A similar definition is given by Print (1993) suggesting that curriculum refers to learning opportunities and learning experiences provided and planned by an organization to learners. Wojtczak (2002) has related the definition

of curriculum with the technical approach describing that curriculum comprise the education plans, including learning objectives to be achieved, the topics to be discussed, and the methods to be employed for teaching, learning and assessment. For the purpose of this study, curriculum refers to learning programs and plans to provide students with opportunities to operate in their environment and to help them to function within their future work environment.

Unlike the curriculum in secondary schools in Indonesia, the idea and practices of curriculum in higher education have not been seriously debated and are not yet properly practiced. This might be caused by the common perception that higher education has been viewed as the final stage of formal education. The Directorate General of Higher Education's (DGHE) initiative to introduce the CBC into higher education has given a new understanding that curriculum in HEI should cater for the learners' lifetime learning and their ability to cope with ongoing educational requirements.

In terms of curriculum in higher education institutions, MacPherson (1996) argues that curriculum is a praxis referring to the practice of study as opposed to the theory. As a praxis, according to Macpherson (1996), curriculum evolves, constantly involving the interplay of people, idea, time, space and resources. Integrated elements of the curriculum, as Macpherson maintains, involve an accessible learning environment, clear learning outcomes both in the context of teachers and the organization's vision and missions and in the context of the broader society. In fact, the definition of curriculum suggested by Macpherson underlines the broader principles related to adult learning in higher education.

The philosophy of the curriculum is vital in determining the effectiveness and efficiency of any educational program (Sudsomboon, 2007). Choudaha (2008) states that the most important expectation on the higher education curriculum since the 1960s has been the demand for assessed or measured outcomes that would ensure the skills and competencies of graduates. This expectation is rational since skills and competencies gained through the curriculum are aimed at bridging the education process and the world of work. According to Kouwenhoven (2009) the conceptualization of the relation between education and employment can be framed through Competency-Based Education (CBE). The absence of competencies included in the curriculum

design philosophy might make higher education institutions fail to produce ‘work-ready’ graduates, who are thus not readily accepted in the world of work. Therefore, it becomes necessary for higher education institutions to include the professional competencies in their curriculum designs (Sudsomboon 2007, as cited in Barman and Konwar, 2011).

Competency-based Education is sometimes called Competency-based Training. The terms ‘education’ and ‘training’ are often used interchangeably. However, both terms have different meanings and their definitions contain different implications. While the term ‘education’ is usually equated with secondary and tertiary education, the term training is usually related to vocational instruction aimed at equipping learners with task-oriented competencies with limited theoretical components. For the purpose of this study, the term CBC refers to a learning program planned and designed to achieve the competency standards required by a professional body. Standards can be necessary skills in order that a person can be regarded as competent in a particular job.

Curriculum oriented to Competency-based Education may be characterized by learning programs designed to meet the narrow workplace setting. However, according to Harris et al. (1995), the vocational training conducted by universities should be based on broader and deeper curriculum content which can trigger students to achieve above mere vocational knowledge. However, what characterizes the CBC according to Harris et al. (1995) is that while broad and comprehensive content is included in the common curriculum, they are treated and assessed in terms of competency in the CBC. The broad and comprehensive content forming the CBC curriculum aims to develop students in a holistic manner.

The development of CBE fulfills the demand of the stakeholders and it should be based on the application of the recent studies on competencies (Choudaha, 2008). Borrowing the description of Competency-Based Curriculum (CBC) from a number of authors, Kouwenhoven (2009) identifies some attributes of CBC. With regard to learning environment, the CBE attempts to develop students’ competencies. Hence, the principle of curriculum arrangement is not the disciplinary content, but competencies that should be acquired by the end of the program (Kirschner et al, 1997). In other words, the curriculum is designed backwardly in that knowledge

and skills to be included in the curriculum are not determined by a disciplinary body of knowledge, but competencies needed by a competent professional. In terms of curriculum content, CBE is directed toward preparing the graduates with the required occupational practices. Hence, since the CBE is oriented to professional practices, the profession becomes an integral part in the design of the curriculum (Kouwenhoven, 2009).

Competency-based education, according to Null (2011), follows the systematic-pragmatic curriculum tradition. According to this tradition, the curriculum is designed to adjust to the demands of the new industrial age (Bobbit, 1924). In other words, curriculum should serve communities in economic, pragmatic and useful ways. An important step in designing such a curriculum is to do what Bobbitt calls ‘activity analysis’, that is, to find the skills and competencies needed by workers in a certain area of job (ibid, 1924).

However, the focus of the competencies as the point of departure in the CBC is not undisputed. This concept has been challenged by Barnett (1994) who points out the importance of knowledge and deep understanding in academic education. For Barnett, CBC leads to loosely coupled modules, blocks and projects that neglect the endeavour for deep understanding (Ibid, 1994). Barnett argues that disciplines are regarded as ‘social facts of academic life’ so that research and skill development without being grounded in the robust disciplinary knowledge means uprooting the fact of academic life (ibid, 1994). Barnett’s opinion is shared by Harris et al. (1995). As a relatively new concept, CBE, according to Harris et al (1995), leads to differing perceptions. The common debated issue is that CBE is often perceived as employment-focused so that it is not broad enough to cater for such life skills as integrity, reliability and ethical values (ibid, 1995). In fact, the abbreviation of CBT standing for Competency-based Training is often referring to CBE. This is due to the perception of shallowness of content in the CBC which is associated with the opinion that the CBE focuses on mere training and gives less attention to the theoretical and educational aspects.

As an option, Barnett (1994) introduces the term ‘liberal vocationalism’, advocating the amalgamation of professional practice and professional behaviour which is cultivated through humanist education. Despite some elements of truth in Barnett’s criticism, he fails to consider

that the learning environment in CBE includes learning practices and assignments. It is generally known that without knowledge acquisition, the tasks cannot be performed effectively and efficiently. In fact, in the CBE setting, students should enhance their academic competencies which are only transferable when high quality knowledge is acquired (Kouwenhoven, 2009).

In terms of the teaching approach, CBE employs constructivist approaches. Motsching-Pitrik and Holzinger (2002) claim that the chief goal of constructivism is competence. This view distinguishes perspectives put forward by cognitivism and behaviourism maintaining that the goals of learning are knowledge acquisition and achievement respectively. This will lead to the profound implication in the learning process in that actively constructed-knowledge is considered as better than passively gained-knowledge.

Regarding the learning process, CBE is learner-centered in which the learning process becomes a central part of the curriculum. Such a learning format, according to Field and Drysdale (1991), results in flexible learning time, individualized materials and continuous feedback to the learners. Teachers in the CBE setting are also highly required to be facilitators of the learning process rather than knowledge transmitters. Teachers' responsibility is, therefore, to motivate students to engage in active inquiry and make students' tacit knowledge become explicit (Kerka, 1998, as cited in Kouwenhoven, 2009).

Critiquing the learning process adopted in the CBE, Kouwenhoven (2009) argues that CBE has narrowed down the learning process to the acquisition of thinking styles, attitudes and schemes for problem solving related to a specific occupation. Wendrich et al. (2005) state that scientific knowledge is subjugated to what is required to solve realistic occupational problems and challenges. However, Wendrich et al.'s criticism is problematic since the provision of competence and skills in CBE implies the adoption to choose, develop and adapt abilities to respond to new situations in a creative, innovative research-like strategy (Diwakar, 2002). Furthermore, in order to avoid the drawbacks of CBE, Fleming (1993) suggests that CBE should emphasize the general ability to learn and apply skills and competencies in various aspects of people's professional activities.

Educational programs applying the principles of CBC are required to meet certain criteria. In his study on the practice of CBC in Belgian educational institutions, Kouwenhoven (2009) lists four

categories of CBE curricula demonstrating an increasing degree of CBE application as described in Table 2.1:

Table 2.1: Four categories of CBE curricula: Kouwenhoven’s Framework

<p>First category: Purposeful education, new goals and new learning approach</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Point of departure is professional practice. • Competencies are divided into skills, knowledge and attitudes. • More attention is given to application of knowledge and skills. • Generic competencies are included. • Active learning is encouraged.
<p>Second category: The use of cases</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Knowledge, skills and attitudes are formulated as separate goals, but always strongly integrated to professional practice. • Realistic situations are used. • Cases are often employed in the learning assessment. • Problem-based learning and project work are encouraged.
<p>Third category: Learning and development routes</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The learning development trajectory is included in the curriculum. • Gradual development of competencies is paid attention. • Generic competencies are emphasized. • Complexity is increased and guidance and coaching is decreased. • The ultimate goal is learning how to learn. • The elements assessed are not only knowledge, skills and attitude but personal development as well.
<p>Fourth category: The learning departure from competencies development</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Authentic tasks with decreasing guidance and increasing complexity is given by teachers. • The personal development plan and related competency matrix are developed by students. • Practical problems which lead to input are given by teachers. • Open and broad assignments are designed by teachers. • Learning questions are formulated by students.

Source: Kouwenhoven (2009)

In terms of curriculum design, the design of the CBC follows a sequence called the ‘Royal Track’ comprising the formulation of a professional profile with key occupational tasks,

followed by a graduate profile with selected core competencies which link directly to the occupational profiles (Kouwenhoven, 2009). In the curriculum profiles the final achievement levels of the graduate are presented in the competence standards for both domain-specific and generic competencies.

2.3 The Competency-Based Curriculum Proposed by the Directorate General of Higher Education (DGHE)

As stated in the guideline book provided by the DGHE (2008), the steps of designing the Competency-based Curriculum are begun by carrying out a SWOT (strengths, weaknesses, opportunity, threats) analysis, tracer study and needs assessment. This is followed by the following sequential steps: 1) formulating the graduate profiles; 2) determining the graduate competences; 3) determining the subjects which involves considering the scope of each subject, distributing the subjects across the courses; and 4) making the learning plan and designing the learning method.

The first step in designing the CBC is formulating the graduate profiles. In the conventional curriculum, deciding the education goals follows the result of the SWOT analysis. The education goals become the rationale for the department to decide the courses and syllabus which will be studied by students. This kind of curriculum is usually known as the 'Content-based Curriculum'. As the name suggests, the subject of the courses is based on the course content, not so much on the relevance of the courses for the world of work. By contrast, in the CBC, the formulation of the graduate qualities and the graduate competences is the core stage in determining the courses to be learnt by students. Hence, while the curriculum structure in the content-based curriculum is based on the complexity of the course, the curriculum structure in the CBC is based on the work's needs.

According to the DGHE (2008), the term 'graduate profiles' refers to the jobs which can be done by the graduates in the world of work or society after they have completed their study. The formulation of the graduate profiles can be triggered by a question "What will the graduates become after they complete their study?" As outlined by the DGHE (2008) graduate profiles are in the form of professions such as a teacher, a doctor or a lawyer.

The second step is formulating the graduates' competencies. In fact, the formulation of the graduate profiles leads to the formulation of the graduates' competences. This necessitates posing a question '*to become.....what abilities do the graduates have to possess?*' This question applies to each profile listed in the graduate profile of a study program as presented in Table 2.3:

Table 2.2: The formulation of graduate competencies

Graduate profiles	Competencies which should be acquired by students		
	Core competencies	Supporting competencies	Other competencies

Source (DGHE, 2008)

Hence, a formulated profile will lead to a list of graduates' competences. The graduates' competences can be sought through the values embraced by the university or study program, the vision of the study program and the needs of society and stakeholders. Competences can be categorized into three groups namely, the core competences, the supporting competences and other competences. The core competences are the ones which outline the unique characteristics of the graduates of a certain study program while the supporting competencies are the skills and abilities which are added to the study program to support the core competencies. The supporting competences equip the graduates with skills enabling them to have more choices in their career.

The third step in designing the CBC is the analysis of the elements of the competencies (ibid, 2008). This stage is aimed at ensuring the stated competencies have involved five elements of competencies suggested by the Decree of the Education Ministry no. 045/U/2002, namely; a) generic competencies; b) the acquisition of disciplinary knowledge and skills; c) occupational skills; d) work ethics and e) civic education and the understanding of societal life and norms.

The fourth step in designing the CBC is the selection of subject structures in order to achieve the stated competencies (ibid, 2008). The subject structures are bodies of knowledge which

characterize the study program. The selection of the subject structures will be determined by the knowledge vision of the study program. The scope, depth and detail of the subject structures are core to the autonomy of the study programs. It should be noted, however, that subject structures are not the courses. Examples of the subject structures in psychology are general psychology, experimental psychology, psychometrics, and social psychology. Examples of subject structures of English education are writing, reading, speaking and listening.

The fifth step is estimating the “semester credit system” (SCS). In the conventional Content-based Curriculum, the term “semester credit system” (SCS) pertains to hours in conducting the learning process and activities without relating it with other variables. For instance, one CSS refers to hours for conducting the weekly learning process involving three activities namely, lecturing for 50 minutes, structured learning for 60 minutes and independent learning for 100 minutes. In the content-based curriculum, the SCS points are based on the number of subjects to be taught. A great deal of time is used by lecturers for lecturing about the teaching materials. The scheme of determining the points of SCS is up to the individual lecturer based on lecturers’ mastery of the learning materials.

In the CBC the points of SCS are not only determined by hours for delivering the materials but by other variables as well. Other variables which should be taken into consideration in deciding the SCS are: 1) the targeted competencies; 2) the scope of subject structures and 3) learning strategies to be implemented (2008). Hence, in light of CBC the SCS means times needed by students to meet the targeted competencies which are achieved through a certain learning process and subject structures (ibid, 2008).

The sixth step is forming the subjects. In the content-based curriculum the list of subjects is conventionally dictated by the departments. Lecturers are to deliver the knowledge as expected by the syllabus in each course. In the CBC, the process of forming a subject requires the mapping of the relationship between the targeted competencies and the learning objects. According to the DGHE (2008), the name of the subject is only the ‘package’ of the learning objects. The same study programs in different universities will probably have different names for subjects.

After the SCS has been completed, the last stage is designing the curriculum structure. The term 'curriculum' structure refers to the presentation of all subjects in semesters. Two theories have been formulated concerning the subject presentation in semesters, namely the sequential approach and the parallel approach (DGHE, 2008). The former is usually used in a content-based curriculum. In the sequential approach, the subjects in each semester are arranged serially depending on the complexity of the subject matter. Hence, the less complex subjects are taught in earlier semesters and the more complex ones are taught in later semesters. Subjects taught in the early semester are pre-requisites for the ones in the later semester. This approach has some problems. First, the rationale to how the subjects are graded serially has no theoretical base. The problem will also occur concerned with who decides the hierarchical scheme of knowledge. Students cannot decide this gradation of knowledge due to their limited understanding. Lecturers cannot decide either since in the Indonesian context, each subject is taught by different lecturers (DGHE, 2008). Consequently, according to DGHE (2008), the integrated competencies cannot be achieved in the teaching and learning process.

In the latter approach, the parallel approach, which is usually used in CBC, the subjects are arranged based on the needs to meet the targeted competencies. Subjects are not presented hierarchically in semesters but arranged based on needs of achieving the targeted competencies. In the CBC, the curriculum is not only viewed as a document, but it contains learning materials and the way the learning materials are taught (ibid, 2008). Thus, the CBC assigns the significant roles of teaching and learning methodologies in achieving the students' competencies.

2.4 Teaching and Learning Process in the CBC

Over the past century, universities have been required to prepare students for an increasingly complex set of social and economic realities (Scott and Dixon, 2008)). Researchers and educators, in response to these challenges, have developed new approaches of learning which provides an individualized, active and engaging learning experience. A popular descriptor of this approach is student-centered learning. Three major theories of educational philosophy focusing on the learning and teaching styles can be considered as relevant in highlighting learning and teaching styles in the CBC. The first theory of educational philosophy is the behaviourist theory proposed by Skinner (1953). Skinner (1953), as cited by Harris et al. (1995), maintained that the

only method to assess what occurs during the learning process is to evaluate a person's performance and behaviour as they learn. As the CBC offers task oriented approaches, the learners' performance and behaviour become visible to be observed. Hence, the behaviourist theory of education is supportive of CBC. In fact, in the CBC scheme, the intended outcomes in the form of performance to carry out tasks prior to the commencement of the subject unit become an integral aspect in the CBC. An important assumption of behaviourist theory is that the knowledge acquisition is promoted by rewarding learners' correct responses rather than punishing their incorrect responses. This principle is employed in the CBC in the way that after students complete the tasks, the teachers give immediate feedback.

The second theory of educational philosophy related to the CBC is the cognitive theory supported by Bruner (1961), Ausubel (1963) and Gange (1965). This theory holds that the learners acquire knowledge by evaluating the past and new experiences are evaluated (Harris et al, 1995). CBC reflects this principle in which learners are to perform more complex tasks as they acquire more information and skills.

The third theory of educational philosophy is the humanist school of thought proposed by Maslow (1970) and Rogers (1983). The proponents of the humanist school of thought believe in the learners as holistic and unique beings having differences in the learning process. This theory does not seem to be supportive with the prescriptive and predetermined principles of CBC.

Although the DGHE has advocated the application of the student-centered learning (SCL) framework in the universities through its guidelines book, the teacher-centered learning approach (TCL) is widely practiced in Indonesian universities, but it is not effective in meeting the students' competencies due to at least two reasons (DGHE, 2008). First, the development of digital and information technology enables the information to flow freely and dissemination of knowledge increases significantly. In this situation, lecturers can no longer be considered as the purveyor of knowledge since students are to be knowledge seekers in the internet age. Second, today's dynamic nature of the world of work necessitates workers to be active constructors and users of knowledge. Hence, the learning process should be directed toward encouraging students to be active participants in knowledge construction and knowledge application. More various and

flexible learning approaches which give students the opportunity to be active in developing their potential and applying their competencies should be developed.

The new approach to teaching and learning entails two paradigm shifts in knowledge and learning. In the old paradigm, knowledge is conventionally viewed as the finished entity. The duty of teachers, as the owners of knowledge, is to transfer the knowledge to their students. In the university context, this paradigm influences the way lecturers prepare their lesson plan. The pattern of a lesson plan is the description of what lecturers do in the teaching process. For students, the lesson plan is a list of instructions which should be done by students.

The new paradigm introduces knowledge as the construction of students through the learning process. As knowledge is to be constructed, students must be active agents of knowledge construction. In this new paradigm, lecturers act as facilitators and motivators providing some alternative learning strategies for students. Students, through the method inquiry, discover and construct knowledge. Table 2.7 illustrates the differences between TCL and SCL (DGHE, 2008).

Table 2.3: The comparison between teacher-centered and student-centered learning

	Teacher-Centered Learning	Student-Centered Learning
1	Lecturers transfer knowledge to students	Students are to actively construct the knowledge
2	The learning process emphasizes the knowledge acquisition	The learning process not only focuses on the knowledge acquisition but also develop students' competencies and soft skills
3	Lecturers usually use single or limited media	Lecturers use multimedia
4	The function of lecturers is as the givers of information and evaluators	The function of lecturers are as facilitators and motivators and the evaluation is done by lecturers together with students.
5	The learning process and evaluation are done separately.	The learning process and evaluation are done continuously and integratively.
6	The learning focus on seeking one single truth knowledge and mistakes are not tolerated.	The learning focuses on developing knowledge and mistakes are tolerated and considered as the learning process.
7	The learning approach is only relevant for developing disciplinary knowledge.	The learning approach is relevant for developing interdisciplinary knowledge.

8	The learning climate is individual and competitive	The learning climates are collaborative, cooperative and supportive.
9	Students are the only parties who learn.	Both students and lecturers are active learners and are responsible for developing knowledge, concepts and skills.
10	Lecturing in the class is a major part of the learning process.	Lecturing is only a part of the learning process. Students are to learn from various methods and resources.
11	The learning process focuses on the completion of learning materials.	The learning process focuses on the attainment of the competencies.

Source (DGHE, 2008)

According to Weimer (2002), the lecturer-centered approach used in the classroom works against students becoming mature and successful learners. She further says that many lecturers recognize this and attempt to improve their teaching in the direction of more student-centeredness even though they have different levels of awareness of their teaching problems. Five areas where the student or teacher-centeredness of the classroom is clearly seen have been identified by Weimer (ibid, 2002). Firstly, there is an increasing ‘balance of power’ in which the decisions of the course are made by both lecturers and students. Lecturers function as advisors, catalysts and facilitators, hence maintaining their subordinate roles in the learning process. Secondly, as Weimer (2002) has pointed out, a good course is often mistakenly equated with a rigorous course. This leads to lecturers’ feeling of urgency to cover the content of the course rather than ensuring that the objectives of the course are achieved. Consequently, faced with a tremendous amount of course content, students tend to be encouraged to focus on memorization rather than conceptualization. Wiemer (2002), hence, suggests that course content is not just an end in itself, but as a means of assisting students to learn how to learn. Students are viewed not as empty vessels to be filled with information as seekers to be guided by lecturers along their journey of intellectual development.

Thirdly, in the traditional class, most of the learning activities including choosing and organizing the contents, applying and interpreting the concepts are carried out by the lecturers. In the student-centered learning, students’ cognitive and affective learning experiences should determine the approaches of learning. Supporting Weimer’s opinion, Baxter and Gray (2001)

assert that moving toward a model which motivates students to be actively engaged in the learning process is desirable for effective learning. Similarly, Tarnvick (2007) concurs that students are no longer expected to be passive recipients of knowledge; instead, the lecturers act as facilitators. Fourthly, as Weimer (2002) points out, in a student-centered setting, students are responsible for their learning. She states, as cited in Wright (2011), that today's students tend to have little commitment to learning and are "unable to function without structure and imposed control". Hence, she suggests that rather than imposing rules as external motivators, a faculty should create learning environments where student curiosity and maturity are enhanced and lecturers should encourage students to delve deeper into the subjects and related issues. Fifthly, the aim of the evaluation in the SCL is not just to generate grades but to promote learning (Weimer, 2002). This needs the following changing evaluation process: 1) learning goals and course objective are clearly stated; 2) students are taught to assess their own work and that of their peers; 3) students are given opportunities to practice both the theoretical and practical skills they have to learn and perform. Supporting Weimer's opinion, Cornelius and Gordon (2008) maintain that the objectives and practices employed determine the evaluation methods and the degree to which the course objectives are achieved should also be evaluated.

2.5 Competency-based Language Teaching

In the context of English language teaching, Richards and Rodgers (2001) state that the application of the principles of CBC to language teaching results in the competency-based language teaching (CBLT). Griffith and Lim (2014) assert that CBLT requires that rather than being taught in isolation, language should be connected to social context. The ability of learners to demonstrate what they can use with the language to communicate effectively characterizes the core principles of the CBLT (Paul, 2008; Wong, 2008, Richards and Rogers, 2001). CBLT, according to Docking (1994): 1) is designed around the notion of competency, not the notion of subject knowledge; 2) shifts the focus from what students know about language to what they can do with it; 3) applies the curriculum framework, syllabus specification, teaching strategies, and assessment to achieve competencies; 4) uses criterion-based assessment procedures in the learners' assessment instead of the norm-referenced ones in which learners are assessed based on how well they can perform on specific tasks.

In language teaching, a competency is related to tasks or “critical work functions”. The application of a set of skills and knowledge which are accurately applied leads to the successful completion of each specific task, and in CBLT the learning modules specify the competency as the final task (Griffith and Lim 2014). Griffith and Lim (2014) further say that competencies pertain to practical applications of the language in context. According to her, this necessitates the creation of the learning environment which allows students to use language in authentic situations likely to be encountered outside the classrooms.

Well-designed competencies, according to Griffith and Lim (2014), have several characteristics. Firstly, the description of the specific knowledge and skills which is applicable to complex and new situations is necessary. Additionally, the knowledge should be useful for students’ whole lifetime, so that students must be able to obtain values beyond classroom. Secondly, there must be clear performance criteria in each competency, allowing students to identify their weaknesses and to find ways to improve them. Finally, as non-explicit tasks and criteria will likely to cause possible failure, the competency must be personalized (Sturgis, 2012). This will avoid difficulty in specifying what needs to be done what competencies have been achieved.

CBLT, as pointed out by Docking (1994), can improve the teaching and learning process and be an agent of change. Because teachers are given the opportunity to revitalize their education and training programs in CBLT, quality of assessment can be enhanced and quality of teaching and learning can be improved through clear specification of the targeted outcomes and the continued feedback.

A new approach to teaching in which classes must be student-centered is required in CBLT. Classes must be student-centered emphasizing what tasks students can carry out. The ability to recall the previous information is not sufficient to measure competence (DGHE, 2008). In the context of English language teaching, identifying errors in writing or reciting grammar rules is not adequate to measure competence. Instead, competence is demonstrated by students’ ability to achieve specific tasks that they are likely to have in the real situation using the target language (Griffith & Lim, 2014).

In the context of higher education institutions in Indonesia, DGHE encourages lecturers to apply at least eight learning models related to student-centered learning, namely: 1) small group

discussion; 2) simulation and role plays; 3) discovery learning; 4) self-directed learning; 5) cooperative and collaborative learning; 6) contextual instruction; 7) project-based learning and 8) problem-based learning (DGHE, 2008). As pointed out by DGHE (2008) and supported by Sturgis and Patrick (2010), the use of student-centered learning modes shifts the teacher's role from one of being an information-giver to that of a facilitator. This does not mean that teachers must not act as information giver; instead, they deliver the information in different ways. Paul (2008) says that as facilitators, teachers are responsible in providing materials, creating activities and providing students the opportunities to practice what they have learnt. Hence, as Paul (2008) points out, the authenticity and quality of the learning materials are crucial to the success of the class. To function their roles as facilitator, lecturers should devote a large amount of time to creating activities related to the specific competencies which are important to meet the competency-requirement (Griffith & Lim, 2014). DGHE (2008), in its guideline book, provides activities the lecturers and students can do in each learning mode as shown in Table 2.8.

Table 2.4: Types of learning modes

	Learning modes	Students' activities	Lecturers' activities
1	Small group discussion	Forming a group, choosing the topic of discussion, discussing and presenting the result of discussion in the class	Designing the materials for discussion, becoming moderators of the discussion, evaluating the discussion process.
2	Simulation and role plays	Learning and acting the roles, practicing various (computer) models	Designing role plays activities similar to the real situations; evaluating the students' performance in the role plays and simulations.
3	Discovery learning	Searching and gathering information to develop new knowledge	Helping students in searching, gathering and analyzing information appropriately; evaluating the information searching and giving feedback to the process of incorporating information to develop new knowledge.

4	Self-directed learning	Planning the learning activities; executing the planning; evaluating the learning process	acting as facilitators; giving direction and guidance and giving feedback to the learning process
5	Cooperative and collaborative learning	Discussing and collaborating in doing the tasks; designing the collaboration process in the group	Preparing a topic, an issue or a case study for students' discussion; monitoring the discussion and collaboration process; acting as facilitators and motivators.
6	Contextual instruction	Discussing the theory and its relation to the real situations; conducting field studies to see the relation between the theory and the real situations	Explaining the theories and relating them to the real situation (e.g., in the areas of professional life); designing tasks for field studies.
7	Project-based learning	Doing the projects designed by lecturers; reporting and presenting the results of the projects in the class	Designing a project that allows students to learn through inquiry; guiding and assessment students' learning
8	Problem-based learning	Learning by searching information and use it to solve the problems	Designing problem-solving tasks; designing methods for problem-solving activities

Sources (DGHE, 2008)

The learning modes used in student-centered learning (SCL) also have advantages. For instance, Barkley (2005) suggests that role plays improve the self-development of the students through discussing and reflecting on their activities. Additionally, Carol (2007) argues that role plays contribute to the improvement of students' learning and teamwork skills. Along the same lines, Haynes and Renolds (2005) maintain that the role play is effective in leading students to improve their understanding of what they have learnt. The positive consequence of discovery learning is that learners are more likely to understand concepts provided they discover the concepts by themselves as opposed to those which are directed by teachers (Bruner, 1961). In self-directed learning, students' initiatives such as planning, executing and assessing their own learning are encouraged (Holec, 1983). Johnson and Johnson (1989) suggest that cooperative learning, in the form of whole group discussion, is effective in helping quiet students and enabling them to be more active and sociable. In contextual teaching, Miller (2006) suggests that the learning process

is active and socially engaging others. Through project-based learning, instead of simply being informed with facts and information from their teachers, students become active learners, using reasoning and discussion for problem solving (Eyring, 2001). Problem-based learning encourages students' autonomous learning with students confronting real life problems.

According to the researchers in the educational field, there is evidence to support the view that a SCL approach has advantages to learning (Darling-Hammond, 2003), including promoting class participation, allowing students to become more open and more efficient in making decisions on their own and ensuring the natural interaction between lecturers and students and encouraging students to use their prior knowledge in learning the new knowledge. The SCL also promotes the development of performance skills and higher order thinking based on learner's needs and strength (Darling-Hammond, 2003). Learner-centered teaching approaches were found to produce positive results including increased student motivation (Chung & Chow, 2004) and satisfaction (Kemmm & Dantas, 2007).

Despite its advantages, SCL also has several negative consequences: 1) Classrooms are often noisy, busy and chaotic because students talk during the classroom activities; 2) teachers must manage all students' activities at once, which may be difficult when students work on different stages of the same tasks; 3) Some students may miss important information as the teacher does not deliver instruction to all students at once; and 4) Working in groups can be a problem for students who prefer to work alone (Chung and Chow, 2004). Weimer (2002) acknowledges that making a transition from teacher-centered to student-centered learning approach presents challenges for both students and teachers because they usually adopt the traditional approaches of teaching and learning. Given the numerous positive consequences of the SCL approach, Wright (2011) suggests that teachers need to attempt to be familiar with the SCL so that they can overcome the barriers in teaching.

2.6 Assessment in CBC

The new learning paradigm shift from content-based curriculum to the CBC leads to a new paradigm for assessing students' performance. In the content-based curriculum, misunderstanding concerned with the learning assessment often occurs among lecturers (DGHE, 2008). As one example, lecturers often think that assessing students means giving scores with

some numbers to students. On the contrary, the new paradigm of CBC holds that assessment is an integral part of the learning process to give feedback to students' performance and mastery of competencies. Hence, a scoring number is not the ultimate goal of the assessment. Instead, the assessment reflects lecturers' efforts in helping students to achieve the targeted competencies.

Two kinds of assessment can be used, namely formative and summative assessments. The former is used to determine the students' progress in achieving the competency while the latter is used to determine whether or not the student has mastered the competency. The summative assessment is usually conducted at the end of each module as the final test and students failing a summative test cannot normally continue to the next competency, and the student must repeat the subject and achieve mastery (Richards and Rogers, 2001). As Griffith and Lim (2014) point out, the majority of assessments in the CBC is formative. Formative assessments must be specific and frequent and because their aim is to provide information about the strengths and weaknesses, they are rarely graded. Types of tests such as multiple choices, fill-in-the blank and true-false are forever abandoned in the CBC classroom as final competency assessments (Sturgis, 2012: Strugis & Patrick, 2010).

In the CBC setting, since the assessment is done at each learning stage, the assessment strategy should capture the overall students' performance on a daily basis through multiple methods such as individual assignment, group assignment, presentation, and portfolio (DGHE, 2008). DGHE (2008) suggests that rubrics be used by lecturers in assessing the students. Generally, the assessment rubrics have several functions and advantages; 1) it explains the assignments; 2) it informs the scoring weight; 3) it gives feedback to students' performance; 4) it assesses the students objectively and consistently (ibid, 2008).

Wiggin (1990) asserts that assessments should be authentic and in order to be authentic, the context, the tasks as well as the evaluation criteria should be considered in the assessment process. Authentic assessments require the measurement of real-world tasks and the application of knowledge and skills to complete a task (ibid, 1990). O'Connor (2002) summarizes the differences between assessments and grades in traditional classes and those in competency-based classes in Table 2.5

Table 2.5: Traditional versus competency-based assessments

Traditional assessments	Competency-based assessments
One grade given per assignment and an assignment can be a test, project, homework, a quiz, or anything which should be completed by students.	Each specific competency is given one grade. The assessments may be conducted throughout the process but these formative assessments will not normally be considered in the final evaluation.
Percentage system is used for assessments. Criteria for success may not be clear.	Standards are proficiency or criterion-based and specific criteria are made available for students ahead of time.
Grades may be based on a combination of assessment, efforts and behaviour and achievement to determine the final grade and may include extra credit and late penalties.	Grades measure achievement only. Although information about effort and behavior is not part of the competency assessment, it may be reported. No penalties and extra credit are given.
Everything is recorded in the grade book regardless of purpose and every assessment score is included to determine the students' final grade no matter when it was collected during the module. Whether or not students advance to the next level is determined by the final grade.	Students advance only upon the mastery of the competency.

Source (O'Connor, 2002)

Many lecturers in Indonesia still rely on standardized or traditional forms of assessment (DGHE, 2008). Traditional tests are considered as appropriate in measuring basic facts or declarative knowledge (Pellegrino et al., 2001) but they are not reasonable for the student-centered style (Norman & Spohrer, 1996). The examples of the traditional tests are retention and recall tests. Mayer (1999) says that retention tests, such as recall and recognition tests, are used to evaluate how much of the given learning materials is remembered. In the recall tests, students are asked to record all the information they can recall from a given source, while in recognition tests, they are asked to choose which of several answers is the best (ibid, 1999). Duncan and Cohen (2011) suggest that both recognition and recall tests aim to measure rote learning which mostly take the form of a multiple-choice test. Rote learning, according to Mayer (1999), is students adding information to their memories which is promoted through drill-and-practice instruction approaches. Multiple-choice tests which support the rote learning, according to Duncan and Cohen (2011) has several disadvantages: 1) The information on the test may be interpreted

differently than was intended and, therefore, is answered incorrectly by the student; 2) Multiple choice assessments do not allow students to receive credit for what they do know because the tests offer an all-or-nothing approach for measuring students' learning; 3). Because of different choices to opt, a student may receive credit for a correct guess. Given all these drawbacks, the assessment only measures the process, not the final outcome (ibid, 2011).

Pellegrino et al., (2001) have identified two serious limitations of the traditional assessments. First, traditional assessments may not reveal the sorts of learners' sophisticated skills and knowledge which are considered critical for success in more complex societies. The structure of the tests fails to identify key differences in students' level of understanding. Second, traditional assessments only show the students' understanding at one specific moment in time, but not portray their progression of knowledge over time. In order to support learning effectively, teachers need to move to learner-centered assessment (Weimer, 2002). Assessment in student-centered learning is used to provide a balance between generating grades and promoting learning (ibid, 2002). Additionally, assessment in student-centered learning challenges students to be more fully engaged in both the learning and assessment process. Specifically, Cambourne (2002, p.28) proposes the principles of engagement in the learning and assessment process, stating that learners are more likely to engage deeply with demonstrations if: 1) they believe that they are capable of ultimately learning or doing whatever is being demonstrated; 2) if they believe that learning whatever is being demonstrated has some potential value, purpose and use of them; 3) they are free from anxiety; 4) they are taught by someone they like, respect, admire, trust and would like to emulate.

2.7 The Inclusion of Soft Skills

That a university education should go beyond the acquisition of knowledge has been consistently encouraged by academics. Among the more common requirements is the acquisition of generic competencies. The term soft skills or generic competencies is used in various ways and has a number of synonyms (Clanchy and Ballard, 1995). In several cases, skills levels are differentiated and employers, academics and government bodies hold different definitions and the interpretation of their significance (Bennet et al, 1999). Kember (2009) points out the terms such as lifelong learning skills, transferable skills or graduate attributes are synonymous with

generic skills. Examples of these skills comprise critical thinking, self-managed learning, problem solving, adaptability, communication skills and interpersonal skills (ibid, 2009).

The competencies are often described as employability skills, referring to the skills and knowledge which are generic to all jobs and vital to the workplace participation and cohesion. The employability skills generally known as generic skills and graduate capabilities reflect the more holistic approach to education and skills in the HE sectors. Regarded as being essential to be taught in higher education, the generic skills generally require cognitive abilities such as logical and analytical thinking including problem solving, teamwork skills, effective communication skills, intellectual curiosity as well as abilities to identify, manage and access information and knowledge.

According to Kember (2009), two main factors have driven the inclusion of generic skills in higher education institutions. The first factor relates to the emergence of the information era and the accelerated pace of societal and technological change. In this situation, it is inadequate to only master the hard skills, but it is imperative for graduates to be capable of self-managed or lifelong learning as well as intellectual qualities such as critical thinking and ability to engage with ill-defined problems(ibid, 2009).

Economic forces are the second factor which encourages the inclusion of generic skills. The transition from a basic manufacturing to a knowledge-based economy requires graduates for an intelligent labor force to have added value capabilities such as creative thinking, flexibility, adaptability and information technology skills (Kember, 2009). Additionally, the increasing demand to work in inter-disciplinary teams suggests a need for improved interpersonal skills and ability to communicate and work in teams (Badcock et al, 2010).

Questions have been posed as to whether graduates of higher education have adequately equipped themselves with generic skills in order to be effective professionals contributing to a knowledge economy. In USA, a review of 20 major reports of business organizations done by Daly (1994) demonstrated that there was a decrease in the competitive edge in the global economy due to the inadequacy of generic skills among university graduates. Numerous governments including those of Germany, Australia, Spain, New Zealand, Switzerland and the UK have produced plans and reports to arm higher education graduates with generic skills

(Longworth and Davies, 1996). In Indonesia, the call for the shift to the CBC manifested the government's concern for encouraging the inclusion of generic skills in higher education institutions as its guidelines provides clues for incorporating these skills into the curriculum.

The central issue concerns the steps higher education institutions can take to equip their graduates with the generic skills. In turn, this raises the essential question to how these generic skills can be developed. While there is still some uncertainty on how generic capabilities should be developed, Kember (2009) has offered two methods. Firstly, generic skills can be developed through a stimulating campus environment. In fact, the students, over the term of their enrolment, develop intellectually through engagement with a stimulating campus environment supported by good teaching, intelligent peers, good facilities and an interesting curriculum (ibid, 2009). As an example, to achieve the success of nurturing the generic skills, the whole curriculum should have internal consistency with the CBE in that it provides practices in desired capabilities (ibid, 2009). Furthermore, Kember (2009) also argues that the curriculum design needs to include goals embracing the development of necessary generic skills. In a second example, student-student and teacher-student relationships can also reflect a stimulating campus environment which nurtures generic skills. These forms of relationships will particularly create cooperative learning where communication and interpersonal skills are enhanced (ibid, 2009). Positive teacher-student relationships also help contribute to cooperative learning which leads to supporting peer-student relationships (Yan & Kember, 2003).

The second strategy to enhance the generic skills in higher education institutions proposed by Kember (2009) is through teaching and learning within the discipline. Jackson's in-depth study of particular disciplines also reveals that higher order thinking skills are nurtured in the teaching and learning process in universities (Jackson, 2000). Reviewing various teaching methods employed, Moy (1999) suggests that forms of learning which require students to be active in the class appear to provide a better atmosphere in the development of generic capabilities. Indeed, collaborative learning offers more benefits than individual learning. Furthermore, De la Harpe et al. (2000) also suggest that student-centered forms of learning could cultivate generic capabilities and argue that working in groups was advantageous. For example, the students in Kember's study (2000) judged that discussion was particularly essential for the development of problem

solving capabilities and critical thinking. The students also said that the lecturers should be facilitators in order to help students to enhance their generic capabilities.

The final strategy to develop the generic skills is through assessment. According to Thomas and Ban (1984) the assessment should be consistent with the learning approach the tutors or lecturers adopt. For instance, if students are required to improve their intellectual capabilities through practicing them, the assessment should require them to employ skills to complete the tasks.

2.8 Competencies for English Language Teachers

The main objective of the English language program in higher education institutions is to produce competent teachers. A generic definition of teacher competency refers to an ability to demonstrate professional behaviour in a certain context which is guided by attitudes, knowledge, skills and personal characteristics (Darling-Hamond, 2003). In fact, quality or excellence in teaching has been benchmarked by various countries and accreditation standards. For example, in Australia teachers who are able to make a significant contribution to improving the quality of learning and teaching by motivating and inspiring students through cutting edge presentation and interpersonal and communication skills are rewarded (ibid, 2003).

In Indonesia, a list of teacher core competencies was suggested in the Regulation of the Ministry of Education no. 16/2007. This list applies to all teachers including English teachers. The regulation refers to the 'standard of competencies' comprising pedagogic competence, ethical competence, social competence and professional competence. Included in the *pedagogic competencies* are abilities to: 1) understand the physical, moral, societal, cultural, emotional and intellectual characteristics of the students; 2) understand and apply the learning theories and principles; 3) develop the curriculum; 4) incorporate information technology in the teaching and learning process; 5) facilitate the students to develop and actualize their potential; 6) make assessment and evaluate the learning process and use them to improve the quality of teaching and learning; and 7) think and act reflectively in order to enhance the quality of teaching and learning. *The personal competencies* involve the abilities to: 1) act in accordance with religious, legal, social and Indonesian cultural norms; 2) demonstrate honesty and set the example of good moral conduct; 3) demonstrate a high level of work ethic, confidence and responsibility; and 4) implement the teachers' codes of conduct. *The social competencies* comprise abilities to: 1) act

inclusively and objectively and avoid discriminatory treatment to students; 2) communicate effectively and emphatically to students, colleagues, parents and stakeholders; 3) adapt to the diverse Indonesian social and multicultural background; 4) communicate academically in the professional community to leverage teachers' professionalism and competencies. *The professional competencies* consist of the abilities to: 1) master the teaching and learning materials; 2) understand the competency standard of the subjects; 3) develop the learning materials creatively; 4) enhance the continued professional development; and 5) use information technology for professional development.

In the context of English teaching, Cross (2003) identifies four domains: 1) level of education; 2) subject competencies; 3) professional competencies; and 4) attitudes. On the other hand, Richards (1988) proposes six areas of competencies: 1) theories of teaching; 2) teaching skills; 3) communication skills; 4) subject matter knowledge; 5) pedagogical reasoning and decision-making; and 6) contextual knowledge. Mulhauser (1958), as cited in Soepriyatna (2012), identifies the competence of a foreign language into three headings: 1) language competence including oral, aural reading and writing; 2) cultural background in the broad sense such as linguistics, civilizations and literature; and 3) techniques and skills specific to the teaching of foreign language. These three perspectives show an agreement with the one proposed by the Ministry of Education no. 16/2007 on the following areas of competencies: content knowledge, teaching skills specific to English teaching, and English communicative competence, the ability to communicate grammatically correct English, and to use the language appropriate to situational contexts.

In the context of English teaching, numerous scholars have come up with their lists of attributes of competent English teachers. Since 1965 Allen has offered a down-to-earth list of attributes of good English teachers, namely; 1) having a competent preparation leading to a degree in teaching English; 2) having an interest in the English language; 3) possessing critical thinking; 4) being persistent to upgrade oneself; 4) having cultural adaptability; 5) possessing professional citizenship and 6) possessing a feeling of excitement about one's work. More comprehensive characteristics of a competent English teacher have been proposed by Brown (2004), comprising: technical knowledge, pedagogical skills, interpersonal skills and personal qualities.

2.9 Approaches in Curriculum Implementation

To determine the extent to which the curriculum should be implemented, several approaches can be used to implement the curriculum, including: 1) fidelity perspective; 2) mutual adaptation; and 3) curriculum enactment. As the first generation of curriculum research, the fidelity perspective measured and examined the implementation of the objectives of a written curriculum (Posner, 1992). On the other hand, rather than gauging the degree to which the curriculum is implemented as planned, mutual adaptation focuses on how the curriculum is adapted by teachers during implementation (Berman & Pauley, 1975; McLaughlin, 1987). In contrast to the two perspectives, curriculum enactment is concerned with how evolving constructs of teachers and students shape the curriculum.

The fidelity perspective suggests that curriculum knowledge is designed and developed by experts. Based on the fidelity perspective, curriculum change is considered as a linear process in which teachers must implement the innovation as developed in the classroom. The implementation is deemed successful when the curriculum is carried out as dictated. Hence, according to Darling-Hammond (1990), the teacher, seen in this perspective, is conceived of as the policy recipient. Ariav (1988), as cited in Marsh (2009), used the phrase ‘curriculum literacy’ to suggest that many teachers have inadequate understanding of what the curriculum should be and how to teach using the curriculum. The fidelity perspective assumes that as teachers lack curriculum literacy, the planned curriculum must be highly structured and explicit instruction must be given to teachers so that they can teach it (Marsh, 2009).

Roitman and Mayer (1982), as cited in Marsh (2009), noted that the supporters of the fidelity perspective insist that curriculum innovations enacted in the classrooms should closely, if not completely, correspond to what is planned. Hence, teachers take the role of the consumer in the curriculum implementation. Unless the teacher implements it in accordance with the prescribed curriculum, the objectives of the curriculum are not achieved. Marsh (2009) contends that the fidelity perspective leaves limited opportunity for teachers to tailor a curriculum to any changing or particular circumstances of the classrooms or educational institutions in which it is intended to be taught. Additionally, Carless (2004) states that in the fidelity perspective, teachers’ prior knowledge and experiences are ignored in the curriculum implementation. They further asserted

that the argument that, once trained, teachers will be able to implement the curriculum at a high level of mastery is a dubious assumption.

The alternative approach was termed by Fullan and Pomfret (1997) as adaptation or mutual adaptation perspective. According to Berman and McLaughlin (1975), as cited in Marsh (2009), educational institutions and teachers face different circumstances so that on-site adjustments to the curriculum are needed. They further state that in the real implementation the curricula are modified to suit the changing and specific situations experienced by teachers and this is essential to allow students to reap the greatest possible benefits. Fullan and Pomfret appeared to favor this approach, especially in their analysis of the Rand study, which, at the time, was probably the most comprehensive research study on implementation of the curriculum ever undertaken, consisting of 293 projects in school districts in various regions of the United States. Successful curriculum innovations, according to the researchers of the Rand study, can be achieved if planned curricula were not highly packaged or specified in advance but were mutually adapted by users within specific institutional settings (Berman and McLaughlin, 1975).

The mutual adaptation perspective was a term first used by Dalin and McLaughlin (1975), explaining that in the process of the implementation, modifications are made to both the innovative curriculum and to the institutional setting. “In mutual adaptation, the process is a two-way-street between developers and users” (Marsh, 2009, p. 103). Since the 1970s, many researchers have argued that mutual adaptation comprises agreed-on adjustments arranged between developers and users, thus representing the most effective way of ensuring effective implementation of a new curriculum (ibid, 2009). McDonald and Walker (1976), as cited in Marsh (2009), assert that curriculum implementation really necessitates negotiation and trade-offs between curriculum developers and teachers. Walker (2003) maintained that implementation is really a political decision and involves face-to-face and personal interaction as a central part of it.

Farrar et al. (1979) characterize the curriculum implementation as evolution involving the shift in the institution culture. They state that what at first appears to be a fixed blueprint is increasingly perceived by teachers as something flexible: “The needs and values of those within the institution adds, subtracts, modify and invent...Some variations are less discordant than others,

but virtually none is a single composition with everyone playing from the same score” (ibid, 1979, p. 96). Spillane (2004) concludes that it is the social dimension that affects how teachers implement a curriculum. Operating in enactment zones, teachers’ sense-making can vary widely. As Spillane points out that the more teachers enactment zones extend beyond their individual classrooms to include rich deliberations about the reforms and practicing the reform ideas with fellow teachers and other experts, the more likely teachers are to change the core of their practice.

2.10 Summary

The increasing demand that higher education institutions produce skilled-based competent human resources has given impetus for the adoption of the competency-based curriculum. In fact, the employability agenda in Indonesian higher education has become a significant agenda to address. The curriculum becomes vital in determining the effectiveness and efficiency of the educational programs in order to produce the graduate who has competencies needed by the world of work. Hence, the Indonesian government, through its Directorate General of Higher Education (DGHE) recommended the use of the CBC to be implemented in higher education institutions.

The implementation of the CBC required the lecturers and students to have a paradigm shift in terms of the graduate competencies, curriculum structure, teaching and learning process, assessment and the integration of soft skills. The design of the curriculum in higher education institutions should begin with the graduate profiles and competencies. These two elements become the foundation under which the curriculum structure is formulated. In terms of the English Education department, the curriculum should include the development of teacher’s core competencies such as professional, pedagogical, personal and social competencies. Additionally, the department should also develop ‘supporting’ and ‘other’ competencies to give added value to their graduates. The teaching and learning process in the CBC scheme should be directed towards the student-centered learning approach in which students become active participants and lecturers become the facilitators of students’ learning. Hence, lecturers should be able to apply the teaching methods which are able to facilitate the learning process. The assessment should also encourage students’ learning, using the various strategies beyond the mid-semester and

semester test, including portfolio and assignments. Another element, namely the development of soft skills is considered useful, especially in the efforts of higher education to equip their graduates with competitive advantages when joining the job market.

How a planned curriculum is implemented as the enacted curriculum in any higher education institution is a complex process that can take three approaches including the fidelity, adaption and mutual adaptation perspective. While the fidelity approach of implementation gives limited room for lecturers to innovate, the adaptation and mutual adaptation perspectives allow them to adapt and modify the planned curriculum and tailor it to their specific circumstances.

CHAPTER 3 • RESEARCH STRATEGY

As explained at the beginning, this study is aimed at evaluating the Competency-Based Curriculum in five higher education institutions (HEI) delivering English language programs located in Indonesia. This chapter outlines the research strategy used for this study. The first section highlights the research methodology and outlines the evaluation research strategy and case study methodology. The second section outlines the sampling strategy while the third section describes the profile of the research participants. Validity and reliability as well as instrumentation are outlined in the fourth section. The fifth section describes the process of data collection and the sixth section will outline the researcher's experience in collecting the data. The techniques of data analysis will be dealt with in the seventh section and the ethical issues are described in the final section.

3.1 Research Methodology and Epistemology

The research is a program evaluation and employs the amalgamation of qualitative and quantitative methods, even though the core methodology is the use of the case study. According to Sherman and Webb (1988), the qualitative case study is directly concerned with lived, felt and undergone experience so that it fits within the general framework of qualitative research. As Sugiyono (2010) puts it, any qualitative method is used to gain a deep understanding of research topics or phenomena. As an example of qualitative research, this study: 1) has the natural setting as the direct source of data and the researcher is the key instrument; 2) is descriptive as the data collected is in the form of words or pictures and of quantitative numbers; 3) is concerned with processes rather than products; 4) tries to analyze the data inductively; 5) believes in meaning as essential (Bogdan & Biklen, 1992). Similarly, Creswell (1998) argues that qualitative research is an inquiry process of understanding based on distinct methodological traditions of inquiry that explore a social or individual human problem. The researcher builds a complex, holistic picture, analyzes words, reports detailed views of informants and conducts the study in a natural setting (ibid, 1998).

The collection of quantitative data occurred with a small survey of lecturers regarding the learning models used in the teaching and learning process. The results from the quantitative and

qualitative data were triangulated and compared to find out if there were similarities and differences in the findings in the context of classroom experiences and challenges facing lecturers and students.

To understand how CBC has been implemented as viewed by the participants of the research, the research is framed within a constructivist paradigm, emphasizing social constructivism. Therefore, the epistemological lens through which the research is guided is social constructivism. According to Crotty (1998), meaningful reality which shapes knowledge is dependent upon human practices and constructed through an interaction between human beings and the world in their social context. Greenwood (1994) also maintained that the social constructivist considers social reality through constructing, sustaining and reproducing the reality in the social life. In the same vein, Lincoln and Guba (1995) asserted that the reality of the world does not inherently contain knowledge which people can find. Instead, people construct meaning which is contingent upon the world around them as well as their present and past experience. In other words, people account for social, cultural and historical perspectives to discover multiple constructed realities since for Lincoln and Guba, there is not a single tangible reality. Similarly, Greenwood's terms (1994) suggest that in their daily life, people use social reality as a source of shared knowledge and meaning through reproducing, constructing and sustaining it.

Hence, the perspective of social constructionism is the epistemological lens through which the participants' perspectives are understood. In order for the researcher to understand the implementation of the CBC, it is important to consider the meaning of participants' experiences constructed within the context they have lived.

3.2 Evaluation Research Strategy

Evaluation research is defined by Gay et al. (2009) as the systematic process of gathering and analyzing data about the effectiveness, quality, products or practices, value or merit of programs that are mainly focused on making decisions about them. Christie and Fierro (2010) have noted that educational program evaluation is mostly concerned with the study of curriculum, programs and policies. Similarly, evaluation was defined by Metfessel and Michael (1967) in their groundbreaking insights as efforts to compare measured performance using behavioural

standards with the aim of formulating recommendations which provide a basis for further modifications, implementation and revisions in either specific objectives or broad goals.

As cited in Kemmis and Stake (1988), Stufflebeam (1971) defined evaluation as the process of obtaining, explaining, and providing useful information for assessing decision alternatives with the aim of providing relevant information to decision-makers. Gall et al. (2007) contend that evaluation research is useful and important for program managers (school superintendents and university administrators), curriculum developers (teachers and research and development specialists), policy makers as well as school board members (including parents in schooling contexts). As pointed out by Genesee (2001), evaluation is interested in understanding whether students have learned according to the desired standards and whether the curriculum had been implemented in the way it should have been.

It is a form of research, even though evaluation and research are more appropriately distinguished in terms of the motivation of the inquirer, objective of the search and ‘laws’ vs ‘descriptions and properties of the phenomena’ (Worthen & Sanders, 1971). Worthen and Sanders (1971) state that, in terms of motivation, research and evaluation are generally to be undertaken for different reasons. Research is pursued largely to satisfy curiosity; evaluation is intended to contribute to the solution of a particular kind of practical problem. While the researcher is intrigued, the evaluator is concerned. With regards to the objectives of the research, as Worthen and Sanders point out, research seeks conclusions while evaluation leads to decisions (ibid, 1971). Cronbach and Suppes (1969, pp. 20-21) distinguished between decision-oriented and conclusion-oriented inquiry.

In a decision-oriented study the investigator is asked to provide information wanted by a decision-maker: a school administrator, a government policy-maker, the manager of a project to develop a new biology textbook, or the like. The decision-oriented study is a commissioned study. The decision-maker believes that he needs information to guide his actions and he poses the question to the investigator. The conclusion-oriented study, on the other hand, takes its direction from the investigator’s commitments and hunches. The educational decision-maker can, at most, arouse investigator’s interest in a problem. The conclusion-oriented inquiry formulates his own question, usually a general one rather than a question about a particular institution. The aim is to conceptualize and understand the chosen phenomenon; a particular finding is only a means to that end. Therefore, he concentrates on persons and settings that he expects to be enlightening.

Worthen and Sanders (1971) further say that the comparison between research and evaluation can be explained in the terms ‘law’ vs. ‘description’. “Closely related to the distinction between

conclusion orientation and decision-orientation are the familiar concepts of ‘nomothetic’ (law giving) and ‘idiographic’ (descriptive of particular) activities. Research is the quest for laws, that is, statements of relationship among two or more variables or phenomena while evaluation merely seeks to describe a particular thing with respect to one or more scales of value” (ibid, 1971, p. 28). Finally, in terms of properties of the phenomena, educational evaluation is an attempt to assess the worth of a thing and educational research is an attempt to assess scientific truth.

Cahill (1984) suggested that evaluation research can apply the amalgamation of quantitative and qualitative methods techniques aimed at examining a process, a product or a policy. The evaluation study conducted by Cahill (1984) was built around the strategy used by an RMIT University team in the mid-1980s. Using fifty randomly selected primary and secondary schools in an Australia-wide study (Cahill, 1984) and in a subsequent study of fifteen schools (Cahill, 1996), the aim of this evaluation study was to evaluate a national program.

Kemmis and Stake (1988) assert research deals more with the nature than the worth of things, whereas evaluation is concerned with questions of worth or quality. In addition, Christie and Fierro (2010) state that evaluation questions are often prompted from program stakeholders and are more decision-oriented in order to produce information for program improvement, while research questions are generated by researcher(s) with the purpose of understanding phenomena and contributing to the development of knowledge. This study is an evaluation research aiming at examining policy and process as well as product of the English language programs in English education departments in selected Indonesian universities.

In the Indonesian context, curricula in higher education institutions ought to be evaluated by the heads of department and teachers in order to accord with the students’ characteristics and school contexts. Kemmis and Stake (1988) suggest that instead of focusing on the living, working curriculum of education systems, a great deal of reported work emphasizes the evaluation of educational reform programs and curriculum development projects introduced by governments and other agencies. Moreover, rather than seeing curriculum as the day-to-day work and ‘lived experience’ of teachers, students, school administrators, parents and others, authors tend to view

it from the outside as a thing. This evaluation research strategy had never been previously done in Indonesia since the implementation of the CBC in 2008. Five English departments were selected as the sites for this research.

This evaluation research concerning the CBC would seem to be the first evaluation conducted. The main research question focused on the evaluation of the implementation of the CBC on the ground. In this evaluation research, the primary purpose was to examine the implementation of CBC. As already mentioned, the research objectives were: 1) to describe the English language curriculum introduced into Indonesian higher education institutions; 2) to ascertain the perceptions of the implementation of the CBC from the perspectives of the heads of departments, lecturers and students; 3) to ascertain the classroom practices of the lecturers and students in the teaching and learning process, including the use of teaching learning approaches, the incorporation of soft skills and the assessment processes; and 4) to ascertain the challenges surrounding the implementation of the CBC.

3.3 Case Study Methodology

The case study attempts to focus on the exploration of the bounded system for one or more cases in detail, followed by in-depth data gathering involving diverse information sources and contexts (Creswell, 1998). The term ‘bounded system’ refers to the limitations of the time, place and case (Herdiansyah, 2012). In a similar vein, Stake (1995) maintains that particularization becomes the objective of a case study. This necessitates the study of particularity and complexity of a single case and understanding of ‘how’ and ‘why’ activities within unique circumstances might happen (ibid, 1995).

The qualitative case study approach is deemed suitable to be employed in this research as the aims of the research are to ascertain how the participants make sense of their world, construct the meaning and have lived their experiences. The case study attempts to focus on the exploration of the bounded system for one or more cases in detail, followed by in-depth data gathering involving diverse information resources and contexts (Creswell, 1998). The term ‘bounded system’ refers to the limitations of the time, place and case (Herdiansyah, 2012). As Merriam (1998) points out, when a case study using more than one case is conducted by a researcher, it is considered a multiple case study. As this research used five multiple cases to gain a holistic and

in-depth understanding of the heads of departments, lecturers and students' experience in implementing the CBC, a multi-case study design was employed (Yin, 2009; Stake, 2000; Merriam, 1998).

The research will provide convincing data interpretations as the multi-case study design requires the data collection and analysis to be completed from several cases. Moreover, Merriam (1998) argues that the external validity can be enhanced through the use of multiple cases. The external validity is deemed important by Merriam (1998) as it determines how the findings can be transferred to other situations. While trying to identify some general and important patterns among cases, this research aims for thick descriptions (Geerts, 1973) as well as concrete and complex descriptions (Wolcott, 1994) of the individual cases. To meet this purpose, data sources, viewpoints and triangulation methods were used.

In the context of this study, the use of the qualitative multi-case approach offers some advantages in researching the study's questions. First, rather than acting as an expert who makes judgments on participants, the researcher positions himself or herself as an active listener who creates a context for the participants' opinions and stories from his or her own perspective (Creswell, 1998). Hence, the meaningfulness and the richness of the case study's exploration and description can be obtained by empowering the participants. Second, as Wolcott (1994) points out, this approach will allow the researcher to capture the experiences lived and faced by the participants in implementing the CBC. Finally, the triangulation of data from multiple sources of evidence permits the researcher to cross-check the understanding and experiences of the participants in implementing the CBC (Yin, 2009). The use of evidence from multiple cases is considered by Herriot and Firestone (1983) as more convincing, making the overall study more vigorous.

In addition to the case study method, the employment of the evaluative research was expected to yield two outputs. First, the evaluative research will gauge how well or to what degree has the CBC been implemented in English Study Programs in five teacher training colleges. Through the data gathered, superior or poor performance in the CBC implementation can be identified. Second, the reasons why the performance in implementing the CBC might be poor can be revealed through the data gathered in the case studies.

A number of strategies were employed to gather the data in the case studies. To gain an understanding of the implementation of CBC in English Teacher Education, field observation was carried out to hear and see from the research site concerned with the practice of the Language Teaching Programs. Other data in the case studies were gathered through such techniques as interview, focus group discussion and document study, hence qualitative in nature. The data obtained from the surveys allowed the quantitative data to enrich the qualitative approach used.

3.4 Participants and Venues

This research is to evaluate the implementation of the CBC in the Yawalla province (pseudonym). The Yawalla province covers four districts, namely Kawalla, Sawalla, Banalla, Ganalla (pseudonym) and one municipality, namely Yawalla city. In the context of higher education in Indonesia, universities can be divided into two categories, namely state and private universities. The state universities are owned and managed by the government while the private universities are managed by either individuals or foundations, including the religious foundations such as Islamic and Catholic/Christian foundations. Based on the statistics provided by the DGHE, there were two state universities and 17 private universities in the Yawalla province (see Table 3.1). In addition to universities, there are also other types of higher education institutions in the Yawalla province including four institutes, eight polytechnics and 92 academies.

Table 3.1: Universities in Yawalla Province

No	District	Types of universities		Total
		State	private	
1	Yawalla city	2	6	8
2	Sawalla		7	7
3	Bantalla		3	3
4	Kawalla		-	-
5	Ganalla		1	1
	TOTAL	2	17	19

Source: www.yawala.bps.go.id (2004) retrieved in 3 October, 2013

The types of higher education institutions in Indonesia cover academies, polytechnics and universities. In both academies and polytechnics, students can normally complete their study in three years. The university covers the bachelor, master and doctorate levels. To obtain a bachelor degree, students normally need three years of study while to gain a master's degree, they need two years. To finish studying in the doctorate program, students need three to four years of study.

The number of students in each district was different. As can be seen from the table, Yawalla and Sawalla have the most number of universities with eight and seven universities respectively while the Bantalla area only has three private universities and the Ganalla county has only one university. As a result, the number of students studying in higher education institutions in the Yawalla province outnumbers the number of students studying in the other four districts.

According to the statistical bureau agency in 2008, Yawalla's average population density achieved 1,083 people per square kilometre. Table 3.2 present the population profile and the number of universities in each district which demonstrates that more people live in Yawalla City, approximately 11, 941 people per square kilometre, in comparison to other districts. The district which had the least population density, which is 461 per square kilometre, was Ganalla. In this research, one university where an English department affiliate was situated in the city with a

population density above 5, 0000 and four universities in urban areas whose population density is between 1000 and 4,999

Table 3.2: Comparison between areas, populations and universities where EEDs affiliate in districts

No	District	Area (km^2)	Population (person)	Density (pon/ km^2)	University	
					state	Private
1	Yawalla	32.50	388,088	11,941	2	6
2	Sawalla	574,80	1,090,567	1,897		7
3	Bantalla	506,86	910,572	1,796		3
4	Kawalla	586,27	375,000	639		1
5	Ganalla	1,485,36	686,000	451		-

Source: www.yawala.bps.go.id retrieved in 3 October, 2013

However, although there were 19 universities in the districts, this research involved only five of them as they met the following criteria: 1) The five universities had English education departments and these departments had operated for more than two years, hence possessing experience with the CBC implementation; 2) The five universities were located in the central city and in urban areas of major cities, hence representing diverse areas in the Yawalla province; 3) All five universities had different religious and philosophical orientations; and 4) of the five, one was a state university and the other four were private. These criteria would subsequently reveal the uniqueness of the case studies of the five EEDs. The following are the details of the five EEDs:

A. EED I

EED 1 is a part of one of the biggest Islamic movements in Indonesia called Muhammadiyah which was established by Kiai Haji Ahmad Dahlan in Indonesia in 1921. One of Muhammadiyah's activities is running educational institutions from kindergarten to tertiary education. The University to which EED I affiliated is one of 177 Muhammadiyah Universities in Indonesia (Detiknews, 2015). As one of the departments in Muhammadiyah university of Yawalla, EED I was established in 2009. Currently, this university has eight faculties. At the

time of data collection, EED I had approximately 327 fully-enrolled students and 14 permanent lecturers. As the head of department (HoD) pointed out, EED 1 started implementing the CBC in 2009.

B. EED II

EED II was formerly an independent teacher training college established in 1965. In Indonesia, EED II is well known as a Catholic university of which there are sixteen in Indonesia (Wikipedia, n.d). Since that year, the teacher training unit has run study programs such as mathematics education, physics education, Bahasa Indonesia education, English education and social science education. The teacher training college was upgraded to become a university through a decree of the Minister for Education in 1993.

Continuing its development, EED II was at the time of the research offering 25 study programs through its eight faculties and three postgraduate programs. The English Department is within the Faculty of Teacher Education. The English Department of EED II department offers an S1 program, which is equivalent to a four-year undergraduate university degree program in many other countries.

There were approximately 512 enrolled EED II students and 37 permanent lecturers. Some of these students had finished their theoretical subjects, and therefore, they no longer attended or took scheduled classes. To graduate from EED II, students are required to complete their final papers or theses successfully. While studying at EED II, every student can also choose from a wide range of campus activities to join in order to express and develop themselves. The HoD said that EED II started implementing the CBC in 2007.

C. EED III

EED III was established on 21st May 1964. Previously, the university to which EED III is affiliated was a part of the Faculty of Pedagogy of Ganawa University which then became the Institute of Teacher Education. In 1999 with presidential decree No. 93, the Teacher Training College of Yawalla became a university. At the time of the research the university where the EED III is affiliated had six faculties. EED III is within the Faculty of Art and Language Education.

There were approximately 699 fully-enrolled students at EED III and around 96 lecturers. Some of these students had finished the theoretical subjects, and therefore, they no longer attended or took scheduled classes. However, to graduate from the English Education Department, they were required to complete their final papers or theses successfully. According to the HoD, EED III began to implement the CBC in 2008.

D. EED IV

The establishment of the university where EED IV is affiliated cannot be separated from the *Tamansiswa* movement which was established by Ki Hadjar Dewantara on 3 July 1922. The university to which EED IV belong is one of six universities under Tamansiswa organization (Tamansiswajkt, 2013). In the colonial era, *Tamansiswa* was regarded as an influential education movement providing educational services from kindergarten to university level. At the beginning the educational institutions of *Tamansiswa* comprised only kindergarten (*Taman Indria*), Primary School (*Taman Muda*), Junior High School (*Taman Dewasa*), and Senior High School (*Taman Madya*). On 15 November 1955, Dewantara established a university called Taman Prasajana and it became the university where EED IV is affiliated presently.

In this university, EED IV is within the Faculty of Education. EED IV accepts approximately 150 students per year. At the time of data collection, around 654 students studied at EED IV and there were 20 permanent lecturers. As the HoD pointed out, EED IV started implementing the CBC in 2008.

D. EED V

The university of which EED V is a part resulted from the development of the IKIP (Institute of Teacher Education) Muhammadiyah Yawalla established on the 18th November 1960. With the Decree of the Minister of Education on 19th December 1994, IKIP Muhammadiyah became a university to which EED V was affiliated. This university is one of the universities belonging to Muhammadiyah, the second largest Islamic organization in Indonesia. EED V is one of the departments within the Faculty of Education in EED V.

The university to which EED V is affiliated had three program strata for its English department, namely the diploma program, the undergraduate program and the postgraduate program (master program). Approximately 70 students enter the diploma program every year; 250 students enter

the undergraduate program and 20 students enter the master program. At the time of data collection, the total number of students at EED V was approximately 673 with 35 lecturers. The HoD said that EED V started implementing the CBC in 2007.

3.5 Sampling Strategy

The type of samples used in this research is non-probability samples. As Cohen et al. (2011, p.155) point out, “the selectivity which is built into a non-probability sample derives from the researcher targeting a particular group, in the full knowledge that it does not represent wider population; it simply represents itself”. The sampling strategy used in this research is purposive sampling. According to Cohen et al. (2011, p. 156), using purposive sampling researchers “hand-pick the cases to be included in the sample on the basis of their judgment of their typicality or possession of the particular characteristics being sought. In this way, they build up a sample that is satisfactory to their specific needs”.

Ball (1990) asserts that in many cases purposive sampling is used in order to access ‘knowledgeable people’, i.e. those who have in-depth knowledge about particular issues, maybe by virtue of their professional role, power, access to networks, expertise or experience. Based on Ball’s view, the Heads of Department (HoDs) of the five EEDs were selected as the first group of participants in this research. As stated in the accreditation documents of the five EEDs, one of the HoD’s responsibilities is as ‘curriculum leader’. Hence, the HoDs were supposed to be knowledgeable to provide insights concerning their understanding and experience in their leadership performance in implementing the CBC. The criteria for the selection were that they should have at least two years of working experience as the HoD, be familiar with the CBC, have experience in addressing many problems and challenges and have developed strategies to solve the problems in the CBC implementation. Participation of the HoDs was voluntary. Prior to the data collection, the researcher contacted the HoDs of the five EEDs so they could participate in this research and the researcher could gain access to the university.

The second group of participants was lecturers. The researcher contacted the HoDs of the five departments prior to the data collection so that they could inform the lecturers about this research project and they could be involved. Participation was voluntary and any lecturer who met the research criteria was eligible to join the project. Two lecturers in each EED were selected, the

first lecturer teaching a skill-based subject and the second lecturer teaching a theory-based subject. These two lecturers were interviewed and their teaching practices in the classroom were observed. As these two types of subjects had specific characteristics, comparison concerning the way lecturers taught and viewed the teaching and learning process in the CBC setting could be made. Additionally, the lecturers selected should have at least two years of teaching experience so that they had familiarity with the CBC and were able to provide insights about how they understood and experienced CBC and how they implemented it in the teaching and learning process. Thus their views on the implementation of the CBC and their teaching practice were valuable for this study.

The third group of participants was students who would be involved in the focus group discussions (FGD). Eleven students per focus group were selected and each EED consisted of three groups, thus making up the total 33 students in each EED and 165 students in all EEDs. The selection criterion was that student participants should have at least one year learning experience in the CBC setting so that they could provide insights concerning the teaching and learning process in the CBC setting. This selection resulted in three groups, each consisting of eleven students from the third, fifth and seventh semesters. The third semester students were taken as those with least experience in the FGD because they had studied for one year and six months, hence meeting the selection criterion. To find the student participants, the researcher contacted the HoDs and the HoDs asked the lecturers to select the available class to join the FGDs.

Convenience Sampling

In conjunction with purposive sampling, convenience sampling was used in this study. This sampling was for lecturers who were invited to participate in the survey on how they had implemented the learning modes suggested in CBC in the teaching and learning process. According to Cohen et al (2011, p. 155), convenience or sometimes called opportunity sampling ‘involves choosing the nearest individuals to serve as respondents and continuing that process until the required sample size has been obtained or those who happen to be available and accessible at the time. As it does not represent any group apart from itself, it does not seek to generalize about the wider population’.

Prior to data collection, the researcher obtained permission from the HoDs to administer surveys to lecturers concerning the use of student-centered learning modes in their teaching. The HoDs then gave information to the lecturers about this research and invited their participation to fill out the survey. As the lecturers' participation in the survey was low, the HoDs gave permission to the researcher to meet the lecturers directly and ask for their participation in the survey. In administering the survey, the researcher sat down and asked the lecturers to fill out the survey. If a lecturer was not available, he or she made appointment with the researcher to fill out the survey on another day.

The number of lecturers participating in this study differed among the five EEDs, namely 10 lecturers from EED I; 7 from EED II; 11 from EED III; 15 from EED IV and 12 from EED V. Having similar criteria of the lecturers who were interviewed and observed, all of these participants were revealed to have more than two years of experience in teaching. However, different from first group of lecturers who should taught skill-based or theory-based subjects, the second group of lecturers involved lecturers teaching any subject. Given the two years of teaching experience, their ample experiences in teaching in the CBC setting provided insights which helped answer the research questions framing this study. The profiles of the chosen participants are presented in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3: The profiles of the participants

Group	Types of the participation	Setting	Criteria	Contribution to the study
HoDs	Voluntarily	EED I, II, III, IV, V	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • At least two years of working experience as the HoD, • Be familiar with the CBC • Have experienced many problems and challenges in LS implementation 	Provide insights into their understanding and experience of the CBC implementation Give insights about the CBC implementation in the English departments. Give insights about their leadership in the CBC setting.

			and have developed strategies to solve the problems in the CBC implementation.	
Lecturers (1)	Voluntarily	EED I, II, III, IV, V	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • At least two years of teaching experience • Teaching a skill-based subject or a theory-based subject 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Give insights about their understanding and experiences in the CBC implementation • Provide insights into how CBC principles were implemented in the teaching and learning process
Lecturers (2)	Voluntarily	EED I, II, III, IV, V	At least two years of teaching experience	Give insights about the methods of teaching and learning process in the CBC setting
Students	Voluntarily	EED I, II, III, IV, V	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • At least one year learning experience 	Provide insights into how they experienced the teaching and learning process

Overview of participants

In this study, the participants were grouped into three: group one were the HoDs; group two were lecturers and group three were students. These participants were from the five EEDs. Table 3.4 provides an overview of the participants.

Table 3.4: Overview of the participants

Group	Participants	Setting
HoDs' groups	5	EED I, II, III, IV, V
Lecturers' groups (1)	10	EED I, II, III, IV, V
Lecturers' groups (2)	10 (EED I) 7 (EED II) 11 (EED III) 15 (EED IV) 12 (EED V)	EED I, II, III, IV, V
Students' groups	33 (EED I) 33 (EED II) 33 (EED III) 33 (EED IV) 33 (EED V)	EED I, II, III, IV, V

Description of HoDs' group

The participants of this group were the five HoDs of the five Indonesian EEDs. The HoD of EED I was male and he was 38 years old. He had earned a master degree in education from an Indonesian university and he had been a HoD for two and a half years. On the other hand, the HoD of EED II was female and she was 40 years old. She had a master degree in English Education from an Indonesian university. She had been a HoD for three and a half years and had joined a national seminar on the implementation of the CBC conducted by the DGHE.

The HoD of EED III was male and he was the oldest, 50 years old, among the other four HoDs. He had been working as a HoD for three and a half years. He held a doctorate degree in research in education from an Indonesian university and he had joined several events disseminating the implementation of the CBC from the DGHE.

In EED IV the HoD was male and he was 44 years old. He had earned a master degree in English education from an Indonesian university. He had been a HoD of this department for three years. He had joined several national seminars on the introduction and the implementation of the CBC. Finally, the HoD of the EED V was male and he was the youngest HoD, 36 years old, among the other four HoDs. He earned a master degree in *Education Evaluation* from an Indonesian university. He had been a HoD for two and a half years.

In general, all of the HoDs had been working as the heads for more than two years. All of them also had joined programs from the government to disseminate the concepts and implementation of the CBC. As a part of their duty as ‘curriculum leaders’, the five HoDs were responsible for coordinating lecturers to design and evaluate the curriculum. In addition to this, they also had to manage the quality assurance process in the departments. Hence, this group’s participation in the study was significant.

Description of lecturers’ groups (1)

This group involved ten lecturers from the five EEDs, two from each EED. In EED I the first lecturer was female and she taught ‘*Curriculum Design*’. She earned her undergraduate degree in the English Education Department of an Indonesian university and her master degree in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TESOL) from an American university. She had been teaching English in the department for three years. However, before teaching in the department, she had taught English in the Language Training Center in the same university from 2004. She joined several seminars and workshops related to the implementation of CBC. The second female lecturer had earned a bachelor degree in English education in a state university in Indonesia and a Master’s degree in language education from a private Indonesian university. She had been teaching in the English department for two and a half years, but had taught in the Language Training Center for four years. Although she had not received special training on the CBC, she acknowledged that she had joined several seminar events disseminating the CBC. She taught a subject called *Basic Reading and Writing*.

The first lecturer from EED II was female. She taught a subject called *Listening 3*. She was the holder of a master degree in TESOL from an Indonesian university. She had been teaching in EED II for four years. She had joined a program to disseminate the implementation of CBC

conducted by the DGHE. The second female lecturer possessed a postgraduate degree in TESOL from an Indonesian university. She had been teaching in the department for nine years and she had joined a seminar on the implementation of the CBC conducted by the regional English Lecturer Association. The subject that she taught was *Learning Program Design*.

In EED III the first lecturer was female and she had been teaching for eight years. She graduated from a master program in Applied Linguistics from an Indonesian university. She had joined a CBC dissemination program conducted by the DGHE. The subject she taught was *English Instructional Technology*. The second male lecturer had a master degree in TESOL from an American University. He taught *Reading 3*. He had been teaching for ten years. He had never joined a seminar about CBC conducted by the DGHE but he had joined a session disseminating the CBC in a seminar.

The first lecturer in EED IV was male and he had had teaching experience in the department for ten years. He had a master degree degree majoring in English language teaching from an Indonesian university. He taught a subject called *Writing 3*. He had never joined any seminar related to CBC conducted by the DGHE but had joined a seminar to discuss the CBC conducted by the lecturers' association in Java. The second lecturer was female and she was the holder of a master degree in Educational Management from an Indonesian university. She had been teaching for ten years in the department. The subject she taught was *Education Profession*. She had joined a seminar related to CBC conducted by the DGHE.

In EED V the first lecturer was male and he earned a master degree in TESOL from an Australian university. He had had teaching experience for seven years. He had not joined any seminars related to CBC conducted by the DGHE, but he had joined a sharing session about CBC among lecturers in the local lecturer association meeting. The subject he taught was *Writing 3*. The second female lecturer had graduated from a master program in English Language Teaching from an Indonesian University and had taught in the department for eight years. She had participated in a CBC dissemination program conducted by the DGHE.

Briefly, all lecturers in group one met the proposed criteria of this study. They had at least two years of teaching experience and had graduated from English education department. The two

lecturers in each department taught a theoretical based subject and a skill-based subject. All lecturers were also familiar with CBC as they had joined programs to introduce this curriculum.

Description of lecturers' groups (2)

In this group lecturers were invited voluntarily to fill out the survey concerning the teaching and learning modes they used in the class. The survey involved 55 lecturers; ten from EED I, seven from EED II, 11 from EED III, 15 from EED IV and 12 from EED V. In EED I of the ten lecturers, there were seven female and three male lecturers. One lecturer held a doctorate degree, while five lecturers had earned a master degree and four lecturers had a bachelor degree. Seven lecturers were permanent lecturers and three lecturers were non-permanent. All of the lecturers had between two and five years' teaching experience.

In EED II seven lecturers participated in the survey. Of the seven lecturers, six were female and one was male. One lecturer held a doctorate degree while six lecturers had a master degree. Six were permanent lecturers. All of the seven lecturers graduated from English education program. Six lecturers had taught for more than ten years while one lecturer had teaching experience between two and five years.

Eleven lecturers participated in the survey in EED III. Of the seven lecturers, nine were female while two were male. All of the eleven lecturers had gained a master degree from an English Education Department from Indonesian or overseas universities and all of them were permanent lecturers. All of the seven lecturers had taught in the department for more than ten years.

The survey in EED IV involved 15 lecturers. Nine were male and six were female. Fourteen lecturers earned a master degree and one lecturer had a doctorate degree. All the 15 lecturers majored in an English education department. 12 of them were permanent lecturers while three lecturers were non-permanent. Ten lecturers had taught for more than ten years and two lecturers had between five and ten years of teaching experience. Five other lecturers had two to five years of teaching experience.

The survey in EED V was participated in by 12 lecturers, consisting of eight female and four male lecturers. Two had earned a bachelor degree while eight lecturers had a master degree. All the 12 lecturers had graduated from Indonesian or overseas English education departments. Of

the 12 lecturers, nine of them were permanent lecturers while three of them were non-permanents. Four lecturers had taught for more than ten years and five lecturers had teaching experience between five and ten years. Three other lecturers had between two and five years' teaching experience.

Generally, all of the 55 lecturers from the five EEDs participating in the survey had more than two years teaching experience. Even most lecturers had taught more than ten years. All of them had also earned their degree in English education. Hence their participation in this survey could provide insights into their teaching in the CBC setting.

Description of students' groups

The 165 students participating in the FGD were those studying in the third, fifth and seventh semesters in all EEDs. As has been touched upon previously, 11 students from each semester in each EED were involved in the FGD, making up a total 33 students in each department. The lowest semester taken in this survey was the third semester as in the third semester students had studied for one year and one semester. In addition to this, by the third semester, students had been taught by various lecturers, teaching both skill-based subjects and theory-based subjects. Hence, they had sufficient learning experience in the CBC setting. The students' perspective towards the various teaching methods used by lecturers would provide a significant contribution to this research.

3.6 Methods of Data Collection and Data Analysis

3.6.1 Method of Data Collection

To obtain a variety of perspectives, various methods were employed to collect the data comprising; 1) interview and survey data; 2) observation data; and 3) documentation data and all the data had been collected for three months. These methods are used as the triangulation procedure to ensure the validity of the research. Table 3.5 outlines the data collection strategies based on each objectives of the research as well as the obtained research data which is followed by an explanation of each strategy:

Table 3.5: Data collection strategies for each objective of the research

Objectives of the research	Data collection strategies	Research data
Objectives 1 & 2: To describe the English language curriculum recently introduced into Indonesian higher education institutions and to ascertain the implementation of the Competency-based Curriculum from the perspective of the heads of Departments, lecturers and students.	Interview with heads of department, lecturers and students; document analysis of syllabus, curriculum guidelines, lesson plans, teaching materials and accreditation documents.	Interview data from 5 heads of English Departments; interview data from 10 lecturers; focus group data from 165 selected students; and documentation of syllabus, curriculum guidelines, lesson plans, teaching materials and accreditation documents.
Objective 3: To ascertain the classroom practices of the lecturers and students in the teaching and learning process, including the use teaching and learning approaches, the incorporation of soft skills and assessment process.	Interview with lecturers and students, and classroom observation and survey with lecturers.	Interview data from lecturers and students; data from 10 observation checklists and field notes of the teaching and learning process in five English Departments and a survey data of 55 lecturers.
Objective 4: To ascertain the challenges surrounding the implementation of the competency-based curriculum.	Interview with heads of English departments, lecturers and students.	Interview data from five heads of English department, interview data from 10 lecturers and 165 selected students in focus group discussions.

A. Interview

The interviews which were in Bahasa Indonesia were based on the principles of the CBC proposed by the DGHE and also the researcher's review of the relevant literature. The interview was conducted in Bahasa Indonesia because the participants would express their perceptions on this issues more easily as Bahasa Indonesia was their first language, rather than if they were required to speak in English as this was their foreign language. To ascertain the perceptions and practices in the implementation of the CBC curriculum, semi-structured interviews were conducted with the five HoDs and ten lecturers.

In conducting the in-depth interview, an interview protocol was designed (Creswell, 2008). Interviews with the five HoDs covered questions concerning their understanding and experience of the CBC, the design and implementation of the CBC, the policy related to the implementation

of the CBC, issues in the implementation of CBC and departmental culture (see Appendix 1.1.A). On the other hand, interviews with the ten lecturers embraced questions regarding their understanding and experience of CBC, graduate profiles and competencies, teaching and learning processes, learning materials, assessment, policies related to the implementation of the CBC and issues regarding the implementation of CBC (see Appendix 1.1.B).

The open-ended style of interviews allowed the participants to give their opinions freely concerning to what extent their English departments had implemented the CBC. The interviews generated personal narratives to provide important insights into the extent to which the teaching and learning process in the English teacher education program had implemented the principles of CBC. In-depth interviews also allowed the participants of this study to engage in a dialogic, negotiated process which gave them input into what would be written (Creswell, 1998). The conversational, open-ended style of interview allowed the participants to express their opinions concerning how the curriculum of the English Department had evolved.

B. Focus Group Discussion

Focus group discussion (FGD) is structured to foster talk among the participants about particular issues (Bogdan & Biklen, 1992). Focus group interviews reduce the researcher's control and enable the participants to follow their own interests and develop themes important to them (Silverman, 2004). The questions in the FGD covered the understanding and experience of CBC, graduate profiles and competences, teaching and learning, curriculum content and learning materials, assessment, introduction of the CBC and issues regarding the implementation of CBC (see Appendix 1.1.C).

An issue of the FGD, according to Cohen et al. (2011) is deciding the size of the group. Too small and intra-group dynamics exert a disproportionate effect and too large becomes unwieldy and hard to manage (ibid, 2011). Morgan (1988) suggests that the size of the FGD is between four and 12 people per group, whilst Fowler (2009) suggests between six and eight people. Based on the ideal size of the FGD proposed by Morgan and Fowler, in this study the focus group interview was conducted with 33 selected students in each English Department, making up a total of 165 students in all five English departments. There were three groups of the FGD in each EED. The three groups consisted of students of the third, fifth and seventh semesters.

Conducted in a quiet and relaxed setting in each department, the focus group was used as an exploratory approach to understand the perspective of students on the implementation of CBC in the teaching and learning process. The emphasis in the focus group was on interaction within the group, thus providing access to data and insights that would not necessarily be obtained through individual interviews.

C. Survey

A survey was also administered to lecturers in each university. The survey was intended to gather data surrounding the use of the learning modes advocated in the CBC, including small group discussion, role play and simulation, discovery learning, self-directed learning, cooperative and collaborative learning, contextual learning, project-based learning and problem-based learning. The purposive and convenience sampling to select the lecturers and their participation in the survey was voluntary. They were surveyed with a questionnaire using items with five point response scales (see Appendix 1.1.D). This was to ascertain as to what teaching and learning methods they used in the classroom. There were 55 lecturers who participated in filling out the questionnaire. All lecturers answered the questions in their recess in their department's office.

D. Observation

The observation strategy enabled the researcher to obtain detailed descriptions of social and educational settings or events so that people's behaviour within their own sociocultural context could be described (Silverman, 2004). Observation was a powerful research strategy, because the focus was concerned to gain the meaning of the participants' action and behaviour. Through observation, further rapport with the lecturers was developed to ascertain the practices, procedures and techniques of their teaching and learning processes.

In this study two observations in each English Department were conducted. The classes of two lecturers from each English department, one for a lecturer teaching a skill-based subject and one for teaching a theoretical-based subject, were observed to provide a clear picture of how and to what extent the teaching and learning modes suggested in the CBC were being implemented.

The observation checklist of the teaching and learning process was used to ensure whether the student-centered learning methods advocated in the CBC setting were used by lecturers. The observation checklist was derived from the principles of the student-centered learning modes proposed by the DGHE and also from his review of the literature on competency-based language teaching. The checklist consists of the lesson plans, the lecturer's and students' role, the classroom activities as well as the learning materials and resources (see Appendix 1.1.E).

According to Cohen et al. (2011), observation can be of facts such as the number of books in the classroom, the number of students in a class and the number of students who visit the library in a given period. It can also be of events such as what happens in a classroom. The observation used in this study focused on events, namely whether the principles of the student-centered learning modes were present during the interaction between lecturers and students and how they perform their roles in the learning process in the classroom setting.

The observation took place in the chosen classrooms where the lecturers agreed to be observed. One day before the observation was conducted, each lecturer was reminded that their teaching and learning process would be observed. The researcher came five minutes before the observation took place and informed the procedures of the observation to the lecturers.

As the observation was aimed at studying the naturalistic observation was used (Cohen et al, 2011). The researcher sat down on the provided chair and table in the corner of the class so that the spontaneous behaviour of the students and lecturer can be observed. The researcher recorded what were seen by taking notes using the observation check lists. Additionally, the researcher also used the voice recorder to capture the dialogue between the lecturer and students. The voice record was then transcribed for the sake of the data analysis.

E. Documentation

The last data collection strategy of the case study was document analysis. Analyzing the relevant documents was particularly important in this study because, according to Stake (1995), documents have the attraction of being available and factual. Furthermore, Sugiyono (2010) maintains that because document analysis does not involve the collection of new data, the time and costs demands are lessened.

Following the giving of consent from the heads of department of the five EEDs, key documents were collected and analyzed, such as:

- Curriculum syllabus and accreditation documents: The syllabus and curriculum contained the plan to implement a particular language program conducted by each Teacher EED. The syllabus and curriculum usually outlined the educational purpose of the program, the content, the teaching procedures and the learning experiences which are important in achieving the objectives of the teaching program and contain the means of assessing whether or not the educational ends had been achieved (Richards & Rogers, 2001). Syllabus here refers to the sub-components of a curriculum which specifies and sequences language and experiential content (Nunan, 2004). Accreditation documentation refers to the documents reporting preparation for the departments' accreditation in the year of 2013. The accreditation is done by the Indonesian government through the Indonesian National Accreditation Agency for Higher Education, aimed at consolidating the education sector to reduce the number of under-performing universities and ill-equipped graduates produced by them. The seven points quality assurance system is modeled on the European Foundation of Quality Management and Malcolm Balridge's Model, comprising vision and mission, objectives and strategies to achieve the objectives; leadership, management and quality assurance; students and graduates; human resources; curriculum and learning process; budgeting, infrastructure and information system and research, community service and collaboration (Global business guide, 2011).
- Lesson plans and teaching materials: The lesson plans and teaching materials are prepared by lecturers. The lesson plan refers to a unified set of activities planned by a teacher covering a period of classroom time. The textbook refers to the books distributed to students and generally contains the guidelines for lecturers to teach. Examining textbooks benefited this study on how well the curriculum and syllabi were reflected in the teaching and learning process. The samples of the syllabus and lesson plans can be seen in Appendix 1.1.F

3.6.2 Data Analysis

According to Wolcott (1994), data analysis is “a specialized way of transforming data, rather than being an all-encompassing term” (p.9). Similarly, Lofland and Lofland (1995, p.181) define the process of data analysis as “making it all come together”. Merriam (1998) suggests that in the early stage of collecting the data, some system for managing and organizing data is needed for making sense of them. A researcher, according to Wolcott (1994), needs a systemic and careful approach in documenting and reporting the data collected from the study.

Regarding data analysis, Merriam (1998) argues that in qualitative research, data collection and analysis is a simultaneous activity. She further states that as the aim of data analysis is to provide a meaningful segment of data and to explore the research questions, a researcher needs to document and reflect any insights emerging in the process of data collection. Hence, for every step of the data collection, the researcher made reflective notes of any emerging insights to guide the next stage in collecting and analyzing the data. All interviews in both face-to-face and focus group discussions were audio recorded and then transcribed. In order to understand the participant’s experiences through their own perspectives and arrange the data into emerging categories and themes, the transcribed interviews were read several times. In addition, the transcriptions, documents of accreditation, lesson plans, assessment tools, and course materials were filed separately. Throughout the data collection, these files were analyzed continuously in order to formulate a set of tentative themes and categories to answer the research questions.

The survey instrument used a five-point Likert-type scale to measure the extent to which eight learning methods proposed by DHGE (2008) had been utilized by lecturers. The survey, particularly the questionnaire, was analyzed using SPSS to ascertain the learning modes used by lecturers in teaching in the classroom. The observation protocol was also used to record the emerging learning modes used by lecturers in the teaching and learning process. The data analyses of the survey and observation protocol aimed to give a more multi-dimensional examination of the teaching and learning process of the lecturers and students.

Data gathered were reviewed in two stages. First, data collected from each case was reviewed as a comprehensive case in and of itself to learn as much as possible about each EED (Merriam,

1998). Second, once the analysis of each EED was completed, cross case analyses were conducted for all EEDs (Ibid, 1998). Hence, this study employed an analysis type of the entire case (Stake, 1995). The implementation of CBC as multiple cases in five English teacher education departments providing English language programs in Yogyakarta was ascertained. Based on the data that was obtained during the research, a detailed description of the case (Stake 1995 as cited in Creswell, 2007) emerged. After this description, the trends of themes emerged from the data, and then the complexity of the cases could be understood. Finally, the data were interpreted and reported to gain the meaning of the cases, and also see the lessons learnt from this case study.

3.7 Reliability and Validity of the Case Study Data

Reliability, according to Stainback (1988, cited in Sugiyono, 2010, p.145) is “the consistency and stability of data or findings. From a positivistic perspective, reliability typically is considered to be synonymous with the consistency of data produced by observations made by different researchers at different times or by splitting a data set in two parts”. However, the concept of reliability in qualitative research, including in the case study, is different from that in quantitative research due to the different paradigms in viewing reality. In qualitative research, reality is never consistent, but complex and dynamic (Sugiyono, 2010). Additionally, the characteristics of the data reports are idiosyncratic and individualistic, different from person to person. Hence, Stainback (1988) argues that quantitative research focuses on instrument reliability while qualitative research focuses on data validity or credibility.

As pointed out by Gay et al. (2009), validity is obtained through understanding and trustworthiness and can be achieved through various strategies.

Descriptive validity refers to the factual accuracy of the account. Interpretive validity is attributed to the behaviors or words of the participants. Theoretical validity refers to how well the research report relates the phenomenon under study to a broader theory. Evaluative validity has to do with whether the researcher was objective enough to report the data in an unbiased way without making judgments and evaluations on the data (Gay et al., 2009, p. 374-376).

Trustworthiness, according to Guba (1981), can be gained by addressing the credibility, dependability, transferability and conformability of their studies and findings. In this research data credibility was obtained through triangulation techniques. According to Wiearsma (2009),

as cited in Sugiyono (2009, p. 372), triangulation is “qualitative cross-validation. It assesses the sufficiency of the data according to the convergence of multiple data sources or multiple data collection procedures”.

Through triangulation, the data were checked through data collection techniques comprising interview, survey and document analysis. The decision of using the triangulation technique was based on Stainback’s opinion (1998) that the purpose of the triangulation technique is not to determine the truth about some social phenomenon, rather the purpose of triangulation is to increase one’s understanding of whatever is being investigated. Silverman (2004) maintains that the value of triangulation lies in providing evidence whether convergent, inconsistent, or contradictory. Patton (2002) also argues that triangulation can build on the strengths of each type of data collection while minimizing the weakness in any single approach.

The next strategy employed to ensure the reliability of the data in this study was thick description. Rich and thick description allows readers to make decisions regarding transferability (Erlandson et.al., 1993; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Merriam, 1998 as cited in Creswell, 2007) because the researcher describes in detail the participants or setting under study. The detailed description enables the readers to transfer information to other settings and to determine whether the findings can be transferred because of shared characteristics (Erlandson et al., 1993, as cited in Creswell, 2007).

Additionally, to achieve validity and reliability, piloting of the instruments, particularly the interview schedule and the questionnaire, was done in 2 September 2012 at EED I. The researcher visited the department and met the HoD to ask permission regarding the piloting of the two instruments (questionnaire and interview schedule). On the next day, the researcher validated the instruments with the HoD and four English lecturers. Based on the piloting, some minor changes were made.

3.8 Experiences in the Data Collection

In order to do research on the five English departments in the Yawalla province, the researcher needed to gain permission letters from the head of departments (HoDs). Hence, prior to the process of the data collection, the researcher emailed all the HoDs outlining the project and

stating that research and data collection would be done with the heads of department, lecturers and students. The researcher also made a phone call to all heads of English department to inform them the researcher needed a permission letter to conduct the research.

In EED I, the male HoD was very cooperative in terms of giving permission to carry out the data collection. He asked if the lecturers was willing to be interviewed by the researcher and finally two lecturers were willing to be interviewed and to be observed; one lecturer teaching the skills-based subject and the other teaching theory-based subjects. In EED III, it was not easy to gain an appointment with this head of department in his office. Unlike the head of department in EED I, this male HoD asked the researcher to choose which lecturers would be interviewed and observed after they are were asked about their willingness to participate in the research. Two lecturers who taught theory-based subjects and skills-based subjects were willing to be interviewed. When asked if he could lend the accreditation document of the department to the researcher, the head of department said that he did not have the soft copy of the document. Instead, he had a hard copy and asked the researcher to photocopy the document in the nearby photocopy kiosk.

At EED II and IV, the HoDs courteously welcomed the researcher. After the researcher phoned them, the time for appointment was agreed and they meet the researcher punctually in their office. Both heads asked the lecturers concerning their willingness to be participate in the research and after that appointed them to be voluntarily interviewed and observed as well as students to be interviewed. However, both HoDs needed one or two days to communicate with the lecturers concerning their available times.

The most difficult faculty to gain the research permission was in EED V. The researcher had managed the communication through email with the HoD and he had been given the permission to do research in his department. When the researcher came to the HoD's office to restate that the purpose of the research was to evaluate the curriculum implemented in the department, he did not seem happy and commented, "Uh, we are going to be evaluated?" It appeared that the head of department perceived the term 'evaluation' as 'judging' and 'criticizing' the quality of the department. Furthermore, when the researcher came to his department office to discuss the schedule of the data collection, it turned out that the HoD said, "We could not allow you directly to collect the data, because it seemed that you need to write a letter again to ask the permission

from the dean of the faculty”. One day later, the HoD sent a message to the researcher through the cell phone stating that instead of obtaining the permission letter from the dean, the researcher should gain the permission letter from the rector. He said, “Sir, I have talked to the dean of the faculty concerning your research. It seemed that the dean suggested that you should write a permission letter to the rector”. The researcher then wrote a letter and brought the letter to the rector’s office to grant the permission for conducting the research.

Regarding the English lecturers’ interviews, the process of selecting the lecturers to be interviewed was made easy with the help of the heads of department in all five case studies. In fact, the HoDs asked the lecturers about their willingness to be interviewed and finally, two lecturers agreed and the researcher found it relatively easy to communicate with them concerning the scheduling of the interview. However, there was a minor difficulty in EED II where one female lecturer teaching skills-based subjects withdrew from the interview as she said that she was very busy. The researcher then attempted to contact another lecturer suggested by the head of department. In EED V, the researcher also found minor difficulty when the lecturer appointed by the head of department was unwilling to be interviewed because she said that she was not a good lecturer so that she was not the correct lecturer to be interviewed. The researcher then managed to contact another lecturer.

With regard to the survey schedule, the process was not easy. Several lecturers could not participate in the survey when the researcher approached them as they said that they were busy teaching and checking their students’ work. Hence, the researcher had to approach the lecturers one by one making appointments on other days.

In terms of the focus group discussion, the discussions with students in EED I, II, III and V were relatively easy and were conducted after the class. The students in these departments appeared enthusiastic in answering the questions and giving comments on the researcher’s questions. Even in EED II, students expressed their broader insights concerning the curriculum and the teaching and learning process. The most challenging situation was in EED IV where students were very silent and did not actively participate, but only answered questions from the researcher. So the researcher attempted to encourage the students to speak up and give their opinions. The teaching observations were relatively easy. Lecturers performed their best to teach their students and asked the researcher to sit down at the rear of the classrooms.

3.9 Ethical Issue Data Entry

With regard to entry into and collecting data in the five English departments, the researcher firstly sought the approval from the five HoDs with letters from the RMIT research ethics committee and the senior supervisor and then forwarded the research proposal including questions for both survey and interview schedules. The ethical permission had been granted by the RMIT (see Appendix 4).

In ethical terms, the proposal was categorized as low risk because it only involved adult people as participants. Hence the special approval such as the one from the Victorian Working With Children Check (WWCC) was unnecessary. Next, the Plain Language Statement and Consent Form were read and then signed by the participants. They were always informed that their participation in the research was voluntary and they were also reminded that the research would not affect their professional career. With all of these requirements and process, approval and condition for entry into each English department were obtained from each head of department.

3.10 Summary

The case study was used as the research methodology to evaluate the implementation of the CBC in the five EEDs in Indonesia. The five EEDs were chosen as, at the time the research began, the five departments were the only departments which provided English language programs in the Yawalla province. An amalgam of qualitative and quantitative approaches was applied to gather the data from the participants. The research questions generated rich and detailed data in both qualitative and quantitative modes. The qualitative data revealed the perceptions of the heads of department, lecturers and students. It was done mostly by semi-structured interviews and focus group discussions with students. Furthermore, class observation of the English language teaching was also carried out to understand the learning models and the engagement of students and lecturers in the class. In addition to gaining qualitative data from observation, a survey was also administered to lecturers to gain the quantitative data concerning their teaching strategies used in the teaching and learning process. The curriculum and accreditation document of each department, as well as local and regional statistics were utilized to enrich the qualitative data. The findings of this research were generated by triangulating three different data sources, namely interview, survey schedule and documentation. The rich data representing the perceptions of the

heads of department, lecturers and students regarding the implementation of the CBC in the five English departments will be presented as findings in the following fourth, fifth, sixth and seventh chapters of this thesis.

CHAPTER 4 • EVALUATION OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE CURRICULUM: THE ROLES OF THE HEAD OF DEPARTMENTS AND LECTURERS

In the past decade the number of universities, especially private institutions in Indonesia, has grown significantly, with the total figure standing at over 3,000 private and 120 state universities (Global Business Guide Indonesia, 2011). As a result, in the education sector there has been increased competition with parents choosing the best options for their children's education. The growing number of universities all over the country to cater to the increasing number of students challenges both the Indonesian government and Indonesian universities to reform and improve education quality.

Prior to 1998, the Government was entitled an absolute power to control the higher educational system in Indonesia. For example, the government established a national curriculum that had to be implemented by every university in the country. A reform movement in 1998 prompted the government to reduce its dominant role in almost all sectors, including in the higher education sector, resulting in higher educational institutions gaining their own autonomy to design and manage their educational processes. In contrast to its prior role as the absolute controller of the higher educational system, in the current situation the Indonesian government launches policies that give priority to quality objectives. For example, since 2003, the DGHE has published a handbook of quality assurance guidelines for higher educational institutions. It added best practice books for the development of teaching and learning process, curriculum design, human resources, students, infrastructure, academic atmosphere, financial management, research and publication and community service (DGHE, 2008). The books were then disseminated to universities until 2007. The dissemination was intended to enable the universities both to realize that it was their responsibility to improve the quality of their education and to help them establish a quality assurance system.

Based on the evaluation of the implementation of the quality assurance system, in 2008 the DGHE reformulated the system and then published a book entitled *The Training Materials for a Quality Assurance System in Higher Education Institutions* in 2010 and it was disseminated to universities in Indonesia until 2012 (DGHE, 2008). The new feature of the system was that there were two trajectories every university must follow to assure the quality of their educational

process, namely internal and external quality assurance systems. The former was done by the universities themselves and the latter was done by the government through the accreditation process.

In order to reach and maintain quality standards, each university is responsible for setting and monitoring its own standards, justifying its process to achieve them and providing evidence of its performance. The areas of the quality standards proposed by the DGHE and stipulated in Government Regulation number 15/2005 regarding the national educational standards for education included standards for graduate competencies, content, process, lecturers, facilities, infrastructure, management, assessment and financial standards (DGHE, 2006). The realization of the quality assurance in the department comprises three components which is called *Tridharma Perguruan Tinggi* (three responsibilities of higher education institutions) comprising teaching, research and community service.

The achievement of the level of quality standard in a study program depends heavily on the performance of the heads of departments (HoDs) and lecturers. In the context of higher education in Indonesia, a head of department in the view of the director general provides three types of leadership namely, operational, organizational and public leadership (DGHE, 2008). Through these types, a HoD is expected to articulate and communicate the visions to the academic staff and students as well as being able to translate the departments' vision and mission through the management process including planning, organizing, executing and controlling. The HoD is expected to coordinate academic review, planning of the teaching program, program development and accreditation and quality assurance.

Lecturers are other significant actors in helping their department to meet the quality standards. In the three national quality standards, lecturers are the main players in the area of education, research and service to community. Scott and Dixon (2008) lists several variables that influence overall student learning experience, most of which are associated with the roles of lecturers, including: 1) a sound, relevant, flexible, clear and mutually reinforcing course design 2) committed, capable and accessible teaching staff in place to deliver and improve the design during implementation; 3) efficient and responsive administrative, information technology, library and student support system that actively work together to support its operation and 4)

relevant, consistent and integrated assessment of a university standard that the course's design, learning methods, and resources specifically enable students to complete.

This chapter will describe and discuss the roles of HoDs and lecturers in the context of higher education institutions in general and in the five EEDs in particular. Three sections are devoted to describe and discuss the data gained from HoDs, namely their profiles in the five EEDs, their responsibilities related to quality assurance, professional development and performance management, curriculum evaluation; and the HoDs and the departmental culture. Subsequently, two chapters will describe and discuss the lecturers and their profiles in the five EEDs.

4.1 The Five Heads of Departments: Their Profile

Lecturers who have graduated with a master's degree in English education or TESOL and have been teaching for five years can be appointed head of department. Of the five HoDs, one was a doctoral graduate; four were master graduates, all with an English language educational qualification. Their teaching experience was on average eight years while length of experience as HoDs varied from one to three years. The regulation stipulates a maximum of four years for the position of HoD. Two of the HoDs were female.

Table 4.1: The profile of the Heads of Departments in the Academic Year 2010/2014

EED	No of students	No of lecturers	Gender	Highest Educational Qualification	Working Period in the Department
I	327	14	Male	Master of English Education	3 years
II	512	37	Female	Master of English Education	3.5 years
III	699	96	Male	Doctor of Education Evaluation	3.5 years
IV	654	20	Male	Master of Education Evaluation	3 years
V	673	35	Male	Master of English Education	2.5 years

Source: Accreditation documents

The regulation of the DGHE No. 48/1983 about the workload of lecturers in universities requires lecturers to teach minimally 12 credits and maximally 16 credits. One credit is equivalent to three hours per week. When a lecturer becomes a HoD, the responsibility for managing the department has six credits which is equivalent to 18 hours per week. The rest of his or her time will be devoted to teaching, doing research and doing community service.

HoDs were responsible for various tasks in achieving the vision of the departments that should be consistent with both the university's vision and mission, and the regulations stipulated by the Directorate-General of Higher Education as well as any sponsoring organization including a private or religious foundation. The position of departmental heads as educational leaders is very important. As pointed out by Duignan (2006), Razik and Swanson (2000) and Fullan (2000), leaders in an educational institution have several tasks, including providing a values-driven vision, managing staff relationships, leading people, balancing personal and professional responsibilities, leading continuous change and managing both accountability processes and individual staff performances.

In all five EEDs, the tasks of HoDs covered the following: 1) planning and designing an overall strategy and financial budgeting for the activities of the department, including the teaching and learning process, research, human resources development, community service, student service, promotion and quality assurance; 2) collaborating with other English departments in other universities in the areas of the teaching and learning process, research, human resources, community service, student service, promotion and quality assurance; 3) planning and designing a mechanism for developing lecturers' competencies and careers; 4) developing extracurricular activities, student organizations and student empowerment, and 5) evaluating and monitoring the activities in the department including the teaching and learning process, research, human resources, social empowerment, student service, promotion and quality assurance.

In fact, the five tasks of the HoDs can be viewed through the lens of instructional and transformational leadership. With regard to instructional leadership, for example, Odhiambo and Hii (2012) suggest that the tasks of an educational leader are to enhance academic achievement, especially through the teaching and learning process. Additionally, an effective educational leader, as pointed out by Odhiambo and Hii (2012), should be capable of evaluating the curriculum and teaching as well as providing instructional feedback. Krug (1992) holds that an

instructional leader has several responsibilities including communicating the mission, managing the curriculum and instruction, supervising teaching, monitoring student progress and promoting an instructional climate.

A HoD can also be regarded as a transformative leader in that his or her leadership ability is tested in how he or she can reduce bureaucratic control and build teamwork and collaboration to meet higher shared purposes which requires lecturers and administrative staff in the department to share leadership. Adapting the school management concept proposed by Leithwood (1994), transformative leadership is related to three areas characterized as mission centered (developing a shared vision for the institution, setting up goals and priorities); performance centered (providing individualized support and encouraging staff to have high performance expectations); and culture centered (designing an institutional, productive and collaborative culture and associated values).

With the notion of the CBC implementation as stipulated by the DGHE in 2008, the guidelines for its implementation were instrumental to carry out the practice and actualization of the curriculum. This has given the departments their own authority for this task. Based on the interviews with the five heads of department, CBC was claimed to be practiced in the five EEDs. “As a new department, we were to design our curriculum based on the CBC concept suggested by the DGHE when we made a proposal to establish our department”, remarked the HoD of EED I. “As the head of department, I am responsible to ensure the implementation of CBC although we need ample time to adopt this curriculum”.

Of the five case studies, the researcher found that the HoDs shared his or her leadership with others, including with the deputy heads of department, the secretaries, the heads of laboratory and the subject coordinators. The deputy HoDs helped the head to develop and manage the human and financial resources in the department. The heads of laboratory were responsible for the management and academic programs of the laboratories while the subject coordinators were accountable for coordinating the lecturers in designing the lesson plans and developing and evaluating the teaching and learning process as well as the curriculum implementation.

4.2 Responsibilities of the Heads of Departments in Relation to the Curriculum

The DGHE (2008) outlined how a HoD has the responsibility to lead the department through a set of management processes, including planning, organizing, staffing, leading and controlling. With regard to planning, the departmental heads were to be responsible for planning the programs in the framework of *Tridharma Perguruan Tinggi* (three responsibilities of higher education institutions), including the teaching and learning process, research and community service. In terms of the teaching and learning process, the HoDs, assisted by deputy HoDs, planned the schedule of the teaching and learning process for each semester. The HoDs also asked some lecturers to become subject coordinators to ensure that the teaching and learning process ran smoothly. All lecturers were responsible for preparing the syllabus and lesson plans of their subjects. In terms of research and community service, the HoDs were responsible for planning and creating the ‘road maps’ of these two areas. Regarding the staffing, the HoDs engaged with the management of the academic staff. In all five EEDs the policy concerning staffing was based on policies issued by their universities. For instance, the minimum requirement for lecturers was that they should hold a master’s degree in the area of English language teaching.

With regard to the task of ‘leading’, the HoDs were expected to lead staff to implement and run the planned programs and activities on a daily basis. In the leadership process, the HoDs appeared to have developed similar leadership patterns across the five case studies. The curriculum responsibilities and implementation in the teaching and learning process belonged to HoDs assisted by the subject coordinators while the budgeting or financial issues were delegated to deputy heads of department. This implied that the HoDs kept ensuring that the aims of the departments were achieved with full support and guidance. While West-Burnham (1996) suggests that educational leaders should act as curriculum leaders, most cases revealed that the HoDs acted as the facilitators of the curriculum, coordinating lecturers to become syllabus and lesson plan developers. The HoD of EED V who had participated in various seminars regarding the CBC remarked that his responsibility as the HoD was dealing with ‘administrative responsibilities’ such as preparing the class schedules; the specific responsibility regarding the curriculum would be in the hands of the team. “At the beginning of the semester, there was always a meeting of all staff dealing with any preparation for the curriculum, syllabus and lesson

plan”, said the HoD of EED V. Similarly, the HoD of the EED IV explained that his jobs included managing daily teaching timetables, teaching hours, academic calendar and evaluating the students’ input and output in reviewing the next department program. Other HoDs considered themselves as ‘directors’ regarding curriculum improvement. The HoDs of EED II and III clearly stated that their duties were to conduct the general briefing in order to facilitate the lecturers revising the curriculum.

West-Burnham’s opinion that educational leaders should be curriculum leaders is, in fact, in line with the CBC scheme stipulated by the DGHE in 2008 in which the HoDs are also responsible for implementing the curriculum. However, different from the ‘uniform’ curriculum in junior and senior high schools, the curriculum endorsed by the DGHE to be implemented in the universities gives the departments more opportunities to make adaptations. A noteworthy insight came from the HoD of EED II regarding the curriculum.

The CBC is a package from the government. However, different from the curriculum implemented in junior and senior high schools, we, in the university, have more freedom to make some adaptation, tailoring it to the conditions in our university and department. For instance, in my department, we have our own vision and mission which should be reflected in the curriculum. So, the curriculum endorsed by the government should be negotiated with our vision and mission.

One of the major responsibilities of the HoD was to lead the teaching staff to evaluate the curriculum. All HoDs in the five case studies explained that the evaluation of the curriculum took consideration of several elements, including the vision and mission of the university, the development of science and technology and the relevance to the needs of society. The following paragraphs compare the curriculum evaluations led by the HoDs in all five EEDs.

In EED I, the curriculum of the English department was initially designed to obtain a permit for the establishment of the English department. The curriculum was prepared in 2008 and implemented in 2009. Before being implemented, the curriculum had undergone changes after being evaluated by a curriculum evaluation team. This team was formed by the HoD and had a requirement to discuss the necessary changes in the curriculum. Results of the evaluation were discussed in the lecturers’ forum before being approved by the rector.

In EED II, the HoD said that the curriculum was evaluated and revised every two years. According to her, the review was conducted with reference to the 2008 quality manual of the university curriculum. She said further that the university develop and implement a curriculum

that was dynamic, adaptive, and innovative and had the Ignatian spirit of the Jesuits to produce graduates who had the required competence, conscience and compassion. The University also encouraged the department to formulate learning outcomes based on the Indonesian Qualification Framework (IQF, 2012). Based on the content analysis, the university's quality manual mentioned that the curriculum department must: 1) refer to the vision and mission of the university; 2) be relevant to the development of science and technology; 3) be relevant to the needs of the community; 4) be able to predict future changes by the inclusion of elective courses demanded by the job market and the latest developments in the teaching profession and 5) be taught by competent lecturers in their field.

Moreover in EED II, to evaluate the curriculum, at the department level, the HoD formed a curriculum evaluation team tasked to gather feedback from alumni and stakeholders concerning the existing curriculum through various mechanisms such as surveys, email and alumni gathering. Alumni and stakeholders were to provide their opinions on the skills and competencies required by graduates of the department in the world of work and also their view regarding the suitability of the curriculum with the demands of the teaching profession. One example of feedback from stakeholders, according to the HoD, was that the department had to incorporate technology into the curriculum. This feedback was then followed up by the inclusion of technology-based subjects such as 'Computer-assisted Language Learning' and the use of ICT in some subjects such as 'Basic Reading' and 'Learning Program Design'. In the evaluation process, the HoD and curriculum evaluation team also considered government policies and at the same time took into account the local values of the university. Examples of considerations that were taken, among others, was the application of the Ignatian Pedagogy in the CBC.

After an evaluation was done by considering feedback from various parties and adapting them to the vision and mission of the university, faculty and department, the curriculum evaluation team then presented the results of the evaluation to the lecturers' meeting in the department, faculty and university level. The HoD said, "Once the curriculum was approved, the curriculum that had been evaluated was then disseminated to all lecturers in the English Department".

In EED III, according to the HoD, the curriculum was evaluated once every two years and done in a few steps. First, the HoD formed a workshop committee consisting of lecturers with various specializations in the field of English language teaching. Furthermore, the curriculum committee invited external experts to review the existing curriculum. In addition to the steps that had been mentioned earlier, the department also carried out a tracer study to ascertain the opinion of alumni and graduate employers about the suitability of subjects in the curriculum with the teaching profession. To follow up the feedback from experts, alumni and graduate employers, the committee then held a workshop to draft the curriculum, prepare the syllabus and course descriptions as well as documenting the finished draft of the curriculum.

In EED IV, the HoD stated that curriculum evaluation was done once every two years. To evaluate the curriculum, the HoD formed an evaluation team consisting of lecturers. Teams that had been formed then conducted meetings and discussions concerning the curriculum in use. Results of the evaluation team were then discussed at a meeting in the department together with stakeholders. When asked whether the stakeholders included parents and representatives of the school, the HoD replied that the stakeholders who were invited consisted only of representatives of students and faculty. After this process, the faculty then approved the results of the evaluation of the curriculum and submitted them to the rector who then endorsed the revised curriculum.

In EED V, according to the HoD, the curriculum was reviewed once every two years. The evaluation team was formed by the HoD to conduct an evaluation of the ongoing curriculum used by the department. The curriculum that had been evaluated was then presented by the team before the faculty meeting. Once approved by the faculty, the curriculum design was then presented to and endorsed by the rector.

In all five case studies, it was implied that the HoDs saw themselves as the ‘facilitators’ in terms of curriculum evaluation. In all cases, the HoDs formed a team of lecturers to revise the curriculum. With regard to the curriculum evaluation, it was clear that when the departments used the terminology of ‘evaluating’ or ‘revising’, they essentially were concerned about changing the previous subjects with the new ones, combining two or more subjects into one subject and erasing the outdated or flawed subjects. In EED 1, for example, when asked about the revised curriculum, the HoD pointed out, “In the revised curriculum we have new subjects such as *Pancasila*, *Citizenship* and *Bahasa Indonesia*. These three subjects had previously been

excluded from the curriculum structure. But after being scrutinized, it turned out that these three subjects had been made mandatory by the university so that we had to include them into our curriculum". The HoD further explained that the department also reduced the number of credits for subjects such as *Language Learning and Acquisition*, *TEFL*, *Curriculum Design*, *Material Design*, *Classroom Management*, *Instructional Management* and *Teaching Practices*. The practicum subjects also were changed from zero credits to one credit. The reduction and the increasing of the semester credits for those subjects were because the number of their semester credits exceeded the need to achieve the targeted competencies. The reduction and the increase in semester credits in some courses were intended to help the students to achieve the core competencies, the supporting competencies and other competencies. In EED II, as another example, a subject called *Intermediate Listening* was changed to *Critical Listening and Speaking I*.

Based on a content analysis of the department curriculum documents, it seemed to indicate the curriculum of EED I was quite similar to the exemplar curriculum devised by the DGHE, including the format and subject matters. The HoD of EED I noted that since its establishment, the government required the department to comply with guidelines proposed by DGHE in designing the curriculum. However, EED II, III, IV and V had different curricula in terms of format and subject content from the ones devised by the DGHE.

4.2.1 Quality Assurance

As already mentioned, the number of universities, especially private institutions, in Indonesia has increased significantly in the past decade. State universities are still considered as the most prestigious so that the number of applicants far outstrips available places with less than 20 per cent of those applying being accepted (Global Business Guide Indonesia, 2012). The growing number of universities all over the country does not automatically lead to quality. In order to ensure quality, the Indonesian government is taking measures to consolidate the higher education sector to reduce the number of underperforming universities through accreditation mechanisms, thus preventing them from producing ill equipped graduates. Hence, the Indonesian National Accreditation Agency for Higher Education (*Badan Akreditasi Nasional Perguruan Tinggi*) was established in 1994 and began its program of disseminating its new accreditation system in 2008

and 2009 for undergraduate programs (ibid, 2012). The accreditation criteria include teaching, research and community service, e.g.: the number of research studies undertaken by lecturers, the quality of publications, the use of student-centered learning in the teaching and learning process, the number of community service programs.

The HoDs were responsible for the quality assurance (QA) process in carrying out the *Tridharma Perguruan Tinggi* or three responsibilities of universities, including teaching, research and service to the community. In terms of the teaching and learning process, the heads are the curriculum leaders, ensuring the success of the curriculum implementation through an effective teaching and learning process. This kind of responsibility cannot be separated from the development of lecturers' professionalism. The HoDs are basically the supervisors of the lecturers.

The following paragraphs describe and discuss the approach of the QA under the responsibility of HoDs to ensure success in carrying out the *Tridharma Perguruan Tinggi*.

EED I: To ensure good outcomes in the educational process, the QA of this English department was designed to ensure the quality of educational input, process and output. The management of quality assurance at the university level was carried out by *Biro Pengendali Mutu* (BPM) or the Quality Assurance Agency of the university. At the faculty level, it was managed by the QA unit and at the department level, it was managed by *Gugus Kendali Mutu* (GKM) or Quality Circles. Each semester, the QA Agency conducted an audit of internal academic quality for the departments. Periodically, the Quality Circle cooperated with the study program and the QA Agency in ensuring the quality of the academic process. BPM conducted internal audits using three elements of quality assurance, namely academic policies, standard operating procedures of the academic activities and academic quality feedback. The results of the internal audit became the input for policy making in the department to improve the academic process. The HoD led discussions monthly to discuss the preparation of the syllabus, lesson plans, programs and activities per semester and the evaluation of the curriculum and the learning process. Programs, activities and budgets for the study program were prepared at the annual meeting and were executed by the person in charge of the program. The lecturers' professional development was carried out in accordance with the policies of the department and the lecturers' interests and

expertise. The lecturers responsible for the implementation of tasks and activities reported on their activities and the budget situation to the HoD. As EED 1 was a new department, the overall quality of the educational process in EED I had not been assessed by the National Accreditation body at the time the research was carried out.

EED II: The HoD had created a team to ensure the process of quality assurance in the department. The team has several responsibilities such as coordinating subject coordinators, coordinating the lecturers to develop the syllabus, developing assessment instruments, and managing team teaching for some subjects such as *Play Performance*, *Introduction to Literature*, *Creative Reading and Writing* and *Listening and Creative Speaking*. The HoD also monitored and evaluated the teaching and learning process through the mechanism of regular meetings every Tuesday. In addition, the learning process in the department was evaluated by *Pusat Pengembangan dan Penjaminan Mutu Pembelajaran (P3MP)* or the Centre of Development and QA for Learning within the university. This agency distributed questionnaires to students to ask their opinions about their teaching and learning processes. In this way, the lecturers obtained feedback so as to improve the quality of their teaching. Results of the evaluation were then given to the HoD for further action. In the realm of research, *Lembaga Penelitian dan Pengabdian pada Masyarakat* or the Institute for Research and Community Service instructed the HoD to encourage lecturers to write research proposals and research reports. In the field of community service, the HoD monitored, evaluated and reported the results at the end of the implementation.

EED III: There were two teams to carry out the process of quality assurance in the department, namely the QA team at the faculty level and quality assurance team at the university level. The chairman of this team had a duty to monitor the implementation of the activities of *Tridharma Perguruan Tinggi* or the three responsibilities of universities at the department level, including the monitoring of teaching and learning, research and community service. Guidelines were available for QA including quality manuals, standard operating procedures and quality standards. The standard operating procedures included student registration, the proposal of thesis title, ethical application for research writing, thesis examination and graduation. The quality standards included teaching and learning, assessment, research and community service. Several bodies were assigned to ensure the process QA: the quality assurance agency in the university, the QA unit at the faculty level and the quality circle (*Gugus Kendali Mutu*) at the department level. The

QA agency at the university level conducted an audit of internal academic quality for the department each semester in the areas of academic policies for the teaching and learning process. The results of the internal audit became the input for policy making in the department to improve the academic process.

EED IV: The QA of the study program aimed to ensure the quality of standards of graduate competencies, content, process, educators, facilities and infrastructure, management and assessment. The realization of the QA in the department refers to the quality assurance system developed by universities comprising components such as the standardization of curriculum, educational calendar, implementation and evaluation of teaching and learning, teaching practicums, community service, the use of media and learning resources and the improvement of the quality of human resources. At the department level, all of the components in the QA process was the responsibility of the HoD. There was a body called a quality circle in the department that managed the QA process. The HoD said that regular meetings were used as a mechanism to monitor the progress of the programs and provide solutions to the problems. The HoD also set up a team to monitor the quality of the teaching and learning process, especially on the preparation of the syllabus, and its implementation and evaluation. This team also monitored whether the process of teaching and learning in the classroom was in accordance with the syllabus and lesson plans. The team then gave feedback to improve the teaching and learning process in the department meetings. In addition, the team also evaluated the quality of examinations. Every semester, the QA Agency (*Biro Pengendali Mutu*) in the department assessed all the academic processes and gave feedback for the quality improvement in the department.

EED V: The QA department monitored the components of *Tridharma Perguruan Tinggi* or the three responsibilities of universities. To ensure the quality of teaching and learning, the HoD appointed subject coordinators. They were responsible for coordinating the lecturers to design syllabi and lesson plans. Inputs were given in the meetings to improve the syllabi. In terms of research and community service, the HoD in collaboration with research institutes at the university level encouraged the lecturers to conduct research and community service. The department had a body called *Gugus Kendali Mutu* or Quality Circle to ensure that all the QA

processes run appropriately. Once every semester, the QA process in the department was audited by the QA Agency of the university.

The practice of the QA in the five EEDs has reflected Braxton's concept of quality assurance (1996), referring quality to the higher education context such as quality of assessment, academic programs, teaching and learning, the student experience and program designs. Harvey and Green, as cited in Watty (2003), identify five categories about quality including exception, perfection, fitness for purpose, value for money and transformation. The practice of the QA in the five EEDs, however, falls into the two categories, namely, fitness for purpose and transformation. Fitness for purpose relates quality to a purpose defined by the providers while the transformation refers to education as an instrument to create transformative change to students, as opposed to something for the consumer (Watty, 2003). Watty (2003) points out that as higher education institutions do not produce defect-free graduates, the category of quality as perfection can be omitted. Lomas (2001) suggests that the most appropriate definition of quality in higher education is fitness for purpose and transformation. While fitness for purpose relates to a purpose defined by the provider (the five EEDs), transformation underpins the understanding that education is about doing something to the student as opposed to something for the consumer and it includes concepts of empowering and enhancing students (ibid, 2001).

All the five EEDs implemented both external and internal process of quality assurance. The external approach of the QA is done through accreditation process by *Badan Akreditasi Nasional Perguruan Tinggi* (BAN-PT) or the Indonesian National Accreditation Agency for Higher Education (NAA-HE). Accreditation is an evaluation of whether an institution or program qualifies for a certain status or meets a threshold standard.

NAA-HE is an independent body responsible to the Minister of National Education and it is ISO-9000 2008 certified. Since 1996 NAA-HE has been accrediting the undergraduate level of study programs and in the year 2000 it carried out the accreditation processes for graduate and diploma programs. By 2007 it had started accrediting the programs in HEIs. NAA-HE is the only external quality assurance agency for higher education institutions (HEIs) operating in Indonesia although the regulation prescribes the possibility of the establishment of independent QA agencies for HEIs under the approval of the Minister of National Education.

The main orientation of the QA system in NAA-HE is the continuous quality improvement of the HEIs in Indonesia. The focus of accreditation, according to Dill (2000), is comprehensive, examining the mission, resources, and procedures of a HEI or programs (Dill, 2000). In the context of HEIs in Indonesia, the QA system is developed by NAA-HE to accommodate the progress of QA best practices. Adapting the QA model from the European Foundation of Quality Management (EFQM) and Malcolm Baldrige's model, NAA-HE urged the HEIs to implement a framework of accreditation standards comprising seven criteria, namely, vision, mission, objectives and strategy, governance, leadership, management, and a quality assurance system; students including students affairs and graduates; human resources management; curriculum, learning approach and processes and academic atmosphere; curriculum, learning approach and process and academic atmosphere; finance, facilities, infrastructure and information management; and research, community services and collaborations.

All the five EEDs had implemented an internal audit which was called the internal audit of academic quality (IAAQ). According to Woodhouse (1999) a quality audit checks the extent to which the institution has achieved its own implicit or explicit goals. The internal audit in the five EEDs, according to the HoDs, was aimed at ensuring: 1) consistency between education objectives and the graduate competencies and the curriculum and syllabus; 2) consistency between the planning, implementation and evaluation of the teaching and learning process and the syllabus and curriculum and 3) the availability of the learning resources. The steps of the internal audit carried out in the five EEDs are in line with the three-part processes as cited in Woodhouse (1999), comprising: 1) the conformity of the planned quality procedures in relation to the stated objectives; 2) the suitability between the actual quality activities with the plans and 3) the effectiveness of the activities in achieving the stated objectives.

After the internal audit was carried out within the departments, the QA process was audited by auditors in the universities to which the five EEDs were affiliated. The quality assurance body in the universities, according to the HoDs, chose two lecturers to be auditors. The auditors visited the departments to check the documents related to organization and department (the vision and mission of the department and its strategies to achieve the vision and mission, management,

quality assurance mechanism, information system, collaboration with other institutions, academic standards, graduate competencies and curriculum) as well as academic documents (lecturers' curriculum vitae, learning process, academic atmosphere, research and publications and community service programs). The auditors used the audit methods comprising interviews with the HoDs, lecturers and students, document review and observation of the teaching and learning process and the learning resources. The result of the quality audit was used for feedback to improve the quality assurance process in the departments.

The role of the HoDs was central to the process of the QA in the five EEDs. As they pointed out, they acted as leaders and managers in the quality assurance process. They stated that as leaders they had to coordinate lecturers to design the curriculum and plan and evaluate the teaching and learning process. As the managers, they said that they had to be knowledgeable with the documents of the quality assurance process and its implemented activities and programs.

4.2.2 Professional Development and Performance Management

Due to the impact of globalization there is a focus on “productivity, quality, efficiency and competitiveness, derived from innovation, skills and quality improvement” which has made the “quality of the workforce-and consequently training-critical components of competitiveness” (Burns, 2002, p.3). Indonesian universities do not stand outside of these global forces. The quality of teaching and the motivation of academic staff to improve the learning of their students are fundamental to the achievement of the short and long-term goals of the university, particularly when essential operational funds are derived from teaching activities. The university needed to professionally develop its faculty in a coherent and sustainable way in order to reach and maintain the targets set by external pressures and internal review mechanisms.

In most cases, the HoDs in the five EEDs had facilitated lecturers to participate in professional development activities including undertaking research in learning and teaching and assuming academic leadership for learning and teaching in their departments. Additionally, the HoDs also assigned responsibilities to lecturers for managing the courses, including ensuring the syllabi, textbooks and learning materials were current and available to students in a timely way. More specifically, in order to develop the quality of lecturers, lecturers were given the opportunity to

continue their study for a master or doctoral program. Departments provided greater opportunities for lecturers to participate in training and short courses in the field of *Tri Dharma Perguruan Tinggi*. In EED II, for example, the HoD specifically said that in 2010 and 2011 the department sent three lecturers to participate in *Language Curriculum and Materials Development and Classroom Action Research* in Singapore for three weeks. According to the HoD, this activity was a part of the competition grant provided by the government. The department allocated 45 million rupiahs to support the lecturers to attend seminars or conferences in Indonesia or abroad.

The HoDs in the five EEDs also encouraged lecturers to be involved in the human resources development programs undertaken by universities such as training and outbound activities. To maintain the loyalty of lecturers, in EED I and EED IV, a lecturer's welfare program became one of the priorities. The HoDs of these departments said that the efforts included career development opportunities and awards for outstanding lecturers. In EED I provision of health insurance funds, housing programs and pension funds for lecturers were also made available.

To improve lecturers' professional development the HoDs normally sent lecturers to both national and international seminars, conferences and workshops. The lecturers in turn participated in such events although they felt that such activities did not necessarily contribute positively to their way of teaching. One lecturer in EED IV (L2D), for instance, stated, "Many of the seminars that I joined mostly talked about teaching at junior and senior high school levels, so that it cannot be applied in teaching university students, so that it is only for enriching our knowledge in discourses of English teaching". The HoDs of the five EEDs stated that the panel of lecturers discussing what they obtained from the seminars rarely happened because of their busy schedule. This simply indicated that the insight and knowledge gained from seminars and workshops appeared not to be disseminated in the departments.

In all the five EEDs, teaching, research and service to the community were monitored through documentation of scientific work and community service undertaken by lecturers. In the process of monitoring teaching, research and community service, the department collaborated with the Institute for Research and Community Service (*Lembaga Penelitian dan Pengabdian*

Masyarakat or LP3M). A system of monitoring and evaluation was also conducted through the *Evaluasi Beban Kerja Dosen* or Sheet of Lecturers' Workload Evaluation in the areas of teaching, research and service to the community once every semester. In doing so, every lecturer in the department had to fill out a paper form which required him or her to report their activities containing names of activities, the number of semester credits in each activity and the documents to support the activities. The lecturers' reports were then audited by two assessors from the university. If the report passed, it was then reported to the dean of the faculty and the rector of the University. The rector then submitted it to *Kopertis* (Koordinator Perguruan Tinggi) or the Coordinator of the Higher Education Institution in the region to be verified and then the *Kopertis* submitted the reports to the DGHE. Hence, in the evaluation of the lecturers' performance the lecturers actually carried out a self-evaluation process using the format prepared by the DGHE. As a result, as the HoDs of the five EEDs pointed out, their role in the performance management was not to judge the lecturers' performance. Rather, they acknowledged that they served as motivators for lecturers to develop better performance in the three areas of *Tridharma Perguruan Tinggi*.

In addition to lecturers' self-evaluation through "sheet of lecturers' workload evaluation", the HoDs also developed mechanisms for monitoring and evaluating the lecturers' teaching performance by administering a survey to students so that they could provide feedback to improve the lecturers' teaching performance. However, the points to be assessed varied and there seemed to be no fixed indicators in the survey for each department. Gathering and responding to student feedback about learning experience, according to the five HoDs, had become increasingly important in universities. According to the HoDs of EED I and II, in addition to giving feedback to lecturers' teaching performance, the results of the survey were used to provide the information for teaching awards in the university.

Despite the adoption of the survey to assess the lecturers' teaching performance in the class, the HoDs did not supervise lecturers individually. All of them acknowledged that they never observed lecturers teaching in the classroom given that, according to them, lecturers are unwilling to be observed. The HoDs also never checked the lecturers' lesson plans as to whether they were in line with what actually happened in the classroom. The conformity of the format of

the lesson plans and teaching process was only discussed in meetings and it was implicitly stated by the HoDs that the departments seriously improved the lecturers' lesson plans when they were visited by the auditors from the DGHE for the accreditation process.

4.3 The Head of Departments and Departmental Culture

According to Duignan (2006), one of the distinctive characteristics of successful educational leaders is their capacity to provide vision for the future and inspire hope in those with whom they work. Duignan states that in this way, educational leaders are to lift the spirits of their followers and help them translate the vision into the daily practices in their work. Many of the educational leaders in his study pointed out that it is critical for the leadership role to develop the organizational culture and a set of core values. According to Deal and Peterson (1990) the concept of culture is related with the values, beliefs and traditions of the organization. An education institution can be successful if its members commit to certain values which can be seen from its productivity. Deal and Peterson describe what successful education institutions share: 1) strong values that support a safe and secure environment; 2) high expectation of every student; 3) the belief that there should be clear performance goals and 4) strong leadership and a belief in its importance. Understanding what stakeholders such as community, parents, students and staff want is crucial in shaping the institution's culture which is indirect, conscious and largely intuitive (ibid, 1990). In Deal and Peterson's view (1990), educational leaders are one of the shapers of organizational culture. Hence, as educational leaders, the HoDs need to clearly communicate and articulate those values as a basis for organizational purpose than leading by direction.

Knowing the values which motivate organizational members and articulating those values clearly can assist in developing a shared vision and mission for the department. Clarity of purpose which is based on an agreed set of expectations and values would appear to be fundamental to effective leadership. The HoDs' leadership could be partly assessed through the vision and mission that was found in the department documentation as well as the philosophy developed by the founders of the foundations of the five universities in the case studies. Table 4.2 shows the vision of each department both in Bahasa Indonesia and in English.

Table 4.1: The vision of the five EEDs

EED	Vision in Bahasa Indonesia	Vision in English
1	Menjadi program study Pendidikan Bahasa Inggris bertaraf internasional yang unggul melalui kegiatan pendidikan, penelitian dan pengabdian pada masyarakat dengan berlandaskan nilai-nilai Islam.	Becoming a leading English education program at international level achieved through the process of education, research and community service which is based on Islamic principles
2	Pada tahun 2015 Program Studi Pendidikan Bahasa Inggris menjadi program studi unggulan dalam bidang pendidikan calon pengelola pembelajaran bahasa Inggris yang professional, cerdas, humanis, bermartabat dan berkarakter yang kuat sebagai pendidik.	In 2015 the English department will become a leading English education program in order to produce graduates with professional, competent, humane, dignified and strong character as educators
3	Mewujudkan program studi pendidikan bahasa Inggris yang mengembangkan sistem budaya kerja sinergis yang menghargai proses pembelajaran, tanggung jawab kreatif dan nilai-nilai keadilan, kedamaian dan kesantunan dalam melaksanakan Tri Darma Perguruan Tinggi sehingga mampu menghasilkan tenaga kependidikan di bidang pembelajaran bahasa Inggris berwawasan global yang mengedepankan kualitas, relevansi, daya saing, kerjasama, solidaritas dan kekhasan program studi.	Becoming an English education program which has a synergetic working culture and respect for the learning process, responsibility, creativity, justice, peace and courtesy in carrying out the Tri Darma Perguruan Tinggi (Three responsibilities of Higher Education Institutions) in order to produce graduates who possess a global vision, quality, relevancy, competitiveness, collaboration skills and added value.
4	Menjadi pusat keunggulan dan lembaga rujukan dalam penyelenggaraan pendidikan, penelitian dan penerapan ilmu pengetahuan dan teknologi pendidikan bahasa Inggris yang sesuai dengan kebutuhan pembangunan, masyarakat, serta kemanusiaan dengan menyesuaikan tuntutan perkembangan zaman.	Becoming a leading English education program in carrying out the process of education, research and application of knowledge and technology in accordance with the needs of social development and humanity
5	Menjadi program studi Pendidikan Bahasa Inggris yang unggul melalui kegiatan pendidikan, penelitian dan pengabdian pada masyarakat dengan berlandaskan nilai-nilai Islam.	Becoming a leading English education program through the process of education, research and community service which is based on Islamic principles

Source: Accreditation documents of the five EEDs (2010-2013).

The table shows that almost all departments had their vision of delivering a leading English Education program through the activities encapsulated in the *Tridharma Perguruan Tinggi* comprising teaching, research and community service. In EED I, it was stated in the department's documents that vision was translated through their mission statements through two strategies. The first strategy was to equip students with the English knowledge and skills as well as soft skills in the CBC framework. The second strategy was to carry out the research and service to community which were relevant to the needs of Indonesian society.

In EED II, four missions had been formulated by the department to achieve the vision. The first mission was providing an English education program through the application of a reflective paradigm or Ignatian pedagogy and of technology that integrates context, experience, reflection, action and evaluation in an atmosphere of dialogue in order to produce professional teachers with good moral characters. The second mission was conducting research in the field of education, particularly in the field of English language education in order to: 1) solve problems related to English education; 2) find ways to improve the quality of learning English; 3) develop knowledge of English education and enhance intellectuality in order to improve human dignity. The third mission was providing services and training in the field of English language education to the public in order to empower the community at large. The fourth mission was developing national and international cooperation and building a synergistic network in the field of English language education.

In EED III, the vision was translated into four mission statements. It was stated that in order to achieve the vision, the department should: 1) carry out a quality English education program in order to produce graduates who have competitive advantages and are equipped with pedagogical, professional, personal and social competencies; 2) develop academic and professional education in the field of English language teaching to produce graduates who are devoted to God Almighty and who are contributing to the development of the nation, especially in the field of education; are always ready to undertake self-development and become a part of the intellectual community with the spirit of global mindedness. 3) develop research activities to investigate and develop science and technology in the field of English language learning for the welfare of individuals and communities and to support national development; 4) develop community service activities that encourage the development of all human potential, especially through the field of English

language learning in order to create a learning society within the framework of national development.

In EED IV, there were both global and specific missions of the department. In terms of the global vision, the mission of the department was to carry out an English education program to produce graduates who possess excellent competencies needed by society, would become agents of social changes able to develop knowledge and technology in the area of English education and were able to produce academic works which were beneficial to society. This global mission was elaborated with four specific missions, including: 1) Producing graduates who are able to be cadres of the nation with the spirit of nationalism based on *Pancasila* (five principles of Indonesia) and *Tamansiswa* (educational and life philosophy proposed by the founder of the university); 2) producing graduates who have the competence and ability to develop themselves in the fields of science, education, professions and culture in accordance with the development of science and technology in local, national and global community; 3) assisting students to become independent and helping them to be capable of creating jobs in the field of English language teaching in accordance with the principles of *Tamansiswa* and 4) carrying out community service using the acquired knowledge and skills. The HoD explained that the adoption of the *Tamansiswa* principles reflected the cultivation of the pedagogical legacy of the founder of the university and the incorporation of local values in the curriculum.

In EED V, the vision of the department included: 1) carrying out the English education program to produce graduates who possessed pedagogical, professional, social and personal competencies; 2) producing graduates who possessed strong faith in God the almighty and 3) carrying out activities framed in the *Tridharma Perguruan Tinggi* including teaching, research and community service based on the Islamic principles.

Regarding vision and mission, it indicates that all of the five EEDs made reference to learning and teaching or education as part of their vision, mission and strategic directions. The vision developed by the five EEDs varied in scope, length and detail. EED I, II, IV and V were brief while EED III was lengthy. Responsibility for developing, implementing and reviewing learning and educational plans in the department normally rested with a designated committee consisting of lecturers under the leadership of the HoDs. According to the HoDs of the five EEDs, having

such plans is critical to ensure the quality education provided by the departments. The most challenging issue shared by the HoDs of the five EEDs was communicating the vision, mission and strategies to lecturers and students. The HoDs also acknowledged that sometimes lecturers had lack of ownership of the vision and mission of the departments. To overcome this challenge, the five EEDs had numerous policies and procedures in place that are related to their plans including program quality assurance, student feedback, staff development and promotion, student assessment and course development. The HoDs further stated that the vision, mission and strategic plans entailed other issues that must be addressed such as professional development, alignment of the strategy with university policy and incentives and rewards for staff to achieve goals.

Table 4.2 shows that two departments, namely EED I and V, expected students to embrace Islamic principles. This indicated that they targeted their students to become 'religious'. This expectation was manifested through teaching five subjects related to Islamic teaching, while in EED V there were four Islamic subjects. In addition to the inclusion of Islamic subjects, to inculcate the Islamic faith, some lecturers in EED I and V asked their students to recite the Qur'an loudly together and read the translation before they began the class. The students and lecturers in these departments did their morning, afternoon as well as Jum'at (Friday) prayer in their mosques. In these two departments female students were obliged to wear the hijab on campus.

Islamic subjects were also taught in EED III and IV. However, in these departments, the Islamic subjects were only taught to the Muslim students. Other subjects including Buddhism, Hinduism, Catholicism and Christianity were also taught to students who belonged to those religions. In fact, both EED III and IV embraced 'national' values which taught religious subjects based on the students' faith. In EED IV a particular principle called 'Tamansiswa' which was proposed by the founder of the university became the desired value to be embraced by students.

Although EED II was a Catholic university, its vision did not expect students to hold Catholic values nor did the curriculum contain any subjects related to the Catholic religion. Instead, first mission stated that the department adopted Ignatian Pedagogical values to support the vision of producing graduates who had the spirit of professionalism and dignified character. The HoD explained how the implementation of Ignatian Pedagogy (IP) reflected the department's effort to

incorporate the organizational values into the CBC curriculum. She was of the opinion that the principles of IP were in line with approaches advocated in the CBC as, according to her, both IP and CBC encourage student centered learning. Despite the absence of subjects related to Catholicism in the curriculum, the students always had a Morning Christian Prayer before the class started.

In general, all of the five EEDs were shown to have similar missions, expecting the highest academic achievement possible and inculcating religious belief and practice or noble character. This is line with Raihani's (2006) finding that successful educational institutions in Indonesia were driven by strong cultural beliefs even when the schools do not formally affiliate to religious organizations.

4.4 Indonesian Lecturers

In the context of higher education in Indonesia, a lecturer can be generally defined as the person teaching in higher education institutions. Specifically, the government regulation No.14/2005 defined lecturers as professional educators and scientists whose main tasks are transferring, developing, and disseminating knowledge and technology through the process of education, research, and community service. The same law states the qualification of a lecturer: 1) a lecturer of diploma and undergraduate programs must have minimally a master degree; 2) a lecturer of doctorate programs must have a doctorate degree.

It was also stated in the same law that the minimum lecturers' workload including teaching, evaluation, guidance and counseling, research and community service was 12 credits per semester which was equivalent to 40 hours per week and the maximum workload is 16 credits. The main task of lecturers, according to the government regulation No.14/2005, is to carry out *Tridharma Perguruan Tinggi* comprising teaching as well as conducting research and community service. In terms of teaching, lecturers should follow the learning process as well as the evaluations standards and, with regard to research and community service, lecturers should comply with the research and community service standards.

As stated in article 10 of the Regulation of the Minister for Education, no.49/2014, the standard or learning process were the minimum outcomes to be achieved by graduates in a study program.

The standards of learning process included the characteristics, planning and implementation of the learning process and the students' workload. The characteristics of the learning process were described as: 1) interactive (the learning process prioritizes interaction between students and lecturers as well as students and students); 2) holistic (the learning process develops the students' potential and accommodates the local and national wisdom comprehensively); 3) integrative (the learning outcomes are achieved through an integrated learning process using interdisciplinary and multidisciplinary approaches); 4) scientific (the learning process promotes an academic environment that is based on the scientific approach as well as on religious and national values); 5) contextual (the learning outcomes are achieved through a learning process that promotes problem-solving skills in the areas of expertise of the study program); 6) thematic (the learning process should relate to the real problems within the areas of expertise of the study program); 7) effective (the learning outcomes can be successfully achieved within the available time); 8) collaborative (the attitude, knowledge and skills as the learning outcomes are achieved through collaboration among learners); and 9) student-centered (the learning process fosters creativity, capacity and character; fulfill the needs of students, and develop students' independence in learning).

An integral part of the lecturers' responsibility in the teaching and learning process is assessing student learning. The lecturers are required to follow the principles of assessment stipulated in the National Standard of Higher Education (2014) comprising; 1) educative assessment process allows students to improve their learning and helps them achieve the learning outcomes; 2) authentic assessment should reflect the students' competencies that resulted from the desired learning process; 3) objective assessment is based on the standard agreed by lecturers and students and is free from lecturer's subjectivity) ; 4) accountable assessment should be carried out in accordance with the clear procedures and criteria understood by students at the beginning of the study; 5) transparent principles (the result of assessment can be accessed by all stakeholders).

Article 28 of the National Standard of Higher Education (2014) divided lecturers into two types, namely permanent and non-permanent. Permanent lecturers were those who had permanent status as lecturers in one higher educational institution and did not work at another. Permanent lecturers in one institution are to be 75% of the total number of lecturers. The minimum number

of permanent lecturers assigned for full time teaching in a study program was six people. The doctorate, applied doctorate and specialist two programs should have minimally two professors as permanent lecturers.

In conducting the assessment process, lecturers should be familiar with the various assessment techniques such as observation, written test, oral test and quiz as well as assessment instruments such as rubrics to assess the improvement in the learning process, a portfolio to assess the students' work, and observation to assess attitude, and all the three instruments to assess knowledge and skills.

In addition to teaching and learning, lecturers are to enhance research activities. Through the research standard, lecturers are encouraged to conduct and produce research as a means of developing knowledge and technology and contributing to the advancement of the nation. Lecturers are also obliged to publish and disseminate research through seminars, conferences and journals so that the knowledge produced through the research activities can be accessed by the academic community and the general society.

The last element of the lecturers' *Tridharma Perguruan Tinggi* is doing community service. According to article 53 of the National Standard of Higher Education (2014), the community service program is aimed at applying knowledge and technology in order to support the development of the Indonesian people. Lecturers are also encouraged to apply the findings of their research to support Indonesian society including disseminating knowledge, providing training, applying technology, offering models or solutions to overcome problems in society, recommending policy for industry and government as well as offering the scientific discovery which benefits the society.

4.5 The Profiles of Lecturers in the Five EEDs

The following sections describe the profiles of the lecturers in the five EEDs. The description includes the number of lecturers, the workload, the efforts to develop the lecturers' capacities and the achievements gained by the lecturers. The profile of the lecturers in the five EEDs is shown in Table 4.2. The elements of the lecturers' profile including the number of lecturers and

their qualification, the lecturers' workload, the number of programs to develop the quality of lecturers, and the lecturers' achievement will be described in the following sections.

Table 4.2: Lecturers' profile in the five EEDs

	COMPONENTS	EED I	EED II	EED III	EED IV	EED V
1	Number of students	327	512	699	654	673
2	Number of lecturers					
	a. Total number of lecturers	18	44	98	27	38
	b. Permanent lecturers	14	37	96	20	35
	c. Non-permanent lecturers	4	7	2	7	3
3	Ratio of students-lecturers	23.36	13.84	7.28	32.7	19.23
4	Lecturers' Qualification					
	a. Bachelor degree	4	7	3	5	n.a
	b. Master	14	32	88	21	n.a
	c. Doctorate	0	1	6	2	
5	Lecturers' workload (in hours per week)					
6	a. Total workload (teaching, research and community service)	42.45	38.73	39.39	60	n.a
	b. Teaching workload	27	27	29	42	n.a
7	Number of programs/events to enhance lecturers' competencies	2	17	12	1	n.a
8	Lecturers' participation in seminars and conferences					n.a
	a. Total number of events attended	38	353	93	83	n.a
	b. Participants of these events	13	96	33	58	n.a
	c. Presenters in these events	25	257	60	25	n.a
9	Number of research studies conducted by lecturers	6	51	23	23	n.a

10	Number of lecturers' academic articles	22	29	105	16	n.a
11	Number of community service projects conducted by lecturers	7	26	12	29	n.a
12	Number of lecturers having achievements	4	30	36	1	n.a

n.a= not available

Source: Accreditation documents of the five EEDs (2010-2013).

4.5.1 The Profiles of Lecturers in EED 1

At the time when the research was being conducted, EED I had 18 lecturers including fourteen permanent lecturers and four non-permanent lecturers. The permanent lecturers consisted of eleven permanent lecturers who taught the areas of English language and three lecturers teaching the areas other than English, including management, philosophy and Islamic theology. Of the 18 lecturers, 14 had a master's degree in English language teaching while four had a bachelor degree and were still in the process of completing their master's degree. Of the nine permanent lecturers holding a master's degree, seven had earned their degree from overseas including America, Australia and Malaysia. Viewed from the Indonesian Constitution No.14/2005 perspective, of the total of fourteen permanent lecturers, twelve met the standards in terms of the minimum education level to teach in the undergraduate degree and two of the lecturers had not fulfilled the standards as they still had only a bachelor degree.

The lecturers' average workload in EED I, as stated in the accreditation document, was 14.15 credits or 42.5 hours per week because based on the Indonesian Constitution No. 14/2005 and Government Regulation No. 37/2009 12 credits was equivalent to 36 hours per week. The total number of credits of each lecturer covered the activities of teaching, research, community service, and management duties such as dean, the head of department and the secretary of department.

Efforts to improve the quality of lecturers had been ongoing for the last three years, including conducting seminars, sending lecturers to study overseas and sending lecturers to become presenters and participants in seminars and conferences. Regarding the seminars to develop lecturers' competencies, two seminars were conducted, namely 'Workshop on Research

Methodology' in 2011 and 'Workshop on Development of Academic Document' in 2013. Two experts were invited to talk in these workshops. 38 international and national seminar and conference events had also been attended by the lecturers of EED I between 2010 and 2013. In 25 events, lecturers became presenters and in the 13 events lecturers became the participants.

Four lecturers had made achievements in the regional level between 2011 and 2013 including one lecturer who achieved the reflective teaching award awarded by the TESOL graduate program at Indiana University of Pennsylvania in the US and the Gebhard Family Matesol Award for Creative Excellence awarded by the same university, while other lecturers had won the best teaching performance in the department. With regard to the research activities, there were two lecturers conducting research in 2012 and five lecturers in 2013 and all of the research was funded by the university. 22 academic articles had been published by lecturers in both seminar and conference proceedings and journals and 8 were published internationally. Seven community service-based activities had been pursued by lecturers between 2011 and 2013.

4.5.2 The Profiles of Lecturers in EED II

There were 44 lecturers, consisting of 37 permanent and 7 non-permanent lecturers at EED II. Of the permanent lecturers, 30 lecturers were teaching in the areas of English language and 7 lecturers teaching other areas such as theology, philosophy, history, geography, Bahasa Indonesia, Javanese language and social science. Of the total number of lecturers, 10 held a doctorate degree while 33 lecturers held a master degree and only one lecturer held a bachelor degree. Most of the lecturers (19 lecturers) had graduated from overseas universities including America, England, Australia, Singapore and the Philippines.

The average lecturers' workload in EED II, as stated in the accreditation document, was 12.91 credits or 38.73 hours per week. The teaching workload alone for each teacher was 27 hours per week. Several initiatives had been implemented to improve the quality of lecturers including conducting seminars and conferences to develop lecturers' knowledge and skills, encouraging lecturers to present papers in the seminars and conferences and sending lecturers to continue their studies. 17 events such as seminars, a conference and a workshop had been conducted between 2010 and 2012 by inviting experts to talk at these events. Nine lecturers had been sent to continue their doctorate programs overseas between 2006 and 2012. 23 lecturers had participated

in 353 events of national and international seminars, workshops and conferences and of those event; lecturers became presenters in 257 events and participants in 96 events. 29 papers had been published in 26 national and 2 international journals between 2010 and 2013. 30 lecturers had achieved both internationally and nationally, including international seminar grants, international scholarship grants, and assessors of higher education institutions as well as book and proceedings editors. Lecturers were also encouraged to conduct research as 51 research studies had been conducted between 2010 and 2013 funded by the university and Indonesian government and foreign institutions. In terms of community service, 26 community service-based activities had been done by lecturers between 2010 and 2013.

4.5.3 The Profiles of Lecturers in EED III

EED III had 98 lecturers, including 96 permanent and two non-permanent lecturers teaching sociology and educational research. Of the permanent lecturers, 38 taught in the areas of English language while 58 lecturers were teaching areas outside the English language. In terms of academic qualifications, six lecturers held doctorate degrees; 88 had master's degrees and three lecturers with bachelor degrees. 20 lecturers had graduated from overseas universities, mainly in Australia.

The average lecturers' workload, as stated by the accreditation document, was 13.13 credits or 39.39 hours per week. The average teaching workload for each lecturer was 29 hours per week. Several initiatives had been conducted to enhance the quality of lecturers in EED III. Between 2011 and 2013, 12 seminars and workshops had been conducted by the department by inviting speakers to enhance lecturers' capacity in teaching, research and community service. 13 lecturers continued their study both in Indonesia and in Australia between 2010 and 2013. Lecturers also participated in 93 events, mostly national seminars and conferences. Of those events, 60 lecturers made a presentation and 33 of them were participants. 105 academic articles had been published both nationally (63 writings) and internationally (23 writings), mostly in the form of proceedings from seminars and conferences. 36 lecturers gained both local and national achievements in the areas of research and service to community. 23 community research studies and 12 community service based activities had been carried out by lecturers between 2010 and 2013.

4.5.4 The Profiles of Lecturers in EED IV

There were 27 lecturers in EED IV including 20 permanent and 7 non-permanent lecturers. Of the permanent lecturers, 13 taught in the areas of English language and 7 taught in non-English areas such as theology and Islamic studies. Regarding academic qualifications, one held a doctorate degree, seven had a master's degree and five had only a bachelor degree. The total lecturers' average workload was 20 credits or 60 hours per week. The weekly average teaching workload of the lecturers in this department was 14 credits or 42 hours. In an effort to develop the lecturers' capacity, several initiatives had been launched by the department including sending 7 lecturers to continue their study at master and doctorate level, mostly in Indonesia and two in Australia. Attendance at seminars and conferences was also encouraged. Between 2011 and 2013, 83 seminars and conferences had been attended by lecturers in which the lecturers presented papers in 25 events. One lecturer had gained a local achievement. 23 research activities and 29 community-based activities had been performed by the lecturers between 2010 and 2013. 16 academic articles had been published in regional journals.

4.5.5 The Profiles of Lecturers in EED V

The complete profiles of the lecturers in EED V could not be obtained as the HoD would not allow the researcher to borrow or access the accreditation document and other curriculum documents. Hence, the profiles of the lecturers were obtained from the interviews and the list of lecturers on the department website. There were 38 permanent lecturers in EED, 30 teaching English and 5 teaching non-English language subjects including Islamic theology, Pancasila education and various social science subjects. The HoD said that most of the lecturers held a master's degree, mostly graduating from Indonesian universities and three lecturers were still pursuing their doctorate degrees in Australian universities. The HoD explained that several initiatives had been launched to promote the development of lecturers' capacity including conducting seminars and workshops by inviting speakers to give a talk to lecturers, sending lecturers to pursue a higher degree and providing incentives for lecturers to conduct more research and community service.

Analysis of the lecturer profiles

Table 4.2 with its description of the lecturers' profiles of the five EEDs in the paragraphs that followed depicts the intertwined components among lecturers' performance in the areas of research, community service, the number of lecturers, the lecturers' qualification and workloads as well as the departments' effort to enhance the lecturers' quality. It seemed that the number of lecturers and education level corresponded to their achievement. With more numbers and better educational qualifications, lecturers in EED III and EED I had gained better performance in terms of their productivity in both research studies, academic articles, and community service as well as their achievements in other areas compared to two other departments. Similarly, the frequency of their participation in seminars and conferences outweighed their counterparts in EED I and IV. On the contrary, due to lesser number of lecturers, lecturers in EED I had lower productivity in the activities of research and community service. However, the lecturers produced more academic articles than the lecturers at EED IV.

The best lecturers' performance was demonstrated by EED II. With a far lower number of lecturers compared to EED III, they performed better in almost all areas of research, productivity in writing academic articles, participation in seminars and conferences and community service work. This department also performed the best regarding the lecturers' academic qualifications and efforts to improve the quality of human resources. Compared to other departments, it had the most number of doctorates and most frequently conducted programs to enhance lecturers' competencies such as seminars and conference by inviting external experts to give a talk to lecturers.

A very critical issue to emerge from the five case studies data was that of teacher workload-an issue that has not received the attention it deserves. The government stipulates that the compulsory minimum workload of each full-time lecturer is 12 credits and a maximum of 16 credits each week in one semester (Government Regulation No. 14/2005, Government Regulation no. 37/2009). The government clearly states that lecturers' duties cover teaching, conducting research and doing community service. Activities which can be categorized as teaching duties are teaching and giving tutorial in the class and in the laboratory, guiding students in doing community service, supervising students in writing theses, examining the students' theses and developing teaching materials. The research activities included writing and

publishing research articles, editing books and designing teaching or learning software or technology. Activities for community service comprised giving useful training to society, creating a product beneficial for society and becoming an official in a government institution.

The compulsory workload of each duty is 9 credits for teaching and conducting research and three credits for doing community service each week in every semester. Based on the Government Regulation No. 17/2010, one credit is equivalent to three hours. Hence, the minimum 12 credits means 36 working hours each week in one semester. The maximum credits of workload were 16 which is equivalent to 48 hours each week in one semester. Table 4.2 shows that lecturers in EED I, II and III had workloads in the ideal range between 36 and 48 hours each week.

The interview revealed that heavy workloads were an issue commonly raised by lecturers in EED I and IV. One lecturer (L2A) felt that she often taught from morning until afternoon. As a result, as she pointed out, she did not have adequate time for conducting research, community service and other professional development activities. Similar feelings were also expressed by lecturers in EED IV (L1D and L2D). In this department, the lecturers' total workload was 60 hours, far heavier than their counterparts in other departments. However, based on Table 4.2, with such a heavy workload, although their productivity in writing academic articles was the lowest, their productivity in research activities and community service was better than their counterparts in EED III which had more lecturers and lower workloads. The heavy workload in EED IV, according to the HoD, was because it had many students while the number of lecturers was limited. The ratio between the lecturer and the students in this department was the highest (32.7) compared to the other four EEDs though based on the Government Regulation no. 12/2012 this ratio was still in the suggested range. As stipulated by this regulation, the maximum ratio between lecturers and students was 1: 45 (one lecturer to 45 students). As a result of this, lecturers in EED IV spent a great deal of time for teaching. As shown in Table 4.3, the lecturers' teaching workload alone was 42 hours per week, far outweighing their counterparts in other departments.

4.6 Summary

The HoDs performed similar roles in their leadership patterns across the five EEDs in the areas of curriculum, quality assurance and professional development. In terms of the curriculum, they acted as the facilitators in the curriculum evaluation although the evaluation of the curriculum done in the five EEDs was limited to changing the names of the subjects. All of the five EEDs had a mechanism for lecturers' professional development through sending them to seminars or workshops and continuing their education although the knowledge gained in the seminars was not disseminated in the departments and was not implemented in their teaching. The lecturers' performance in the areas of teaching, research and community service was evaluated through 'self-evaluation' using the format provided by the DGHE. The HoDs in the five EEDs did not effectively use their supervising function to the lecturers, especially in teaching, hence relying on the lecturers' self-evaluation process. In addition, the HoDs seemed to be occupied by the administrative responsibilities such as preparing schedules. The HoDs also acted as coordinators for lecturers in working towards achieving improved quality assurance of the departments. The five EEDs used both internal and external processes of quality assurance. The internal process employed was self-auditing and the external process used was the accreditation process done by the government.

Regarding the departments' vision and mission, all of the five EEDs made reference to learning and teaching or education as part of their vision, mission and strategic directions. In conjunction with professional competencies, character based on the religious values and national values seemed to be considered significant in the five EEDs. These became cultural values embedded in the vision and mission of the departments.

Lecturers' performance in the areas of research differed with EED II and III having the most research studies conducted and the most journal articles written by their lecturers. The most community service projects were conducted by the lecturers in EED IV. An important issue in carrying out the Tridharma Perguruan Tinggi, (three responsibilities of higher education institution), especially in EED IV and I, was concerned with the lecturers' workload given the relatively high ratio between the number of the lecturers and the students in these departments.

CHAPTER 5 • EVALUATION OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE CURRICULUM: PERSPECTIVES OF THE HEADS OF DEPARTMENTS AND LECTURERS

As has been touched upon in the literature review, Competency-based Education is sometimes termed as Competency-based Training. While the words ‘education’ and ‘training’ are often used interchangeably, both terms have different connotations and their definitions have different implications. While the term ‘education’ is usually tantamount to secondary and tertiary education, the term ‘training’ is usually associated with vocational instruction aimed at equipping learners with task-oriented competencies with perhaps limited theoretical underpinnings. For the purpose of this study as previously outlined, the term CBC refers to a learning program planned and designed to achieve the competency standards required by a professional body. Standards can be necessary skills in order that a person can be regarded as competent in a particular job.

In the context of CBC implemented in higher education institutions (HEI) in Indonesia, the first important step in designing the curriculum structure is the formulation of graduate qualities or graduate attributes. Barrie (2005) suggests that the curriculum in higher education institutions (HEI) has traditionally focused on the information received (content) rather than the ability to perform (outcome). In contrast to the traditional approach to the curriculum, Barrie (2005) suggests that today’s curriculum should be more competency-based if HEI wants to produce employable graduates. Hence, according to Barrie (2005), HEI must firstly, equip their graduates with the discipline-specific skills in order that they can cope in a workplace environment; secondly, they are charged with producing graduates armed with the generic graduate attributes required by the job markets and thirdly, they are responsible to produce graduates who are able to demonstrate the generic skills required by the competency standards of the professional body.

As a part of higher education institutions which produce English teachers, English education departments are expected to produce graduates equipped with English teaching competencies. As has been highlighted in the literature review, in Indonesia a list of teacher core competencies was stipulated in the Regulation of the Ministry of Education No. 16/2007. This list applied to all teachers, including English teachers. The regulation referred to the competencies standard comprising pedagogic competence, ethical competence, social competence and professional

competence. Included in the *pedagogic competencies* are abilities to: 1) understand the physical, moral, societal, cultural, emotional and intellectual characteristics of the students; 2) understand and apply the learning theories and principles; 3) develop the curriculum; 4) facilitate the students to develop and actualize their potential; 5) devise assessment tasks and evaluate the learning process and use them to improve the quality of teaching and learning; and 6) think and act reflectively in order to enhance the quality of teaching and learning. *The personal competencies* involve the abilities to: 1) act in accordance with Indonesian religious, legal, social and cultural norms; 2) demonstrate honesty and set the example of good moral conduct; and 3) demonstrate a high level of work ethic, confidence and responsibility; 4) implement the teachers' codes of conduct. *The social competencies* comprise abilities to: 1) act inclusively and objectively and avoid discriminatory treatment of students; 2) communicate effectively to students, colleagues, parents and stakeholders; 3) adapt to the diverse Indonesian social and multicultural backgrounds; and 4) communicate academically within the professional community of teachers to improve teachers' professionalism and competencies. *The professional competencies* consist of the abilities to: 1) master the teaching and learning materials; 2) understand the competency standard of the subjects; 3) develop the learning materials creatively; and 4) enhance continued professional development; and 5) use information technology for professional development

In 2012, through the Indonesian Quality Framework (IQF), the competencies of English teachers have been formulated and have become the national standard for higher education institutions that develop an English language program. The IQF (2012) used the term 'learning outcomes' to refer to the graduate qualities and it stated the learning outcomes of the English teacher education program in a more specific way, categorizing the English teachers' competencies into attitude, knowledge, general skills and specific skills. Based on the IQF's document, in terms of attitude, the graduates of undergraduate programs of English teacher education should possess the following qualities: 1) believe in God Almighty and be able to demonstrate a religious attitude; 2) uphold the values of humanity based on the religious, moral and ethical values in the teaching profession; 3) internalize the values, norms, and academic ethics; 4) become citizens who take pride in the homeland, have a sense of nationalism and responsibility to the nation; 5) appreciate cultural diversity, views, religions, and beliefs and opinions of other people; 6) contribute to improvement of the quality of life of the society and the progress of civilization

based on *Pancasila*; 7) able to work together and develop social sensitivity and concern for the community and the environment; 8) obey the law and develop discipline in the social life; 10) internalize the spirit of independence, perseverance, and entrepreneurship; 11) demonstrate responsible and independent attitudes in their profession; and 12) have the sincerity, and commitment in developing the attitudes and competencies of the learners based on local wisdom (ibid, 2014).

With regards to the acquisition of knowledge, the graduates of the English education department should acquire knowledge of the following:

- 1) Master the theoretical concepts of language and techniques for oral and written communication for general English in the context of daily life equivalent with the post-intermediate level
- 2) Master the theoretical concepts of language and techniques for oral and written communication for English for specific purposes in the context of daily life equivalent with intermediate level
- 3) Master the theoretical concepts of literary, literacy and language learning
- 4) Master the theoretical concept of pedagogy
- 5) Master the principles of developmental psychology and educational psychology
- 6) Master the concepts and techniques of learning program development, procedure, management and evaluation of an English language program (ibid, 2014)

The graduates of an English education department should possess the nine specific skills:

- 1) To be fluent in spoken and written English in the academic context and daily life equivalent at post intermediate level
- 2) Able to speak and write in English for at least one field for English for specific purposes equivalent with intermediate level
- 3) Able to adapt the culture of the target language into the culture of the first language
- 4) Plan, implement, manage and evaluate the learning process and improve the methods of learning English as a foreign language in accordance with the characteristics and needs of learners and stakeholders according to the standard and quality process
- 5) Able to apply the methods and processes of teaching and learning English for specific purposes

- 6) Able to manage the learning resources for supporting the learning process under his or her responsibility and able to evaluate the process comprehensively
- 7) Able to identify and analyze the problem of quality, relevance, or access of English learning and able to find solutions in a decision making process
- 8) Able to provide guidance and counseling to students in the learning process
- 9) Able to use relevant information and communication technologies to develop the quality of education (ibid, 2014)

In addition to the specific skills, according to the IQF (2012), the graduates of the English education department should also possess the following general skills. These are: 1) able to apply logical, critical, systematic, and innovative thinking in the context of knowledge and technology development in the field of English language teaching; 2) examine the implications of the development or implementation of science, technology or the arts in accordance with his or her expertise based on scientific procedures to produce solutions, ideas and designs and to write a thesis on the scientific research; 3) able to use data and information in order to take the appropriate decisions to solve problems in the area of English language teaching; 4) able to manage the learning process independently and 5) able to develop and maintain a network with mentors, colleagues and associates, both inside and outside the institution.

The five EEDs still used four graduate competencies for teachers comprising pedagogical, professional, personal and social competencies. However, despite different terms, these competencies shared similarities with the graduate qualities proposed in the IQF (2012). The following sections describe the HoDs' perspective in their understanding of CBC and the formulation of the graduate competencies in the five universities.

5.1 Understanding of the Competency-based Curriculum (CBC)

As has been touched upon in the literature review, in Indonesia, the CBC is a new paradigm that has replaced the old, content-based Curriculum paradigm. This paradigm shift, according to the Directorate General of Higher Education (2008) was to bring about changes in the approach to learning, teaching and assessment methods. As a new paradigm, one important task of the heads of departments was raising the awareness of the CBC to lecturers and students. Smith and

Keating (2003) state that the competency-based curriculum can be described as being more outcome-oriented and task-based rather than content or input-oriented. This definition had been explained by the HoDs in particular and by the cohort of participants in general in all five departments. In all five case studies, for example, the key words of competencies as the 'aim' and 'target' of the curriculum and 'a set of competencies' were used in explaining the definition of CBC.

The CBC was defined by lecturers differently across the five EEDs. Several definitions of the CBC were: 'a curriculum that combines knowledge and formative skills performed to a required standard' (L2A); "a curriculum that attempts to develop skill and knowledge to a level of performance to successfully do specific tasks or jobs" (L1C); "CBC relates to a set of standards formulated by the government to judge its members against it and aims to produce competent graduates which means being able to perform psychomotor skills" (LIB). An interesting insight was expressed by one lecturer (L2C). He said that he often taught theoretical subjects such as phonology and used to teach in a purely content-based manner without relating it to its application. With the implementation of CBC, he stated that he should relate the subjects he taught with how they can be applied in the real situation. The participants' understanding of the CBC reflected the concept of employment-related competence proposed by the Australian Mayer Committee (1992), as cited in Tritton (2008), stating that any employment-related competence requires both vocational content and key competencies useful for entry into industries and occupations.

The second CBC perspective revealed by the participants in all departments was that this curriculum was associated with a paradigm shift in the teaching and learning process. The following comments reflected the lecturers' and students' perception of the paradigm shift in the teaching and learning process related to the CBC.

I think the CBC offered us a new learning paradigm in which both hard skills and soft skills are developed (L1A)

Also, from one lecturer (L1D) teaching at EED IV,

I suppose the CBC reflects the progression of our pedagogical approach from content-based curriculum to the more competency-based curriculum. If in the content-based the focus is on the

development of cognitive domains, in the current CBC curriculum the emphasis is more on skills or competencies.

And, from a student studying in her fifth semester in EED V (S54E),

In my opinion, CBC can encourage us to participate more actively in the learning process. This is because lecturers are required to make a learning atmosphere which motivates us to get involved in the learning process.

Specifically, the HoDs of EED I and EED III mentioned the course contents which focused on 'knowledge application' while the HoDs from EED II and IV related to targeted competencies in CBC with the phrases "hard skills and soft skills" and "cognitive and affective domains". The perspectives from the majority of students in the FGD supported the HoDs' view. The following are the samples of their response.

So in the CBC it is not enough to understand the theories, but we have to be able to apply the knowledge (S37A)

The adoption of the CBC would lead to a paradigm shift in the teaching process. Instead of focusing on the teaching content, lecturers were to create learning conditions where students could apply their knowledge (S25B)

In the lecturers' perspective, the lecturers in the CBC scheme should be able to encourage students to participate in the learning process as illustrated in the following comments.

I think an important responsibility of the lecturer is to be able to create a conducive learning environment which promotes students' active involvement in the class (L1E).

Of the five English departments, only the HoD in EED II mentioned student-centered learning explicitly in the understanding of the paradigm shift in the CBC. She summed up her inclination towards a student-centered learning approach by explaining that the students' competencies would not improve if they were rendered passive in the classroom. Hence, she maintained that application of student-centered learning was an ideal choice as it would encourage both lecturers' and students' involvement in the teaching and learning process.

In addition to the view expressed by the HoDs of EED II and EED V, one lecturer in EED I (L1A) believed that as the students learning in the CBC scheme were more prepared in terms of their skill development, they would become more competitive graduates. However, instead of a proper understanding of the CBC, some students in the five EEDs incorrectly equated the CBC with the school-based curriculum implemented in the junior and senior high schools. It was also

interesting to find that a lecturer in EED II was not sure if his teaching activities were consistent with the concept of CBC. The HoDs in the five EEDs acknowledged that a small number of lecturers did not follow the principles of CBC due to a lack of understanding of the concept. Given these reasons, the HoDs had made efforts to raise the awareness of the CBC to lecturers and students. The HoD of EED V, for instance, said that some training to improve the lecturers' teaching skills in the CBC scheme had been conducted. He further explained that most of the lecturers in the English department had joined the training. According to him, in the training the lecturers' ability to use student-centered learning was developed. He also stated that in the training the lecturers had opportunities to create lesson plans, assessment tools and a syllabus based on CBC principles. One lecturer (L1E) was in agreement with the HoD. He said that the training was particularly aimed at preparing lecturers to apply student-centered learning approach. However, she expected that the training would explicitly raise the awareness of CBC among lecturers. "Yes, we have conducted some training concerning student-active learning, but without putting them in the context of CBC implementation", he explained.

The shared perception about the CBC among lecturers was considered crucial by the HoDs in all five case studies. Hence, since the CBC inception, according to the HoD of EED IV, for example, the department had embarked on one meeting conducted in each semester. The purpose of the meeting, according to him, was to evaluate the implementation of CBC and to create a shared vision related to the implementation of CBC. "In this meeting we also have time to identify factors which might present obstacles for the CBC implementation and to share our experiences in the teaching and learning process and assessing our students". The HoD added that the department had evaluated the curriculum regularly. He asserted, "We evaluate our curriculum once in every two years".

Despite the efforts to raise the awareness of the CBC for lecturers in all five case studies, such efforts were rarely conducted for students in most cases, except in EED I. The HoD of EED I explained that the department usually had a meeting with students once every semester. In addition to raising the awareness of CBC, he said that in the meeting, students also gave ideas and feedback concerned with the enhancement of the teaching and learning process, including the teaching and learning methods and learning facilities.

5.2 Experiences in Implementing CBC

The study found that there were both positive and negative experiences regarding the implementation of the CBC. Regarding the positive experiences, all HoDs, lecturers and most of the students in the FGD stated that the teaching and learning process in the CBC encouraged students to be active learners. One lecturer (L1B), for instance, said, “I found the teaching and learning process to be much more engaging for lecturers and learners”. Students in the five EEDs said that lecturers used the teaching methods which motivated them to be active in the class through activities including discussions and presentations.

All interviewed lecturers were of the opinion that the CBC lesson plans and the assessment rubrics had helped them to encourage accountability in delivery and flexible learning practices. One lecturer in EED IV (L1D) said that CBC provides various learning modes so that students were not bored with a monotonous teaching method. Another lecturer in EED V (L2E) explained that she was motivated to change her teaching style which made students engage with various activities in the class.

With regard to the negative experiences, all HoDs and lecturers in all EEDs explained that there had been initial conflict and opposition to the CBC. According to the HoDs of EED II, III, IV and V, their departments had implemented the sequential approach which was more content-based in the design of the curriculum structure. Several lecturers, according to HoD of the five EEDs, used to be more comfortable with the lecturing teaching style. EED II and EED III had more specific problems. According to the HoD of EED II, the CBC was in conflict with the pedagogical value advocated in the department, namely Ignatian Pedagogy. As she pointed out, while the CBC promoted the subjects focusing on the skills and competencies, the IP also promoted subjects such as humanities and philosophy. She said that the department needed time to reconcile the conflict. She further said that despite the conflict, both CBC and IP promoted student-centered learning. In EED III, opposition to the implementation of the CBC came from the senior lecturers. According to one lecturer (L2C), senior lecturers appeared to be reluctant to adopt the student-centered learning modes promoted by the CBC. He explained that it was not easy to make the senior lecturers understand about the effectiveness of the new methods because they felt that their teaching methods had been effective. EED I had not had these negative

experiences because this department was the newest compared to the other five EEDs and since its establishment the department had been urged by the DGHE to design its curriculum using the CBC.

According to the HoDs in all of the five EEDs, at the beginning the implementation of CBC led to a great deal of confusion because old practices were changed by the new ones. They were of the opinion that the benefits derived from CBC were dogged by several difficulties among lecturers and students. All of the interviewed lecturers said that with the implementation of CBC, they had to use more assessment rubrics and to apply more types of assessment. They also explained that they had to spend more time to prepare more learning materials and classroom activities. Similarly, most of the students in all the five EEDs stated that they felt overburdened by many assignments. The confusion, according to the HoDs and lecturers, was because there was limited consultation prior to the CBC implementation, resulting in a lack of shared understandings of its principles. As the lecturers pointed out, the DGHE only disseminated the information about the CBC to key people in the university such as the vice rector who was responsible for academic affairs, deans and the HoDs, not to lecturers in general. In addition, although the HoDs claimed that efforts to disseminate the CBC had been done at the department levels, as confirmed in the accreditation documents, the sharing of ideas and the professional development programs among lecturers were not specifically focused on the CBC.

In addition to the qualitative data, the quantitative data were gathered to investigate the lecturers' experiences in implementing the CBC such as the lecturers' participation in CBC trainings and their ownership of the CBC related documents including CBC guidelines, teaching syllabus, lesson plans and assessment rubrics. The following tables illustrate the findings for each component.

Table 5.1: The lecturers' participation in the CBC training

Percentage	Have you joined sessions to introduce the concept of CBC in higher education?					Average
	EED I (n:10)	EED II (n:7)	EED III (n:11)	EED IV (n: 15)	EED V (n: 12)	
Yes (%)	10	-	9.1	26.7	33.3	18.19
No (%)	90	100	90.9	73.3	66.7	81.81

Table 5.1 provides information about the percentage of the lecturers in the five EEDs who had attended training related to the CBC implemented in higher education. In general, the participation of the training to introduce the CBC was very much lower than 50 per cent in all the five EEDs (18.19 %). The majority of the lecturers (81.81%) had not joined the same training. Seen from across the five departments, the highest percentage of the lecturers attending the CBC training was found in EED V (33.3 %). The second highest percentage was EED IV (26.7 %), followed by EED I (10 %) and EED III (9.1 %). None of the surveyed lecturers in EED II had attended the CBC training.

Asked why the lecturers' participation of the CBC training was low, the HoDs in all the five departments explained that the sessions conducted by the DGHE to introduce the CBC were rare. They also stated that the departments sent a limited number of lecturers to the training sessions and they were expected to share their experience of the CBC training in the lecturers' meetings. Additionally, as pointed out by the HoDs and affirmed by lecturers, it was the obligation of each HoD to attend the CBC trainings and the HoD had to disseminate the knowledge of the CBC obtained from the training to lecturers.

Table 5.2: The lecturers' possession of the CBC guidelines documents

Ranges for the percentages	What percentage of the CBC guidelines documents do you have?					Average of all EEDs for each range
	EED I (n:10)	EED II (n:7)	EED III (n: 11)	EED IV (n: 15)	EED V (n: 12)	
> 90 %	20	-	-	-	-	3.00
75-90%	-	57.1	36.4	40	41.7	34.65
50-74%	50	14.3	27.2	46.7	25	35.54
<50 %	30	28.6	36.4	13.3	33.3	27.27
Percentage of > 50 % of the documents in each EED	70	71.4	63.6	86.7	66.5	
Total average for percentage of > 50 % of the document	71.64					

Table 5.2 presents the percentages of the lecturers in the five EEDs who possessed the CBC guideline documents. The CBC guideline documents were the ones provided by the DGHE. It consisted of the rationale for the implementation of the CBC; the methods to develop the curriculum structure, the strategies to determine subjects and semester credits and the methodologies to teach and assess students' competencies. The percentage was taken from the total number of the lecturers surveyed in each EED represented by the character "n". Four ranges were used to find the degree to which the documents had been possessed by the lecturers, namely, more than 90 per cent, between 75 to 90 per cent, between 50 to 74 per cent and under 50 per cent. The percentage of the document possession of more than 50 per cent in each EED and all EEDs was also used to identify whether it was in a high or low range. The strategy of identifying the percentage using four ranges was applied to all document possession. As shown in Table 5.2, most of the lecturers (34.65 %) in the five EEDs believed that they had 75 to 90 per cent of the CBC guidelines documents. 35.54 per cent of them had 50 to 74 per cent of the same documents and only a small number of lecturers (27.27 %) believed that their possession of CBC

guidelines documents was lower than 50 per cent. The only EED whose lecturers had more than 90 per cent of the CBC documents was EED I (20 %).

Of the five EEDs, EED IV had the highest proportion (86.7 %) of their lecturers having more than 50 per cent of the CBC guideline documents. The second rank was EED II where 71.4 per cent of its lecturers believed that their CBC guidelines documents were more than 50 per cent, followed by EED I (70 per cent) and EED III (63.6 %). The lowest percentage was EED V where 66.5 per cent of its lecturers had more than 50 per cent of the same documents. When the five institutions were combined, a significant majority (71.64 %) of the lecturers had more than 50 per cent of the CBC guidelines documents.

Table 5.3: The lecturers' possession of the CBC teaching syllabus documents

Ranges for the percentages	What percentage of the CBC teaching syllabus documents do you have?					Average of all EEDs for each range
	EED I(n:10)	EED II(n:7)	EED III(n: 11)	EED IV (n: 15)	EED V (n: 12)	
> 90 %	20	14.3	27.3	13.3	-	14.54
75-90%	40	85.7	18.2	33.3	50	41.81
50-74%	20	-	45.5	53.3	25	32.73
<50 %	20	-	9.1	-	25	10.92
Percentage of > 50 % of the documents in each EED	80	100	91	100	75	
Total average for percentage of > 50 % of the document	89.18					

Table 5.3 shows the percentages of the lecturers in the five EEDs who had the CBC teaching syllabus. CBC teaching syllabus was the document containing the lesson plans. It consisted of the course description, aims of the teaching and learning, and the lesson plans in each meeting. Ideally, each subject should be accompanied by a syllabus. As clearly seen in Table 5.3 in terms of the possession of CBC teaching syllabus, most of the lecturers (41.81%) had between 75 and 90

per cent of the documents. A small proportion of lecturers (32.73%) was in the third category, in which they believed that their possession of the same documents was between 50 and 74 per cent while only a small minority (10.92%) believed that their ownership of the documents was lower than 50 per cent. Lecturers who had more than 90 per cent of their CBC teaching syllabus documents were a small minority, accounting for 14.54 per cent.

The majority of the lecturers (89.18%) in all the five EEDs believed that their ownership of the CBC syllabus documents was more than 50 per cent. Viewed from each department, all lecturers (100 %) in both EED II and IV had more than 50 per cent of the same documents, followed by EED III (91 per cent) and EED I (80%). The lowest proportion of the lecturers (75%) having more than 50 of the CBC syllabus documents was in EED V.

Table 5.4: The lecturers' possession of the CBC lesson plans documents

Ranges for the percentages	What percentage of the CBC lesson plan documents do you have?					Average of all EEDs for each range
	EED I(n:10)	EED II(n:7)	EED III(n: 11)	EED IV (n: 15)	EED V (n: 12)	
> 90 %	20	14.3	9	6.7	-	9.08
75-90%	10	71.4	27.3	53.3	33.3	38.17
50-74%	50	14.3	36.4	40	25	34.55
<50 %	20	-	27.3	-	41.7	18.2
Percentage of > 50 % of the documents in each EED	80	100	72.8	100	85.3	
Total average for percentage of > 50 % of the document	82.2					

Table 5.4 provides information about the percentages of the documents possession related to the CBC lesson plans. The lesson plans documents consisted of the targeted competencies of the the subject, the teaching and learning methods used and the time allocation, the assessment components, the teaching materials and the media.

The data shows that a good proportion of the lecturers in all the five EEDs (38.17%) had between 75 and 90 per cent of the lesson plan documents. 34.55 per cent of them were in the third range, in which they believed that their possession of the same documents was between 50 and 74 per cent. Lecturers who had more than 90 per cent of their CBC lesson plan documents was a small minority, accounting for 10 per cent.

In all of the five institutions, the lecturers whose possession of the CBC syllabus documents was more than 5 per cent were the majority, accounting for 82.2 per cent. Compared among the five departments, lecturers in EED II and IV had the highest percentage, where all of them had more than 50 per cent of the same documents. A significant majority of lecturers having more than 50 per cent could also be found in EED V (85.3 %) and EED I (80 %). EED III had the lowest percentage where 72.8 per cent of its lecturers believed that they possessed more than 50 per cent of the same documents.

Table 5.5: The lecturers’ possession of the assessment rubrics documents

Percentages	What percentage of the students’ assessment rubrics documents do you have?					Average of all EEDs for each range
	EED I (n:10)	EEDII (n:7)	EED III (n: 11)	EED IV (n: 15)	EED V (n: 12)	
> 90 %	10	14.3	27.3	13.3	-	12.73
75-90%	50	57.1	27.3	60	25	43.63
50-74%	30	28.6	36.4	-	50	27.28
<50 %	10	-	9.1	26.7	25	16.36
Percentage of > 50 % of the documents in each EED	90	100	90.9	73.3	75	
Total average for percentage of > 50 % of the document	85.84					

Table 5.5 presents the percentages of the lecturers in the five EEDs who had CBC assessment rubrics. The assessments documents consisted of the assessment rubrics comprising the

assessment tools and components, the inclusion of the soft skills aspect and the weight of each component. As clearly illustrated in Table 5.5, most of the lecturers (43.63%) in the five EEDs believed that regarding their possession of the CBC assessment rubrics was between 75 and 90%. 27.28 per cent of the lecturers had 50 to 74 per cent of their assessment rubrics based on the CBC. Only a small minority (12.73 %) of lecturers had more than 90 per cent of the CBC assessment rubrics. 16.36 per cent of the lecturers had the same rubrics which was lower than 50 per cent.

The majority of the lecturers in all the five departments (85.84%) had more than 50 per cent of the CBC assessment rubrics. Of the five, EED II had the highest percentage in which all of the surveyed lecturers (100%) believed that their possession of the CBC assessment rubrics was more than 50 per cent. Almost all lecturers in EED I (90 per cent) and EED III (90%) also had the same conviction. On the contrary, in EED V a significant proportion of its lecturers (75%) had more than 50 per cent of the CBC assessment rubrics. EED IV was the last rank with 73.3 per cent of its lecturers having more than 50 per cent of the same documents.

The findings revealed that despite the low participation of lecturers in the CBC training events, the percentage of document possession including the CBC guidelines, teaching syllabus, lesson plans and assessment rubrics among the lecturers were above 50 per cent. The lecturers' supportive attitude toward the implementation of the CBC, according to the HoDs, was because the DGHE mandated all departments to implement it. As the HoDs pointed out, the curriculum and the teaching learning process using the CBC scheme was a part of the quality standards audited by the National Accreditation Body in the departments' accreditation process. In addition to this, the high percentages of the CBC documents possession among lecturers reflected the lecturers' tangible efforts to implement the components of the CBC in the teaching and learning process.

5.3 The Formulation of Graduate Competencies

The curriculum in universities has traditionally placed emphasis on content or the information received rather than outcome or abilities to perform. By contrast, the CBC focused on the development of students' ability to perform occupational tasks (DGHE, 2008). As graduate competencies were made a condition in the CBC, all departments or study programs in

Indonesia, including the five EEDs, must include the graduate competencies in their curriculum. In fact, the formulation of the graduate competencies is the key step prior to designing of the curriculum structure. This sub-section describes and discusses the formulation of the graduate structure of the five EEDs.

5.3.1 The Formulation of Graduate Competencies in EED I

The EED I designed the competencies standard of the graduates which was based on the needs analysis in the original proposal of the EED establishment. It was found in the needs analysis that the professions of the EED graduates were teachers, language practitioners, business people, researchers and workers working in companies where English was used. Based on the learning profiles to be reached by the EED I's graduates, it was stated that upon the completion of their study, the graduates are able to: 1) use English in communication and teach English effectively on the basis of innovative, creative language learning principles; 2) acquire the language and learning theories for developing language learning; 3) make decisions in the field of language learning; 4) conduct research into the English language and language learning and 5) nurture ethical and aesthetical attitudes in the teaching profession

The HoD, supported by the lecturers, said that that the core competencies of a teacher should refer to four competencies. He said “The graduates should be able to be teachers equipped with four competencies, namely professional competence, pedagogical competence, personal competence and social competence”. While comparing the CBC with the ‘old curriculum’ implemented in the undergraduate program, the HoD stressed the need for professional and pedagogical competence which should be developed seriously by the department. He referred to professional competence as the language abilities and pedagogical competence as the skills to teach. Referring to professional and pedagogical competence, one lecturer (L1A) asserted that the department expected the graduates to be skillful in using English for verbal and written communication not only in terms of accuracy but also fluency. Another lecturer (L2A) added, “Because we are an English education department, we also encourage students to develop their teaching skills such as classroom management. To improve the quality of their teaching they also have to be able to do research and understand its stages from planning and reporting”.

In the effort to strengthen the teachers' pedagogical competencies, EED I included eight teaching practicums in the curriculum as illustrated in Table 5.1

Table 5.6: Teaching practicums done in the EED I

Semester	Name of practicum	Contents and aims	Hours	School
1	Practicum 1	Learning style	16 x 60 minutes	Primary school
2	Practicum 2	Classroom management	16 x 60 minutes	Primary school
3	Practicum 3	Lesson plan	16 x 60 minutes	Junior high school
4	Practicum 4	Material development	16 x 60 minutes	Junior high school
5	Practicum 5	Teaching style	16 x 60 minutes	Senior high school
6	Practicum 6	Teaching methods	16 x 60 minutes	Senior high school
7	Teaching practice	Micro teaching	16 x 4 x 50 minutes	Micro teaching laboratory
8	Teaching practice	Practice teaching	50 x 6 x 45 minutes	Junior or senior high school.

As can be seen from Table 5.1, the eight teaching practicums are done in schools ranging from primary to senior high. The students sent to schools are required to sit in the class and assist teachers in teaching. The duration of each practicum is 16 x 60 minutes and each practicum focuses on different goals. The first practicum in semester one is done in a primary school. The students doing *Practicum One* are to learn about the learning styles of the students in the class. In *Practicum Two*, which is done in the second semester, students are expected to observe and learn about classroom management in primary schools. In semester three, students do the third practicum in junior high schools where they can focus on learning how teachers prepare and create the lesson plan. *Practicum Four* is done in semester four in which students focus on learning about materials development in the junior high school. Learning and observing the teaching style in senior high schools is done in the fifth practicum in semester five. *Practicum Six*, done in semester six, requires students to learn the teaching methods used by teachers teaching at senior high school. In addition to six teaching practicums, two teaching practices

have to be done by students. In the seventh semester, students should practice teaching in a micro teaching room. In the eighth semester students practiced teaching in junior high schools or senior high schools.

The two interviewed lecturers believed that the six teaching practicums in school would allow students to observe, communicate, and collaborate with teachers. L1A said, “Students will learn from the real teaching situation and face the challenges they encounter in the classroom”. Despite the adoption of the eight teaching practicums in EED I, however, the real teaching practice was only done in semester eight. In this semester, students were to practice teaching in junior high or senior high schools. As most of the students in the FGD pointed out, in the other six practicums, they only observed the way the teachers taught in the classroom.

The department had made efforts to ensure that students understood the graduate profiles. Hence, they would understand what competencies they should develop in order to be effective English teachers. However, according to the HoD, the two lecturers and a few students, several graduates may not choose the teaching profession. For this reason, the HOD suggested that graduates should also be given a choice of careers they could pursue in the future. He argued that the supporting competencies should offer a wider choice of careers to graduates. It is stated that the graduates of EED I are able to: 1) apply information technology effectively in developing language skills and promoting language learning and 2) acquire and apply the entrepreneurial principles effectively. When asked why students should be equipped with entrepreneurial skills, the HoD responded that not all graduates wanted to be teachers. Relating to entrepreneurial skills, he said that students should be trained in how to manage a business related to the English language such as English language courses and translation agencies. The importance of supporting competencies was confirmed by a student. One student (S53A) suggested, “Well, to become a teacher is my main goal, but I also want to be a business person”

Based on the accreditation document, EED I aimed to equip graduates with the competencies that differentiate them from graduates in other universities. These competencies are labeled as ‘other competencies’. Equipped with these competencies, the graduates of EED I are able to: 1) understand and implement the Islamic and Muhammadiyah values in the professional environment and in society and; 2) understand and implement the national values in the professional environment and society. In terms of enhancing Islamic values, EED I had

introduced a subject called *AIK* standing for *Agama Islam dan Kemuhammadiyah* (Islamic religion and Muhammadiyah). Included in this subject is the discussion of ‘akhlak’, which refers to the cultivation of Islamic ethics and morality. One student (S33A) felt that the content of this course is very important to develop the Islamic character of the students. However, this subject remains theoretical and has not been able to develop the affective aspects of the students. As one student (S43A) said, "I think this is a very theoretical subject that has not been able to improve our everyday behavior".

According to the HoD and the lecturers, the graduate profile mentioned in the documentation of accreditation of EED I was the result of the SWOT (strengths, weakness, opportunity and threats) and needs analysis carried out by the teaching staff in the EED establishment in 2009. The HoD said, “by using SWOT analysis, we attempted to analyze our strengths and weaknesses as well as external challenges. Then we also analyzed the opportunity to be posed to the graduates of English departments, what graduates are needed by the market. Based on this analysis we produced some graduate profiles for our department”. In addition, the lecturers argued that the graduates of the English department become not only teachers but also staff at tourist offices as well as translators and entrepreneurs. L2A said, “This is a social reality that we cannot ignore”. The HoD’s and the lecturers’ views were shared by the majority of students in the FGD. One student (S115A) stated, “I don’t know what I want to be after I graduate. But if I see today’s situation, the graduate of English department can choose many professions because we master English. For example, with this English skill we can work in the bank”.

5.3.2 The Formulation of Graduate Competencies in EED II

Despite the absence of explicit graduate profiles in the accreditation document, the EED II explicitly stated that the graduate competences in its document of accreditation were comprised of professional, pedagogical, personal and social competences. It was stated in the same document that the formulation of graduate competences was based on the decree of the Minister of Education No. 45/2002 and an effort to anticipate the increasing market demand in the future.

With regard to professional competence, the document stated that upon the completion of study, the students of EED II were able to: 1) interact and communicate in English appropriately and understandably; 2) analyze various language aspects such as linguistic, sociolinguistic and

strategic discourse; 3) develop one's professionalism continually using reflective action and; 4) employ information and communication technology for self-development. When asked about professional competence, the HoD, supported by the two lecturers and most of the students in the FGD, considered the ability to speak and write English as vitally important for the graduates of the department. She said,

To be professional teachers, I think graduates of this department should be able to speak and write English well. These are the fundamental competences for English teachers. If this foundation is strong, they can further develop themselves and can become role models of how to speak and to write English well for their students.

With respect to pedagogical competence, the HoD, confirmed by the accreditation document, said that the students of EED II, upon the completion of their study, were able to: 1) master the theory and principles of English language learning; 2) design an English language learning system; 3) carry out English language learning; 4) utilize the information and communication technology to support English language learning; 5) develop teaching techniques and methods; 6) design and carry out assessment appropriately; 7) evaluate the English language learning process and 8) act reflectively in enhancing the quality of English language teaching

Teaching practice becomes an integral part of an attempt to develop the students' pedagogical competence in the department. Based on the accreditation document, there were two subjects relating to teaching practice, namely *Micro Teaching* for two credits in semester VI and *Teaching Practicum* for three credits in semester VII.

Related to personal competence, the graduates of EED II were expected to be able to: 1) develop a character of honesty and sound morality and to be role models for students and society and 2) act based on the social norm as well as professional, ethical and religious values. In terms of social competence, the graduates of the EED II were to be able to communicate effectively with students, other educators, parents and society.

The HoD explained that the graduates of EED II were also to be equipped with other competences. Armed with these competencies, according to her, the graduates were expected to be able to: 1) develop the ability to carry out research on English language learning by applying the proper research methods; 2) appreciate the literature work; and 3) develop the entrepreneurial mindset related to educational fields in general and English language learning in particular. As

she pointed out, the supporting competences could be achieved through some subjects involving *Research Methods, Statistics for Research, Proposal Seminar, Prose, Drama, Poetry and Service Program Design*.

When asked about the supporting competencies, the HoD explained that in addition to the core and supporting competences, two ‘other competencies’ could be enhanced by students, namely, the ability to teach English to children and the ability to teach Bahasa Indonesia to foreigners. One lecturer (L2B) said that the former could be achieved through the subject called *English for Young Learners* while the latter was developed through the subject called *Mass Media Communication*. When asked about jobs other than being teachers, however, the HoD mentioned subjects which were not included in the supporting and other competences. She explained, “With various subjects the department offers, the graduates can actually choose their career other than becoming teachers. For example, the subject of *Translation* allows students to become translators. I see that many graduates here have become translators. In addition, the subject called *Mass Media Communication* gives students the opportunity to become writers in newspapers”. In the FGD, the majority of students said that they aspired to become teachers and lecturers when they graduated from their department. However, few students said that they would choose a career outside the teaching professions such as working the multinational companies and the tourism industry as well as becoming language translators.

5.3.3 The Formulation of Graduate Competencies in EED III

While the graduates’ profiles or professions were not explicitly mentioned, the graduate competencies were clearly stated in the accreditation document. The core competencies included the pedagogical, personal, professional and social competences. With regard to pedagogical competence, it was stated that upon the completion of their study, the graduates of EED III were able to: 1) apply various learning approaches to develop students’ potential; 2) plan, design, carry out and evaluate English language learning effectively and efficiently and; 3) motivate students’ learning. The graduates’ personal competence consisted of the abilities to: 1) learn continuously to develop their professionalism; 2) demonstrate moral integrity and exemplify sound character; and 3) be committed, responsible, adaptive and innovative. In terms of professional competencies, the graduates were able to: 1) understand the English language system including phonology, grammar and discourse; 2) understand and apply the principles of

the teaching and learning process; 3) communicate in English fluently; 4) carry out classroom action research; 6) understand the relationship between language and culture and; 6) engender an ethos of continuing professional development. With respect to social competencies, the graduates were expected to be able to: 1) ascertain the diversity of the cultural background of their students; 2) communicate with colleagues and students effectively; 3) respect others' opinion; 4) collaborate with colleagues effectively; 5) explore ideas with colleagues. The supporting and other competencies were clearly stated in the accreditation document. The supporting competencies embraced graduates' abilities to: 1) develop materials for English for specific purposes and 2) conduct research in the area of English language teaching. In terms of other competencies, instead of listing some competencies to be achieved by students, the accreditation document outlined the elective courses including *English for Children, Linguistics, Business English, TEFL* and *Translation*.

When asked about the graduate profiles, the HoD and the two lecturers said that the department had formulated the graduate profiles. However, the HoD also acknowledged that the formulation was not yet perfect as the government had issued a new educational policy called Indonesian Quality Framework (IQF) in 2012. "So the formulation of graduate profiles still needs changing", he said. However, while the HoD indicated that they would pursue a teaching career, one student (S115C) was aware that the graduates could choose alternative professions:

I think based on the various subjects that we learn, we can also work beyond the teaching profession. For example, we learn 'Translation', so that we might become a translator. We also learn English for business, so that we can become an entrepreneur.

Another student (S63C) was also of the opinion that she could have a profession other than being a teacher. She expressed her view based on some subjects offered. "We have several subjects such as English for Children, Linguistics, and Business English. So I think I can pursue a career beyond the teaching profession". Similarly, pointing to a subject taught in the department, another student (S6C3) explained, "I study 'Translation', so normally, I can also choose to become a translator as my profession".

The HoD stated that a needs analysis to capture the market needs of the graduates had been done. However, he acknowledged that it was a small scale tracer study done by a small team of lecturers:

I administered an internet survey to a small number of school principals. Then we discussed the survey result in our workshop. The survey, for example, revealed that some of our graduates work outside their core competencies, even though most of them have become teachers. Well, we use the survey results to improve ourselves. But it is still a small survey, and still at the beginning stage.

The two lecturers were aware that the formulation of graduate profiles was based on market needs. They pointed to the increasing demand for teaching English to children. As a response to this need, according to them, the department included the subject *English for Children* in the curriculum structure. One lecturer (L1B) stated, “Other subjects which I think are based on market needs are *Translation* and *English for Business*. I think both subjects provide opportunity for those who are not interested in becoming teachers”. In addition to developing new subjects, according to another lecturer (L2B), the changing of the curriculum structure also pertains to adjusting the learning materials and contents of the subjects. She gave an example, “When I studied at the university, I did not learn public speaking and presentation in the speaking class. But now, students learn these two skills since they are important for teachers”.

Asked if the graduates of the department would be ready for jobs, the HoD, supported by the two lecturers and the majority of students in the FGD, believed the CBC implementation to be well suited to the teaching profession. While sharing her teaching experience, L1C said, “I suppose CBC can prepare students to be ready for their teaching profession. Regarding the curriculum structure, for instance, the subjects I teach cover significant skills for the teaching profession”. Similarly most of the students said that the teaching and learning process focused on the development of English and teaching skills.

5.3.4 The Formulation of Graduate Competencies in EED IV

While graduate profiles were not mentioned, the core competencies were clearly stated in the accreditation document, comprising the pedagogical, personal, professional and social competencies. With regard to the pedagogical competencies, upon the completion of their study, students are said to be able to design, carry out and evaluate English learning programs. In terms of the personal competencies, upon graduation, students are able to demonstrate ethical, mature and wise character attributes and able to become good models for their students and society. Regarding professional competencies, students are able to master English comprehensively and to use technology for their professional development. Upon the completion of their study,

students are also able to attain the national competencies standard. In terms of social competencies, students are able to communicate with colleagues, students and students' parents effectively.

The graduates are also said to be equipped with the supporting competencies. As stated in the accreditation documents, the supporting competences were included to support the graduates' core competencies. Subjects to develop the supporting competencies cover *Information Technology*, *Entrepreneurship* and other elective courses comprising *Children's Language Acquisition*, *Translation*, *Teaching Methodology*, *Program Development in English for Children* and *Practicum in English for Children*. Hence, the formulation of the supporting competencies implied that in addition to possessing the core competences to become teachers, the graduate could also have other career choices such as business persons, translators and interpreters. With regards to the 'other competencies', EED IV expected to produce graduates who were able to internalize and implement the principles of Tamansiswa, a philosophy proposed by the founder of the university, in the teaching profession.

When asked about the graduate profiles of the department, the HoD, supported by the two interviewed lecturers, stated that the graduates should be capable to use both oral and written English effectively, be competent in teaching and be proficient in doing research. Some students shared his view. For instance, one student (S75D) said, "In the orientation program for new students, a lecturer told us that we will be teachers when we graduate from this department". However, not all students had aspired to become teachers when they graduated. One student (S27D), for example, expressed her ambition to be a business person when she completed her study.

One student (S117D) thought that after she graduated she had a choice of careers such as translator, interpreter or hotel staff because there were some subjects to develop the professional skills in those areas. She described how she would be a translator because there was a *Translation* subject in the curriculum. Another student (S107D) added that the graduates from the department could become entrepreneurs since there was a subject called *Entrepreneurship* which equipped students with entrepreneurial skills. The HoD subscribed to the students' opinions. He said that the core graduate profiles were to become teachers. However, he conceded that skills beyond teaching could be mastered so that that the graduates would have alternatives to pursue other careers.

5.3.5 The Formulation of Graduate Competencies in EED V

According to the HoD who was supported by the two lecturers, the main career outcome of the graduates was to be teachers. One lecturer (L1E) explained, “This department is under the teacher education faculty, so that we want to train our students to be professional teachers”. Hence, according to him, a set of teachers’ competencies had been formulated including professional, pedagogical, personal and social competencies. In terms of professional competence, the HoD explained that the department wanted to produce graduates who were able to teach professionally. In order to be professional, as he pointed out, the graduates should understand the content knowledge to be taught and the English skills comprising speaking, writing, reading and listening. Related to the pedagogical competencies, the HoD said that the department wanted the graduates to possess the skills of how to teach English effectively. With respect to personal and social competencies, he expected that the graduates developed an ideal honest character and became role models for their students as well as being able to communicate effectively in a professional environment.

When asked about the ‘other competencies’, the HoD said that the graduates were expected to cultivate Islamic teaching and principles and implement them in their profession. He was also asked about the possibility of graduates pursuing careers outside the teaching professions and he stated that it was possible and, according to him,

We have to be realistic that English skills are applicable to many fields, not to mention those outside the teaching profession. Hence, to provide more career choices to our graduates, we also teach some courses to prepare them to be journalists, translators, or employees in the tourism field. But, these professions are not the core career as the core career is teacher. So it is why we include some subjects such as journalism and translation.

The HoD’s view was supported by the two lecturers and most of the students in the FGD. One student (S67E), for example, said that the graduates of the department could pursue careers beyond the teaching profession. Similarly, without relating it to the curriculum structure, another student (S53E) asserted, “I think our English skills are good, we can work in the teaching profession or outside it such as becoming translators or working as tourist guides “. However, a few students explained that the information about the breadth of the graduate profiles was never shared by the department and lecturers. One student (S65E) explained, “Commonly, we just know that we will become teachers after we graduate from this department”. Supporting her

statement, another student (S43E) explained that English teachers should develop three main competencies. First, she was of the opinion that English teachers should master the knowledge contents they would teach to their students. Second, as she pointed out, English teachers should know how to transfer the knowledge. In addition to these two competences, according to her, English teachers should be able to instill moral values in their students. “I think they are not only teachers, but educators, so they must be able to educate students to become good people”.

Concerned with the process of formulating the graduate profiles, as the HoD and the two lecturers pointed out, the needs analysis had been conducted to formulate them. They said that the department had conducted meetings with stakeholders including school principals, teachers and parents. The HoD explained, “In the meeting, we focus on listening to their needs and their comments concerning the English teaching and learning. We treat their comments as feedback to formulate our graduate profiles”.

Analysis of the Formulation of the Graduate Competencies in the five EEDs

In comparing the five EEDs, the data related to the graduate competencies revealed that all five EEDs had similarities and differences in their formulation of the graduate competencies. The five EEDs formulated their graduate competencies based on the four teacher competencies, namely professional, pedagogical, personal and social competencies. However, the number of sub-competencies stated in each teacher competence was slightly different among the five EEDS. In terms of pedagogical competence, for example, EED II had the most listed sub-competencies (seven competencies), surpassing other departments: EED III with three sub-competencies, EED IV and EED V with just one sub-competency, and EED I with no stated sub-competencies because both pedagogical and professional sub-competencies were listed under the heading of the core competencies. With regard to the professional competencies, EED III had the most sub-competencies (seven) compared to the other four EEDS. EED II listed four sub-competencies, while EED IV and V had one sub-competency.

The five EEDs also shared similarities in terms of the types of sub-competencies stated in both pedagogical competencies and professional competencies. Related to pedagogical competencies for instance, the key words of ‘ability to teach, evaluate, assess, to use learning approaches and techniques’ were common terms used by all EEDs. However, certain departments included

competencies which were not listed in other departments. For example, EED II included ICT competency as a part of graduates' professional and pedagogical competencies while other departments did not include this skill under professional and pedagogical competencies. The different number and types of listed sub-competencies suggest that there was no shared competency standard among the English departments.

All five EEDs had also adopted the supporting and other competencies for their graduate competencies. According to DGHE (2008), these two competencies are to give uniqueness, differentiating one department from another and provide alternative careers for the graduates. However, as explained in the guidelines provided by DGHE (2008), the graduates' competencies should be derived from the competencies needed by the society. Hence, a needs analysis should be conducted prior to the formulation of the graduate competencies. All HoDs confirmed that they had conducted a needs analysis by administering a survey and interviewing parents, school principals and teachers. Hence, some competencies such as teaching English for Children and entrepreneurship were shared among EEDs. However, several unique competencies were developed among the five EEDs. For example, while EED I listed ITC and entrepreneurial competences in the supporting competencies, EED II included teaching *English for Children* and teaching *Bahasa Indonesia* to foreigners. EED III focused on the development of research competency and the skills of teaching *English for Specific Purposes*. EED IV, on the other hand, listed more various supporting competencies in the field of ICT, entrepreneurship, teaching English for children and translation, while EED V included skills of teaching English for children, translation and English for tourism as the supporting competencies of their graduates.

The fact that EED II, IV and V included teaching *English for Children* as to whether their supporting competencies might raise a question as this subject in the primary school had been omitted by the government. At the same time the HoDs in the five EEDs said that the formulation of the graduate competencies was based on a needs analysis. The HoD of EED V was aware that the government's policy to omit English teaching in primary school should be considered by his department. However, he also acknowledged that the omission of the subject *English for Children* could not be done immediately since it should be discussed in the department meeting.

In the formulation of the graduate competencies for the CBC setting, EED I adhered to the guidelines provided by the DGHE. As stated in the CBC guidelines (DGHE, 2008), prior to the formulation of the graduate competencies, the departments should develop the graduate profiles first. In this case, EED I was the only department which explicitly stated the graduate profiles in its curriculum document. In terms of the thoroughness of its formulation, the most detailed core graduate competencies (pedagogical and professional competencies) were found in EED II and III. With regard to the pedagogical competence, EED II listed eight sub-competencies while EED III listed 3. On the contrary, in terms of professional competence, EED III included six competencies while EED II listed four competencies. This suggests that, given the different number of the sub-competencies listed in the graduate competencies, the departments had not a shared agreement and understanding on what sub-competencies should be developed in the four graduate competencies.

5.4 The Curriculum Structure in the Five Case Studies

As stated in the CBC guidelines prepared by the DGHE (2008), after the graduate profiles and competencies had been formulated, the subjects to achieve the graduate competencies were determined. The list of subjects is presented in the curriculum structure. As highlighted in the literature review, two approaches have been identified concerning the subject presentation in semesters, namely the sequential and parallel approaches (DGHE, 2008). In the former approach, which is usually applied in a content-based curriculum, the subjects in each semester are arranged sequentially depending on the complexity of the subject matter. Hence, the less complex subjects are taught in earlier semesters and the more complex ones are taught in later semesters. Subjects taught in the early semester are pre-requisites for the ones in the later semester.

In the latter parallel approach, which is recommended to be implemented in CBC by DGHE, subjects are not presented hierarchically in semesters but arranged based on needs of achieving the targeted competencies. The following sub-section describes the curriculum structure of the five case studies and presents how the subjects in the curriculum structure match with the development of the graduate competencies of each department. The tables of the curriculum

structure of the five case studies will be presented, followed by a description of the findings based on the interviews with the HoDs, lecturers, students and the document analysis.

5.4.1 Curriculum Structure of EED I

The curriculum structure of EED I is presented in Table 5.7 :

Table 5.7: Curriculum structure of EED I

Semester	Subjects	Credits	Core	Institutional
1	Listening and speaking for daily conversation	4	√	
	Listening and speaking for formal setting	4	√	
	Basic reading and writing	4	√	
	Academic reading and writing 1	4	√	
	Capita selecta on grammar 1	2	√	
	Computer literacy/off line computer	2	√	
	Practicum 1	1	√	
	AIK 1 (akidah/matters of faith)	2		√
	BTA (Baca Tulis Al Qur'an/Writing and Reading the Qur'an)	0		√
2	Listening and speaking for academic purposes	4	√	
	Listening and speaking for career development	4	√	
	Interpretive reading and argumentative writing	4	√	
	Reading and writing for career development	4	√	
	Capita selecta on grammar 2	2	√	
	Computer literacy (online computer)	2	√	
	Practicum 2	1	√	
	AIK 2 (Fiqih ibadah/Islamic Law on worships)	1		√
3	Principles of teaching and learning	4	√	
	Academic Reading and Writing 2	4	√	
	ICT in language teaching	4	√	
	Entrepreneurship	2	√	

	Capita selecta on grammar 3	2	√	
	AIK 3 (akhlak/Islamic virtues and morality)	2		√
	Practicum 3	1	√	
	Pancasila	2		√
4	Teaching English as a foreign language	4	√	
	Language assessment and evaluation	4	√	
	Innovative technology	2	√	
	Issues in language teaching and learning (education management)	4	√	
	Capita selecta on grammar 4	2	√	
	Practicum 4	1	√	
	AIK 4 (Kemuhammadiyah/ Muhammadiyah Organization and its principles)	2		√
	Kewarganegaraan (citizenship)	2		√
5	Curriculum design	4	√	
	Material design	4	√	
	Instructional design	4	√	
	Classroom management	4	√	
	Digital technology in education	2	√	
	Practicum 5	1	√	
	Language and education in Qur'an	2	√	
6	Practice teaching (PPL 2)	4	√	
	Education and teaching practices	4	√	
	Practicum 6	1	√	
	Translating (optional)	2	√	
	Business management (optional)	2	√	
	International language testing	4	√	
	Bahasa Indonesia	2		√
7	Research method	4	√	

	Language research	4	√	
	Academic presentation	4	√	
	Interpreting (optional)	2	√	
	Journalism (optional)	2	√	
8	KKN	4		√
	Thesis	6	√	
	Total number of credits	154	138	16

Source: Accreditation documents of EED I

It can be seen from the table that the curriculum structure of EED I had 154 credits, comprising 138 credits for the core subjects and 16 credits for the institutional subjects. According to the regulation of Education Minister No. 49/2014, students' workloads were stated in terms of semester credits in which one credit semester equaled to 160 minutes of learning activities per week in one semester. Each subject consists of at least one credit semester. One semester credit for lecturing or tutorial, for instance, can cover 50 minutes for face to face meeting per week in one semester, 50 minutes for assignment tasks per week in one semester and 60 minutes for independent study per week in one semester.

The regulation also stated that the normal students' workload was eight to nine hours per day or 48 hours (18 credits per semester) to 54 hours per week (20 credits per semester). Hence an undergraduate student needs four to five years to graduate from his or her study program. On the other hand, a student studying at the postgraduate program needs one and a half years to four years to complete his or her study in a master's program and three years to finish his or her doctorate program. Students from different levels of education have different credits to complete their study. As stated in the article 17 of the regulation of the Education Minister No. 49, students should complete at least 144 credits for bachelor or undergraduate program.

As the five EEDs are categorized as undergraduate programs, this regulation applies to them.

The interview with the HoD and the lecturers revealed that the list of subjects in the curriculum structure was based on the graduate profiles. The HoD said, "In determining the subjects we don't start from the subjects but we determine the profiles first and then the subject follows. The subjects consisting of some learning materials aim to meet the targeted competences in the

graduate profiles”. He further pointed out that the learning materials are flexible in that they can adapt to the needs in the society. Similarly one lecturer (L1A) said, “The curriculum structure opens up room for changing and adaptation. For example, we can take the learning materials and we can abolish them depending on the needs”. When asked about the EED’s experience in changing the curriculum structure, the HoD said,

We have changed the curriculum structure three times. The first change was when we were designing the proposal of the EED establishment. The second change was when we implemented the curriculum we found some weaknesses here and there, and then we changed it. And now in the second year of running the EED we will see what we should change in the curriculum structure.

Courses taught in EED I were believed by another lecturer (L2A) to be based on the competences needed by the graduates. She gave the example of the speaking subject. "In spoken English skills, the graduates will certainly use English for a variety of different situations. For example, sometimes they use English for daily communication. But sometimes they also use English to present their ideas in public ". She added, "The implication is that the names of the subjects follow the needs of the targeted competences, such as *Listening and Speaking for Daily Conversation* and *Listening and Speaking for a Formal Setting* ". She claimed that because the courses are based on the targeted competencies, they were not arranged with a sequential approach. She added, “The names of our courses are not *Speaking 1* and *Speaking 2*, so subjects at the beginning of the semester are not a requirement to take the subjects in the second semester”.

There seemed to be a relationship between the profiles of graduates with competencies formulation as described in the accreditation document. As the HoD pointed out, based on the SWOT and needs analysis, graduates of EED I had a chance of choosing a career as educators, language practitioners, or business persons in the field of language teaching, researchers or staff of a company or agency staff who used English as their language of communication. In addition, all of the five core competences covered professional and pedagogical skills to be developed by a teacher. Professional competence was developed through subjects that aimed to develop the English skills of students, taught in semesters one and two. There were 26 subjects developing the professional competence.

The HoD was convinced that the subjects in the curriculum structure could develop students' English skills. His conviction was supported by most of the students in the FGD. One student (S63A), for instance, stated that he made significant improvement in the speaking skill. He said that previously he did not dare to speak publicly, but because he often made presentations in several courses, he became confident to speak English. However, he also admitted that although he was able to increase his fluency in speaking, he still had weaknesses in accuracy. In terms of speaking, another student (S53A) said that she had made significant improvement in writing for she had to do a lot of writing. "In junior high school, I didn't have enough writing practice. Now I am expected to keep writing and learning. I hope that in the future, I will become a professional teacher". The HoD, supported by the two lecturers, explained that the subjects developing the pedagogical skills were taught in semesters 3, 4 and 5 such as *Principles of Teaching and Learning, Curriculum Design, and Instructional Design*.

As the HoD explained, the development of pedagogical skills was given very strong attention by the department with the presence of a practicum in six semesters and two teaching practices in semester seven and semester eight. According to one student (S11A), six practicums done in schools train them how to deal with students of secondary schools as early as possible. This was also felt by another student (S75A), saying that in having the opportunity to teach at an elementary school he could learn the characters and attitudes of pupils and learn how to handle them.

The HoD contended that the practicum programs encouraged students to conduct a thorough observation of the learning process at elementary schools and junior high schools. Supporting the HoD's view one lecturer (L1A) said,

Through the practicum that we carry out in six semesters, we encourage students to make deep observation. When our students make observation in the class, they will learn what happens when pupils learn; what teaching and learning principles the teachers use in the class; how teachers make lesson plans; how teachers interact with their students in the class.

L1A's statement was supported by a student (S7A) saying that when he did a practicum in a junior high school he could learn from teachers how they design a syllabus.

The HoD explained that to achieve the research competence as described in the core competencies, the subjects on research were taught in semesters seven and eight. In semester

seven students were taught *Research Methods* (four credits) and *Language Research* (four credits). In these two subjects, students learnt about research theories and started writing the research proposal. In semester seven students also learnt to present their research proposal in the subject *Academic Presentation*. The actual research writing was done in semester eight in the subject called *Skripsi* (thesis) containing six credits. In this subject students wrote a research study based on the proposal they had done in semester seven guided by one lecturer as their academic supervisor.

Based on the document of accreditation, two supporting competencies were related to professional expertise as a teacher and an entrepreneur, namely ability to use information technology effectively in language learning and ability to implement the principles of entrepreneurship effectively. The technological competencies in the language learning are achieved through five subjects in five semesters including *Computer Literacy*, *Online Computer Literacy*, *ICT in Language Teaching*, *Innovative Technology* and *Digital Technology in Education*.

The subject of *Entrepreneurship* was taught in semester three for two credits. At the beginning of semester six, students also took *Business Management* for two credits. The goal of *Entrepreneurship*, as stated in the lecturer's lesson plan, was to equip students with the entrepreneurial skills so that they would be able to run a business using entrepreneurial principles. Specifically, according to the HoD, there were two desired competences after students completed this subject; 1) students understood entrepreneurial principles and are able to design a business proposal; and 2) students were able to run a business project and students are able to analyze the business project.

The HoD believed that the *Entrepreneurship* would give competitive advantages to students. An interesting insight was expressed by one student (S5A) when asked how the entrepreneurship subject contributed to their future, "In this department we are not only prepared to become a teacher, but we are trained to be independent. For example, the *Entrepreneurship* teaches me how to run a business so that I will not rely on other people financially. Even if I can run a business I can provide jobs for other people". In addition to the contribution of the subject to prepare the graduates, the *Entrepreneurship* was also viewed by another student (S85A) as a medium to improve creativity. He said, "The *Entrepreneurship* encourages me to create a new

thing. For instance, when the lecturer asks me to make a business, I should try hard to think of what kind of business I have to run. So I must activate my right brain in order to be creative”.

Two 'other competencies' are included to cater for the skills and expertise to meet the graduate profiles. The first competence is concerned with the cultivation of Islamic values comprehensively within the profession and society. This competence is included since the department belongs to the university which is affiliated with the Islamic organization called Muhammadiyah. To meet this goal, the Islamic related subjects are taught in five semesters including *AIK 1 or Aqidah* (Islamic studies describing the beliefs of the Islamic faith), *AIK 2 or Fikih* (the theory or philosophy of Islamic law, based on the teachings of the Koran and the tradition of the prophet), *AIK 3 or Akhlak* (the practice of virtue, morality and manners in Islamic theology), *AIK 4 (Akhlak)* and *Language and Education in the Qur'an*.

The HoD said that the teaching of *akhlak* or Islamic morality was the most challenging. In his opinion, the teaching of *akhlak* through a stand-alone subject might be problematic, since according to him, the ultimate goal of *akhlak* was to enable students to behave in accordance with the principles of Islamic morality whereas the teaching of *akhlak* focused on the acquisition of knowledge about Islamic morality.

The second set of 'other competences' was the ability to implement the national values wisely in the professional environment and in the community. To achieve this competence, students study the subject called *Pancasila* for 2 credits in the third semester and *Citizenship* for 2 credits in semester 4. Hence there were seven subjects to develop the other competencies.

In the curriculum structure, as the HoD pointed out, three subjects were considered optional including *Translation*, *Interpreting* and *Journalism*. While these subjects would equip the graduates with competencies to work outside the teaching profession as outlined in the graduate profiles, they were not grouped in any of the graduate competencies.

Analysis of the EED I's curriculum structure

The first interesting finding of the curriculum structure of EED I was its parallel approach. Hence, it was adhering to the CBC guidelines provided by the DGHE (2008). As EED I adopted the parallel approach within its curriculum structure, the subjects in the earlier semesters were

not the prerequisites for the subjects in the later semesters. In the HoD's words, the subjects were 'flexible', suggesting that their names followed the needs of the graduates in the world of work.

In addition to its parallel approach, the subjects listed in the curriculum structure, as outlined by the HoD, developed the four teacher's competencies including professional, pedagogical, personal and social competencies. Most of the students in the FGD supported the HoDs and said that they had made progress in acquiring English speaking and writing skills. The development of pedagogical competence was also given a sustained attention with the inclusion of the six teaching practicums in the curriculum structure. Few students shared their positive experiences that the practicums had helped them to improve their English and teaching skills. However, most of the students in the FGD said that the real teaching experience was when they practiced teaching in the eighth semester.

The curriculum structure also contained subjects to develop 'supporting' competencies, namely information and communication technology (ICT) -based subjects and *Entrepreneurship*, hence corresponding to the statement of the department's graduate competencies. Furthermore, EED I had included five ICT based subjects in its curriculum structure. "Other competencies" stated in the graduate competencies, according to HoD, were achieved through Islamic-based subjects.

Despite strengths in terms of its curriculum structure, EED I also had several weaknesses. First, the total semester credits were 154. This means that its total credits surpassed the maximum number of credits proposed in the National Standard for Higher Education/NSHE (2014). The maximum total of credits for completing the bachelor degree, according to the NSHE (2014) was to be 144 credits. This equates with 18 up to 20 credits per semester. With 154 total credits on its curriculum structure, this meant that students in EED I had a work overload issue. The interview with students confirmed that they felt overloaded with the assignments and they said they did not have ample time to do their assignments to the highest standard. Another shortcoming of the curriculum structure of EED I was that some subjects did not correspond with the statement of the graduate competencies, especially in terms of 'other' and 'supporting competencies'. In fact, the supporting competencies of the graduates of EED I were to use ICT in the teaching and learning process and to acquire entrepreneurial skills for running a business. The other competencies were to enable the graduates to implement Islamic values in their professional environment. However, there were three subjects which were not relevant, namely *Translation*,

Interpreting and *Journalism* as they did not correspond with the formulated graduate competencies. Finally, the last shortcoming of the curriculum structure of EED I was that it was not accompanied by any document showing the distribution of four teacher competencies in the listed subjects. Hence, the curriculum structure did not clearly inform which subjects develop which teaching competencies. In fact, in the CBC guidelines provided by the DGHE (2008), the curriculum structure should be accompanied by the distribution of the competencies in the listed subjects in order to show what subjects develop what competencies.

5.4.2 Curriculum Structure of EED II

The curriculum structure of EED II is presented in the following table:

Table 5.8: Curriculum structure of EED II

Semester	Subjects	Credits	Core	Institutional
1	Religious study	2		√
	Pancasila education	2		√
	Introduction to education	2	√	
	Basic listening	2	√	
	Speaking 1	2	√	
	Basic reading 1	2	√	
	Basic writing	2	√	
	Structure 1	3	√	
	Pronunciation practice 1	2	√	
	Book report	2	√	
2	Moral theology	2		√
	Psychology of teenagers	2	√	
	Intermediate listening	2	√	
	Speaking 2	2	√	
	Basic reading 2	2	√	
	Paragraph writing	2	√	

	Structure 2	3	√	
	Pronunciation practice 2	2	√	
	Bahasa Indonesia	2	√	
	Introduction to English literature	2	√	
	Vocabulary	2	√	
	Asian language	2	√	
3	Citizenship education	2		√
	Learning psychology	2	√	
	Critical listening and speaking 1	4	√	
	Critical reading and writing 1	4	√	
	Structure 3	3	√	
	Prose	3	√	
	Introduction to linguistics	2	√	
	Cross cultural understanding	2	√	
	Textual pronunciation	2	√	
	Creative writing	2	√	
4	Introduction to Guidance and Counseling	2		√
	Critical listening and speaking 2	4	√	
	Critical reading and writing 2	4	√	
	Structure IV	3	√	
	Drama	2	√	
	Phonetics and Phonology	2	√	
	Approach, methods and techniques	3	√	
	Business writing	2	√	
	Second language acquisition	2	√	
	Movie interpretation	2	√	
5	School management	2	√	

	Public speaking	2	√	
	Academic essay writing	2	√	
	Morpho-syntax	2	√	
	Language teaching media	3	√	
	Language learning assessment	2	√	
	Learning program design	3	√	
	Textual structure	2	√	
	Pengantar pembelajaran BIPA (Introduction of Biology and Science)	2	√	
	Philosophy of knowledge	2		√
	Poetry	2	√	
	Play performance	3	√	
	Sociolinguistics	2	√	
	Translation	2	√	
6	Statistics for research	2	√	
	Research methods	3	√	
	Micro teaching	2	√	
	Computer assisted language learning	3	√	
	English for young learners	3	√	
	Introduction to literature criticism	3	√	
	Community program	3	√	
	Interpreting	2	√	
	Proposal seminar	3	√	
	Service program design	3	√	
7	Teaching practice	3	√	
	Mass media communication	3	√	
	English for specific purposes	2	√	
	Introduction to movie making	3	√	

8	Thesis	4	√	
	Final paper	2	√	
	Semantics-Pragmatics	2	√	
	Advanced translation	2	√	
	Advanced interpreting	2	√	
	Total number of credits	181	169	12

Source: Accreditation documents of EED II

It can be seen from Table 5.8 that the curriculum structure of EED II consisted of 169 credits of core subjects and 12 credits of institutional subjects mandated by the university. There were two optional subjects, namely *English for Young Learners* in semester five (three credits) and *Mass Media Communication* in semester seven (three credits). The curriculum structure showed that the subjects were arranged sequentially from the less complicated subjects in the earlier semesters to the more complicated ones in the later semesters. For example, in the first semester students normally studied *Speaking 1*, *Basic Reading 1*, *Structure 1*, and *Pronunciation Practice 1* while in the second semester, students would study the continuation of these subjects, namely *Speaking 2*, *Basic Reading 2*, *Structure 2* and *Pronunciation Practice 2*. Especially for *Structure 2*, the subject was continued in the third semester (*Structure 3*) and fourth semester (*Structure 4*).

When asked to comment on the curriculum structure, the HoD acknowledged that the department had to undergo tough discussions to decide on lists of subjects to be taught in the curriculum structure. The two lecturers also said that the curriculum structure still contained many individual subjects to be taught. One lecturer (L2B) explained, “There are many subjects to be taught. The difficulty is that sometimes students find it hard to relate one subject to another so that it is a kind of separating those subjects. For example, they learn English structure separately with writing”.

Another concern raised by the HoD was that the great number of subjects had significantly burdened the students. However, she acknowledged that the integration of some subjects created a new problem. She said:

It’s a kind of dilemma you know. If we separate Grammar or structure into individual subjects, there will, indeed, be many subjects which burden the students. Moreover, students will also be bored learning about theories of grammar. In fact, a positive thing of teaching a lot of subjects is

that students will acquire a great deal of knowledge. However, the quantity of subjects is not deemed as being important by our Jesuit organization. It advises that the important thing is the depth of knowledge, not the quantity.

The HoD further explained that efforts to combine some subjects into one subject had been done by the department even though she also mentioned its disadvantages. She explained:

We have tried to integrate ‘Reading’ and ‘Writing’ into one subject. The idea is because we want students to be able to write after reading. In the process, it turned out the writing became dominant so that it was not balanced. Furthermore, this decision to combine these two subjects has made lecturers teaching this subject deal with more scoring techniques”

One lecturer (L1B) stated that the department had the intention to combine some related subjects into one subject. She contended:

We are trying now to see the possibility to combine some related subjects into one subject. For example, now we still teach some subjects separately such as *Approach, Technique and Method; Assessment, Instructional Design and Curriculum Development*. We plan to make a workshop to discuss this with lecturers. In fact, I see that the risk of combining some subjects into one subject will be the great number of credits of one subject. If a student fails in one subject, this will ruin the total grade point average of students.

The HoD, supported by the two lecturers, explained that the list of the subjects taught in the curriculum structure had reflected four teacher competencies involving personal, social, professional and pedagogical competences as well as the supporting and other competences. Their opinions were supported by the accreditation document which clearly showed the distributions of the four core competences as well as supporting and other competences in each subject as illustrated by the following table:

Table 5.9: Distribution of competencies in EED II based on the teachers’ competencies

	Subjects	Core competencies				Supporting Competences	Other Competences
		Professional	Pedagogical	Personal	Social		
1	Religious study			√	√		
2	Pancasila Education			√	√		
3	Introduction to education		√				
4	Basic Listening	√					

5	Speaking 1	√			√		
6	Basic Reading 1	√					
7	Basic Writing	√					
8	Structure 1 (3)	√					
9	Pronunciation practice 1	√					
10	Book report					√	
11	Moral theology			√			
12	Psychology of teenagers		√		√		
13	Intermediate listening	√					
14	Speaking 2	√					
15	Basic Reading 2	√					
16	Paragraph Writing	√					
17	Structure 2 (3)	√					
18	Pronunciation Practice 2	√					
19	Bahasa Indonesia					√	
20	Introduction to English Literature					√	
21	Vocabulary	√					
22	Asian Language						√
23	Citizenship Education			√			
24	Learning Psychology		√				
25	Critical listening and Speaking 1 (4)	√					
26	Critical Reading and Writing 1 (4)	√					
27	Structure 3 (3)	√					
28	Prose (3)					√	
29	Introduction to linguistics	√					
30	Cross Cultural Understanding					√	
31	Textual Pronunciation						√
32	Creative Writing						√
33	Dasar-dasar Bimbingan dan Konseling		√				

34	Critical Listening and Speaking 2	√					
35	Critical Reading and Writing 2	√					
36	Structure IV (3)	√					
37	Drama					√	
38	Phonetics and Phonology	√					
39	Approaches, Methods and Techniques (3)		√				
40	Business writing						√
41	Second Language Acquisition						√
42	Movie interpretation						√
43	School management		√				
44	Public Speaking	√					
45	Academic Essay Writing	√					
46	Morpho-Syntax	√					
47	Language Teaching Media (3)		√				
48	Language Learning Assessment		√				
49	Learning Program Design(3)		√				
50	Textual Structure						√
51	Pengantar pembelajaran BIPA						√
52	Philosophy of Knowledge					√	
53	Poetry					√	
54	Play performance (3)					√	
55	Sociolinguistics	√					
56	Translation					√	
57	Statistics for research					√	
58	Research methods (3)					√	
59	Micro Teaching	√	√				
60	Computer Assisted Language Learning (3)						√
61	English for Young Learners (3)						√
62	Introduction to Literature Criticism (3)					√	√

63	Community Service (3)					√	
64	Interpreting					√	
65	Proposal Seminar (3)					√	
66	Service Program Design (3)					√	
67	Teaching Practice (3)	√	√	√	√		
68	Mass Media Communication (3)						√
69	English for Specific Purposes						√
70	Introduction to movie making (3)						√
71	Thesis (4)					√	
72	Final Paper					√	
73	Semantic Pragmatic						√
74	Advanced Translation						√
75	Advanced Interpreting						√
	Total number of Credits	66	26	7	11	29	17

Source: Accreditation documents of EED II

Table 5.9 shows the distribution of the core, supporting and other competences in the subjects listed in the curriculum structure of EED II. It is clearly shown in the table that the core competencies including professional, pedagogical and personal competencies; supporting competencies and other competencies are covered in the curriculum structure. The professional competence is covered by 27 subjects, pedagogical competence by 11 subjects, personal competence by five subjects and social competence by five subjects. From the comparison of the number of subjects covering the four teachers' competences, it becomes obvious that the subjects for developing professional competence are dominant, with 27 subjects. In addition to subjects enhancing professional and pedagogical competence, 18 subjects develop supporting competencies while 17 subjects enhance other competences. Six subjects, however, develop more than one competence, namely *Religious Study*, *Pancasila Education*, *Speaking 1*, *Psychology of Teenagers* and *Micro Teaching*.

Responding to the question of whether all teacher competencies had been developed through subjects taught in the department, the HoD commented,

Personally, until this fifth semester, the subjects have directed students how to become teachers who have professional, pedagogical, personal and social skills. However, it really depends on me whether they will further develop these competences. In fact I can say that the ways lecturers teach students here have encouraged them to achieve teaching competences.

Asked about the development of pedagogical competence, the HoD and the two lecturers said that the department gave emphasis to this competence. Their views were confirmed by most of the students in the FGD. One student (S11B), while comparing her department to other English departments in other universities, said that the development of pedagogical competence is highly valued and nurtured. She further explained,

From the earlier semester, we are taught subjects related to pedagogy such as Introduction to Education. In this subject I learned various thought in the field of Philosophy of Education from renowned scholars. We also learn many theories of education, teaching methods and teaching and learning process in the subject, Approaches, Methods and Techniques.

The HoD, supported by the two lecturers and the majority of students in the FGD, expressed the view that lecturers not only developed students' knowledge but also enhanced personal competence. Several students termed 'personal competence' as 'teachers' character'. As an illustration, one student (S11B) explained,

In this department students not only get knowledge, but also develop character. For example, we are taught to wear clothes, to talk and to behave like teachers. You know a good teacher should be polite. I think this department really equips us with teachers' characters.

As pointed out by the HoD and lecturers, the formation of students' good character was also attained through the teaching of *Pancasila*. According to them, the teaching of *Pancasila* encouraged students to develop good teachers and citizens. The HoD, however, acknowledged that the values of *Pancasila* were still taught as a stand-alone subject, hence focusing on the memorization and rote learning.

An interesting feature of the curriculum structure was concerned with the number of subjects developing the supporting and 'other' competences. In fact, 18 subjects were designed to develop supporting competencies while 17 subjects enhanced other competences, outnumbering the 11 subjects for developing pedagogical competence. When asked about the rationale to provide many supporting competencies and other competences to students, the HoD responded, "I think in terms of professional competence, every English department has a similar formulation. They focus on the linguistic competence of their graduates. What makes my English department different is that we still teach some subjects on literature. This is because we find it

difficult to encourage students to read. So we force them to read through subjects”. In fact, the subject list confirmed that four subjects related to literature were included in the supporting competencies namely, *Prose* in the third semester, *Drama* in the fourth semester, *Poetry* in the sixth semester and *Introduction to Literature Criticism* in the sixth semester. Giving an insight regarding the supporting and other competences, most of the students in the FGD considered that various subjects developing supporting and other competences could offer students more job options after they graduated. One student (S10B) explained,

I think we have three focuses in this department, namely education, linguistics and literature. If a student, for example, is not interested in the educational field, she can develop her skill in literature. If she is good at that field, she becomes a book writer, a drama actor. We also learn translation so that we can be translators. If we are interested in linguistics we can be linguists or lecturers teaching linguistics

Analysis of the EED II's curriculum structure

In its curriculum document, EED II provided a clear table illustrating the distribution of competencies of all subjects. It shows the link between the statement of the graduate competencies and the subjects listed in the curriculum structure. What subjects developed which competency was illustrated clearly in Table 5.9. This suggested that all subjects in the curriculum structure led to the development of the four teaching competencies including professional, pedagogical, social and personal competencies. The HoD and the two lecturers were convinced that the subjects were able to develop the knowledge and skills of the students and allowed them to acquire teaching competencies.

However, EED II also had some weaknesses in terms of its curriculum structure. First, the total number of credits of this department was 181, far surpassing the maximum number suggested in the NSHE (144 credits). This means, as acknowledged by the HoD, lecturers and the majority of students in the FGD, that students had significant burdens in their study. The heavy credit load was caused by the adoption of many single subjects in the curriculum structure although the HoD and the two lecturers said that efforts had been made to combine some subjects into one subject.

Seen from the curriculum perspective, EED II had adopted the sequential approach which presented another flaw since such an approach results in many single subjects within the curriculum structure. The sequential approach used by EED II did not adhere to the CBC guidelines provided by DGHE (2008). Next, despite the provision of the competencies

distribution of the subjects in the curriculum structure, the number of subjects developing all four teacher competencies was not well proportioned. For instance, the subjects developing the ‘supporting competencies’ contained 29 credits, thus surpassing the credits for subjects developing pedagogical competencies (26 credits) considered as the core teacher competencies.

The heavy credits load was also due to the presence of four literature based-subjects including *Prose, Drama, Poetry* and *Introduction to Literature Criticism*. While the HoD felt that such subjects encouraged students to read extensively, their relevance to the CBC was questioned. The CBC, as its name suggested, was interested in equipping students with the skills and competencies which were useful in the world of work. As Marsh (2009) pointed out, CBC is a vocationally oriented curriculum which is aimed at achieving the competency standards for occupations.

5.4.3 Curriculum Structure of EED III

The curriculum structure of EED III is presented in the following table:

Table 5.10: Curriculum structure of EED III

Semester	Subjects	Credit points	Core	Institutional
1	Religious education: Islam, Catholic, Christian, Hindu, Buddhism, Konghucu	3		√
	Bahasa Indonesia	2		√
	Basic Natural Science	2		√
	Education science	2		√
	Listening 1	2	√	
	Speaking 1	2	√	
	Reading 1	2	√	
	Pronunciation	2	√	
	Writing 1	2	√	
	Structure 1	2	√	
	Total number of credit points	21		
2	Pancasila Education	2		√

	Global Perspective	2		√
	Education Psychology	2		√
	Learners Development	2		√
	Culture Appreciation	2		√
	Art Appreciation	2		√
	Listening 2	2	√	
	Speaking 2	2	√	
	Reading 2	2	√	
	Writing 2	2	√	
	Structure 2	2	√	
	Total number of credit points	22		
3	Citizenship Education	2		√
	Social-Anthropology of Education	2		√
	Education management	2		√
	Listening 3	2	√	
	Speaking 3	2	√	
	Reading 3	2	√	
	Writing 3	2	√	
	Structure 3	2	√	
	Lexico-Grammar	2	√	
	Introduction to linguistics	2	√	
	Phonetics and phonology	2	√	
Total number of credit points	22			
4	Listening IV	2	√	
	Speaking IV	2	√	
	Reading IV	2	√	
	Writing IV	2	√	
	Semantics	2	√	

	Structure IV	2	√	
	Introduction to English Literature	2	√	
	Translation	2	√	
	Cross-cultural understanding	2	√	
	TEFL Methodology	4	√	
	Total Number of Credit points	22		
5	Entrepreneurship	2		√
	Psycholinguistics	2	√	
	Sociolinguistics	2	√	
	School Curriculum Development	2	√	
	Pragmatics	2	√	
	Educational Research	2	√	
	Literary Appreciation	2	√	
	Introduction to English for Children	2	√	
	English Instructional Technology	4	√	
	Total number of credit point	20		
6	Materials Development	2	√	
	English for Specific Purposes	2	√	
	Language Assessment	2	√	
	Discourse Analysis	2	√	
	Applied Linguistics	2	√	
	Language Teaching-Learning Research	2	√	
	Introduction to Business English	2	√	
	Micro Teaching	2	√	
	ELECTIVE COURSES OF STAGE 1			
	Children Language Acquisition (Elective course 1)	2	√	
	Discourse of Business (Elective course 2)	2	√	
	Introduction to Translation Studies (Elective course	2	√	

	3)			
	Translation Research Methodology (Elective Course 3)	2	√	
	Advanced Linguistics (Elective Course 4)	4	√	
	TEFL Analysis (Elective course 5)	4	√	
	Total number of credit points	20		
7	Community Service	3		√
	Teaching Practice	3	√	
	Statistics	2	√	
	ELECTIVE COURSES OF STAGE 2		√	
	Children Language Teaching Method	2	√	
	Program Development of English for Children (elective course 1)	2	√	
	Interpreting on Business Communication (elective course 2)	4	√	
	Translating-Interpreting Analysis (elective course 3)	2	√	
	Theory and Practice Research (elective course 4)	2	√	
	TEFL Research Methodology (elective course 5)	2	√	
	Total number of credit points	12		
	Elective courses of stage 3			
	Practicum of English for Children (elective course 2)	4	√	
	Job Training of Business (elective course 2)	4	√	
	Translating practicum (elective course 3)	2	√	
	Interpreting practicum (elective course 3)	2	√	
	Practicum of Advanced Linguistics (elective course 4)	4	√	
	Practicum of TEFL (elective course 5)	4	√	
	Thesis writing	6	√	
	Total number of credits	149	103	46

Source: Accreditation documents of EED III

As outlined in the accreditation document, the curriculum structure consisted of 149 credits containing 103 credits of core subjects and 46 credits of institutional subjects. It can be seen from Table 5.5 that the sequential approach was adopted in the curriculum structure in which the subjects were arranged hierarchically in terms of their complexity. For instance, such subjects as *Listening 1*, *Reading 1*, *Writing 1* and *Structure 1* are taught in semester one. The gradual difficulty of these subjects is discernible, reflected in the sequential numbers following the subjects. Hence, upon the completion of *Listening 1*, students passed on to *Listening 2*, *Listening 3* and *Listening 4*, and this sequential approach also applied to *Reading and Writing*. The sequential approach in the curriculum structure resulted in many individual subjects taught (85 subjects), and the integration of some subjects into one subject was not apparent.

The distribution of the four teacher competencies, namely professional, pedagogical, personal and social competencies, was not evident in the accreditation document. However, as the HoD pointed out, the curriculum structure consisted of more subjects which developed professional competence such as speaking, reading, writing, and listening and the English language system such as phonology, grammar and discourse. He further explained there were only five subjects to develop the required pedagogical competence. According to him, these five subjects tended to have the key word 'education' in their name including *Education Science*, *Socio-Anthropology of Education*, *Education Management*, *Education Psychology* and *the Learners Development* with a total of 10 credit points.

The HoD and the two lecturers had a strong belief that the subjects in the curriculum structure had covered the development of students' competencies. Their conviction was supported by the majority of students in the FGD. As an illustration, one student (S73C) explained that during her studying in the department she had gained an improved confidence both in her hard and soft skills. In terms of hard skills, she said that she had improved her productive skills such as speaking and writing in English. In addition to the improvement in the productive skills, she also said that some subjects directed her how to be a good teacher.

Based on the description of the subjects mentioned in the curriculum document, four subjects seemed to be directed to the development of social competence. The subjects were *Culture*

Appreciation, Art Appreciation, Cross Cultural Understanding and Community Service. As mentioned in the curriculum document, those subjects aimed to enable students to understand and appreciate art and culture and respect differences in people's ways of life. The aims of these subjects might be in accordance with one of the social competencies mentioned in the graduate competencies. The development of personal competence, according to the HoD and the two lecturers, was accommodated in subjects such as *Religion, Pancasila Education and Citizenship Education*. These subjects, according to him, were taught as stand-alone subjects.

The HoD, supported by the two lecturers, was confident that the subjects in the curriculum structure had catered for the development of teachers' pedagogical, professional, personal and social competencies. The HoD explained, "To develop students' pedagogical and professional competence, we have 'ELT' (English Language Teaching)". However, in terms of their social and personal skills, he questioned whether these competences can be integrated, not in the curriculum structure, but embodied in the teaching and learning process. He gave an example, "When I teach 'Speaking' I encourage students to think of how to communicate effectively and politely. I think this is a kind of character. I also keep telling them that they have to be teachers who can be accepted and respected by the society where they live". He concluded, "I cannot say that the 100 per cent of the subjects in the curriculum structure have accommodated the development of all teachers' competencies. But I dare say 75 % of them have".

That the department considered the application of skills as being important was evident in the inclusion of some practicums for its students. As mentioned in the accreditation document, and the information shared by the HoD and the two lecturers, students were to follow six practicums, including the *TEFL (Teaching English as a Foreign Language)* practicum, *Community Service and Teaching Practice* for two months, *Micro Teaching* for one semester, *EFC (English for Children)* practicum for one semester, *Job Training* for two months, and a *Sociolinguistics Practicum*. Most of the students in the FGD considered that the practicums were very beneficial in applying the knowledge they gained in the teaching and learning process. One student (S85C), for instance, explained how she faced the challenges in actualizing what she had learned in the class in the real working situations. Most of the students, however, said that the real teaching practices were done only in one semester. In this practicum, they were sent to teach students of senior and junior high schools.

The HoD and the two lecturers gave an insight about the importance of *Microteaching*. According to them, *Microteaching* was instrumental for students in acquiring teaching skills. Prior to the teaching practicum in a school, according to them, students' abilities to plan, conduct and evaluate the teaching process were prepared and developed in the *Microteaching*. The majority of the students in the FGD supported their views. One student (S67C), for example, said that the *Microteaching* which was done in semester six had prepared them to teach in schools and they had developed teaching skills. "We should teach our language knowledge such as grammar, speaking, reading, writing and listening to students. In addition, we practice how to interact properly with students". He pointed out how this subject contributed to his ability to manage the class and communicate with students when she practiced teaching in junior high school.

The 'supporting' and 'other competencies', according to the HoD, were developed through elective subjects. As explained in the graduate competencies, the 'other competencies' included the ability to teach children, run a business, work in areas where English skills are used and to conduct advanced research. As the HoD and the two lecturers pointed out, students were allowed to take one subject depending on their interest in the areas of skills they wanted to develop. The five elective subjects included *English for Children*, *Business English*, *Translation*, *Linguistics* and *TEFL (Teaching English as a Foreign Language)*. It was interesting to note that even though *Business English*, *English for Children*, *Translation*, *Research*, and *Linguistics* were subjects to develop the other competencies taught in the sixth, seventh, and eight semesters, all these subjects were also taught as the core competencies in the earlier semesters. The HoD said the curriculum structure was dynamic and would always change.

In developing the curriculum, the HoD said that all lecturers were involved, but not other stake holders such as students, students' parents and schools. He said that the basis for developing the curriculum was the current knowledge of English teaching and learning. He was also of the opinion that it was better to prepare students to be lifelong learners rather than adjusting the curriculum to the 'market'. He stated, "The market always keeps changing. The curriculum might not meet the market demand if we always adjust the curriculum".

Differing from the HoD's opinion, one lecturer (LIC) stated that the teachers' competencies needed by the market were clear and she considered that the subjects taught in the department

were appropriate in developing teachers' competencies. However, she stressed that certain subjects developed certain competencies. She described, "The subject of *Teaching Methodology* might develop both students' professional and pedagogical competence". L1C's opinion was agreed with by one student (S43C), saying that some subjects had been directed toward helping students to become good teachers. He pointed to some subjects such as *Education Science* and *Educational Sociology and Anthropology*. According to a few students, however, there were no subjects which highlighted the current issue of teaching and education in the national context. One student (S115C), for instance, pointed out an example of how she had not been informed about the teacher certification issue during her study. She said that that was lamentable because teacher certification was a significant issue for teachers.

Highlighting the development of the teachers' four competencies, the HoD, supported by the two lecturers, said that the students' pedagogical competence was better than other competencies. One lecturer (L2C) said "I observed this when they did teaching practice at schools. I could see that their teaching ability was very good. They could engage with students well and could use their interpersonal skills to deal with students. However, I could also find out that they still make mistakes in using English grammar. So I think this needs to be improved".

Analysis of the EED III's curriculum structure

The first strong point of the curriculum structure was a strong link between the subjects listed in the curriculum structure and the graduate competencies. As the HoD and the two lecturers pointed out, the subjects in the curriculum structure had covered skills and competencies necessary for graduates to work as English teachers which were stated in the graduate competencies. Furthermore, there was a clear statement in the curriculum document that for developing 'supporting' and 'other' competencies, students could take elective subjects including *English for Children*, *Business English*, *Translation*, *Linguistics* and *TEFL*. Another strong point was that the curriculum structure accommodated ample opportunity for students to sharpen their pedagogical skills through six practicums. Two important parts of the practicums were the *Micro Teaching* class which was believed by the HoD, the two lecturers and the majority of students in the FGD as an opportunity to develop students' teaching knowledge and skills and the teaching practices in schools where students could practice their teaching skills in a real situation.

Despite several positive aspects, EED III also had several weak points in its curriculum structure. The first shortcoming was the total number of credits (149) which surpassed the ideal number of credits as proposed by the NSHE (144 credits) although the number of credits in EED III's curriculum structure had approached the recommended number. This meant that the students of EED III did not have as great a workload as students in the other four EEDs. Next, the format of the curriculum structure of EED III still adopted the sequential approach where subjects were listed sequentially from the easier subjects in the earlier semesters to the more difficult subjects in the latter semesters. The subjects in the earlier semesters were the requirements for the subjects in the latter semesters. The approach of the curriculum structure taken by EED III was, therefore, not in line with the format suggested by the DGHE (2008).

5.4.4 Curriculum Structure of EED IV

The curriculum structure of EED IV is presented in the following table:

Table 5.11: Curriculum structure of EED IV

Semester	Subjects	Credits	Core	Institutional
1				
	Religious study: Islam, Christian, Catholic; Hindu, Budha	2		√
	Ketamansiswaan 1 (The Philosophy proposed by the founder of the university)	2		√
	Introduction to Education	2		√
	Listening 1	2	√	
	Speaking 1	2	√	
	Pronunciation	2	√	
	Reading 1	2	√	
	Writing 1	2	√	
	Pattern practice	2	√	
	Structure 1	2	√	
	SAC work	1	√	
2				
	Pancasila Education	2		√

	Ketamansiswaan 2	2	√	√
	Learners Development	2		√
	Language Learning Strategy	2	√	
	Listening 2	2	√	
	Speaking 2	2	√	
	Reading 2	2	√	
	Writing 2	2	√	
	Structure 2	4	√	
	Bahasa Indonesia	2		√
3				
	Civic Education	2		√
	Education Profession	2		√
	Listening 3	2	√	
	Speaking 3	2	√	
	Reading 3	2	√	
	Vocabulary	2	√	
	Writing 3	2	√	
	Structure 3	4	√	
4				
	Listening 4	2	√	
	Speaking 4	2	√	
	Reading 4	2	√	
	Writing 4	2	√	
	Structure 4	2	√	
	Introduction to literature	2	√	
	Translating and interpreting	2	√	
	Curriculum and material development	2	√	
	Language Teaching Method	2	√	
5				

	TOEFL Preparation	2	√	
	Speaking 5	2	√	
	Extensive Reading	2	√	
	Introduction to Linguistics	2	√	
	Introduction to English for Children	2	√	
	Literary Appreciation	2	√	
	Introduction to Teaching English for Specific Purposes	2	√	
	Teaching English as Foreign Language	2	√	
	Instructional Technology	2	√	
	Children Language Acquisition *	2	√	
	Principles of Translating and Interpreting **	2	√	
6				
	English Phonetics and Phonology	2	√	
	Syntax and Semantics	2	√	
	Sociolinguistics	2	√	
	Cross Cultural Understanding	2	√	
	Classroom Research	2	√	
	Language Testing	2	√	
	Micro Teaching 1	2		√
	Information and Communication Technology	2		√
	Teaching Methods in English for Children *	2	√	
	Program Development in English for Children *	2	√	
	Translating Text Analysis *	2	√	
7				
	Teaching Practicum 2	3		√
	Psycholinguistics	2	√	
	Research in Education	2	√	
	Statistics	2	√	
	Entrepreneurship	2		√

	Practicum for English for Children *	2	√	
	Practicum in Translating and Interpreting (English-Indonesian) *	2	√	
	Practicum in Translating and interpreting (Indonesian-English) *	2	√	
8				
	Seminar on Linguistics	2	√	
	Seminar on ELT	2	√	
	Seminar in Literature	2	√	
	Community Service	4		√
	Thesis Writing	6	√	
	Total of credits	148	121	27

Source: Accreditation documents of EED IV

As shown in Table 5.11, the curriculum structure consisted of 148 credit points, including the 121 credits of the core subjects to develop the students' teaching competencies and 27 credits for the institutional subjects mandated by the university. As shown in the above table, the curriculum structure was sequential in which the subjects were arranged according to the level of difficulty of the subjects. The rationale behind the adoption of the serial approach was explained by the HoD. According to him, to ease the teaching and learning process, students should begin with the easier subjects in the earlier semesters prior to learning more complex subjects in the later semesters. He further explained, "For example, at the beginning of the semester, students should be introduced to *Introduction to Linguistics*'. In the later semester students will learn the more complex type of linguistics field such as psycholinguistics and sociolinguistics". Similar to the HoD's opinion, one lecturer (L1D) contended that the sequential approach of the curriculum structure offered some advantages. First, according to him, it would permit students to develop a strong foundation for their understanding. He mentioned an example of how students should learn *Writing 1* first to write sentences correctly prior to composing paragraphs. Second, as he said, the sequential approach of the curriculum structure would be supportive in creating an enjoyable experience for students.

As stated in the accreditation document, the curriculum structure also included the elements of the competencies comprising MPK (*Mata Kuliah Pengembangan Kepribadian* or subjects to

develop character which equates with personal competence), MKK (*Mata Kuliah Keterampilan dan Keilmuan* or subjects to develop skills and theoretical knowledge which equates with professional competence), MKB (*Mata Kuliah Keahlian Berkarya* or subjects to develop professional skills which equates with pedagogical skills), MPB (*Mata Kuliah Perilaku Berkarya* or subjects to develop teaching skills which can be grouped as pedagogical competence), MBB (*Mata Kuliah Berkehidupan Bermasyarakat* or subjects to develop the ability to understand the surrounding society which equates with interpersonal skills) as proposed by the DGHE.

Even though the distribution of the four teacher competencies in the list of subjects was not evident, the curriculum structure, as affirmed by the HoD and the two lecturers, included the subjects to develop the four competencies. They explained that professional competences were vital in producing graduates who could speak, listen and write English fluently. One lecturer (L2D) said “This had led the department to include the English skills subjects in the curriculum structure. And we put them in the earlier semester”. The accreditation documents confirmed the HoD’s view, stating that the learning areas to attain the professional competencies involved the knowledge of language, literature, linguistics, language skills and research on language and language teaching.

According to the HoD and the two lecturers, in developing the curriculum structure, the department had done a needs analysis. As they explained, the demand of the world of work was taken into account. They stated that in order to learn the needs of society, the department had invited the stakeholders such as school principals and teachers to discuss the graduate competencies needed for the teaching profession. Specifically, the HoD explained, “The shape of the curriculum structure is not merely based on the current literature on curriculum but on the analysis of the competencies needed in the society”.

The HoD and the two lecturers explained that as the graduates should be skilled in teaching, they had to learn subjects related to education. One lecturer (L1D) stated, “So we also include some subjects related to education, such as Educational Profession”. The other lecturer (L2D) added, “We also include theoretical-based subjects because we want our students to be teachers who are knowledgeable in their field”. It was clearly stated in the accreditation document that the learning areas of the pedagogical competencies included the development of the learners, teachers’ attitudes to learners, counseling and guidance for the learners, issues in education,

English curriculum in secondary schools, English materials development, approach, methods and media in teaching English, learning plan and learning evaluation techniques.

The same conviction was shared by most of the students in the FGD. One student (S47D), for example, stated that the curriculum's structure had included some subjects which develop pedagogical competence. "I think that the subjects I have taken such as *Language Teaching Method*, *English for Children* and *Micro Teaching* have contributed to the development of our skills in teaching. In addition, we have also had a real teaching experience when we practiced teaching in secondary schools for three months". As stated in the curriculum structure, there were two practicum subjects to foster the pedagogical competencies. The first subject is *Teaching Practicum 1* for two credits taught in semester six. In this subject students had to practice teaching in front of their fellow students. The second subject is *Teaching Practicum 2* for three credits in which students conduct teaching practice at junior and senior high schools in the seventh semester. When asked about the teaching practicums, one lecturer (L2D) said that it was not enough for students to do two practicums. She suggested that the department could increase the frequency of doing the practicums so that students' teaching skills could be significantly improved.

According to several students, there was another subject considered instrumental in developing the trainee teachers' pedagogical competence, namely *Profesi Pendidikan* or *Educational Professions*. They said that in that subject students could learn how to be a professional teacher by understanding the pedagogical knowledge.

The curriculum structure had accommodated the development of students' soft skills. This was shared by the HoD and the two lecturers, explaining that their development of soft skills was accommodated through subjects to enhance their personal and social competencies. The HoD explained that the former was developed through six subjects comprising *Religious Study*, *Pancasila Education*, *Ketamansiswaan 1*, *Ketamansiswaan 2*, *Bahasa Indonesia* and *Civic Education* and the latter was developed through one subject called *Community Service*. The subject of *Pancasila*, according to the HoD, prepared students to be educators who had competence and good character. He further said that through *Ketamansiswaan*, students learnt the national and educational values developed by the founder of the university. For him, both *Pancasila* and *Ketamansiswaan* provided a unique character of the graduates.

In addition to developing the professional and pedagogical competencies, the department also fostered other supporting competencies. As pointed out by the HoD and stated in the accreditation document, the supporting competencies were being developed through some subjects such as *Information Technology*, *Entrepreneurship* and elective subjects. According to the HoD, for the elective subjects, students could choose one of the two packages, namely *English for Children or Translation Program*, each containing eight credit points. The package of *English for Children* comprised four subjects: *Children's Language Acquisition*, *Teaching Methodology in English for Children*, *Program Development in English for Children*, and *Practicum in English for Children*, each of which counts for two credit points. The package of *Translation Program* encompassed four subjects: *Principles of Translating and Interpreting*, *Translating Text Analysis*, *Practice in Translating English to Indonesian* and *Practice in Translating Indonesian to English*. Each subject was worth two credit points. The HoD and the two lecturers were confident that the incorporation of these subjects would cater to students' needs in the world of work.

An interesting feature of the curriculum structure was related to technological skills. The accreditation document stated that the ability to incorporate technology in the graduates' professional development was deemed as one of the core professional competencies. However, the curriculum structure only included two subjects relating to technology, namely, *Instructional Technology and Information and Communication Technology*. While the *Information and Communication Technology* contained aspects of knowledge and skills development in using technology, as stated in the accreditation document, the *Instructional Technology* subject had more emphasis on the development of lesson plans. Thus there was only one subject which was related to the development of this skill.

Analysis of the EED IV's curriculum structure

The data concerning the curriculum structure in EED IV revealed two strong points including the relevant subjects to achieve the graduate competencies and the clear distribution of competencies. As pointed out by the HoD and the two lecturers, the subjects listed in the curriculum structure were to equip students with the four teacher competencies. The HoD said that as the department had implemented the CBC, the occupational skills were deemed important. So, as he pointed out, the practicums were given strong attention. However, the

curriculum structure in EED IV only included two practicums done by students and the HoD and the two lecturers were aware that in order to develop the graduate competencies they believed that the department should include more practicums. In addition to the core professional and pedagogical competencies, the curriculum document also mentioned three subjects to develop supporting competencies including *Information Technology*, *Entrepreneurship*, *English for Children* and *Translation*. The clear distribution of the competencies was evident in the curriculum document.

Despite its two strengths, EED IV also had two weaknesses related to the curriculum structure. First, the total number of credits, namely 148, exceeded the ideal number of credits stated in the NSHE (2014), suggesting that students had a heavy workload. In addition to the students' work overload, the sequential approach was taken as the format of the curriculum structure, thus deviating from the guideline proposed by the DGHE (2008) even though the HoD believed that the sequential approach would develop a stronger foundation for understanding the knowledge. Second, the skill in information technology was included as one of the core competencies of the graduates. However, there was only one subject related to the development of information technology in the curriculum structure, namely, *Information and Communication Technology*.

5.4.5 Curriculum Structure of EED V

The curriculum structure of EED V is presented in the following table:

Table 5.12: Curriculum structure of EED V

Semester	Names of the Subjects	Credits	Core	Institutional
1	Basic Structure	2	√	
	Listening for Sound Perception	2	√	
	Oral Reproduction	2	√	
	Pancasila Education	2		√
	Introduction to Education	2	√	
	Pronunciation	2		
	Reading Technique	2	√	
	Sentence Writing	2	√	

	Islamic Study 1	2		√
	Vocabulary	2	√	
	Total number of Credits of the first semester	20		
2	Bahasa Indonesia	2		√
	Conversation	2	√	
	English Phonetics and Phonology	2	√	
	Basic Science	2		√
	Listening for General Communication	2	√	
	Paragraph Writing	2	√	
	Citizenship Education	2		√
	Pre-Intermediate Structure	2	√	
	Reading Comprehension	2	√	
	Certification 1	0	√	
	Translation	2	√	
	Total number of credits of the second semester	22		
3	Learning and Learning Process	2	√	
	Composition	2	√	
	English Morphology	2	√	
	Extensive Reading	2	√	
	Basic Socio-Cultural Science	2		√
	Intermediate Structure	2	√	
	Interpreting	2	√	
	Listening in Professional Context	2	√	
	Learner Development	2	√	
	Public Speaking	2	√	
	Islamic Study 2	2		√
	Total number of Credits of the third semester	22		

4	Academic Reading	2	√	
	Guidance and Counseling	2		√
	Curriculum and Syllabus Design	2	√	
	Debate	2	√	
	English Learning Styles and Strategies	2	√	
	English Syntax	2	√	
	Essay Writing	2	√	
	Introduction to Literature	2	√	
	Listening to Academic Purposes	2	√	
	Pre-advanced Structure	2	√	
	Certification II	0	√	
	Total number of Credits of the fourth semester	21		
5	Academic Writing	2	√	
	Advanced Structure	2	√	
	Assessment in English Language Teaching	2	√	
	English Teaching Strategies	2	√	
	Drama, Prose and Poetry	2	√	
	Linguistics and Literary Research Method	1	√	
	Research in English Language Teaching	2	√	
	Semantics	2	√	
	Islamic Study 3	2		√
	Teaching English as a Foreign Language	2	√	
	Materials Development	2	√	
Total number of Credits of the fifth semester	21			
6	Applied Linguistics	2	√	
	English for Specific Purposes	2	√	
	English for Tourism	2	√	
	Cross Culture Understanding	2	√	

	Evaluation in English Language Teaching	2	√	
	Instructional Technology	2	√	
	Literary Appreciation and Criticism	2	√	
	Textbook Analysis	2	√	
	Micro Teaching	2	√	
	Certification III	0	√	
	Total number of Credits of the first semester	18		
7	Educational Statistics	2		√
	Teaching Practicum	4	√	
	Islamic Study 4	2		√
	Elective Course	2		
	Total number of Credits of the seventh semester	10		
8	Community Service	4		√
	Certification IV	0	√	
	Thesis	6	√	
	Total number of Credits of the eighth semester	10		
	Total number of credits	144	118	26

Source: Curriculum documents of EED V

The curriculum structure consisted of 144 credit points, including 118 credits for the core subjects and 26 credits for the institutional subjects. It is clearly shown in the table that the sequential approach was mainly used as the format of the curriculum structure as some subjects related to language skills followed the hierarchical order with the less complex subjects in the earlier semester and the more complex ones in the later semester. For example, students learnt the *Basic Structure* in the first semester and learnt the continuation of this course in the later semester including *Pre-Intermediate Structure* (second semester), *Intermediate Structure* (third semester), *Pre-advanced Structure* (fourth semester) and *Advanced Structure* (fifth semester). The sequential format also applied to other language skills such as writing, reading and listening and speaking. In the theoretical-based subjects, the use of numbers depicted the gradual shift of complexity from the earlier semester to the later semester. For instance, *Islamic Study 1* was

taught in the first semester, followed by *Islamic study 2*, *Islamic Study 3* and *Islamic Study 4* in the later semesters.

The HoD said that in structuring the curriculum, two aspects were taken into consideration. He explained that the curriculum structure was based on the vision to achieve the quality of the graduates. Furthermore, as he pointed out, the curriculum structure had accommodated the expectations of the society. He gave an example of how the curriculum team should reconsider the subject *English for Children* since the government had removed English teaching from the primary school curriculum. Another example, as explained by the HoD, was that *Journalism* was included in the curriculum structure because of the rapid growth of the mass media in Indonesia.

The HoD, the two lecturers and the most of the students in the FGD believed that the subjects in the curriculum structure were directed toward achieving the core competencies although he was also a firm believer that to gauge its success, the curriculum needed to be evaluated. The two lecturers, however, acknowledged that the department had not seriously done any curriculum evaluation. The HoD said that he had a plan to evaluate the effectiveness of subjects in the curriculum structure in achieving the four teacher competences. He also mentioned that one challenge concerning the development of students' competences through the curriculum was the frequent change in government policy.

The HoD, supported by the two lecturers, expressed his view that the curriculum structure had covered a wide range of subjects to develop English teachers' competencies. However, the HoD was critical in that there were only a few lecturers who could teach well. He explained, "I think the subjects are good to develop our competencies as teachers, but I think the lecturers need to improve their teaching techniques because sometimes I find some lecturers teach simple subjects in complicated ways".

The HoD and the two lecturers explained that pedagogical competence and professional competence were vital as the program was intended to produce teachers. One lecturer (L1E) related these two competencies with the provision of learning and educational theories as well as teaching practicums. He said, "After students learn the learning theories, they apply their knowledge by teaching in schools. Of course because this is the core of the department, some subjects related to teaching and learning aimed to attain pedagogical competence". Most of the

students in the FGD held a similar view that teachers should master two core competencies, namely, professional and pedagogical competencies. Regarding professional competencies, a few students said that teachers should have broad knowledge of the learning materials taught to their students. In terms of pedagogical competence most of the students in the FGD were of the opinion that teachers should be able to develop the best way to teach their students so that they could understand the learning materials easily. One student (S45E) stated, “So in addition to mastering the knowledge, an English teacher should be good at transferring the knowledge”.

Asked if the subjects in the curriculum structure had significantly developed the competences and skills, the HoD, the two lecturers and the majority of students in the FGD were very confident that the subjects covered the development of the four English skills. To illustrate the view from students, one student (S75E) explained that the subjects had improved those four skills. Nevertheless, she admitted that her writing skill had not improved significantly. She expected that more time would be allocated for the subjects related to the development of writing skills. “I think compared to other skills, writing needs more time because it is more difficult”, she said.

The social and personal competences, according to the HoD and the two lecturers, were achieved through subjects and extracurricular activity. The HoD stated, “I suppose the social competences are developed through both learning the subjects and joining extracurricular activities. *Community Service* is the subject which I think fosters students’ ability to mingle with society, so their social competence is challenged and developed. In addition, I think extracurricular programs on campus are really beneficial in developing the students’ social competence”.

One lecturer (L2E) contended that social competence was developed not only through subjects in the curriculum structure but also through students’ activities in and outside the campus. She explained, “I think social competence can be gained through experiencing, not merely knowing. When a student grasps experience from their social life, then she or he begins developing her or his social competence”.

Despite the department’s attention to the development of pedagogical competence, one (L2E) said that the result was sometimes not satisfactory. She gave an example of how some students failed to perform well in the teaching practicum in schools as she often heard complaints from

teachers and school principals. “This means that we still have to improve our students’ teaching skills”, she said. However, she was optimistic that the implementation of CBC would be able to produce more competent graduates because the target of the curriculum was basically to develop the students’ competence even though she said that the progression was conditional. “If the development of all competencies is well proportioned, then the graduates will be professional teachers. If they are good only in certain competencies, such as professional competence but not good in other competencies such as pedagogical competence, then we should still work hard to improve our curriculum”.

In addition to pedagogical and professional competencies, the HoD and the two lecturers felt that the curriculum structure should cater for the development of personal competence. While relating this competence to character building, the HoD said that subjects such as *Religion* and *Citizenship Education* should foster the students’ personal competence. However, one lecturer (L1E) believed that to successfully develop the students’ character, the provision of subjects catering for personal development was not adequate. Instead, he said that the lecturers should be able to create an atmosphere which was conducive for developing character. He gave an example of how he encouraged students to respect their lecturers and how to behave well with others. As he pointed out, he also motivated his students to comply with the rules and regulations and to be responsible for their own actions. He explained, “Everyday encounters with students are lecturers’ opportunities to develop students’ personal competence and character. To train students to appreciate the time, for instance, a lecture can ask his or her students to be punctual in coming to the class and submitting assignments. For another example, when a student is absent or fails to attend the class, he or she cannot ask his or her friend to sign for him or her. This is the way we educate them about honesty”.

The HoD and the two lecturers were of the opinion that the curriculum structure had accommodated the development of the supporting competences. One lecturer (L2E) said, “Subjects such as *Journalism*, *Tourism* and *Translation* should enrich students’ core competencies, so that besides becoming teachers, they have alternative careers to pursue”. She considered that the existence of such subjects was necessary in order to give competitive advantages to the graduates. She explained, “You know, today’s competition to become teachers

is getting more difficult, so equipped with supporting competences, students can actually be flexible to choose other careers outside teaching jobs”.

In the curriculum structure, as confirmed by the HoD, the supporting competencies were fostered through the courses called *Certification I* to *Certification IV*. The HoD said that the four certification courses covered two fields of expertise including teaching English for Children and working in the journalism area. The courses to develop the skills to teach English to children included *Child Language Acquisition* (fourth semester), *Child Language Methodology* (fifth semester), *Child Language Teaching Program Development* (semester 6), *Peer Teaching Practicum* (seventh semester) and *Teaching Practice* (eight semester). The courses to develop the journalistic skills were comprised of *Introduction to Journalism* (fourth semester), *News and Report Writing* (fifth semester), *Feature and Fiction Writing* (sixth semester), *Visual Media Production Practicum* (seventh semester) and *Audio Visual Media Production* (eight semester).

The needs analysis was considered by the HoD and the two lecturers as vital in developing the curriculum structure. The HoD explained that informal conversation encouraged lecturers to absorb the views and opinions of the stakeholders, including the school principals and teachers during the students’ practicum in schools. One lecturer (L1A) said, “We try to capture their needs, for instance, by finding out what new skills and competencies are needed by teachers. And we then use the information obtained to improve our curriculum structure”. The other lecturer (L2E) added that the *Community Service Program* provided opportunities for lecturers to assimilate new information from the public for the purpose of curriculum improvement. She explained, “The opinion of people, teachers and students can really be constructed as feedback and this is the way we actually can grasp the needs of our stakeholders. Thanks to their feedback, we can conduct the ongoing revision of our curriculum”.

Analysis of the EED V’s curriculum structure

The data concerning the curriculum structure of EED V revealed both its strong and weak points. Regarding the strong points, the subjects in the curriculum structure, as affirmed by the HoD and the two lecturers, had covered the development of the four teacher competencies including professional, pedagogical, personal and social competencies. While pointing to some subjects such as *Journalism* and *English for Children*, they were of the opinion that the subjects had

accommodated the needs of society. The last strong point was related to the total number of credits (144) which was equal with the maximum credit numbers (144 credits) proposed in the NSHE (2014).

As acknowledged by the HoD and revealed in the curriculum documents, however, EED V still had several weak points. This first weak point concerned the limited number of teaching practicums included in the curriculum structure. There were only two teaching practicums done by students in the sixth semester through *Micro Teaching* and in the seventh semester through *Teaching Practice*. One lecturer (L1E) confirmed that many students still did not do the practicum well, indicating the need for more teaching opportunities for students to sharpen their teaching skills. The next weakness was related to the link and match between the society's need with the subjects in the curriculum structure. In the interview, the HoD explained that subjects in the curriculum structure had attempted to accommodate the needs of society. This might contradict the fact that the curriculum structure still contained a subject called *English for Children* given the new policy of the government in 2012 that English was no longer to be taught at primary schools. The third weak point was that EED V still employed a sequential approach as the format of its curriculum structure, meaning that it was not in line with the format suggested by the DGHE (2008).

5.4.6 Conclusion

To conclude, all the five EEDs had included the development of the teacher's competencies as proposed in the regulation of Indonesian government No. 16/2007 consisting of pedagogical, professional, social and personal competencies. The competencies to pursue careers outside the teaching profession were also developed through 'other' and 'supporting' competencies. The number of semester credits in the curriculum structure among the five EEDs was also different and most of them exceeded the maximum number of the semester credits proposed in the NSHE (2014). This might be because based on the NSHE issued by the government regulation No.15/2005, the number of credits was determined by each department and there were no standard to determine the semester credits in this regulation. The adjustment should, therefore, be made to attain the ideal number of the semester credits, so that students were not overburdened in their study.

Another interesting note was the lack of teaching practicums in the curriculum. In all the five EEDs, the actual teaching practice was only done in one semester. As Levesque and Lauen (2000) point out, work practices provide new models of delivering credentials and skills and to prepare students adequately for a globally competitive workforce. Some students in the FGD had expectation that they would have more opportunities to enhance their competencies through teaching at schools. In the words of Kouwenhoven (2011), the development of competencies involves the application of attitudes, particular skills and knowledge for effective performance in the enterprise or industry.

The five EEDs had different areas of strong and weak points in terms of the curriculum structure. Table 5.13 illustrates these points including the format of the curriculum structure, the distribution of competence, the link and match between the graduate competencies and the subjects in the curriculum structure and the total number of credit points. The “tick” symbol represents the strength in a certain area while the “cross” symbol represents weaknesses in a certain area.

Table 5.13: Areas of strengths and weakness related to the curriculum structure

EED	Format of the curriculum structure	Distribution of competencies	Link and match between the subjects and the graduate competencies.	Total number of semester credit
EED I	√	X	X	154 credits
EED II	X	√	X	181 credits
EED III	X	X	√	149 credits
EED IV	X	√	√	148 credits
EED V	X	X	X	144 credits

Table 5.13 clearly shows that in terms of the format of the curriculum structure, EED I was the only department which adopted the parallel approach, thus adhering to the guidelines proposed

by the DGHE (2008). The other four EEDS still adopted the sequential approach which conflicted with the format suggested by the DGHE. Regarding the distribution of the competencies, there were only two EEDs which explained which subjects belonged to which competencies, namely EED II and EED IV. In the other three departments, the curriculum documents did not include the distribution of competencies for individual subjects in the curriculum structure. With regards to the 'link' and 'match' between the subjects in the curriculum structure and the graduate competencies, EED III was the only department whose subjects in the curriculum structure matched the graduate competencies. In EED II, for example, the subjects developing 'other' and 'supporting' competencies had credit points which far surpassed those which developed the core 'professional' and 'pedagogical' competencies. In addition to this, the extra number of subjects and credits, as acknowledged by the HoD, might contradict the vision of the Ignatian Pedagogy suggested by the founder who advocated the depth of knowledge rather than the breath of learning areas. In terms of the number of semester credits, the total number of credit points in EED V adhered to the maximum credits recommended by the regulation of Education Minister No.49/2014. The other four EEDs had total semester credits which surpassed the suggested number of the semester credits proposed by the same regulation. To conclude, the most elements of the curriculum structure based on the CBC principles, had been implemented by EED IV, hence constituting its best implementation compared to the other four EEDs. By contrast, none of the elements of the curriculum structure based on the CBC principles had been implemented in EED V, constituting its worst implementation among the other four EEDs. The other three departments, namely EED I, II and III had implemented only one element of the curriculum structure based on the CBC principles.

5.5 The Incorporation of Organizational Values into the Curriculum

The data from the interviews with the HoDs and the document analysis revealed the adoption of the 'organizational values' in EED I, EED II, EED IV and EED V. EED II had adopted one set of 'Catholic values' based on the ideas of the founder of the Jesuits, Ignatius Loyola (1491-1556). In this case, the organizational ideology that guided this department was called 'Ignatian pedagogy'. EED II and V had adopted the internal values based on Islamic teaching. EED IV, on the other hand, had adopted the philosophy developed by the founder of the Tamansiswa movement to which this university was affiliated. No specific organizational values were found

to be implemented in EED III which was the only department in a state university. The following sub-sections will present and discuss the findings concerning the implementation of the organizational values in these four EEDs.

5.5.1 The Cultivation of “Ignatian Pedagogy” Rooted in Catholic and Jesuit Values in EED II

EED II had adopted the religious values rooted in the Catholic and Jesuit teaching philosophy associated with St. Ignatius of Loyola called the Ignatian pedagogical paradigm. The use of the Ignatian Pedagogy (IP) approach was clearly stated in the mission of the department: “Providing an English education program through the application of a reflective paradigm of IP and technology that integrates context, experience, reflection, action and evaluation in an atmosphere of dialogue in order to produce professional teachers of sound character”.

The history of contemporary IP can be traced back 450 years when Ignatius Loyola, a Basque nobleman, experienced a transformational discernment from being a soldier to serving God. According to O’Malley (1993, p.2), banding with a group of friends as a student at the University of Paris, he founded a community of priests called ‘the Jesuits’ or ‘The Society of Jesus’ in 1537. By 1565 the members of the Jesuits had grown significantly to 3,500 men. O’Malley (1993) also points out that although a school in a system was not planned by Ignatius, by 1543 a Jesuit missionary named Francis Xavier had led a few Jesuits to found a school with approximately 600 elementary male students, teaching reading, writing, grammar and catechism in Goa in India. Preceded by the establishment of a school for lay students in Messina in Italy in 1548, the educational philosophy under Jesuit auspices soon was disseminated throughout Europe and finally into the Americas and Asia (O’Malley, 1993).

To elucidate the goals, modes and structure of the Jesuit pedagogical experience, Jesuit collaborators developed a *Ratio Studiorum* in 1599. According to Farrell (1999), as cited in Mountain and Nowacek (2012), the *Ratio* contained an explanation of the curriculum structure comprising a blend of humanities, the classics, the arts and physical sciences as well as theology and philosophy. Furthermore educational matters including the roles of students and teachers, administrative details as well as classroom practices such as debates, exercises, disputations,

repetition, pageants, plays and awards were emphasized in the *Ratio*. The curriculum structure explained in the *Ratio* was reflected in the Curriculum Structure of EED II in which there were numerous literature and humanity-based subjects taught to students.

The International Commission of the Apostolate of Jesuit Education (ICAJE) published a document entitled ‘The Characteristics of Jesuit Education’ in 1986, identifying ten attributes of Jesuit education philosophy including ‘care and concern for each individual person’ and ‘lay-Jesuit collaboration’. ICAJE, in an attempt to make those attributes more workable for teachers in the teaching and learning process, later published a document entitled ‘Ignatian Pedagogy: A Practical Approach’, introducing and discussing the ‘Ignatian pedagogy, a paradigm linked to the spiritual exercises practiced by St. Ignatius. This was summarized well by ICAJE (1986), as cited in Chick et al. (2012, p.134),

A distinctive feature of the Ignatian pedagogical paradigm is that, understood in the light of the *Spiritual Exercises of St. Ignatius*, it becomes not only a fitting description of the continual interplay of experience, reflection and action in the teaching learning process, but also an ideal portrayal of the dynamic interrelationship of teacher and learner in the latter's journey of growth in knowledge and freedom. (ICAJE, 1986, paragraph 23)

Central to the legacy of the Jesuit paradigm is the idea that adaptation to different cultures is vital. Thus, ‘context’ becomes the centre of the Ignatian pedagogical paradigm. ‘Context’ is understood in two dimensions (Chick, et al., 2012). The first is the context surrounding the students’ own life, including a sense of self-identity. The second is the students’ personal contexts such as financial pressures, and relationships with family and loved ones. In addition to these two contexts, there is a broader scope to context including classroom, institutional, regional, national and global dimensions.

Context reflects the hallmark of Jesuit education, namely personal care and concern for the individual which requires teachers to become as familiar as possible with the life experience of their students (ibid, 2015). The teachers, in this way, adapt the lessons in light of the life circumstances of the learners. According to the HoD, in the teaching process in the department, a first step taken by a lecturer was that he or she had to learn about the students’ lives. She pointed out,

Students coming from a city were different from those coming from an isolated village and students graduating from a good school will have different abilities from those graduating from a not very good school. Then lecturers can use this student's living context to tailor their lesson. For instance, at the beginning of the class, I usually invite students to make a short introduction. Through their introduction, I can learn their social and economic background and their level of English. So if I understand their level of English, I will know which level of English I should use and teach and what learning materials they should focus on.

One lecturer (L1B) explained that students engaging in the IP deal with the process of understanding their own context, experiences and even broader context. Indeed, as the HoD pointed out, the ultimate goal of the IP is to enable students to become responsive to the larger social context and to the needs of other people, moving beyond the limitations of individual contexts. In EED II, as explained by the HoD, in addition to the personal context of the students' lives, the global context needed to be introduced to students. Hence, she said that lecturers were encouraged to include the global discourse in their learning materials. She gave an example of how a lecturer could explain the issue of better educational systems in other countries in his or her teaching materials.

The second principle of IP is the importance of experience. As stated by Duminuco and Vincent (2000, p. 294), experience can be defined as 'to taste internally'. More specifically, in the Ignatian sense, learning "is expected to move beyond rote knowledge to the development of the more complex learning skills of understanding, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation.... We use the term experience to describe any activity in which, in addition to a cognitive grasp of the matter being considered, some sensation of an affective nature is registered by the student..." (Duminuco and Vincent, 2000, p.295). A similar definition of experience has been offered by Bonwell and Eison (1991) when they describe the concept of active learning as teaching activities where students are actively involved in thinking and taking action.

According to one lecturer (L2B), lecturers were expected to value the important role of students' experience in the learning process. She also stated that in contrast to the traditional classroom where students sit and write down what teachers explain to them, the lecturers arrived at the notion that the content of the courses does not derive from their wisdom, but from the richness of the students' learning experiences. She further said that a range of activities such as the

community service program, research in the laboratory and teaching practicums would offer students the necessary experience. Asked if all lecturers were conversant with the principle of experience and had applied it in their teaching, the HoD and the two lecturers said that most lecturers had been made aware of it. While presenting the document to the researcher, the HoD stated that the lecturers in the English department obtained the highest score in the application of the Ignatian Pedagogical paradigm in the university. Several students, however, explained how not all lecturers had applied the IP in the teaching and learning process. The HoD, however, said that the majority of the lecturers had used it and he kept encouraging the lecturers to use it. He added that the teaching evaluation involved the monitoring of the use of the Ignatian Pedagogy in the teaching and learning process.

The next principle of the IP paradigm is reflection. Reflection is defined as “a thoughtful reconsideration of some subject matter, experience, idea, purpose or spontaneous reaction, in order to grasp its significance more fully” (Jesuit Institute, 1993, p.14). In the paradigm, having provided their students with new information and experience, the lecturers then guide their students to reflect on these experiences in order to engender future action. Asked about methods of reflection used by lecturers in the teaching and learning process, the HoD, the two lecturers and most of the students in the FGD explained that lecturers had encouraged students to reflect on what they had learnt, using both verbal and written reflection. According to the HoD, to stimulate students’ reflection, several questions associated with ‘what did you see, sense and feel?’ were asked of students. These questions seemed to be akin with the spiritual exercises called ‘examen’ or examination of conscience done by Ignatius Loyola (Hamm, 1994). When confirmed to students, the majority of students in the FGD explained that most of the lecturers had used the reflection in the teaching and learning process. They stated that they usually had writing reflection and they felt that it was useful to identify their strengths and weakness during the learning process.

Action is the last principle after the reflection. The desired outcome of the learning experience leads to action. As cited in the Jesuit Institute (1993), IP is more about transformation in which two steps are involved, namely interiorizing and externally manifesting choices. The interiorizing process is moved through the involvement of both students’ understanding of the

experience and the affections (ibid, 1993). Thus ‘interiorizing’ might be equal to the internalization of beliefs. In the externally manifesting choices, the interiorized attitudes, values and meanings became part of the person and encouraged students to act, based on the new conviction (ibid, 1993). Based on these two processes, students need to undertake two stages to produce action, namely internalizing beliefs and undertaking action consistent with those beliefs. With regard to this process, the HoD said that the goal of the application of IP was to attain developments in competence, conscience and compassion. According to her, competence was related to the knowledge and skills to be developed by students in order to comply with the demands of the job market. However, as she pointed out, IP required that students should also develop their sense of conscience and compassion. She said that conscience and compassion were elements of action as they involved a spiritual movement toward a richer understanding of oneself and others. The HoD and the two lecturers believed that after students became teachers, they would have not only the required competencies but also a moral conscience and ability to contribute compassionately to other people’s well-being and development. Supporting the HoD and lecturers’ views, students explained that in the teaching and learning process, they were encouraged to develop compassion. For instance, several students said that the lecturers usually used collaborative learning and small group discussion which allowed them to help each other in understanding the learning materials.

5.5.2 The Inculcation of Islamic Values in EED I and EED V

Despite the shared visions among the five departments to become a leading English Education centre through the activities of teaching, research and community service, based on the mission statements, two departments seemed to adopt the religious values based on the relevant Islamic principles, namely EED 1 and EED V. In fact, the two departments were under the same Islamic foundation called Muhammadiyah.

Literally, the term Muhammadiyah means the followers of Muhammad. Founded in the city of Yogyakarta in 1912 by an Islamic cleric named Ahmad Dahlan, Muhammadiyah is the second largest Islamic organization in Indonesia with 29 million members (Burhani, 2010). Ahmad Dahlan was known as a reformist of a socio-religious movement which advocated the ‘ijtihad’ or the individual interpretation of Qur’an and Sunnah or the teaching of the prophet Muhammad, as

opposed to 'taqlid', the blind acceptance of the traditional interpretations proposed by the 'ulama' (ibid, 2010).

The organization's current committee structure reflects its spheres of activity, including ethics and Islamic law, youth organization, women's affairs, education, evangelism, and religious festivals, social welfare and health care, organizational finances and administration of property. Muhammadiyah has developed an impressive record in education, with its own system being equivalent with that of the state ranging from kindergarten level to universities. It maintains two types of institution, one more secular (and coeducational), and the other more religious (and segregated according to sex). In the latter, the emphasis is more on key moral teachings of Islam and less on traditional exegesis of classical texts. The fundamental purpose is to provide an education that is both modern and truly Islamic (Ruswan, 1997). Other achievements comprise the establishment of clinics, hospitals, factories, orphanages, and cottage industries, and a range of publications.

The root of Dahlan's ideas on education was a reformist movement which struggled for a return to the precepts of the Qur'an and Hadith. Emerging in the Middle East and being pioneered by Jamal al-din al-Afghani, the reformist movement was further developed by Muhammad 'Abduh and Rashid Rida (Ruswan, 1997). The birth of reformist movements such as Muhammadiyah was given an impetus by the intention to revitalize Muslim society. According to Wertheim (1986), to these reformers Muslim backwardness was caused by the negligence of the guidance provided by the Qur'an and hadith. Proponents of this movement argued that Islam was a religion of progress. Hence, it allowed Muslims to embrace new developments and to become the agents for progress and development.

Dahlan, like other Muslim reformers, found Indonesian Muslim society to be alienated from the precepts of the Qur'an and the Hadith or the teaching of the prophet. According to Wirjosukarto (1962), Dahlan identified five issues to be tackled in Muslim religious practice: firstly, without understanding that they were un-Islamic, Muslims were trapped in foreign values such as practicing traditions rooted in Buddhism, Hinduism or animism; secondly, Muslims were saturated with religious conservatism by the interpretations of the 'ulamà' (religious scholars) which were wrongly considered as inviolable. At the same time, it was generally believed that

Muslims were not entitled to make new interpretations given the belief that the gate of *ijtihad* (an independent judgment on a legal or theological question, based on the interpretation that the application of the Qur'an and hadith) was already closed; thirdly, Muslim intellectuals were divided into two groups considered as having juxtaposing views, namely the 'intelligentsia' or Western educated scholars and 'ulama', each of which viewed itself as superior to the other; fourthly, Muslims were insensitive to their social responsibilities and permitted the poor to stumble in poverty; finally, Muslim education was deficient because of the Dutch colonial government policy which reserved its best educational programs for the aristocrats and Christians.

Dahlan's educational program was aimed at providing a panacea for Muslims from the social malaise depicted above. Education had to erase the space between the 'intelligentsia' and 'ulama'. As Dahlan pointed out, the dichotomy was without precedent in Islam where education was intended to produce an 'intellectual ulama' or an 'ulama intellectual' (Wirjosukarto, 1962). The former were those familiar with Western sciences but also knowledgeable in religious knowledge while the latter were those who were conversant with religious knowledge but knowledgeable in Western sciences also. Dahlan attempted to close the divide between the 'ulama', graduates of traditional education and the "intelligentsia," graduates of the Dutch system. He envisioned them as striving together to overcome the challenges facing the Muslim community (Ruswan, 1997).

As a result of the ideas of integrating Islamic values and modernity in the educational arena, departments within the Muhammadiyah universities, including the two English departments in EED I and EED V, incorporated the Islamic subjects and secular subjects into their curriculum structure. In these two departments, the Islamic based subjects comprised *Aqidah* or matters of faith and writing and reading the Qur'an in the first semester, *Fiqih of ibadah* or Islamic legal rules in the life of Muslims in the second semester, *Akhlak* or Islamic virtues and morality in the third semester, and *Kemuhammadiyah* or knowledge of Muhammadiyah organization and its principles in the fourth semester. Asked about the challenges in inculcating Islamic values through the Islamic-based subjects, the HoD of EED I and the two lecturers said that the teaching of *akhlak* or Islamic morality was the most challenging. In their opinion, the teaching of *akhlak* through a stand-alone subject might be problematic, since, according to him, the ultimate goal of

akhlak was to enable students to behave in accordance with the principles of Islamic morality whereas the teaching of *akhlak* might emphasize the knowledge of Islamic morality transferred from lecturers to students. The HoDs and the lecturers' views were in line with most of the students in the FGD, saying that the subject *akhlak* focused on the memorization of the moral concepts taught in Islam. Few students expected that the teaching of this subject should have been more creative, involving them to carry out projects to contribute to society.

The implementation of the CBC in EED 1 and EED II may reflect Dahlan's vision about the importance of skills development in education. The HoD of EED I, for example, was convinced that the implementation of CBC would produce more competitive graduates because they were acquired with the occupational skills needed by the job market. For Dahlan skill development in education was an important agenda in order to equip Muslims with the competencies required to fulfill their worldly needs (Salam, 1962). Consequently, depending on the skills needed in a certain community, the format of education could be different from one place to another. Hence, Dahlan had started introducing the concept of the educational specialization in which it was an obligation for every Muslim to acquire one or more skills in order to achieve worldly success. However, Dahlan gave the following advice to his followers, "Be a doctor or be an engineer ... but after that come back to the Muhammadiyah" (Ruswan, 1997). This suggested that after Muslims had attained worldly success, Muslims should contribute to the Muslim community.

According to Dahlan education had to encourage Muslims to practice their religion consistent with Islamic principles (Ruswan, 1997). Furthermore, education should be able to explain sciences which could assist in the understanding of the sources of Islam. The most important thing, according to Dahlan, was that education should motivate Muslims to apply those teachings since understanding alone was not adequate as Islam condemns people who do not practice what they learn. To facilitate this process, Dahlan suggested that educators had to impart knowledge and wisdom in an interesting and simple way (Wirjosukarto, 1962). Asked if this pedagogical approach advocating interesting and creative teaching methods as introduced by Dahlan had been implemented in the department, the HoD and interviewed lecturers in EED I and V responded that in the CBC framework, the use of student-centered learning models was advocated. They said that lecturers were encouraged to use interesting and creative methods which allowed students to participate actively in the class.

Wirjosukarto (1962) said that Dahlan criticized traditional education in which the opinions of the preceding ‘ulama’ were transferred to the learners with little effort to make them revisit these opinions using sound arguments and finding their compatibility with the ‘Qur’an’ and ‘hadith’. Contrary to this approach to education, Dahlan suggested that education should encourage Muslims to open up to new ideas and he prohibited them from ‘taqlid’ or following someone’s ideas without understanding the reason behind them. As Wirjosukarto (1962) pointed out, due to this reason, Dahlan introduced an educational philosophy which produced objective thinkers. For him, as education was not tantamount to indoctrination, it had to give students freedom to ascertain phenomena by exploiting their own powers of judgment, thus positioning students as independent thinkers. In the words of Dahlan, as cited in Salam (1962), "To find truth, people have to sit together and look at the problem objectively. Here, no one is the winner and no one is defeated. Truth is objective". In actualizing this value in the teaching and learning process, the trajectory taken by EED I was clearer than the one adopted by EED V. While the HoD of EED V acknowledged that not all lecturers were familiar with student-centered learning, the HoD of EED I said that in the blueprint of the teaching and learning process stated in the department’s document, the active learning and constructivism approaches were adopted as the teaching methods by lecturers. He explained that in using constructivism, rather than lecturing students about facts, lecturers were to encourage students to construct knowledge through group work and discussion.

5.5.3 The implementation of ‘National Values’ in EED IV

EED IV was affiliated to a foundation which had resulted from a movement called *Tamansiswa* and was founded by a prominent historical figure named Ki Hadjar Dewantara and a group of Javanese activists in Yogyakarta in 1922 (Tsuchiya 1987). Together with other nationalist and religious organizations which had a concern with indigenous non-government education during colonial times, *Tamansiswa* established schools throughout the country (Hadiwinata, 2003).

The reasons behind the establishment of *Tamansiswa*, according to Dewantara (1967), were that there were no adequate educational institutions provided by the colonial government and the schools were still subsidized by the government. None of the newly established schools, as pointed out by Dewantara (1967), dared to formulate a national education curriculum. Meijers (1973), as cited in Hadiwinata (2003), considered Dewantara as a cultural-nationalist who

wanted to highlight Indonesia's national culture and this went against the colonial model of education. However, according to Meijers (1973), as cited in Hadiwinata (2003), despite Dewantara's spirit of nationalism, he worked together with other interest groups in education.

Tjetje (1969) outlined three reasons why *Tamansiswa* initiated by Dewantara was significant for the future of the Indonesian nation. First, Tamansiswa inspired the Indonesian people in the national struggle. Second, Dewantara, despite the hindrance of the colonial government, was successful in expanding the ideals and the schools of *Tamansiswa*. Third, numerous 'nationalist' fighters were influenced by Dewantara. For these reasons, Dewantara was often portrayed as the perfect model of Indonesian ideals and morals. He was often described as dignified, honest, simple and humble, modeling the perfect representation of an Indonesian citizen (Tjetje, 1969) He was even considered as the saviour of the Indonesian people through his educational movement. This reflected Ingleson's (1974) view that the establishment of the *Tamansiswa* was directed toward the pursuit for an independent nation state.

According to Tsuchiya (1987), several principles provided the foundation for the establishment of the *Tamansiswa*:

- 1) 'Pendidikan dan pengajaran' (education and teaching) should aim to foster 'the seeds passed down from earlier generations' (p.56) in order to achieve the spiritual and physical growth of the nation
- 2) In order to oppose the colonial influence, instead of following the mistaken ideals of the colonial government, the Indonesian people should rely on their own culture;
- 3) *Tamansiswa* articulated a national education philosophy for the people, so that all layers of society should be able to access the educational system;
- 4) *Tamansiswa* wanted to be an independent foundation; hence, no subsidies from third parties were received;
- 5) A national education philosophy was aimed at achieving the nation's independence, so that it should be established independently and foreign assistance was unnecessary;
- 6) The teacher was responsible to assist the students to attain tranquility of body and spirit.

As pointed out by Soeratman (1985), teachers using the *among* methods should be able to motivate students to become independent learners. The word *among* is the base from which the

verb *ngemong* which means guiding and motivating students is derived. Hence, teachers were usually called ‘pamong’ whose responsibility was to ‘lead students from behind’, inspiring and motivating them to attain the best achievement. Students were trained to nurture the intrinsic discipline; hence, motivation came from inside oneself, not because of directions from others (ibid, 1985). Thus the child can develop naturally. The relationship of students and teachers is like family. Students call their teacher as “mother” or “father”. This is different from students in other schools in that era who called their teacher as “master” and “madam” (Soeratman, 1985: 79). *Among* means to guide children with full affection and teachers must put the interests of the students in first place. Based on the ‘family approach’ in the *among* system, the relationship between students and teachers is very close. According to Soeratman (1985) like members of a family, the *among* system required teachers and students to: 1) love each other; 2) have the same rights and obligations; 3) avoid selfishness and help others; 4) achieve the welfare as the goal of the ‘family’; and 5) develop tolerance.

Tjetje (1969) asserts that the *among* system was often understood as the teacher’s responsibility to ‘lead from behind’ and was described as the ideal way of living which led to a nationally-minded citizen. Tjeje (1969) further elaborated that Dewantara pioneered an education philosophy based on national identity characterized by the preservation of self-dignity and the spirit of humanism. The ultimate goal of his educational movement was to make Indonesian people capable of building a new independent and prosperous nation. The three basic principles of Ki Hajar Dewantara, according to Soeratman (1985), were accepted as prominent attributes of teachers and leaders:

- 1) "Ing ngarso sung tuladha" meant teachers as leaders (educators), “standing in front”, must be able to act as role models for their students. Teachers should be able to show good conduct so that they become role models for their students.
- 2) "Ing madya mangun karsa" means that “in the middle” leaders or teachers must be able to increase the motivation, creativity and independence of students.
- 3) "Tut wuri Handayani" means ‘in the back’, teachers and leaders should be able to build students’ morale and motivation so that they can strive for success

In the eyes of Dewantara, a teacher was obliged to teach and educate. While teaching meant transferring knowledge and training students’ minds and skills, educating meant guiding the

growth of character in the lives of students so that they could become civilized citizens (Soeratman, 1985). Dewantara, as cited in Soeratman (1985), was of the opinion that the development of students' character was critical because character is an integral part of human persons. Soeratman (1985) further suggests that the character traits which should be developed in the educational process, according to Dewantara, included the students' awareness of justice, love, loyalty, beauty, peace and order. Dewantara often used the terms 'ethical' and 'aesthetical' as the character traits to be inculcated in students (Ibid, 1985). In accordance with the teachings of Dewantara, teachers should base their actions on the principles of "ing ngarsa sung tuladha", "ing madya Mangun karsa" and "tut wuri handayani". In the context of the 'among' system, the teacher plays a role as: 1) the organizer of teaching and learning activities; 2) the provider of resources for students; 3) the motivators for students to learn; 4) the providers of materials and learning opportunities for students; and 5) the facilitators of students' learning needs (Tjeje, 1969)

Asked if the principles of *Tamansiswa* were a part of the department's culture, the HoD and the two lecturers said that it had been implemented because *Tamansiswa* was included in the curriculum structure as a subject taught to students. According to them, the aim of the *Tamansiswa* subject was to equip students with the educational philosophy proposed by Dewantara. It was expected, as they pointed out, that when students became teachers, they would apply the principles of *Tamansiswa* in their teaching. Based on the curriculum document, the subject on *Tamansiswa* consisted of two strands: *Ketamansiswaan 1* which was taught in the first semester and *Ketamansiswaan 2* which was taught in the second semester, both of which had two semester credits. The HoD said that, in addition to making students engage with the educational philosophy of Dewantara, the *Tamansiswa* subject could be a means of developing students' character as, according to him, Dewantara's teaching also covered elements of character development. Most of the students in the FGD, however, explained that the *Tamansiswa* subjects were too theoretical, focusing on the memorization of the philosophical concepts proposed by Dewantara. As a result, they said that the subject did not significantly develop their teaching skills.

Analysis of the organizational values and its adoption in the CBC setting

The organizational values implemented in EED I, II, IV and V reflected their particular and unique features given that the values were derived from different sources. The values adopted in EED I and V were derived from Islamic principles proposed by Ahmad Dahlan while the one adopted in EED II stemmed from Catholic teaching as proposed by Ignatius Loyola. The values adopted in EED IV, on the contrary, stemmed from ‘national’ or ‘Indonesian’ values. As a result, EED I, II and V based their values upon religious philosophy even though EED I and V seemed to be more explicit in advocating the religious content in the education process. For instance, Ahmad Dahlan preferred to use the idea of ‘Islamic’ education in his philosophy. The ultimate aim of his movement was to establish an education system which could assist learners to be intelligent and religiously devout (Wirjosukarto, 1962), thus reflecting an attempt to deny the secular education. On the contrary, despite its religious roots in Catholicism, the Ignatian Pedagogical paradigm does not explicitly explain that the purpose of its educational goal is to enable students to be religiously committed. Instead, IP uses more universal educational values in the teaching and learning process, including the adoption of sequential steps in the teaching and learning process, namely context, experience, action, reflection and evaluation. These steps make IP more systematic and implementable in terms of the teaching and learning process than the pedagogical frameworks proposed by Ahmad Dahlan and Ki Hajar Dewantara.

Despite differences in the sources of those values, however, the values developed by Ahmad Dahlan, Ignatius Loyola and Ki Hajar Dewantara share several similarities, especially in terms of the pedagogical principles. In fact, the three leaders had advocated the implementation of a student-centered learning approach in the teaching and learning process. In the paradigm of IP for instance, Jesuit Institute (1993) underlined the importance of the dynamic relationship between teacher and learner. Thus, teachers are no longer in the position as the purveyors of knowledge and students are not the passive recipients of knowledge. Hence, IP encourages teachers to give experiences which are beyond the process of transferring information to students. Instead, according to Duminuco (2000), students are exposed to experiences through the use of complex learning skills such as understanding, application, analysis, synthesis and evaluation which can be achieved through sequential learning steps including context, experience, action, reflection and evaluation.

Similar to the Ignatian Pedagogical paradigm, the learning process proposed by Ahmad Dahlan also necessitates the use of a student-centered learning approach. As pointed out by Wirjosukarto (1962), education gives students freedom to ascertain phenomena by exploiting their own powers of judgment, thus positioning students as independent thinkers and students need to sit together to discuss the problems objectively (ibid, 1962). This suggests that student-centered learning modes such as discussion and group work are to be encouraged instead of a lecturing type of teaching.

Similar to the pedagogical paradigm proposed by Ignatius Loyola and Ahmad Dahlan, the pedagogical philosophy of Tamansiswa put forward by Ki Hajar Dewantara also encourages a student-centered learning approach. One of the essential principles of the Tamansiswa educational concepts is the ‘among’ system which positions teachers as the facilitators for students’ learning. The chief aim of this ‘among’ system is to enable students to become independent learners (Tjeje (1969). This indicates that students are active participants in the class.

The fact that the three internal values proposed by the three figures encourage the use of student-centered learning did not automatically lead to the successful implementation in the four EEDs. Of the three educational paradigms, the organizational value was implemented most successfully in EED II both in terms of the department’s policy and in the teaching and learning process. In terms of the policy, the IP had been aligned with the vision of the department. It was clearly stated in the vision that the department used IP as the educational approach in the teaching and learning process. It was also mentioned in the strategic plans that there was a program to raise the awareness of this paradigm to all lecturers. The HoD confirmed that EED II had received an award as the most successful department in the university in implementing the IP. This suggested that the lecturers had been aware and gained understanding of the IP. With regard to the teaching and learning process, IP was the most applicable in the teaching and learning process given that it offered a systematic process covering the five steps of context, experience, action, reflection and evaluation.

In EED I, IV and V, given that there was no systematic frameworks in terms of the learning process in the classroom offered by Ahmad Dahlan and Ki Hajar Dewantara, the implementation of the educational paradigm in the three EEDS was limited to implementation of the key

principles proposed by these two figures in the classroom and the inclusion of several subjects in the curriculum structure. With regard to the teaching and learning process, for instance, the HoD of EED I said that rather than using the lecturing style of teaching, lecturers had used teaching methods which promoted student participation. He also explained that the teaching methods used by lecturers had helped students to become independent learners, thus reflecting the pedagogical principle proposed by Ahmad Dahlan, stating that education should enable students to become independent learners (Wirjosukarto, 1962). The HoD of EED V also explained that his department had conducted programs to improve lecturers' skill in teaching using student-centered learning methods.

Similar to EED I and EED V, EED IV attempted to implement the key educational principles of Tamansiswa proposed by Ki Hajar Dewantara. The HoD said that the values of Tamansiswa were implementable in the teaching and learning process. In fact, with regard to the practical teaching and learning process, elements of student-centered learning approach had been encouraged by Dewantara. Dewantara suggested that to create an interesting classroom atmosphere, teachers could incorporate daily life situations familiar to students (Soeratman, 1985).

The constructivism approach in learning was also encouraged by Dewantara. According to him, teachers should encourage students to be independent in the learning process, to develop the capacity to ask questions and find the answers, to actively seek information through books and other learning resources (Soeratman, 1985). Teachers' responsibility was to 'motivate from behind' and to inspire their students (ibid, 1985). The idea of the constructivism approach proposed by Dewantara might reflect Anctil, et al.'s (2006) opinion that constructivism considers that learning should enable students to actively participate in constructing knowledge. Asked if all lecturers had applied the constructivism approach in their teaching, the HoD of EED IV and the lecturers felt that most of the lecturers had implemented it even though she acknowledged that the lecturers might consider this approach as a contemporary approach in English language teaching, not the principle proposed by Dewantara. The HoD said that when he had discussions with lecturers in informal and formal conversations, such as in meetings, he found that lecturers had used various methods to motivate students to construct knowledge through problem solving activities.

The HoD of EED IV and the two lecturers were also of the opinion that the element of the scaffolding teaching method was associated with the principle of 'ing madya mangun karsa' in which in the middle, teachers should encourage students' creativity and independence. In their opinion, as lecturers were required to make students creative, they themselves had to implement creative methods in teaching. One lecturer (L2D) mentioned that in the skill-based subjects such as writing, speaking, listening and reading, lecturers had creatively incorporated various media including texts, pictures and videos taken from the internet. This, according to him, reflected the lecturers' creativity in their teaching process.

Asked if the 'among methods' had been applied by lecturers, the HoD of EED IV and the two lecturers believed that most lecturers had implemented this system in the teaching and learning process. According to the HoD, the lecturers were encouraged to teach their students with various methods. Hence, as he pointed out, in the meeting, the department conducted a sharing program where lecturers can share their experiences in teaching. He said that every lecturer had tacit knowledge. He believed that lecturers could learn from each other if they were willing to share their implicit knowledge in the sharing program. Asked if the educational philosophy proposed by Dewantara had been implemented in the curriculum and teaching and learning process, the HoD and the two lecturers said that to a certain degree lecturers had implemented the philosophy of Tamansiswa. One lecturer (L1D), for instance, mentioned an example of how a writing or a reading lecturer used contextual learning in which she engaged students with everyday topics such as family and environmental issues in her subjects. Based on the content analysis of the documents, however, the organizational endeavours to inculcate the Tamansiswa principles to lecturers were absent, let alone to make Tamansiswa educational principles embedded in the lecturers' teaching approaches.

Compared to the other four EEDs, EED II seemed to be the most successful in incorporating the internal values into the curriculum. While EED I, IV and V had pedagogical values proposed by the founders of organization and were implemented in the teaching and learning process, the data from the curriculum documents and the classroom observation did not demonstrate any systematic teaching and learning strategies derived from the pedagogical principles offered by the founders of both organizations. Hence, the efforts of the three departments in incorporating

the internal values were based more on ‘common sense’ rather than a systematic and documented teaching and learning approach based on the internal values of the university.

Another issue raised concerning the adoption of the organizational values among the four EEDs was how these values were in line with the principles of CBC. Conceptually, the organizational values proposed by Ahmad Dahlan which were adopted in EED I and V might be in agreement with the principle of CBC. Both educational principles proposed by Ahmad Dahlan and CBC valued the significance of skill development. Competency-based programs, as distinct from content or input oriented, can be generally described as outcome-oriented and task-based. Smith and Keating (2003) divide the characteristics of the competency-based programs into nine and two of them are ‘based on competency-standards’ and ‘skills-based assessment rather than knowledge-based’. In a similar vein, Ahmad Dahlan said that skill development in education was important in order to equip Muslims with the competencies required to fulfill their worldly need (Salam, 1962). In practice, adherence to the CBC was more evident in EED I than in EED V. For example, complying with the CBC guidelines provided by the DGHE (2008), EED I adopted a parallel approach to its curriculum structure while EED V still used a sequential approach. Furthermore, the names of subjects listed in the curriculum structure of EED I reflected the skills and competency. In contrast, subjects in the curriculum structure of EED V reflected knowledge to be acquired, listed sequentially in which easier subjects were taught in the earlier semesters while more difficult subjects were placed in the later semesters.

An interesting finding was highlighted in EED II where the adoption of the internal values was both in agreement and disagreement with CBC principles. In terms of its compliance with the CBC, in the formulation offered by the International Center for Jesuit Education (in Mitchell, 2008), IP is a model that seeks to develop men and women of competence, conscience and compassion. In achieving its goals, the faculty accompanies students in their intellectual, spiritual and emotional journey through following the Ignatian pedagogical paradigm. According to Traub (2008), through consideration of the context of students’ lives, the faculty creates an environment where students recollect their past experience and assimilate information from new experiences. Students are also helped to learn the skills and techniques of reflection, which shapes their consciousness, and they are then challenged to action in the service to others. The evaluation process includes academic mastery as well as ongoing assessments of students’ well-

rounded growth as persons for others. Through the employment of these steps, according to Traub (2008), lecturers are expected to be active, creating a learning atmosphere where students can participate actively in the learning process. Traub's opinion was in agreement with the perspective of the head of department in EED II, stating that through the implementation of IP, lecturers were conditioned to take the role of a facilitator of students' learning, so she was of the opinion that the teaching and learning process in the IP was consistent with the student-centered learning approach proposed by the DGHE.

Another aspect of IP which was congruent with the concept of CBC was the development of the students' soft skills. The data taken from the interview indicated the incorporation of soft skills into the teaching and learning process. The head of the department, for example, pointed out that the two stages of IP, namely 'consciousness' and 'compassion', constituted the development of students' soft skills. She further explained, "So in our department, we not only enhance students' cognitive aspects but also affective aspects termed as 'conscience' and 'compassion'. You can clearly take a look at this syllabus. In the learning process, students not only engage with their intellectual development such as doing the quizzes to understand the learning materials but they also discuss and help each other so that they can enhance their soft skills such as communication skills". One student (S5) was also conscious of her soft skill development in the teaching and learning process. She explained,

As you know, we, as teacher candidates, should develop our professional, pedagogical, personal and social skills. I think this department has tried to develop those skills. I think soft skills are related to the personal and social skills and I feel that they have been developed in the teaching and learning process. Personally, I feel that my soft skills were developed through doing assignments in the discussion group. In fact, in the discussion I can learn how to engage with friends whom I like and I dislike, but I have to be able to collaborate with them all. Moreover, individual tasks also develop my soft skills and personality. Doing the tasks, I have to be a responsible person.

When asked to comment how she integrated the development of soft skills in the teaching and learning process, one lecturer (L1B) said that she attempted to use the learning context to enable students to develop their soft skills. She gave an example,

When students make a presentation, I ask them what manners an audience should have when a presenter was making a presentation. They will come up with some answers such as listening to the speaker, respecting the speaker, keeping the eyes contact, avoiding noise and talking among themselves, avoiding the use of cell phones etc. I think this is a simple, I mean to integrate the lesson with the development of soft skills.

The HoD was of the opinion that certain subjects not only equipped students with knowledge but also developed students' soft skills. She said, "In a subject, students should perform a drama. The goal is not only to encourage students to perform the play successfully but motivated them to learn how to express and act properly. And I think the ability to express and act with proper body language is vital for teachers. I think this is a very important soft skill".

The department also delivered a program called PPKM, standing for *Pelatihan Pengembangan Kepribadian Mahasiswa* (Training for Developing the Students' Character). As stated in the accreditation document, this program was aimed at shaping the students' character by developing their soft skills and improving their self-concept. The document also mentioned that the ultimate goal of this program was to enable students to achieve the required competence, conscience and compassion. This program was conducted in two stages. The first PPKM was done at the university level and the second PPKM was done at the department level. The facilitators of the programs were lecturers who were trained, assisted by students who were also trained before becoming co-facilitators.

The development of soft skills was also encouraged by the university by providing some student activities on campus. The HoD explained that a student should have minimally accumulated ten points showing his or her frequency in participating in campus activities prior to graduation. This point, according to the head of department, became mandatory and a part of the students' graduation requirement.

The last aspect of the IP paradigm which shared the principle developed in CBC was the assessment process. The data collected from the interview revealed that the assessment had covered both hard and soft skills. The HoD reflected, "As there are three areas we develop in the Ignatian pedagogy, namely competence, conscience and compassion, we not only assess the students' cognitive competence but also student's affective one. For example, we also take into account the students' honesty. Students' discipline is also involved in contributing to the students' final score. We see the students' discipline through their attendance. In our department, we have a rule that the minimum percentage of the students' attendance is 75%, or else they will get a 'failed' score in a particular subject. Moreover, we also consider their participation in the class. Their active participation in the class contributes to their final score. So, the final score of A, B, C and D is not only determined by the written test".

The test formats involving the mid semester test and the final semester test were still employed in the department. This was reported by one student (S105D). She explained, “In my department, however, the time for the mid-term test is flexible. It is not decided by the department but by lecturers. And I think this is good because we can discuss with lecturers whether or not we are ready for the test. If we are not ready, lecturers will give us more time to study and prepare for the test”.

Despite several elements which conformed to the CBC principles, the Ignatian pedagogical paradigm which was adopted in EED II was in conflict in several aspects with the CBC. For instance, the HoD said that the inclusion of several subjects related to humanities, theology and philosophy in the curriculum structure was intentional, reflecting a unique characteristic of the internal values of the department. This finding corroborates the ideas proposed by Farrell (1999), stating that the IP paradigm contained an explanation of the curriculum structure comprising a blend of humanities, the classics, the arts, and physical sciences as well as theology and philosophy. She further explained that the department still included many single subjects in the curriculum structure including a much greater proportion of literature and humanity-based subjects which she considered as being in conflict with the more competency-based approach. She stated that the literature-based subjects were instrumental in enhancing students’ reading skills. She also believed that the teacher’s competencies covering professional, pedagogical, personal and social competencies could be achieved through subjects in the curriculum structure.

The emergence of a conflict between the curriculum structure developed in EED II with the one proposed by DGHE supported Paris’ (1989) opinion concerning curriculum change was apparent. Studying the complex process of curriculum reform, Paris (1989) examined the involvement of conflicting interpersonal, historical and ideological contexts of the individuals and organizations in the change process. She found in her study that the fidelity perspective embraced by district-level administration requiring all educational institutions to follow the curriculum standard conflicted with the mutual adaptation and enactment perspective incorporated by an education institution. An interesting point that the HoD of EED II raised, however, was that the CBC proposed by the DGHE should be negotiable in its implementation, taking into account the uniqueness of each institution. She further elaborated that the DGHE should not force the departments to implement the curriculum which was exactly the same as

what was proposed so that the department was given room for innovation and the adoption of their uniqueness.

5.6 Problems in the Curriculum Implementation

All HoDs acknowledged that various problems had arisen from the very beginning in relation to the CBC implementation. From their perspectives, the problems were due to various factors including challenging new roles of lecturers and students in the CBC scheme (EED I, II, and V), lack of understanding of the CBC (EED V and EED IV), over-abundant documents in teaching and learning (EED I and II), lack of facilities to support the CBC (EED I and IV), different learning materials for different lecturers (EED V), integration of some subjects (EED II), assessment methods, fulfilling the demands of the job market, lack of involvement of stakeholders in developing the competencies, unclear trajectories in changing the curriculum structure, students' difficulty to graduate from the program (EED III), lecturers' absenteeism and the incorporation of soft skills (EED IV). The following table shows the problems generally highlighted by the heads of departments based on interview data:

Table 5.14: Problems in Implementing the CBC

EED	Problems
I	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • New active roles required for lecturers and students in CBC • Too many tools for assessments • Lack of facilities to support the CBC
II	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The integration of some subjects into one subject • New roles for lecturers and students • Abundant teaching and learning documents for lecturers
III	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Assessment methods • Fulfilling the job market demand • Lack of involvement of stakeholders in developing the competencies • Unclear trajectories in changing the curriculum structure • Students' difficulty to graduate from the departments
IV	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack of facilities • Lecturers' absenteeism • Partial adoption of soft skills development

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Unshared understanding of CBC
V	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Many lecturers still used teacher-centered learning • Unshared understanding of CBC • Lecturers still used different learning materials

In EED I, the first issue raised by the HoD was adapting to the CBC system. He listed two parties who should adapt to the teaching and learning process required by the CBC philosophy, namely lecturers and students. According to him, the main challenge facing students in the teaching and learning process was developing them into autonomous learners. “I feel that some students find it difficult to be more autonomous because I think they were not trained to be autonomous learners when they were in senior high school. In fact, the autonomous learning we use here triggers students to be very active. So those who are not active will be left behind”. The HoD’s opinion was confirmed by most of the students in the FGD. As an illustration, one student (S10A) explained that in the teaching learning process, not all students took an active participation in the classroom activities. He thought that this situation might be due to a failure of the teaching method which could not motivate students to be active. When asked how lecturers adapted the new CBC system, one lecturer (L1A) explained, “I think lecturers can adapt to the new system of CBC more easily because all of them are exposed to the current discourses of teaching and learning methods such as student- centered learning”.

The second issue is concerned with assessment. The HoD, supported by most of the students in the FGD, explained that a few lecturers were sometimes late in completing the assessment process because they had to deal with many assessment documents. Additionally, the final score was determined by the number of assignments which led lecturers to spend more time to check the students’ work.

Another issue related to facilities. The HoD acknowledged that the department had not provided the complete facilities to support the implementation of CBC. His statement was reiterated by most of the students in the FGD. For example, one student (S43A) was critical of the absence of proper facilities to support the learning process in the CBC setting. She explained that the CBC system in the department urged her to find and use many learning resources such as the Wi-Fi connection. “When we studied in the previous building, we had a good Wi-Fi connection, but

after we moved to the new building here, we don't have connection. So I find it difficult when I need to find some resources on line". In addition, she said that the CBC system requires students to use their own laptop to engage with the virtual learning resources. However, according to her, not all students can afford to buy their personal laptop. This also results in the difficulty of finding the learning resources.

In EED II, the first issue in the CBC implementation was integrating subjects into one subject. The HoD, for example, expressed the view that it was challenging to integrate two subjects into one subject because of the different characteristics of those subjects. She explained, "Integrating two subjects into a subject is not easy. For instance, we have *Critical Speaking and Listening*. This is a subject, combining critical speaking and critical listening, which I think challenging because the two subjects have a different nature. Another example is *Critical Reading and Writing*, which is a combination of two subjects, namely *Critical Reading* and *Critical Writing*. Before integrating, we have to think: how can one subject support another one? So we have to have a clear concept of integration first, which I think will enable us set up the learning goals more easily".

The second issue concerning the CBC implementation was the challenges facing lecturers and students. The HoD who was supported by one lecturer (L1B) felt that the CBC was an ideal concept on paper. However, in the real teaching and learning process, the success, according to her, depended on whether both lecturers and students are ready to implement it. The HoD explained, "I think, on the one hand, lecturers should understand well the frameworks and context of the CBC. For instance, in the CBC scheme, they should be ready to use the student-centered learning methods in teaching. On the other hand, students should also be ready to be independent learners".

Dealing with abundant documents was another issue. This concern was revealed during the interview with the HoD and the two lecturers. One lecturer (L2B) explained, "When we implement the CBC and especially IP, we deal with many documents. The information provided in the document here is very detailed. We have components like competence, conscience and compassion. We also have rubrics to assess all components. You can imagine if one lecturer teaches some subjects, he or she will deal with a lot of documents".

In EED III, the first issue raised in the CBC implementation was assessment. The HoD was of the opinion that lecturers were to change the ways they assess their students. “I think CBC requires a new way of assessment. We no longer assess the knowledge mastery, but the students’ ability to show their competencies”.

The second issue raised by the participants was the changing ‘market’ of the teaching profession. The HoD supported by the two lecturers said that a different era needed different teacher competencies. One lecturer (L1C) suggested that today’s teachers were expected to develop specific skills such as technological ones. The other lecturer (L2C) added that the department should be able to translate this challenge into an opportunity by developing a program which could cater to the changing market.

The third issue was associated with a lack of involvement of the stakeholders in the development of competencies. The HoD expressed her concern that when students did teaching practicums at schools, no significant feedback was given by the schools. He indicated the need for research which ascertained the perception of the schools on the students’ competencies when they practiced teaching in their schools. By this effort, he believed that the curriculum in the department and learning process could be improved.

The fourth issue related to the implementation of CBC was that there were no clear trajectories in the department to improve the curriculum structure. The two lecturers said that the changing of the curriculum structure only occurs to respond to an emerging problem. One lecturer (L1C) mentioned an example, “For instance, we are having a critical problem now, and you know our students finish their study late. We then think that it might be due to students’ insufficient writing skills. So we plan to place the subjects such as *Research Methodology* in the earlier semester rather than in the later semester like what we have now. The department also plans to reduce the number of subjects and create new subjects which can improve students’ writing skills so that they can finish their thesis on time”.

The fifth issue was the students’ difficulty in graduating from the department. This view was expressed by the HoD who was supported by the majority of students in the FGD. One student (S115C), for example, said, “I have met some students who have been studying here for eight years, but they haven’t graduated yet. I am wondering whether the source of the problem is the

students or the supervisors”. Another student (S105C) stated that the problems might emanate from the lecturers. She said that students sometimes found it difficult to have a consultation with lecturers on writing their thesis. The same student felt that some lecturers failed to develop positive communication with their students, especially in supervising the writing of the thesis. She said that some lecturers discouraged students’ motivation.

In EED IV, the first issue related to lack of facilities. Most of the students in the FGD explained that the laboratory was not equipped with computers although computers were a necessity for students. In addition, the majority of students in the FGD said that the books and reading resources for students were in short supply. When the HoD was asked why the department lacked such facilities, he stated that that the department did not have authority to provide the facilities. He said, “It’s the university’s responsibility to provide facilities. So what we can do is that we propose the facilities to the university”.

The lecturers’ absenteeism became the second issue in the department. Most of the students explained how some lecturers were absent without notifying students, nor did they give assignments and substitute the missing classes. One student (S67D) stated, “I think those lecturers are very busy and have projects outside the class. But I hope that they can understand that they have a responsibility to teach us”.

The third issue was related to the partial incorporation of the soft skills into the teaching and learning process. As explained by the HoD and the two lecturers, while some subjects in the curriculum structure contained the development of soft skills, they still emphasized the development of the cognitive domains. All subjects, according to them, should incorporate the development of students’ soft skills.

A fourth issue was concerned with the absence of guidance in implementing the CBC. This concern was expressed by the HoD and the two lecturers, stating that without guidance of how to implement the CBC in the teaching and learning process, lecturers had different understandings of the CBC concept. The HoD said “Due to their different perspectives, they also had different implementations in the classroom”. He was optimistic that through continued discussion and sharing, lecturers would arrive at the same perspective in understanding and implementing the CBC.

In EED V, the first issue associated with the implementation of CBC, according to the HoD, was related to the gap between the ideal goals written into the curriculum paper and its realization in the classroom. He often felt that the CBC concept was good on paper, yet it had not been implemented properly in the teaching and learning process. He observed that some learning process was still lecturer-centered. This meant, according to him, that the success of the CBC implementation would be aided by an effective evaluation.

The issue concerning the learning materials was also raised by the two lecturers. They stated that the lecturers still used their own learning materials. Hence, they indicated the needs of the standardized course books and learning materials. According to them, the use of the same course books would ease and standardize the assessment. One lecturer (L1E) said, “When each lecturer has his or her own teaching materials and course books, it is rather difficult to monitor and control”, he said.

The next issue, according to the HoD and supported by the two lecturers was related to a lack of shared vision of the CBC among lecturers. The HoD said that more frequent programs to raise the awareness of the CBC implementation should be conducted. He explained, “I think if we fail to reach a shared understanding in implementing CBC, other problems will come up. For instance, the CBC concept encourages the use of independent learning and independent learning should be facilitated by a good standard of resources. But in fact, our learning resources are not adequate. We still lack books and journals”. As a result, he said that many lecturers often asked students to find free journal articles from Google.

The findings suggest that the problems which challenged the five EEDs in implementing the curriculum were related to the curriculum, teaching and learning process, lecturer’s attitude and facilities. The major problem concerning the implementation of the CBC curriculum was in the lack of readiness of academic staff to shift their CBC paradigm and its consequences, including the application of quality teaching and learning. In fact, one important component of quality assurance which had become the responsibility of the HoDs was ensuring teaching quality. According to McAlpine and Harris (2002), teaching and learning covers a series of aspects, including curriculum design, learning facilities, the management of courses and programs and the overall activities surrounding it such as the academic discipline, professional development of the teaching staff and academic leadership. This suggests that from the academic staff’s

perspective, as tertiary teachers, they were expected to continuously develop their knowledge and link the knowledge that they teach with the world of work. Furthermore, they also needed to understand and utilize the latest theory and research in the field of teaching and learning and be able to incorporate innovative practices into the curriculum, learning and assessment.

To address the problems, the HoDs said that the department had made numerous efforts to enhance the teaching and learning process through the improving of learning materials, teaching methods, the use of learning technology, evaluation methods, an introduction to the world of work to the students through internship programs and teaching practices at schools, the provision of fast internet connection and technology in the classroom learning, including audio, videos and computers.

The lecturer absence in EED IV presented an interesting finding because such a case usually happened in Indonesian schools, not in tertiary education institutions. Based on a study conducted by Chaudhury et al. (2006), the absence rate of primary school teachers in Indonesia was one of highest in the world. When interviewed, the HoD said that he had not identified the causes of the lecturers' absence. He only assumed that the absence was because lecturers had other jobs or projects. The HoD explained that to overcome the problem, he usually wrote 'a warning letter' to the absent lecturers and reported them to the dean of the faculty. The HoD's response indicated that he had not addressed the sources of the problems and were unable to overcome the problem based on the causes. Since lecturers' absence affects educational quality, proper approaches to overcome the main causes of the problems needed to be addressed by the department.

5.7 Summary

Although the HoDs, lecturers and students in all five case studies had similar understanding in several aspects of the CBC, they also had different views in other aspects of this curriculum. In terms of their shared understanding, in all five departments the key words of competencies as the 'aim' and 'target' of the curriculum were used in explaining the definition of CBC. However, the HoDs supported by the opinions of lecturers and students also expressed their view on CBC differently. They generally associated the CBC with 'a set of competencies', 'paradigm shift in

teaching and learning process’, ‘the development of hard and soft skills’ as well as ‘cognitive and affective domains’.

The shared understanding on the CBC among lecturers was considered vital by HoDs in all five case studies. Hence, since the CBC inception, according to the HoDs, all five EEDs had conducted sharing sessions and meetings to raise the awareness and understanding of CBC among lecturers.

Regarding the formulation of the graduate competencies, all five EEDs shared similarities in their core graduate competencies, all covering the four teachers’ graduate competencies including pedagogical, professional, personal and social competencies. However, each EED had differences in the formulation of the ‘supporting’ and ‘other’ competencies. With regard to the supporting competencies, EED I equipped its graduates with ICT skills as well as entrepreneurial competencies while EED II wanted its graduates to possess research and entrepreneurial competencies. Additionally, the same department also included the ability to appreciate literature as its supporting competencies. EED III, on the other hand, equipped their graduates with abilities to develop materials for English for Specific Purposes and to conduct research in the area of English language teaching. The ‘supporting competencies’ of the graduates in EED IV were the abilities in translation, English for children and entrepreneurship while the supporting competencies of the graduates in EED V included the ability in translation, English for journalism, English for children and English for tourism.

The five departments also stated in their accreditation documents that they included the ‘other competencies’ to give their graduates unique skills. In terms of these competencies, EED I and EED V wanted to produce graduates who were able to internalize and demonstrate Islamic values in their professional practice while EED II wanted their graduates to possess the ability to teach English for children and the ability to teach Bahasa Indonesia to foreigners. EED III, on the other hand, expected that their graduates were able to teach English for children, use English in business, teach English as a foreign language and translate the English language while EED IV equipped their graduates to have abilities to internalize and implement the principles of ‘Tamansiswa’, the educational philosophy proposed by the founder of the university.

With respect to the curriculum structure, four departments, namely EED II, III, IV and V, used a sequential approach for their curriculum structure in which the subjects were arranged hierarchically according to the complexity of the subjects with the less complex subjects in the earlier semesters and the more complex ones in the later semesters. Furthermore, many subjects in the earlier semesters were the prerequisites for subjects in the later semester. EED I, by contrast, implemented the parallel approach in its curriculum structure. Subjects in the curriculum structure were not arranged hierarchically based on the complexity. Instead, one subject was the amalgamation of several subjects to reach certain competencies. Different from other departments, the curriculum structure developed in EED I was in line with the approach suggested by the DGHI in its guidelines of CBC. Despite similarities and differences of the five departments in terms of the formulation of their graduate competencies, EED II was the only department which classified the subjects in the curriculum structure into groups of teachers' core, supporting and other competencies.

The subjects contained in the curriculum structure of the four departments had a relatively similar number of credits for the subjects in the curriculum structure, except EED II which had the most number of credits, namely 181 credits. EED II also had the most credits for their core subjects (169 credits) outnumbering other departments, including EED I (138 credits), EED IV (121 credits), EED V (118 credits) and EED III (103 credits). All departments had met the criteria of the minimum number of credits (144 credits) for the students to graduate from a bachelor program in the NSHE (2014).

As a result of the different credits, students also had different workloads in the five departments. As has been touched upon before, the NSHE stipulated that the maximum workload for students was 20 credits per semester, which was equivalent to 54 hours a week. Based on this criterion, students in EED II had the most workload. In the eight semesters they had more than 20 credits, surpassing the maximum hours of students' workload stated in the NSHE (2014). Furthermore, in the third, fourth and sixth semester students in the same department had 26 credits. In EED I, III, IV and V, students had the maximum 20 credits in four semesters, meeting the ideal criterion stated in the NSHE (2014) but had more than 20 credits in four other semesters.

Related to the incorporation of the organizational values into the curriculum, EED II seemed to be the most successful compared to other departments. The incorporation of the internal values

in EED I, IV and V was limited to the inclusion of subjects based on the ideas proposed by the founders of the universities. In EED II the internal values called IP had been systematically implemented in the teaching and learning process.

Regarding the problems in the CBC implementation, the HoDs, lecturers and students contended that numerous problems had emerged in the CBC implementation. In five English departments, the problems included the new roles of lecturers as learning facilitators and students as active learners in the CBC scheme (EED I, II and V), unshared understanding of the CBC (EED IV and V), too many documents in teaching and learning (EED I and II), lack of facilities to support the CBC (EED I and IV), different learning materials for different lecturers (EED V), integration of some subjects (EED II), assessment methods, fulfilling the job market demand, lack of involvement of stakeholders in developing the competencies, unclear trajectories in changing the curriculum structure, students' difficulty to graduate from the departments (EED III), lecturers' absenteeism and the incorporation of soft skills (EED IV). The five EEDs had made significant efforts to address the problems.

CHAPTER 6 • EVALUATION OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE CURRICULUM: PERSPECTIVES OF LECTURERS AND STUDENTS

In order to enhance the quality of higher education in Indonesia, the Minister of Education and Culture issued regulation number 49 in 2014 on the National Standard of Higher Education (NSHE). According to this regulation, the NSHE aims to: 1) guarantee the quality of higher education which plays a strategic role in the development of the nation, the enhancement of knowledge and technology based on the value of the humanities as well as the continuing empowerment of the Indonesian people and 2) ensure the quality of the learning process, research, and community service. The scope of the national Education Standard included the standards of graduate competencies, learning content, learning process, lecturers, facilities, education management as well as finance and budgeting. In fact, lecturers and students are the two significant components as they are the key players in the teaching and learning process. Jalal et al. (2009) maintain that the quality of students is largely determined by the quality of lecturers. Similarly, the poor quality of lecturers can lead to the poor quality of graduates. Hence, the quality of lecturers can improve the overall quality of education.

This chapter focuses on the perspective of both the lecturers and students on the teaching and learning process. The teaching and learning practice based on the field observations will also be presented and discussed. Additionally, three elements which were considered significant in enhancing the graduate competencies of the five case studies will be discussed including the development of the soft skills and assessment practices.

6.1 The Teaching and Learning Process

EED I, III, IV and V were found to share a similar teaching and learning vision in their curriculum blueprint in that they applied the student centered-learning approach in the teaching learning process. The perception of the HoDs, lecturers and students further reflected their inclination toward this learning approach. As an illustration of the support for and agreement with the student-centered learning approach, the HoD of EED I commented that student-centered learning was the cornerstone of the teaching and learning process in his department as he believed that this approach would activate students' creativity and critical thinking. A more elaborated explanation is given in EED I's accreditation document concerning the blueprint of its

teaching and learning process. The document states that in teaching, lecturers should adopt the cognitivist approach that was based on the understanding that every student has intellectual and emotional potential. According to one lecturer (L2A), to be active learners they must observe, ask, process, present information and knowledge in the learning process. Another point which was highlighted in the document was that lecturers should help their students to be autonomous learners. This meant, according to another lecturer (L1A), that lecturers were required to use teaching methods which could encourage students to learn independently and be able to seek and use information resources for learning and have motivation to learn.

L1A was convinced that her department had implemented the student-centered learning advocated by the DGHE. She explained that in complying with the student-centered learning, she had attempted to use various teaching methods which allowed students to work independently, to work with others and to solve the problems.

Lecturers were also aware of the paradigm shift in the pedagogical approach toward student-centered learning. Comments from lecturers which illustrated their perception of supports and benefits of the student-centered learning included the following,

The student-active learning approach would encourage students to think and to learn, to encourage the lecturers to be facilitators and to motivate students to become autonomous learners (L1A)

Similarly, one lecturer in EED III (L1B) said that the lecturing method where lecturers spent considerable time talking in front of the class was no longer suitable in the CBC scheme. Another lecturer (L2B) from the same department added that lecturers should become facilitators in the class and motivating students was considered by him as an important skill for a lecturer.

Most of the interviewed students in the focus group discussion (FGD) also commented favorably on the use of the student-centered learning approach, indicating their support for their departments. However, a few students were critical of the fact that not all lecturers used the teaching methods associated with the student-centered learning approach. One student in EED III, for instance, said, “There were not many lecturers who could encourage students to be active in the class” (S67C). Another student also remarked, “Lecturers teaching theoretical subjects still tend to use the lecturer-centered learning (S13C) but most of the lecturers teaching the English skills have used the student-centered learning”.

EED II, as stated in its accreditation document, implements a variety of instructional strategies and techniques that challenge and encourage students to think critically and to explore, create and experiment, utilizing all learning resources. The learning process in EED II refers to the 'quality manual book of the learning process in 2008'. In the learning process, each lecturer uses lesson plans, teaching materials and instructional media that have been prepared.

The Distinctive Feature of the Teaching and Learning Process in EED II

The distinctive feature of its teaching and learning process was the use of the Ignatian Pedagogy (IP) in EED II. As has been touched upon before, IP is based on spiritual exercises practiced by St. Ignatius of Loyola, the founder of the Society of Jesus, or better known as the Jesuit who completed the first version of the 'Ratio Studiorum' (Latin for Plan of Studies) in the year 1599. The following example taken from the document report shown by L1B illustrates how the subject of 'Structure 1' was taught using the IP paradigm.

The first step is called 'understanding the context. The first activity of this step was identifying the English level of the students who come from different hometowns and schools in Indonesia. The lecturer asked each student to introduce him or herself in front of the class. In the second activity, the lecturer asked the students to write about themselves on a piece of paper and the writing was then submitted to the lecturer. When asked about the importance of these activities, L1B stated that with the student's short introduction she would have a better understanding of her students' background and English level. She further said that as a lecturer, understanding the personal and social context of students was important to help her in choosing the language levels when teaching her students.

After explaining the importance of the students' introductory activities, L1B then showed the samples of students' writing. The following are verbatim samples of the students' writing:

Hello miss, I'm so happy today. I'm A, from Flores, NTT. I feel, I'm more fat man in this classroom. Miss, sorry because my structure not good.

My name is C. My friends call me....I am from east nusatenggara. I have black curly hair, black eyes. I am a simple guy and try my best to follow this class. I have ever failed in my first time studying at this department, so now I am trying my best to complete and finish it.

The second part of understanding the context was the introduction of the subject, namely Structure 1. In this part, the lecturer asked the students to recall their prior knowledge on English structure they had obtained in senior high school. For example, the first chapter of the subject of the Structure 1 was 'Parts of speech'. To recall the students' prior knowledge on 'Parts of speech', L1B explained that she asked her students to mention things around the class and to describe their feelings: "Mention things around you!", "How do you feel today?" Then students were to categorize which word belongs to which part of speech.

L1B said that the process of introducing the subject is challenging. One factor which made this process difficult was the various levels of students' English ability. She described that some students were not familiar with such terms as 'nouns', 'countable nouns' and 'uncountable nouns'. Consequently, as she asserted, the learning process was slowed up because some learning materials should be repeated to ensure the students' improved understanding.

The second step in L1B's lesson plan was giving experience. According to her, giving experience in the 'Structure 1' aimed to strengthen the foundational knowledge of the simple sentence patterns to students. She explained that she attempted to give a different experience in each meeting to avoid boredom. According to her, generally the learning process was divided by two processes, namely discussing the material and doing tasks. She stated, "The discussion of materials involved class presentation and small group discussion, whereas the exercise consisted of both verbal and written tasks done individually and collaboratively". The tasks given to students included identifying parts of speech in sentences, writing the pattern of the sentences, analyzing the noun phrases, correcting the mistakes in the subject-verb agreement and choosing the correct pronouns in sentences.

When asked how the lecturer monitored the students' understandings, L1B responded that the students' understanding in one meeting was monitored through the use of a small quiz at the beginning of the next meeting. She said that she allocated five to ten minutes for students to complete a quiz. After the students completed the quiz, she asked the students to exchange their

work with other students and they had to mark their friends' work. According to her, by correcting other work, the students' understanding of the materials learned was strengthened. Furthermore, as she explained, the students could also learn how to be honest in giving the correct score.

The third step is doing reflection. Reflection, according to LIB, was the stage for students to internalize their experience and feelings during the teaching and learning process. As she pointed out, in the reflection process, students were required to express their opinions, feelings, challenges and problems in understanding the materials. She further explained that she used two kinds of reflection. While showing the teaching documents, in the reflection activities, there were nine questions which should be answered by the students. The questions were divided into four parts. The first part (question number 1-5) asked the students' understanding of the learning materials. The second part (question number 6) asked about the quality of the communication process between the students and lecturer. The third part (question number 7) dealt with students' own reflections which required honesty in answering. The fourth part (question number 9) asked about the students' planning of the next learning process. The following were the questions in the reflection:

1. *What was the assignment?*
2. *Do I understand parts of the assignment and how they connect?*
3. *When did I do this before?*
4. *Where could I use this again?*
5. *Were the strategies I used effective for this assignment?*
6. *Did I do an effective job of communicating my learning to others?*
7. *What have I learned about my strength?*
8. *What do I need to improve?*
9. *What should I do next?*

LIB then showed the following samples of three answers from students for the first reflection:

Question: "Do I understand parts of the assignment and how they connect?"

Answer: "Nor Really". "Yes I do. But there is a part of assignment that I don't understand yet, such as the differences between nominal group and pronominal group in noun phrase".

Question: "Did I do an effective job of communicating my learning to others?"

Answer: “Yes, I did. I try my best”.

In the reflection, L1B reflected on what she had experienced and felt during the teaching and learning process. The first lecturer’s note of her reflection was that some students were confused about what they would write because they did not understand the questions in the reflection. Additionally, some students gave very short answers to the questions, such as ‘not really’. She explained that such students were not serious in the reflection process. L1B said, “The second reflection is entitled ‘My personal reflection’. Based on the first reflection, the questions in the second reflection were made simpler so as to allow students to understand them more easily”.

The fourth step is ‘taking action’. According to her (L1B), taking action was the stage where students demonstrated their understanding of the learning materials. According to her, in this stage, the lecturers asked students to do both individual and group assignments. She stated that there were two kinds of assignment for students. First, students should make a mind map summarizing the topic about ‘phrases’. This assignment was submitted prior to the mid-semester test. Hence, the first assignment was used to prepare students to establish understanding of the learning materials so they were ready for their mid-semester test. Done in groups, the first assignment was also meant to encourage students to learn collaboratively.

L1B added that for the second assignment, students should summarize all the learning materials they had studied for one semester. She explained that the summary should be made in an interesting way so that it could create an impression that structure was fun. The assignment was done in small groups to assist students to prepare their final semester test.

The fifth step is evaluation. According to L1B, evaluation was used to assess the learning achievement of students comprising three aspects, namely competence, conscience and compassion. Based on L1B’s teaching documents, for evaluating competence for the subject of ‘structure 1’, there were five scores, namely A (80-100), B (70-79), C (58-69), D (50-57) and E (0-49). The assessment tools used involved quizzes, progress test 1, progress test 2, and final test. The types of the tests, according to L1B, were multiple choice ones.

In addition to the evaluation of the competence aspects, as explained by L1B, two other aspects were evaluated in the teaching and learning process, namely the conscience and compassion aspects. These two aspects contributed 10% to the students’ final score. According to her, the

inclusion of conscience aspects in the teaching and learning process was aimed at developing students' discipline, honesty and openness. She said, "Students' discipline was assessed using the frequency of students' attendance in the class during one semester and the students' honesty was assessed when students do the test, peer-review their friends' work and express their feelings in the reflective writing". The compassion aspect was assessed through lecturers' observation of the students' activity in class. Observing students in discussion and group work, lecturers identified students' willingness to share knowledge and help other students to solve the problems in learning.

It was also stated in L1B's syllabus that the three dimensions of competence, conscience and compassion were given indicators to demonstrate the target of each aspect in each lesson. The following table shows the three aspects and the indicators of each aspect in lesson 1 and lesson 2:

Table 6.1: Indicators of the subject 'Structure I'

Lesson	Basic competence	Indicators
Lesson 1: Course orientation Parts of Speech Basic Sentence Pattern	a. Competence: students are able to understand the parts of speech and simple patterns.	Students are able to: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Identify types of words. • Identify basic pattern of English sentences. • Compose English simple sentences correctly.
	b. Conscience: students were expected to act honestly and openly.	Students are able to: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Identify the values of honesty in the learning process. • Express opinion about them frankly and honestly.
	c. Compassion: Students are able to fulfill their roles in the group work.	Students are able to help others who have difficulty in learning and doing tasks.
Lesson 2: Phrase Structure	a. Competence: students are able to understand the types of English phrases.	Students are able to: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Find the phrase types in the texts. • Identify types of English phrases accurately. • Compose English phrases verbally and in written form.
	b. Conscience: students are able to be aware of their capacity in learning the structure of English phrases.	Students are able to: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Express their difficulty in understanding the lesson and doing the tasks. • Ask questions to their friends and lecturers.
	c. Compassion: Students are	• Students are able to share their

	able to share with other students.	knowledge and understanding of the lesson to their friends.
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Source: Accreditation documents of EED II

Table 6.1 shows the basic competences and the indicators demonstrating the achieved competences in the basic competence of lesson 1 and lesson 2. As can be seen from the table, the lesson involved orientation, Parts of Speech and Basic Sentence Patterns. The basic competence (lesson one and lesson two) refers to the targeted competences upon the completion of the lessons. The indicators demonstrated abilities of their achieved basic competencies.

As can be seen in Table 6.1, the lesson plan stated the basic competencies and the indicators of their achievement, thus corresponding to one of the key features of the competency-based program outlined by Smith and Keating (2003). The three elements in the basic competencies covered ‘competence’, ‘conscience’ and ‘compassion’. As explained in the indicators column, the ‘competence’ described the discipline-specific skills in this English education department such as abilities to identify phrases and words. ‘Conscience’ and ‘compassion’ seemed to refer to attitudinal and dispositional qualities. Both discipline-specific skills and attitudinal qualities, according to Bowden et al. (2000), are two elements of the graduate attributes in the competency-based programs. The lesson plan of structure I which used the Ignatian Pedagogy paradigm, therefore, reflected important elements of the competency-based program. Moreover, the use of the reflection activities in the learning process encouraged students to assess and improve their own understanding and learning. Sturgis (2012) asserts that students in the CBC take an active part in their own learning.

Despite the inclusion of discipline-specific skills and attitudinal qualities in the lesson plan, however, the tasks given to students still focused on the mastery of knowledge rather than the improvement of skills. Moreover, the task types such as identifying part of speech in sentences, writing the pattern of the sentences, analyzing the noun phrases, correcting the mistakes in the subject-verb agreement and choosing the correct pronouns in sentences did not correlate with the principles in the competency-based language learning. The tasks still focused on what learners knew, hence contradicting with the principles of the tasks in the competency-based language teaching in which the tasks should focus on what learners do (Smith and Patterson, 1998). “The activities in the competency-based language teaching classroom must be oriented toward the ability to complete a real-world task” (Griffith and Lim, 2014). Additionally, since the formats

of the assessment were multiple choice tests, it was less authentic. According to Griffith and Lim (2014), authentic assessments “require the use of knowledge and skills to complete a task and measurement of real-world tasks”.

6.2. The Use of Student-Centered Learning Modes

In its guidelines for the implementation of CBC in higher education institutions published in 2008, the DGHE proposed some student-centered learning modes for use in classroom practice. The common perception of the HoDs and lecturers in EED I, II, III, and IV was that they had applied the student-centered learning approach. This perception was also supported by the data taken from a survey to a number of lecturers in the five departments. The survey asked about the frequency use of the eight learning modes proposed by the DGHE in its CBC guideline (DGHE, 2008). Eight statements in the survey were asked of lecturers in the five EEDs to verify the frequency of occurrence of the following learning modes: 1) small group discussion; 2) simulation and role plays; 3) discovery learning; 4) self-directed learning; 5) cooperative and collaborative learning; 6) contextual instruction; 7) project-based learning and 8) problem-based learning (DGHE, 2008).

The statements contained in the survey schedule included: 1) I ask student to discuss the tasks in groups (small group discussion); 2) I use role plays to encourage students to learn (role play and simulation); 3) I ask students to search or gather information in order to construct the knowledge in the assignments (discovery learning); 4) I ask students to be responsible for (plan, carry out, evaluate) their own learning (self-directed learning); 5) I ask students to cooperate and collaborate to solve the problems in groups (cooperative and collaborative learning); 6) I ask the students to actualize the theories in the real situation (contextual learning); 7) I ask the students to do the project (project-based learning) and 8) I encourage students to identify problems and its solution in the discussion (problem-based learning).

The findings of the survey are presented in Table 6.2:

Table 6.2: The application of the learning modes in student-centered learning in the five EEDs (percentages)

No.	Statements	EED						Average percentage in Each EED
		1(n:10) 2(n:7) 3(n:11) 4(n:15) 5(n:12)	Never (1)	Rarely (2)	Sometimes (3)	Often (4)	Very often (5)	
1	I ask student to discuss the tasks in groups (Small Group Discussion)	I				4	6	92%
		II					7	85.71%
		III			1	4	6	89.1%
		IV			2	7	6	85.33%
		V			4	5	3	78.33%
	Average						86.1 %	
2	I use role plays to encourage students to learn (Role Play and Simulation)	I			3	5	2	78%
		II	2		4	1		51.42%
		III	2		3	2	4	70.91%
		IV	1		5	6	3	73.33%
		V	1		8	2	1	63.33%
	Average						67.40%	
3	I ask students to search or gather information in order to construct the knowledge in the assignments (Discovery Learning)	I				2	8	96%
		II				2	5	94.29%
		III			1	5	5	87.27%
		IV				6	9	92%
		V			3	6	3	80%

	Average							89.91%
4	I ask students to be responsible for (plan, carry out, evaluate) their own learning (Self-Directed Learning)	I			2	4	4	84%
		II	1			4	2	77.14%
		III		1	4	2	4	76.37%
		IV			3	5	7	85.33%
		V			8	3	1	68.33%
	Average							78.23%
5	I ask students to cooperate and collaborate to solve the problems in groups (Cooperative and Collaborative Learning)	I				2	8	96%
		II					7	100%
		III			1	6	4	85.46%
		IV			2	5	8	88%
		V			4	6	2	76.67%
	Average							89.23%
6	I ask the students to actualize the theories in the real situation (Contextual learning)	I			1	5	4	86%
		II			1	3	3	85.71%
		III			3	3	5	83.64%
		IV			2	6	7	86.67%
		V			7	3	2	71.67%
	Average							82.74%
7	I ask the students to do projects (Project-based learning)	I			2	4	4	84%
		II			1	3	3	85.71%
		III			1	7	3	83.64%
		IV			2	7	6	85.33%
		V	1		5	6		66.67%
	Average							81.1%

8	I encourage students to identify problems and its solution in the discussion (Problem-based learning)	I		1		6	3	82%
		II			1	3	3	85.71%
		III			2	3	6	87.27%
		IV			2	5	8	88%
		V			4	5	3	78.33%
	Average							84.27%
	Total average of all learning modes							82.37 %

Table 6.2 shows that the total average in the use of all learning modes was 82.37 per cent as a percentage of the average response on a 5 point scale. This means that in the perspective of the surveyed lecturers, the eight student-centered learning approaches had been used by the majority of the surveyed lecturers in all five EEDs. With regard to the popularity of the learning modes, Discovery Learning was the most popular among the surveyed lecturers in the five institutions (89.91 %). Cooperative and Collaborative Learning was the second most popular in which 89.23 of lecturers in the survey had implemented it. The third most popular learning mode was Small Group Discussion (87.25 %), followed by Problem-based Learning (84.27 %), Contextual Learning (82.74 %), Project-based Learning (81.7 %), and Self-directed Learning (78.23 %). Role Play and Simulation had the lowest level of regular use (67.40 %).

Of the five institutions, EED I had the highest percentage in the implementation of the student-centered learning approach (87.25 per cent) followed by EED IV (85.50%), EED II (83.21), EED III (82.91%) and EED V (72.98%). The fact that EED I had the highest percentage in the use of the student-centered learning modes suggested that there was consistency between the curriculum format and its implementation. Since its establishment, as pointed out by the HoD, EED I had used the CBC including the parallel approach of their curriculum format and the student-centered learning modes. On the contrary, the low percentages in EED V indicated that there was low awareness among lecturers in the use of the student-centered learning modes advocated in the CBC although the HoD said that the program of sharing sessions of the CBC had frequently been conducted through lecturers' meetings and discussions.

Interview with the HoDs , lecturers and students in all five institutions revealed that they favored the use of student-centered learning modes. The following comments illustrated the participants' conviction of the use of the student-centered learning modes in their department from the HoD of EED I,

Student-active learning approaches are the cornerstone in the teaching learning process as students become more active and have critical thinking (HoD of EED I).

Similarly, from the HoD of EED II,

Most of the lecturers had used the student-centered learning modes in the class (HoD of EED II).

Also, from a lecturer (L1) teaching at EED III,

Lecturing was no longer suitable for CBC class (L1).

As well, from the HoD of EED IV,

Lecturers should be able to create a learning atmosphere where students participate actively in the class.

And from one lecturer in EED V

A lecturer should be able to create a learning atmosphere where students participate actively in the class (L1).

However, in EED I, III, and V their belief in the application of the student-centered learning model as revealed in the survey results and interviews with the HoDs and lecturers did not coincide with the perception of several students. For instance, one student in the third semester (S113A) in EED I said, "Students were only active in the class", while one student in the sixth semester from EED III pointed out that there were not many lecturers who would encourage students to be active in the class". Similarly, one student in the seventh semester (S57E) in EED V reported that not all lecturers were willing to adopt student-centered learning modes in the class. In EED II and IV, students expressed more positive comments in that most of the lecturers had used the student-centered learning modes in the class. While students' comments did not represent the perception of the whole population, they conveyed significant feedback for lecturers in EED I, III and V to align their teaching with the learning modes promoted in the CBC.

6.3 Observation of the Lecturers' Teaching Practice

In addition to the interviews with the two lecturers in the five EEDs, their teaching performance in the classroom was also observed. The observation was aimed at understanding how their teaching techniques had accommodated the student-centered learning modes.

6.3.1 EED 1

A. First observation

The first observation was for the subject “Curriculum Design” taught by a female lecturer. She had earned her undergraduate degree in the English Department of an Indonesian state university and her master degree in TESOL (Teaching English as a Foreign Language) from a university in the United States of America. She has been teaching English in the department for three years. However, before that, she had taught English at the Language Training Center at the same university from 2004.

The lecturer greeted students with the Islamic greeting, “Assalamu’allaikum warrahmatullaahi wabarrakatu”. The students answered the greeting, also with the customary Islamic reply. Then, the students were asked to recite the Qur’an together. After reciting the Qur’an one student read the translation in English while other students listened to the reading of the translation.

After reciting the Qur’an in Arabic, the lecturer said verbatim, “Hi guys, do you still remember what you have read?, Do you have any question on what you have read?. Now, I will give you two minutes to think of one question you will ask from the reading. Just think, OK, don’t write it down!” Then, for two minutes, students thought of a question they would ask.

The lecturer then asked the students to stand up. “OK guys, please stand up and move from your chairs. All right, move away. Come to the front. OK come on, go go go. It’s time for counting from one to two”. Following the lecturer’s direction, students started counting alternatively from one to two. After the students had finished counting, the lecturer grouped the students into two lines in the ‘face to face’ position. The students counting number 1 faced those counting number 2”. The lecturer continued, “OK, after you join your group, for the members of group 1, please ask a question you have prepared to the person in front of you in the group 2. For group 2, please

give the best answer to him or her”. The lecturer then asked the students in group 2 to take turns, asking questions to those in group 1, and the students in group 1 should answer the questions.

The ask and answer session which was done by students while standing up facing each other lasted for 5 minutes, three minutes more than planned. After directing them to finish the ‘ask and answer session’, the lecturer commented, “OK, all right. Have you told your friend and answered your question? Do you still have a question? What answer to your question don’t you get?”. “What is textbook, Miss?”, a student asked. “What is top down listening, Miss?”, asked another student. Replying to the students’ questions, the lecturer said, “OK, before I go on and answer these questions, I am just to tell you what activities we are going to do now. We are going to discuss the reading that you read. By discussing, you are going to develop knowledge from the reading. OK, does anyone want to share opinions about this?”

Triggered by a question asked by their lecturer, students seemed enthusiastic in asking some questions. When students asked the question, the lecturer did not answer it directly. Rather, she gave chances for students to answer the question. For instance, the lecturer asked, “What is ESP, guys?” One student answered, “English for Specific Purpose, Miss”. Not answering this question, the lecturer encouraged other students to try to give an answer, “Yes, English for Specific Purposes, but what does it meant? Anyone can help”.

In addition to using the ‘stand up discussion’ and ask and answer sessions, the lecturer also used the round table discussion. She did not give the questions to be discussed, but she used one of the students’ questions as the problems to be discussed, namely “what are the criteria of a good textbook?”

There were six discussion groups consisting of five students. The students in each group sat on their chairs in a circle. The group elected one chairperson to lead the discussion and one note taker to jot down the results of the discussion. While students discussed the question, the lecturer went around, monitoring the discussion. She encouraged the students in the groups who were silent to speak up and to give opinions. Having finished the discussion, the students made a presentation based on the results of their discussion. Each group was represented by a speaker

chosen by group members. At the end of the class, the lecturer asked each student to reflect on what they had read and discussed by writing on the blog provided by the lecturer.

Based on the follow up interview after the observation, the difficulty the lecturer found in the teaching and learning process was that there was a gap between ‘smart’ students and ‘slow’ students. She explained that she was happy that some smart students could participate actively in the discussion, but for the slow students, she needed to work hard to keep encouraging them to speak and give their opinions.

The observation of the first lecturer (L1A) indicated some classroom innovations using the context of student-centered learning. Since the beginning of the class, L1A preferred asking questions to dominating the class with her lecturing style which made clear that the students were in charge. This was in line with Weimer’s (2002) perspective that lecturers in the student-centered classroom distribute the ‘balance of power’ by activating and empowering students. L1A’s asking questions in English had also encouraged students to use their speaking skills in the learning process. L1A described her role as the facilitator of the students’ learning, saying that as a facilitator her job was guiding students in learning.

The L1A’s initiative to use various classroom activities, including discussions in pairs and in small groups, demonstrated that the lecturer was not preoccupied with teaching. Instead through activities, students became actively engaged in the learning process. The choice to use discussion rather than lecturing, according to L1A, was not only to recall the information students had learnt but also to motivate them to express themselves orally and to cooperate with others in solving the problems. According to Wright (2011), in the learner-centered classroom, the lecturers’ focus is not on the tasks teachers needed to do in order to prepare the class presentation but on the tasks students need to perform in order to learn the learning material.

The requirement for students to write on the internet blog, according to L1A, had two advantages, namely to make students familiar with the ICT and to encourage students to reflect what they had learnt, thereby, learning to be responsible for their learning. In fact, according to Kennedy (2009), the use of learner-centered methods of content delivery allows students to

control their learning by being actively engaged in the learning process rather than merely receiving information from a lecture passively. To conclude, the classroom innovation used by L1A had successfully made students as the centre of the learning process.

B. Second observation

The second lecturer had graduated from a postgraduate program of language education in an Indonesian university. She had taught in the English department for two and a half years, but had taught in the Language Training Center at the same university since 2008. She acknowledged that she had not received training related to the implementation of CBC but she had joined seminars discussing the concepts and implementation of CBC.

The class of 39 students being observed was 'Academic Reading and Writing 2'. For this number of students, the classroom, which was 5 x 5 square metres, was too small for students to sit down comfortably. Air conditioned, the classroom was equipped with a white board, an LCD projector and screen. However, although the room was air conditioned, it remained hot, perhaps due to its poor functioning.

The class started at 7 a.m. and the lecturer began by greeting students with an Islamic greeting. Students answered the greeting, followed by reciting the Qur'an together. The Qur'anic verses together with the English translation in the computer PDF format were projected on the screen using the LCD projector so that students could see and read them clearly. A student came to the front to recite the Qur'an loudly and was followed by all students.

After the Qur'an recitation, the lecturer started the lesson by reviewing the lesson about the 'topic sentence' which students had learned the previous day. "What is a topic sentence? Does anyone want to answer this question?" Replying to this question, some students tried to give answers. The lecturer followed the students' reply by asking the next question, "Can anyone give me an example of a good topic sentence?" Some students attempted to answer the question.

After the 'ask and answer session' as a warm-up activity to begin the lesson, the lecturer asked the students to prepare a presentation. That day was the turn for the first group to make a

presentation. In fact, the students had a homework assignment to prepare a group presentation on the topic of ‘a paragraph’. The group, involving 5 students, made a presentation using the LCD projector. It turned out that all members of the group had a chance to talk. The first student talked about the paragraph and its elements while the second presenter talked about the main ideas and their function. The third member of the group talked about the topic sentence, and the fourth group made a presentation on the supporting sentences in a paragraph. The last person presented the concept of unity in a paragraph. While one student made a power point presentation, another student operated the computer. Most of the group members made a presentation by reading their power point slide on the screen.

The presentation which lasted for 15 minutes was followed by an ‘ask and answer’ session. Every student could ask a question in English related to the topics presented. Some students raised their hand, asking such questions as ‘how to develop a topic sentence effectively?’; ‘What are the criteria of a good topic sentence?’; ‘what are the criteria of proper supporting sentences?’ and ‘must a paragraph have a conclusion?’.

After the ‘ask and answer session’, the lecturer then gave feedback by explaining about the concept of a paragraph, a topic sentence and supporting details. The lecturer then turned to another classroom activity, namely, answering two quizzes. The first quiz was called the ‘Unrelated Sentence Fun’. The lecturer gave a piece of paper explaining about this quiz to all students and the quiz should be discussed in a group of five students. The quiz contained four topic sentences and incomplete paragraph outlines. The lecturer also distributed another piece of paper called ‘sentence bank’ containing the supporting sentences and clinchers to students. The lecturer then asked students to find the supporting sentences and clinchers that belonged in each paragraph outline, and write the correct letters underneath the correct topic sentence. The students were free to list the supporting sentences in any order. After discussing and completing the quiz, the lecturer invited all groups to discuss the answer to the quiz together in the class. When a group gave an answer, the lecturer asked other groups to make comments whether or not the answer was correct.

The second quiz given by the lecturer, called ‘recognizing unrelated ideas’, was also done in groups. The lecturer gave a piece of paper containing four topic sentences followed by five supporting ideas for each topic sentence. The groups were asked to read the supporting sentences and to decide which ones did not support the topic sentence. After the group discussion was completed, all groups discussed the answers guided by the lecturer.

The finding from the observation revealed that the lecturer (L2A) had managed to avoid the traditional classroom where “most of the learning activities for the class were carried out by the instructor and students’ effort were focused on recording the information” (Wright, 2011). Instead, L2A had managed to facilitate the students’ learning using interactive activities. In Weimer’s (2002) phrases, in the student-centered classroom, the role of teacher changes from the “sage on the stage” to the “guide on the side” and views students not as empty vessels to be filled with information. For instance, to enable students to understand the paragraph, she did not lecture the students about its concept. Instead, she used interactive activities through small group discussion. Through small group discussions, students appeared active in interacting and collaborating with others in understanding about the paragraph as well as the concept of topic sentence and supporting sentences. The learning materials she chose had proven effective in encouraging students to think about and solve the problem. She explained that she took the learning materials from the internet. She also encouraged students to actively access the internet as she believed that internet provided abundant learning resources. She was of the opinion that lecturers should always motivate students to be familiar with the ICT such as computers and internet because they would teach students in the ICT era.

L2S was fluent in English and always kept the interaction with students in English, thereby motivating students to use their English speaking and listening skills. It was also evident that students used English when they were interacting in the small group discussions. In the student-centered classroom emphasis in teaching is on experiential techniques that tap into experience including group discussion, case method, role play and action projects (Hodges, 2011). In the whole class discussion after the group discussion was done, it was observable that the lecturer attempted not to give the right answers to the quiz to a certain group. Instead, she offered students in other groups to analyze the validity of the answers. This reflected the lecturer’s effort

to nurture the students' cooperation in solving the problems. In short, the learner modes used by lecturers had given students ample opportunity to actively participate in the class.

6.3.2 EED II

A. First observation

There were fifty tables with their chairs in the classroom and there was a white board on the front wall of the room. The tables were connected to one central computer at the lecturer's desk at the front of the class. A big screen was installed to project the presentation and other learning materials from the computer. The course taught by the first lecturer (L1B) was called *Listening 3*, and her class met every Thursday morning for one and a half hours, scheduled to run for one semester. The lecturer had been working for four years and she held a master degree in TESOL from an Indonesian university. She had joined a program disseminating the implementation of CBC conducted by the DGHE.

The lecturer began the class by greeting her students, followed by an explanation of the classroom activities. She described her teaching technique as student-centered learning and she felt that it was in accordance with the principles of the CBC. She defined student-centered learning as involving students to participate in the class. To realize this principle, she further said that she always attempted to use some new teaching techniques covering individual and group work. One of the keys to involve students' participation, according to her, was by creating various learning materials, including the use of technology.

Her efforts to use various teaching materials were reflected in the class that day. She incorporated a movie in her listening class. She explained to the students that they should be able to capture the story of the movie entitled "The Illumination". In the listening process, each student used the headphones on each table; hence they could listen to the conversation in the movie more clearly. The English subtitles were included in the movie. When asked for the reason to include the English subtitles, she said sometimes she included the English subtitles and sometimes she did not. She stated that the inclusion of the English subtitles aimed to allow students to check the English pronunciation from the movie. She further explained that when the English subtitles were included, she wanted her students to learn the pronunciation from the movie.

Unfortunately, the classroom activities could not be observed as the process of watching and listening to the movie took the whole lesson time. However, the planning of the classroom activities was explained by the lecturer. She said that she had prepared some questions based on the movie and she would ask students to discuss them in small groups. She further explained that after the discussion, each group would make a short presentation. Discussion time would also be allocated to share other groups' opinion. "So that there will be exchanges of ideas among students", she said.

In addition to the application of various teaching techniques, the lecturer said that she chose the teaching techniques which triggered her students to develop their English skills. She said, "In every class, I always encourage students to use their skills both in my speaking or listening class. For example, at the beginning of the class, I ask a student to talk about something related to the word 'chair'. By using this technique, students are motivated to sharpen their fluency and challenged to use their vocabularies. Additionally, I also become aware of his or her fluency and vocabulary mastery"

When asked about the experience in teaching in the CBC setting, the lecturer felt that it presented both lecturers and students with a new challenge. According to her, with the new paradigm of student-centered learning, she had to be ready to reduce her dominance in the class and she should be able to encourage students to be active in the class. Students, as she pointed out, should also alter their position from mere listeners to be active participants in the learning process.

The data found from the observation revealed the gap between the lecturer's belief about the student-centered learning and its implementation. While she valued the lecturer's role of facilitator in the learning process, she only asked students to watch the movie at the beginning of the class and sat down, watching the movie together with the students. As she decided to include the subtitles of the movie, the students did not appear to use their English listening skills to understand the conversation in the movie. Hence, instead of learning and attempting to understand English, students tended to enjoy the entertainment through watching the movie.

Her explanation that the focus of watching the movie was to improve the students' pronunciation was also problematic since the movie could have developed both listening and pronunciation

simultaneously. Watching the movie alone did not necessarily train the students' productive pronunciation skills. This contradicted one of the characteristics of the student-centered learning classroom where learners bring a fund of experience to learning, and see themselves in terms of their experience (Hodges, 2011). Hence, emphasis on practical application is necessary in order to develop students' skills.

While the lecturer mentioned that she included group discussions in teaching and learning process, the whole class was spent watching the movie. This was not in line with the ideal situation in the student-centered learning classroom where high levels of student interaction promoted through the design of learning activities should be present (Montgomery, 2008).

B. Second observation

The second lecturer's classroom had a high ceiling and its walls were mostly bare. A whiteboard was located on the wall at the front of the room and stretched the entire length of the room. There was a screen in the middle of the front room wall and an LCD projector in front of the screen. The 40 desks and tables were arranged in rows. As students came into the classroom, they sat next to their friends and there were no specific sitting arrangements. There were 30 students in total in the classroom and the name of the course was Learning Program Design. The lecturer had been teaching for more than ten years. She had earned a master degree in TESOL from an Indonesian university and she had been teaching in the department for nine years.

Highlighting classroom practice, the lecturer indicated the employment of a student-centered learning approach in the teaching and learning process. She stressed, "I always attempt to motivate my students to be active in the class". The lecturer began her class by greeting her students and asked one student to lead the prayer in front of the class. She then turned on the LCD connected to her own laptop which was projected on the screen. It read 'Learning program design workshop' on the screen, suggesting the focus of that day's lesson. She appeared to start the class by explaining the target of the lesson by explaining some points shown on the LCD screen. She followed this by lecturing her students about the academic calendar based on the regulation of the Ministry of Education.

Throughout the observation, one of the characteristics of her classroom practices was the use of English both in her explanation to students and in the discussion among students. She felt that

her responsibility as an English lecturer was to provide learning environments to promote communication in the target language. It was also evident that she had used the authentic learning materials taken from the government's documents for her lesson. She said that she used the authentic materials to encourage students to learn the contents and at the same time use their English in real contexts.

She explained that the learning materials she used were taken from the internet. When asked how she incorporated ICT and technology in the teaching learning process, she remarked that she always used computers connected to the LCD in teaching. She also said that she used the internet resources such as articles and video for teaching the students.

The application of the student-centered learning modes was noticeable. After her short lecture to students explaining the academic calendar, she asked the students to discuss it in groups. One group consisted of three students. The students should analyze the academic calendar proposed by the ministry of education. During the discussion, she walked around the class, asking the discussion groups if there were certain questions to be asked. After the students had had ample time to discuss, they then engaged in group work activities to design an academic calendar for senior high school students from the year 2013 to 2014.

The data found in the observation of the second lecturer in EED II (L2B) indicated that she had demonstrated significant aspects of the student-centered classroom. In fact, the lecturer used ten minutes lecturing about the learning materials to students. However, most of the learning process was characterized with dynamic interaction among students. The lecturer had successfully encouraged students to learn interactively through small group discussion. When asked about the kinds of teaching techniques she had used, L2B explained that she often used discussion to facilitate students' interaction in the class. She was of the opinion that teaching techniques which motivated students to interact and collaborate were more effective and helped them to enjoy the learning process. L2B's belief about the teaching techniques she had used found parallels with Cannon and Newble's (2000) opinion that in the learner-centered classroom teaching and learning emphasize student responsibility and activity in learning rather than content or what the teachers are doing.

The use of an academic calendar issued by the Ministry of Education in L2B's class reflected the incorporation of authentic learning materials. In the words of Hodges (2011), curriculum should be based on the actual problem areas and learning should address the existential concerns of the learner. Hence, the learning process which was evident in L2B's classroom was problem-centered and the students had capitalized on the discussion group to overcome the problems collaboratively. Furthermore, at the end of the class, students were given an opportunity to create an academic calendar using their knowledge obtained in the discussion. Thus, the focus on practical application of knowledge was evident. Overall, L2B was relatively successful in translating the student-centered learning approach into her classroom.

6.3.3 EED III

A. First observation

The first lecturer's (L1C) course was named *English Instructional Technology*. She had eight years' teaching experience. She held a master degree in Applied Linguistics from a state university in Indonesia. Her classroom consisted of 40 chairs with their tables and the students sat down in rows. There was a lecturer's desk in front of the class and she used it to put her classroom materials including her laptop. Although there was an LCD facility, there was no screen installed. Hence, she said that if lecturers use the LCD, they usually projected the teaching materials from the laptop onto the wall near the whiteboard in front of the class. The walls of her classroom were bare, with no pictures or other posters. As students and lecturers moved from class to class in this department, her classroom resembled many of the university classrooms across Indonesia.

There were twenty students in the class when the observation took place. The lecturer indicated that normally there were thirty students in the classroom; however, three students were absent that day. Asked about what teaching techniques she used in the classroom, she commented that lecturing was no longer suitable with the CBC practice. She shared her experience that when she taught students she was using various teaching techniques such as group discussion and presentation. She added, "I often asked my students to visit some schools. It's a kind of project, you know. Then I asked them to observe the teachers teaching in the class. And I asked them to identify the difficulties facing teachers. The final assignment for the students was a kind of

observation report which should be submitted and presented in front of the class”. Based on her techniques she had used in teaching, the lecturer was convinced that her teaching style was student-centered.

When the observation took place, however, her teaching technique was predominantly lecturer-centered. She began her class by greeting her students, “How’s life, students? good?” She attempted to remind students about the topic of that day’s lesson by referring to the syllabus, “Did you check the syllabus? So what topic are we going to discuss today? About teachers?”

After greeting students and reminding them about the topic of that day’s class, the lecturer asked the students to watch a video about the “Indonesia Mengajar”. “OK, we are going to talk about teacher, teachers’ concerns; I will show you a movie about “Indonesia Mengajar” (Indonesia Teaches)”. The “Indonesia Mengajar” was a program carried out by a non-government organization to send teachers to teach students in remote areas of Indonesia. Before playing the video with her laptop connected to the LCD projector, she had a conversation about the program of “Indonesia Mengajar” with her students. She often called at random on students to check their understanding of the program. By asking some questions, she attempted to connect the program of “Indonesia Mengajar” with a topic pertaining to the concern of Indonesian education. While she asked questions in English, some students answered her questions in Bahasa Indonesia. Throughout the observation, she displayed a friendly rapport with the students by valuing students’ opinions and she listened attentively when the students spoke.

Having asked students about the program of “Indonesian Mengajar”, the lecturer began playing the video about “Indonesia Mengajar” which she took from the internet through her laptop connected to the LCD and projected on to the front classroom wall. The video ran for twenty minutes; after it stopped, she highlighted some important points from the video. In her explanation, she invited students to obtain inspiration from the video and attempted to motivate students to become good teachers. “Showing this video, I don’t want to discourage you to become teachers. On the contrary, I want to show you that you will be facing the challenges ahead when you become teachers, and I’m sure you can overcome all the challenges and make achievements”. Then, she asked students to give comments and opinions on the video, “Any comments and what do you think of the video?”

Unfortunately, there were just two students who gave their short answers and opinions. Commenting on the video, one student said, “I am really surprised”. The lecturer challenged him by asking another question, “What makes you surprised?” The student gave a longer answer. Throughout the observation, there was interaction between the lecturer and the student, but there was no interaction among students. During the observation, it was noticeable that she dominated the class using the lecturing technique. She even spent the last thirty minutes explaining exhaustive concepts of teacher competencies.

At the end of the class, the lecturer gave an assignment to the students. Even though she asked them to discuss the assignment with their friends, her instruction was not very clear as to whether it was an individual or group assignment. The students had to analyze the differences and similarities between the documents of the 2004 curriculum and the 2009 curriculum for a secondary school in terms of teachers’ competencies. The students were also asked to write a reflective piece as to whether the courses they had taken during that semester had helped them to develop their teaching competencies.

The observational data in the L1C’s classroom suggested that the lecturer’s role as the person who transferred information to students was still dominant, hence deviating from one of the fundamental principles of student-centered learning where the lecturer should act more as the facilitator of student learning. Tyma (2009) said that the challenge of a lecturer in the student-centered learning classroom is to maintain a subordinate role in which he or she functions as catalyst, advisor or facilitator. In L1C’s classroom however, students were given little opportunity to deeply explore the learning materials through meaningful classroom activities such as group discussions. Instead, students were required to listen to a long lecture about the concept of teacher competence from L1C.

In fact, the incorporation of the video to be watched by students was a form of classroom innovation. However, it seemed that the topic of the video, namely “Indonesia mengajar” or “Teaching Indonesia”, did not fit with the assignment given to students in which students had to analyze the differences and similarities between the 2004 and 2009 curricula implemented in secondary schools in Indonesia. None of the contents in the video explained the curricula.

The observable classroom activities were limited to the conversation between the lecturer and the students. The lecturer asked several questions about the video clip and a number of students answered the questions with short replies. However, there were no activities designed to allow students to interact. This was in contradiction with the student-centered classroom in which, according to Montgomery (2008), learning activities involve high levels of student activity and high levels of student interaction are promoted through the design of learning activities.

One positive point of the L1C's teaching performance was that she had displayed friendly connection with the students by valuing students' opinions and she listened attentively when the students spoke. As Jones (2007) pointed out, in the student-centered classroom, each individual is trusted and valued. Hence, L1C's ability to maintain close rapport with students was a significant competence to create a student-centered classroom. Overall, in terms of the lecturer's role in the classroom activities, the classroom L1C taught was still lecturer centered.

B. Second observation

The second lecturer's (L2C) course was named *Reading 3*. The lecturer had graduated with a master degree of TESOL from an American University. He had had teaching experience for ten years.

The walls of the second lecturer's classroom were mostly bare, with the exception of a calendar at the front of the room. There was a whiteboard located on the wall at the front. He indicated after the observation took place that like any other classes in other universities, the students moved from room to room for every course. There were 40 desks accompanied by their chairs which were arranged in rows, with students facing the lecturer at the front of the room. When the students came into the classroom, they sat next to their friends. There were twenty five students in the classroom and the name of the course was Reading Three.

When asked about his teaching style, the lecturer gave an insight regarding the lecturer's role in the classroom. For him, instead of being the purveyor of knowledge, a lecturer was to be a facilitator. As a facilitator, according to him, a lecturer should be able to create activities in the class and monitor the activities. He added, "As a facilitator, he should also be resourceful. I mean, if a student asks him about something, he or she should be able to answer the questions. So he or she should always give feedback to students". He was of the opinion that the most

important skill for a lecturer was his or her ability to motivate students to be independent learners. “No matter how good the lecturer is, the learning goal will not be achieved if the students are not good learners. So in my opinion, a good lecturer is to be able to create three kinds of learners, independent, creative and purposeful”. He stated that if learners had purpose in their study, they would have courage to keep learning. Hence, for him an ideal lecturer was the one who is able to show students how to learn effectively.

The lecturer’s inclination to student-centered learning was partly manifested throughout the observation. However, despite how much he wanted to use inductive learning for his students, he indicated during the observation that he resorted to a deductive way of teaching, applying a lecturing-style of teaching. In order to ensure that his teaching technique did not consist of only a lecturing-style format, he attempted to encourage students to discuss in pairs at the beginning of his lessons.

The lecturer began his class by greeting the students and introducing the researcher to students. Then he asked students to check the reading homework. When asked about the reading homework for his students, he said that it was a reading comprehension task taken from the TOEFL preparation test. The reading comprehension task involved some reading texts followed by some questions and four available answers from A to D. Hence, students were to select the best answers based on their comprehension from the reading passages. He explained that the reason behind his decision to choose the TOEFL exercise was because it consisted of reading skills including scanning, skimming, inferring the meaning from the text, summarizing the paragraph and understanding difficult words in the text.

Throughout the observation, the teaching technique that the lecturer applied was mainly discussion and lecturing. At the beginning of the class, for example, he asked students to compare their answers to question twenty six with the person sitting down next to him or her. Then after students shared their answer, he said, “Well, let’s check the answer, which one is the correct answer, A, B, C, or D?” He asked all the students in the class, without referring to a certain student’s name.

The lecturer spent most of the lesson time discussing with students about the correct answer for each question. The typical technique in discussing the question in each number of the task was

that he read the questions loudly and asked students, “What does the sentence mean?” When students did not understand the meaning of certain sentences from the reading texts, he translated them in Bahasa Indonesia.

It was evident that most of the discussion occurred between lecturers and students. The discussion among students was only conducted three times when they encountered difficult questions from the reading tasks. According to him, the inclusion of discussion among students in the class allowed them to discover their own thoughts in the learning process. Once the whole class discussion was completed, he asked students to discuss their answers with him again. However, it was also noticeable in the observation that during the discussion with their lecturer, the students only gave short answers, mostly the option they had chosen from the available answers of the reading tasks. The lecturer did not make a point to call on different students from each group to share their comments as the discussion format was only in pairs. Thus, the dynamic sharing of opinions was not created in the class.

In the middle of his conversation with the students, the lecturer sometimes made long explanations on a certain concept of reading skills when students failed to answer the reading comprehension tasks correctly. For example, he explained about the differences between conclusion and inference lengthily. Furthermore, he also described the sentence structure of the text. For instance, he elucidated the concept of the main clause and sub-clause extensively. When asked why the language structure should be taught in the reading skills, he explained that the ability to understand the structure was very important in understanding the reading texts. “In the linguistics discourse we have recognized the term ‘competence’ and ‘performance’. The knowledge of language structure is called competence and the ability to translate this knowledge into language skills is called performance. So I think when I teach structure, I am on the right track to strengthen students’ language competences”. At the end of his lesson, he asked the students to do task number forty five as homework. He also asked the students who were not present in the class that day. Finally, he said, “See you next week, guys”.

The interview after the observation revealed that the lecturer was not sure whether or not his teaching technique was in accordance with the principles of student-centered learning advocated in the CBC. However, he was of the opinion that the focus of the CBC was to equip students with a set of competencies. Hence, as he pointed out, he attempted to teach all courses in a way

to equip students with the abilities to perform certain skills. He said, “For example, the subject of Phonology is very theoretical. Then I always think how to relate phonology to an element that shapes the competence so that it is useful for students to perform it as a skill. In teaching, therefore, I treat phonology as a fundamental for students to have proper pronunciation, which I think is a very vital competence”.

The data obtained from the observation of L2C indicated that his classroom was heavily laden with his dominance in lecturing his students, hence implementing a more ‘traditional or didactic style’ (Hodges, 2011). He even spent his time exhaustively explaining certain concepts of reading skills to students. In Hodge’s (2011) terms, the traditional style of teaching places students in a passive role and positions the lecturer as a distributor of knowledge.

The frequent interaction occurred between L2C with students. However, the lecturer appeared to only recall the students’ knowledge of the reading skills. Interaction did occur among students, but was limited to one student asking the answer of the homework to the other. Students did not seem to deeply discuss the emerging problems related to the learning materials.

The development of reading skills was observable in the learning process. As L2C pointed out, he always attempted to develop the students’ skill in the learning process, labeling the students’ skill as ‘performance’ and contrasting it with ‘competence’ (knowledge). In fact, the learning materials he chose, namely the reading tests taken from the ‘TOEFL preparation test’, were aimed at drilling students to use their reading skills such as scanning, skimming and guessing difficult words. However, despite the ready-for-use nature of the exercise in the TOEFL exercise book, it could not be considered as an authentic learning material as it was not derived from the students’ social life context. Elias and Merriam (2005) suggested that lecturers in the student-centered classroom need to attend to the interests of the learners and use the lives of the learners as starting points, including in preparing the learning materials.

The main purpose of L2C’s learning materials was to train students to comprehend the reading text. The students were given an exercise to choose the most correct answer from the four options. The technique the teacher used was mainly drilling to help students acquire the reading skills. Drilling technique was considered by Dewey (1938) as one of the traditional techniques of rote learning. As opposed to drilling, Hodges (2011) suggested that focus on experiential

techniques including group discussion, case method, role play and action projects can be used by teachers. Overall, L2C's classroom was still dominated by the lecturer's role as the distributor of knowledge and students as the passive recipient of knowledge.

6.3.4 EED IV

A. First observation

The first lecturer's (L1D) classroom was quite large consisting of 30 tables and chairs with the lecturer's desk at the front. The classroom had modest decorations consisting of a picture of the founder of the university and some posters containing motivating words. There were twenty three students in the classroom when the observation took place. He indicated that there were normally twenty five students in the classroom and he said that three students were absent that day. The class taught by him was *Writing Three*. The lecturer had a master degree in English Language Teaching from an Indonesian University and he had been teaching for ten years.

L1D's style of teaching was particularly teacher-centered in that he spent considerable time to explain the concept of narrative writing to his students. Interaction frequently happened between the lecturer and students. For example, to illustrate how he triggered students to participate actively in the class was when he asked students about the meaning of a descriptive text. Furthermore, during the class observation, he listened attentively when students asked and answered questions and provided positive feedback to them. Most times, he asked students questions concerning the topic discussed and his students responded spontaneously to questions posed by him.

An observable routine in using teaching techniques could be captured during the observation visit. The lecturer began his lesson by stating the topic to be discussed with students, "Today we are going to discuss a descriptive text". He then asked questions related to the materials and encouraged them to provide answers. For example, he asked, "What is descriptive text?" Several students replied to his questions. He indicated during the post interview that this was usually the way he started the lesson.

A lecture-type classroom practice was used by the lecturer to explain about the descriptive text. He relied heavily on his PowerPoint presentation. Through his presentation, he explained the

meaning, the purpose and the generic structure of a descriptive text as well as the tenses used to write a descriptive text.

The lecturer incorporated a limited variety of activities to teach his students. For instance, after finishing his lecture on the descriptive text, he asked students to write a descriptive text. Students were to choose one of three topics, namely describing campus life, a school or a teacher. Next, students spent some time writing a descriptive text individually. As they wrote, when running into difficulties, students sometimes asked questions of him, and he responded to the student's question directly.

The post interview revealed that, although the lecturer partially applied the student-centered learning during the observation visit, he said that he preferred this approach to be used in the classroom. As he pointed out, student-centered learning encouraged students to be more active in the class given the lecturers' lessened talking. He gave an example how he motivated students to be active in the class. "In my writing class, before students start writing, I give some topics to them. I divide them into several groups and in the small groups they have to brainstorm the topics, discussing what ideas they will jot down in their writing. My job during the brainstorming is monitoring them". He also felt that the student-centered learning approach allowed his students to be independent. "For instance, at the earlier tasks students should write their composition based on the model I have given. However, in the latter exercise they have to develop their own ideas into more creative compositions", he said.

The observational data found in the L1D's classroom revealed several aspects of the student-centered learning principles, even though the central role of the lecturer was still visible. Baxter and Gray (2001) concur that for effective learning it is necessary to move forward a learning model in which students are actively engaged in the learning process. In L1D's classroom, student engagement in the learning process was evident, demonstrated by their active interaction with the lecturer when they responded to several questions asked by him. The interaction was done in English, allowing students to practice and develop their speaking skills. It was also observable that students seemed enthusiastic in doing the individual work, writing the descriptive text.

Another positive point was the use of a topic related to students' daily life for exercises. To develop students' skills to write a descriptive text, L1D asked students to choose one of the topics, including campus life, a school or a teacher. According to Weimer (2002) the freedom given to students in choosing the learning materials reflected the balance of power. According to Weimer (2002), in the traditional teacher-centered learning, all the decisions concerning the choice of learning materials were in the hands of teachers. Weimer (2002) recommends that lecturers begin sharing power with students from the start by, for example, providing them the opportunity to decide the topics and task. In addition to empowering students and involving them in deciding the learning materials, the topic related to students' daily life was another significant tenet in the student-centered learning classroom. Hodges (2011) emphasized that university students, as adult learners, are highly personal and thus vary widely among individuals. As pointed out by Hodges (2011) topics of the learning materials surrounding student's interest and daily life are potent sources of motivation for adult learning.

L1D's had a strong conviction that students' becoming active learners was an ideal situation in the learning process. He said he frequently encouraged students to interact and collaborate in the learning process. However, L1D's statement was not confirmed in the observation. While there was interaction between lecturer and students, there was no interaction among students. In addition to this, in order to understand the descriptive writing, L1D still used a lecturing style explaining the concept to students, while students listened to him passively. No activities were done to enable students to understand the concept in the interactive group discussion. Thus, the transfer knowledge from the lecturer to students was still the mode of the learning process. Overall, in the L1D's classroom, while small elements of student-centered aspects were adopted, the role taken by the lecturer was still dominant, inclining to a more teacher-centered classroom.

B. Second observation

The walls of the second lecturer's classroom were mostly bare, with the exception of two posters containing motivating words. A whiteboard was located on the wall at the front of the room, stretching to the middle of the front wall. A large white screen to project the LCD was also available at the front of the room. There were 30 desks and chairs arranged with students facing lecturers. As students came into the classroom, they sat next to their friends. It was evident that there were no particular sitting arrangements. There was a total of twenty five students in the

classroom. The name of the course was 'Education Profession'. The class met once a week for 90 minutes and in one semester there were fourteen meetings. The lecturer (L2D) was the holder of a master's degree in Educational Management from an Indonesian University. She had had ten years of teaching experience.

The lecturer began her class by greeting students with 'Good afternoon, students' in English and students answered the greeting with the same expression. She then challenged students with a question which seemed to be the topic of that day's class, "How many competencies do teachers have?" Students responded freely by saying what competencies were.

Throughout the observation, one of the characteristics of the lecturer's classroom practices was that she attempted to make students become active participants in the class. She said, "In order to ascertain the concept of competencies, today we are going to continue discussing our topic on 'Competencies-based Management'. And today the fifth group will have a turn to make a presentation". She continued, "I do hope that while the fifth group is making their presentation, all of the audience should listen attentively. You should also be ready to ask questions, give feedback or oppose the opinion to the fifth group after the presentation". Her directions to students at the beginning of the class demonstrated that she wanted her students to involve themselves actively in the class.

The fifth group consisting of five students then made a presentation using a PowerPoint program projected on the screen. One person was chosen to be the speaker for the group. Other groups became audience, listening attentively to the presentation. Some of them appeared to write down questions to be asked at the end of the presentation. After the presentation, some students enthusiastically asked a number of questions to the fifth group. All members of the fifth group attempted to answer the questions posed by the audience.

During the students' presentation and discussion, the lecturer demonstrated a friendly rapport with the students by valuing their participation and providing positive feedback whenever a student participated. She said that students' participation would contribute to their final score. "The more I write down a student's name, the more he or she will have a chance to improve their final score", she said.

The lecturer closed the class with a short presentation on the topic discussed, answering some questions addressed by students in the discussion. She gave time to the researcher to give some comments on the students' discussion and presentation.

During the interview sessions, the lecturer indicated that she had to play the role as a facilitator in the student-centered learning approach. She reflected that as a facilitator she had to reduce her talk time in the class. She replaced her dominance in the class by motivating students to be more active in the learning process. She explained that to encourage students to participate actively in the learning process, she announced the topics and ideas to be discussed for the next meeting. She believed that through their efforts, the students would have a meaningful learning experience, searching for new information and constructing knowledge.

The data found in the observation suggested that the lecturer (L2D) had managed to use a learning mode which allowed students to be actively involved in the learning process. The idea of the classroom activities used was that students did the homework assignment in small groups and they had to present it in front of the class. When asked why students should do the assignment in groups, L2D was convinced that students would have more opportunity when they did the homework in groups rather than if they worked individually.

Commenting on her teaching performance, L2D believed that she had put students at the centre of the learning process. Her conviction was confirmed in the observation in which she only spent five minutes at the beginning of the class to give direction of what students should carry out for the classroom activities. After listening to her direction, a group of students was in charge, starting their presentation in front of other students. Interactive discussion between a group of students acting as the presenter and other students as audience occurred.

According to her, as a facilitator a lecturer should be capable of using teaching techniques which lead to the students' active participation in the class. She mentioned some teaching techniques which she believed could create students' involvement in the class such as discussing a problem or an issue, locating and searching for information on the internet, presenting the results of the discussion and listening to others. She suggested that English lecturers should be familiar with these teaching techniques because she asserted that teaching English was tantamount to teaching skills.

However, despite her encouragement to improve those skills, throughout the observation the lecturer's class was conducted in Bahasa Indonesia. When asked why English was not used, L2D said that she graduated from the university's Education Department but not from the English department, suggesting that she had limited capability in speaking English. The fact that she used Bahasa Indonesia at all times in the classroom contradicted her statement in the importance of various teaching techniques to develop students' skills. To summarize, L2D had succeeded in placing herself as the facilitator of student learning through a learning mode which involved active students' participation in the class. The shortcoming of the L2D's classroom was the absence of interaction conducted in English during the teaching and learning process.

6.3.5 EED V

A. First observation

The course that the first lecturer taught was called Writing Three. This was a rather medium sized class, made up of 25 students. For this particular day when the observation took place, there were 21 students because 4 students were absent. 40 desks with small tables were arranged in 6 rows. The class met once a week for one and half hours during one semester.

The lecturer (L1E) held a master's degree in TESOL from an Australian university and he had had teaching experience for seven years. A good lecturer, according to him, should be able to create classroom activities which were conducive to the development of the students' competencies. He added that a lecturer in the CBC setting should become a motivator, so that he or she would be able to generate students' active participation in the learning process. "If they become a motivator, they can induce their students to be confident and at the same they can also instill good characters in students", he said.

The lecturer was of the opinion that in addition to motivating students during the class, lecturers' creativity was the key to a successful learning process. An example of the lecturers' creativity mentioned by him was the assignment. According to him, a creative speaking and writing lecturer would understand that it was insufficient for students to meet two hours a week in order to foster their speaking and writing skills. "So, the lecturer should assign them a creative task which involves them to continuously use their speaking skills", he explained.

However, his learning philosophy was not very apparent during the classroom observation, where he spent most of his time explaining and lecturing the concept to students, instead of creating some activities to involve students' participation. He began his lesson by expressing a common greeting, "how are you?" to students. The topic that he taught that day was about 'writing a letter to the editor'. At the beginning of his lesson, he explained to students that the topic was related to expressing opinions through media such as newspapers. He attempted to create the context by asking students a question. "In our society, we of course have some problems, right. Could you give an example of problem in our society?" Some students raised their hand, trying to answer the question. Most of the lecturer's explanation and conversation with students, however, was conducted in Bahasa Indonesia. There was much interaction between the lecturer and students, but not among students.

After situating the context of the topic, the lecturer explained the target of that day's lesson. He also said that at the end of the lesson, the students would carry out a peer review of their friends' assignments. Following this explanation, he began explaining the theory of 'A letter to the editor' using a PowerPoint presentation through his laptop connected to the LCD projector. In his lecturing, he sometimes interrogated the students, asking some questions related to his presentation, mostly in Bahasa Indonesia. He also sometimes announced some important information regarding the assessment of the course. For instance, in the middle of his presentation, he said to his students that if they could have their letter to the editor published in an English newspaper, they did not need to do the final test. During the presentation, he demonstrated a sample of such a letter. Then he explained the parts of the letter including the opening, the content, the supporting arguments and the conclusion.

The lecturer did not utilize many possible classroom activities to teach his class. The classroom practice that he mainly used was a peer review. In this activity, he asked the students to review their friends' assignment of writing a letter to the editor. Prior to the review, he gave assessment rubrics to record the scores during the review process. He then provided a brief description of what was expected from each reviewer.

The data found in the observation suggested that the lecturer (L1E) tended to be dominant in the teaching and learning process, hence teacher-centered learning in nature. A great deal of time was spent to lecture the students about the subject matter, thus taking his position as the

distributor of knowledge to his students. Despite an attempt to ask several questions to create interaction between him and his students, no efforts were done to create learning activities which allowed students to think and learn about the subject matter either individually or collaboratively. In addition to this, the interaction with students was heavily conducted in Bahasa Indonesia. This was in conflict with his belief that speaking skills could be enhanced by practicing it through the tasks and the teaching and learning process. His decision not to use English in interaction with students proved that he tended to fail in becoming a language model for his students. In asking questions and speaking to each other in the midst of the lecturer's presentation, students mainly used Bahasa Indonesia instead of English.

One positive point concerning L1E's classroom was his initiative in incorporating the peer review at the end of the class. According to Weimer (2002), a major concern of student-centered teaching is learning, so that assessment in the student-centered classroom is not just to generate grades but to promote learning. Using the rubrics provided by the lecturer, it was evident that while they assessed their peers' writing, they attempted to learn the criteria of a good letter to editor.

B. Second observation

There was a small instructor's desk at the front of the classroom with 30 chairs and desks arranged in rows, facing the whiteboard. The second lecturer's course was called TEFL or Teaching English as a Foreign Language. Her class met every Tuesday morning for one and a half hours, and the class was scheduled to run for six months or one semester.

The lecturer (L2E) had a master degree in English Language Teaching from an Indonesian university and she had had eight years of teaching experience. She described her role as a facilitator of student learning. She expressed her view that the implementation of CBC had given rise to some changes. The first change, according to her, was the transformation of lecturers' role from instructors to facilitators. Therefore, she said that the shift in role of lecturers required them to develop their skills to facilitate the learning process. The second change, as explained by her, was the students changed role from dependent to independent learners. According to her, the changing role of students was challenging because students were accustomed to learning dependently from their senior high schools. Hence, she was of the

opinion that it was crucial for lecturers to promote self-directed learning among students and to encourage student-centered learning. For her, student-centered learning was deemed to be more effective in enhancing students' understanding. She explained, "Compared to teacher-centered learning, student-centered learning helps students to experience the learning process. And I think when they engage actively in learning, the process of understanding is more likely to occur".

That the effective teaching technique would result in student involvement in learning was expressed by L2E. One of the techniques observed was what she called the 'gallery walk' in which students were divided into some groups to discuss a given task. In describing this technique, she explained, "After students finish discussing the task, they write it on a piece of paper and attach it on the wall. One or two persons in all groups were chosen to become a 'gallery presenter' informing the visitors about the contents of their writing attached on the wall. Other members of the group go around the class to get information from other groups".

At the beginning of the class, L2E greeted students, followed by her explanation of the rules of the game in carrying out the 'gallery walk', mostly in Bahasa Indonesia. Her statement that a lecturer was a facilitator was portrayed in the way she motivated students. In order to take an active role in the gallery walk, she encouraged the 'visitors' groups of the 'gallery' to read some materials related to the topics. "When you have read the materials, you will be able to ask, to probe and to share what you already know about the subjects", she explained to her students. She also offered an idea for the presenters' groups to provide brochures in addition to the posters they attached on the wall. She explained this to her students, "When you make brochures, you can give all the information to the visitors because not all visitors can ask questions and read the posters on the wall".

When the observation took place, the topic was "Methods of English Language Teaching" including the Audio-lingual method, the Silent Way and Communicative Language Teaching. The three groups consisting of five students had prepared their posters concerning these methods, one method for each group. The presenters' group then attached their posters on the wall with glue.

When the posters were ready, the visitor group began walking around the classroom to ask questions and tried to draw on information from each gallery. Some students seemed engaged in

English conversation asking and answering questions about the posters on the wall. Some others read the posters without asking questions. When the students were discussing the posters, the lecturer sat down on her chair without giving any further direction to the discussion process.

When asked about the kinds of teaching techniques the lecturer used in the class, she said that she often used the discussion techniques. As she explained, she wrote some questions to generate students' enthusiasm to discuss and share a certain issue. She added, "Sometimes, in the speaking class I also make cards containing some questions to promote discussion in groups. The questions have confirmed that students become more engaged and involved in the discussion".

The data found in the observation of the L2E's classroom demonstrated the incorporation of the discussion as the learning mode. The lecturer had managed to use a creative learning activity called the 'gallery walk' to promote the discussion. It was evident that during the gallery walk, students were actively engaged in conversation, sharing what they have written and learnt concerning the methods of English language teaching.

The lecturer had successfully acted as the facilitator of the class. Instead of lecturing her students about several types of methods in English language teaching, she had students read the topic and made it as an assignment done in groups. Given the assignment, students were encouraged to learn independently, capitalizing on both online and offline resources. This was in line with Jones' (2007) opinion that the role of students in the competency-based learning was to integrate, produce and extend knowledge, taking an active part in their own learning and working toward being autonomous learners. In addition to this, their collaborative learning was also promoted as the assignment was done in groups.

In the classroom, the lecturer's talking was minimal. She only spent the beginning of the lesson to explain how the classroom activities would be done. However, the use of Bahasa Indonesia by the lecturer in giving directions to students was the shortcoming of her overall teaching performance. In the competency-based learning, according to Paul (2008), learners are required to use the target language to communicate effectively. The L2E's use of Bahasa Indonesia at the beginning of the class was likely to discourage students to practice their English. When the 'gallery walk' was carried out, however, she managed to encourage students to share their opinion in English.

The 'gallery walk' was apparently effective in making students engage actively in the learning process. However, it seemed that the assignment still focused on understanding the types of methods in English language teaching, not their real implementation in teaching English. Griffith and Lim (2010) say that in the competency-based classroom, learning materials must be oriented to doing rather than knowing. Hence, rather than asking students to read the materials on the types of methods in English language teaching, the lecturer could have asked the students to relate what students had read with real problems in English language teaching.

In summary, based on the teaching observations in the five institutions, the best learning process associated with the student-centered learning occurred in EED I. The two lecturers observed had demonstrated their roles as facilitators for students' learning. The students in their classes were also encouraged to be involved actively in the learning process. The learning materials had successfully allowed students to be active in the class.

In EED II and V, only one lecturer had successfully enacted their role as the facilitator for the learning process, creating learning materials and using a learning mode which allowed students to be active. In EED IV, only one lecturer had incorporated a learning mode which made students actively engaged in the learning process. However, her teaching performance was less than ideal in using Bahasa Indonesia in interacting with students. In EED V only one lecturer had managed to create a student-centered learning classroom through the use of an innovative learning mode which enabled students to be active.

The fact that the two lecturers observed in EED I had demonstrated the best performance in their teaching was in line with the survey results. In fact, based on the survey, EED I had the highest percentage in the use of student-centered learning modes (90 %), surpassing EED IV (84 %); EED II (82%); EED III (79%) and EED V (53%). While EED III was not at the bottom rank of the survey result, in which 79 % of the lecturers believed that they had used the student-centered learning modes, two lecturers observed failed to demonstrate the student-centered learning mode in teaching.

The inconsistency of the survey results and the classroom observation found in EED II, III, IV and V reflected Weimer's (2002) working thesis that university classes are extremely teacher-centered and this works against students becoming mature and successful learners. Weimer

(2002) further concludes that many lecturers claim that they are aware of the effectiveness of student-centered learning and attempt to make changes in the direction of more learner-centeredness. However, she found that the lecturers' awareness of the teaching problems varies from those who know what specific areas are to those who simply have a sense that their teaching is right (ibid, 2002). This finding suggests that while all HoDs of the five EEDs acknowledged that they had conducted programs to allow lecturers to be aware of the CBC, specific programs to train lecturers to teach using student-centered learning modes needed to be conducted.

6.4 The Development of Soft Skills

The inclusion of soft skills was viewed as an important part in the teaching and learning process in all departments. When asked to comment on the rationale for the soft skills inclusion in the teaching and learning process, one lecturer in EED I (L1A), for example, responded that in addition to the hard skill competencies, teachers needed to develop their soft skills, including interpersonal and intrapersonal skills. "By developing these skills they will be able to motivate their students and themselves". Relevant to the significance of soft skills for teachers' careers, another lecturer (L2A) from the same department added, "We do not just want to produce teachers who are smart, but also teachers who have character. For example, a good teacher should certainly be able to work together with colleagues and a good teacher should also be able to be a problem solver for the problems that he or she faces". Her opinion was supported by one lecturer from EED II (L1B), saying that soft skills were integral parts of teachers' competencies, especially personal and social skills. Similarly, the development of soft skills was considered vital by one lecturer from EED III (L1D). He said that the department should not only be oriented to assess the students. Instead, according to him, the department should equip its graduates with soft skills to contribute to the development of the nation.

The majority of the students in the FGD also considered the development of soft skills as an important element in the curriculum as it would equip them with the necessary skills to live in their professional world and society. One student from EED I (S107A) explained, "I think that soft skills are very vital to develop my personal competence and interpersonal competence. And I think these skills are very useful in the classroom. For example, when we interact with our

students, we have to be able to listen to them. If we can listen, we will be teachers who are respected by students”. Another student (S113A) viewed the importance of the soft skills to be taught as they would be useful for students to live in society. “I think the soft skills will be useful to be applied by students in society”.

The biggest challenge facing institutions of higher education in Indonesia is to develop employable skills, develop knowledge and produce local graduates who can attract employers (DGHE, 2008). This has made employability an issue that has become critical and significant. Workers who are able to transform learnt knowledge and skills into successful work performance are demanded by both local and global workplaces.

Some studies evidenced that soft skills or attitudes has been given more concern by employers rather than technical knowledge. Empirical studies done by Audibert and Jones (2002), for instance, suggested that employers tend to hire workers possessing the soft skills such as leadership, team building, entrepreneurial interest and communication and promote them to key positions. A survey administered to 400 employers revealed that they want workers to enter their company to possess employability skills such as thinking skills, basic skills, personal quality, and interpersonal competencies (ibid, 2002). Furthermore, the employers rated these skills higher than technological competencies (Richens and McClain, 2000).

In the process of enhancing the quality of students, all five departments were required to consider a better and improved curriculum and learning process in order to produce students with strong soft skills upon graduation. This section will compare the attempts made by the five departments to improve the soft skills of their graduates viewed from the framework and the methods of soft skills development.

6.4.1 Framework for the Soft Skills Development

The components of soft skills had become an integral part of the graduate qualities of all departments. Specifically, all departments wanted their graduates to possess the personal and interpersonal skills developed through personal and social competencies respectively. The personal competencies were attributed to the attainment of certain attributes such as being ethical (EED I); responsible, honest and ethical (EED II); committed, trustworthy, ethical (EED III) and mature, wise and able to be good role models for students (EED IV and EED V). With regard to

the social competencies, the five departments generally wanted their graduates to be able to communicate and cooperate effectively with their students, students' parents and their professional colleagues.

Based on the accreditation documents, all five EEDs had included the framework of the soft skills development either in their vision or mission. In EED I, one of the aims of the department as stated in the document was to enable the graduates to acquire the English language proficiency and teaching skills, do research in the English teaching areas, and acquire entrepreneurial, technological and the associated soft skills. The development of soft skills was also mentioned in the statement of the strategies to develop the students and graduates, mentioning that the department strove to implement a learning process which accommodated the balanced development of both hard and soft skills of the students. However, the components of the soft skills were not mentioned in the vision and mission of the department. Instead, there was a program called the 'bridging of soft skill program' which covered the development of soft skills related to the motivation to success, creativity, team building, communication and leadership.

In EED II, the framework for soft skills development was documented in the mission of the department. The first mission of the departments was the incorporation of Ignatian Pedagogy as the learning model to develop a strong sense of competence, conscience and compassion. It was stated in the curriculum document that 'conscience' and 'compassion' were associated with the development of the affective domains, thus reflecting components of soft skills. The long term goals of the department also included the development of soft skills, stating that the department planned to collaborate with other universities in ASEAN countries to develop the soft skills. However, the types of actual soft skills to be developed were not listed in the vision and mission.

EED II may provide the most thorough framework of the soft skill development as it provided a guidelines book consisting of a hundred pages entitled 'A Model of Character Education'. Published by the university, the book became the source and provided a comprehensive method for all departments to develop their students' soft skills.

As stated in the book, the educational aim of the EED II is

To produce students who have “competence”, “conscience” and “compassion”. Thus, graduates of EED II not only have high academic ability (competence), but the totality of these three elements. The process of education is considered as the key to produce such graduates. Competence is defined by academic ability that combines elements of knowledge, skills and attitudes. Conscience is defined as the ability to understand alternatives and make choices between good and bad as well as right and wrong. Basic elements of conscience include: moral awareness, responsibility, honesty, independence, freedom, openness, enthusiasm for learning, justice, and balance. Compassion is defined as a willingness to care for others and the environment (Men and women for and with others). The elements of compassion range from caring, sensitiveness, willingness, to responsiveness (Adi, 2010, p.3).

Hence, this suggests that the main aim of Jesuit education adopted in EED II was not merely the acquisition knowledge or the preparation of graduates to pursue careers, but to help them to develop human resources who possessed willingness to develop a strong sense of a religious conscience, compassion, and a commitment to justice as a reflection of service to fellow human beings. In fact, the educational principle refers to a document called “Ignatian Pedagogy : A Practical Approach issued by the Jesuit Center of International Education in Rome in 1933”. The ideas in this document had led the whole university to develop value-oriented education. However, as acknowledged by Adi (2010), its implementation is not always easy. Adi (2010) stated that the value-oriented education approach requires that the learning process should cater for the development of both moral and intellectual elements, and students need to be introduced to and confronted with the important issues and life values in the learning process. This process requires lecturers who have the ability and willingness to assist students to achieve these components.

In EED III, some attributes associated with soft skills were mentioned in one of its vision statements in that the department should be able to produce graduates possessing not only professional and pedagogical competencies, but also intrapersonal and interpersonal skills. Nevertheless, the types of soft skills to be developed by students were not clearly stated in the document.

The clearest statement of the soft skills to be achieved by students was found in EED IV in which some types of soft skills were listed in the statement of graduate competencies including the intrapersonal skills and interpersonal skills. With regard to intrapersonal skills the graduates would be able to: 1) be independent and be responsible; 2) act democratically, ethically and morally; 3) be a good role model; 4) act professionally and 5) develop multicultural sensitiveness. In terms of interpersonal or social skills, students should be able to demonstrate abilities to: 1) adapt ; 2) cooperate with others; 3) communicate effectively; 4) lead others and 5) manage conflict.

To summarize, the finding from the five EEDS' accreditation documents suggested that the inclusion of soft skills development was considered vital as mentioned in their vision and mission. The shared vision and mission of the soft skill development in the five EEDs seemed to be derived from the list of teacher competencies stated in the regulation of the Ministry of Education no. 16 in 2007, especially the personal and social competencies. The personal competencies mentioned in the regulation were associated with self-management, including the ability to adapt to religious, legal, social, and Indonesian cultural norms. Pulakos, et al. (2000), describing the personal competence more elaborately, divided this competence into two skills associated with adaptability and self-management and development. The former is the ability to respond to new, uncertain and rapidly changing conditions on the job and the ability to effectively cope with emergency situations and learning new tasks. The latter is concerned with the ability to be self-motivating in acquiring new skills related to work. The social skills stated in the regulations of the Ministry of Education were related to the ability to communicate effectively with students, students' parents and colleagues and ability to adapt to the social and multicultural backgrounds in Indonesia.

While soft skills had been included in the vision and mission of all five EEDs, the clearest trajectory of its development was found in EED I and II. In EED I the program called 'the bridging of soft skills' was designed to develop soft skills including motivation to success, creativity, team building, communication and leadership. Similarly, the framework of the soft skills development in EED II was clearly articulated in its book entitled 'A Model of Character Education'. In other departments, unfortunately, such frameworks were not found.

6.4.2 Methods for the Soft Skills Development

One of the challenging tasks for educators, according to Richards-Wilson (2002) is to design a curriculum which is more relevant to both academics and practitioners. Hagmann et al. (2003) have supported this view stating that producing graduates armed with the capacities to integrate hard and soft skills is perceived as a major challenge for universities. He suggests that producing graduates who are knowledgeable in both technical and human skills will equip the graduates to have better human resources in the work force because in addition to academic qualifications, the industry demands specific types of soft skills (ibid, 2003)

This section will highlight and compare the methods utilized by the five EEDs in developing the students' soft skills. Generally, the data taken from the accreditation documents and interviews with the HoDs, lecturers and students revealed that the learning and training of the soft skills were done through four methods, including stand-alone subject model, the embedded model, a combination of the stand-alone and embedded models, and the non-academic model across the five departments. The stand-alone subject model refers to the training to give students an opportunity to develop soft skills through specific and carefully planned courses. These subjects were offered as department subjects. In the embedded model, the soft skills were developed through teaching and learning across the curriculum rather than through stand-alone subjects. In the combination model, the department used both the stand-alone model and the embedded one. In the non-academic model, the soft skills were developed through a variety of co-curricular activities.

A. The Development of Soft Skills in EED I

The EED I combined the embedded and non-academic models. The stand-alone subject model included a soft skills development program called “the bridging of soft skills”, a training package designed to train students to develop their soft skills from semester one until semester six. This program included the training of some essential soft skills for students involving achievement motivation training (semester 1), creativity (semester 2), learning organization (semester 3), team building (semester 4), communication skills (semester 5) and leadership skills (semester 6). In these programs, selected lecturers acting as facilitators used particular learning methods to inculcate the soft skills to students such as lecturing, group discussion, problem solving,

creativity, collaboration, team building and communication games done either inside or outside the room. The duration of each training module in each semester was 30 hours. The majority of the students in the focus group discussion (FGD) said that the program was useful to develop their soft skills. They also said that the types of skills incorporated in the program were necessary to support their careers as English teachers. For instance, a student (participant S97A) felt that the bridging soft skills program was useful for developing her confidence. “After I join the outbound soft skills training, I feel motivated and I can increase my confidence in the class and in society”. The majority of students in the FGD felt that joining the bridging of skill programs had increased their motivation and communication skills. One student (S113A) however, was critical. She said, “Yes, I think the program is fun but sometimes I just enjoy the fun elements of the games, but do not really get many benefits from this program”.

In addition to the application of the stand-alone subject model, EED I also used the embedded model. This was articulated in its blueprint of its teaching and learning process, stating that various student-centered learning modes were employed. With regard to the soft skills development, as explained by one lecturer (L1A), the department had identified the elements of generic skills such as communication, teamwork and creativity to be inculcated in the students through the integration of these skills across the curriculum. The syllabi showed the inclusion of soft skills development in the learning outcomes. For instance, in a subject called “Issues in Language Teaching and Learning”, the learning outcomes of the hard skills involved: 1) Identify the problems in language teaching and learning; Read and comprehend journal articles on various issues in language teaching and learning; 2) Present/report journal article(s) of the students’ interests; 3) Analyze journal articles related to the problems in language teaching and learning of the students’ interests in the form of an annotated bibliography and 4) Present the annotated bibliography. The learning outcomes of the soft skills were also stated: “Students are able to have initiative and develop critical thinking in the issues of language teaching and learning and finding the solution for the problems. Finally, they will develop discipline and honesty in reporting the result of their investigation on the issues both orally and in a written form”.

However, according to the same lecturer (L1A), the challenge of developing the soft skills using the embedded model required the lecturers’ expertise to apply various teaching methods which

are entirely student-centered. She explained that the teaching strategies should require students to participate actively in the activities.

Another lecturer (L2A) acknowledged that the bridging soft skill program was not merely knowledge transferred to students during the training sessions. “In the classroom, the students’ soft skills such as creativity, communication skills, motivation and team building are encouraged and strengthened through classroom activities such as discussion, presentation and problem solving activities. So, soft skills are not separated skills, but we integrate the development of students’ soft skills with the teaching and learning process”. She further explained,

Personally, integrating soft skills doesn’t mean that a lecturer teaches about knowledge of soft skills. But lecturers should ensure that students behave well in class and develop their good personality. For instance, to develop cooperation and collaboration skills, I ask them to do the task in groups, and I should monitor and motivate how they can cooperate. Another example, if I want my students to be disciplined, I need to ask them to submit the assignment on time.

That the teaching methods used by lecturers had developed soft skills was confirmed by the majority of the students in the FGD. Class discussion was believed by several students as helpful to enhance their ability to cooperate with others and to sharpen their problem solving skills, and group presentation was considered effective in boosting their self-confidence. One student (S97A), however, expressed his concern that some lecturers’ ways of teaching were so monotonous that it lowered his motivation for learning.

EED I also used extracurricular activities to enhance students’ soft skills. According to one lecturer (L2A), the department ensured that students’ campus experience was enriched through different learning opportunities, including the expansion of social skills and networks through extracurricular activities. This involves programs and activities that were created, developed and implemented to promote soft skills either directly or indirectly. The extracurricular activities included martial arts, choir, debating clubs, mountain climbing, and a range of sport activities such as table tennis, soccer and basketball. The majority of students in the FGD believed that the extracurricular activities helped them to develop their soft skills. One student (S57A), for instance, explained that by joining the debating club, she could improve her English fluency and public speaking skills. She further said that in debates, she had the opportunity to develop her academic research skills, think critically, solve problems creatively and improve her

communication abilities. She explained that in the debating club the members were trained to write well, to analyze the information and to engage with in-depth internet and library research.

Another student (S35A) said that after she joined a student organization she could improve her teamwork and communication skills. Another student (S71A) felt that joining a martial arts club could boost his confidence and sense of discipline. A few students, however, admitted that they joined extracurricular programs to make friends and to escape from the campus routine.

In summary, the embedded model and non-academic model were two methods implemented by EED I in developing students' soft skills. The embedded and non-academic model were the strong points of EED I in its effort to develop students' soft skills. Elements of soft skills were spelled out in the learning outcomes and translated into the instructional plan for the semester. Pachauri and Yadav (2014) contend that the embedded model is the ideal one to be implemented at University as students have the opportunity to develop their soft skills across the courses. However, the incorporation of the embedded model in developing soft skills may lead to another challenge. As pointed out by Pachauri and Yadav (2014), when the embedded model is incorporated, lecturers need to have the expertise to use various teaching strategies and methods that are entirely student-centered. The two interviewed lecturers were, however, convinced that the majority of lecturers in the department had acquired various teaching strategies associated with student-centered learning. The lecturers' conviction was also supported by the majority of students in the FGD.

The department's initiative to conduct 'the bridging of soft skills' program may add another strong point in that it reflected the department's readiness to produce graduates who had acquired both hard skills and soft skills. According to Hagmann and Alkeminders (2003), producing graduates who have the capacity to integrate across disciplines and skills (hard and soft skills) has become the main challenge of universities. The types of the soft skills developed in the bridging of soft skills were also believed by the majority of students interviewed as necessary to support their career as English teachers.

B. The Development of Soft Skills in EED II

In EED II, as stated in its guidelines book for developing the students' character, three models were used to foster the development of students' soft skills including curricular, co-curricular

and extracurricular activities. With regards to the curricular model, soft skills development was regarded as integral to teaching and learning. The two interviewed lecturers said that the Ignatian Pedagogical paradigm and the student-centered approach were used to instill the soft skills in the students. That the teaching and learning process had catered for the development of soft skills was acknowledged by most interviewed students. One student, for instance, (S55B), explained,

I think this department has tried to develop those skills. I think soft skills are related to personal and social skills and I feel that they have been developed in the teaching and learning process. Personally, I feel that my soft skills were developed through doing an assignment in the discussion group. In fact, in the discussion I can learn how to engage with friends whom I like and I dislike, but I have to be able to collaborate with them all. Moreover, individual tasks also develop my soft skill and personality. Doing the tasks, I have to be a responsible person.

In terms of the curricular program the EED II had used the combination of the stand-alone subject model and the embedded model. With regard to the stand-alone subject model, the two interviewed lecturers explained that some subjects were categorized as developing the soft-skills in the curriculum, including *Religious Study* (personal and social skills), *Pancasila Education* (personal and social skills), *Speaking I* (personal skill), *Psychology of Teenagers* (social skills) and *Teaching Practice* (personal and social skills). According to the two lecturers, such soft skills development was regarded as a part of teaching and learning, especially with the application of the Ignatian Pedagogical paradigm. L1B said that by using it, lecturers were not only to develop students' competence, but also enhance students' soft skills. "In Ignatian Pedagogy, our main goal is to enable students to achieve the three Cs: competence, conscience and compassion. While competence represents hard skills, 'conscience' and 'compassion' reflect the soft skills, values and character beyond the hard skills". The syllabus of the subjects included both hard skills (competence) and soft skills (conscience and compassion) as the learning outcome. For example, the learning outcomes of the *Structure I*, as stated by L1B, were that students were able to understand the parts of speech and simple sentence patterns demonstrated by their ability to identify types of words and the basic patterns of the English sentence as well as compose simple English sentences correctly. In terms of soft skills, the outcomes of the 'conscience' element was that students were able to act honestly and openly as demonstrated by their ability to identify values of honesty in the learning process and expressing opinions about them frankly and honestly. The outcome of the 'compassion' element was that students were

able to fulfill their roles in the group work, indicated by their ability to help others who have difficulty in learning and doing tasks.

The ‘compassion’ aspect in the Ignatian pedagogy was considered by some students as vital in developing their soft skills. As an illustration, one student (S113B) expressed her view that before studying at the department, she was taught that life was a competition and friends were competitors. She further said that through experiencing the teaching and learning process in the department her understanding of life as a competition had changed. She said,

You know in the teaching learning process, we were asked to give peer feedback to our friends’ work. Using this feedback, I can help my friends if they have difficulty in doing the tasks. Similarly, my friends can also help me if I have problems in doing the exercises. Then I began to think that my friends are not necessarily competitors. They are friends and we have to help each other. If we graduate from this university and get a job, I also think that they are not competitors.

Another student (S113B) considered the ‘reflection’ stage in the Ignatian Pedagogy in developing students’ soft skills as important as it allowed her to understand herself. She explained, “A part of the teaching and learning process in the classroom is writing a reflection. In addition to strengthening our understanding of the learning materials, I think the reflection is a way to understand myself, my strengths and weaknesses”.

In the co-curricular model, students were trained through a subject called PPKM (*Pelatihan Pengembangan Kepribadian Mahasiswa*) or the training for student character development, a program to cultivate the students’ effective habits for holistic personal growth, resonating with the vision and mission of the University. The fundamental idea of this program, as stated in the guidelines book for character development, was to nurture students’ seven habits as proposed by Covey (1989) consisting of: 1) be proactive; 2) begin with the end in mind; 3) put first things first; 4) think win-win; 5) seek first to understand, then to be understood; 6) synergize and 7) ‘sharpen the saw’ (self-improvement).

The implementation of PPKM, as explained by one lecturer (L1A), was divided into two stages. *PPKM 1*, held in the first year, focused on the development of the first three habits, whereas the *PPKM 2*, held by each department, focused on the development of other habits. She said that the facilitators in these activities used the workshop and student-centered learning. Games and

collaborative activities were used to help students acquire the soft skills derived from Covey's *Seven Habits of Highly Effective People*.

EED II also provided several extracurricular activities to develop the students' soft skills. This included such extracurricular programs as martial arts, sports, debating club, singing choir and a range of sports including basketball, soccer and volley ball. One lecturer (L1B) believed that through extracurricular activities, the students were able to attain a physically and spiritually holistic and balanced education, leading students to be more mature and confident. Another lecturer (L2B) was of the opinion that extracurricular activities were useful to inculcate and incorporate leadership qualities, student discipline, teamwork and organizational skills, all of which were considered by her as vital for the teaching profession. Most of the interviewed students supported the lecturers' opinion that the extracurricular activities were instrumental for the development of their soft skills. To illustrate, one student (S55B) gave an insight regarding the importance of activities in developing the soft skills outside the classroom. In addition to classroom activities, she also noted that some activities involved the development of soft skills. "I think, outside classroom activities also help me to develop my soft skills in order to be a professional teacher such as 'weekend moral', 'sharing moment' and 'ministry'". In the same vein, another student (S75B) stated that joining campus organizations was instrumental in developing the student's soft skills. She said that the department encouraged students to join organizations and to be involved in the committee of the campus' activities. She acknowledged that joining organizations had helped her to enhance her social skills such as the ability to respect differences. Specifically, she highlighted the environment where respecting different religions was encouraged. She said, "I really appreciate that the department cultivates an atmosphere where we should respect other people who have a different religion. For example, even though this is a Catholic university, my friends here respect me as a Muslim. When I do a prayer they also respect me".

The development of the soft skills was also encouraged by the department by providing some student activities. The activities, as stated in the accreditation document, included 'English action days' and 'break time'. English action days were activities managed by the students in which they conducted English competition events including debating and speech contests for students of senior high schools. According to one lecturer (L1B), in this activity, students had the

opportunity to use their abilities to plan, organize, actualize and evaluate the programs. She further said that the students' collaborative skills were also sharpened because students should develop good teamwork with other students and lecturers in order to ensure the success of the program. In the 'break time', students could express themselves through artistic performances such as reading poetry, singing and performing a drama.

In order to encourage students to join extracurricular activities at university level and other activities at the department level, one lecturer (L1B) explained that a student should have minimally accumulated ten points showing his or her frequency in participating in campus activities prior to graduation. This point, according to the HoD, became mandatory and a part of the students' graduation requirement.

The findings suggest that in general EED II had paid a great deal of attention in the development of its students' soft skills through its curricular, co-curricular and extracurricular programs. The strong point of the curricular program was the application of Ignatian Pedagogy which was believed by the interviewed lecturers and the majority of interviewed students as effective in developing the soft skills. In fact, as Duminuco (2000) points out, Ignatian Pedagogy attempts to encourage students by engaging them as critical active participants in the learning-process. The engaging learning process in the Ignatian Pedagogy, as believed by the interviewed lecturers, was powerful in enhancing both students' hard and soft skills. In addition to this, the 'experience', one of the steps in the teaching and learning process, ensured that learning was to move beyond the acquisition of rote knowledge to the development of more complex learning skills such as understanding, analysis, synthesis and application (Jesuit Institute, 1993). Furthermore, Duminuco (2000) points out that the Ignatian Pedagogy focuses on the social dimension of both learning and teaching as it encourages close mutual sharing and cooperation which is an important element of interpersonal skill.

The PPKM or the training for student character added to another strong point of the department's aim to enhance students' skills. The types of the soft skills developed in this program was derived from well-formulated principles proposed by Covey (1989) which had been widely used by companies around the world to train their workers. The life principles proposed by Covey (1989), termed as 7 habits of highly effective people, was a combination of intrapersonal skills

(being proactive, setting personal vision and mission, having priority scale, and sustaining continued self-development) and interpersonal skills including (thinking win-win, understanding others and synergizing). The program and the detailed activities, as explained in its thorough guidelines, made it easy to be carried out by lecturers and students.

The findings have also shown that the department had a creative initiative to use extracurricular as an instrument to enhance students' soft skills by requiring them to join ten activities prior to their graduation. Hence, instead of treating the extracurricular program as being 'taken for granted', the department had managed to capitalize on it as a method to develop students' soft skills which in fact, demonstrated the department's concern.

C. The Development of Soft Skills in EED III

In EED III the HoD believed in the importance of developing students' soft skills in order to prepare them to compete in the job market. When asked about whether the soft skills had been developed and were included in the assessment, the HoD responded, "At the university level, the soft skills had been developed before I became the head of department. However, the department has not developed a framework to enhance students' soft skills and its assessment. Instead, it is up to lecturers to develop it".

The two interviewed lecturers acknowledged that the syllabus did not contain a format which covered the development and assessment of the soft skills though she said that she included the discussion of teachers' personal and moral characters in certain subjects she taught. One lecturer (L2C) stated that the training of soft skills was conducted by the university. According to him, at the department level the development of soft skills was not formally integrated into the curriculum, nor was it included in the students' assessment. The same lecturer explained that the development of soft skills was up to lecturers' initiative. While giving an example from his own teaching experience, he said, "When I teach the subject 'Sociolinguistics', I ask my students to be aware of different cultural values influencing different use of languages. So I encourage them to use appropriate and proper language in any situation". The lecturers' opinion was supported by the majority of students in the FGD. One student (S23C), for instance, said that the students' final score did not include the soft skills scores. He said that the soft skills should have

contributed to the students' final score because they were vital in assisting students to become effective teachers.

Referring to the curriculum structure, one lecturer (L1C) was of the opinion that several subjects had content that developed students' soft skills. They included, according to her, such subjects as *Religious Education, Pancasila Education, Citizenship Education, Cross-cultural Understanding* and *Community Service*. Hence, she concluded that the development of the soft skills had been accommodated in the curricular level. However, according to L2C, there were no subjects specifically designed to serve as stand-alone subjects to develop the students' soft skills. However, most of the interviewed students commented that when they learned some of those subjects, the focus was on the theory, but not on the practical skills.

That some lecturers had incorporated teaching methods that encouraged students to develop their collaborative and communications skills in their teaching was acknowledged by a few students. As an illustration one student (S95C) said, "Some lecturers sometimes encourage us to have good communication skills, because as teachers we have to be able to communicate with students having different personalities". However, according to her, soft skills were not assessed and did not contribute to her final score. The absence of the more structured soft skills integration in the teaching and learning process became the concern of the majority of interviewed students. For instance, one student (S85C) commented, "The absence of the formal integration of soft skills in the teaching and learning process is regrettable because this university is well-known for its leading character education". Another student (S77C) held the opinion that there was only a small number of lecturers who were concerned with the development of soft skills and included a soft skill component in the students' final score.

Another method which had been adopted by the department to develop students' soft skills, according to the two interviewed lecturers, was the provision of extracurricular activities. The interviewed lecturers and the majority of students in FGD believed that participating in extracurricular activities could have helped them to develop soft skills such as team work, leadership and communication skills. However, while there were various extracurricular activities provided by the universities, the two interviewed lecturers and most of the interviewed students explained that there was no obligation for students to join extracurricular activities.

These findings suggest that in general, while the vision of developing soft skills was mentioned in its vision and mission, there was no systematized program initiated by EED III to develop the students' soft skills. Both lecturers and most of the students in FGD indicated that there were not stand alone subjects associated with the soft skills in the curriculum structure. They also explained that the development of skills was given little attention in the teaching and learning process, evidenced by the absence of any learning outcomes related to soft skills. The majority of students also held the view that there were only a few lecturers who were capable of using various teaching methods which could nurture the enhancement of their soft skills. The only method which seemed to be adopted by EED III in the development of soft skills was providing students with extracurricular activities. However, there was no mechanism which required the students to join the extracurricular activities.

D. The Development of Soft Skills in EED IV

The development of soft skills was considered vital for the students' careers as teachers by the two interviewed lecturers and most of the students in the FGD. The rationale of developing students' soft skills was explained by one lecturer (L1D), saying that the department should not be oriented only to give the academic scores to students, but it should also equip its graduates with soft skills so that they could contribute to the development of the country. When asked about the development of soft skills in the curriculum, the same lecturer explained that the curriculum had included the subject *Ketamansiswaan* as a stand-alone subject to develop the soft skills at the beginning of the semester. According to him, *Tamansiswa* was a pedagogical philosophy proposed by the founder of the university which aimed to develop the students' character. He further said that through this subject, students were not only to know the *Tamansiswa* values but also to behave according to those values. Similarly, some interviewed students explained that the subject of *Tamansiswa* had given them knowledge how to acquire teachers' characters and soft skills. One student (S73D), for example, said that through the subject of *Tamansiswa*, he learnt how to use the *among* system in educating students. He elaborated, "In the *among* system, I was taught how to inspire and motivate my students".

The second lecturer (L2D) acknowledged that the systematized integration of soft skills in the teaching and learning process had not been incorporated into the curriculum structure. She gave

an example of how the syllabus did not contain the learning outcomes associated with the soft skills. The absence of soft skills as learning outcomes in many subjects was also confirmed by most of the students. As an illustration, one student (S35D) said that lecturers never informed students about the soft skills such as collaborative and communication skills as learning outcomes in the teaching and learning process.

One interviewed lecturer (L1D) was aware that the development of students' soft skills could be done through various teaching methods. By way of illustration he explained how he integrated the development of soft skills in teaching his writing subject,

In my writing class, I want students to be honest, be cooperative with others and be creative. In doing the writing exercise for example, they must use their original ideas. Plagiarism is not tolerated. There are also times when students have to discuss and brainstorm for ideas, sharing their opinions with other students. So they must be helpful to others. Then, I always encourage students that they can write well if they are creative in finding ideas.

However, according to the majority of students in the FGD, many lecturers still focused on lecturing the students. One of the students (S57D), for instance, said, "It is difficult to develop our communication skills if lecturers keep lecturing us, and we just listen to them. We expect that more lecturers will use teaching methods which enable us to use our English to interact with other students."

One lecturer (L2D) was firm that the soft skills could be acquired cognitively through some pedagogy-based subjects. She stated, "I think subjects such as 'Education Professions' and 'An Introduction to Education' will groom students and develop their character as teachers". Meanwhile, L1D believed that the soft skills development could be embedded through the teaching and learning process. Hence, he stated that lecturers should be capable of using various teaching methods which could enable students to improve their soft skills such as communication and collaborations skills. The same lecturer was of the opinion that a subject called the *Community Service Program* was invaluable to enhance students' soft skills. He explained that in this program, students were challenged to develop educational programs for society where communication and interpersonal skills were involved. "When the students engage with the *Community Service Program* for one and a half months, they really have a real situation where they can apply their soft skills such as how to make presentation and how to use their interpersonal skills in society".

When asked about the provision of extracurricular activities in the department, the majority of students in the FGD said that the university provided many extracurricular activities such as sports, debating club and martial arts club. They further said that it is not obligatory for them to join and the department did not require them to join those activities even though they believed that joining extracurricular activities would be helpful to enhance some soft skills including team work and leadership skills.

To summarize, the interview with lecturers and students found that generally they were aware of the importance of the soft skills for the graduates' careers as teachers. The interview with the lecturers revealed that the curriculum incorporated a stand-alone subject called *Tamansiswa*, an educational philosophy proposed by the founder of the university. In addition to a stand-alone subject, the interviewed lecturers believed that they could apply innovative teaching techniques which allowed students to develop their soft skills. However, they acknowledged that the department did not require them to incorporate soft skills as the learning outcomes. Hence, the embedded method of developing students' skill through the teaching and learning process depended on the individual lecturer. On the other hand, the majority of students were of the opinion that many lecturers still implemented the teacher-centered approach, hence failing to give students the opportunity to develop their soft skills. Another method used by the department was providing various extracurricular activities for students. However, the department did not design a mechanism for students to mandate participation.

E. The Development of Soft Skills in EED V

Based on the interview with the two lecturers and analysis of the document of the curriculum structure, several subjects were directed toward the development of the soft skills including *Pancasila*, *Islamic Study I*, *Citizenship Education*, *Basic Socio-Cultural Science*, *Islamic Study II*, *Islamic Study III*, *Cross Cultural Understanding* and *Community Service*. However, when asked whether these subjects could effectively enhance their soft skills, the majority of students said that the subjects mainly focused on learning the theoretical aspects of the learning contents instead of inculcating certain soft skills. The way lecturers taught these subjects, according to the majority of the students in FGD, was mainly by direct lecturing.

That several subjects had the potential to develop the students' soft skills was acknowledged by the lecturers. One lecturer (L1E), for instance, explained that the *Community Service Program* in the sixth semester allowed students to practice their communication skills. He described how students should interact with staff of the village authorities and the people in conducting some programs in the *Community Service*. He added, "I think by doing the community service program, students are able to learn social norms and to behave ethically. This is an important element of personal and social skills. Additionally I believe that this program also encourages students to be independent".

The same lecturer also explained that the students' soft skills were enhanced through the teaching and learning process. He said, "For example, when students learn a subject, the classroom activities should encourage them to communicate effectively through presentation and discussion. When interaction in the groups occurs among students, they were actually in the process of developing their soft skills including listening, teamwork and leadership skills". Similarly, another lecturer (L2E) held a view that soft skills should not be taught as a subject. "If we taught it as a subject, then we develop their cognitive skills or hard skills, not their soft skills", she said. Instead, she was of the opinion that soft skills could be fostered through creating a learning atmosphere which allowed students to apply them. Based on the syllabus used by lecturers, however, the soft skills development was not a part of the learning outcomes.

Most of the students in the FGD were also aware that the teaching techniques used by lecturers could promote the development of their soft skills. One student (S43E) explained how the discussion times in the class had encouraged her to cooperate with other students. Most of the interviewed students, however, felt that the department and lecturers did not seriously consider soft skills as important aspects to improve graduate quality. For instance, many students said that lecturers never informed them about the development of soft skills. One student (S45E) stated that soft skills were never incorporated in the targeted learning outcome and they were not included as an element to be assessed by the majority of lecturers.

In terms of the co-curricular programs, as the two lecturers and most of the students pointed out, there was no specific program designed to develop the students' soft skills. Some students said that there was only a lecture in the orientation period where students were introduced to the importance of soft skills and personal character in the profession. Nevertheless, they felt that

such a program was insufficient because it only ran for two hours and it mainly focused on theoretical knowledge.

However, one lecturer (L2E) stated that the department encouraged students to join extracurricular activities and organizations on campus to develop their soft skills. When asked if students were obliged to join the extracurricular activities, the same lecturer replied in the negative even though he believed that those programs were useful for developing the students' soft skills. Most of the students in the FGD confirmed L2 E's statement. One student (S73E), for example, explained that after he joined a student association in the English department, he learned how to develop effective communication, persuade others, lead others and develop team work.

The finding revealed that several subjects such as *Pancasila*, *Islamic Study 1*, *Citizenship Education*, *Basic Socio Cultural Science*, *Cross Cultural Understanding and Community Service*, as believed by the interviewed lecturers, served as stand-alone subjects to develop the students' soft skills. However, students were skeptical of the effectiveness of those subjects in enhancing their soft skills since they felt that the teaching was focused more on knowledge transfer from lecturers to students through lecturing rather than on the development of selected soft skills. In addition, at the curricular level the soft skills development was not systematically incorporated in the curriculum. As students explained, the soft skills were not included as learning outcomes and were not included as elements assessed by lecturers. Another mechanism for developing soft skills through extracurricular activities was provided by the department. While there was encouragement from the department for students to join those activities, students were not obliged to join them.

In summary, with regard to the soft skills development in all five EEDs, EED I and EED II had developed the best trajectories. Both departments had a program for enhancing the students' soft skills through co-curricular activities, providing students the opportunity to use their soft skills through various student-centered learning activities. At the curricular level, in addition to hard skills, soft skills were incorporated as the learning outcomes in all subjects. The lecturers' conviction that they had applied the teaching techniques which aided the development of soft skills was confirmed by the majority of interviewed students. The students, particularly in EED

II, were also obliged to join extracurricular activities to boost their soft skills as one of the graduation requirements.

In EED III, IV and V, there was no clear trajectory for the development of soft skills in terms of curricular, co-curricular or extracurricular areas. The development of soft skills was not included as the learning outcomes in the curriculum. The lecturers' belief that the development of soft skills was embedded in the teaching and learning process was not confirmed by the majority of interviewed students in FGD. They said that only a few lecturers had applied teaching techniques which allowed students to use their soft skills. EED III, IV and V did not incorporate any co-curricular programs to enhance their students' soft skills.

The findings suggest that there were only two EEDs (EED I and II) which had responded well to the increasing challenges of producing quality graduates. The responses were well manifested in their clear trajectory of the soft skill development and in their implementation including in the extracurricular, co-curricular and curricular activities. As Hagmann and Almekinders (2003) point out, the main challenge for higher education institutions is to produce 'ideal' graduates having the capacity to integrate hard and soft skills. Kaur et al. (2008) assert that the lack of soft skills had led to graduate unemployment. Hagmann and Almekinders (2003) maintain that there is a close linkage between the attainment of soft skills and the employability of graduates. Greater awareness about the importance of the soft skills for their graduates, therefore, should be raised in EED IV and V and clear trajectories for the development of the soft skills should be initiated.

6.5 Assessment

In addition to the teaching and learning process, assessment is a significant aspect in CBC. As a central concern of learner-centered teaching in the CBC setting is learning, assessment in the student-centered classroom, as Weimer (2002) maintains, is not merely to generate grades, but, more importantly, to promote learning. Popham (2008) suggests that the assessment process serves several purposes, including monitoring the strengths and weaknesses of students' learning, assisting teachers to understand the students' progress, evaluating the learning process and classifying students into groups. As pointed out by Chan (2008), assessment is concerned about collecting evidence for student progress toward achievement of a learning goal by using

any appropriate strategy, tool or method. The following section will present and discuss the findings of the research concerning the assessment process in the five case studies.

6.5.1 Assessment in EED I

The two interviewed lecturers, and confirmed by the majority of students in FGD, explained that formative assessment was used without any summative assessment at the end of the semester. To promote formative assessment, lecturers used the rubrics to score students. For example, to score the students' essay writing in the subject "Academic Reading and Writing", the following rubric was used.

Table 6.3: Assessment Rubric in EED I

Student number	Student name	Aspects to be scored					score
		Content/Ideas	Organization	Grammar/Structure	Word Choice/Word Form	Mechanics	

Source: Curriculum documents in EED I

The above rubric contains the student number, student name and aspects to be scored in the essay writing tasks though not the percentages allocated for each aspect. It is clearly shown in the table that the lecturer has considered comprehensive aspects to be scored in the students' essays including the content or ideas, the organization of the text, the grammar or language structure, the word choice or word form and the mechanics.

The lecturer used the following range to give a score to the students as shown in Table 6.4:

Table 6.4: Assessment Rubric in EED I

Score	The description of abilities		
	Content/Ideas	Organization	Grammar/Structure
Exceptional: 25-23 Very good: 22-20 Average: 19-17 Needs work: 16-0	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Has excellent support - Is interesting to read - Has unity and completeness - Adheres to assignment parameters 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Has introductory paragraph with clear thesis statement - Has body paragraphs with good organization - Has concluding paragraph - Has cohesion and coherence 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Demonstrates control of basic grammar (e.g. tenses, verb forms, noun forms, preposition, articles) - Shows sophistication of sentence structure with complex and compound sentences.
	Word Choice/Form	Mechanics	
Exceptional: 15-14 Very good: 13-12 Average: 11-10 Needs Work: 9-0	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Demonstrates sophisticated choice of vocabulary items - Has correct idiomatic use of vocabulary - Has correct word forms 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Has good paragraph format - Demonstrates good control over use of capital letters, periods, commas, and semicolons - Demonstrates control over spelling - Doesn't have fragments, comma splices, or run-on sentences 	

Source: Curriculum documents in EED I

According to the views of the two lecturers which were confirmed by most of the students in the FGD, assignments were designed to support the formative assessment. For example, in the subject called *Material Design*, the lecturer used some assignments including the 'blog entries' (20%); 'final project draft' (10%); 'final project' (30%) and 'presentation of the final project' (10%). The following rubric in Table 6.5 is the design of the assignment for the 'blog entries'. Most of the interviewed students said that all lecturers gave them three assignments for one semester as a minimum.

Table 6.5: The rubric of assignment for ‘blog entries’ in EED I

The name of subject	Material Design	SKS	4
Department	English Education	Meeting	2-11
Faculty	Language Education	Value	20%
Goal: Reflection on reading materials			

Source: Curriculum documents of EED I

A.Goal:

Students are able to reflect their understanding on each reading assignment.

B. Detail of assignment:

- a. Name of assignment : Blog posting
- b. What should students do: Written blog posts
- c. Methods:
 - 1. Students read the assigned text for each week.
 - 2. They make a reflection on the reading that they have read
 - 3. They, then, post the reflections on the blog www.materialdesignpbiumy.wordpress.com every week
- d. Outcome: 10 blog posts for each student
- e. Value: 20%
 - Grade A:** Students post 10 blog posts that reflects their understanding and evaluation on the reading
 - Grade B:** Only 80% of the students blog posts reflect the reading assignment
 - Grade C:** Only 50% of the students blog posts reflect their understanding of the reading
 - Grade D:** Only 25% of the blog posts reflects their understanding of the reading
 - Grade E:** Students do not post any reflection on the blog

The two interviewed lecturers supported by the majority of the students in the FGD indicated that the use of rubrics was instrumental in the assessment process. As an illustration, one student (S75A) said, “We were informed that in the CBC system, my final grade would not be taken from the final examination, but from some assignments as shown in the rubrics and our overall activities on a daily basis”. Another student (S57A) said, “I think all lecturers have told us about the elements which will be scored such as attendance, classroom activities and assignments”. However, he criticized that sometimes the student score did not reflect the criteria for the subject. He mentioned an example that the students who were active in the attendance and classroom activities did not achieve a good score. Another critical comment came from another student (S113A), saying that for an assessment process such as teaching practice, lecturers only scored the students based on the final report. Hence, he thought that unless the lecturers attended physically to evaluate the students’ teaching practice, the final score did not reflect the students’ real ability. She added that concerning the scoring of the teaching practice, lecturers did not give

feedback to students, so that the students did not receive information from lecturers if they had performed well.

Asked about what happened when students failed a certain subject, the interviewed lecturers and most of the students explained that the department provided mechanisms called remedial teaching. One lecturer (L1A) said, “So if a student failed, it means that they have to improve the skills and we help them to improve them through remedial teaching”. Another lecturer (L2A) said that remedial teaching was like the normal teaching and learning process.

The use of authentic assessment was indicated by the interviewed lecturers. One lecturer (L2A), for example, claimed that she never used the multiple choice tests. Instead, she said that when she taught skills-based subjects such as speaking, she designed an assessment process which allowed students to demonstrate their speaking skills. “For speaking for daily life for instance, I group students to create a job-interview dialogue or I ask them to use prepared questions one by one so that I will see how they have acquired the speaking skill they have learnt”. For the theory-based subjects, she said that she used projects that encouraged students to solve real problems in the area of English language teaching. The majority of the students confirmed the use of the assignments motivated them to use their knowledge to solve the problems. One student (S83A), for example, explained how all lecturers never used a test at the end of the semester to test their understanding through multiple choice tests. Most of the students in the FGD stated that assignments in the form of projects were common and they explained that the projects were compiled as portfolios.

Another interesting finding was that according to the interviewed lecturers and most of the students, in addition to the components of English skills, the soft skills were assessed and scored. The two lecturers as well as the majority of the students in the FGD said that the soft skills components contributed 20 per cent to the students’ final score. Asked about the rationale of incorporating the soft skills assessment in the assignment, one lecturer (L2A) argued, “Soft skill is one of the elements that contribute to the final grade of a student because I think soft skills strongly support the profession of a teacher ". The document of RPS (Rancangan Pembelajaran Semester) or Semester Learning Design showed that some soft skills were assessed as part of the overall final score. For example, in the subject *Academic Reading and Writing*, the soft skills to

be scored were students' ability to exhibit their cooperation, responsibility, creativity, respect, and communication. The grade, score and the quality described in the score are shown in the following table:

Table 6.6: Assessment of soft skills in EED I

Soft skill 1: Cooperation

GRADE	SCORE	DESCRIPTION
A	81 <	Consistently makes necessary compromises to accomplish a common goal.
B	61 – 80	Usually makes necessary compromises to accomplish a common goal.
C	41 – 60	Occasionally makes compromises to accomplish a common goal, and sometimes helps keep the group working well together.
D	21 – 40	Rarely makes compromises to accomplish a common goal and has difficulty getting along with other group members.
E	... < 20	Rarely makes compromises to accomplish a common goal and has difficulty getting along with other group members.

Soft skill 2. Effective communication

GRADE	SKOR	DESCRIPTION
A	81 <	Respectfully listens, interacts, discusses and poses questions to all members of the class during the teaching and learning process.
B	61 – 80	Respectfully listens, interacts, discusses and poses questions to some of the members of the class during the teaching and learning process.
C	41 – 60	Has some difficulty respectfully listening and discussing, and tends to dominate class discussions and participation.
D	21 – 40	Has great difficulty listening, argues with classmates, and is unwilling to consider other opinions.
E	... < 20	Not able to communicate with other members of the class

Source: Curriculum documents of EED I

These findings suggest that in general the assessment practice in EED I was inclined to the principles of competency-based assessment. According to Griffith and Lim (2014), in competency-based education, the majority of assessments will be formative. It was evidenced that formative assessment was used in EED I. The lecturers, as pointed out by the majority of the

interviewed students in FGD had students do three assignments in one semester as a minimum. This was in agreement with what was suggested by Griffith and Lim (2014) that in the competency-based learning, formative assessments must be frequent in order to assess progress.

In addition to the use of formative assessment, assessment rubrics were employed, stating the proficiency-based criteria. As shown in Table 6.4, the subject called “Academic reading and writing” incorporated the description of abilities in writing an essay including the use of the proper organization, grammar, word choice and mechanics. The detailed score standard with its ranges was also provided for each competency. O’Connor (2002) asserts that in the competency-based learning, proficiency-based criteria must be available and one grade was given for each competency. Furthermore, the rubrics for assessing the soft skills were also available and they were also accompanied by detailed criteria of score and proficiency components.

Another significant finding was the incorporation of the authentic assessment. According to Wiggins (1990), to be truly authentic, assessments must require students to use knowledge and skills to complete a task and the assessments necessitate the real-world tasks. The two interviewed lecturers supported by the majority of the interviewed students suggested that the real-world tasks such as a job interview dialogue was used as the methods to assess the students’ competencies in English. In summary, numerous components of the competency-based assessment had been implemented in EED I.

6.6.2 Assessment in EED II

According to the two interviewed lecturers and most of the interviewed students, the combination of formative and summative assessment was implemented. As pointed out by the two lecturers, all of the lecturers in the department used assignments and tests, including mid and final semester tests. The students’ final score, according to them, was the combination of the assignment, the tests and other components. Table 6.7 shows the sample of the assessment components for the subject ‘Structure 1’.

Table 6.7: The elements of the assessment in the subject ‘Structure I’ in EED II

No	Types of assessment	Format	Contribution
1	Attendance	Presence list	5%
2	Reflection	Written	5%
3	Students Quizzes	Written/verbal	20%
4	Mid test 1	Written	20%
5	Mid test 2	Written	20%
6	Final semester test	Written	30%

Source: Curriculum documents of EED II

Concerning the mid and final semester tests, one student (S105B) explained, “In my department, however, the time for the mid test is flexible. It is not decided by the department but by lecturers. And I think this is good because we can discuss with lecturers whether or not we have been ready for the test. If we are not ready, lecturers will give us more time to study and prepare for the test.”

According to the two interviewed lecturers, the format of the mid and final semester tests depended on the subjects. One lecturer (L1B) explained that in the skill-based subjects such as speaking, students were assessed through observing their speaking practice in pairs or groups. She said, “The students were required to talk about the topics related to daily events and activities”. On the contrary, for theory-based subjects, according to another lecturer (L2B) students were usually asked to write opinion essays.

According to the majority of the students in the FGD, quizzes were incorporated as the methods of assessments. The following were samples of a quiz shown by L1B for the subject “Structure 1”:

Quiz 1: Correct the mistakes in the use of singular and plural forms

- 1. Every child in the class know the alphabets.*
- 2. Some of the magazines at the dentist’s office are two year old.*
- 3. A number of the students in my class is from Mexico.*
- 4. One of my favorite subjects in school are algebra.*
- 5. There are many different kind of insects in the world.*

Quiz 2: Choose the correct pronoun in italics

1. *Please take these papers and give it, them to Mike.*
2. *Tom asked Ann and I, me about the new theater.*
3. *Janice and I, me live in a apartment.*
4. *Just between you and I, me, I think Tom is going to lose him, his job.*
5. *When a player committed a foul, the referee blew him, his whistle and pointed at she, her.*

According to most of the students, rubrics were used by lecturers and they were made available ahead of time. The two lecturers also stated that all lecturers used marking rubrics for assessments. According to them, rubrics helped lecturers and students to focus on the mastery of competencies they had to achieve. L1B said that lecturers should develop rubrics based on the Ignatian Pedagogy Paradigm. Table 6.8 shows the sample for the rubric used by L1B when she taught ‘Structure 1’.

Table 6.8: Indicators of the subject ‘Structure I’

Lesson	Competence	Indicators
Lesson 1: Course orientation Parts of Speech Basic Sentence Pattern	Competence: students are able to understand the parts of speech and simple patterns.	Students are able to: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Identify types of words. • Identify basic pattern of English sentences. • Compose English simple sentences correctly.
	Conscience: students were expected to act honestly and openly.	Students are able to: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Identify the values of honesty in the learning process. • Express opinion about them frankly and honestly.
	Compassion: Students are able to fulfill their roles in the group work.	Students are able to help others who have difficulty in learning and doing tasks.
Lesson 2: Phrase Structure	Competence: students are able to understand the types of English phrases.	Students are able to: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Find the phrase types in the texts. • Identify types of English phrases accurately. • Compose English phrases verbally and in written form.
	Conscience: students are able to be aware of their capacity in learning the structure of English phrases.	Students are able to: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Express their difficulty in understanding the lesson and doing the tasks. • Ask questions to their friends and lecturers.

	Compassion: Students are able to share with other students.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Students are able to share their knowledge and understanding of the lesson to their friends.
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Source: Curriculum documents of EED I

It can be seen from Table 6.8 that the elements to be assessed were parts of the learning targets based on the Ignatian Pedagogy Paradigm including competence, conscience and compassion. The indicators of the mastery of each element were also provided. L1B further explained that each element of competence was scored, ranging from one to a hundred. The students' final score was in the letters A, B, C and D. According to the two lecturers and most of the students in the FGD, students who failed in a certain subject should repeat the same subject in a semester. No remedial teaching mechanism was provided by the department.

One lecturer (L1A) stated that the assessment format referring to the Ignatian Pedagogy Paradigm was not always used by lecturers. She explained that she used her own rubrics instead of using the three aspects of competence, conscience and compassion in assessing students. She said, "In scoring English skills, especially speaking skills, I use my own scoring sheets to score my students. I also use notes to jot down each student's progress. In the notes, I describe all students so that I know whether or not they have made progress".

Table 6.8 and the two lecturers' perceptions revealed that the assessment had covered both hard and soft skills. One lecturer (L1B) said,

As there are three areas we develop in the Ignatian pedagogy, namely competence, conscience and compassion, we not only assess the students' cognitive competence but also student's affective domain. For example, we also take into account the students' honesty. Students' discipline is also involved in contributing to the students' final score. We see the students' discipline through their attendance. In our department, we have a rule that the minimum requirement for the students' attendance is 75 per cent, or else they will get 'fail' score in a certain subject. Moreover, we also consider their participation in the class. Their active participation in the class contributes to their final score. So, the final score of A, B, C and D is not only determined by the written test.

Despite the inclusion of the soft skill of discipline obtained from the attendance percentage and the soft skill of honesty obtained from the reflection, the soft skill involving ability to cooperate with others was not included in the assessment. L1B acknowledged that she did not have a clear mechanism to score the soft skills of students. She said, "For the time being, I don't score the

students' soft skills. To score students' academic skills is easy because we can use a test, but I think to score the students' soft skills is not that easy" As a result she used her common sense to include the students' attendance in the final score. "At the end of semester, I always check the students' attendance and if they always attend the class, this can be a bonus point for that student. For example, if a student gets 79 and he always comes to the class and is disciplined, then I give him a score A". She further acknowledged that it was difficult to balance the three aspects of competence, conscience and compassion in teaching and assessing students. She said, "I sometimes give too much emphasis to the aspect of competence, while neglecting aspects of conscience and compassion".

In the assessment process, the feedback came from both lecturers and students. In addition to giving feedback, lecturers also encouraged students to give feedback to each other. This was explained by several students. One student (S113B), for instance, explained, "In some classroom activities, students did tasks or made a presentation and the lecturer gave us a piece of paper to write comments on our friends' performance". Commenting on the importance of feedback given by lecturers and students, another student (S43B) said, "I think it's good that we get feedback from both sides, you know from both lecturers and friends". She further explained that she preferred her friends' feedback to her lecturer's because her friends usually used positive language when giving their feedback.

In general, it seems that a few elements of the assessment practices in EED II corresponded with the principles of competency-based learning assessments while some others were not. The first element which was in line was the adoption of formative tests. Formative assessment, according to Griffith and Lim (2014), were instrumental to evaluate students' progress. However, while the lesson plan shown in Table 6.9 had illustrated how the aspects of competencies and indicators were incorporated, the assessment rubric as shown in Table 6.7 did not detail the competencies-based specific criteria. For O'Connor (2002), competencies-based specific criteria are an important component in the competency-based learning as they allow students and lecturers to focus on the achievement of the competencies mastery.

The use of the quiz as a part of the assessment process was inconsistent with a principle of competency-based assessment. Wiggin (1990) points out that like classroom activities, assessment must be authentic in which the measurement of real-world tasks is required. The

sample quizzes that asked students to correct the mistakes in the use of singular and plural forms and to choose the correct pronoun in italics were not authentic assessment tools. As Griffith and Lim (2014) point out, in the competency-based assessment it is necessary to have knowledge about the language including abilities to identify plural and singular forms and to use proper pronouns to complete the specific competencies but the assessment measures the ability to use that knowledge in context. Very few people in the world would be required to identify plural and singular noun forms simply for a purpose of identifying plural and singular nouns.

The absence of remedial teaching and learning also presented a problem for students. According to Richards and Rogers (2001), a student failing summative assessments cannot move on to the next course and must take the same subject in the latter semester, hence overburdening him or her with extra semester credits.

The next issue raised concerning the assessment practice in EED II was the assessment of soft skills. The interviewed lecturers claimed that as the Ignatian Pedagogy consisted of the elements of soft skills, they became a part of assessment. However, it was not evident in the assessment rubric depicted in Table 6.7. The only non-‘hard skill’ element stated in the rubric was ‘attendance’ which was not clear whether or not it was categorized as a soft skill. To summarize, numerous elements of the assessment practices done in EED II were still inconsistent with the principles of competency-based assessment.

6.6.3 Assessment in EED III

As explained by the two lecturers and most of the students in FGD, EED III applied a combination of formative and summative assessment. One lecturer (L1C) said that in addition to mid and final tests for summative assessment, students’ portfolios were a part of formative assessment. She explained, “Every week I ask my students to write a summary of what has been learnt. Then I also give them some assignments. So the assignment scores will be combined with mid-semester and final-semester test scores, contributing to the students’ final score”. She added that she developed and used rubrics to give scores to students in order that students understood how to obtain a good score. However, when she was asked to show the assessment rubric, what she demonstrated was the lesson plan of a subject called “English instruction technology” for semester five. In the lesson plan, the learning outcomes had been focused on achieving the main

competency followed by the sub-competencies, hence adhering to a competency-based lesson plan. However, the assessment rubric that she showed was just a list containing assessment components with their percentage as shown in the following list:

Class performance: 20%

Mid-term test: 30 %

Final term test: 30%

Participation: 20%

The students' final score which was based only on the mid-term and final tests was considered unfair by the two interviewed lecturers. One lecturer (L1C) was of the opinion that the final score had to be based on the whole process. Therefore, it was why she said that she assessed her students through various tools of assessment including assignment projects. She described how in the projects students were involved in using problem solving and critical skills through essay writing. She mentioned how she gave continuous feedback to her students. "If I see some students underperform, then I give them personal feedback". However, she said that she did not give feedback to each individual, but to limited numbers of students who failed in their study. The majority of students in the FGD said that many lecturers gave general feedback by informing students about the tasks which had been commonly answered correctly and incorrectly by students and only a few lecturers gave feedback to each student.

Similar to L1C, the other lecturer (L2C) stated that giving assignments was an inseparable part of the assessment. He said that for the subject *Phonology* that he taught, he asked students to make a summary, comparing some theories of phonology from some books. "By comparing some books, I hope that they will understand the differences and they have to submit the summary to me". The same lecturer also used rubrics for assessing his students. He said that for his subject, he developed his own rubrics. "Since I teach Phonology, I take parameters from the book to develop the assessment rubrics". However, when asked about the sample of the assessment rubric, he failed to show it to the researcher. He only mentioned that the students' final score was determined by mid and final semester tests and an assignment. For assessing students in the *Phonology*, he said that he used the written as well as the oral test. He described the written test as a multiple choice test aimed at testing the students' understanding about what they had learnt.

In the oral test, as he explained, students should pronounce the words from sentences, paragraphs or texts prepared by him.

When asked about the type of tests used by lecturers for assessments, the majority of students in the FGD stated that it depended on the subjects. S55C said that for speaking lecturers usually asked them to practice speaking in pairs or groups to make a speech in front of the class. S87C stated, “For theory-based subjects we usually have multiple choice tests”.

Asked about which assessment method is preferred, most of the students in the FGD said that the lecturers should include assignments as part of the final score. One student (S47C) argued that through doing assignments, he could demonstrate his competencies and he would obtain feedback from lecturers. “I think the finished assignment is the product of my competencies, and when I present the products in the class, I hope my lecturer gives me feedback, which parts of my work are good and which parts are not good, so that I can improve it”, he said.

A few students were critical of the assessment practice in EED III. Two students (S8C5 and S11C5) said, for instance, that some lecturers provided assessment rubrics with included the abilities to be scored and the scoring criteria. However, they felt that they did not understand their unsatisfactory final score in certain subjects where they had put in much hard effort in their study. The same concern was also expressed by another student (S10C5). She said, “Once I thought I would get a good score because I did all my assignments and I felt that I could do the exam, but it turned out that my final score was not good. Unfortunately, my lecturer did not tell me why I got such a bad score”. The same student also felt unhappy that there was no remedial teaching to improve an unsatisfactory score. Hence, she should take the same subject again for one semester to improve the score.

One student (S97C) was critical of the lecturers who only used the final project for determining the student’s final score. She regretted that for the subject ‘Materials Development’, while there was a mid-semester exam, the lecturer only used the final project to decide the student’s final score. She explained, “For the final project, we should make a book in a group. I felt that I have contributed much to the project and I was always present in the group discussion. However, it turned out that my final score was not satisfactory. So I concluded that the lecturer issued the

score based only on the final project, excluding the process and the mid-semester test. When I asked him about the score, I did not get satisfying answers”.

Also, the majority of students in the FGD said that lecturers did not have the same process for assessment. Specifically, one student (S53C) explained that some lecturers used the mid-semester test while others did not include a mid-semester test in the assessment. Instead, according to her, the lecturers used a project of writing an article or a proposal to replace the mid-semester test.

When asked whether soft skills had been integrated into the assessment, students said that they were not. They only explained that many lecturers incorporated class participation as the elements to be included in the assessment but they did not think that class participation was a type of soft skill. It was also evident that L1C’s assessment rubrics did not mention the inclusion of the soft skills. She explained that in the teaching and learning process, she in fact developed students’ soft skills such as communication and problem solving skills, but he acknowledged that she did not include it in the assessment because she felt that assessing soft skills could be subjective. A similar response was also shown by L2C in that he did not include the soft skills as part of the assessment.

The findings indicated that the combination of formative and summative assessment as an important element in competency-based assessment (Griffith & Lim, 2014) was used in EED III. However, as most of the students in the FGD explained, there were no shared assessment methods among lecturers. The students stated that a mid-term semester test was used by some lecturers but not by others. Additionally, the majority of students in the FGD said that there was no mechanism for remedial teaching for students who failed in a certain subject. Thus, the students who failed should retake the same subjects in later semester. O’Connor (2002) asserts that in the traditional assessment, the final grade determines whether or not the student advances to the next level. In competency-based assessment, students advance only upon the mastery of the competency.

The assessment rubrics involving competencies to be assessed and the scoring criteria, according to some interviewed students, had been developed by some lecturers. This is in line with O’Connor’s (2002) statement that rubrics can be adopted in the competency-based assessment.

The rubrics used by the two lecturers, however, did not illustrate the adoption of the principle proposed by O'Connor. The assessment rubrics of the first interviewed lecturer (L1C), for instance, only contained limited information about the components to be assessed and the weight of each component in percentage. No detailed description of the abilities or competencies to be scored was provided. For O'Connor (2002), an assessment which is only based on a percentage system with unclear criteria for success is usually adopted in the traditional or non-competency-based assessments.

Authentic assessments, as acknowledged by the majority of students in the FGD, were exclusive for the skill-based subjects such as speaking in which the students were required to perform their English skills in real conversational situations. However, for the theory-based subjects, they said that multiple choice tests were still applied. The infidelity to the dimensions of authentic assessments was found in L2C's assessment practice. For instance, for written assessment for his subject *Phonology*, he explained that he used multiple choice tests while for the oral test he asked students to read the text from the text and assessed their ability in pronouncing the words. Seen from the authenticity of the assessment, both methods of assessment used by L2C were not authentic. Frey et al. (2012) maintains that one important dimension of authentic assessment is the context of assessment fulfilling three criteria: realistic activity, performance-based task and cognitively complex task. The multiple choice and pronunciation of words tests used by L2C did not fit the realistic criterion of assessments as according to Wiggins (1993), to be truly realistic the tasks should mirror real-world activities. Multiple choice test and pronunciation of words did not reflect cognitively complex tasks.

As evidently shown by the majority of students' perception, personal feedback had been given by only a few lecturers. According to them, the majority of lecturers only gave general assessment in front of the class. Hirvela and Pierson (2000) and Montgomery (2008) agree that assessments that provide feedback to students and allow for student self-assessment are authentic. As a part of assessments, feedback promotes learning (Weimer, 2002)

Regarding the soft skills, most of the students in the FGD felt that they were not integrated into the assessments. While the first lecturer (L1C) said that the soft skills could be enhanced through the teaching and learning process, the absence of the soft skills in the learning outcomes and its

inclusion in the assessments seemed to indicate that the soft skills were perceived as secondary. The second lecturer (L2C) did not include the soft skills in his assessments either.

In summary, numerous aspects of the assessment practice in EED III were not in line with the principles of competency-based assessment. In order to meet the criteria of the competency-based assessment, the assessment rubrics which detailed the targeted competencies, the authentic assessment, and the use of personal feedback and the incorporation of the soft skills should be used.

6.6.4 Assessment in EED IV

As explained by the majority of students in the FGD, both summative and formative assessment was incorporated in EED IV. In terms of summative assessment, they said that all lecturers used both mid and final semester tests. Regarding formative assessment, most lecturers included assignments as part of the assessment. One student (S97D) said that lecturers usually gave three assignments in one semester which allowed students to demonstrate their knowledge and skills of what they had learnt.

The two lecturers expected that in order to comply with the CBC, the conventional way of assessing students with only mid-term and final-term tests should be shifted to the use of the portfolio. In their opinion, while mid-term and final-term tests could only assess students' knowledge, a portfolio would capture students' knowledge and competences. Nevertheless, they stated that there were only a small number of lecturers who had used the portfolio. This was agreed by the majority of the interviewed students.

One lecturer (L1D), however, was certain that he had used a portfolio. He said that that in his writing classes the students should submit a piece of writing at each meeting so that during fourteen meetings, her students wrote fourteen pieces. Asked about the benefits of using the portfolio instead of mere mid-term and final-term tests, he confirmed that he could capture the development of students' skills, and at the same time, he could identify students' weaknesses. Furthermore, he said that students became more creative in producing their ideas in writing. He added, "Based on the portfolio, I can map out the program to improve the underperformers".

When asked to show their assessment rubrics, the two lecturers refused. The researcher then asked the sample of rubrics from the HoD. He gave the assessment rubrics for the subject 'Structure II' embedded in the lesson plan. He said that most of the lecturers used the assessment rubrics similar to what he had given. While the lesson plan contained the objectives of the course including the statement of the competencies to be achieved, the assessment rubric was very simple. It just contained the assessment components and the weight of each component in percentages. The assessment components were class participation (10%), the assignments (20%), mid-semester exam (30%) and final semester exam (40%). The majority of the interviewed students said that they were informed of the components to be assessed and the weight of each component at the first meeting in the class. The types of tasks used for the mid-term and final semester exam, according to the two lecturers and confirmed by the majority of students in the FGD, were mostly multiple choice tests. While for the assignments, the two lecturers said that projects which required students to analyze and think critically were usually used.

The students' final scores for each subject, according to the two lecturers, were taken from the total percentage of all assessment components. When students were asked what happened if they failed a certain subject, they said that they had to repeat the subject in the following semester. Agreeing with the students, the two lecturers said that there was no mechanism such as remedial teaching to help students to achieve the targeted learning outcomes. Therefore, as they explained, based on the assessment, students were either successful or unsuccessful in certain subjects. L2D said, "If they failed in a certain subject they had to retake it in the later semester". As explained by the two interviewed lecturers, the absence of any remedial teaching had made some lecturers find ways to prevent their student from failing in certain subjects. For instance, one lecturer (L1 D) explained that he provided opportunities for students to consult about their difficulties and to obtain guidance. He also recommended his students to read more books to improve their understanding of certain learning materials. "By these efforts, I also can trigger them to work hard, striving for success in their study", he said.

Assessment feedback, as the two lecturers acknowledged, was a part of the assessment for some lecturers. However, as explained by the majority of students in FGD, the feedback was only given during the mid-semester test. One student (S107D) said, "Some lecturers give oral feedback after the mid-semester test. For example, when a student gets a bad mark, the lecturer

will tell him or her about their areas of weaknesses in the exam so that they can improve their score next time. The lecturers usually don't give feedback for the result of our final test as we don't meet the lecturers again". The fact that some other lecturers did not give feedback made some interviewed students dissatisfied with their final score. For instance, one student (S107D) felt that she had done well in doing the tests and assignment and she was also active in the class, but she was surprised that she obtained a D score for a certain subject. The same student said, "When I asked my lecturer why I got a bad score, he just said that you have to ask yourselves. So he did not give time for discussing the final score with me".

Concerning the feedback, most of the students in the FGD said that most of the lecturers did not give them any opportunity to give feedback to their friends in the assessment process. One lecturer (L1D), however, said that he used a peer feedback approach. He gave an example of how in his writing class, he often asked his students to examine other students' work based on certain criteria for the writing assessment. He was a firm believer that students could capitalize on this approach to enhance their understanding of the writing concept and improve their writing skills.

Interviews with lecturers gave insight regarding the assessment of the soft skills. For instance, in the opinion of the two lecturers, assessment in the competency-based learning should cover students' hard and soft skills. However, he acknowledged that lecturers in the department still emphasized assessing students' hard skills. The lecturers' perception was confirmed by the sample of the assessment rubric given by the HoD. It indicated that no component relating to the soft skills was incorporated in the assessment rubric. When asked why they were not assessed, one lecturer (L1D) said that it was difficult to construct criteria to assess the soft skills. "I think it's difficult to come up with the criteria to assess students' soft skills. For instance, it's not easy how to assess students' creativity in writing".

These findings suggest that in general EED IV had not adhered to most aspects of the competency-based assessment. The formative assessment as a significant element of the competency-based assessment was incorporated by most of the lecturers in addition to the summative assessment. A positive point was that the formative assessment was generated by the assignments and they contained tasks which allowed students to think analytically and critically. However, for summative test consisting of mid and final semester exams, the multiple choice test

was still applied by the majority of lecturers. In fact, Sturgis (2012) asserts that multiple choice, fill-in the blank, and true-false tests are forever banished from the competency-based classroom as a final competency-assessment. The multiple choice test, according to Darling-Hammond et al.(1995), is not authentic as authenticity required a test which allows the demonstration of skills necessary for success outside of the classroom and the creation of products or solutions.

The assessment rubrics used by most of the lecturers were not in line with the principles of the competency-based assessment either. As shown by the HoD, the sample rubrics were so simple that it only contained the components of the assessment and their weight in percentages, but it did not include the proficiency-based criteria as suggested by O'Connor (2002). O'Connor (2002) further maintains that assessment which was solely based on a percentage was one of the characteristics of the traditional classrooms and criteria for the students' success were unclear.

Another issue raised was feedback. It was given by lecturers only for the mid-semester exam, but not for the final semester one. This contradicts the assessment process in the competency-based curriculum. According to Rylatt and Lohan (1997), in competency-based learning, students obtain much informational feedback from the teachers. Effective feedback, according to Rylatt and Lohan (1997), leads to the promotion of the improved learning process. The fact that some students were dissatisfied with the final scores and did not obtain clear information when they asked their lecturers about their scores indicated that effective and useful feedback had not been given by lecturers. A positive point concerning the assessment feedback was the peer feedback which was used by the first interviewed lecturer (L1D) in his writing class. Weimer (2002) said that course objectives and learning goals in the competency-based learning are clearly stated and students should be taught to assess their own work and that of their peers. According to Costa and Kallick (1992), self-assessment allows students to examine their strengths and weaknesses while peer assessment promotes learning from each other. Despite L1D's conviction that he had capitalized on peer assessment, most of the lecturers, as perceived by the majority of interviewed students, had not used this type of assessment.

Finally, the integration of soft skills in the assessment was not evident in EED IV. The main reason for the absence of the soft skill integration in the assessment, according to one lecturer (L1D), was the difficulty in establishing the criteria for assessing soft skills. However, the DGHE had actually given guidelines on how to incorporate soft skills in the teaching and

learning as well as in the assessment process. More effort to increase the shared understanding of the assessment practices based on the competency-based learning needs to be done in EED IV.

6.5.5 Assessment in EED V

Both formative and summative assessment, according to the two interviewed lecturers and the majority of students in the FGD, had been applied in EED V. As they explained, formative assessments consisted of assignments which contributed twenty per cent to the students' final score. Most of the students also stated that lecturers usually asked them to do three assignments in a semester. The two lecturers and most of the students further stated that the summative assessment consisted of mid and final semester examinations.

One lecturer (L1E) said that the use of multiple assignments gave students some advantages. He illustrated how his students became more active in the class. "When the weight of the assignment is the same as that of the mid and final test, my students would be more active contributing in the class. If they are not active, then they will miss some scores. It is evident that by using the ongoing and multiple ways of assessment, the number of students who come late in my class was reduced significantly". He also noticed that the use of various assignments had encouraged students to be ready in the class.

Assessment rubrics, as explained by the two lecturers, had been used by all lecturers, and most of the students said that the standards to be assessed were made available to them ahead of time. However, they were not willing to show their assessments to the researcher. They only explained that the assessment rubrics they used contained the components to be assessed and the percentage. One lecturer (L2E) said that the components which contributed to the students' final score were mid-semester exam (20 %), final-semester exam (30 %), assignment (20 %), class participation (20 %) and presence in the class (10%). The majority of students explained that only a few lecturers use the rubrics detailing the components to be assessed. One student (S67E), for example, stated that in the writing class, the lecturer usually informed the elements to be assessed to students including grammar, spelling, diction, cohesion, and generic structure. For the speaking class, as another student (S93E) said, the lecturer informed students that the elements assessed were fluency, accuracy and pronunciation.

According to the two lecturers, the types of tasks depended on the subjects. As they explained, in the skill-based subjects such as speaking and listening, the tasks allowed students to demonstrate their skills. L2E said, “For assessment in the speaking class, I asked students to play roles such as becoming a mother, a father and children, so they should prepare family dialogue to be performed in front the class”. Some other lecturers teaching theory-based subjects such as Linguistics, according to the interviewed lecturers, still employed multiple choice tests. This was confirmed by the majority of the students in FGD.

When asked about the importance of assessment feedback, the two lecturers asserted that students should obtain useful feedback. According to them, useful feedback should allow students understand their strengths and weaknesses, thus encouraging them to make learning progress. According to them, most of the lecturers used the written feedback to be given to students for the mid and final semester as well as for the assignments. However, according to most of the students, the written feedback for the multiple choice tests was usually the symbol of tick for the right answers and cross for the wrong answers. Few lecturers had given comprehensive feedback to students. One student (S75E), for instance, explained that for the writing assignments, the lecturers gave adequate notes on her essay writing, so that she understood which parts were correct and which parts needed to be improved. The two lecturers acknowledged that giving comprehensive feedback was not easy because they had to teach numerous classes and students. Hence, they said that feedback was sometimes short notes from lecturers on the students’ answer sheets. When students obtained a failed score in a certain subjects, according to two interviewed lecturers and most of the interviewed students, they had to repeat it in the later semesters.

One type of assessment which had been used by one lecturer (L1E) was peer feedback. He described how he had been using peer feedback for teaching ‘Interpreter’ in which some students were paired, facing each other. One student acted as the native speaker and the other became an Indonesian. The Indonesian person then interpreted what he or she had heard from the ‘native speakers’. With the scoring rubrics provided by the lecturer, other students gave scores to the interpretation process. According to him, peer feedback had allowed students to do self-reflection as they would find their strengths and weaknesses from their friends’ feedback. As he pointed out, he also presumed that when students were familiar with the scoring rubrics, they

were motivated to exert their effort to attain the maximum scores. When asked whether other lecturers had used the peer feedback method, he said that only a few lecturers had used it.

Finally, soft skills were not a part of the components to be assessed. While they were not included in the assessment process, the two lecturers said that soft skills had been developed through the collaborative teaching and learning process. According to them, in the class activities such as discussions, students learnt how to collaborate and respect others' point of view. When asked why the soft skill elements did not contribute to the students' final score, they explained that scoring the soft skills would be subjective since, according to them, there were no agreed criteria for soft skills assessment.

The finding concerning the assessment practice has shown that generally, few elements of the competency-based assessment had been implemented in EED V, but greater elements of it had not been applied. That the assessment did not solely rely on the summative test was a positive point. In conjunction with summative exam, formative assessment had been used. In fact, as an important element of formative assessment, assignments contributed twenty per cent to the students' final score. The use of assignments, as acknowledged by one lecturer (L1E), had encouraged students to be more active in the class. This corroborates Weimer's (2002) opinion that as a central concern of student-centered learning is learning, the assessment in student-centered learning is not just to produce scores but, more importantly, to generate learning.

Despite the incorporation of various tests for assessment, the assessment rubrics described by one lecturer (L2E) were not in line with the ideal rubrics used in the competency-based assessment because the assessment rubrics only contain the component of assessment and their percentage contributing to students' final grades. Griffith and Lim (2014) asserts that in competency-based learning, the criterion-referenced assessments are more appropriate than norm-referenced tests. While norm-referenced tests are designed to compare a student's performance against that of other students, criterion-referenced assessments are designated to compare students' performances against learning task standards. Hence, assessment rubrics should contain the criteria or standards of the desired competencies.

Regarding the authenticity of the tasks used in the assessment, the positive point was that lecturers teaching skill-based subjects such as speaking had capitalized on real-life tasks for the

assessment. However, for the theory-based subjects, multiple choice tests were still employed by lecturers. As pointed out by Campbell (2000), a rationale for the increased use of authentic assessment in the classroom is the belief that education is not merely a matter of memorization but must be informed by applied knowledge and critical thought. Multiple choice tests, based on Campbell's (2000) view, were unlikely to encourage students to use the applied knowledge and critical thought.

Useful feedback was regarded as instrumental in promoting learning by the two lecturers. In fact, lecturers had made an effort to give written feedback to their students. The use of peer feedback had also been used by one of the two lecturers even though he said that only a few lecturers had applied it. According to most students in the FGD, only a few lecturers gave comprehensive feedback so that students could identify their strengths and weaknesses. The majority of lecturers, according to them, just wrote tick and cross symbols and other short notes on their exam answer sheets.

Taken together, the evidence concerning the assessment practice in the five EEDs suggested that EED I was the only department which had implemented competency-based assessment in all its aspects including the use of formative assessment, the incorporation of the rubrics containing the criteria of the desired mastery of the competencies, the application of the authentic assessment, the use of useful feedback and remedial learning as well as the integration of soft skills in the assessment. The other four departments had partly implemented the elements of the competency-based assessments even though the 'traditional' practice of assessment still occurred, including the use of unauthentic assessment and the reliance on the multiple choice and any other drill test.

The finding indicates that the CBC and its impact on the assessment practice had not become a shared understanding among the four departments. Ideally in a competency-based curriculum, students are assessed and rewarded for their successful completion of authentic tasks. The opponents of the competency-based learning and assessment say that it may be impractical or impossible to identify every necessary competency for specific situations (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). However, proponents argue that students are more likely to learn to use their competencies in practical settings (Docking, 1994; Rylatt & Lohan, 1997) if they have clearly specified tasks and useful feedback.

6.6 Summary

This chapter has investigated the teaching and learning practice as proposed in the CBC framework provided by the DGHE and suggested by much of the literature. The investigated elements of teaching and learning practice included the learning modes used in the class, the incorporation of soft skills development and the assessment practice. The student-centered and competency-based learning practice as suggested in the CBC framework can be evaluated through the balance of power between students and lecturers, the function of learning contents, the role of the lecturer, the responsibility for learning, the purpose and the process of assessment (Weimer, 2002). Griffith and Lim (20014) assert that competency-based teaching can be assessed through the role of the teacher, the role of the student and assessments. All these writers agree that in competency-based learning, lecturers function as the facilitator of students' learning; students are active participants in the learning process; learning materials were designed to make students active in the class, and assessments should promote the learning process. Corresponding with much of the literature in the area of teaching and learning, the DGHE (2008) stated that the CBC promotes the paradigm shift from lecturers as the owners of knowledge to lecturers as the facilitator of students' learning. Students should be actively involved in the learning process and assessments are aimed at supporting students' learning.

The findings have shown that generally there was only one department (EED I) which had fully adjusted their teaching and learning process to the expectations proposed by the DGHE and the requirements suggested in the literature. In this department, the majority of surveyed lecturers believed that the student-centered learning modes proposed by the DGHE had been implemented and confirmed by the majority of the interviewed students. The results of the observations also indicated that the students were in charge of the learning process. Lecturers had managed to function as the facilitators of the students' learning. Learning contents and materials had been effectively designed to encourage students to be active in the learning process. Additionally, formative assessment was employed; the rubrics incorporated and assessed the desired competencies and the authentic assignments which encourage students to use their skills in real life contexts and to think and solve problems were deployed and the useful feedback from lecturers was experienced by students. The competencies developed and assessment included

soft-skills. The department has designed a mechanism for improving the competency in the same semester through remedial teaching if a student failed in a certain subject.

Another department (EED II) had implemented numerous elements of the competency-based learning in their teaching and learning process. The organizational set of values called the Ignatian Pedagogy had been successfully aligned in the context of the competency-based learning. The lesson plans used in this pedagogy had catered for the proficiency as the learning outcomes and the learning process adopted steps which could cultivate students' participations. An element of the lesson plans also accommodated the development of the soft skills. Despite the unique pedagogy, however, both lecturers observed did not necessarily apply it during the classroom observation. This suggested that the lecturers' had no discipline in implementing this pedagogy. The assessment practiced in this department did not fully align with the competency-based learning in that the multiple choice and drill tests which were not in line with the principles of the authentic tests were still employed.

In the other three departments (EED III, IV and V), the lecturers' belief that they had applied the student-centered learning as shown in the survey result did not correspond with the classroom observation and students' perception. In the classroom observation, the student-centered learning modes were not implemented by both lecturers observed in teach EED. One of the two lecturers observed in each EED still took a dominant role in the learning process while students were not in charge as active participants of learning. While formative assessment had been employed, many elements of traditional assessment were still applied. The comprehensive assessment rubrics containing the detailed competencies were absent. Multiple choice test formats were still used as the summative tests by the majority of lecturers and the authentic assessments were not common among lecturers. These finding suggests that planned efforts must be done in these three departments in order that the competency-based learning and assessment were aligned and applied.

CHAPTER 7 • EVALUATION OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE CURRICULUM: DISCUSSION OF KEY FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study has explored the implementation of the CBC policy of the DGHE in five Indonesian EEDs. The cross-case analyses in the previous chapters have demonstrated the perspectives of the participants in the CBC implementation in terms of their experience and understanding of CBC, the formulation of graduate qualities and competencies, the development of soft skills and the assessment practices. In addition, the previous chapters have addressed how the participants, particularly lecturers and students carried out their teaching and learning processes in the classrooms.

This final chapter will summarize and discuss the major findings that emerged from the data, presented in the context of the CBC policy proposed by the DGHE (2008) and theoretical research that informed the study's conceptual framework. This chapter will then examine the results of the study and explore the recommendations for the university institutions and the Indonesian government.

Summary of Findings and Discussion

Data sources for this study included the transcripts from in-depth interviews with HoDs and lecturers and FGD with students, classroom observation notes, survey of the learning modes and the CBC experiences, documents provided by the study participants, such as the accreditation documents, lesson materials, lesson plans, handouts prepared for students and assessment rubrics. The use of a variety of sources provided the means of triangulating the various data resources (Merriam, 1998). As Hallinan (2000) points out, educational institutions can be conceptualized in terms of social life, social system and social events. The central elements of the educational process including social groups, communities and parents which influence the outcomes of the process reflect an educational institution as a social life. The interaction of macro-and micro-level processes reflects an educational institution as a social event. The macro level process links the structure and organization of an educational institution to its outcomes including governance structures, communication patterns, social networks and academic climate. Micro level, on the other hand, pertains to teachers' and students' motivation, attitudes, performance and social behaviour. This research highlights various macro and micro level findings in the implementation of the CBC in the five EEDs. Key findings are presented and

discussed in the context of the CBC framework proposed by the DGHE, the theoretical literature and examples from the data.

7.1 Understanding of CBC

The effort to successfully connect education programs with the labour markets and societal demands within the realm of international education reform has resulted in the concept of Competency-based education (CBE). Nederstigt and Mulder (2011) state that though CBE is not without shortcomings and perceived fierce criticism in western societies, the overall impression is positive. Currently multiple initiatives to disseminate CBE as a new tool to strengthen local labor markets and economies are being deployed (Mansfield, 2004). Indonesia is not an exception. In searching for opportunities and aiming for increasing economic development, education policies changed toward promoting the adoption of CBE in higher education institutions.

Driven by an agenda regarding graduates' competitiveness and skill development, with the objective to support increased economic development through labour market relevance, in 2008 the Indonesian government through DGHE initiated the introduction of the CBC within the national higher education system. A guideline book of how to implement the CBC was prepared and disseminated to the universities in Indonesia. All five EEDs delivering study programs within each university adopted the CBC philosophy.

However, despite the provision of the guidelines and dissemination of the CBC which had been carried out by the DGHE, there were different understandings about the concept of CBC among students and lecturers in the five EEDs. Generally, the HoDs, lecturers and students perceived the notion of CBC as a set of competencies to be achieved in the implementation and as a paradigm shift in the teaching and learning process.

The set of competencies as the aim of the CBC also aligns with the view of Smith and Keating (2003) in identifying some key features that can be categorized as being part of the competency-based program, including: 1) based on competency standards; 2) outcome not input focused; 3) involvement with occupational work and industries, and 4) focus on competencies that are widely recognized. The participants of EED II particularly linked the CBC with a curriculum

aimed to achieve the four teachers' competencies including professional, pedagogical, social and personal competencies.

The second perception of the participants toward the CBC was related to the paradigm shift in the teaching and learning process. One lecturer in EED III (L1C) summarized this notion well: "I think CBC has brought about a new paradigm shift in the teaching process. So, instead of focusing on the teaching content, lecturers are supposed to create a learning atmosphere where students could apply their knowledge". While these participants' perceptions did not attempt to directly define the concept of CBC, they reflected their views about the pedagogical implications of the CBC implementation, including the shifts in the learning content, the roles of lecturers and students as well as the teaching techniques. The participants' views are in line with the opinion of Donnelly and Fitzmaurice (2005) who maintain that the current practice in course design is the writing of learning objectives focusing on what the students will be able to do rather than on the content being covered in the curriculum structure, hence reiterating the importance of process and competence rather than content.

While there was a relatively correct understanding of the CBC among lecturers, as pointed out by the HoDs in the five EEDs, a small number of lecturers had not integrated the principles of the CBC because they had had insufficient understanding. Additionally, some students in the five EEDs equated the CBC with the school-based curriculum implemented in the junior and senior high schools. This indicated that the departments' efforts to increase the understanding of the CBC, especially among students, needed to be enhanced.

The commonality of approach to developing a definition of CBC suggests that the participants regarded this curriculum as linking to motor or manual skills rather than cognitive ones and they tended to relate these skills with the requirements of industry. As pointed out by Hoffmann (1999), the term 'competency' is not a clear concept and the vagueness about its definition hampers its application. However, all of the interviewed HoDs and lecturers in this study had a proper understanding of the notions inherent in the CBC. The insights exhibited by HoDs and lecturers seemed to derive from their experience in implementing the CBC through the teaching and learning process. This was evidenced by their approach in defining CBC by relating it to a pedagogical approach called student-centered learning method.

Its introduction, as experienced by one lecturer (L2C), involved a conceptual change in thinking. He used to teach theoretical subjects focusing on increasing the students' knowledge and had little regard to any CBC application. However, with the implementation of CBC and his experience in implementing it in the teaching and learning process, he was motivated to equip his students with knowledge and skills. He felt that after adopting this way of thinking, he recognized the importance of both acquired and applied knowledge for students. He said, "If students have a better understanding in phonology, they will have better speaking skills". In fact, the acquisition of a 'competency' or skill may require underpinning knowledge. This is in line with the definition of a skill as increasing ability supported by knowledge, expertise, mastery and excellence. This implies that the essence of a CBC program is the integration of knowledge and skills.

Due to the HoDs' and lecturers' similarity of background and experience in implementing the CBC, they held similar views regarding the definition of CBC. It could be summarized that their understanding of CBC is that it is a curriculum which prioritizes skills or applied knowledge strengthened by the acquisition of knowledge. The CBC aims to equip students with skills which comply with professional standards of a professionally recognized body.

7.2 Experiences in Implementing CBC

Generally, participants had both negative and positive experiences regarding the adoption of CBC. In terms of negative experiences, it was evident from the data that the participation of lecturers in the CBC training was low. The low participation level of lecturers in CBC training was, according to the HoDs, due mainly to lack of consultation opportunity provided by the DGHE prior to its implementation. As the lecturers pointed out, the CBC was only disseminated to the key people in the university such as the vice rector, the deans and the heads of department, but not to the lecturers. Furthermore, contrary to the HoDs' claim that CBC had been frequently disseminated at the departmental level, the sharing of ideas and the professional development programs were not focused on the CBC. This lack of dissemination of CBC expressed by the lecturers led to their confusion. This correlates with studies of Newman (1999) and Cairns (1999) who found little evidence to suggest that the adoption of the CBC had been supported by critical scrutiny and many research concerning its benefits and principles.

Despite the low participation rate of lecturers in the CBC training, the percentage of the documents related to CBC including guidelines books, teaching syllabus, lesson plan and assessments rubrics were above fifty per cent. This indicated that the lecturers' attitude towards the implementation of CBC was supportive although this, according to the HoDs, was because the departments were mandated by the DGHE to implement the CBC. The curriculum and the teaching and learning process using the CBC model were elements of the quality standards audited by the DGHE in the departments' accreditation process. In addition to this, as the HoDs pointed out, the implementation of the CBC challenged the lecturers and students to adopt new practices in the teaching and learning process which resulted in the high levels of CBC document ownership. Richards and Rogers (2001) suggest that practical activities in the CBC classroom should require students to do something with the language. They further explain that in the CBC classroom, class materials in the lesson plans must be oriented to doing rather than knowing. To ensure that these principles are implemented by the lecturers, continued effort to share the CBC practices among the lecturers needs to be conducted through training and lecturers' meetings and discussions.

Another negative aspect in implementing the CBC was related to the initial conflict between CBC and the content-based curriculum which had been the guiding pedagogy of most of departments (EED II, III, IV and V). In terms of curriculum structure, different from the parallel approach suggested by the DGHE, these four departments had been adopting the sequential approach in which subjects in the curriculum structure were arranged sequentially from less complex subjects in the earlier semesters to the more complex ones in the later semesters. The sequential approach, according to the DGHE (2008), focuses more on the content of knowledge to be taught to students rather than their application. This was in line with the HoDs' statements that lecturers used to be more comfortable with the lecturing teaching style to teach knowledge to their students. With the benefits of the teaching and learning scheme in the CBC, however, the lecturers had managed to adopt the student-centered learning approaches advocated in the CBC.

The conflict between the institution's vision and the CBC occurred in EED II. As stated by its HoD, while the CBC promoted the inclusion of skills-based subjects, the pedagogical approach adopted in EED II called Ignatian Pedagogy provided room for the inclusion of subjects

including *Poetry, Drama, Humanity* and *Philosophy* which focused on aesthetical knowledge rather than applicable skills. Hence, the conflict between the CBC and the implemented curriculum in EED II was more fundamental as it depicted the contrast between the two curriculum traditions, namely systemic-pragmatic and deliberative curriculum. CBC follows the former and the Ignatian Pedagogy paradigm belongs to the later.

The core of the systemic-pragmatic curriculum, according to Bobbit (1924), as cited in Null (2011), was that curriculum developers should look to the activities of adults for its materials when deciding what should be taught. Rather than the curriculum being dominated by subject matter, Bobbitt argued that the curriculum should serve communities in economic, pragmatic and useful ways. Bobbit's powerful insight was that curriculum developers should pay careful attention to the social activities of adults. In Bobbit's words (1918, p.43),

When the curriculum is defined as including both directed and undirected experiences, then its objectives are the total range of human abilities, habits, systems of knowledge, etc., that one should possess. These will be discovered by analytic survey.

The first task of curriculum design, according to Bobbit (1924, p.8) is “to discover activities which ought to make up the lives of men and women; and along with these, the abilities and personal qualities necessary for proper performance. These are the educational objectives”. In fact, CBC is in line with this insight in that the curriculum must be able to equip the graduate to perform occupational tasks with their competencies. The Australian National Training Board (1992) defines the meaning of ‘competency’ which reflects Bobbit's view about the importance of ‘performance’ in the curriculum,

The concept of competency focuses on what is expected of an employee in the workplace rather than on the learning process; and embodies the ability to transfer and apply skills and knowledge to new situations and environments (p.29).

The focus on the performance and skills was best articulated in EED I which since its establishment was required by the DGHE to comply with the CBC guidelines. The HoD of this department said that the subjects in the curriculum structure were formulated through a need analysis of what skills teachers should acquire to perform their teaching tasks successfully. As a result, as he pointed out, the names of the subjects such as *Speaking for Daily Communication* and *Speaking for Formal Setting* reflected the necessary skills to support the teaching tasks.

In contrast to the CBC that is in line with the tradition of systemic-pragmatic curriculum, the Ignatian Pedagogy had more inclination to the tradition of deliberative curriculum. In the words of Reid (1999, p.42),

The deliberative model considers curriculum problems to be moral practical problems, and proposes as the means to their resolution the employment of the method of the practical...The method of the practical begins, not from some prespecified statement of the problem to be addressed, so that deliberation is confined to means, but from the feeling that some state of affairs is unsatisfactory, and that it is constituted of conditions that we wish were otherwise and that we think can be made to be otherwise”.

Instead of individual experience, radical action, or problem solving based on what works, the deliberative tradition places the practical art of deliberation at the centre of good curriculum design (ibid, 1999). Null (2011) asserts that there are several aspects that make Reid’s views significant within the deliberative tradition. First, he accepts the notion of ‘universal education’ as the overall goal that curriculum designers should strive to attain. Second, he emphasizes the point the curriculum is both an institution and a practice. Third, Reid integrates moral philosophy into his views, an approach that has particular relevance for twenty-first century curriculum design.

Reid (1999) suggests that the liberal curriculum should prepare students to live as free citizens who possess the virtues necessary to extend the ancient tradition of liberal learning including wisdom, practical wisdom, moderation, justice, truthfulness, honesty, humility and courage. Reid’s view on the importance of values in the liberal curriculum shares the Ignatian Pedagogical approach adopted in EED II. The International Commission (1986) cited in Hise and Massey (2010) in its *Characteristics of Jesuit Education* proposes distinguishing features of Jesuit education. It states that Jesuit Education: “1) insists on individual care and concern for each person; 2) assists in the total formation of each individual within the human community; 3) is value-oriented; 4) pursues excellence in its work of formation; 5) relies on a spirit of community; and 6) encourages life-long openness to growth”. The HoD of EED II explained that implementing the Ignatian Pedagogy, lecturers in the department acted as not only teachers but also educators whose jobs were both transferring knowledge and values. The HoD shared the position of teachers stated in the Jesuit Institute (1993, p.9) that “the teacher is not merely to inform, but to help the student progress in the truth”. She added that the inclusion of subjects

such as philosophy, drama and poetry in the curriculum structure helped to instill values in students.

In terms of positive experiences in implementing the CBC, both lecturers and students said that the learning methods used encouraged them to be more active. For lecturers, the requirement to adapt the student-centered learning approach challenged them to change their ‘traditional’ teacher-centered method to become more active, involving student participations. In fact, drawing on the principles from the tradition of systematic curriculum, lecturers in the CBC settings have a vital role in producing learning (Null, 2011). Within this tradition, according to Null (2011, p.144), lecturers: “1) do not teach a subject matter so much as problem-solving skills, adaptability, and effective action; 2) act as directors of learning experience, meaning that they have to manage their classrooms to the point that they give learners highly individualized experiences and 3) develop skills so that learners can pursue whatever ends they choose in life”. The lecturers’ positive expressions in the five EEDs supported Null’s view: “I found the teaching and learning process to be much more engaging (L1B)”; “CBC lesson plans really helped me to be accountable in delivery and flexible learning practices” (L1C) and “CBC provides more various learning modes for students” (L1D).

Studies have shown that student-centered learning produces positive outcomes. Hesson and Shad (2007) maintain that most teachers currently apply the student-centered approach to enhance interest, analytical research, critical thinking and enjoyment among students. Weimer (2002) asserts that teachers adopt the student-centered method to increase active learning. Slavin (1996) maintains that the student-centered learning method encourages students to develop goal-oriented behaviour, hence it is effective in enhancing student achievement. Lindquist (1995) considers the student-centered learning method as more effective because it empowers students to be active learners rather than treating them as the passive recipients of knowledge.

In conclusion, although there were both negative and positive experiences expressed by the participants, the positive experiences outweigh the negative ones. Additionally the negative experience such as initial conflicts due to the implementation of the CBC had been solved by all five EEDs. Hence, generally there was a positive tone among the four EEDs regarding the experience in implementing the CBC.

7.3 The Development of Teacher's Competencies in the Curriculum

Generally, the graduates of the five EEDS were expected to have the core competencies for a teacher based on the regulations of the Ministry of Education no. 16/2007 including the pedagogical, professional, personal and social competencies. In addition to this, the five EEDs also attempted to equip their graduates with skills to pursue careers outside the teaching profession. The sub-competencies of these four core teaching competency were listed in the graduate competencies in all EEDs.

The competence of a foreign language teacher is categorized by Mulhauser (1958) into three headings including language competence (oral, aural, reading and writing); cultural background in the broad sense such as linguistics, civilization and literature; and skills and techniques in teaching a foreign language. On the other hand, as previously noted, Richards identifies (1998) six distinct areas of a competent English teacher, which are: 1) theories in teaching, 2) teaching skills, 3) communication skills, 4) subject matter knowledge, 5) pedagogical reasoning and decision making, and 6) contextual knowledge. Cross (2003) proposed four domains: 1) level of education, 2) subject competence, 3) professional competences, and 4) attitudes. Soepriatna (2012) points out that these three perspectives show some agreement on the following areas of English teacher competencies and the four teachers' competencies proposed by the government: content knowledge about language, teaching skills specific to English teaching, and English communicative competence, the ability to communicate in grammatically correct English, and to use the language appropriate to situational contexts.

All the five EEDs had included the subjects necessary to develop the three domains of English teachers' competencies in their curriculum structure. The issue raised was that there seemed to be no agreement among the five EEDs on how many credits students should learn for developing each of the three areas of competencies. An interesting case occurred in EED II where the subjects for developing supporting and other competencies (non-core competencies) had more credits than those for developing the teachers' core pedagogical competencies. This might be problematic since the core competencies are more necessary than non-core competencies. Other departments had been on the right track in that the subjects developing the core competencies weighed more credits than the ones enhancing non-core competencies.

The five HoDs acknowledged that they had done the needs analysis in determining the subjects to develop teachers' competencies in the curriculum structure. However, what they meant by 'needs analysis' was nothing other than having dialogue with parents and teachers and school principals in certain events conducted by the EEDs such as the graduation days. According to Nill (2011), to formulate the graduate competencies and to determine the subject matter taught to achieve the competencies, 'activity analysis' which involves rigorous observation and research on what effective workers do must be carried out.

The 'supporting' and 'other' competencies in the five EEDs were non-core competencies to provide students with alternative careers outside the teaching profession including business persons (EED I); interpreters and translators (EED II); teachers of English for children, entrepreneurs (EED III); translators, interpreters and teachers of English for children (EED IV) and translator and employees in tourism business (EED V). The subjects to develop such competencies included *Translation, Business English, Entrepreneurship* and *English for Children*.

There was a problem concerning the development of 'supporting' and 'other' competencies. As stated in the DGHE's guideline book, 'supporting' competencies are the ones that support the core competencies such as the ICT skills to support the teachers' pedagogical skills. 'Other competencies', on the other hand, refer to the ones that provide graduates with career opportunities outside teaching. The confusion of these two terms evidently occurred in the implementation. For instance, as stated in the accreditation documents, in EED I the Islamic subjects aimed to develop the 'other competencies' while it was supposed to improve students' attitude. In EED III, *Business English, Translation, and Research* were aimed at developing both core and 'other competencies'. EED IV was the only one to use the 'supporting competencies', not the 'other competencies'. This confusion indicated that there was no substantial understanding of the definition and understanding of these two competencies. The EEDs seemed to fulfill the demands from the DGHE to include the 'supporting' and 'other' competencies in their formulation of graduate competencies.

As fulfilling the demands of labour markets for more skilled graduates has evidently been influencing the agenda of higher education institutions in Indonesia, skill development has become entrenched in the priorities of the five EEDs. An important effort was the provision of

teaching practicum opportunities for students. Although the teaching practicums were incorporated into the curriculum of the five EEDs, teaching practicums in EED I had distinct differences compared to the other four EEDs. The teaching practicums in EED I were done eight times in six semesters, thus having more practicums than the other four departments that only provided an internship program for teaching practices at schools for their students.

Interestingly, the interviews with students in EED I revealed that their actual teaching practice at schools was only done in the sixth semester, through subjects called *Teaching Practice* for four credits. For the other five practicums, students explained that they only participated in classroom observations. The students were also critical of the absence of supervision from the lecturers during the five practicums in schools. Students expected that the departments should develop supervising mechanisms for the practicums. Students in the five EEDs also opined that they preferred to have more opportunities for teaching practice at schools as they believed that they could improve their teaching skills significantly. As Nederstigt and Mulder (2011) point out, insufficient internship activities result in limited opportunities for students to have real working practice.

An interesting finding was the development of the ICT competency in the curriculum. EED I had five subjects (12 credits), surpassing the other EEDs which only had one subject (two credits) in their curriculum structures. The HoD of EED I pointed out that graduates would be teaching students who will become progressively more information rich and self-educating. Hence, as he pointed out, there was increasing pressures on English departments to meet the needs of 21st century students by being familiar with the ICT sector.

Kirkwood and Price (2005) assert that introducing ICT into university provision is not without problems. They identified problems related to the incorporation of ICT in the curriculum including the emphasis on the use of technological tools and the lack of pedagogical understanding among lecturers. Kirkwood and Price's opinion was confirmed in the teaching practice demonstrated by most of the lecturers observed in EED I, II, EED III, IV and V. These lecturers used the ICT tools such as laptops connected to the LCD projectors. However, the teaching and learning process was still dominated by lecturers' lecturing style. This indicated that the incorporation of the ICT was perceived by lecturers as the use of ICT tools in teaching

per se without changing the pedagogical approach. In addition to this, through the interviews, some of the lecturers explained that they had used email, blogs and e-learning pages where they could post learning materials for students. As Kirkwood and Price (2008) pointed out, making learning materials such as audio recordings or lecturers' note available on an institutional learning environment of intranet simply reinforced traditional information transfer practice. "Action such as these do little to enhance and develop students' learning and deeper understandings, particularly bearing in mind the current emphasis on the constructivist approach in the teaching and learning process in higher education" (Ibid, 2008, p.90).

Another interesting note was the development of students' attitudes along with the enhancement of the soft skills in the department through the teaching of *Pancasila*. These subjects were categorized as developing the 'personal competence' in all the five EEDs. The teaching of *Pancasila* has been introduced since the New Order Regime of Suharto and become a compulsory subject taught in Indonesian universities (Nederstigt & Mulder, 2011). As the HoDs pointed out, *Pancasila* was taught as a stand-alone subject and was aimed at inculcating noble attitudes and national character traits in students. In Nederstigt and Mulder's (2011) words, the teaching of the five commandments of *Pancasila* aims to help students to become good Indonesian citizens. For Bush and Salterelly (2000), in using education as an instrument to maintain existing cultural and social structures, the building of a national identity is regarded as important. However, the HoD of EED III seemed to be doubtful whether *Pancasila* could build students' attitudes, given that the stand-alone subjects which were taught using the lecturing style of teaching were thus focused more on knowledge transfer than on character building. In EED IV, in conjunction with *Pancasila*, *Tamansiswa*, a philosophy developed by the founder of the university, was also perceived as a subject to develop students' good attitudes. Nevertheless, similar to the teaching of *Pancasila*, *Tamansiswa* was taught as a stand-alone subject, emphasizing the transfer of its philosophical ideas to students through the lecturing method. In the context of the competency-based education, whether the approach to the development of attitudes through the knowledge transfer really contributes to the development of the graduate's professional competencies is questionable. A study on Competency-based education in Public Universities in Indonesia done by Nederstigt and Mulder (2011) found that the teaching of *Pancasila* as a stand-alone subject failed to develop intrinsic motivation that led to the development of students' professional performance.

7.4 The Teaching and Learning Process

Indonesian universities in the 21st century are being challenged by the growth of student numbers and a more diverse student population. Hence, the quality assurance process demands more accountability. For private universities, the challenges have been increased, including tougher competition encouraged by the funding sources which are mainly provided by students, the search for alternative funding sources, a changed perception of students as customers, a paradigm shift from teaching to learning and the rapid development of technology use.

This changing context has led universities to focus more on their effectiveness and efficiency so that their long term sustainability is secured. One of the areas which should be given a great deal of attention is the enhancement of teaching and learning and the overall student learning experience.

In the Indonesian context, as the paradigm shift from the content-based curriculum to CBC was applied, the traditional approach of knowledge transmission in teaching has been challenged by a learning-centered approach which focuses on the learners' role in the construction of knowledge and their active involvement in the learning process, often related to collaboration with others. In the learning-centered approach, the role of lecturers is one of facilitation including guiding, coaching, mentoring and supporting the learner. Barr and Tagg (1995) maintain that a major change in how higher education institutions define their goals and their modes of operation is required amid the paradigm shift from teaching to learning. Tagg (2003) lists some positive reasons why universities should adopt the learning-centered approach as it: 1) promotes frequent and authentic assessment; 2) creates intrinsically rewarding purposes; 3) supports high quality feedback to learners; and 4) encourages communities of practice and helps to focus all its activities to support the mission of producing student learning.

As outlined by the DGHE (2008), universities in Indonesia have to pay more attention to ensuring that they are effective and efficient in order to secure their long sustainability. One of the most important areas that universities are now focusing upon is enhancing learning and teaching (ibid, 2008). As the understanding of learning and the learning process has developed,

DGHE has encouraged the study programs to shift their transmission of knowledge approach to a learning-approach that emphasizes construction of knowledge by the learners and their active involvement in the learning process. DGHE's policy in advocating the student-centered learning is supported by much research. According to Tagg (2003), study programs which adopt a learning-centered approach, promote rewarding goals and require frequent and authentic assessment, provide high quality feedback to students, recognize the time needed to achieve quality learning, creating communities of practices and aligning all its activities around the mission of producing student learning. Five areas where the lecturer-centeredness of the classroom is clearly seen have been identified by Weimer (2002) including the balance of power, the function of content, the role of the lecturer, the responsibility of learning and the purpose and process of evaluation. In the area of language teaching, Griffith and Lim (2014) point out that in the competency-based language teaching: 1) the role of the lecturer changes from one of being an informer to that of facilitator; 2) students' roles are to integrate, produce and extend knowledge, so that they will no longer be able to rely on the lecturer to be the primary sources of information. Additionally, they take an active part in their own learning and work toward being autonomous learners; 3) class materials must be oriented to doing rather than knowing, and rather than being organized around particular language topics, courses are developed around the skills and competencies to achieve mastery.

The research finding from this study, however, suggested that, despite the positive perceptions of all the interviewed lecturers regarding student-centered learning, their teaching and learning approaches implemented in the classroom were not in harmony with the principles of this approach. Additionally, while, as based on the results of the survey, the student-centered learning modes had been frequently used by the surveyed lecturers, two lecturers observed in EED I had managed to apply this approach properly. On the other hand, one lecturer in EED II, the two lecturers in EED III, one lecturer in EED V and one lecturer in EED V were preoccupied with the lecturer-centered learning where their role as the transmitter of knowledge was discernible. Hence, the student-centered learning approaches had been best implemented only by EED I. On the contrary, the student-centered learning approaches had not been well implemented by the other four EEDs.

As a consequence of the student-centered learning mode used in EED I, it was discernible in the classroom observation that students were actively involved in the learning process given that the learning activities encouraged students to take an active participation in the learning process. Most of the students in the focus group discussions expressed their preference for the learning modes such as small group discussions and problem-based learning although they felt that such learning modes had made them work harder. In other EEDs, students who were taught by lecturers using the lecturing style tended to be more passive, sitting down and listening to their lecturers' explanations.

The finding reflects Ho et al's. (2001) opinion that, while it is possible to change teachers' conceptions of teaching, it is not always possible to change their approach to teaching. Similarly, Weimer (2002) asserts that the university or college classrooms are lecturer-centered and that this works against students becoming mature and successful. Weimer (2006, p.195) states that "many lecturers tend to continue to teach without ever going beyond insights derived from individual experience and they reject practices well established by research and their teaching rests on a small, internally informed, and often unchanging knowledge base".

As pointed out by Norton et al. (2005) there is a gap between a university teacher's belief about teaching and their practices. Trigwell et al. (1999) assert that the practice of teaching represents a compromise between a lecturer's academic and social context. Changes in an individual lecturer's beliefs and practices as a result of professional development were investigated by Amundsen et al. (1996) over a five-year period. One significant issue that lecturers struggled with was the lack of support for student-centered teaching including lack of formal training for teaching in higher education, lack of institutional rewards for good teaching and limited views on assessment. As Amundsen, Saroyan and Frankman (1996) pointed out, these led to the promotion of rote memorization in the learning process.

Amundsen, Saroyan and Frankman's (1996) finding was also reflected in this study's finding pertaining to the efforts in improving the teaching and learning process in the five EEDs. Based on the documentation, activities associated with lecturer professional development were prevalent in all EEDs, including inviting experts to give talks and sending lecturers to attend seminars and workshops or to make a presentation at these events. However, based on the topics presented at those events, none of the invited speakers had talked about the application of a

student-centered learning approach. It was interesting to note that, as the HoD explained, EED III had invited a curriculum expert from Singapore to evaluate the curriculum implemented in the department. However, based on his explanation, the expert only discussed the curriculum structure, not the student-centered learning approach to teach the subjects within the curriculum structure.

The teaching and learning performance cannot be separated from the overall management process in the department. From the point of view of the overall learning experience, Scott (2006, p.vii) reports that the factor that shapes students' judgment of quality, promotes retention and increases student' engagement in productive learning is not just what happens in the traditional classroom, but the student's total experience of university. Based on his analysis of open-ended comments by 95,000 Australian graduates completing the Course Experience Questionnaire, Scott (2006, p. xiii) reported that the factors which were highly valued by students related to their experience during their study in universities were the combination of: "1) a sound, responsive, flexible, relevant, clear and mutually reinforcing course design-a design that uses an appropriate variety of interactive, practice-oriented and problem-based learning methods; 2) capable, committed, accessible and responsive staff being in place to deliver and improve the design during implementation; 3) efficient and responsive administrative, information technology, library and student support systems actively working together to support its operation and 4) relevant, consistent and integrated assessment of a university standard that the course's design, learning methods and resources specifically enable students to complete".

According to Sailah et al. (2012), in many Indonesian universities the system of quality assurance including the learning and teaching plans and framework, a support system related to the human resources development, facilities, service system, monitoring, and the evaluation of the learning process does not function properly. In the five case studies, all EEDs had actually aligned the learning and teaching priority into the vision and mission of their departments. In the statement of their vision and mission, all EEDs aspired to provide the best learning opportunities for their students. However, the learning and teaching priority oriented to the implementation of a student-centered learning approach stated in the vision and mission of departments were not translated into the statements in the strategic plan except in EED II.

In terms of roles and support, Hicks (1999) points out that there are four models of provision of academic development as well as the teaching and learning support in a university, namely: 1) the Central or Traditional Model in which all activities are provided through a central group with little activity or local responsibility; 2) the Dispersed Model in which activity and responsibility for support is devolved locally and encouraged by institutional policies; 3) the Mixed Model in which there is a mix of central generic and local discipline support activities characterized by separate resourcing and self-determination of activities independently at each level; and 4) the integrated model in which there are central and local activities which are interrelated, connected and collaborative. All EEDs in the five case studies deployed the integrated model which promotes collaboration at the university and department levels.

7.5 Student Assessment

In the CBC scheme, DGHE (2008) suggested the application of ‘performance assessment’ which was defined as the assessment of the students’ process in using knowledge and skills in the learning process. Sailah et al. (2012) contend that performance assessment can assess both process and products. Performance assessment is labeled by Groundwater-Smith et al. (2003) as outcome-based assessment. According to Groundwater-Smith et al. (2003), outcome based assessment is an effort to identify and specify the knowledge, skills, understandings and experiences that are necessary or essential for someone to possess to be able to undertake a job, role or course successfully. Thus, outcomes can be regarded as a framework against which judgments are made about someone’s capacity or potential (Sailah et al. 2012). For Sailah et al. (2012), the outcome-based-assessment requires lecturers to assess students throughout the teaching and learning process. Hence, it can be categorized as formative assessment rather than summative assessment which is usually carried out at the end of the teaching and learning process (ibid, 2012). According to Bloom (1971) formative assessment is conducted during the planning and implementation of the teaching and learning process while summative assessment takes place at the end of the activity or the course, and is usually used to ascertain whether the knowledge has been absorbed by students.

Sailah et al. (2012) note that many lecturers in Indonesia are still preoccupied with summative assessment. Of the five EEDs, only one department (EED I) adopted only formative assessment.

The lecturers in this department did not use a final test in the assessment process. Instead, they used students' portfolio and assignments to assess students. In addition, the lecturers in EED I had successfully developed authentic and competency-based assessment. EED II, III, IV and V, on the other hand, used a combination of formative and summative assessment. In conjunction with the assignments and portfolio, lecturers used both mid-semester and final-semester tests for assessing their students' performance. Most of the tests were multiple choice ones which was inconsistent with the competency-based assessment. According to Griffith and Lim (2014), "In the competency-based assessment, the majority of assessments will be formative". Sturgis (2012) said that fill-in-the blank, true-false and multiple choice tests are forever omitted from the CBLT classroom as final competency assessments.

Based on the interviews, when asked about how they assess their students, all of the interviewed lecturers in the five EEDs said that they focused on the learning process, instead of just using the summative test at the end of the semester. Lecturers explained that they employ various techniques of assessment, including the use of portfolios and assignments. They believed that such assessment techniques helped them to assess the students' competencies. The lecturers' response was confirmed in the departments' documents of accreditation, stating that assignments contributed at least 20 per cent of the students' final score. However, in the summative test, as demonstrated in samples of the assessment test in EED II for the subject 'Structure 1', lecturers unavoidably used quizzes with multiple choice answers to test students' knowledge. Some students in EED III, IV and V also said that some final tests contained questions with multiple choice answers. This was inconsistent with the competency-based assessment which should encourage authentic assessments. As pointed out by Griffith and Lim (2014), "authentic tasks in the assessments process require the use of knowledge and skills to complete a task and the measurement of real-world tasks". The observed lecturers in EED II, III, IV and V also failed to show their assessment rubrics when asked by the researcher. This suggested that they had not prepared their assessments process appropriately.

While the summative test is one type of assessment, Sailah et al. (2012) suggests that the formative assessment is encouraged in the CBC and it facilitates the improvement of the teaching and learning process. The formative assessment is considered as assessment for learning because it helps teachers and students toward improvement through feedback and continuous revision

(Hargreaves, 2005). Summative assessment is regarded as assessment of learning as it provides accumulated information to demonstrate students' learning outcomes (ibid, 2005). Brown (2004) calls summative testing as the traditional assessment and formative testing as the alternative one.

According to Brown (2004, p.13), traditional assessment has several types including standardized exams, multiple-choice format and decontextualized test items. The characteristics of the traditional tests, according to Brown (2004), are that they lead to norm-referenced scores, focusing on the correct answer, summative assessment, product-oriented and non-interactive performance, and extrinsic motivation. Alternative assessment, by contrast, focuses on free response format, contextualized communicative tasks, and individualized feedback, criterion-referenced scores, open-ended and creative answers, formative, process-oriented, interactive performance and intrinsic motivation (Ibid, 2004, p.13).

7.6 The Incorporation of the Soft Skills

The issue of employability of graduates has become a critical and serious issue in the context of higher education in Indonesia. Higher education institutions have been facing the main challenge of equipping their students with employable skills and making their graduates more attractive to employers. This is because today's workplaces both at the local and global level have been demanding graduates who are capable of implementing learnt knowledge into their work performance. Employability is defined by Van der Heijden and Van der Heijden (2006) as the continued process of creating, acquiring and fulfilling of work with the optimal use of competencies. They further said that the soft skills were the key for employability.

Much research has found how employers are more concerned about the attitude or soft skills rather than technical competencies. For instance, empirical studies done by Audibert and Jones (2002) revealed that soft skills including communication, leadership, and entrepreneurial and teamwork skills became criteria for employers to hire and promote workers to key positions. Evers, Rush and Barrow (1998) have identified several soft skills needed by students in order to improve their employability such as managing people and tasks, communications, self-management and mobilizing change and innovation. Soft skills, according to Bunker and Wakefield (2004), are instrumental in the workplace and are needed by employees, managers and leaders as they contribute to organizational success. As reported by Muir (2004), to

contribute to their fullest potential, employees require soft skills as their essential tools. The scholars' perspective on the importance of the soft skills was shared by the lecturers and students interviewed for this study. They were of the opinion that soft skills were vital, especially because the students of the English department were prepared to become teachers whose soft skills such as interpersonal and communication competencies could not be separated from their teaching tasks.

Despite the importance of soft skills for teachers, based on an evaluation research of twelve Junior High schools in the Yogyakarta province done by Yulia (2014), many teachers still drilled the grammar and vocabulary components to students. Such a situation, according to Yulia (2014) contradicted the aim in teaching English in Indonesia, namely, to develop students' communicative competence. Yulia (2014, p.212) suggested that "teachers seemed to teach language skills separately though in human interaction, the language skills are normally integrated". In addition to teachers' inability to align the communicative skills in teaching, as outlined by Yulia, Musthafa (2001) said that 'self-confidence' to teach in English became a major problem facing English teachers in Indonesia. The two problems for teachers were the inability to align the communicative components in teaching English as explained by Yulia (2014) and lack of self-confidence suggested by Musthafa (2001). This suggests the poor performance of soft skills as the former was related to social competence and the latter was associated with personal competence.

In the meantime, due to economic and social changes, basic skills which employees ought to possess as a minimum entitlement are modified and upgraded in order that they can be actively involved in professional and social life. For higher education institutions, this means a challenge to consider improved curriculum, allowing students to have strong capabilities and motivation upon graduation. With the emergence of the globalization of education, competition, quality assurance, and the sustainable development of human resources, the challenges are increasing. In Indonesia, this challenge has recently been responded to by the government with the launching of the National Standard of Higher Education (2014). An important component of the National Standard of Higher Education is the Indonesian Qualification Framework (IQF) as the basis for quality assurance of higher education in Indonesia. IQF has also served as an instrument which classifies qualifications based on a set of criteria that are approved nationally. In addition, IQF

has given emphasis to learning outcomes of study areas, namely, knowledge, skills and attitudes associated with soft skills such as abilities to communicate and collaborate with others effectively.

In terms of policy, all five EEDs had included the development of soft skills either in their vision and mission or in their strategic plans. However, as shown in the lesson plans, the inclusion of learning outcomes was only found in the lesson plans used by lecturers in EED I and EED II, while in other EEDS soft skills were not included in the desired learning outcomes. According to Van der Heijden and Van der Heijden (2006), many academicians still hold the traditional perspective that disciplinary knowledge must be emphasized and that the focus of employability skills may decrease the value of academic learning. In order that the soft skills development is effective, Pavesic (1993) suggests that the learning outcomes of the course must incorporate the various elements, including cognitive (knowledge), affective (attitudes, beliefs, and values), and psychomotor (physical skills). He called such a design as a well-rounded curriculum, taking into account both the technical and human skills which would ensure the attainment of holistic student development toward ethical and responsible citizens and professionals.

Although the interviewed lecturers believed that the soft skills should be ideally developed through the teaching and learning process, the development of soft skills through stand-alone subjects was apparently a model embraced by EED III, IV and V to enhance their students' soft skills. In EED III the subjects such as 'Civic Education' and 'Pancasila Education', according to the head of department, contained elements to develop the students' soft skills. In EED IV the subject 'Tamansiswa' was intentionally designed as a stand-alone subject while in EED V several Islamic-based subjects was intended to develop the students' soft skills. A different trajectory in the development of soft skills was taken by EED I and II; both departments had a program specifically designed to train the student's soft skills. In addition to this, the incorporation of the soft skills development was embedded in the teaching and learning process, as evidenced in the inclusion of soft skills outcome in the lesson plans and the application of student-centered learning as observed in the teaching and learning process in the class. In fact, as pointed out by Kim Lian Chan (2011), the appropriateness and relevancy of teaching-learning techniques affect the attainment of soft skills by students. Lian Chan (2011) further suggests that the teaching techniques which promote the development of skills are those which: 1) encourage

students to be active learners; 2) focus on inquiry rather than simple absorption; 3) permit student exposure to critical thinking, problem-solving and higher order thinking skills. Hence, according to Lian Chan, lecturers should have an understanding of how students acquire knowledge and develop behaviours and attitudes in preparation for individual growth and future careers.

A strategy which was commonly applied by all five EEDs in enhancing students' soft skills was the co-curriculum programs and activities, including sport activities, martial arts, culture and debates. All of the HoDs in the five EEDs believed that the co-curriculum programs would enrich students' learning opportunities and sharpen their soft skills such as communication, teamwork and leadership skills. However, the co-curriculum programs provided by the universities were generally 'taken for granted' by the departments which can be voluntarily followed by students. It was only EED II which created a system to encourage students to join the co-curricular programs and other activities. For instance, according to its HoD, the department designed and provided 'activities cards' for students as evidence that they join activities on the campus. She further explained that students should accumulate at least ten cards as one of the requirements for their graduation.

7.7 Approaches in the Curriculum Implementation

Overall the degree to which the elements of the CBC suggested by the DGHE (2008) including the curriculum structure, the teaching and learning process, the development of soft skills and the assessment process had been applied was different among the five English departments. The term 'implementation', according to Fullan and Pomfret, (1977), refers to the actual use of a curriculum or what it consists of in practice. Even though curriculum reflects the actual use, as proposed by Fullan and Pomret, Marsh (2009) maintains that there is also an important attitudinal element. For instance, if a teacher considers that the current curriculum is deficient in some areas, then he or she will find an alternative which hopefully overcomes the problems. Similarly, Leitwood (1981) states that the involvement of teachers in implementing the curriculum will occur only if they perceive a dysfunction so that they have the desire to reduce the gap between current and preferred practices.

Three approaches to curriculum implementation can be used to see to what extent the curriculum could be implemented in educational institutions including fidelity, mutual adaptation and

curriculum enactment approaches. The first generation of curriculum research, according to Posner (1992), was the fidelity perspective aimed at measuring and examining the objectives of a written curriculum. By contrast, instead of gauging the degree to which the planned curriculum is implemented, mutual adaptation considers how the curriculum is adapted by teachers in the implementation process (McLaughlin, 1987). In contrast to the fidelity and mutual adaptation approaches, curriculum enactment studies how teachers and students construct and shape the curriculum in the implementation process. The curriculum enactment perspective suggests that in the curriculum implementation, both teacher and students jointly shape educational experiences. Specifically, Snyder et al. (1992) contends that the educational process in the curriculum enactment experienced by both teacher and students is not simply the apparent modifications of behaviour, but a process of personal development.

Hence, in enacting the curriculum, both teacher and student develop a particular meaning of their educational experiences, different from what is written in a curriculum document. In other words, the curriculum is enacted when it is implemented based on the perspectives of teachers and students or curriculum which is “experienced in situations” (Connelly and Clandinin, 1988, p.6) or “curriculum as lived” (Aoki, 1990). In the words of Cornbleth (1990), curriculum enactment refers to what really happens as a result of “the interactions of students, teachers, knowledge and milieu” (p. 5). Seen from the perspective of enacted curriculum, both teachers and students are significant in the construction of positive education experiences, and the involvement of teachers and students in the implementation process leads to their growth.

The DGHE seemed to expect the departments to follow the prescribed CBC. In the CBC guideline book prepared by DGHE (2008), it was stated that the CBC was an ‘alternative’ in designing a curriculum in higher education institutions. However, in reality the CBC was required to be implemented in higher education institutions. In the interview, the HoD of EED I stated that the proposal for the establishment of an English department was rejected because it was said that the curriculum structure was still based on the content-based curriculum which was not congruent with the CBC scheme. Hence, as he pointed out, EED I then changed the curriculum structure in order to obtain the approval for its establishment from the government. In addition to this, in terms of the curriculum, the “Badan Akreditasi Nasional Perguruan Tinggi” or “National Accreditation Body for Higher Education Institutions” included the CBC as one of its

criteria in assessing higher education institutions. It is clearly stated that “The curriculum should cover the standard of graduate competencies comprising the core, supporting and other competencies in order to achieve the mission and vision of the study program” (BAN PT, 2013). In fact, in the fidelity perspective, the curriculum was regarded as being designed and developed by experts outside the classroom. According to Fullan and Pomfret (1977), proponents of the fidelity perspective emphasize the importance of the planned curriculum and assume that when the planned curriculum is exemplary and demonstrably effective it will be readily and completely accepted by teachers. Similarly, Posner (1992) pointed out that in the first generation of curriculum research, the fidelity perspective had concerns about examining and measuring the implementation of the objectives of a written curriculum. In a similar vein, according to Fullan and Pomfret (1977) the objective of the fidelity perspective is to see the extent to which the curriculum implementation corresponds to the planned curriculum and to examine factors promoting and obstructing the implementation. In addition, curriculum knowledge, seen from the fidelity perspective, is created outside the educational institutions and the curriculum change was considered as a linear process.

As the criteria of the CBC had been required, EED I, III, IV and V tended to use the fidelity perspective in implementing its curriculum although the curriculum structure of EED I had a different format (sequential format) from the ones in EED III, IV and V (parallel format). Based on the data obtained from the interview, observation, survey and documentation, the criteria of CBC prescribed by DGHE including the graduate competencies, curriculum structure, the development soft skill, and the assessment process had been implemented by these departments. The HoDs and lecturers in these departments tended to hold the opinion that curriculum change was on the right track, with teachers implementing the curriculum as prescribed by DGHE in the classroom. The evaluation of the curriculum was whether the planned curriculum was implemented and lecturers were considered successful when the curriculum strategy is carried out as directed. As a result, as Darling-Hammond (1990) has pointed out, lecturers are placed as the curriculum consumers who implement the curriculum as directed by the curriculum designers who possess the knowledge. In other words, the lecturers are conceived as the policy recipients in the process of the curriculum implementation. Curriculum knowledge, seen from the fidelity

perspective, is created outside the educational institutions and the curriculum change was considered as a linear process.

Different from EED I, III, IV and V, EED II seemed to adopt the mutual adaptation approach in implementing CBC. As has been pointed out by Berman and McLaughlin (1975), advocates of this perspective argue that different circumstances facing schools and teachers require on-site modifications to the curriculum. They suggest that in reality all planned curricula become modified during the implementation process both to suit the specific and changing situations faced by teachers who enact them and to generate the greatest advantages for students.

The mutual adaptation approach is understood as a process of curriculum implementation which allows both curriculum designers and practitioners to make adjustments. This suggests that both the curriculum developers and those who implement the curriculum in the educational institutions or classroom context have a certain amount of flexibility and negotiation in the process of curriculum implementation. A study of the mutual adaptation approach done by Tyree (1993) to examine how policy interrelated with teacher practice demonstrated that teachers tended to make their own decisions in implementing the curriculum in spite of state policies. Another study done by McLaughlin (1987) also implied that individual teachers interpret and act on the planned curriculum through the implementation process, resulting in the absence of uniformity in the process of curriculum implementation and change.

However, reasons to modify the curriculum in EED II were not because of different circumstances facing schools and teachers as stated by Berman and McLaughlin (1975) or the lecturers' decision to alter the curriculum as pointed out by Tyree (1993) but because of a particular value embraced by EED II. Indeed, viewing it through the lenses of the social theory of education, Bird (1986) maintained that adjustments including the needs and interests of students and institutions as well as the methods and goals should be taken into consideration in curriculum implementation. Furthermore, as Bird (1986) further pointed out, both the designers and the adopters of the curriculum should deserve respect and meet on equal terms. Hence, this suggests that the role of teachers is vital in sharing their input so that the curriculum can be successfully implemented.

The adaptation of the curriculum in its implementation becomes necessary given that while CBC has offered its strengths, it is not without shortcomings. In terms of its strengths, as meeting the needs of labor markets for more skilled graduates has evidently been influencing the agenda of higher education institutions in Indonesia, skills development through competency-based education has become vital (Nederstight & Mulder, 2011); hence, CBC is pragmatic in nature. Null (2011) asserts that the pragmatic curriculum deserves credit for its emphasis on empirical results. “It reminds us that curriculum making is not only an idealistic activity but also an action-oriented task that must and should result in changes to the way students think and behave” (ibid, 2011, p. 146). A further strength of the pragmatic curriculum is found in its emphasis on method. For Null (2011), teaching and learning tips from the pragmatic curriculum can be immediately useful and inspiring. In fact, the DGHE, through its guideline books, has devoted a sub-section explaining teaching methods related to student-centered learning in the CBC setting. Interviews with lecturers in the five EEDs revealed the lecturers’ comprehension and vocabularies surrounding the student-centered learning such as collaborative learning, cooperative learning, group discussions, and problem-solving skills.

As a pragmatic curriculum, CBC, however, falls short when curriculum for moral education is concerned. Curriculum for shaping students’ character must take into account the internal aspect of human existence. “Given their complete acceptance of empiricism, however, pragmatics rejects any internal dimension of human nature-whether it is referred to as the soul, the mind, character or consciousness” (Null, 2011, p. 147). To pragmatic curriculum designers, subject matter is only useful to the extent that it informs the solution of social, political, and economic problems; each discipline does not represent a timeless body of knowledge traditions but rather a cluster of information, skills, and experiences that has the potential for use in the solution of problems (ibid, 2011). The dominance of skill-based subjects in the curriculum structure of EED I clearly supported Null’s view. In fact, as the DGHE (2008) explains, the key step in formulating the subjects in the curriculum structure is to think of the skills and competencies needed by a certain profession.

EED II seemed to successfully complement and reconcile the systemic-pragmatic nature of CBC with its organizational value called Ignatian Pedagogy which is more deliberative in nature. In terms of the subject matters in the curriculum structure, EED II heavily accommodated liberal art-based subjects including philosophy, poetry and drama. The curriculum structure of EED II reflected the spirit of Ignatian Pedagogy as stated by Kolvenbach (2005.p1),

Since the time they launched their first school in 1548, the Jesuits have believed that a high quality education is the best path to meaningful lives of leadership and service. They have understood that the liberal arts, the natural and social sciences, and the performing arts, joined with all the other branches of knowledge, were a powerful means to develop leaders with the potential for influencing and transforming society.

The HoD of EED II was aware that there was a fundamental difference between CBC and the Ignatian Pedagogy as its organizational values. However, she believed that CBC and Ignatian Pedagogy can be complementary to each other. She said, “CBC focuses on the skills development and Ignatian Pedagogy can strength the students’ character and the Ignatian Pedagogy provides us with teaching methods to achieve these objectives”. The EED’s effort to incorporate its organizational values into the curriculum demonstrated that the adaptation of the curriculum is plausible.

7.8 The leadership of the Heads of Department and the Challenges in the CBC Implementation

The five HoDs seemed to have developed similar leadership patterns in the areas of the curriculum and its implementation in the teaching and learning process, quality assurance and lecturers’ professional development and performance management. In implementing the curriculum in the teaching and learning process, the HoDs were still occupied with “administrative” jobs. The HoDs acted as the facilitators in the curriculum evaluation, and the process of curriculum evaluation was the team’s responsibility, hence adopting what is called by Astin and Astin (2000) as transformative leadership. According to them, transformative leadership is a group process whereby individuals work together in order to foster change and transformation.

In implementing the curriculum in the teaching and learning process, the HoDs in the five departments had attempted to evaluate the lecturers’ performance in teaching through

administering the survey to students. The individual monitoring to lecturers such as observing the class and checking the lesson plans, however, had not been done by the HoDs. As Odhiambo and Hii (2012) point out, instructional leadership should be able to evaluate the curriculum and teaching and provide the instructional feedback. Thus, instructional leadership had not been exercised properly in the five EEDs. Avolio and Bass(2004) maintain that the one important characterization of a transformational leader is one who provides attention to each individual member of an organization.

With regard to the curriculum, one of the HoD's responsibilities was to ensure that the CBC was implemented appropriately. However, the lecturers' involvement in the CBC training and the programs conducted to disseminate the CBC in all EEDs was still low. Furthermore, the classroom observation and the interview revealed that the majority of observed lecturers did not implement the principles of student-centered learning advocated in the CBC. The role of the HoDs as transformational leaders should, therefore, be articulated. As Avolio and Bass (2004) pointed out, transformational leaders have the ability to articulate and share a vision to the members of an organization.

Professional development for lecturers became an important agenda the HoDs in the five EEDs had to take into consideration. Regarding the educational levels, most lecturers in the five EEDs had postgraduate degrees as the minimum requirement stated in the Indonesian Constitution No.14/2015 to teach in the undergraduate or bachelor programs. In addition to this, the lecturers had been given opportunities to enhance their professionalism through attending seminars and workshops although, as the lecturers pointed out, the knowledge they obtained from the seminars were not disseminated in the department. However, the five EEDs still had lecturers who held bachelor degrees who were actually under qualified to teach in the bachelor programs. Furthermore, in EED IV one lecturer did not graduate from an English department so that she failed to communicate in English with her students. This indicated that encouraging lecturers to pursue further education became urgent and the selection process in hiring lecturers should be improved.

The HoDs were also responsible for the quality assurance process in carrying out the ‘Tridarma Perguruan Tinggi’ or the three responsibilities of universities, namely, research, teaching, and service to community. In terms of research, the lecturers in all five EEDs had conducted research studies although the productivity in each EED was different. The lecturers in the EED II were the most productive (51 research studies), more than twice as those in EED IV and V. Lecturers in EED I was the least productive in carrying out research studies, with only six research studies produced by its lecturers. The reasons for the low productivity of lecturers in carrying out the research studies, as explained by lecturers in EED I and V, was due to the lecturers’ teaching overload.

An interesting insight came from the HoD of EED 1, stating that it is easier to motivate lecturers to do research rather than encourage them to teach well. This was because, according to him, lecturers were willing to carry out research because research productivity advanced their careers. This is in line with Gibb’s (1995) view based on evidence that Quality Teaching is receiving very little attention as compared to research.

The five EEDs had implemented two methods of quality assurance through internal and external audits. The internal audit was done in each EED while the external audit was done through the accreditation process done by the Indonesian National Accreditation Agency for Higher Education. The HoDs were responsible for managing the quality assurance process in the departments. Effective leadership of the HoDs must be enhanced since it is one of many aspects affecting effective teaching and learning as well as working within the five EEDs.

The five EEDs had their unique problems and challenges in implementing the CBC including new roles required for lecturers and students in CBC, too numerous tools for assessments, lack of facilities to support the CBC (EED I); too numerous subjects, new active roles for lecturers and students, abundant teaching and learning documents for lecturers (EED II); complicated assessment methods, the requirements from the job market, lack of involvement of stakeholders in developing the competencies, unclear trajectories in changing the curriculum structure, students’ difficulty to graduate from the departments (EED III), lack of facilities, lecturers’ absenteeism, partial adoption of soft skills development, the dominant use of teacher-centered learning and unshared understanding of CBC (EED IV).

The finding suggests that the problems which challenged the five EEDs were concerned with the unclear curriculum and course design, lecturers' poor attitudes such as absenteeism, limited facilities and poor teaching and learning methods and assessments. According to Scott (2006), the students' perceptions of these aspects will shape the overall student learning experience. Hence, students' positive perceptions are resulted from their positive experiences of these aspects. As Scott (2006) points out, factors which lead to students' positive experiences include a sound course design, student-centered and interactive learning methods, committed lecturers and relevant, consistent and integrated assessments as well as the provision of library and information technology and student support system. The list of problems encountered by the five EEDs seemed to contradict the factors proposed by Scott, hence leading to students' negative experience. This was affirmed, for example, by students in the five EEDs when they expressed their disappointment because several lecturers did not teach interestingly. Students in EED III also explained how their friends found difficulties in finishing their thesis because their lecturers were often unavailable to provide assistance in the writing process. Addressing these challenges and overcoming the problems through the QA process is, therefore, the key to enhance the students' positive experience in the learning process.

To conclude, based on the overall findings, concerned with the research question, "How well has the Competency-Based Curriculum policy of the Directorate of the Higher Education been implemented in the English Teacher Education Institutions in Indonesia since its introduction?" all five EEDs had not fully implemented the CBC. However, of the five EEDs, EED I seemed to apply the most elements of CBC in its curriculum, including its curriculum structure, teaching and learning methods, the assessment process and the development of soft skills. On the other hand, the other EEDs still focused on implementing minor elements of the CBC. EED II was the most successful in integrating its organizational values with the principles of the CBC.

7.9 Recommendations

The issues raised in the findings of the study suggested that the recommendations be made to the EEDs and to the DGHE. In terms of the recommendations for the five EEDs, as have been reported in the findings, all the five EEDs have made numerous attempts using a variety of approaches to enhance learning and teaching, including the adoption of student-centered

learning, competency-based assessment as well as the incorporation of the soft skills in the curriculum. Some of the EEDs have been more successful than others. The raised issues concerning the enhancement of the teaching and learning process include the lecturers' preoccupation with lecturer-centered learning, the soft skills development which was not aligned in the teaching and learning process, and the adoption of non-competency-based assessment.

Despite proper understanding of the CBC terms, in the observation most of the teachers in the five EEDs failed to implement the student-centered learning methods in the CBC. Hence, sharing ideas of the CBC concept is crucial among lecturers at the five EEDs. McKenzie et al. (2005) found that the institutional and external context and the capabilities of those involved in designing and implementing curriculum were the two most important factors in the success of its process. They further said that in terms of institutional and external context, sharing ideas among staff within and across disciplines through associations and networks was important for raising awareness. In terms of project implementation, professional development opportunities should ensure that scholarship of teaching and learning were enhanced, valued, recognized and rewarded. Programs focusing on how to teach using student-centered learning modes and utilize the competency-based assessment should be conducted in the five EEDs. However, according to Hockings (2005), changing the practices of one lecturer is not enough. Thus, as Hocking (2005) points out, systemic and systematic change are required at departmental level so that student-centered practices are not eroded. Gibbs and Coffey (2004) maintain that even if professional development programs are successful in improving lecturers' conception of teaching, changing practices may not be easy because their approach is facilitated by their working environment. Knight and Trowler (2000) suggest that departmental culture needs to encourage the enhancement of student learning in order to facilitate improved teaching and learning. Similarly, Ramsden (1998) asserts that "there is evidence that the environment of academic departments-including their leadership-influences the quality of teaching and learning in universities...Again, the key factor in the equation is the staff member's perception of the context of academic work".

In addition to these, supportive and proactive leadership from the HoDs needs to be increased, especially at improving the quality of lecturers in the areas of teaching and research through lecturers' professional development. Price and Kirkwood (2008) argue that professional development is not about providing lecturers a prescription to follow for improving their

teaching. In other words, as they pointed out, the role of the professional developer is not to provide teaching staff with a predetermined set of procedural and technical skills, nor is it to impart relevant theories. The goal should be to empower lecturers to grow in their own direction (ibid, 2008). Price and Kirkwood (2008) suggest that professional developers need to help create an environment in which academic and support staff are enabled to move from ‘espoused’ theory about teaching and learning to ‘theory in action’. “The espoused theory is the set of values and beliefs that are used to describe to other people why we do what we do, while the theory in use relates to the values and beliefs that underpin what we actually do in practice” (ibid, 2008).

The process of quality assurance needs to be directed toward achieving quality research and teaching. The lecturers in the five EEDs had lower motivation for improving their teaching than improving their research because of a lack of incentive in the teaching areas. More promotion decisions for lecturers were made on the bases on research than on teaching. In order to improve the lecturers’ teaching performance, therefore, efforts to enhance the quality teaching need to be done. Gibb (1995) suggests that the quality enhancement process already used for research be applied in teaching including such as peer review, rewards for excellence, cooperative work, incentives to read and discuss the literature.

The other challenges and problems that should be addressed are concerned with the development of teachers’ competencies, including the confusion in formulating the graduate competencies, the lack of teaching practicums, the lack of ICT skills development in the curriculum and the incorporation of ‘character building’ education through certain subjects. The confusion in formulating the graduate competencies might occur, again, because of a lack of understanding of the CBC implementation. The EEDs need to revisit the concept of the graduate competencies including the core, ‘supporting’ and ‘other’ competencies. Rather than carrying out shallow ‘needs analyses’, the EEDs need to conduct rigorous research on what competencies and skills are needed by efficient teachers. Research in teacher competence usually attempts to find out what teachers should know and able to do, leading to teacher assessment. This, according to Milward and Gerlach (1989), needs two steps including setting the standards of competence that a teacher should have for effective teaching and developing the assessment instrument. Teacher assessment can be considered as the procedure to investigate a teachers’ competence to teach. The procedure includes test, structured observation, performance tasks, or simulations (Lynch,

2003). After the research is conducted, the subjects in the curriculum structure can be formulated. This process will hinder the ‘unnecessary subjects’ to be taught in the curriculum, hence focusing more on the development of the teacher’ competencies.

More teaching practicums at schools should also be initiated by the five EEDs to ensure the application of the students’ skills in real working situations. In fact, the HoDs explained that prior to teaching at schools they had a subject in which they had to practice teaching in front of their friends. The HoDs believed in its effectiveness in providing students with opportunities to apply their skills and knowledge. However, Nederstigt and Mulder (2011) assert that the students are able to perform skills in the practice room, yet this does not enable them to perform their skills in a working context.

The ICT competencies need to be incorporated both in the curriculum structure and in the teaching and learning process. This is because ICT has become part of students’ every life and it permeates many activities including daily relationships and communication and working environments. The graduates of EEDs who are supposed to be English teachers should have robust ICT skills and it is made possible if the EEDs incorporate subjects to develop this skills. In addition to this, lecturers need to develop ICT literacy in the teaching and learning process. The ICT literacy means the ability to understand and use information in various formats from a wide range of resources presented through computers (Beqiri, 2010). “It conjures up a new set of challenges that require you to approach networked computers without re-conceptions. Not only must you acquire the skill of finding things, you must also acquire the ability to use these things in your life”. (Gilster 1997, p. 2). The ability to incorporate the ICT in teaching should be supported by the appropriate pedagogical understanding. As Carswell, et al. (2000) point out, to develop materials for online contexts, lecturers must understand the underlying pedagogical objectives and reflect upon their own beliefs and practices associated with the nature of knowledge, teaching, and learning. Without such fundamental concerns, learning materials are merely translated for the web as opposed to being transformed.

The attempt to develop students’ positive attitudes through subjects such as *Pancasila* is considered important in the five EEDs. However, the focus of the teaching of this subject is to transfer the philosophical knowledge to students. Nederstigt and Mulder (2011) suggest that the teaching of *Pancasila* failed to develop a critical individual person and contribute little to the

development of students' professional development. Hence, the teaching of subjects to develop students' attitudes should be accompanied by a philosophy of holistic development and teaching methods which can cater for the development of pro-active individuals who feel the intrinsic motivation to contribute the enhancement of their professional skills.

The adoption of the CBC is about change and paradigm shifts among lecturers and students. Adapting Southwell et al.'s (2005) suggestions, five factors are essential for bringing about change in the curriculum implementation: first, HoDs should have effective leadership and management skills including clear goals, shared vision, ability to translate the vision into strategies to achieve the goals, and commitment; second, the climate for readiness for change was vital including recognizing the need for change, the willingness to change and reflection on current practice in the teaching and learning process and future directions; third, innovation and change should be recognized and valued; fourth, improvement of the lecturer's professionalism, research productivity and financial and infrastructure resources were necessary for successful change and the acknowledgement that embedding change requires commitment over time; institutional planning and quality assurance also need to be improved to ensure the success of the change process.

The recommendation for the DGHE is concerned with the approach for curriculum implementation and curriculum change. In terms of curriculum implementation, the DGHE appeared to direct the higher education institutions to adopt the fidelity approach to curriculum implementation. Based on the assessment instruments prepared by the National Accreditation Body or BAN PT (2013), one element of the assessment is that the curriculum must contain the core, supporting and other competencies and the subjects in the curriculum structure must aim to achieve the desired competencies. As is evident, according to the HoD of EED I, his department had to change the proposed curriculum when the department was established because based on the feedback given by DGHE it was not in line with the CBC scheme.

The underlying assumption of the fidelity perspective, according to Ariav (1988), is that because lecturers have a low level of curriculum literacy, the planned curriculum must be highly structured and lecturers must be given explicit instructions about how to teach it. The adoption of the fidelity perspective in the curriculum implementation has several drawbacks. First, as Marsh (2009) points out, because both the curriculum itself and the instructions to teachers are

specified, the fidelity perspective leaves little room for a curriculum to be adapted to any particular or changing circumstances of the specific institutions or classrooms in which it is intended to be taught. Second, Tyack and Cuban (1995) as well as Carless (2004) said that curriculum developers who take a fidelity perspective for curriculum implementation ignore lecturers' prior experiences, knowledge and backgrounds. The HoD of EED II had clearly articulated this. She said that the university had developed particular visions and values. Hence, according to her, while EED II wanted to implement the CBC endorsed by the DGHE, she also expected that the unique vision and mission of the institution would be accommodated.

The fidelity approach which is forced upon the higher education institutions was inappropriate for several reasons. First, according to Marsh (2009), a fidelity approach treats lecturers and institutions as passive recipients of the wisdom of the curriculum developers. In the Indonesian context, this implies that as passive recipients, lecturers and institutions were placed on the periphery in which they must accept the curriculum per se as prescribed by the DGHE. Second, regarding the curriculum as the 'wisdom' created by curriculum developers also implied that the CBC was perfect, and therefore should be accepted without critical thought. Harris et al. (1995) suggest that the proponents of CBC often view its implementation as 'a cure-all' which will offer a solution to problems in education, training and assessment. However, the concept of the CBC itself is not without shortcomings. Hence, according to Newman (1999), the concept of the CBC should be subjected to critical scrutiny. Cairns (1999), for instance, suggests that:

There was little reported research evidence that the CBC was able to deliver the efficacy and results touted in the many papers, reports, and calls for this needed reform. The idea was timely, the approach was grasped with almost missionary zeal by some and the focus was seen as common sense. The lack of research evidence clearly justifying the approach or demonstrating clear links to the alleged competitive improvements for individual and even national business efforts was not an issue (p.2).

Third, the curriculum in higher education institutions is likely to keep changing. Based on the findings of this research, several elements of the CBC proposed by the DGHE including teaching and learning methods, assessment and the incorporation of soft skills were not implemented properly by most of the English departments. The HoD of EED II said that the department needed ample time to implement the CBC properly because she felt that lecturers should attain a shared understanding of its concept. At the time the EEDs have been making efforts to implement the CBC, the new curriculum called 'The curriculum of Higher Education

Institutions' has recently been launched by DGHE. If the DGHE remained firm in requiring the higher education institutions to adopt the fidelity approach of the curriculum implementation, the CBC would be changed again and this might lead to confusion among lecturers.

Provision for modifying the implementation of the CBC, therefore, should be permitted. This does not mean that the EEDs should omit the CBC; rather, they should combine the best aspects of the CBC and the organization uniqueness. Berman and McLaughlin (1975) maintain that differing circumstances facing institutions and teachers require on-site modifications to the curriculum. They also suggest that in reality all planned curricula become modified during the process of implementation and that such modification to suit the specific and changing situations facing lecturers to enact them is essential if the curricula are to have the greatest possible benefits for students. The curriculum implementation in EED II gave evidence of how the institution's values were incorporated such as the inclusion of the literature based subjects in the curriculum structure as well as the adoption of the Ignatian pedagogical paradigm in the teaching and learning process. A study of the curriculum implementation encompassing 293 projects in educational institutions done by Fullan and Pomfret (1997) found that successful innovations occurred when planned curricula were not highly specified or packed in advance but were mutually adapted by users within specific institutional settings.

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APPENDIX 1: RESEARCH IN ENGLISH AND BAHASA INDONESIA

APPENDIX 1.1: RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS IN ENGLISH

1.1.A Interview Schedule with the Head of English Department

Initial Explanation:

- Commence the interview with an explanation for the visit
- Thank the heads of department for his/her co-operation and time

Explain:

- PhD program by thesis
- The aim of the case-study: to evaluate Competency-based Curricula Implemented in English Language Programs in Indonesia.
- The research method: case study of 5 English Education Departments in Indonesia.

A. Understanding and experience of the CBC

1. How many years have you been the HoD of this department?
2. Describe your job as a HoD?
3. Have you joined trainings related to the CBC in higher education institutions?
4. Describe your concept of Competency-Based Curriculum? When did your department implement the CBC?
5. What has been your experience and impressions of CBC?
6. What reaction or attitude to CBC do you perceive in the English Education Department?
7. What implications do you think a competency-based approach to curriculum?

B. The Design and Implementation of the CBC

1. How do you design the curriculum?
2. What are the graduate profiles of your department?
3. What job destinations do the students choose after their graduation?
4. How does the department design graduates profiles and the competencies to achieve the profiles?
5. What impacts do you think the introduction of a CBC approach on the preparation of graduates in the workforce?

6. Does the department formulate the core competencies? What are they?
7. Does the department formulate the supporting competencies? What are they?
8. Does the department have other competencies? What are they?
9. How does the teaching and learning process include the development of knowledge and skills of the students?
10. Do the competencies include the elements of soft skills? What are they?
11. How does the department integrate the soft skills development into the teaching and learning process?
12. What is the department's policy regarding the teaching practicum? How many times do students practice teaching in schools? What do you think of the effectiveness of the program in developing students' competencies?
13. How is the department's policy regarding the design of the curriculum structure? How do you formulate the subjects? How are the subjects presented in the course arrangement from the first semester to the last semester?
14. What implications do you think a CBC approach would have in the teaching and learning process?
15. How is the teaching and learning process conducted? What teaching methods are used by lecturers?
16. Do you think that the lecturers have implemented the students-centered learning (SCL)? How is the SCL implemented in the teaching and learning process in the department? What do you think of the effectiveness of SCL?
17. What implications do you feel a competency-based approach would have on the assessment?

C. Policy Related to the Implementation of the CBC

1. Describe your specific work dealing the CBC?
2. How often do you conduct a program to introduce the Competency-Based Curriculum?
3. Do you encourage lecturers' forum to improve the quality of teaching and learning process?
4. How does the department support language learning?

5. What is department's policy regarding the CBC curriculum and its implementation in terms of?
 - Curriculum development
 - Teaching material development
 - Teaching and learning process
 - Learning assessment/test development
6. How often do you evaluate the CBC curriculum?
7. What is your role in the curriculum evaluation?
8. How do you evaluate the CBC curriculum?

D. Issues in the implementation of CBC

What problems do you and/or the teachers find in implementing CBC?

E. Department Culture

1. What is the vision of the department?
2. How do you achieve the vision?
3. What specific cultural values are developed in the department? How can it support the vision of the department?

1.1.B Interview Schedule with Lecturers

A. Understanding and experiences

1. Describe your concept of Competency-Based Curriculum (CBC)?
2. What has been your experience and impressions of CBC?
3. What do you know about Content-Based Curriculum (1994) and Competency-Based Curriculum (2008) in higher education institutions?
4. What is your perception of implementation of Competency-Based Curriculum in terms of:
 - Curriculum development
 - Teaching material development
 - Teaching and learning process
 - Learning assessment
 - Learning facilities
5. How do you respond to CBC implemented in the English Education Department?

B. Graduate profiles and competencies

1. What impacts do you think the introduction of a competency based approach on the preparation of graduates in the workforce?
2. What implications do you think a competency-based approach to curriculum?
3. How do you design the curriculum? Bagaimana Anda mendesain kurikulum?
4. What are the graduate profiles of your department?
5. What job destinations do the students choose after their graduation?
6. How does the department design graduates profiles and the competencies to achieve the profiles?
7. Does the department formulate the core competencies? What are they?
8. Does the department formulate the supporting competencies? What are they?
9. Does the department have other competencies? What are they?

C. Teaching and learning

1. What implication do you think a CBC approach in the teaching and learning process?

2. What do you know about Students Centered Learning and Teachers-Centered learning?
3. Do you think that you have implemented the Students-centered learning in your teaching?
4. What teaching method do you use? What considerations do you use to apply this method?
5. What is the main objective of your teaching?
6. What is your role in teaching the students?
7. What is the student's role in the learning process?
8. Do you develop the syllabus and lesson plan by yourself? How often? How well do you develop the syllabus and lesson plan?
9. What are the components of the lesson plan? How well do you develop them?
10. Do you also develop the students' soft skills in your teaching? What soft skills do you develop? How do you develop them?
11. What learning climate do you expect in the teaching process?
12. Do you always explain to your students the competencies to be achieved in every meeting of your teaching?
13. What do you hope for English language teaching and learning in the University?
14. Do you evaluate your English language teaching? When and how often?
15. How can you motivate students to learn English?
16. Do you include the teaching of soft skills in your teaching and learning process? What soft skills do you teach? Do you think that it is important to include the soft skills? Why? How do you develop the soft skills' of your students?

D. Learning Materials

1. What implication do you feel a CBC approach in the design of curricula?
2. What learning resources do you use in the teaching and learning process? How do you use the learning resources?
3. What kinds of media do you use in the teaching and learning process? How do you use the media?
4. What teaching materials do you frequently use in your teaching?
5. Do you develop instructional materials by yourself? Do you develop your instructional materials based on the CBC principles?

E. Assessment

1. What implication do you think a CBC approach in the assessment?
2. What do you think of the functions of assessment?
3. What do you think of the relationship between the learning process and the assessment?
4. How do you assess your students?
5. Do you use rubrics to in assessing the students? What elements are there in the rubrics?
Do you explain the rubrics to your students?
6. Do you also include the soft skills to be assessed? What skills do you assess? How do you assess the soft skills of your students?

F. Policy related to the implementation of the CBC

How does the department support the implementation of CBC?

What problems do you find in implementing the Competency-Based Curriculum?

1.1.C Focus Group Discussion with Students

A. Understanding and experience of CBC

Are you familiar with the competency-based curriculum? Do you think that this department has implemented the CBC? Do you agree with the implementation of CBC? How do you experience the CBC?

What do you think of the word ‘competence’? What are teachers’ competencies?

B. Graduate profiles and competences

What are you going to be after graduating from this department?

Do you know the graduate profiles of this department?

Do you think that the learning process in this department has developed your competency to be a teacher?

What competences do you think you have improved?

What do you think of English teachers’ competencies?

C. Teaching and learning

Are you happy with the teaching and learning process? What is your goal in learning? Acquire knowledge? Skills and knowledge? How do lecturers teach you? What teaching method do they use? Do they encourage you to be active in the class? Do you think that the lecturers’ teaching method has helped you to develop your competencies? Do you think that the learning materials have helped you to develop your competencies? What are your roles in the teaching and learning process? What are the teachers’ roles in the learning process?

How do you know about the soft skills? What soft skills are taught in the teaching and learning process in this department? Are the soft skills assessed and included in the elements of the final score?

D. Curriculum content and learning materials

Do you think that the subjects you learn in this department equip you with the skills and competencies to be a teacher? Do you think that all subjects taught in this department are useful for you?

Do the learning materials designed by lecturers encourage you to be active in and outside the class? Are you happy with the teaching materials?

E. Assessment

How do lecturers assess you? Do they explain the elements to be scored by the lecturers? Do you think that the assessment method has assessed your competencies?

Do they use mid semester and final exam only? Do they also use assignment?

Do they use other forms of assessment?

Do you use portfolio to be assessed?

Do you get feedback from your lecturers?

Do they use remedial teaching?

Do lecturers assess your soft skills too?

How do they assess your soft skills?

F. The introduction of the CBC

Does the department introduce you with the concept of CBC? How do they introduce it?

G. Issues regarding the implementation of CBC

What do you think is the most challenging issues in the implementation of CBC?

What do you think is benefits of implementing the Competency-based curriculum?

What do you think is the disadvantages of implementing the competency-based curriculum?

What barriers do you find in implementing the competency-based curriculum in this department?

1.1.D Survey Questionnaire with Lecturers

1. Lecturers' demographics and experiences in the CBC implementation

A. Department

Name of Department and University: _____

Please check (✓) beside each of the option in the boxes:

B. Gender

- Female
- Male

C. Education

- Undergraduate, major: _____
- Postgraduate, major: _____
- Doctorate degree, major: _____

D. Status

- Permanent lecturer
- Non-permanent lecturer

E. Teaching experience

- Less than 2 years
- 2-5 years
- 5-10 years
- More than 10 years

F. CBC trainings

Have you joined trainings to introduce the concept of the Competency-based Curriculum implemented in higher education institutions?

- Yes
- No

G. Documents

a. What percentage of the Competency-based Curriculum (CBC) guideline documents do you have?

- > 90 %
- 75-90%
- 50-74%
- < 50%

b. What percentage of the CBC teaching syllabus do you have?

- > 90 %
- 75-90%
- 50-74%
- < 50%

c. What percentage of the CBC lesson plans do you have?

- > 90 %
- 75-90%
- 50-74%
- < 50%

d. What percentage of the assessment rubrics do you have?

- > 90 %
- 75-90%
- 50-74%
- < 50%

2. Learning modes used in the teaching and learning process

Beside of each of the statement, please indicate how often you implement the following teaching methods by ticking (✓) the options in the boxes:

No	Statements	Never (1)	Rarely (2)	Sometimes (3)	Often (4)	Very often (5)
1	I ask student to discuss the tasks in groups					
2	I use role plays to encourage students to learn					
3	I ask students to search or gather information in order to construct the knowledge in the assignments					
4	I ask students to be responsible for their own learning					
5	I ask students to cooperate and collaborate to solve the problems in groups					
6	I ask the students to apply the theories in the real situation					
7	I ask the students to do projects					
8	I encourage students to identify problems and its solution in the discussion					

1.1.E Teaching and Learning Observation Checklist

Lecturer: _____ University: _____ Semester : _____
Number of Students: _____ Date: _____ Subject: _____
Start: _____ Finish: _____

1. Lesson plans

2. Lecturer's roles

3. Students' roles

4. Activities

5. Learning materials and resources

1.1.F Samples of lesson plans and syllabus

LESSON PLANS

Subject : English Instructional Technology

Number of credits : 2

Competence standard :

Subject : English Instructional Technology

Number of credits : 2

Competence standard : Understanding the basic theory of English Instructional Technology

Indicators accomplishment:

1. Explaining the teacher competencies as stated in the Government Regulation no. 14/2005.
2. Explaining the EFL teachers competencies
3. Explaining the relevance of all subjects to achieve the teacher's competencies.

The learning materials: the teacher's competencies (the government regulation no. 14/2005)

Learning activities:

Steps	Activities	Time	Methods	Media	Learning resources
Opening	Greeting Warming up activities	10 minutes			
Core activities	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Students watch video about the teacher and have discussion after watching it.	30 minutes			
	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Together with the lecturers, students discuss the teacher's competencies based on the government regulation no. 14/2005) and EFL teachers.	45 minutes			

Closing	Conclusion and explanation about assignment	18 minutes			
Follow up	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In pairs, students seek the similarities and differences between the teacher competencies based on the government regulation no. 14/2005 and scholars' perspectives • Identifies desired competencies after learning about based on 2009 curriculum of English the department and its relevance with the teacher's competencies. 				

SYLLABUS

Subject: Structure 1

Credit: 3

COMPETENCIES STANDARD:

Competencies:

- After the course completion, students are able to:
- Understand the basic pattern of the sentence structure in English.
- Apply the sentence basic pattern in English sentences correctly.

Conscience:

- Through this course, students are able to:
- Demonstrate discipline attitude in the teaching and learning process.
- Act openly to lecturers and friends.
- Apply the principle of honesty in doing the tasks.

Compassion:

- After the completion of the course, students are able to show their care and compassion to their friends.

BASIC COMPETENCIES AND INDICATORS:

No	Basic competencies	Indicators
1	Competencies: Students are able to understand part of speech and the basic sentence patterns.	Students are able to: <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Identify types of words.• Identify the basic sentence patterns in English.• Write simple sentence correctly in English.
	Conscience: Students can act honestly	Students are able to: <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Identify the values of honesty in the teaching and learning process.• Speak about him or herself honestly.
	Compassion:	Students are able to:

	Students are able to express their roles in the small group discussion in the teaching and learning process.	Help others to overcome problems in doing tasks.
2	Competence: Students are able to understand types of English phrases.	Students are able to : <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Find types phrase in a text. • Group types of phrases correctly. • Use English phrases in speaking and in writing.
	Conscience: Students are able to be aware of their ability in learning English phrases.	Students are able to: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Express their difficulty in understanding the learning materials. • Ask lecturers and friends.
	Compassion: Students are able to show their concern to their friends.	Students are able to help their friends in the group works
3	Progress test 1	
4	Competence: Students are able to understand the concept of nouns, pronouns, subject and verb agreement in English.	Students are able to: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Categorize types of nouns and pronouns correctly. • Use nouns and pronouns correctly. • Identify subject and verb in a text. • Write English sentences correctly.
	Conscience: Students are able to act honestly.	Students are able to: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Express their difficulty in understanding learning materials to their friends and lecturers. • Ask to their friends and lecturers.
	Compassion: Students are able to share with their friends.	Students are able to share their knowledge in the group works.
5	Progress test 2	

6	Competence: Students are able to understand the present tense.	Students are able to: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Explain the function of present tense. • Use the present tenses in writing and speaking.
	Conscience: Students are able to show the discipline and openness attitude.	Students are able to: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Submit the assignment on time. • Accept the feedback from others in the group work.
	Compassion: Students can show their care to others in their group work.	Students are able to help their friends who have difficulty in doing their tasks.
7	Competence: Students are able to understand the past tense.	Students are able to: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Explain the function of the past tense. • Use the past tense in speaking and writing properly.
	Conscience: Students are able to act honestly.	Students are able to: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Explain the difficulty to their friends. • Ask their friends and lecturers. • Accept the opinion of friends.
	Compassion: Students are able to show their care to their friends in the group work.	Students are able to: Help the friends who have not understood the learning materials.

No	Main learning materials	Time	Learning activities
1	Learning material 1: Course orientation Parts of speech Basic sentence structure	9 JP	Context: Students are informed about what they learn in structure 1 through syllabus of this subject. They are also given a test to know their prior knowledge on structure. Experience: Students do the exercise on parts of speech and basic sentence patterns in both speaking and writing.

			<p>Reflection and action: Students write a story about himself: what they learn, how they feel, what they find difficult, what they hope they will do in the next meeting.</p>
2	Learning materials 2: Phrase structure	9 JP	<p>Context: Students re-learn the English sentence structure and find its relationship with phrases.</p> <p>Experience: Students identify phrases in a paragraph and analyze the structure of each phrase.</p> <p>Reflection: Students answer the questions reflectively on the materials they have learnt, the difficulty they have experienced and the planning for the next meeting.</p> <p>Action: In groups, students find an English text and analyze the phrases in the text.</p>
3	Progress test 1	3 JP	
4	Learning materials 3: Nouns and pronouns subject and verb agreement.	6 JP	<p>Context: Students categorize the words based on the their types and identify subject and verb in the English text.</p> <p>Experience: Students discuss and do the exercise on nouns and pronoun and subject and verb agreement.</p> <p>Reflection: Students answer the questions reflectively on the materials they have learnt, the difficulty they have and the planning they will do in the next meeting.</p> <p>Action: Students write a paragraph about what they learnt and analyze the accuracy of the sentences based on the subject and verb agreement.</p>
5	Progress test 2	3 JP	
6	Learning material: 4 The present tense	6 JP	<p>Context: Students read a text about their life.</p> <p>Experience:</p>

			<p>Students discuss, do the exercises verbally and in writing in groups.</p> <p>Reflection: Students answer the question reflectively about what they learn, what difficulty they find and what they plan in the next meeting.</p> <p>Action: students write a story about themselves using the present tense.</p>
7	Learning material 5: The past tense		<p>Context: students listen story about past activities.</p> <p>Experience: Students discuss, do the exercises and share their experience in the past both in speaking and writing.</p> <p>Reflection: Students answer the questions reflectively about what they learnt, what difficulty they have and what they plan in the next meeting.</p> <p>Action: Students write a report about what they experience in the previous day.</p>

IV. Assessment

In the learning process for one semester, students are evaluated from aspects of competence, conscience and compassion. The competence aspect is assessed using the following tools:

1. Progress test 1 is used to assess students' understanding about the learning materials 1 and learning materials 2.
2. The progress test 2 is used to assess the students' understanding about learning materials 1,2 and 3.
3. The final exam is used to assess the students' understanding about all the materials they have discussed on one semester.
4. The quizzes are also used to test the students' understanding for each learning material.

To assess the conscience and compassion aspects, two tools are used, namely the presence list of students and the students' reflection.

The following table shows the value of each assessment types in percentages.

No	Types of assessment	Format	Value
1	Attendance	Presence list	5%
2	Reflection	Written	5%
3	Quiz	Written and oral	20%
4	Progress test 1	Written	20%
5	Progress test 2	Written	20%
6	Final exam	Written	20%

APPENDIX 1.2: RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS IN BAHASA INDONESIA

Wawancara dengan Ketua Jurusan Bahasa Inggris

Penjelasan awal:

- Sampaikan maksud kedatangan.
- Ucapkan terimakasih kepadad HoD atas waktu dan kerjasamanya.

Penjelasan:

- Program PhD dengan disertasi
- Tujuan dari penelitian: mengavaluasi KBK yang diterapkan di program jurusan Pendidikan Bahasa Inggris di Indonesia.
- Metode penelitian: Studi kasus pada lima jurusan Pendidikan Bahasas Inggris di Indonesia.

A. Pemahaman tentang KBK

1. Berapa tahun Anda telah menjabat sebagai ketua jurusan?
2. Jelaskan pekerjaan Anda sebagai ketua jurusan?
3. Jelaskan konsep KBK? Kapan jurusan Anda menerapkan KBK?
4. Bagaimana pengalaman dan ketertarikan Anda dengan KBK?
5. Reaksi semacam apa yang Anda ketahui berkenaan dengan penerapan KBK di jurusan Pendidikan Bahasa Inggris?
6. Apakah implikasi dari penerapan KBK pada kurikulum?

B. Desain dan penerapan KBK

1. Bagaimana Anda mendesain kurikulum?
2. Apakah profil lulusan pada jurusan Anda?
3. Pekerjaan apa yang akan dipilih oleh para lulusan?
4. Bagaimana jurusan mendesain profil lulusan dan kompetensi untuk mencapai profil tersebut?
5. Bagaimana pengaruh dari pengenalan KBK terhadap penyiapan lulusan dalam pasar kerja?
6. Apakah jurusan memformulasikan kompetensi utama?

7. Apakah jurusan memformulasikan kompetensi pendukung?
8. Apakah jurusan memiliki kompetensi lainnya?
9. Bagaimana proses pengajaran dan pembelajaran mengembangkan pengetahuan dan keterampilan mahasiswa?
10. Apakah kompetensi meliputi elemen soft skills? Apa saja?
11. Bagaimana jurusan mengintegrasikan soft skill dalam proses belajar dan mengajar?
12. Bagaimana kebijakan jurusan tentang praktek mengajar? Berapa kali mahasiswa praktek mengajar di sekolah? Menurut Anda bagaimana efektifitas dari program ini dalam mengembangkan kompetensi mahasiswa?
13. Bagaimana kebijakan jurusan berkaitan dengan desain kurikulum? Bagaimana Anda memformulasikan mata kuliah? Bagaimana mata kuliah disusun dalam kurikulum dari semester satu sampai semester akhir?
14. Menurut Anda apakah implikasi dari penerapan CBC dalam proses belajar dan mengajar?
15. Bagaimana proses belajar mengajar diselenggarakan? Metode mengajar seperti apa yang diterapkan oleh para dosen?
16. Menurut Anda apakah para dosen sudah menerapkan student-centered learning (SCL)? Menurut Anda bagaimana efektivitas dari SCL?
17. Menurut Anda apakah implikasi dari penerapan KBK dalam penilaian?

C. Kebijakan terkait penerapan KBK

1. Jelaskan secara spesifik pekerjaan Anda berhubungan dengan KBK?
2. Berapa sering Anda menyelenggarakan program untuk mengenalkan KBK?
3. Apakah Anda mendorong forum para dosen untuk meningkatkan kualitas pengajaran dan pembelajaran?
4. Bagaimana jurusan mendukung pembelajaran bahasa?
5. Bagaimana kebijakan jurusan terkait dengan penerapan KBK dalam hal:
 6. Pengembangan kurikulum
 7. Pengembangan materi pengajaran
 8. Proses belajar mengajar
 9. Penilaian

10. Berapa sering Anda mengevaluasi kurikulum?
11. Apakah peran Anda dalam evaluasi kurikulum?
12. Bagaimana Anda mengevaluasi kurikulum?

D. Masalah-masalah dalam penerapan KBK

Masalah-masalah apa yang Anda temukan dalam penerapan KBK?

E. Budaya jurusan

1. Apakah visi dari jurusan Anda?
2. Bagaimana Anda mencapai visi?
3. Nilai budaya tertentu seperti apa yang dikembangkan di jurusan Anda? Bagaimana nilai budaya itu dapat mendukung visi jurusan?

Wawancara dengan Dosen

A. Pemahaman dan pengalaman dalam penerapan KBK

1. Jelaskan tentang konsep KBK?
2. Bagaimana pengalaman dan impresi Anda dalam penerapan KBK?
3. Apakah yang Anda ketahui tentang kurikulum berbasis isi tahun 1994 dan KBK (2008) di perguruan tinggi?
4. Bagaimana pendapat Anda tentang KBK dalam hal
 - Pengembangan kurikulum
 - Pengembangan materi pembelajaran
 - Proses belajar mengajar
 - Penilaian
 - Fasilitas pembelajaran
5. Bagaimana tanggapan Anda tentang penerepan KBK di jurusan bahasa Inggris?

B. Profil dan kompetensi lulusan

1. Menurut Anda, apakah pengaruh penerapan KBK dalam menyiapkan lulusan di pasar kerja?
2. Menurut Anda apakah implikasi penerapan KBK dalam kurikulum?
3. Bagaimana Anda mendesain kurikulum?
4. Apakah profil lulusan dari jurusan Anda?
5. Pekerjaan apa yang akan dimiliki mahasiswa ketika mereka lulus?
6. Bagaimana jurusan mendesain profil lulusan dan kompetensi untuk mencapai profil tersebut?
7. Apakah jurusan memformulasikan kompetensi utama? Apa saja?
8. Apakah jurusan memformulasikan kompetensi pendukung? Apa saja?
9. Apakah jurusan memiliki kompetensi lain? Apa saja?

C. Pengajaran dan pembelajaran

1. Apakah implikasi dari penerapan KBK dalam proses belajar mengajar?
2. Apakah yang Anda ketahui tentang ‘Student-centered learning’ dan ‘teacher-centered learning’?
3. Menurut Anda apakah Anda sudah menerapkan ‘student-centered learning’ ketika mengajar? Metode apa yang Anda gunakan dalam mengajar? Apa pertimbangan Anda dalam menggunakan metode tersebut?
4. Apakah tujuan utama Anda dalam mengajar?
5. Apakah peran Anda dalam mengajar?
6. Apakah peran mahasiswa dalam proses pembelajaran?
7. Apakah Anda menyusun silabus dan rencana pembelajaran sendiri? Berapa sering? Seberapa baik Anda membuat silabus dan rencana pembelajaran?
8. Apa sajakah komponen dalam rencana pembelajaran? Seberapa bagus Anda menyusunnya?
9. Apakah Anda mengembangkan soft skill mahasiswa ketika Anda mengajar? Soft skills apakah yang Anda kembangkan? Bagaimana Anda mengembangkannya?
10. Iklim belajar seperti apakah yang Anda kembangkan?
11. Apakah Anda selalu menerangkan kepada siswa tentang kompetensi yang mau dicapai diawal pertemuan?
12. Apakah yang Anda harapkan dari pengajaran dan pembelajaran bahasa Inggris di universitas?
13. Apakah Anda mengevaluasi pembelajaran bahasa Inggris Anda? Kapan dan bagaimana?
14. Bagaimana Anda memotivasi mahasiswa untuk belajar bahasa Inggris?
15. Apakah Anda memasukkan pengembangan soft skills dalam proses pengajaran dan pembelajaran? Menurut Anda apakah penting memasukkan soft skills? Mengapa? Bagaimana Anda mengembangkan soft skills dalam proses pengajaran dan pembelajaran?

D. Materi pembelajaran

1. Menurut Anda apakah implikasi CBC dalam mendesain kurikulum?
2. Sumber pembelajaran apakah yang Anda pakai dalam proses pembelajaran dan pengajaran?
3. Media seperti apa yang Anda gunakan dalam proses pengajaran dan pembelajaran di kelas? Bagaimana Anda menggunakan media?
4. Materi pengajaran seperti apa yang Anda gunakan ketika mengajar di kelas?
5. Apakah Anda mengembangkan materi pembelajaran sendiri? Apakah Anda mengembangkan materi pembelajaran berdasarkan prinsip-prinsip KBK?

E. Penilaian

1. Menurut Anda apakah implikasi dari CBC pada pendekatan penilaian?
2. Menurut Anda apakah fungsi penilaian?
3. Apakah hubungan antara proses pembelajaran dengan penilaian?
4. Bagaimana Anda menilai mahasiswa Anda?
5. Apakah Anda menggunakan rubric dalam penilaian? Elemen-elemen apa saja yang ada di dalam rubric tersebut?
6. Apakah Anda juga menilai soft skills? Soft skills seperti apa yang Anda nilai? Bagaimana Anda menilai soft skills dari mahasiswa Anda?

F. Kebijakan terkait dengan implementasi KBK

1. Bagaimana jurusan mendukung penerapan dari KBK?
2. Masalah-masalah apa saja yang Anda temui dalam menerapkan kurikulum KBK?

Diskusi Kelompok siswa

A. Pemahaman dan pengalaman dalam penerapan KBK

Apakah Anda mengenal KBK? Apakah menurut Anda jurusan telah menerapkan KBK? Apakah Anda setuju dengan penerapan KBK? Bagaimana pengalaman Anda dengan KBK?

Menurut Anda apa pengertian dari kompetensi itu? Apakah yang dimaksud dengan kompetensi guru itu?

B. Profil lulusan dan kompetensi

Setelah lulus dari jurusan, pekerjaan apa yang akan Anda lakukan?

Apakah Anda tahu profil lulusan jurusan Anda?

Menurut Anda, apakah proses pembelajaran di jurusan telah meningkatkan kompetensi untuk menjadi guru?

Menurut Anda, kompetensi apa yang telah Anda tingkatkan?

Menurut Anda, apakah kompetensi dari seorang guru bahasa Inggris?

C. Proses belajar mengajar

Apakah Anda senang dengan proses belajar mengajar? Apakah tujuan pembelajaran Anda? Untuk menguasai pengetahuan atau ketrampilan? Bagaimana dosen mengajar Anda? Metode mengajar seperti apa yang mereka gunakan? Apakah mereka mendorong Anda untuk berperan aktif di dalam kelas? Menurut Anda apakah metode mengajar dosen sudah membantu Anda untuk meningkatkan kompetensi Anda? Menurut Anda apakah materi pembelajaran sudah membantu Anda untuk mengembangkan kompetensi Anda? Apa peran Anda dalam proses belajar mengajar di kelas? Apakah peran dosen dalam proses pembelajaran di dalam kelas?

Apa yang Anda ketahui dari soft skills? Soft skill apa yang diajarkan di jurusan Anda? Apakah soft skills dinilai dan berkontribusi dalam nilai akhir Anda?

D. Isi kurikulum dan materi pembelajaran

Menurut Anda apakah mata kuliah yang Anda pelajari memberi Anda ilmu dan ketrampilan untuk menjadi guru? Apakah semua mata kuliah yang diajarkan di jurusan berguna untuk Anda? Apakah Anda senang dengan materi pembelajarannya?

E. Penilaian

Bagaimana dosen menilai Anda? Apakah mereka menyebutkan aspek-aspek yang dinilai? Menurut Anda apakah metode penilaian sudah menilai kompetensi Anda?

Apakah mereka hanya menggunakan ujian tengah dan akhir semester? Apakah mereka juga memberi Anda tugas-tugas?

Apakah mereka menggunakan model penilaian lain?

Apakah Anda membuat portofolio untuk dinilai?

Apakah Anda mendapatkan masukan dari dosen Anda?

Apakah mereka menggunakan 'remedial teaching'?

Apakah dosen Anda menilai 'soft-skills' Anda?

Bagaimana mereka menilai soft-skill Anda?

F. Pengenalan KBK

Apakah jurusan mengenalkan KBK kepada Anda? Bagaimana jurusan mengenalkan KBK kepada Anda?

G. Masalah-masalah terkait dengan pelaksanaan KBK

Menurut Anda apakah masalah yang paling menantang sehubungan dengan penerapan KBK?

Menurut Anda apakah keuntungan dari penerapan KBK?

Menurut Anda apakah kerugian penerapan KBK?

Apakah hambatan dalam pelaksanaan KBK di jurusan?

Kuesioner untuk Dosen

1. Demografi dan pengalaman dosen tentang penerapan KBK

A. Jurusan

Nama jurusan dan universitas: _____

Pilihlah jawaban Anda dengan menuliskan tanda (√) pada kotak.

B. Jenis kelamin

- Wanita
- Pria

C. Pendidikan

- S1, jurusan _____
- S2, jurusan _____
- S3, jurusan _____

D. Status

- Dosen permanen
- Dosen non-permanen

E. Pengalaman mengajar

- Kurang dari 2 tahun
- 2-5 tahun
- 5-10 tahun
- Lebih dari 10 tahun

F. Training KBK

Apakah Anda pernah mengikuti training tentang pengenalan konsep KBK yang diterapkan di perguruan tinggi?

- Yes
- No

G. Dokumen

a. Berapa persen dokumen petunjuk KBK yang Anda miliki?

- > 90 %
- 75-90%
- 50-74%
- < 50%

b. Berapa persen dokumen silabus mengajar dalam dengan KBK yang Anda miliki?

- > 90 %
- 75-90%
- 50-74%
- < 50%

c. Berapa persen dokumen rencana pembelajaran dengan KBK yang Anda miliki?

- > 90 %
- 75-90%
- 50-74%
- < 50%

d. Berapa persen dokumen rubrik penilaian yang Anda miliki?

- > 90 %
- 75-90%
- 50-74%
- < 50%

2. Mode pengajaran dan pembelajaran

Tandailah dengan (√) dalam kotak sesuai dengan keseringan Anda menggunakan mode pengajaran di bawah ini.

No	Pernyataan	Tidak pernah (1)	Jarang (2)	Kadang-kadang (3)	Sering (4)	Sangat sering (5)
1	Saya menyuruh mahasiswa untuk berdiskusi dalam kelompok.					
2	Saya menggunakan 'role play' untuk mendorong mahasiswa dalam belajar.					
3	Saya menyuruh mahasiswa untuk mengumpulkan informasi untuk membangun/menemukan pengetahuan dalam tugas.					
4	Saya menyuruh mahasiswa untuk bertanggung jawab terhadap pembelajaran mereka sendiri.					
5	Saya menyuruh mahasiswa untuk bekerjasama dalam menyelesaikan masalah dalam kelompok.					
6	Saya menyuruh mahasiswa untuk menerapkan teori dalam situasi nyata.					

7	Saya menyuruh mahasiswa untuk mengerjakan proyek.					
8	Saya mendorong mahasiswa untuk menemukan masalah dan solusinya dalam diskusi.					

Ceklist Observasi Pengajaran dan Pembelajaran

Dosen: _____ Universitas: _____ Semester: _____
Jumlah Mahasiswa: _____ Tanggal: _____ Mata kuliah: _____
Mulai: _____ Berakhir: _____

1. Rencana pembelajaran

2. Peran dosen

3. Peran siswa

4. Aktifitas

5. Materi dan sumber pembelajaran

APPENDIX 2: PLAIN LANGUAGE STATEMENT



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• <http://www.rmit.edu.au/gss>
sp

PLAIN LANGUAGE STATEMENT

My name is Endro Dwi Hatmanto, a Ph.D student undertaking a Doctorate program in the School of Global, Urban and Social Science at RMIT University Melbourne, Australia. My research concerns **An Evaluation of Competency-based Curricula Implemented in Five Universities in Indonesia**. My supervisor is Professor Desmond Cahill, an English language expert who has supervised twenty five Higher Degree Research students to completion. This research will be carried out using a program evaluation strategy, deploying interviews, documentation and survey.

The objectives of the research are:

1. To describe the English language curriculum recently introduced into Indonesian higher education institutions.
2. To ascertain the perceptions of the implementation of the Competency-based Curriculum from the perspectives of the heads of departments, lecturers and students.
3. To ascertain the classroom practices of the lecturers and students in the teaching and learning process, including the use of teaching learning approaches, the incorporation of soft skills and the assessment processes
4. To ascertain the challenges surrounding the implementation of the Competency-based curriculum.

In order to achieve the objectives, I will visit five English Education Departments in Yawalla province, Indonesia and interview ten heads of department, ten lecturers and 165 students. The purpose of my interview is to obtain your view of and experience with the English language curriculum called the Competency-based curriculum.

When we have finished our interview, I will be writing up what you and others have told me, and the findings will be incorporated into the research report. Your ideas, concerns and expectations will be carefully analyzed and will be written up thoroughly.

Before we start, I should make clear that your name will not of course be mentioned when I write up what you have told me. This interview is conducted confidentially. You can therefore feel free to be quite honest in your comments and contributions.

I have a list of areas on which I would like your views, and hopefully we can cover most of them in the time we have. This interview takes more or less 30-45 minutes. The research does not affect any professional assessment.

I am happy for you to participate in the interview and survey. Participation is voluntary and participants are free to withdraw from the project at any time and even withdraw any data previously given. Your responses to the questions will be treated with total confidentiality. Also, the interviews will be taped but only with your permission.

Finally, if you have any concerns about this project, please contact me through my email at endro_hatmanto@yahoo.com or my senior supervisor at des.cahill@rmit.edu.au or Human Research Ethic Committee.

Yours sincerely,

Endro Dwi Hatmanto
Ph.D student
School of Global Studies, Social Science and Planning
RMIT University
Melbourne, Australia

APPENDIX 3: CONSENT FORM



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PARTICIPANT'S CONSENT

- 1) I have had the project explained to me, and I have read the information sheet.
- 2) I agree to participate in the research project as described.
- 3) I acknowledge that:
 - (a) I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw from the project at any time and to withdraw any unprocessed data previously supplied (unless follow up is needed for safety).
 - (b) The project is for the purpose of research. It may not be of direct benefit to me.
 - (c) The privacy of the personal information I provide will be safeguarded and only disclosed where I have consented to the disclosure or as required by the law.
 - (d) The security of the research data will be processed during and after completion of the study. The data collected during the study may be published, and a report of the project outcomes will be provided to RMIT University. Any information which will identify me will not be used.

Participant's consent

Participant: _____ Date: _____
(Signature)

Witness: _____ Date: _____
(Signature)

Any complaints about your participation in this project may be directed to the ethics office RMIT Human Research Ethics Committee, Research and Innovation RMIT, GPO Box 2476V, Melbourne, 3001. The telephone number is +61 39925 2251. Details of the complaints procedure are available on the [Complaints with respect to participation in research at RMIT page](#).

APPENDIX 4: RMIT UNIVERSITY ETHICS OF APPROVAL



Design and Social Context College Human Ethics Advisory Network (CHEAN)
Sub-committee of the RMIT Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC)

Notice of Approval

Date: 26 July 2013

Project number: CHEAN A-2000850-03/13

Project title: An Evaluation on Competency-based Curricula Implemented in Five Universities in Indonesia

Risk classification: Low Risk

Investigator: Professor Desmond P. Cahill

Approved: From: 26 July 2013 To: 26 July 2015

I am pleased to advise that your application has been granted ethics approval by the Design and Social Context College Human Ethics Advisory Network as a sub-committee of the RMIT Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC).

Terms of approval:

1. Responsibilities of investigator

It is the responsibility of the above investigator/s to ensure that all other investigators and staff on a project are aware of the terms of approval and to ensure that the project is conducted as approved by the CHEAN. Approval is only valid whilst the investigator/s holds a position at RMIT University.

2. Amendments

Approval must be sought from the CHEAN to amend any aspect of a project including approved documents. To apply for an amendment please use the 'Request for Amendment Form' that is available on the RMIT website. Amendments must not be implemented without first gaining approval from CHEAN.

3. Adverse events

You should notify HREC immediately of any serious or unexpected adverse effects on participants or unforeseen events affecting the ethical acceptability of the project.

4. Participant Information and Consent Form (PICF)

The PICF and any other material used to recruit and inform participants of the project must include the RMIT university logo. The PICF must contain a complaints clause including the project number.

5. Annual reports

Continued approval of this project is dependent on the submission of an annual report. This form can be located online on the human research ethics web page on the RMIT website.

6. Final report

A final report must be provided at the conclusion of the project. CHEAN must be notified if the project is discontinued before the expected date of completion.

7. Monitoring

Projects may be subject to an audit or any other form of monitoring by HREC at any time.

8. Retention and storage of data

The investigator is responsible for the storage and retention of original data pertaining to a project for a minimum period of five years.

9. Special conditions (if applicable)

In any future correspondence please quote the project number and project title.

On behalf of the DSC College Human Ethics Advisory Network I wish you well in your research.

Suzana Kovacevic

Research and Ethics Officer

College of Design and Social Context

RMIT University

Ph: 03 9925 2974

Email: suzana.kovacevic@rmit.edu.au

Website: www.rmit.edu.au/dsc

APPENDIX 5: PERMISSION LETTER FROM PRIMARY SUPERVISOR



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sp

Kepada Yth

Dengan hormat,
Dear Sir/Madam,

Saya yang bertanda tangan dibawah ini:
I, who undersigned hereby,

Nama/Name : Professor Desmond Cahill
Jabatan/position : Professor of Intercultural Studies School of Global Studies,
Social Science and Planning, RMIT University

Menerangkan bahwa
Certify that

Nama/name : Endro Dwi Hatmanto
Jabatan/position : Mahasiswa Program Doktor, School of Global Studies,
Social Science and Planning, RMIT University

Akan mengadakan penelitian sehubungan dengan tesisnya yang berjudul
Will conduct a research concerning her thesis entitled

An Evaluation on Competency-based Curricula Implemented in Five Universities in Indonesia

Saya mengucapkan terimakasih atas partisipasi dan kerjasama yang telah diberikan
I wish finally to thank you for your participation and co-operation rendered here.

Jika ada sesuatu yang belum final, dapat ditanyakan ke des.cahill@rmit.edu.au
If you wish to make further enquiries, do not hesitate to contact me on des.cahill@rmit.edu.au

Salam,

With my best wishes

Desmond P. Cahill (Prof)

RMIT University, Melbourne, 3000