2013

Investigating the implementation of the Indonesian KTSP (school-based curriculum) in the teaching of writing in year two

Sulfasyah

Edith Cowan University

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Investigating the Implementation of the Indonesian

KTSP (School-Based Curriculum) in the Teaching of Writing in Year Two

Sulfasyah

This thesis is presented in fulfillment of the requirements for
the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

School of Education
Faculty of Education and Arts
Edith Cowan University
Perth, Western Australia

June, 2013
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Abstract

This study focused on the interpretation and implementation of the Kurikulum Tingkat Satuan Pendidikan (KTSP) in primary schools in Makassar City, Indonesia. The KTSP is a school-based curriculum which was introduced in 2006 and became compulsory across Indonesia in 2009. The main purpose of the study was to explore teachers’ interpretation of the KTSP in relation to teaching writing to Year 2 students; to investigate how these teachers implemented the KTSP when teaching writing; and, to identify factors that influenced their interpretation and implementation of the KTSP in relation to writing. The teachers’ interpretation and implementation of this new curriculum were assessed through the lens of six key concepts taken from the KTSP. These included student-centred learning, active learning, the role of the teacher as a facilitator, students’ interaction as a means of promoting learning, assessment for learning and a thematic approach to learning. This study emerged from an interest in understanding the processes and outcomes of curriculum reform that would inform effective implementation of existing and future curricula in Indonesia.

This study utilised a mixed method approach with two phases of data collection, in which the Researcher collected quantitative data in Phase 1, followed by qualitative data in Phase 2. In Phase 1, 61 Year 2 teachers from 29 primary schools in Makassar City, Indonesia, completed a questionnaire about their interpretation and implementation of the KTSP in writing classes and identified factors that influenced their interpretation and implementation. In Phase 2 of the study, 10 of the 61 teachers were selected. Qualitative data were gathered from these teachers through classroom observations, informal discussions at the end of each observed lesson and post-observation interviews. In addition, the teachers’ writing syllabi, plans of the observed lessons and students’ writing samples from the observed lessons were collected and analysed to provide additional evidence of the teachers’ interpretation and implementation of the KTSP in writing. This added depth to the quantitative findings.

The study found that the teachers’ interpretation and implementation of the KTSP in relation to writing appeared to reflect a traditional view of learning, despite the intent of the KTSP to move away from this approach to teaching and learning.
The teachers’ existing knowledge and understanding of the KTSP, their limited pedagogical practices, apparent lack of relevant professional development and their classroom contexts appeared to mitigate against changed practice. In addition, the nature of the expected competencies for writing in Y2, which were very narrow and skill-based, coupled with the teachers’ even narrower interpretation of them, appeared to reinforce their traditional teacher-centred method of teaching. As a result, the majority of writing activities were teacher directed and restricted to low level writing skills, with an emphasis on handwriting and the use of basic punctuation. Assessment was also based on these low level skills and students were only required to achieve proficiency in the given competencies.

This study identified three key issues which emerged from the findings and have implications for curriculum change. The first is that effective implementation of a new curriculum at the classroom level is very challenging if teachers do not have both adequate knowledge and working conditions to meet the demands of the new curriculum. In-depth and ongoing learning and support for teachers about all aspects of the new curriculum is a crucial element of effective curriculum change. The second issue relates to the potential conflict between the learning outcomes and the underlying philosophical and pedagogical perspectives that inform new curricula. The apparent dichotomy between the prescribed competencies and the constructivist approach to teaching and learning was extremely difficult for the teachers in this study to interpret and implement. In new curriculum frameworks, that determine both outcomes and the underlying philosophical and pedagogical practices, there is a need to ensure a match between these central elements of curriculum.

The third key issue highlighted by the study revolves around the problematic nature of importing a Western-based philosophy of teaching and learning directly into a significantly different context, without recognising the cultural and educational dissonance existing between the two cultures.

Failure to address these three aspects at both the macro-and micro-level will encourage the teachers to retain their old practices and thereby lead to superficial change.
Acknowledgements

First and foremost, all praise is to Allah S.W.T for giving me strength, health and endurance to complete my study. Peace and prayers be upon His prophet and messenger, Muhammad S.A.W.

This thesis was possible with the assistance of many, who I would like to thank.

I am very grateful to the Directorate of Higher Education of Indonesia for providing me with a scholarship through the BERMUTU Project and to my employers at Makassar Muhammadiyah University for their continuous support throughout my study.

My heartfelt and deepest gratitude goes to my Principal Supervisors, Professor Caroline Barratt-Pugh and Dr. Yvonne Haig. Their remarkable support, encouragement, patience and wisdom guided me in every process of my research journey and tirelessly raised me to this academic achievement. Although my gratitude is briefly stated here, it is deeply felt and will endure as long as I do. My gratitude also goes to the late Dr. Ann Galloway, my Associate Supervisor, who sadly passed away during the process of my study, for helping me set up a strong foundation for my research in the early stages.

I am very grateful to Professor Mark Hackling and Associate Professor Jan Gray for their generous and tremendous support for my study, particularly at the crucial stage. My appreciation also goes to all the staff in the Faculty of Education and Arts, the Graduate Research School, and the Research Ethics Officer for their kind help and quick response, particularly Ms. Sarah Kearn, Dr. Jo McFarlane, Dr. Danielle Brady and Ms. Kim Grifkins.

My highest appreciation goes to all the participating teachers and their students who provided such rich data for my study. Special thanks go to the Department of Education of Indonesia and to the school Principals who allowed me to conduct my study in their schools.
Some friends, both at home and at ECU, also deserve special recognition for their help during my study. These include Hj. Rosleny Babo, Rosdiana Babo, Hijrah, Hajir, St. Fitriani Saleh and her staff, Hamriah, Khaeriah Syahabuddin and her small family and all my friends at the Indonesian Students Association at ECU.

Many thanks also go to Dr. Colin Moyle, a professional proofreader and editor, who assisted me in my final thesis endeavours. The support provided by Dr. Moyle complied with the Australian Standard for editing practice.

Finally, my endless gratitude and love to my family because without their love, prayers, encouragement, support, and understanding, I would never have had the courage to embark on this research journey in the first place. In particular I would like to thank my parents, my brothers, my sister and my son, my greatest supporter, who patiently endured the journey and kept telling me, ‘You will get there mum!’ during the many downs and, ‘Good job mother!’ during the countless ups.
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### List of Acronym

1. **BC** Basic Competencies
2. **BNSE** Board of National Standard of Education
3. **BSNP** Badan Standard Nasional Pendidikan [Board of National Standard of Education]
4. **CBC** Competency-Based Curriculum
5. **CS** Competency Standards
6. **GCS** Graduate Competency Standards
7. **DEPDIKNAS** Departemen Pendidikan Nasional [Department of National Education]
8. **GD** Government Decree
9. **KTSP** Kurikulum Tingkat Satuan Pendidikan [School-Based Curriculum Development]
10. **MD** Ministerial Decree
11. **MONE** Ministry of National Education
12. **SBCD** School-Based Curriculum Development
CHAPTER 1

Introduction

1.1 Background

This study focused on how teachers in primary schools interpreted and implemented a new Indonesian Curriculum within Makassar City, Indonesia, when it became compulsory in 2009. This new curriculum was called the Kurikulum Tingkat Satuan Pendidikan (KTSP), which when translated means school-based curriculum. The purpose of this study was to investigate the teachers’ interpretation and implementation of the KTSP in relation to teaching writing in year 2 (Y2) of the primary school. Additionally, it aimed to explore factors influencing how teachers implemented the new curriculum. This study emerged from an interest in understanding the processes and outcomes of curriculum reform so that this knowledge could inform effective implementation of existing and future curricula in Indonesia. The Researcher acknowledges that the Indonesian government through the Ministry of National Education (MONE) has developed a subsequent curriculum, which will be implemented in July 2013. As the KTSP was being interpreted and implemented at the time of this study, it is referred to as the new curriculum in this thesis. Findings from this study could be used to guide policy, programs and practice related to implementing the new curriculum planned for 2013.

Indonesia, the world’s fourth most populous country, is an archipelago which consists of approximately 17,504 islands (Indonesian Board of Statistics, 2012). In 2010, Indonesia had more than 237 million people, 300 ethnic groups and more than 700 living languages across the archipelago. Despite its diversity and size, Indonesia had exercised centralised government in politics, socio-economics, and education since it gained independence in 1945. In relation to education, the central government prepared the curricula and schools across the country implemented each successive curriculum for more than five decades (see Figure 1). However, at the end of 1999, the Indonesian government introduced regional autonomy after passing several laws giving some authority to provincial governments. Apart from empowering them, these laws also indicated the direction of the national education for the future. This political decentralization process led to the decentralisation of
education thereby giving local authorities more autonomy and enabling them to take their local context into account.

In 2000, following the devolution process, MONE introduced the first curriculum which reflected a decentralised education system which was, at the same time, believed to be capable of improving the quality of the education (Suderadjat, 2004). The curriculum was called a Competency-Based Curriculum, known as the KBK in Indonesian. It had a number of differences from curricula implemented prior to the decentralization era (Zainuddin, 2008). Of these differences, there were two major ones. First, the KBK was competency-based and learning-outcome-based whereas previous curricula in the centralised era had a content-based approach (see Figure 1). The central government determined and outlined the expected competencies of each core subject area in the KBK. Second, teachers developed the syllabus and learning materials of the KBK based on the curriculum policies provided by the central government, whereas syllabi in the previous curricula were developed by the central government. In addition to these differences, schools were expected to develop learning competencies for subjects offered as local content (Sanjaya, 2005; Suderadjat, 2004). This type of school-based curriculum development had not been possible under earlier educational regimes.

![Figure 1](image)

**Figure 1. The shift to decentralised curricula in Indonesia.**

The decentralised educational reform formally commenced in 2003 following the issue of Law Number 20 which described the new National Education System (Suderadjat, 2004). This law became the legal basis for the development of a new national educational system that acknowledged democratisation, decentralisation, autonomy, accountability and human rights (UU No. 20 Sistem Pendidikan Nasional, 2003).
The KBK was considered to be an experimental curriculum introducing competency-based achievements (Muhaimin, Sutiah, & Prabowo, 2008). Its implementation was managed by the Directorate of Basic and Middle Education of Indonesia under the Ministry of National Education. The KBK was piloted in several provinces at selected schools and then implemented gradually from 2001 to 2005 (Muhaimin et al., 2008; Muslich, 2007; Utomo, 2005).

In 2006, the government launched a new curriculum built on the previous KBK called the KTSP (Kurikulum Tingkat Satuan Pendidikan). It was being implemented at the time of this study. The KTSP was enacted by a number of decrees from the MONE and, similar to the KBK, was competency-based (Muhaimin et al., 2008; Muslich, 2007). However, under the KTSP, schools were given more autonomy, that is, they were not only responsible for developing their syllabus and learning materials but also for developing an operational curriculum. This operational curriculum produced by each school was called the KTSP, meaning school-based curriculum.

Several factors over the previous ten years triggered the movement toward a decentralised and competency-based curriculum in Indonesia. The first factor was related to the implementation of regional autonomy that took place at the end of the 1990s. The subsequent two curricula, the KBK and the KTSP, were expected to give more autonomy to schools to enable them to respond to their local context. It was widely agreed that the curricula developed previously by the government were considered to have many weaknesses as students were treated similarly across Indonesia despite the linguistic, cultural and religious diversity and differing potential of individuals (Sanjaya, 2005; Suderadjat, 2004; Us & Harmi, 2011; Utomo, 2005).

The second factor driving this curriculum change was poor national and international results in most curriculum areas. A number of surveys revealed that the achievement of Indonesian students internationally was low compared to those in other countries. For example, the World Bank, cited in Sanjaya (2005), reported that reading skills of year four students in Indonesia were the lowest of all the Asian countries surveyed. Furthermore, the mathematics and science achievements of junior high school students ranked 32nd and 34th of the 38 countries surveyed.
students’ low performance was believed to be the result of the educational system implemented at that time. Previous curricula, as Suderadjat (2004) noted, were highly content-based, and perceived to hinder the cognitive and skills development of individual students.

Therefore, under the new National Education System, Law No. 20/2003 (UU No. 20 Sistem Pendidikan Nasional, 2003), the government decreed that the curriculum should reflect competency based education which focuses on what the students are expected to achieve rather than on what they are expected to learn (Sanjaya, 2005; Suderadjat, 2004). In addition to this, the competency-based approach was also perceived by Suderadjat (2004) as having the potential to increase students’ competitiveness in the workforce.

In the first three years of implementation, the KTSP was only piloted in certain grades in the primary, junior high and senior high levels of schooling (UU No. 20 Sistem Pendidikan Nasional, 2003). The implementation of this curriculum in each grade was compulsory from the beginning of the 2009/2010 academic year. In Indonesia, primary school encompasses years 1-6, junior high school from years 7-9, and senior high school from years 10-12. At the conclusion of every level of schooling, students were required to take a national examination to gain a place at the next level.

Although schools are empowered to develop their own KTSP, they still have to refer to the Curriculum Policies established by the government to ensure that their students meet minimum standards. The Curriculum Policies referred to a number of regulations which included:

1. Law No.20/2003 (UU No. 20 Sistem Pendidikan Nasional, 2003) described the new National Education System in Indonesia. This law, which was made by the House of Parliament and the President of Indonesia and has become the legal basis for the national education system, reflected increasing democratisation, decentralisation and autonomy in education.
2. Government Decree (GD) No.19/2005 (PP No.19 Standar Nasional Pendidikan, 2005) explained the National Standard of Education. This decree, made by the President in order to implement the Law, set the minimum criteria of the National Standard of Education and functioned as the
foundation for planning, implementing monitoring and evaluating school level education in Indonesia. This decree explained briefly the content standards for learning areas, graduate competency standards and curriculum guidelines for the development of the KTSP.

3. Ministerial of National Education Decree (MD) No 22, 2006 (Peraturan Menteri Pendidikan Nasional No 22 SI, 2006a), issued to implement the GD, provided a detailed explanation of the curriculum structure and learning areas which had been initially mentioned in GD No. 19/2005.

4. MD No 23, 2006 (Peraturan Menteri Pendidikan Nasional No 23 SKL, 2006b) described the graduate competency standards (GCS) students were expected to achieve on leaving school. This included GCS for the primary, junior high and senior high levels of schooling, for subject groups, and for each subject.

5. MD No 24, 2006 (Peraturan Menteri Pendidikan Nasional No 24, 2006c) set out the implementation mechanism for the ministerial decrees No.22 and 23, 2006.

In addition to these Curriculum Policies, schools were required to refer to the Curriculum Guidelines to develop their KTSP. The Curriculum Guidelines were prepared and published by the government through its appointed agency, the Board of National Standards of Education (BNSE). These guidelines which were published to assist schools to develop and implement the KTSP consisted of two manuals (BSNP, 2006). The first manual provided a general framework for the principles to be considered when developing the KTSP and the components that must be included in it. The second manual provided models of the KTSP. Thus, the Curriculum Policies and Curriculum Guidelines framed the development of the KTSP at school level (see Figure 2).
The Curriculum Guidelines mandated four main components in the KTSP which each school was required to develop and implement. These were:

1. **The educational objectives.** When developing these objectives, schools were required to refer to the general objectives of the National Education Statements which were part of the Curriculum Guidelines (BSNP, 2006).

2. **The Structure and Content Standard for each curriculum area.** When developing this component, schools had to refer to the curriculum structure
and content described in the Curriculum Policies, particularly that of GD No.19/2005 and MD No. 22/23, 2006 (BSNP, 2006).

3. **The academic calendar.** This component set the dates for the school year and for examinations. When developing their own calendar, schools were required to consider the Content Standard Outlines in MD No. 22, 2006 (BSNP, 2006).

4. **The syllabus.** This component reflected the competencies mandated in the Curriculum Policies. Schools developed it with reference to the Competency Standards stated in MD No. 22, 2006 (BSNP, 2006).

The first three components were located in the main body of the school-based KTSP and the fourth in the appendix. The development of the KTSP at each school involved collaboration between teachers, a counsellor, the school principal, the school committee and other community stakeholders (see Figure 3). This collaborative process involved consultative activities and workshops through which the school committee and the community stakeholders provided feedback to the principal and the teachers. However, ultimately the principal was responsible for the development of the educational objectives, the structure and content standards for each learning area and the academic calendar of the KTSP while the teachers were responsible for the development of the syllabi and lesson plans.

The following diagram provides an overview of the components of the KTSP at school level and the locus of responsibility for managing the development and documentation of each of these.
Schools were required to refer to the competencies and content standards outlined in the Curriculum Policies when developing their KTSP. However, they were allowed to set standards higher than those required depending on their local context. In addition, schools finding it difficult to develop their KTSP were allowed to adopt or adapt the model provided by the government in the Curriculum Guidelines. This flexibility was granted by MD No 24, 2006 in the Curriculum Policies (Peraturan Menteri Pendidikan Nasional No 24, 2006c). Further, schools located in the same area were encouraged to work closely together to develop their respective KTSP.

While the KTSP aimed to increase school autonomy, it also brought with it the demand for significant changes in the teaching roles and practices of Indonesian teachers. In an attempt to move away from a more ‘traditional’ method of teaching,
the Curriculum Policies and Curriculum Guidelines described the pedagogy, assessment practices and overall approaches to teaching that should be employed in order to achieve the minimum competencies and content standards. Under the KTSP, a student-centred approach in conjunction with various active and innovative methods of teaching and learning, was recommended (BSNP, 2006; PP No.19 Standar Nasional Pendidikan, 2005). The Curriculum Policies also suggested a thematic approach to planning should be used in years 1-3 while in years 4-6 the content should be more discipline based.

In recognition of the new knowledge and skills required to develop and implement the KTSP, the government, through the Department of Education, initiated professional development opportunities. Various workshops and training sessions were provided for schools to ensure that the new Curriculum Policies were interpreted similarly and incorporated into the KTSP. Professional development about the KTSP in general and in relation to curriculum areas was offered to teachers, principals and teachers’ supervisors. The government also provided support to improve school resources to implement the KTSP through operational funding for every school. Additionally, the government was responsible for monitoring and evaluating the implementation of the KTSP. These supports were outlined in MDNo.24/2006 (Peraturan Menteri Pendidikan Nasional No 24, 2006c).

The KTSP was being implemented across all schools in Indonesia at the time this study was undertaken. A number of studies about the implementation of the school-based KTSP have been conducted over the past six years. These studies identified several factors contributing to the effectiveness of implementation, and the need for further exploration of specific areas of the KTSP. The current study builds on these findings; the following section outlines the problem addressed in this study.

1.2 Problem

Implementing curriculum change is complex and needs support and time (Brady & Kennedy, 1999; Fullan, 2007). Although the KTSP was introduced in 2006 and has been implemented over a period of six years, several studies suggest that it has not been implemented optimally as intended by the Curriculum Policies (Pusat Kurikulum, 2007; Siswono, 2008; Sutrisno & Nuryanto, 2008). Most of these studies, however, were undertaken before the KTSP become mandatory in 2009.
Thus, teachers in these studies may not have felt compelled to implement all aspects of the KTSP.

One of the studies was conducted by the Indonesian Curriculum Research Centre, which is a government agency under the Department of the National Education (PusatKurikulum, 2007). The purpose of the study was to monitor the implementation of the KTSP in primary, junior high and senior high schools at the national level. The study was conducted in the capital cities of 33 provinces across Indonesia. Data were collected from four different sources: the Department of Education both at the provincial and district level, school principals, teachers, and parents from school boards. Using questionnaires, interviews, observations and document analysis, this study revealed that most of the schools involved had not implemented the KTSP effectively. Several factors influencing this lack of success were identified and included:

1. **Differentiated distribution of information about the KTSP.** Information about the KTSP was not delivered efficiently and equally across the country.

2. **Inconsistent information about the KTSP.** Most schools and teachers in the study stated that they received inconsistent information which was different from one professional development to the other regarding the KTSP. As a result, they found it confusing to implement at the school and classroom level.

3. **Lack of understanding about the KTSP.** Most of the participants in the study appeared to understand the Curriculum Policies at the surface level, but did not understand the substance of the KTSP, nor did they know how to implement it in ways consistent with its core concepts.

4. **Lack of learning resources and limited funding.** Participants reported that there was insufficient funding to finance the implementation of the KTSP, such as providing training for teachers. This was seen as influencing the implementation of the KTSP.

5. **Appropriateness of training.** The study revealed that the teachers’ expectations that the training would focus on the development of teaching materials to address the local context and teaching and learning strategies to implement the KTSP rather than focus on the development of syllabus and lesson plans were not met.
In addition to this research, several teacher researchers (Jayani, 2008; Rochminah, 2008) have investigated the use of new teaching approaches, which reflect some of the underlying pedagogical concepts outlined in the KTSP, such as contextual teaching and learning, cooperative and collaborative work and discovery learning. These studies were undertaken in senior high schools and focused on particular subject areas, such as mathematics and science. They found that where teachers had used the new teaching approaches, there was evidence of improved learning outcomes for their students. Thus, this research suggests there may be some areas and disciplines where implementation of the school-based KTSP has been relatively effective.

In order to build on findings from these studies, the Indonesian Curriculum Centre recommended that small-scale studies at the local level should be undertaken to provide in-depth and more accurate information about the implementation of the KTSP. Very little is known about the implementation of the KTSP in primary schools since it has become compulsory and to date there has been no in-depth research about the implementation of the KTSP in specific curriculum areas in primary schools. Thus the present study explored the interpretation and implementation of the KTSP in Makassar City, Indonesia, in relation to teaching writing at the Y2 level. Writing in this context is comprised, in part, of language skills in Bahasa Indonesia (Indonesian language), one of the subjects taught in primary school.

1.3 Research Questions

The KTSP as developed in each school has four main components. These are: the educational goals of the school; the structure and content of curriculum areas; the academic calendar; and the syllabus. For the purpose of this study, the scope of the research was limited to the syllabus component and more specifically, to the written mode of the language learning area at Y2 level of the primary school.

The implementation of educational change according to Fullan (2007) involves “change in practice” (p. 30). Change in practice, in this context, concerns teachers as they are responsible for implementing changes in teaching and learning in their classrooms. Fullan (2007) maintains that change in practice is not a single entity
but to a certain extent is multidimensional involving at least three components or dimensions:

1. the possible use of new or revised materials;
2. the possible use of new teaching approaches; and
3. the possible alteration of beliefs.

Building on Fullan’s work, this study focused on changes in practice in relation to the teachers’ use of new teaching approaches. This pedagogy was embedded in key concepts stated in the KTSP Curriculum Policies and Curriculum Guidelines.

In terms of teachers’ implementation of the KTSP, the scope was limited to the following six key concepts:

1. Student-centred learning;
2. Active learning;
3. The role of the teacher as a facilitator;
4. Students’ interaction as a means of promoting learning;
5. Assessment for learning; and

These concepts were chosen tools to investigate teachers’ implementation of the KTSP as they encompass its underlying philosophical framework. For example, under the KTSP, teachers are encouraged to use a student-centred approach and to promote active learning. In addition, the KTSP advocates a range of learning processes involving interaction among the students, between the students and the teachers, students and the environment and other learning resources to achieve the basic competencies. Furthermore, various types of assessment are recommended to ascertain the students’ learning processes and educational outcomes in relation to the intended competencies (PP No.19 Standar Nasional Pendidikan, 2005; Sanjaya, 2006; Suderadjat, 2004). Finally, a thematic approach has been suggested for year levels 1 - 3 (BSNP, 2006; Peraturan Menteri Pendidikan Nasional No 24, 2006c; PP No.19 Standar Nasional Pendidikan, 2005).
This emphasis on a student-centred approach encourages a paradigm shift from a focus on teaching to one on learning. The KTSP presents the role of a teacher as a learning facilitator rather than a provider of knowledge and information. As learning facilitators, teachers are encouraged to provide circumstances that will enable students to engage with the learning opportunities thereby made available and to construct their own understandings and skills.

However, it was also important to explore the teachers’ interpretation of the six key concepts scoped above as well as their implementation of these. Curriculum change theory indicates that one of the factors affecting successful implementation of a change is that of the teachers as curriculum implementers understanding the change clearly (Fullan, 2007). Failure to comprehend the change and what it requires will lead to superficiality (Fullan and Stiegelbauer, 1991). In the context of this study, it could be argued that teachers’ understanding of new concepts, particularly in relation to their upgraded pedagogy, is crucial to the implementation of new approaches to teaching.

For the purpose of this study, the interpretation and implementation of these six key concepts were explored in relation to the teaching of writing at Y2 level. There were three reasons for focusing on writing. First, writing is an essential component of literacy which in turn is central to learning in all other curriculum areas. Thus the identification of changes in the teaching of writing potentially has important consequences for teaching and learning in other areas. Second, prior to the introduction of the KTSP, the teaching of early writing focused on the mastery of low level writing skills taught through teacher directed instruction, with an emphasis on copying (Sulfasyah, 2005). Thus, a student-centred approach to the teaching of writing would demand a considerable change in practice, making it an interesting context within which to examine the interpretation and implementation of the KTSP. The final reason to focus specifically on early writing was that informal discussions between the researcher and Y2 teachers indicated they would like to improve the quality of their current practice by employing various methods of teaching writing. In order to do this, there was a need to explore first the teachers’ existing practices.
Having identified sound reasons for exploring the interpretation and implementation of the KTSP in primary schools though six key concepts in relation to writing, the following questions were used to guide the study:

1. How do teachers interpret the KTSP in relation to teaching writing to Y2 students?
2. How do teachers implement the KTSP in teaching writing to Y2 students?
3. What factors influence teachers’ interpretation and implementation of the KTSP in teaching writing to Y2 students?

1.4 Significance of the Study

Change theory indicates that the teacher is one of the key factors influencing whether curriculum reform is implemented successfully or not (Fullan, 2007). Stronge (2010) stated that other parties can reform curriculum; however, it is the teacher who actually implements the changes needed to bring about that reform. In fact, teachers have been acknowledged in policy as key agents of change (Priestly, 2011). Therefore, the knowledge generated in this study will inform the government about how teachers interpreted and implemented the KTSP, and the factors which influenced their implementation. The findings of this study will have the potential to help inform the government and other relevant decision makers about the delivery of professional development and other support needed by teachers to implement the KTSP, particularly in the teaching of writing. These should, in turn, help schools implement curriculum change more effectively and sustain curriculum changes in relation to writing over time. In addition, this study may help the teachers involved to reflect on their current understanding and practices of teaching writing as suggested by the Curriculum Policies of the KTSP. The results are also expected to contribute to the understanding of how an approach to teaching and learning that emanates from one culture, in this case a Western culture, is interpreted and implemented in a different country with a different learning culture. Further, although this study was conducted in a specific education context, its findings will contribute to the general understanding of curriculum-change implementation.

1.5 Operational Definitions

This study used several terms which, for the purpose of this study, were operationally defined as follows:
The KTSP
The KTSP was an operational curriculum which was developed and implemented by each school based on the Curriculum Policies and the Curriculum Guidelines prepared by the government of Indonesia through the National Education Standard Bureau (BSNP, 2006).

Curriculum Policies
Curriculum Policies refer to the law and decrees issued by Indonesian government that frame the development of the KTSP. These policies describe the national education system, the national standards of education, content standards, graduate competency standards and the implementation of the content standards and graduate competency standards (BSNP, 2006).

Curriculum Guidelines
Curriculum guidelines refer to the documents about the general framework and models that guide the development of the KTSP at the school level (BSNP, 2006).

School-based curriculum
School-based curriculum refers to curriculum which is prepared and implemented by each level of schooling based on the curriculum framework provided by the government (BSNP, 2006).

Competency-based curriculum
The definition of competency-based curriculum used in this study refers to the one stated in the government law regarding the national education system (UU No. 20 Sistem Pendidikan Nasional, 2003): A curriculum which is developed based on a set of standardised competencies which specify the knowledge, skills, and attitudes that students should possess at the end of a course of study.

Curriculum
The definition of curriculum used in this study refers to the one stated in the Curriculum Guidelines (BSNP, 2006, p.5): “a set of plans and coordination about the goals, content, materials and ways that are used as guidelines in learning activities in order to achieve certain educational objectives.”

Curriculum reform
Curriculum reform refers to changes to the content and organisation of what is taught in schools or other educational institutions (Marsh, 2004).
 Content Standards
Content standards describe a range of learning areas with each having a set of competencies for each grade level. The content standards form the foundation of the Graduate Competency Standards which must be met at the end of each level of school in order to progress to the next level. The content standards include competency standards and basic competencies for each subject in every semester in each grade of primary, junior high and senior high (BSNP, 2006).

 Graduate Competency Standards
Graduate competency standards are a set of standardised competencies of knowledge, skills and attitude that students should possess at the end of a course of study in primary, junior high and senior high school (BSNP, 2006).

 Competency Standards
A set of general competencies stating the knowledge, skills and attitudes that students should possess for each subject at the end of each semester of each grade of primary, junior high and senior high school (BSNP, 2006).

 Basic Competencies
A set of competencies that describe the minimum knowledge, skills and attitudes that students should possess for each subject in each semester in each grade of primary, junior high and senior high school (BSNP, 2006).
These basic competencies are drawn from the competency standards.

 Syllabus
A syllabus is an outline of topics/areas to be covered in a subject. It describes the competency standards, basic competencies, content, teaching methods, resources and assessment required for each subject (BSNP, 2006).

 Writing
Writing refers both to the composition and the skill based aspects of writing since early writing in Indonesia does not separate writing as an ability to construct and convey meaning in written language from the skills of spelling, punctuation and handwriting (Peraturan Menteri Pendidikan Nasional No 23 SKL, 2006b).

 Constructivist Perspective of Learning
A constructivist perspective of learning in this study refers to the view that learning occurs when students actively construct their own knowledge and
understanding and that social interaction enhances learning (Brooks & Brooks, 2001).

- Six key concepts embedded within the KTSP

The six key concepts taken from the KTSP are used in this study to explore the teachers’ interpretation and implementation of the KTSP in relation to the teaching of writing. These include student-centred learning, active learning, the teacher as a learning facilitator, student interaction, assessment and a thematic approach (BSNP, 2006). Each concept is described in detail in Chapter 2.

1.6 Organisation of the Thesis

This thesis consists of eight chapters. Chapter One describes the background and rationale of the study, identifies the problem being investigated and sets out the research questions which have guided the study. It describes the significance of the study and concludes with the operational definitions and thesis organisation. Chapter Two describes the educational reform being undertaken in Indonesia and the Curriculum Policies and Curriculum Guidelines that frame the development of the KTSP. Chapter Three details the theoretical aspects relevant to this study. It discusses school-based curriculum and competency-based curriculum which are the main characteristics of the KTSP, and reviews change theory. It also discusses the theoretical perspective that informs the KTSP and relates it to the teaching of early literacy, particularly writing. Chapter Four describes the methodology used in the study, which includes the research design, sampling, data collection, data analysis, reliability and validity, and ethics clearance. Chapter Five reports the quantitative findings from Phase One of the study while Chapter Six reports the qualitative findings from Phase Two of the study. The results from both phases of the study are discussed in relation to the research questions in Chapter Seven. Finally, Chapter Eight concludes the thesis with a discussion of the implications of the study, its limitations and suggestions for future research directions.
CHAPTER 2

The Curriculum Context of Indonesia

2.1 Introduction

This chapter provides an overview of those aspects of the curriculum context in Indonesia which are related to the present study. It begins by describing the background to the KTSP, the curriculum initiative which is investigated in this research. It includes an explanation of the two main characteristics of the KTSP, which are school-based curriculum development and competency-based curriculum. This chapter also describes the learning approaches recommended in the KTSP and the implementation process of the KTSP based on the Curriculum Policies. In addition, a brief overview of the teaching of writing in primary schools in Indonesia is given. At the conclusion of this chapter, these elements are drawn together to generate the conceptual framework that has guided the study.

2.2 Educational Reform in Indonesia

Curriculum development in Indonesia for the last decade has moved towards decentralised curricula through a competency-based approach. This movement, as explained earlier, was part of the government’s attempts to acknowledge the local context and to increase the quality of education. The first curriculum introduced was the KBK; it was viewed as experimental, being first piloted in several provinces at selected schools in 2000 and implemented gradually from 2001/02 to 2005 (Muhaimin et al., 2008; Muslich, 2007; Utomo, 2005).

However, several studies suggested that the KBK was not implemented optimally for several reasons. These included teachers’ lack of understanding of the concept of a competency-based curriculum and the absence of comprehensive guidelines for teachers to refer to when implementing the KBK (Muslich, 2007). Similarly, a study by Utomo (2005) on teachers’ implementation of the KBK revealed that they were only given about one third of the training that was needed to implement the KBK. Consequently, when implementing the new curriculum in the classroom, these teachers appeared to be confused and eventually reverted to teaching in ways consistent with the former curriculum, which they were familiar with (Utomo, 2005). In 2006, the government introduced a school-based curriculum,
the KTSP, which was built on the KBK. The following section provides an overview of the KTSP.

2.2.1 An overview of the KTSP

The KTSP was gradually introduced in primary schools across Indonesia from 2006. It was implemented sequentially in years 1 and 4 in the first year, years 2 and 5 in the second, and years 3 and 6 in the third. Starting from the academic year of 2009/2010, the KTSP became mandatory for each level of primary, junior and senior high school across the country (Peraturan Menteri Pendidikan Nasional No 24, 2006c). The KTSP has two main characteristics: first, it is a school-based curriculum; and second, it is competency-based.

The KTSP as a school-based curriculum

As in most of the countries in Asia, the educational system in Indonesia has until recently been centralised. However, for the last decade the Indonesian government, as explained in the previous chapter, has initiated curriculum reform which devolves some authority to schools and teachers. The primary aim of this decentralisation was to acknowledge the local context and at the same time to raise the quality of education. The previous curricula, which had been developed by the government, were considered to have many weaknesses, as they did not acknowledge the diversity and potential of the individual (Sanjaya, 2006; Silverius, 2003; Suderadjat, 2004; Us & Harmi, 2011; Utomo, 2005). In addition, the content-based model of previous curricula was believed by these authors to have contributed to the low quality of educational outcomes, since it led students to focus more on memorising content rather than on demonstrating their skills, attitude and knowledge.

In contrast to previous curricula prior to the decentralisation era, the KTSP was designed to give more autonomy to individual schools. It is defined as an operational curriculum developed and implemented by each schooling institution (BSNP, 2006; PP No.19 Standar Nasional Pendidikan, 2005). In developing the KTSP, schools must refer to the Curriculum Policies and Curriculum Guidelines provided by the central government (see Figure 3). This operational definition of the KTSP clearly falls into the category of school-based curriculum development (SBCD) and is discussed in the following chapter. The central government has determined what curriculum areas are to be addressed and the competencies of every
learning area to be achieved in primary, junior and senior high school. Schools are given autonomy to plan and develop aspects of the curriculum which include the development of a syllabus for each learning area and appropriate lesson plans. Schools are also to decide on the frequency of teaching certain subjects on a weekly basis and the teaching of local content. Despite this autonomy, schools and teachers, when developing their KTSP, must refer to the content standards, competency standards and general principles of the KTSP as stated in the Curriculum Policies and Curriculum Guidelines issued by the central government.

The development of the KTSP involves each school undertaking a situational analysis (BSNP, 2006). This process consists of three aspects which are seen as essential for devolution of responsibility from a central authority to local authorities and schools. These aspects include identifying the expected content standards and graduate competency standards, an analysis of the school context, and an analysis of the external factors which impact on the school.

The first aspect involves identifying the expected content standards and graduate competency standards. This is important as these become the essential means for the government to ensure that all students are given the opportunity to meet the expected minimum standards, and that these are the same across Indonesia. However, as these are minimum standards, schools are allowed to set standards higher than those required.

The second aspect involves analysing the context of the school and focuses on student and teacher needs, facilities, infra-structure, budget and programs to be implemented. This information becomes the basis of the school’s planning documents which outline how it will provide a curriculum that meets the needs of all students. In addition, the information is to be used to identify the support needed by the school and teachers to implement the KTSP.

The third aspect involves analysing external factors such as cultural and social change in the local community and community expectations. Recognition and understanding of cultural and social change is a means of ensuring that local issues impacting upon students and their families are incorporated into the KTSP. Community expectations include those of the parents, school committee, educational board and local department of education. The purpose of this aspect is to
acknowledge the importance of parents and encourage parent and community involvement in education.

To ensure these three aspects receive attention, the development of the KTSP involves collaboration between teachers, a counsellor, the school principal, school committee and other key stakeholders. Collaboration is seen as an essential part of the development of the KTSP and also potentially to provide feedback about the implementation and outcomes of the KTSP.

Regarding the teachers’ role, under the KTSP each teacher becomes both a curriculum implementer and a curriculum developer. Teachers are responsible for developing and implementing the syllabus in their classroom. This role is similar to the role of the teacher during the KBK era. However, under the KTSP, teachers are given wider autonomy to develop their syllabus. In the KBK, the government set the expected competency standards, basic competencies, indicators of learning achievement and main learning materials to be covered (Depdiknas, 2004). In contrast, in the KTSP, the government mandates the expected competency standards and basic competencies but teachers control other components of the syllabus (Peraturan Menteri Pendidikan Nasional No 23 SKL, 2006b). When developing their syllabus, teachers are encouraged to refer to the syllabus development guidelines described in the Curriculum Guidelines. These guidelines provide an explanation about many aspects of syllabus development, including the procedures teachers should follow when developing their syllabus (BSNP, 2006).

When developing their syllabus, teachers should first identify the expected competencies provided in the Curriculum Policies document. Teachers then determine the content of each subject area, instructional methods, type of assessment, learning indicators and materials that will give students the opportunity to meet the expected competencies (BSNP, 2006). Instructional methods chosen by teachers are recommended to be student-centred and involve various active learning methods (BSNP, 2006). Teachers can either develop their syllabus independently or collaboratively with other teachers.

School based-curriculum development (SBCD) in Indonesia is a new approach to educational planning and, as in most developing countries, it is not a grass roots initiative but rather imposed by agents operating outside the school. In the
Indonesian context, the SBCD was initiated, imposed and monitored by the government. The development and implementation of the school-based curriculum, in this case the KTSP, is supported and supervised by a local education office as part of devolution from central government. The local education office has responsibility for ensuring that the KTSP in each school meets the requirements outlined by the Curriculum Policies.

Thus, it could be argued that although central control is provided through the Curriculum Policies and Guidelines, the government has devolved the responsibility for developing the KTSP school-based curriculum to both local education offices and schools. Teachers are given a central role in making decisions about what material is taught, how it is taught and what assessment methods and resources are used within a competency-based framework.

**The KTSP as a competency-based curriculum**

The KTSP is competency-oriented; its curriculum policies prescribe the Graduate Competency Standards (GCS) a student must demonstrate on graduating from primary, junior and senior high school. The GCS included competencies for each level of school, competencies for subject groups, and competencies for each subject. Further, the BNSE prescribes basic competencies that must be achieved in every subject, each semester and in each grade. These basic competencies, which are derived from competency standards for each subject, consist of a number of minimum learning competencies (see Figure 4). These are stated in the form of specific and measurable outcomes that students must demonstrably achieve at the completion of each semester and each grade. Teachers must refer to the competency standards for each subject and the basic competencies when developing their syllabus.

![Figure 4. The structure of the competency requirements in the KTSP.](image-url)
The movement towards a competency-based curriculum in Indonesia was introduced at all levels of school in 2000 under the name Competency-Based Curriculum or the KBK. Two main goals motivated the movement towards competency-based education (UU No. 20 Sistem Pendidikan Nasional, 2003; Suderadjat, 2004; Utomo, 2005). The first goal was to ensure consistent outcomes of education across Indonesia. As implied in Law No 23, 2003(UU No. 20 Sistem Pendidikan Nasional, 2003), the national curriculum should provide a minimum standard of students’ learning experiences so that every citizen regardless of background has the opportunity to obtain at least a fundamental amount of knowledge and ability. The goal was that every student should meet these minimum competencies so that all students are able to participate as active members of a community as well as members of a nation.

The second goal was to increase students’ competitiveness in the global market place. The previous content-based curricula were considered to be problematic. First, the curricula were perceived to be overloaded; teachers found it difficult to implement all curriculum subjects and students felt overburdened (Suderadjat, 2004; Utomo, 2005). As a result, the learning outcomes were unsatisfactory (Suderadjat, 2004; Silverius, 2003). Second, these authors contended that students were not prepared to compete in the workplace as the curricula focused on the mastery of content rather than on the competencies that were applicable in real life. In order to overcome these problems, the two latest curricula, the KBK and then the KTSP, have moved to a competency-based system.

Although the KBK and the KTSP are both competency oriented, there are differences between them in terms of the autonomy they give to schools. As mentioned earlier, in the KBK, the government set the expected competency standards, basic competencies, indicators of learning achievement and essential learning content to be covered. Teachers then developed their syllabus based on these components. In contrast, in the KTSP, the government only establishes the expected competency standards and basic competencies which give greater autonomy to teachers to develop the content and process aspects of their syllabus.

Competency-based curriculum in the Indonesian context appears to be defined broadly, as the Curriculum Policies and Curriculum Guidelines suggest, by
expected competencies embracing three learning domains (BSNP, 2006). These three domains, cognitive, affective and psychomotor, are drawn from Bloom’s Taxonomy (Bloom, 1956). The cognitive domain is concerned with intellectual skills, being divided into six levels of complexity, moving from the lowest order of thinking to the highest. These are knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis and evaluation. Knowledge concerns remembering of previously learned material and is described by using operational verbs which are measurable such as memorise, recall or name. Comprehension deals with the ability to demonstrate understanding of facts and ideas. Application refers to the ability to use information and materials to solve problems and to respond to concrete situations. Analysis involves identifying and analysing patterns, organising ideas and recognising trends, while synthesis requires the learner to use existing concepts to create new ideas, designs and inventions. Finally, evaluation is characterised by comparison and evaluation of ideas.

The affective domain deals with attitudes, motivation, willingness to participate, and valuing of what is being learned. There are five levels in the affective domain moving through the lowest order processes to the highest. They are receiving, responding, valuing, organising and characterising. Receiving relates to the students’ willingness to listen or to pay attention. Responding refers to students’ active participation in the learning process. Valuing is concerned with the values students attach to objects, ideas or experiences and their acceptance or rejection of particular attitudes or actions. Organising refers to students’ willingness to synthesise values, information, and ideas and accommodate them within their own schema, and characterising deals with students’ willingness to change their behaviour to reflect their values and themselves.

The last domain, psychomotor, focuses on learning through skills development and performance relating to manual tasks and physical movement. Under the KTSP, the psychomotor domain model given to teachers in PD was the one introduced by Dave (1975). This domain includes imitation, manipulation, precision, articulation, and naturalisation. Imitation is concerned with observing or copying behaviour. Manipulation relates to performing particular actions by following instructions and practising each one. Precision focuses on students performing a task or activity with expertise and to high standards without help. Articulation is concerned with performing activities that relate and combine relevant
skills to achieve harmonious and consistent results. Naturalisation refers to highly skilled performance which is performed naturally and often automatically. These learning domains frame the professional development provided to teachers about the nature of competencies and how to incorporate these competencies into the syllabus (Depdiknas, 2007).

Under the KTSP, a given competency is considered to have been met when students show a change in behaviour which is measurable and includes changes in cognitive, affective and psychomotor domains (BSNP, 2006). To assess changes in these three domains, teachers are encouraged to use various types of formative assessments, depending of the nature of the learning objective to be met. BNSE advises that learning objectives within the cognitive and psychomotor domains, for instance, can be assessed using performance and product-based tests, portfolio or written tests; whereas learning objectives within the affective domain can be assessed through questionnaires or observation. To ensure students achieve the competencies which reflect these three domains, teachers are encouraged to provide learning experiences which are student-centred and use a variety of methods that promote active learning (BSNP, 2006; PP No.19 Standar Nasional Pendidikan, 2005).

Although competency is defined broadly in the Curriculum Policies and Curriculum Guidelines, there appears to be some inconsistency between the definition of competency and some of the expected competencies outlined in the Curriculum Policies. As mentioned, teachers are expected to ensure the achievement of the competencies which include cognitive, affective and psychomotor aspects using student-centred and active learning methods. However, some of the competencies set up by the government in the Curriculum Policies seem very narrow. This, for example, can be seen in the following competencies for writing for Y2.
Table 1

Expected Competencies for Writing in Y2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year/Semester</th>
<th>Competency Standards (CS)</th>
<th>Basic Competencies (BC)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2/1</td>
<td>Do early writing through activities which focus on completing stories and dictation.</td>
<td>1. Complete a simple story using correct words.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2. Write simple sentences which are dictated by teachers using cursive writing by paying attention to the use of capital letters and full stops.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2/2</td>
<td>Do early writing by describing objects and copying poems.</td>
<td>3. Describe plants or animals in simple sentences using written language.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There are two Competency Standards for writing in Y2, one for each semester. These describe the type of writing to be undertaken (stories, describing objects and poems) and the method of instruction to be used (dictation and copying). Each consists of two Basic Competencies which are derived from the General Competency Standards for writing setting minimal standards that students across Indonesia should be able to demonstrate.

In Basic Competency 1, the emphasis is on completing a simple story by using correct words. In its simplest form, key words are deleted from each sentence in the story and students insert the correct words suggesting that this is a close activity. This is a measure of the students’ ability to select the correct word in order to complete a sentence.

In Basic Competency 2 students are required to write simple sentences dictated by the teacher using cursive handwriting. Dictation can be used as a means of demonstrating students’ knowledge of the rules of simple punctuation and
spelling, and giving them the opportunity to check their text with the written model. However, the emphasis in this competency is on the correct use of capital letters and full stops.

Basic Competency 3 is concerned with students’ ability to describe plants or animals in simple sentences using written language. This competency suggests that students demonstrate written knowledge of plants and animals through the use of appropriate vocabulary and sentence structure.

In Basic Competency 4, the emphasis again is on practising cursive handwriting through copying a particular genre of writing, in this case a poem. The main focus of this competency is on the production of neat and correct letter formation in a form of cursive writing.

Basic Competencies 1 and 3 appear to be relatively broad, giving flexibility to teachers to provide learning activities which promote a higher order of thinking thereby encouraging their students to learn higher level skills such as composing their own text. In contrast, Basic Competencies 2 and 4 seem to be relatively narrow and skill-based, promoting the learning of low level writing skills such as copying.

Based on these four Basic Competencies, teachers are expected to establish a set of learning indicators which allow students to demonstrate the cognitive, affective and psychomotor aspects acquired as evidence they have met these expected basic competencies. In addition, teachers are expected to provide student-centred instruction that promotes the active learning necessary to achieve these competencies. Literature suggests that the success of attempts to meet holistic competencies using various active learning methods depends on the nature of those expected competencies (Bowden, 1997). Competencies that are broad and complex include cognitive, affective and psychomotor aspects that promote higher order thinking (Bowden, 1997). On the other hand, competencies that are narrow and very skill-based tend to lead to a learning process which is behaviourist and does not promote higher order thinking (Bowden, 1997). Thus, it may be very challenging for teachers to incorporate active learning methods into their teaching if the expected competencies are very narrow and skill-based.
2.2.2 Key concepts and learning approaches in the KTSP

As part of the move towards giving schools and teachers more autonomy and raising education outcomes, the Indonesian government has also identified the need for significant changes in teaching and learning approaches. These are stated, either explicitly or implicitly in the Curriculum Policies and Curriculum Guidelines, through the description of key teaching and learning concepts. This study focused on six key concepts which are related to the teaching of writing in Y2. These were chosen because they are central to classroom practices recommended by the Curriculum Policies. They are:

1. Student-centred learning;
2. Active learning;
3. The role of the teacher as a facilitator;
4. Students’ interaction as a means of promoting learning;
5. Assessment for learning; and,

These key concepts have been linked either explicitly or implicitly to constructivist perspectives of learning in the Curriculum Policies and Curriculum Guidelines (BSNP, 2006; Pusat Kurikulum, 2010; Muslich, 2007). This link will be discussed in the next chapter. The following is an explanation of from where these concepts are derived in the KTSP Curriculum Policies and Guidelines.

1. Student-centred learning

Student-centredness is one of the key concepts of the KTSP. The Curriculum Policies and Curriculum Guidelines state that one of the governing principles central to the development and implementation of the KTSP is that it should be student-centred. As stated in these Guidelines:
The development of the curriculum (the KTSP) is based on the principle that learners are at the centre of curriculum development. This approach supports the development of competencies which create spiritual, virtuous, healthy, knowledgeable, capable, creative, independent, democratic and responsible citizens. To achieve this, learners’ competencies should be developed on the basis of their potential, their developmental level, their needs, benefit to them and the demands of their environment. Thus, having a central position in this context means that learning activities are learner-centred. (Translated from BSNP, 2006, p. 5)

Although, the Guidelines do not provide a detailed explanation of what student-centred learning means in the context of the KTSP, the above quote places students at the centre of the development of teaching and learning programs.

2. Active learning

Another key concept in the KTSP which appears to be informed by constructivist perspectives of learning is active learning. The Curriculum Guidelines, translated from the Compilation of Government Policy (Tim Pustaka Yustisia, 2008) suggest that the KTSP should be “designed and delivered through a learning process which is active, creative, effective and joyful where the focus is on the students” (p.5).

Active learning in this context refers to the process in which students construct their own knowledge through higher order thinking (Pusat Kurikulum, 2010). Although emphasised in the KTSP, the notion of active learning in Indonesian curricula is not new. Rather, this approach to learning has been encouraged in previous curricula although studies indicate that it has not been implemented effectively (Curriculum Centre, 2010; Silverius, 2003; Suderadjat, 2004).

3. The role of the teacher as a facilitator

The KTSP, like the KBK, promotes the role of a teacher as a facilitator. The Curriculum Policies promote a paradigm shift from a focus on teaching to one on learning which leads to a changed role for teachers (Tim Pustaka Yustisia, 2008). This shift is from a transmitter of knowledge to a facilitator of learning. It is described in the explanation section of the government policies regarding the
The educational reform involves a paradigm shift in an educational process, from teaching to learning. A teaching paradigm which focuses on the role of teachers as transmitter of knowledge to students should shift to a learning paradigm which gives more roles to the students to develop their potential and creativity... (p. 30)

4. Student interaction as a means of promoting learning

In the context of the KTSP, interaction refers to learning activities where students actively work with teachers and other students. The Curriculum Guidelines state that the KTSP should be designed to provide students with learning experiences that involve both cognitive and physical processes. These processes should encourage interaction amongst the students, and between the students and the teachers that lead to students jointly constructing their knowledge through higher order thinking activities (BSNP, 2006).

5. Assessment for learning

Assessment is another key concept guiding teaching and learning in the KTSP. Unlike the previous concepts mentioned, the Curriculum Guidelines provide supporting documentation which explains what is expected in relation to assessment under the KTSP. Assessment in the Guidelines is defined as a set of activities to gather and analyse information in order to measure learning outcomes (BSNP, 2006). Further, it is stated that learning outcomes for students at primary, junior and senior high school are assessed by classroom teachers, schools and the government. For the purpose of this study only assessments conducted by the classroom teachers are examined.

The Curriculum Guidelines emphasise that the assessment of student-learning outcomes by the classroom teachers is not only conducted to assess the product but also to monitor the learning process, learner progress and to inform future planning. They suggest that assessment should take many forms and be much wider than traditional forms of objective tests and essay tasks. Some of the approaches to formative assessment recommended at the classroom level include, but are not
limited to, authentic assessment, performance assessment and portfolios (BSNP, 2006).

Assessment undertaken by the government is conducted in the form of national examinations which are administered at the students’ completion of primary, junior and senior high school. The results are used as a means to map the quality of education, to be a selection base to enter the next level of schooling; to determine the passing requirement of a level of schooling; and, to identify where intervention is required to improve the quality of education. There has been a continuous debate surrounding the national examination system. One of the criticisms argues that the summative assessment conducted by the government relies heavily on traditional forms of objective tests and essay tests to identify national standards. This form of test is considered to fail in assessing the breadth of students’ learning (Siswono, 2008). It may also encourage teachers to teach to the test and use traditional methods of teaching rather than active learning (Pusat Kurikulum, 2010). The latter phenomenon is called ‘backwash’ which refers to the idea that this form of assessment heavily influences the curriculum, teaching methods and students’ learning strategies (Spolsky, 1994).

6. The thematic approach to learning

In terms of the structure of the curriculum, the Curriculum Policies state that the teaching program from years 1 to 3 should be delivered using a thematic approach (Peraturan Menteri Pendidikan Nasional No 24, 2006c). Similar to the policy on assessment, the Guidelines also provide supporting documentation about the thematic approach in the KTSP. As well as describing the learning perspectives underlying the thematic approach, this document provides a detailed explanation of the nature of the thematic approach, stating such an approach uses a theme to integrate two or more subjects in order to provide a meaningful learning experience for students (BSNP, 2006).

These six key concepts all have implications for teaching and learning in the curriculum areas outlined in the Curriculum Policies and Curriculum Guidelines. In this study, the interpretation and implementation of these six key concepts of the KTSP were investigated through the teaching of writing in Y2 classrooms. Therefore, the following section describes the teaching of writing in Indonesia.
2.3 The Teaching of Early Writing in Indonesia

Early writing in Indonesia is taught within the Indonesian language (Bahasa Indonesia) being one of the core subjects at all levels of schooling. The aim of this subject at each level of education is to enable students:

1. To communicate effectively and efficiently in a proper manner both in spoken and written language;
2. To appreciate the language and be proud of using it as the national language;
3. To understand the language and use it correctly and properly for a range of purposes;
4. To use the language to improve their intellectual ability and emotional and social maturity;
5. To enjoy and use Indonesian literary works, to increase knowledge and understanding of the world, to refine ways of interacting and to improve competence and performance in the language; and,
6. To appreciate Indonesian literature as part of the culture and intellectual works of Indonesian people (BSNP, 2006).

Bahasa Indonesia manifests four language skills; listening, speaking, reading and writing. Under the KTSP, each of these skills has a number of competency standards and basic competencies that students must demonstrate at the end of each semester, the end of a grade and on leaving school. These skills can be taught independently, integrated within other language skills or integrated into other subjects.

Prior to the implementation of the KTSP, writing in reception classes (Year 1-3 in primary schools) in Indonesia was largely taught through what has been termed a ‘traditional method’, focusing on the mastery of skills and handwriting (Sulfasyah, 2005). Classroom activities included copying and tracing the teacher’s handwriting or copying from a book or the blackboard. From the beginning of primary school, children were encouraged to use spelling and handwriting correctly as these were seen as prerequisites of writing. Therefore, composition, or the writing of original texts, was not formally taught until students had mastered basic spelling and handwriting skills. Generally, composition was gradually introduced in year 3. It is important to note that, unlike written English, the spelling in Bahasa Indonesia is
phonetically regular and, therefore, is considered to be relatively straightforward for students to learn.

The emphasis on the teaching of correct letter formation and spelling throughout years one and two meant that many students reached a high standard in these areas by the end of Y2. However, the traditional method used by the teachers did not appear to give these students the opportunity to work on other aspects of their writing such as meaning-making strategies or composition (Sulfasyah, 2005).

The introduction of the KTSP has promoted major changes in education in Indonesia particularly in changing teachers’ practices in the classroom. The KTSP is designed to promote student-centred learning which is active, creative and joyful. The documents that support the development of the KTSP recommend teachers to be innovative and use a variety of methods of teaching. This has major implications for the teaching of writing in the early years of primary school, as they suggest a move away from writing as a set of skills to be mastered, to a view of writing as a meaning-making activity that emphasises composition.

2.4 Summary

This chapter has presented an overview of the KTSP. It described the nature of the KTSP as a school-based, competency-driven curriculum, derived from national Curriculum Policies and Guidelines. It explained that the underlying theoretical perspective of the KTSP was based on the idea that giving schools more autonomy could produce better outcomes both at a local and national level. It argued that the key pedagogical concepts described in the KTSP are based on a constructivist approach to learning. The six key concepts under investigation in this study through the context of early writing were discussed in detail, and finally a brief introduction to the teaching of writing in Indonesia was given.

This overview suggests that the KTSP required teachers to make considerable changes in their practices, including in the teaching of writing to young children. This new curriculum shifted the emphasis from teachers teaching to students learning and promoted a constructivist rather than traditional, transmission-based pedagogy. It asked teachers to use a range of assessment strategies which would assess both the product and the process of learning and inform future teaching. At the same time,
however, the Competency Standards and Basic Competencies for Y2 would appear to be relatively narrow and not encourage higher level thinking or skill development.

The present study, thus, investigates the interpretation and implementation of the KTSP by focusing on teacher practices in the context of writing lessons. It specifically focuses on the factors which affect their implementation of the KTSP. In the context of this study, the teachers’ interpretation and implementation of the KTSP were assessed through the lens of six key concepts of the KTSP. The study framework is presented in the following overview (Figure 5).

Figure 5. Framework of the present study.
CHAPTER 3

Literature Review

3.1 Introduction

This chapter provides an overview of the theoretical aspects that shape and guide this study. It consists of three main sections: educational reform; implementation of change; and, writing in the early years of primary school. The first section, educational reform, provides a general overview of several global trends in educational reform, particularly in the Asia-Pacific Region. The second section describes the implementation of curriculum change and identifies factors that inhibit the success of these innovations. It also discusses the nature of professional development that supports the implementation of change. The last section provides an overview of writing in the early years of primary school. This includes approaches to writing ranging from traditional to the constructivist and the role of writing in the content areas.

3.2 Educational Reform

Educational reform relates to the changes in education which include those in the educational system, curriculum content and organisation, and classroom practices (Marsh, 2004). In the past few decades many educational reforms have occurred globally, including in Indonesia. These reforms, according to Cheng (2005), have happened to meet the challenges of globalisation, technological changes, economic transformation, and international competition in the new century. Change has taken many forms and directions. Some of the reform movements which commonly occurred in the Asia-Pacific Region, including Indonesia, include but are not limited to, school-based curriculum development, competency-based education and a paradigm shift in learning, teaching and assessment (Brady & Kennedy, 1999; Cheng, 2005). The following sections outline each of these movements.

3.2.1 School Based Curriculum Development (SBCD)

One of the international trends in educational reform is a movement toward School Based Curriculum Development (SBCD). Despite having been recently introduced in Asian countries such as Indonesia, SBCD is not a new approach. It has been widely practised in Israel for over 30 years (Ben-Peretz & Dor, 1986), and operating for more than 15 years in English-speaking countries such as Australia,
USA, Canada and UK (Bezzina, 1991; Marsh, 1990). Currently, SBCD is being implemented in a number of Asian countries such as Singapore, China, Hong Kong and Taiwan and Indonesia (Chen & Chung, 2000; Feng, 2006; Gopinathan & Deng, 2006; Juang & Chan, 2005; Muhaimin et al., 2008; Muslich, 2007; Sanjaya, 2008; Xu and Wong, 2011). This widespread adoption of SBCD seems to be influenced by two main factors: a growing understanding of the need to focus on students’ needs by acknowledging the local context (Gopinathan & Deng, 2006; Lewy, 1991) and a shift from centralized to decentralized government (Feng, 2006).

SBCD is seen as being able to respond to local needs, as it can take into consideration the unique characteristics of the environment of a particular area; the cultural and religious values of the local population; occupational opportunities for school leavers; the individuality of each student; and the resources available to the school (Lewy, 1991). Accordingly, SBCD can be viewed as the opposite of centrally based curriculum development and as providing a means for the active involvement of the school community, including teachers, in designing, planning, implementing, and evaluating curriculum materials within a particular school (Brady, 1992; Marsh, 1990; Skillbeck, 1984).

The concept of SBCD has been interpreted in many different ways such as decentralisation, school autonomy and school-focused curriculum (Gopinathan & Deng, 2006; Marsh, 2004). Skillbeck (1984) defined SBCD as “the planning, design, implementation and evaluation of a program of students’ learning by the educational institution of which these students are members” (p.2). This definition implies that all curricular decisions are made at the school level (Gopinathan & Deng, 2006). However, Lewy (1991) suggests that SBCD can be defined both broadly and narrowly. The broadest definition implies that there is not only full autonomy for the school to decide what to teach, but also a commitment on its behalf to prepare instructional materials for the courses offered, with a minimal reliance on available textbooks. The narrow definition of SBCD, on the other hand, indicates that the central education authority delegates some freedom to or grants some authority for the local or the school authorities to determine a certain part of the school program. Regarding the development of local materials, Walton (1978) appeared to take the middle ground and argued that SBCD can involve both creating new products or
processes, and selecting from available commercial materials and making various adaptations.

Within this range of SBCD definitions, the one adopted in countries which are highly centralised, such as those in Asia, seems to be narrower. In Singapore, for example, SBCD is considered a necessary complement to the existing national curriculum (Gopinathan & Deng, 2006). Singapore’s SBCD model, called ‘school based curriculum enactment’, takes the form of adapting, modifying and translating the externally developed curriculum materials according to the school context. The centrally developed curriculum materials provide information on what to teach, as well as how to teach students of various school ages and can include syllabi, textbooks and resources. Teachers are expected to interpret and transform these materials to achieve curriculum objectives according to their classroom or school situations. This means that they are allowed to reorganise or restructure the content within a particular subject area. In the Indonesian context, the model of the SBCD adopted seems to fall into Lewy’s narrow definition of SBCD as schools must refer to the government policies when developing their curriculum despite the autonomy they have been given. In this case, schools are empowered to design their own curriculum and learning materials but these must be based on government policies which determine the standards and competencies students must achieve. Schools are also provided with the opportunity to adopt or adapt one of the models of the SBCD provided by the government.

The global trend towards SBCD has been supported by the perceived advantages that emanate from its implementation. One of these advantages is that SBCD has the potential to involve teachers in the development of the curriculum (Bezzina, 1991; Lewy, 1991). When involving in the process of curriculum development, teachers may have a sense of ownership and commitment and, therefore, have an interest in implementing the curriculum effectively at classroom level (Bezzina, 1991; Ye, 2012). Involvement in curriculum development may also encourage teachers to improve their abilities and skills as curriculum developers (Gopinathan & Deng, 2006; Marsh, 1992). Another advantage of the SBCD is that since the curriculum is developed at the school level, it enables teachers to take account of local and individual student needs, unlike a centrally developed curriculum (Lewy, 1991). Finally, Bezzina (1991) found that SBCD increased
teachers’ ability to respond better to students’ needs and contextual factors such as the classroom environment.

Despite the documented advantages of SBCD, a number of problems have been identified, particularly in relation to its implementation. A range of studies, for example, have shown that teachers’ new role as curriculum developers has increased their workload (Bezzina, 1991; Bumen, 2006; Chen & Chung, 2000; Cheung & Wong, 2012; Utomo, 2005). Greater workload may result in teachers lacking time to plan, to reflect and to develop their curricula (Marsh, 1992). To minimize this problem, some countries, like Hong Kong, have reduced teachers’ workloads by restructuring the curriculum, reducing unnecessary administrative tasks and hiring more teaching assistants (Cheung & Wong, 2012).

Another problem relates to the teachers’ lack of knowledge and skills regarding curriculum development activities (Gopinathan & Deng, 2006; Lewy, 1991; Marsh, 1992). Research suggests that many teachers are not well-prepared or trained to perform the tasks required of a curriculum designer (Bumen, 2006; Chen & Chung, 2000; Hannay, 1990). A lack of teacher expertise to develop curriculum may affect the quality of the product. For example, Gopinathan and Deng (2006) found that, “some schools may produce curriculum materials that are lacking in depth and breadth or are biased and outdated due to a lack of necessary guidance, resources, and expertise” (p. 97). Providing professional development that incorporates the role of teachers as curriculum developers has been suggested as one way of overcoming this problem (Bumen, 2006; Chen & Chung, 2000; Hannay, 1990).

In contrast to nationally based curricula, SBCD is considered to potentially contribute to a lack of national cohesion (Lewy, 1991). Additionally, the use of different curricula across different schools may result in different learning outcomes (Morris, 1995), and consequently create difficulties in preparing valid examinations at the national level (Levy, 1991). In countries where this is seen as problematic, such as Indonesia, governments have provided national curriculum policies and curriculum frameworks which include mandated minimum standards, to ensure students across the country are equally prepared for national examinations (Lewy, 1991; Marsh, 2004).
In conclusion, the SBCD movement is seen as an attempt to acknowledge students’ needs and to provide more effective teaching and learning to meet these needs. However, in order for teachers to develop their curriculum effectively, they need support which is relevant to their needs and contexts.

3.2.2 Competency-Based Education (CBE)

Another educational movement which is occurring globally particularly in African and Asian countries, including Indonesia, is Competency-Based Education (CBE). CBE is believed to have been introduced in the USA at the end of the 1960s. It then attracted interest in the UK and spread to Australia and New Zealand, amongst other countries (Bowden, 1997; Kerka, 1998). CBE in general refers to an educational movement that advocates measurable competencies related to knowledge, skills, attitudes and behaviour that learners should possess at the end of a course of study (Bowden, 1997; Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Thus, it is an outcome-based approach to education, emphasizing what individuals know and can do. Widely used in vocational and training education, CBE has been adopted in the general education system and many educational reforms have moved in the direction of CBE (Jallow, 2011; Moon, 2007; Utomo, 2005).

There are several arguments for adopting CBE. One of them is that it is seen to give individuals opportunities to gain competencies that are relevant to the workplace, since CBE promotes a link between education and workplace requirements (Erridge & Perry, 1994; Harris, Guthrie, Hobart, & Lundberg, 1995; Moon, 2007). Another argument is that CBE measures each individual’s achievement against a set of competency standards rather than against the performance of another individual (Kerka, 1998; Moon, 2007). This is beneficial as it allows teachers to adjust their instruction if a student does not score particularly well. In addition, if students do not seem to meet a particular standard, the teacher will be able to go back and teach the relevant content again until the student performs better (Moon, 2007; Priest, Rudenstine & Weisstein, 2012). CBE is also found to be effective in reducing the number of students who are required to repeat a year level in primary school because they failed to meet the required standards. In an attempt to reduce the high repetition rate in Cameroon, the government trialled CBE in approximately 300 primary schools. The result of the trial suggested that CBE along with remedial
teaching was effective in reducing repetition in primary schools from 43% in 2001 to an average of 20% in 2004 (Bipoupout, 2007).

However, CBE has been criticised, particularly as it is applied in higher education. One criticism, for example, is related to the typically behavioural objectives of CBE which are viewed as narrow, rigid, theoretically and pedagogically unsound, and to appear to be applicable only to lower order aspects of learning and thinking (Chappel, 1996; Hyland, 1994). Macfarlane and Lomas (1994) argued that too much behaviourism in CBE could lead teachers to use teaching approaches which are extremely reductionist, narrow, rigid, and fragmented. In addition, CBE is also seen as ignoring connections between tasks and the attributes which underlie performance (Kerka, 1998).

Bowden (1997) argued that these criticisms are based on an old model of CBE, which in its simplest form emphasises skill-based outcomes. In more recent versions, the notion of competency has been approached broadly with the use of various terms such as integrated, holistic or relational. These terms reflect a complex combination of knowledge, attitudes, skills and values which are displayed in the context of task performance (Gonezi, 1997; Hager, 1995). Interpreted broadly, competency is not a trained behaviour but thoughtful capabilities and a developmental process which acknowledges the cultural context and social practices involved in competent performance (Bowden, 1997). As he attests, this new version also promotes the increasing complexity of outcomes, broader curriculum requirements and more complex assessment requirements. Thus, it is considered compatible with a cognitive view of learning rather than a behaviourist one.

In some school-based educational contexts, the competencies appear to be standardised in a framework by the government or education authorities with schools required to integrate these into their school curricula. This is the case in several countries including as New Zealand, Indonesia, and some parts of the United States (Peraturan Menteri Pendidikan Nasional No 23 SKL, 2006b; New Zealand Ministry of Education, 2007; Priest, Rudenstine & Weisstein, 2012). Consequently, in some schools there is a tendency for teachers to prepare their syllabus by identifying competencies and to then select the content, method of instruction and assessment to support student attainment of those competencies. This method of instructional
design is referred to as backward design (Fox & Doherty, 2011; Graff, 2011; Wiggins & McTighe, 2005). This design is perceived to be a very effective approach in that it aligns the learning outcomes and the school curricula (Fox & Doherty, 2011; Graff, 2011; Wiggins & McTighe, 2005).

Wiggins & McTighe (2005) have suggested that, in backward design decisions about which instructional methods will be used can be approached in three ways depending on the skills and knowledge to be achieved through the learning activities. These are direct or didactic instruction, constructivist methods of facilitating learning, and coaching. They argued that direct instruction and focused coaching are suitable for acquiring knowledge and skills that are discrete, unproblematic, and enabling, while constructivist facilitation is for those ideas that are subtle, prone to misunderstanding, and in need of personal inquiry, testing, and verification. This implies that the instructional methods used in the class will depend to some extent on the nature of the expected learning outcomes.

The implementation of CBE in general education, particularly in primary and secondary schooling, has been investigated in a number of studies. One of these was undertaken in Benin, an African country that has implemented CBE since 1994 (Issaou, Raphael & Hooft, 2008). This study aimed to investigate the attitudes of teachers, teacher supervisors, students and parents in primary schools towards CBE and the impact of the curriculum change on students. This study also investigated the strengths and weakness of CBE in this context; it involved 2016 participants from 300 primary schools across Benin, employing a mixed method approach, which combined a survey and interviews. Issaou and colleagues (2008) found that to a certain degree the instructional approach to CBE encouraged students to become inquisitive, practical and creative although the overall implementation was considered not optimal due to factors such as a lack of resources and a shortage of qualified teachers.

Other studies focused on how key competencies were integrated into school curricula. Hong (2012), for example, conducted an international study to investigate how competencies were incorporated in three schools, a high school in Korea, a primary school in New Zealand and a primary school in Australia. Using interviews, observations and document analysis, Hong found that the teachers in his study,
Despite their different contexts, appeared to believe that to help their students to develop key competencies, they needed to apply various participatory instructional approaches, which promoted active involvement rather than simply transmitting content knowledge of the subject, through teacher-centred instructional methods. In spite of serving different purposes, both of these studies highlighted the complexity of CBC, which suggests that teachers need adequate training to support them in implementing such an approach.

3.2.3 Paradigm shift in learning and teaching

Over the last few decades, educational reform has been concerned with how teaching and learning are delivered in the classroom. One of the approaches to learning which has been widely used and which has influenced the development of pedagogy, especially in mathematics and science, is constructivism (Sahin, 2010; Simon, 1995). Constructivism appears to inform pedagogy in all the learning areas of the KTSP. The Curriculum Policies and Curriculum Guidelines which govern the implementation of the KTSP reflect a major change from traditional pedagogy to one influenced by a constructivist approach (BSNP, 2006; Sanjaya, 2008). The following sections discuss constructivist influences in education. The first section describes constructivist perspectives, this is followed by a description of the application of constructivist perspectives in the classroom with particular reference to concepts within the KTSP and the third section outlines criticisms of constructivism.

Constructivism

Constructivism has become a major source of philosophical and pedagogical debate in the educational world (Kamii, 1981; Kaufman, 2004; Sutherland, 1992; Ultanir, 2012; Wang & Walberg, 2001). It as an approach to teaching and learning developed from psychology and information processing theories and which in recent years has increasingly incorporated ideas from linguistics, anthropology and sociology (Blumenfeld, Krajcik, Marx, & Soloway, 2001).

Constructivism in education focuses on the nature of knowledge and how it is constructed meaningfully by learners (Jadallah, 2000; Sutherland, 1992). Thus, constructivist learning represents a paradigm shift from behaviorist approaches to education to those based on cognitive and social theories of learning (Ultanir, 2012; Kaufman, 2004). Within a constructivist view, there are, however, different
perspectives on how learners construct new knowledge. This issue has been
associated with notions from cognitive constructivism and social constructivism.
Cognitive constructivism is based on the work of Piaget and emphasises cognitive
development and individual construction of knowledge (Sutherland, 1992). Social
constructivism, on the other hand, is associated with the work of Vygotsky which
stresses that new knowledge is socially built through meaningful interactions with
other people (Cox, 2005). A general overview of the two perspectives follows.

**Cognitive constructivist view of learning**

Piaget’s developmental theory acknowledges learning as an active process in
which children continually construct meaning through reading, listening, speaking,
writing, exploration, and experience (Cox, 2005; Kaufman, 2004). This learning
includes three processes. They are *assimilation*, *accommodation*, and *equilibrium*
(Cox, 2005; Powell & Kalina; 2009; Sutherland, 1992). Assimilation refers to the
process where children incorporate new knowledge into their existing knowledge.
Accommodation refers to a process where children adapt their current knowledge in
light of new knowledge through a process of internalisation. Equilibrium balances
assimilation and accommodation. Piaget maintained that children need to keep a
balance between using previous knowledge (assimilation) and new knowledge
(accommodation) as they pass through each stage of cognitive development. Thus,
the equilibrium process helps explain how children are able to advance from one
stage of cognitive development to the next (Cox, 2005, Powell & Kalina; 2009;
Sutherland, 1992). Apart from these three processes, Piaget’s cognitive development
theory also recognizes the concept of ‘schemata’ which refers to the learners’
existing knowledge structures (Cox, 2005, Sutherland, 1992). Piaget pointed out the
importance of connecting children’s prior knowledge to what they discover through
new experiences. This connection is made through schemata (Cox, 2005; Fosnot,
2005).

**A social constructivist view of learning**

Vygotsky’s social constructivist perspective views children’s thinking and
meaning-making as socially constructed and emerging out of their social interactions
with their environment (Vygotsky, 1978). According to this perspective, children
learn new knowledge by interacting with other people in meaningful activities (Cox,
2005; Fosnot, 2005; Jadallah, 2000; Kaufman, 2004; Raymond, 2000). This means
that children’s learning is facilitated by parents, peers, teachers and others around them in the environment.

A key concept in social constructivism is called the ‘zone of proximal development’ (Vygotsky, 1978). Vygotsky defines this concept as “the distance between the actual development level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers” (p.76). This indicates that the starting point for new learning is what the children already know and that with assistance from competent people, they can accomplish the tasks that they could not do independently. Vygotsky argued that “what the child can do in cooperation today he can do alone tomorrow” (p.104). He believed that it was important to work within the child’s ZPD, while not spending time on what they had already mastered (Soderman, Gregory & McCarty, 2005).

The assistance or support adults give children to build on prior knowledge and internalise new information is called ‘scaffolding’ (Barone, Mallette, & Xu, 2005; Berk & Winsler, 1995; Cox, 2005; Soderman et al., 2005; Wood, Bruner, & Ross, 1976). The term was first used by Wood and colleagues (1976) to describe tutorial interactions between an adult and a child. It is used to describe the nature of the support an adult provides for a child who is learning how to perform a task they could not perform alone (Hobsbaum, Peter & Sylva, 1996). In scaffolding, an adult assists a child to learn knowledge by modelling, coaching, providing feedback, and giving them responsibility for learning (Barone et al., 2005; Kaufman, 2004; Soderman et al., 2005). To provide optimal support to children’s learning, an adult needs to observe and identify their zone of proximal development (ZPD); design appropriate, authentic, and meaningful learning experiences; and provide instructional support and scaffolding to boost students’ construction of higher levels of understanding (Kaufman, 2004).

There are some fundamental differences between Piagetian and Vygotskian perspectives of how knowledge is acquired. The role of the environment is central to these differences. Piagetian perspectives see the social environment and social interaction merely as stimulus for individual development. Vygotskian perspectives argue that learning evolves through interaction in social contexts, moving from the
social plane to individual understanding. However, both perspectives emphasise learner-centred and discovery-oriented learning processes and Kaufman (2004) argues that these two perspectives, “create opportunities for learners to engage in hands-on, minds-on manipulation of raw data in quest of identifying new and increasingly complex patterns, acquisition of novel concepts and construction of new understandings” (p.305). A summary of constructivist learning perspectives influenced by Piaget and Vygotsky which have widely informed classroom practices follow:

- **Students construct their own knowledge**
  This principle refers to the idea that knowledge is not passively received by students but rather they actively engage in the process of building knowledge (Good & Brophy, 2004; Soderman et al., 2005; Tompkins, Campbell & Green, 2012). Several theorists argue that in order to make knowledge useful in a new situation, students should be encouraged to make sense of the information in ways that are meaningful to them. They must own, manipulate, discover and create knowledge to fit their belief system (Good & Brophy, 2004; Pritchard & Woollard, 2010). This implies an important role for the teacher, who acts as a facilitator providing opportunities for children to work within their zone of proximal development, thereby encouraging and advancing their individual learning (Berk & Winsler, 1995; Cox, 2005).

- **New learning builds on prior knowledge**
  This principle emphasises the importance of building on prior knowledge. In order to understand new knowledge, students must make connections between their prior knowledge (schema), and new information (Good & Brophy, 2004; Pritchard & Woollard, 2010; Soderman et al., 2005; Tompkins et al., 2012). In other words, students learn when they connect what they already know with what they discover through new experiences.

- **Learning is enhanced by social interaction**
  This principle highlights the importance of social interaction in learning. Meaning is seen to be developed through conversations in which students have the opportunity to compare and share their ideas with others as a means of refining and extending their developing understanding (Good & Brophy,
Social interaction can be “vertical, as in teacher-student interaction, or horizontal, as in student-student interaction” (Pritchard & Woollard, 2010, p. 37). This interaction is characterised by higher-order thinking promoted through conversations with more knowledgeable others.

**The application of constructivism to teaching and learning**

Constructivism is a theory of learning which does not come with instructional techniques for implementing it in the classroom (Airasian & Walsh, 1997; Fosnot & Perry, 2005). Despite this, a number of interpretations of constructivism has been proposed and translated into practice. Central to a constructivist approach to teaching and learning in the classroom is student-centred learning (Brown, 2008; Jones, 2007). Student-centred learning (SCL), which is promoted in Indonesian classrooms under the KTSP, is an approach in which the planning, teaching, and assessment revolve around the needs and abilities of the students (Brown, 2008; Jones, 2007). SCL classrooms focus on what students do to achieve learning rather than what the teacher does and allow student choices in their learning by having them participate in the construction of the curriculum by negotiating what it is that they will learn (Brown, 2008; Jones, 2007).

Student-centred learning represents a paradigm shift from an emphasis on teaching to one on learning (Simon, 1995; Weimer, 2002). This assumes that learning will occur when students construct their own knowledge and understanding implying that concepts cannot be transmitted from teachers to students. Rather, the students must actively participate in the process of knowledge construction (Brooks & Brooks, 1999; Murdoch & Wilson, 2008; Pritchard & Woollard, 2010; Weimer, 2002).

Thus, active learning, which is another pedagogical concept promoted in the KTSP, is central to the process of knowledge construction and is embodied in SCL. Active learning is generally defined as any instructional method that engages students in the learning process and requires students to take part in meaningful learning activities (Prince, 2004). Strategies that promote active learning have common characteristics such as analysing, synthesising, and evaluating information as a means of developing higher order thinking (Bonwell & Eison, 1991; Pritchard &
Woollard, 2010). Active learning allows students to work individually, in pairs and in groups, to explore problems and take initiatives that allow them to construct their own meaning. This can be done through discovery, inquiry, and problem solving and includes small group discussion, role playing, hands-on projects, and teacher and student driven questioning (Pritchard & Woollard, 2010). One of the forms of active learning which is highly encouraged in the SCL classroom is collaborative learning (Jensen, 1998). Collaboration has the potential to provide students with powerful social support and scaffolding that leads to higher order thinking, giving a significant place to the role of interaction in SCL.

Interaction is another key concept outlined in the KTSP (BSNP, 2006) and seems to be derived from constructivism. From a constructivist perspective, interaction is the means through which knowledge and understanding are developed. Interaction with a more knowledgeable other reflects Vygotsky’s theory of the zone of proximal development, whereby students can achieve higher mental understandings in collaboration with others (Cox, 2005; Soderman et al., 2005). New concepts are understood through talk between individuals and groups, physical interaction, visual stimulus, reading and writing. Interaction that promotes reasoning, comprehension, and critical thinking helps students achieve higher order thinking (Alexander, 2006). This type of interaction is complex and multifaceted, requiring sustained conversations that encourage students to think, reason and challenge each other. Teachers support this complex interaction by scaffolding students’ thinking through open-ended questions, asking for clarification or elaboration and giving students time to consider their responses (Alexander, 2006).

Thus SCL which involves active engagement by students in learning through high levels of interaction leads to the role of the teacher as a facilitator of learning (Weimer, 2002). Teachers as facilitators, which is also encouraged under the new curriculum in Indonesia, are expected to guide and assist students to construct knowledge and make connections between old knowledge and new information in order to make sense of new information (Good & Brophy, 2004; Pritchard & Woollard, 2010; Soderman et al., 2005; Tompkins et al., 2012). As facilitators, teachers are expected to create learning environments that encourage students to take responsibility for their learning (Weimer, 2002). In order to do this, teachers provide a variety of learning experiences, encouraging students to engage actively in the
process of building knowledge. These experiences should include a variety of active learning strategies because applying different approaches to learning helps to accommodate students’ different learning styles (Brooks & Brooks, 2001).

Another important aspect of SCL is that it enables students to develop the skills and knowledge needed to assess their own learning and progress. The KTSP reflects this perspective, describing the importance of assessment that enables students to judge their own work or what they have achieved (BSNP, 2006). Studies suggest that self-assessment can lead to the development of meta-cognition (Soderman, et al., 2005). Soderman and colleagues (2005) describe meta-cognition as “students’ understanding of their own capabilities and the positive outcomes that can result from practice and independent, strategic application of what they are learning” (p.198). This type of meta-cognitive awareness of learning should improve learning and the quality of the products that it produces (Jonassen, 1992). Further, Darling-Hammond et al., (2008) have implied that teachers can assist students to acquire a set of strategies, define goals and monitor their progress. In their view, providing opportunities for students to reflect on what and how they learn helps create an environment where they take responsibility for their learning and become more of a partner with their teacher, engaging in meaningful learning experiences.

A thematic approach to teaching has been identified as a means of enabling students to construct their own knowledge therefore drawing on a constructivist perspective of learning. This mode of teaching, which refers to the integration of two or more disciplines through themes (Roberts & Kellough, 2008), is recommended in the KTSP. One of the purposes of teaching through a theme is to promote meaningful learning. Meaningful learning is believed to occur when students make connections between new experiences and the prior knowledge and experiences that are stored in their long term-memory (Roberts and Kellough, 2008). These connections are facilitated through integrated activities, based on learning contexts that are relevant to the students and which provide opportunities for the exploration of ideas. This notion of exploration is clearly embedded in a constructivist view of learning in which knowledge is individually and socially constructed through the use of student-centred learning.
**Criticisms of constructivism**

The constructivist view of learning as applied to educational contexts, despite its popularity, is not without its critics. One criticism raised is that constructivism, which is considered to emerge from the dominant culture and be practised in privileged classes, may not necessarily be a suitable pedagogy for minority students or those that are not part of the dominant culture (Richardson, 2003). About two decades ago, Delphit (1995) found that constructivist-based pedagogies, which were widely recommended at that time and considered best practice for all students, did not meet the learning needs of students of African-American origin and some from other cultures. The author argued that the mismatch was most likely to occur whenever learning approaches from dominant cultures were employed to teach students from non-dominant communities. Students who are not from the dominant culture may not have access to the forms of learning found in schools which promote constructivist-based pedagogies.

Another criticism refers to the notion of implicit and explicit teaching. In its purest form constructivism promotes the centrality of implicit teaching, rejecting the idea of explicitly transmitting information to students (Brooks & Brooks, 2001; Jonassen, 1992). Several critics have argued that there is ample evidence that explicit teaching has successfully improved learning outcomes, particularly in relation to the students who are not part of the dominant culture (Delphit, 1996). Thus the issue of implicit versus explicit teaching appears to lead to a suggestion that the argument should no longer focus on which type of instruction promotes better learning, but rather on when to use each instructional method and for which students. In other words, instruction should meet the students’ needs and acknowledge individual differences in the classroom (Louden et al., 2005) and may involve balancing implicit and explicit instruction as a means of improving outcomes (Louden et al., 2005; Schluze, 2006; Tompkins, 2008; Vukelich & Christie, 2009).

These criticisms suggest that caution is required when suggesting that constructivist pedagogy constitutes best practice in every context for all students. This would seem to be particularly the case where there is a mismatch between constructivist pedagogy and the socio-cultural background of the students.
As constructivist perspectives on learning have been embraced by a number of developing countries in Asia and Africa, including Indonesia, another major problem has emerged (DeSegovia & Hardison, 2009; Fiske & Ladd, 2004; O’Sullivan, 2004). This relates to the wholesale transfer of a western philosophical view of learning to countries that historically have a very different approach. For example, O’Sullivan (2004) has suggested that in essence, constructivist approaches in learner-centred education are viewed as a western approach to learning and as such will be very challenging to transfer to developing countries where there are limited resources, large classes and different learning cultures. Implementation of a constructivist approach to learning is complex and demands much from the learner and teacher (Alesandrini & Larson, 2010; Simpson, 2002; Windschitl, 2002).

In many cases, the reform movement, which includes constructivist-based education, has been introduced without sufficient preparation and support (Cheng, 2009). Research suggests that teachers in developing countries have struggled to implement constructivist-based pedagogy where a shift from a teacher-centred to a learner-centred approach was imposed and mandated in new curriculum policies (Blignaut, 2008; DeSegovia & Hardison, 2009). Research confirms that some of the inhibiting factors include the teachers’ lack of knowledge about the meaning and associated practices of key pedagogical concepts and a lack of resources. Windschitl (1999) argued that constructivist pedagogy should not be treated as a set of isolated instructional methods which simply replace traditional teaching techniques. Rather, it should be treated as a set of practices which embody a school culture forming the foundation of school life. This signals the enormity of the challenge involved in implementing a constructivist approach to learning, especially in a context in which the pedagogical practices are fundamentally different to those that are consistent with a constructivist approach.

Thus a constructivist approach to learning may be difficult to implement, particularly where a considerable shift from a traditional approach is required, as was the case in Indonesia with the introduction of the KTSP. Issues related to the complexity of change and teachers and change are discussed among the sections which follow.
3.3 Implementation of Curriculum Change

This section focuses on curriculum change, looking specifically at the nature of change, its implementation, the role of teachers in change and, finally, how professional development can support change processes. As noted by Marsh (2004), curriculum begins as a written plan or product and only becomes a reality when teachers implement it with students. Well planned, developed, and widely disseminated curriculum, however, may not be implemented at all or may not be put into practice in a way the curriculum developer had intended (Fullan, 2007; Marsh, 2004). Therefore, attention must not only be given to the production phase of the curriculum but also to what happens after this phase; that is, the implementation phase in the change process (Fullan, 2007). Thus, the implementation phase involves the actual use of a curriculum (Fullan & Pomfret, 1997) and it ‘consists of the process of putting into practice an idea, program or set of activities and structures new to the people attempting or expected to change’ (Fullan and Stiegelbauer, 1991, p.65). These authors contend the degree and quality of implementation will determine whether or not the desired objectives are accomplished.

3.3.1 Nature of change

Brady and Kennedy (1999) postulated several characteristics of curriculum change which were influenced by the work of Fullan and Hargreaves (1992) and other researchers in the field. These characteristics are summarised below:

- Change is highly complex
  Change is highly complex and involves not only skill and knowledge development but also consideration of how the change is perceived by individuals and their thoughts and feelings about the change. Change is not a single unit but rather multidimensional involving possible changes in goals, skills, behaviour, philosophy and beliefs.

- Change involves ongoing clarification
  Change is a process that involves ongoing clarification to overcome uncertainty and ambiguity. As the process involves changes in the perceptions of individuals, there is a constant need to clarify any misunderstandings and uncertainty that participants may experience.
- Effective change is small-scale
  The complex nature of change makes it difficult to implement widely in a large organisation. Therefore, small and gradual steps are the key to effective implementation.

- Change involves the culture of institutions
  The culture of a school may facilitate or hinder the implementation of change. Collaborative cultures in which individuals work together towards shared goals are considered to be preconditions of a school's development.

- Change is gradual
  Change cannot be effectively implemented in a short period of time. The implementation process takes time and should happen gradually over time.

- Change involves conflict
  Since change engages the thoughts, feelings and multiple perceptions of participants, conflict inevitably occurs.

The characteristics of curriculum change listed above suggest that change is complicated and multifaceted, and many aspects should be taken into consideration in order to implement it successfully.

3.3.2 Key factors in the implementation process of curriculum change

Several factors impacting on the implementation of curriculum change have been identified. The most widely cited are the factors proposed by Fullan (2007) (see Figure 6). These factors are organised into three main categories: characteristics of change, local characteristics and external factors. Each category consists of several components presented as follows:
A. Characteristics of Change
1. Need
2. Clarity
3. Complexity
4. Quality/Practicality

B. Local Characteristics
1. District
2. Community
3. Principal
4. Teacher

IMPLEMENTATION

C. External Factors
Government and other agencies

Figure 6. Interactive factors affecting implementation

(Fullan & Stiegelbauer, 2007).

A. Characteristics of change

The first factor affecting implementation, according to Fullan (2007), relates to the characteristics of the change process itself. Need, the first aspect in this category, is associated with the perceived need for the change from the point of view of the implementers. That is, whether the proposed change is perceived as needed in the first place and whether it is considered to be a priority. Fullan suggests that many innovations have failed to be implemented because they did not meet the needs of the classroom, school and community, or were not considered a high priority. Thus, he argues, the more pressing the need for change perceived by those who have to implement it, the greater the likelihood of successful implementation.

The second factor, clarity, refers to the clearness of the goals and the means of the change. If the curriculum guidelines, for example, are too general, this could lead to some confusion in translating them into practice. This could mean the change is interpreted in an oversimplified way or may cause frustration to those trying to implement it.
The third, *the level of complexity*, refers to the number of new skills, altered beliefs and different materials required by an innovation. Fullan and Stiegelbauer (1991) stated that, “…simple changes may be easier to carry out but they may not make much difference. Complex changes, on the other hand, promise to accomplish more, but demand more effort in return which may prompt the implementers to abandon the change” (p.72). To overcome this, he suggests that complex changes could be divided into components and implemented gradually. This means that implementation may involve a continuum from minimal to significant adoption.

The last factor noted as a characteristic of change in education, *the quality and practicality*, is concerned with two aspects: the quality of the delivery of change and the practicality of the change. The first aspect refers to the time needed for development work about the nature and implementation of the change to achieve quality outcomes. An adequate timeline is needed for preparing resources, training teachers and developing materials. The shorter the time given for preparing the implementation, the greater the threat to quality and the greater the likelihood of problems arising. The second aspect, practicality, is associated with the nature of the change which addresses the teachers’ needs in putting the change into action. Fullan and Stiegelbauer (1991) suggested that this should include clear guidance and identification of the next steps in the process of implementing the change.

**B. Local characteristics affecting implementation**

The second set of aspects affecting the implementation of curriculum change proposed by Fullan (2007) relates to the social conditions of the change. These aspects concern the organisation or setting in which people work and local decision-making processes that influence whether or not the given change will be productive.

The first aspect within this category, *district support*, relates to the importance of the school district in assisting schools to implement change by actively monitoring and evaluating the implementation and providing follow up. Fullan found that while individual teachers or schools can implement change without central support, it is essential for district wide change.

The second aspect, *community involvement and support*, acknowledges the importance of parents and community in assisting different levels of implementation. They can become influential in the success of implementing change even though they
may not be involved directly in the process. This is particularly the case in communities where parents have power to voice whether they approve of and will support an innovation they see in the school.

The third factor, *the role of the principal*, concerns the importance of this person actively providing support for effective implementation at the school level. The school principal could provide various types of assistance such as organising training and ongoing information support. As noted by Fullan and Stiegelbauer (1991), “the principal is the person most likely to be in a position to shape the organizational conditions necessary for success, such as the development of shared goals, collaborative work structures and climates and procedures for monitoring results” (p.74).

The fourth factor concerns *the role of the classroom teachers*. Fullan (2007) has argued that the teacher is one of the most essential elements in the successful implementation of change at classroom level. Based on the work of a number of researchers, he asserts that teachers influence the implementation of change both individually and collectively. At the individual level, teachers’ willingness and ability to engage with innovation may be influenced by factors such as their personality, previous experiences and their stage of career. At the collective level, constructive working relationships among teachers in some contexts promote successful implementation. The role of teachers in facilitating change is further discussed following the discussion about external factors.

**C. External factors**

The third factor affecting the implementation of curriculum change proposed by Fullan (2007) relates to external factors which are particularly concerned with *the role of government agencies*. Fullan states that in many cases the government agencies focus on the policy and program to be implemented without taking into account the problems and the complex processes of the actual implementation. As a result, the local practitioners are left to implement change in frustration. The change process is further frustrated, Fullan remarks, when unclear job descriptions among the government offices affect the quality of the support given such as capacity building, training, resources and consultation and when ineffective solutions were offered for problems that arose in the implementation process. This suggests that
successful implementation of change requires a constructive relationship among the
government agencies involved so that they provide effective support for the
implementation process and build productive relationships with the schools
implementing the change.

3.3.3 The classroom teacher and change

The implementation of educational change, according to Fulian (2007),
Involves change in practice. Since practice is located in the classroom context,
actualised through pedagogy, the teacher becomes a key factor in the successful
implementation of educational change. This view of the vital role of teacher is shared
by Stronge (2010) who found that other parties can reform curriculum, but ultimately
it is the teacher who must implement it. In fact, teachers have been acknowledged in
policy as agents of change (Priestly, 2011). It is not surprising then that educational
change has been found to increase teachers’ workload (Cheng, 2009; Fullan &
Stiegelbauer, 1991). Cheng (2009), for example, found that educational reforms such
as the implementation of school-based management, school-based curriculum and
integrated curriculum which require teachers to adopt new ways of planning,
preparing and teaching have increased their workload and applied pressure beyond
their capacity to cope.

On the other hand, Priestley (2010) has argued that educational change is a
fact that teachers all over the world must face since schools are subjected to constant
pressures to innovate. The approach teachers adopt to cope with the implementation
of mandated educational change determines their ability to maintain professional
engagement and competence as well as job satisfaction, a work-life balance and
personal wellbeing (Lokan, 2003). Fullan and Hargreaves (1992) identified
guidelines that can be used by teachers to cope with constant change. Although these
guidelines aimed to foster interactive professionalism, some advice given appears to
be relevant to coping with constant change (Brady & Kennedy, 1999). Their advice
relates to the importance of teachers interacting with each other to develop
knowledge and expertise to improve teaching through a collaborative culture in a
school (Fullan & Hargreaves (1992).
3.3.4 Professional development

Change requires teachers to learn new ways of thinking and doing and new skills, knowledge, and attitudes (Fullan, 2007; Little, 2001). Even when change is comprehensively explained prior to its implementation, it is understandable that teachers may not be able to grasp and implement a number of new ideas all at once (Little, 2001). As Fullan (2007) noted, change is a process not a single event. Therefore, teachers should be encouraged to understand and implement it gradually with appropriate support and assistance.

The most commonly discussed form of support for teachers is professional development (Putman, Lawrence & Jerrel, 2009). This can take many forms such as workshops, seminars or in-service training; it is often provided prior to or during the implementation stage of curriculum change. In order to be effective, it is recommended that professional development is ongoing rather than a once off program with little follow up (Fullan, 2007; Joyce & Showers, 1988).

One of the types of professional development believed to support teachers to implement and sustain change is that which focuses on collaboration among teachers (Fullan, 2007; Hargreaves, 1994). As noted by Fullan and Stiegelbauer (1991, p.77):

Change involves learning to do something new, and interaction is the primary basis for social learning. New meanings, new behaviors, new skills and new beliefs depend significantly on whether teachers are working as isolated individuals or are exchanging ideas, support, and positive feelings about their work.

Similarly, Brady and Kennedy (1999) noted that collaborative work cultures promote opportunities for teachers to learn from each other, either by observing each other’s teaching or by sharing knowledge through collegial work, therefore, helping teachers respond to change. There have been a number of studies of different forms of teacher collaboration during the process of implementing change. These include teachers collaborating in professional communities and through networking (Grodsky & Gamoran, 2003; Hofman & Dijkstra, 2010; Lieberman; 2005). These studies all found that collaboration between teachers either from the same school or different schools was an effective means of promoting change.

To sum up this section, although many factors determine effective implementation of a new curriculum, teachers are the key factor at the classroom
level. It follows then that teachers need ongoing support in order to implement the new curriculum effectively. This support needs to take into account the characteristics of change, which include the nature of the change and the implementation process, local factors which concern the support provided, and external factors that relate to the government agencies responsible for initiating and managing the change process.

In order to provide the contextual background to the change process investigated in this study, the following section examines the teaching of writing in the early years of school.

3.4 Writing in the Early Years of Primary School

Literacy, which includes writing, is one of the learning areas in the primary school which is given high priority in curriculum frameworks across the world. In the Indonesian context, literacy is seen as able to improve students’ intellectual ability, and emotional and social maturity (BSNP, 2006). During the past decade, literacy has been identified as central to students’ success at school (Dorn & Jones, 2012; Miller & McCardle, 2011, Winch et al., 2010). Winch and colleagues (2010) maintain that “competency in literacy is essential if an individual is to participate fully in a literate society, is to be able to take part in the workforce, engage in democratic processes and contribute to society” (p.2). One of the modes of literacy acknowledged as a tool for students to learn and to think is writing. Writing, according to Willig (1990), is important as it is:

> a key element in the search for meaning because it allows us to reflect on and to order our encounters with the world and the impact they make upon us. Equally importantly, we write to share thoughts and feelings with others through communication ranging from hastily written notes to formal, carefully argued essays on complex issues. (p.25)

However, despite its importance and its priority in the curriculum, Miller & McCardle (2011) claim that writing including studies of learning to write in the early years is a neglected area of research compared to other modes of literacy such as reading and oral language. In Indonesia, very few studies of teaching and learning to write in the primary school are extant (Sulfasyah, 2005). Therefore, this study
examines the implementation of the KTSP in Indonesia through the subject of Y2 writing.

Writing in primary school occupies a special place in the curriculum both in the early and later years of schooling (Browne, 2009; Cox, 2005). For example, in the Indonesian curriculum, writing is taught in all grades each semester, either as part of the language arts program or integrated with other content areas.

During the last three decades many approaches to teaching writing have been developed and implemented in schools, and these can be placed on a continuum ranging from traditional to constructivist-based approaches (Boscolo, 2008). The following sections present those approaches particularly as they relate to the early years of primary school.

3.4.1 Traditional approach to learning to write

The traditional approach has been characterized as skill-based, being the dominant mode of teaching in Indonesia for many years (Sari, 2012). The traditional approach to writing was based on the assumption that reading and writing were visual/ perceptual processes that should be taught in a systematic and sequential way (Browne, 2009; Cox, 2005). Reading, writing, spelling and grammar were seen as different skills that needed to be taught separately. Learning to write did not begin until the basics of spelling and handwriting had been mastered and there was no integration with the other language skills. Children received formal instruction from teachers which focused on low level activities based on the transcription elements of the writing system, such as letter formation, neatness, spelling, punctuation and presentation (Browne, 2009).

The traditional approach relies on teacher-controlled activities (Browne, 1993; Cox, 2005), focusing more on the product than the process. In the traditional approach, teachers direct students to practise written language as a discrete skill. This discrete skill has been taught sequentially and without a writing context (Browne, 2009; Cox, 2005). Students learn to write by mastering this discrete skill that focuses on the rules of grammar, spelling, capitalisation and punctuation, and exercises intended to improve sentence-level development.
For a traditionally oriented classroom, the focus of the curriculum is on the development of writing skills and materials used are in the form of worksheets and writing workbooks. Many of the writing activities are primarily for learning sight words and specific skill practice. Children copy words from the black/white board, trace over the teacher’s writing or copy models of writing. They focus on making their writing neat and on spelling each word correctly. There may be opportunities for the children to compose stories, but even this task is designed to provide practice in specific skills and the feedback from the teacher is primarily concerned with the neatness of the writing rather than the content (Browne, 1993; Cox, 2005).

Research shows that the copying activities commonly used in the traditional approach help children to form their first few letters or words and to cope with the mechanical aspects of writing (Browne, 2009). However, this type of activity does not encourage children’s composition development (Browne, 2009). In addition to this, copying does not take account of children’s existing knowledge (Clay, 1975).

3.4.2 Constructivist-based approaches in the teaching and learning of writing

The movement from a behaviourist to a cognitive view of learning at the close of 1970s and into the 1980s influenced the birth of new approaches to the teaching and learning of writing in the early years. Studies of early literacy indicated that literacy learning involved linguistic and cognitive processes, thereby fostering a move away from a product to a process approach to writing development (Clay, 1982; Dyson, 1985; Ferreiro & Taberosky, 1982; Graves, 1983; Goodman, 1986; Harste, Woodward & Burke, 1984; Morrow, 2005; Teale & Sulszby, 1989). Critiques of the process approach to writing argued that learning to write also involved specific understanding about the structural and textural features of different types of writing, promoting a genre approach to teaching writing (Christie, 1993; Derewianka, 1996). This was followed by a move towards viewing literacy as social and cultural practices, learned through everyday interactions in meaningful contexts (Barratt-Pugh, 2000; Luke & Freebody, 1999). Thus the focus was on the teaching of literacy in ways heeding the literary events which are constructed according to the purpose, audience and context.

The findings from research investigating all of these approaches to teaching writing had implications about how literacy, including writing, could be most
effectively taught, particularly in the early years of schooling. This section, however, does not discuss the nature of these literacy approaches and differences among and between them. Rather, it presents common changes in the teaching and learning of writing particularly in the early years of primary schooling which appear to be informed by constructivist perspectives. Although the KTSP does not make explicit reference to the implementation of constructivist approaches to teaching in specific subject areas, the underlying philosophy of the KTSP is based on this perspective of learning.

One of the key themes in the teaching of writing influenced by constructivist perspectives on learning is that the writing activities and instruction should build on what children know. Several studies have revealed that children already have some understanding of the uses and forms of writing when they begin school (Clay, 1975; Ferreiro & Taberosky, 1982; Harste, Woodward & Burke, 1984; Teale & Sulszby, 1986). Therefore, instruction should be built on what they already know (Browne, 2009; Schluze, 2006; Strickland & Morrow, 1989; Teale & Sulzby, 1989; Tompkins, 2008). Browne (1993) proposed that children know about writing before starting school makes it no longer sufficient to begin the teaching of writing by asking the child to draw a picture, dictate a sentence about her picture to the teacher and copy the text beneath the teacher’s writing. Further, this author maintained that “by placing the emphasis on copying, the adult is denying the child the opportunity to demonstrate what the child already knows about writing and losing the opportunity to assess what a child can do and what needs to be taught” (p.12).

As well as recognising that children are able to make meaning before starting school, a constructivist perspective on learning suggests that literacy learning will occur through active and meaningful engagement with the written language (Crawford, 1995). Further, children should be immersed in a print-rich environment, and wherever possible, should use real books and write original texts (Browne, 2009; Schluze, 2006; Teale & Sulzby, 1989; Tompkins, 2008; Vukelich & Christie, 2009). In addition, writing for a purpose and real audiences are central to a constructivist-based approach, which stresses the importance of authentic engagement in meaningful activities. Therefore, it is essential that students understand why they are writing and for whom they are writing (Browne, 2009; Schluze, 2006; Teale & Sulzby, 1989; Tompkins, 2008; Vukelich & Christie, 2009).
Constructivist perspectives also promote the importance of integrated learning. In terms of literacy, this suggests that the different modes of literacy should be integrated rather than taught separately (Crawford, 1995; Kamii, 1981; Morrow, 2005). This is based on the assumption that each mode of literacy influences the other in ways which support the development of a literate individual. In addition to this, literacy activities need to be integrated into the learning of content areas such as social studies and science to provide potentially more meaningful learning opportunities (Cox, 2005; Morrow, 2005).

Another major influence of constructivist perspectives on learning to write is the importance of interaction. Interaction is seen as part of the process through which writing is viewed as a shared social practice which involves interaction between students and their peers and the teacher (Barone et al., 2005; Cox, 2005; Schluze, 2006; Tompkins, 2008). Interactions within a social context involve students in sharing, constructing and reconstructing their ideas.

Constructivist perspectives also influence the role taken by teachers in teaching writing. In constructivist oriented writing classes, teachers are viewed as facilitators of learning rather than as providers of knowledge and information (Cox, 2005; Soderman et al., 2005). As a facilitator, the teacher provides a supportive environment which encourages students to see themselves as writers creating texts for varied, real audiences and for genuine purposes. Building on Vygotsky’s (1978) concept of the zone of proximal development, teachers provide the scaffold for students’ writing development, leading them eventually to take full control of their writing. There are five levels of support commonly identified as providing appropriate scaffolding for children learning to write. These are: modelled writing, shared writing, interactive writing, guided writing and independent writing (Browne, 2003; Christie, 2009; Schluze, 2006; Teale & Sulzby, 1989; Tompkins, 2008; Vukelich & Christie, 2009).

Clearly, a constructivist orientation to the teaching and learning of writing focuses on students. In other words, a constructivist classroom is student-centred and promotes active learning and full participation in meaningful activities.
3.4.3 Constructivist influences on writing assessment

The constructivist influences on the teaching and learning of writing do not only have implications for students’ self-assessment as mentioned earlier, but also for how students’ writing is assessed by the teacher. Since a constructivist perspective promotes the importance of the process of learning, that is, how students learn, assessing students’ writing should focus on students’ development as writers, rather than solely on the product of their writing (Browne, 2009; Schluze, 2006; Tompkins, 2008). In this case, the assessment is integrated into classroom instruction and involves evaluation guidelines that enable teachers to know what the students as writers know and what they can do. This also enables the teachers to give feedback as a means of informing ongoing writing and to monitor the progress of their students (Browne, 2009; Cox, 2005; Schluze, 2006; Tompkins, 2008). A number of methods of assessing students’ writing development within a constructivist perspective have been identified (Browne, 2009; Cox, 2005; Tompkins, 2008; Schluze, 2006). These include:

1. Record keeping where teachers record students’ progress in writing based on observations over time and discussions with the students about their progress.
2. Conferencing where teachers talk informally with students about their writing or help them solve problems related to their writing through joint negotiation.
3. Portfolios which collect representative samples of students’ writing as a means of enabling the child to identify and review progress and strategies.

3.4.4 Balancing process and product

Earlier discussion in this chapter revealed that a constructivist approach to learning emphasises the centrality of implicit teaching in which the teacher is a facilitator of learning. Within this perspective, there is a concern that without some explicit teaching the learner may not have enough information or understanding to begin constructing their own knowledge. This dichotomy between implicit and explicit teaching is particularly relevant to the teaching of early writing as current research suggests that balancing implicit and explicit instruction provides children with effective early literacy instruction (Tompkins, 2008; Tompkins, Campbell & Green, 2012; Vukelich & Christie, 2009). Children need meaningful, social engagement with books, access to various forms of print, and opportunities to write.
In addition, “most children also need some explicit developmentally appropriate instruction on vocabulary, phonological awareness, alphabet knowledge and print awareness” (Vukelich & Christie, 2009, p. 12). In relation to writing, according to Tompkins and colleagues (2012, p. 16), the characteristics of this type of balanced approach to writing instruction are:

- Literacy involves reading, writing, speaking, listening and viewing.
- Writing instruction includes the writing process, the qualities of effective and appropriate writing, and the ability to use conventional spelling, grammar, and punctuation to make those ideas more readable.
- Reading and writing are used as tools for content-area learning.
- Strategies and skills are taught explicitly, with a gradual release of responsibility to students.
- Students often work collaboratively and talk with classmates.
- Students are more motivated and engaged when they participate in authentic literacy activities which have a clear purpose or outcome that is known to the students and valued by them.

### 3.4.5 Integrating writing across the curriculum

A constructivist view of learning has also influenced curriculum integration (Roberts & Kellough, 2008), for example, when writing is integrated into other content areas such as social studies and science. There are several reasons for integrating language arts, including writing, within the content areas. The first one is that the content areas provide a place for language use through authentic experiences within a topic or theme, thereby reflecting the importance of meaningful experiences which are included in constructivist approaches to learning (Cox, 2005; Fox & Allen, 1983; Tompkins et al., 2012). Fox and Allen (1983) stated that when children write for a real purpose, artificial exercises to practice language become unnecessary.

Another reason for integrating writing is that it can be used as a tool for learning (Cox, 2005; Fox & Allen, 1983; Tompkins et al., 2012). Students use writing as a medium for learning when they take notes, categorise ideas, draw graphic organisers and write summaries according to Tompkins and colleagues (2012). In addition, writing enhances learning in the way that it requires students to
organise and present knowledge, for example, when they prepare a social studies assignment or test responses (Cox, 2005; Fox & Allen, 1983; Myers, 1984).

Myers (1984) suggested that when writing is integrated into other content areas, the approach should not focus on the surface features of writing which should be ignored unless they interfere with clarity of meaning. Myers argued that the purpose of an integrated curriculum is to promote students’ learning in a meaningful way rather than to focus on surface error correction.

One of the common ways of integrating writing and content areas is through thematic teaching (Cox, 2005). Thematic teaching occurs when instruction is focused on a particular theme that crosses the boundaries of two or more content areas (Roberts & Kellough, 2008). Teaching employing a theme is an approach which is encouraged in years 1 to 3 of the primary school in Indonesia (see Chapter 2), and therefore is a key concept within the KTSP.

3.5 Summary

In the past few decades, several reform movements have occurred in the Asia-Pacific Region, including in Indonesia. These reforms have included school-based curriculum development (SBCD), competency-based curriculum (CBC) and a paradigm shift in learning, teaching and assessment. The first, SBCD, refers to the reform movement that empowers schools to develop their own curriculum which acknowledges the local context. The second reform, CBC, refers to an educational movement that measures competencies related to the knowledge, skills, attitudes and behaviour that learners should possess at the end of a course. It emphasises what students or learners are expected to do rather than what they are expected to learn. The third movement is a shift from a traditional learning approach to a more progressive one which is influenced by a constructivist-based perspective. This perspective, which emphasises that knowledge is constructed rather than transmitted, appears to have influenced learning approaches in all learning areas, including writing in the early years. This perspective informs the underlying perspective of the KTSP in Indonesia.

There are many factors that determine whether or not educational reform is implemented successfully. These include the characteristics of the required change, the characteristics of the local context in which the change is taking place, and the
external factors that determine the nature of the change. In relation to the implementation of a new curriculum, the teacher has been identified as a key agent of change. To implement change effectively, teachers need ongoing support, through collaborative learning communities within and across schools, and professional development.

On the above basis, the present study, thus, investigates change in the context of the Y2 classroom, focussing on how teachers have interpreted and implemented a new curriculum, especially in Y2 writing in Indonesia. The next chapter describes the methodology used to conduct this study.
CHAPTER 4

Methodology

4.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the methodology used to conduct this study. It describes the research design and phases of data collection. Within each phase, the selection of research participants, the sampling technique used, the data collection methods, the procedure of data collection and data analysis are described. Issues associated with validity, reliability and ethics are also considered.

4.2 Research Design

In the first three years after being introduced in 2006, the KTSP was trialled in selected grades at each level of schooling. However, from the commencement of the academic year in mid-2009, the KTSP was mandatorily implemented at each stage of primary, junior and senior high school across Indonesia. The KTSP encourages teachers to focus on learning rather than on teaching, to use active learning methods and various learning and teaching resources and to promote student-centred learning (BSNP, 2006; Peraturan Menteri Pendidikan Nasional No 23 SKL, 2005). It is competence-oriented in that it encourages the use of various strategies to assess the students’ learning process and learning outcomes against a set of competencies (Sanjaya, 2008).

This study investigated the teachers’ interpretation and implementation of the KTSP in the teaching of Y2 writing. It was guided by the following research questions:

1. How do teachers interpret the KTSP in relation to teaching writing to Y2 students?
2. How do teachers implement the KTSP in teaching writing to Y2 students?
3. What factors influence teachers’ interpretation and implementation of the KTSP in teaching writing to Y2 students?

In order to capture the complexity of teacher interpretation and implementation of the KTSP, a mixed method design was identified as most appropriate. This design is an approach that incorporates the collection, analysis and combining of quantitative and qualitative data in a single study (Creswell, 2005;
For this study, the type of design selected was an explanatory mixed method, also called a two-phase model, in which the researcher first collects quantitative data. This is followed by a qualitative data collection phase. This design enables the researcher to refine or elaborate the findings from the initial quantitative data through an extended and in-depth qualitative exploration of key issues which arise (Creswell, 2005; Hanson, Creswell, Clark, Petska, & Creswell, 2005).

In order to gain a broad understanding of the interpretation and implementation of the KTSP across a relatively large number of Y2 teachers, quantitative data were collected using a questionnaire as this type of instrument is an efficient way of collecting data from a large group (Walen & Fraenkel, 2001). Y2 teachers were chosen because during a professional development workshop, which involved Y2 teachers, they expressed concern about the teaching of writing and were interested in how other Y2 teachers taught writing. In addition, all students in Indonesia begin the process of learning to write in Y1 and some do earlier and therefore have some knowledge and skills in writing when entering Y2. Thus, the opportunity to explore how teachers interpreted and implemented the KTSP with students who were already competent in some aspects of writing was seen as advantageous, as potentially, teachers could be more flexible in their approach to teaching writing. The quantitative data were complemented by the collection of qualitative data from a sub-group of the participating teachers, giving depth to the study.

Qualitative data were collected through classroom observation, informal discussion after each observation, interviews, and document collection which included teachers’ syllabus and lesson plans and samples of children’s writing. Classroom observation was chosen as it allows information to be recorded as it occurs in a particular setting, and enables the actual behaviour of the teachers and students to be studied (Gillham, 2010; Robson, 2011). The post-observation discussions and more formal interviews, particularly as they were face-to-face, provided the teachers with the opportunity to describe and explain their teaching practices, thereby adding meaning to the observations. Additionally, the discussions
provided the opportunity to adjust questions, explore interesting responses which emerged and clarify meaning (Robson, 1993).

Documents were collected as they are an important source of information in qualitative research, providing valuable insights into the phenomena under investigation in qualitative studies (Creswell, 2005). In this study, the teachers’ planning documents and the children’s writing products provided insights into the way the teachers had interpreted and implemented the new curriculum. These different data sources were used to triangulate the findings and to provide a comprehensive and reliable account of the interpretation and implementation of the KTSP in the Y2 teaching of writing, including the identification of factors that influenced the change process. As the study was conducted in two phases, these are described separately in the following two sections.

4.3. Phase 1- Quantitative Data

This section presents information about the conduct of the first phase of data collection. It describes the participants involved, the instruments used, the procedure of data collection and the analysis of the data.

4.3.1 Phase 1 - Participants

This study involved 29 primary schools in Makassar City, the capital of South Sulawesi, one of provinces in Eastern Indonesia. These schools, representing a range of contexts and socio-economic conditions, were located in different sub-districts of Makassar City. They were selected by using a convenience sampling method because they are partnered with the university where the researcher was an education tutor responsible for the students’ teaching practice program. This link enabled the researcher to gain access to the schools more easily in terms of getting permission from the principal to undertake the study and inviting the teachers to participate. Additionally, these schools were easier to access than those outside the city. The Y2 teachers, 61 altogether, from these 29 primary schools agreed to participate in Phase 1 of the study.
4.3.2 Phase 1- Instruments

**Questionnaire**

The data were collected through a questionnaire. It was designed to address the three research questions that were constructed to elicit:

- the teachers’ interpretation of the KTSP in relation to teaching writing in Y2;
- how these teachers implemented the KTSP in their practice, and,
- the factors that influenced their interpretation and implementation of the KTSP.

The questionnaire elicited information about the teachers’ understanding of the six key concepts which underpinned the KTSP; the professional development related to the new curriculum they had undertaken; and, the in-class support they had received when implementing it. The remaining questions addressed the teachers’ writing program in relation to KTSP. The nature of these questions was influenced by change theory which suggests that it is important to explore both how teachers have implemented change and their understanding of new concepts introduced by the change (Fullan, 2007). The latter is important as it has been found that teachers’ understanding of key pedagogical concepts embedded in curriculum change is vital to effective implementation (Fullan, 2007). In addition, research about implementing change confirms that teachers’ experience, access to workplace and classroom support, and the professional development they receive are among the factors that influence their willingness to implement change in their classroom (Fullan, 2007).

The questionnaire consisted of closed-ended, open-ended and semi-closed questions. The closed-ended questions sought specific information regarding the teachers’ demographic profiles, their workplaces and the support they had received to implement the KTSP. Closed-ended questions were used as they are considered appropriate to elicit this type of straightforward and factual information (Bhandarkar, Wilkinson, & Laldas, 2010). The open-ended questions, on the other hand, were used to elicit each teacher’s interpretation and implementation of the KTSP and the factors influencing those aspects of the curriculum change. Open-ended questions allowed the participants to use their own words to express their views without being influenced by the researcher (Foddy, 1993). In addition, semi-closed questions were used specifically to find information regarding teachers’ highest educational
qualification, how they prepared their KTSP syllabus and the provider of professional development they had attended. In this type of question, the teachers were first asked a closed-ended question and then asked for additional responses in an open-ended question. This type of question allows the researcher to provide categories but also allows the respondents to write an answer that may not match the responses provided (Creswell, 2005).

The questionnaire consisted of five sections. The first, with four items, was designed to elicit demographic information regarding the teachers’ gender, qualifications and years of experience in teaching in the primary school, and in Y2.

The second section, consisting of four items, was designed to gather information about the teachers’ workplace, particularly focusing on the number of Y2 classes in their school, the number of students in their Y2 class, the age range of their students, and whether or not they had access to additional support from teachers or aides in their class.

The third section, consisting of ten items, was constructed to gain information about any classroom support the teachers had received and the professional development they had undertaken in assisting them to implement the KTSP. This included the year they had started to implement the KTSP.

The information gained from the first three sections was important as it was designed to reveal some of the factors that influenced the teachers’ interpretation and implementation of the new curriculum in the context of writing.

The fourth section, consisting of five items, was designed to gather information about the teachers’ writing program since the implementation of the KTSP in their schools. The questions concerned the key changes teachers had made in implementing the new curriculum in the area of writing: the types of resources they used in their classroom to support the implementation; the matters most helpful to them about the KTSP in teaching writing; the most difficult elements about the implementation; and, the assistance needed in implementing the KTSP. Information from these questions allowed the researcher to describe the teachers’ reported implementation of the curriculum in their writing lessons. In addition, the data
gathered contributed to the identification of factors influencing the teachers’ interpretation and implementation of the curriculum.

The fifth section, consisting of six items, invited the teachers to express in their own words their understanding of the key concepts promoted by the KTSP in relation to writing. The six key concepts the teachers wrote about were:

- student-centred writing;
- active learning in writing;
- the teacher’s role as a facilitator of writing;
- students’ interaction during writing lessons;
- assessment of students’ writing; and
- a thematic approach to writing.

The questionnaire employed was originally constructed in English and translated into Indonesian by the researcher. To ensure the translation was accurate, a senior lecturer in the translation of English was also asked to translate the questionnaire into Indonesian without seeing the researcher’s translated version. This was done to overcome the cultural constraints in South Sulawesi Indonesia around colleagues being seen as criticising each other’s work. There was a clear match between the two translations. Therefore, no further checking for accuracy was deemed necessary (see Appendix A: Questionnaire).

**Trialling of the questionnaire**

The questionnaire was trialled prior to the commencement of the study, the purpose being to ensure the questions were understandable and that they elicited information appropriate to the answering of the research questions (Robson, 2011). However, before the trialling, a primary school teacher was approached to read the questions and to give her professional opinion as to whether these were accessible and understandable, and whether they would be understood by her colleagues. She reported the questions to be easily understood and the instructions were clear.

The questionnaire and administrative procedures were trialled with 20 teachers who were not part of the study sample. These teachers taught at schools representing a similar range of contexts and socio-economic conditions as those which would be participating in the research. Despite the initial reading of the
questionnaire by an experienced teacher, the trial showed that there was one word used misunderstood by some of the respondents. This misunderstanding was due to the use of the English word ‘assessment’ being used in the Indonesian version of the questionnaire. Although the word ‘assessment’ has been used widely in Indonesian, some teachers participating in the trial appeared to be confused by the term. Therefore, it was translated using a compatible word in Indonesian in the final version of the questionnaire. The content and layout of the final version of the questionnaire, however, remained the same as the trialled version. The revised questionnaire was then given to two colleagues to complete the trial; both these teachers were senior education tutors responsible for the students’ teaching practice program. They were invited to complete the questionnaire and once again check the clarity of the questions and instructions before the revised questionnaire was re-administered to ten of the original trial participants. No further issues emerged from the second trial.

4.3.3 Phase 1 - Procedure of data collection

Prior to the commencement of the study, the researcher sought the consent of the participants by sending a letter to the principal and the Y2 teachers in the selected schools. As well as requesting permission to conduct the research and inviting participants to take part in it, the letter outlined the aims of the research and its procedures. Ethical issues such as anonymity, confidentiality and the right to withdraw were included in the letter. The Y2 teachers were invited to complete the questionnaire and asked for their agreement to being observed and interviewed as part of Phase 2 of the study if required. All of the principals in the 29 schools approached agreed to allow their Y2 teachers to be invited to participate, and all of the 61 designated teachers in these schools agreed to do so. The questionnaires were handed to each teacher in person and were self-completed. They were asked to complete the questionnaire within two weeks; all did so. The questionnaires were collected by an independent courier.

4.3.4 Phase 1 - Data analysis

The data from the questionnaire were numerically coded in order to be analysed employing the Statistical Package for Social Scientists (SPSS) program. SPSS is software designed to perform statistical analysis on quantitative data. This
software offers a program that allows users to organise and analyse data effectively whether simple to complex, depending on the requirements of the study.

The responses from the closed-ended questions were coded in the following way: each response was given a numerical coding which was placed at the right-hand side of the questionnaire. For example item one in section one of the questionnaire, ‘gender category’, was coded in the following way:

Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Closed-ended Question Coding</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Categories</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>□ Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>□ Male</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For the open-ended questions, the teachers’ responses were first collated under each question and then coded into categories based on the recurrent themes emerging from the participants’ responses. The themes were identified by key words evident in the responses. Next, each category was numerically coded, for example, item 1 in section 5 of the questionnaire ‘student-centred means’ was first categorised into recurrent themes which emerged across all of the questionnaires and then coded using sequential numbers as shown in the following table.

Table 3

| Coding of Open-ended Question in Section 5: item 1 “To me student-centred means....” |
|----------------------------------|----------------|
| Categories                       | Coding Number |
| Active students                  | coded as 1    |
| Focusing on secretarial aspects of writing | coded as 2 |
| Teachers as facilitator          | coded as 3    |
| Knowledge construction           | coded as 4    |

After each response was given a numerical coding, these numbers were inputted into an Excel worksheet before being transferred onto the SPSS computer program. In this study, this procedure was employed to tabulate and analyse the data.
using descriptive statistical methods that used frequency and percentage distribution. This type of analysis enables patterns to be found within the data (Punch, 2005).

The responses from the semi-closed questions were analysed using techniques that combined the analysis of closed and open-ended questions described above.

4.4. Phase 2 – Qualitative Data

This section explains Phase 2 of the study, which involved the collection of qualitative data. The aim of this phase was to build-on and add depth to the findings generated from Phase 1 of the study.

4.4.1 Phase 2 - Participants

Ten teachers participated in the second phase of the study out of a total of 61 teachers who completed the questionnaire and agreed to take part in Phase 2 of this research. The ten teachers were conveniently selected on the basis of the location of their school’s sub-district, thus ensuring the sample to be representative of the range of contexts and socio-economic conditions as did the sample for Phase 1 of the study. In addition to this, they were also selected as their school represented a range of accreditation ratings. The educational reform in Indonesia did not only impact on curriculum but also on the accountability of the educational institutions. Under the new regulation of the National Education System # 20, 2003, all levels of schools, both state and private, had to be accredited. Before this legislation was passed, only private schools were required to undergo an accreditation process. Nine components of the schools were evaluated as part of the accreditation process and these were: 1) Curriculum and learning process, (2) Administration and management, (3) Organisational structure, (4) Resources and Infrastructure, (5) Human Resources, (6) Finance, (7) Students, (8) Community participation, and (9) learning culture of the schools. Each component has several indicators which are assessed. The compilation of the scores for each component determines the final accreditation rating which may be A which is rated as very good, B which is rated as good or C which is rated as average.

The ten teachers taught at different schools, each of which had undertaken an accreditation process and received a rating from A to C. The rated accreditation of these schools varied, two schools receiving A, seven obtaining B and one receiving a C rating. This suggests that all the schools in this study had met the educational
standards as stated in the Indonesian government regulations with ratings ranging from average to very good.

In general, the teachers’ schools had been implementing the KTSP in relation to teaching writing for different lengths of time. Two commenced implementation in 2009, five began in 2008 and three had started as early as 2007. In terms of the number of Y2 classes, eight schools had two, one school had three and one had one.

The ten teachers chosen to take part in Phase 2 were contacted, asked if they were still willing to take part in the second phase of the study, and given information about data collection procedures. The teachers were assured that they would not be identified and that pseudonyms would be used in the analysis and publication of the research. They were also informed that all of the data collected as part of the research process would remain confidential. The qualitative data collection also involved Y2 students from the ten focus classes. The writing samples these students generated in the focus classes provided additional information about how teachers in this study implemented the KTSP in relation to teaching writing. Consent from the students and their parents to collect and analyse their writing samples was sought and provided. They were also assured of confidentiality and anonymity and advised of their right to withdraw from the study.

4.4.2 Phase 2 - Data sources and instruments

In Phase 2 of this study, a number of different instruments were used to collect data from a range of sources. These sources included classroom observations of writing lessons, informal discussion with each teacher after each observation, individual teacher interviews and document analysis of teachers’ lesson plans and students’ writing samples. These sources and the instruments used to collect data from them are described below.

Observation

This study used observation to elaborate the data from the questionnaire about the nature of teachers’ implementation of the KTSP in their classroom context. The purpose was to gain in-depth information about the teachers’ actual practice in teaching writing in the classroom in relation to their interpretation of the KTSP.
This study used a semi-structured approach to observation (Cresswell, 2005) as there were problems with both structured and unstructured observations, the more common approaches in this context. For example, structured observation uses pre-developed observation schedules which are very detailed and the categories and classification to be observed are determined prior to the commencement of the observation. Therefore, this method is usually associated with the production of quantitative data and the use of statistical analyses (Denscombe, 2007). In the case of this study, the observations were to be used to elaborate the quantitative results and so a less structured approach was more suitable. This was particularly the case as structured observation, with its predetermined categories, breaks behaviour up into discrete parts. This results in relatively straightforward recording and analysing of the data (Punch, 2005), and reduces the need to make inferences during the data collection process, thereby, reducing potential bias. This structured approach, however, risks missing the potential complexity of the data to be collected (Robson, 2011; Punch, 2005). This suggests that unstructured observation being conducted in a more open-ended way and allowing categories to emerge later in the research (Punch, 2005) may have been more suitable. This appeared to be the case in that this type of observation is usually recorded in detailed field notes, produces qualitative data and keeps the larger picture in view, thus allowing observers to gain rich insights into the situation. However, since unstructured observation does not allow categories to be pre-determined, the observer may be less clear about what to look for and so important information may be missed (Cohen, 2003).

To address these issues, this study used semi-structured observation which combines aspects of both approaches (Cresswell, 2005). Prior to the classroom observation, general categories were determined based on the research questions and findings from the questionnaire. The categories used were:

- what teachers and students did in the writing lessons;
- the nature of the writing lessons (task / competency / assessment);
- the availability of learning and teaching resources to support the writing lessons; and
- the use of the classroom environment to support the writing lessons.
These categories were used as a means of guiding observations related to aspects of the implementation of the KTSP in the context of a writing lesson. The observations were recorded through detailed field notes related to the pre-determined general categories. This approach allowed the researcher to document evidence of pre-determined aspects of the teaching of writing, as well as noting unique and unanticipated phenomena which emerged during the lessons observed. (See appendix B: Sample of writing observation protocol).

**Informal discussion**

An informal discussion was conducted with the teacher at the end of each observed lesson. This allowed for clarification and any issues or questions that arose from the observation to be discussed, and gave the teachers the opportunity to comment on their lessons.

**Documents**

In this study, three types of documents were collected and analysed. The first two were the teachers’ syllabus and lesson plans relating to the language arts, which included writing; and the third was the students’ writing samples. These documents provided additional data regarding the teachers’ interpretation and implementation of the KTSP. The syllabus provided written evidence about the standards that were applied in the writing program including the competency standards, basic competency and learning indicators. It also detailed the content, instructional methods, assessment strategies, teaching aids, resources and the time allocated for writing lessons in semester one and two of the school year. The lesson plans provided written evidence about teaching intentions and further information about the instructional methods to be used and anticipated outcomes of each writing lesson. The students’ writing samples provided evidence of the types of writing produced in the observed lessons, the level of competence demonstrated and the type of assessment teachers used to grade the students’ work products.

**Semi-structured interview**

Individual, face-to-face semi-structured interviews were chosen as one of the primary methods of data collection in this study as they enabled the researcher to explore key aspects of the teachers’ implementation of the KTSP in a flexible way (Robson, 2011). In this type of interview, the interviewer had several questions or
themes to be covered. However, the order and the wording were modified depending on the situation so that new questions could be asked to follow up the interviewee’s responses. This flexibility enabled the researcher to focus on key aspects of the study while still being able to explore further what the teachers revealed in the interview.

The interview questions were based on responses to the self-completed questionnaires completed in Phase 1 of the study, by the 61 teachers and data from the observations of writing lessons of the ten teachers. The questions focused on the teachers’ interpretation and implementation of the KTSP as it related to the teaching of writing, and the factors that may have influenced their interpretation and implementation. The exploration of these areas was important to refine the findings from the questionnaire and to clarify issues which emerged in the observed lessons and follow-up discussions. The content of the questions included but was not limited to the following areas:

1. Descriptions and explanations of practices observed in the lessons;
2. Elaboration of the teacher’s understanding of the KTSP in relation to Y2 writing lessons;
3. Factors that support or inhibit the teachers’ implementation of the KTSP in relation to writing lessons in Y2;
4. Resources available to support the implementation of the KTSP in relation to writing lessons in Y2;
5. Support, such as the training available and access to support, for the implementation of the KTSP both in general and in relation to writing lessons for Y2; and
6. Assessment of the students’ writing produced in their Y2 writing lessons.

**Trialling of the instruments**

Before the qualitative phase of the study was conducted, the semi-structured interview and classroom observation protocols were trialled with two teachers who had participated in completing the questionnaires in Phase 1 of the study, but who were not be involved in the second phase. The semi-structured interview format was trialled to ensure that it contained pertinent, suitably structured questions and to ascertain the length of time to be taken by each interview. The trial interviews were conducted in the participants’ own language, lasting about 45 minutes. The questions
were well understood, relevant and not too long. Similarly, the trial showed no major problems with the observation protocol, revealing that it enabled the researcher to document in detail key elements of the writing lesson. Therefore, no changes were made in the instruments for Phase 2 of the study.

4.4.3 Phase 2 - Procedures of data collection

The following section describes the process of data collection which involved: observation of writing lessons, followed by informal discussion; the collection of the associated syllabus, lesson plans and writing samples; and semi-structured interviews, conducted a week after the final observation.

First, the ten teachers selected for the second phase of the study were contacted by the researcher who negotiated a schedule for four observations of writing lessons followed by informal discussions with each of them. Further, a suitable time for the semi-structured interviews which would occur at the end of the four observations was negotiated.

Syllabus and lesson plans

The teachers’ syllabus and lesson plans for each of the four lessons to be observed were photocopied prior to the observation. These documents were discussed with each teacher in the informal discussion at the end of each observation and in the post-observation interviews.

Observation

The observation was conducted in the classrooms of the ten teachers as they taught writing lessons. The range of writing activities observed varied and all were nominated by the teachers. Each teacher was observed four times, teaching four individual writing lessons. The first observation had a general focus so the researcher could be familiarised with the classroom setting and begin to build a relationship with the teachers and students, thereby gaining their trust. It also gave the researcher an opportunity to try out the observation schedule and the note taking to be used to capture the data. The remaining three observations focused on the nature of the teachers’ implementation of the KTSP in their writing lessons. Data from the first observation were not used in the analysis. The researcher as a non-participant observer sat at the rear of the classroom in order to minimise any unintended distractions. During the observation, the researcher took field notes using the
observational protocol developed for this study. The observations were followed by the collection of writing samples produced during the lesson and informal discussion about the lesson with the teacher.

**Informal discussion**

Each observation session was immediately followed by an informal discussion with the teacher. In this discussion, any issues or questions that emerged from the observations were clarified. This could only take ten to fifteen minutes due to constraints on the teachers’ time. During the discussions, the teachers also commented on the plans that guided their lessons and how they assessed the students’ writing products that were collected at the end of the observation.

**Writing samples**

The students’ writing samples were collected at the end of each observed lesson. These samples were selected by the teacher. There were 90 writing samples collected altogether. These samples were photocopied and returned to the teachers. Each teacher was invited to comment on selected writing samples and explain their assessment process during the informal discussion when the time permitted.

**Interview**

The recorded semi-structured interviews were conducted with the ten teachers whose classes had been observed. The interviews took place one week after the fourth observation as it was not possible to do it earlier due to constraints on the teachers’ time. Before the interview began, the researcher assured participants of full confidentiality and anonymity. This was then conducted in one-to-one meetings held in a room at the school, designated by the teachers. The teachers were asked questions concerning the writing lessons that had been observed. This included identifying intended outcomes and how the lessons related to their interpretation of the KTSP. They were asked to comment further on their students’ writing samples and to describe how they assessed these and writing in general. They were encouraged to use their lesson plans and syllabus as part of the discussion to exemplify their comments. They were also asked to elaborate on particular aspects of the questionnaire completed in Phase 1 of the study (see Appendix C: Interview protocol).
4.4.4 Phase 2 - Data analysis

Data from classroom observations, informal discussion and interviews were organised according to each of the three research questions and analysed through the identification of re-occurring themes. This method was used as it enabled patterns within data to be identified and analysed (Creswell, 2005; Miles & Huberman, 1994). Themes in this study were recognised through the identification of key words and the patterns that emerged were coded and categorised. The documents, including the teachers’ syllabus, lesson plans and the students’ writing products, were also analysed thematically. This initial thematic analysis of each data source constituted the primary and secondary levels of analysis. In the primary stage, each data source for each participant was analysed thematically. In the secondary phase, these data were inter-related and further analysed to show patterns across the group. In the final tertiary stage of analysis, the data from all sources were examined and further categorised to reveal those factors which impacted on the participants’ interpretation and implementation of the KTSP in the context of Y2 writing.

4.4.5 Phase 2 – Trustworthiness in qualitative research

In conducting qualitative research, it is very important for researchers to ensure that their findings and interpretation are valid and accurate (Creswell, 2005). Therefore, this study determined the accuracy and credibility of the findings through two strategies. They were triangulation and member checking (Cresswell, 2005). The triangulation process was conducted by corroborating evidence from different methods of data collection such as the questionnaire, observations, interviews, and document analysis. This process, according to Cresswell (2005), ensures the accuracy of the findings as the information is drawn from multiple sources. The second strategy, member checking, refers to a process in which one or more participants in the study check the accuracy of the findings or interpretation of them (Cresswell, 2005). In this study, seven participants were available for member checking and were given a summary of the findings. They were asked whether the findings reflected their opinions and whether the interpretation was fair and representative. They reported that both the findings and interpretation matched with their situation.

4.5 Reporting Findings from Quantitative and Qualitative Data

This study used a mixed method design that combined quantitative and qualitative data collection. A mixed method design allows researchers to be creative
in presenting their findings in a way that is considered best to communicate meaning (Leech, 2012). Therefore, for this study, results from the analysis of data collected through the quantitative and qualitative methods are presented in two different sections. The quantitative data is presented first, followed by the qualitative data, as suggested by Leech (2012) as a means of clearly describing each set of findings. These two sets of data were examined further to identify common themes across all the data, in relation to the research questions and presented as the main findings, in a single discussion chapter. Finally, the key issues which emerged from the cross data analysis are presented at the end of the discussion chapter.

4.6 Ethical Considerations

Before the data collection was conducted, the researcher obtained permission from all the parties involved. First, ethics clearance was obtained from the Human Research Ethics Committee at Edith Cowan University. Second, permission to conduct the research in Makassar City was obtained from both the Local Department of Education and the Local Government of Makassar City, Indonesia. These three letters of approval were then used to seek consent from the principals of the selected schools to involve Y2 teachers and their students in this study. Next, permission from the participating Y2 teachers and students was obtained. Finally, consent from the parents of the children involved in Phase 2 of the study was received.

4.7 Summary of the Chapter

This study investigated Y2 teachers’ interpretation and implementation of the KTSP in relation to teaching writing. This included the teachers’ interpretation of the key concepts of the KTSP in relation to writing; their actual implementation of the new curriculum in the classroom; and factors which influenced that interpretation and implementation. In order to provide a clear description and to capture complex phenomenon, the study employed a mixed method research design which combined the collection and analysis of quantitative and qualitative data. The quantitative method used a questionnaire to collect data and the qualitative method included classroom observations, informal discussions at the end of each observed lesson, interviews, and document analysis. The instruments used to collect the data were treated in a manner that met the reliability and validity requirements of research instruments as suggested by relevant literature. The data collected were analysed
using primary, secondary and tertiary thematic analysis. The results of these three levels of analysis are presented in the following chapters.
CHAPTER 5
Results from the Quantitative Data

5.1 Introduction

This chapter reports the results from Phase 1 of the study based on data collected through a questionnaire, the instrument used to survey the participants. The data were analysed to address each of the three research questions.

1. How do teachers interpret the KTSP in relation to teaching writing to Y2 students?
2. How do teachers implement the KTSP in teaching writing to Y2 students?
3. What factors influence teachers’ interpretation and implementation of the KTSP in teaching writing to Y2 students?

5.2 Results

The questionnaire was divided into five sections, and the results from it are reported under these five sections. The first section presents the participating teachers’ demographic information. The second focuses on information about the teachers’ workplaces and the in-class teaching assistance they had received to help implement the KTSP. The third section reports the year the teachers started to implement the KTSP, the preparation they had undertaken before implementing the KTSP and the professional development they had received. The fourth section describes the implementation of teachers’ writing programs in relation to the KTSP while the final section reports the teachers’ interpretation of the KTSP.

5.2.1 Demographic information on participating teachers

This study involved 61 Y2 teachers from 29 primary schools in Makassar City, the capital of South Sulawesi, one of provinces in Eastern Indonesia. All the teachers in the study completed and returned the questionnaires providing a 100% return rate. The demographic information concerning these teachers is presented in Tables 4 to 6. Table 4 below shows the distribution of the teachers by gender.
Table 4

Gender Distribution of Teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Of the 61 teachers, 95% were female and only 5% were male. This disproportion of female to male teachers is typical in Indonesia and in the province of South Sulawesi particularly where there are more female than male teachers (Pusat Statistik Pendidikan, 2008).

Apart from gender, the teachers were asked to indicate their highest qualification. The level of qualification is described in the following table and may be an indicator of teachers’ readiness to undertake curriculum change and their knowledge of current pedagogical perspectives on teaching and learning.

Table 5

Teachers’ Highest Qualification

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Qualification</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Highest qualification</td>
<td>Teacher Education School (SPG)</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Diploma two in Education (D2 PGSD)</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bachelor of Education (S1)</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table above indicates that almost half of the teachers (49%) held a Diploma Two in education, over a third of them (38%) had a bachelor degree in education, and eight teachers (13%) reported Teacher Education School as their highest qualification. Teacher Education School (abbreviated as SPG in Indonesia), equivalent to senior high school level and was a three year course, used to be one of the formal education institutions offering a pre-service primary school teacher education. Graduates from this school were eligible to teach at primary school level across the country. At the close of the 1980s, this type of school was closed by the
government and was replaced by a two-year diploma for pre-service primary school teachers. This diploma qualification then became the minimum requirement for a prospective primary school teacher. However, a new regulation in 2005 set a bachelor degree in education as the minimum requirement. This regulation also required in-service teachers to up-grade their qualification to bachelor degree level by 2015.

This proportion of teachers’ highest qualification is representative of what is typical in Indonesia and in the province especially (Pusat Statistik Pendidikan, 2008). Despite their level of qualification, all teachers had received formal training in primary teacher education.

Teachers were asked about their teaching experience both in primary school and as Y2 teachers. Teaching experience may have an impact on their willingness and ability to undertake curriculum change. For example, those teachers who had been teaching for over 11 years when the data for this study was collected in 2009 may have had experience of change in relation to the KBK, which was introduced in 2000/2001. Table 6 below documents their responses.

Table 6

Teachers’ Experience in Teaching

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teaching experience in primary school</td>
<td>1-3 yrs</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4-6 yrs</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7-10 yrs</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>+ 11 yrs</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experience in teaching Year 2</td>
<td>1-3 yrs</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4-6 yrs</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7-10 yrs</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>+ 11 yrs</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 6 indicates that teachers’ experience in teaching in primary schools varied. Thirty-four percent had 1-3 years teaching experience, 18% had 4-6 years, and 10% had 7-10 years. The remainder, 38%, had taught at primary schools for 11 years or more.

Despite the teachers’ varying lengths of teaching experience in primary schools, the majority of them (72%) had only taught Y2 for between 1-3 years. Thirteen percent reported they had between 4 to 6 years teaching experience in Y2, and 7% had taught this level for between 7 to 10 years. Eight percent of the teachers reported having taught Y2 students for 11 years or more.

5.2.2 The workplace of the participating teachers

Tables 7 to 10 below report information about the workplace of the teachers. This includes the number of Y2 classes in the teachers’ schools, their class sizes, the age range of their students and whether or not they had teaching assistants in their classes. All these factors were important as each one may impact on the teachers’ interpretation and implementation of the KTSP.

Table 7 below shows the number of Y2 classes teachers had in their schools. It shows that over three quarters of teachers reported having more than one Y2 class in their school, while just under a quarter had only one. The number of Y2 classes in the school was important as it indicates the potential opportunity for teachers to discuss the KTSP with other Y2 teachers in their school.

Table 7
*The Number of Y2 Classes in Teachers’ School*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The number of Y2 classes in</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>teachers’ schools</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>61</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The teachers were asked to report the size of their classes and their responses are reported in Table 8 below. The table shows that the class sizes were generally
large in relation to Australian class sizes. Almost half of the teachers (44%) reported having between 36 to 40 students in their class while 22% of teachers reported having more than 40. Only eleven teachers indicated they had less than 30 and ten stated they had between 31 to 35 students. This was potentially important because class size may have a significant impact on the implementation of the KTSP given the nature of the new pedagogy it promotes.

**Table 8**

*Class Size*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The number of children in teachers’ classes</td>
<td>&lt;30</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>31-35</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>36-40</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>41-45</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>46-49</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Teachers were asked to quantify the age ranges of the students in their Y2 classes. Table 9 below shows that the majority of students were between 7 and 8 years old. Some of the older students in these classes may have been repeating Year 2 as repeating year levels is relatively common in Indonesia. School education in Indonesia, according to Government Regulation Number 47, 2008, is compulsory from the age of seven to fifteen. However, children can commence primary school at the age of 6 if the designated schools have room for them; this was the case of the students in this study.

**Table 9**

*Age Range of the Children in Teachers’ Y2 Classes*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Age in years</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The age range of the children</td>
<td>7-8</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8-9</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

89
The questionnaire sought information about the availability of support staff to assist the teachers in writing lessons. Access to teaching support was potentially an important factor in the interpretation and implementation of the KTSP, providing teachers with extra help in discussing, interpreting and delivering the new curriculum. Table 10 below summarises the teachers’ responses.

**Table 10**

*Teaching Support*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The availability of teaching support</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Types of teaching support          | Religious Education Teacher   | 7         | 47 |
|                                    | Physical Education Teacher    | 4         | 27 |
|                                    | Teacher Trainee               | 4         | 27 |
|                                    | Total                         | 15        | 100|

Three quarters of the teachers (75%) reported having no teaching support in their class while a quarter did. However, these teachers associated support with specialist teachers who came to deliver particular subjects such as religious studies and physical education. Out of these 15 teachers who reported having assistance: 47% nominated religious education teachers as their teaching support; 27% physical education teachers; and 27% had teacher trainees located periodically in their schools, as providing them with assistance. Although some of these teachers may have included writing in their teaching, they were not identified as supporting the teachers in their writing lessons.

**5.2.3 The timing of the implementation of the KTSP and preparation teachers had undertaken to implement it**

The data in this section, presented in Tables 11 to 15, reports the year teachers implemented the KTSP in relation to teaching writing. The data also give information about the preparation teachers had undertaken and the professional development they had received to support KSTP implementation.
Teachers were asked to note the year in which they started to implement the KTSP. The length of time they had been implementing the KTSP at the time of this study may have an impact on their interpretation and implementation of the changes it recommended. As indicated in Table 12, most of the teachers had started to implement the KTSP in their writing lessons before it was compulsory; that is before 2009. Twenty-eight percent of teachers reported having started the implementation in 2006, the year the curriculum was first introduced. Another 28% began to implement it in 2007 and 34% in 2008. Of the 61 teachers, only 10% had started to implement the KTSP in 2009.

Table 11

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year of Implementation</th>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The year the KTSP was implemented</td>
<td>2006</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2007</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2008</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2009</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Information was sought about the teachers’ preparation for the KTSP, including whether or not they prepared it by themselves and the approaches they took. The KTSP in this context refers to the syllabus which is related directly to the writing teaching and learning processes in the teachers’ classrooms. The nature of the collaboration with other teachers and the approach they took to preparing their syllabus may potentially influence teachers’ interpretation and implementation of the new curriculum. Their responses to the question about collaboration is reported in Table 12 and shows that over half did not prepare the KTSP by themselves, while 43% undertook preparation independently.
Table 12

*Teachers’ Preparation of the KTSP*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teachers prepare the KTSP by themselves</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To ascertain more about their preparation of the KTSP, the teachers were asked follow up questions about the range of approaches they took for this. The responses showed the two groups identified in the preceding table seemed to employ some of the same strategies but perceived them differently as indicated in the following table.

Table 13

*Teachers’ Approaches to Preparing the KTSP*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>If teachers prepared the KTSP syllabus by themselves, how they prepared it.</td>
<td>Adapting the government prepared syllabus</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Copying the government prepared syllabus</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Creating their own syllabus</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Preparing through collaboration</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If teachers did not prepare the KTSP syllabus by themselves, how they prepared it.</td>
<td>Copying the government prepared syllabus</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Adapting the government prepared syllabus</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Internal school collaboration.</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>External school collaboration.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>All of the above</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Of the 26 teachers who prepared the KTSP by themselves, 42% reported that they had adapted the model of the syllabus prepared by the government and published in the Curriculum Guidelines. The remainder prepared their syllabus by
copying that provided by the government (27%), creating their own (23%) or collaborating with other Y2 teachers in the same school (8%).

Those teachers who reported not preparing the KTSP by themselves responded in very similar ways. Of the 35 teachers in this category, slightly more than a third reported copying the material prepared by the government, while slightly under a third adapted the prepared curriculum (32%). Almost a third reported some form of collaboration; 20% reported collaborating with other Y2 teachers from other schools, and 11% reported collaborating with other Y2 teachers in the same school. One teacher reported using all of the strategies mentioned above.

A further question asked the teachers about the professional development (PD) attended, as PD has been found to be an important factor in supporting the interpretation and implementation of curriculum change. It was possible that teachers had attended PD explaining the KTSP in general, but with little or no reference to specific subjects. Therefore, teachers were asked about the nature of the PD they attended. The question concerning PD was divided into two categories, asking: whether the teachers had attended PD which focused on general information about the KTSP; and/or whether the PD focused on information specific to literacy subjects in the KTSP. Their responses are presented in the following table.
Table 14

**Professional Development**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Professional development attended about the KTSP</th>
<th>General Information about the KTSP</th>
<th>Literacy Subjects in the KTSP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Option</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of times the teachers had attended professional development about the KTSP</th>
<th>General Information about the KTSP</th>
<th>Literacy Subjects in the KTSP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Option</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 x</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 x</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 x</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+4</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The length of time taken by the professional development about the KTSP attended by the teachers</th>
<th>General Information about the KTSP</th>
<th>Literacy Subjects in the KTSP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Option</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>½ day</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 day</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 days</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;3 days</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The usefulness of the professional development about the KTSP attended by the teachers</th>
<th>General Information about the KTSP</th>
<th>Literacy Subjects in the KTSP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Option</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not very useful</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quite useful</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very useful</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 14 indicates that almost all of the teachers had attended PD related to general information about the KTSP, which indicates that most of them (95%) had
been informed about the new curriculum. However, fewer teachers (54%) had attended PD related to literacy subjects in the KTSP.

Regarding the length of the PD attended, the data showed that the majority of teachers had attended a half or one day PD sessions, either providing general information about the KTSP or information related to literacy subjects in the KTSP. With regard to the usefulness of the PD attended, most of the teachers found these sessions very useful as indicated in Table 14.

Teachers were also asked to indicate who organized the PD attended. These providers included the Department of Education, their school, universities, other schools, publishers and a range of others. The teachers’ responses are shown in Table 15.

**Table 15**

*The Organiser of the Professional Development about the KTSP*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The Organiser of the Professional Development about the KTSP</th>
<th>General Information about the KTSP</th>
<th>Literacy Subjects in the KTSP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Option</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dept. of education</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Own school</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Universities</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other schools</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Publishers</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Miscellaneous</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

No. of teachers = 61

Table 15 shows clearly that the majority of the PD sessions attended by the teachers (86%), either related to general information or literacy subjects in the KTSP, was delivered by the Department of Education. The data also indicate that some of the teachers’ schools had taken the initiative by conducting their own PD.

5.2.4 Teachers’ writing program

Tables 16 to 21 report the teachers’ responses to questions about their writing program in relation to the KTSP. Teachers were asked about their implementation of the KTSP in relation to teaching writing and the factors thought to influence their
interpretation and implementation. The aspects which the teachers were asked to comment on included:

a. The implementation of a thematic approach to writing in their classroom;
b. Types of learning resources they used to teach writing;
c. Key changes they had made to help implement the KTSP in writing lessons;
d. Most helpful aspects of the KTSP for them in teaching writing;
e. Most difficult aspects of the KTSP for them in teaching writing; and,
f. Anything that they thought would assist them in implementing the KTSP.

This information was mostly sought through open-ended questions which allowed the teachers to expand upon their answers. These responses were thematically analyzed and the different categories which emerged are reported in the relevant tables. The teachers’ responses to closed-ended questions are reported according to the options chosen. The results from the analysis of each question are presented in the following six sections. Interpretations of these findings are discussed in Chapter 7.

A. The implementation of a thematic approach to writing in teachers’ classrooms

The first question in this section was a closed question, asking whether or not the teachers had implemented a thematic approach in their writing lessons. Their responses are presented in the following table.

Table 16
The Use of a Thematic Approach in Writing Lessons

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table indicates that nearly all of the teachers reported having implemented a thematic approach in their writing lessons as suggested by the KTSP; only 3% claimed not to have done so.
B. Types of learning resources teachers used to teach writing

The second question in this section was an open-ended question, asking participants to list the types of learning resources they used to support the implementation of the KTSP in writing lessons. Their responses are reported in Table 17.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Various teaching aids for low level skills of writing</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Textbooks</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Children’s literature</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environment</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>114</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

No. of teachers = 61

The table shows that teachers provided 114 responses; these were grouped into four categories. The most commonly used learning resources listed were various teaching aids that focused on low level writing skills (95%). These included letter cards designed for students to copy, pictures and handwriting workbooks. Another common response referred to the use of thematic textbooks, based on the KTSP (69%). Some teachers reported using children’s literature such as poetry books and storybooks for children (13%). In addition, a small number (10%) of teachers reported using the environment as a learning resource to help implement the KTSP in writing lessons.

C. Key changes teachers have made to implement the KTSP in writing

The next question was open-ended asking teachers to identify key changes they had made to implement the KTSP in writing. The following table reports their responses.
### Table 18

**Key Changes Made to Implement the KTSP in Writing**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The use of various teaching aids to teach low level skills of writing</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The use of various methods to promote active learning</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The use of different forms of teaching documents</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The use of a thematic approach</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The use of the environment to generate ideas for writing</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>77</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

No. of teachers = 61

Over a third of teachers (36%) reported that a key change they had made to implement the KTSP in writing was to use various teaching aids to teach the secretarial aspects of writing, including handwriting, spelling and simple punctuation such as full stops and capital letters. For example, all of the teachers in this category claimed that, as a result of implementing the KTSP in writing, they now used a range of teaching aids to teach handwriting lessons. The following comment exemplifies those made by this group of participants: “Since I implemented the KTSP in writing, I have used various teaching aids such as letter cards, especially when teaching students to write neatly.”

The second most common response related to the use of various methods of teaching to promote active learning (31%). Most of the comments in this category were general. For example, one teacher commented: “I implemented various active methods that make students active in writing class.” A few teachers wrote a more specific comment, such as: “Since I implemented the KTSP in writing, I make my students active; for example, by practicing their handwriting, by copying poems, or by writing about their daily activities.” Other comments related to active learning which involved student interaction in groups or pairs. For instance, one teacher said: “I use different kinds of active learning, such as I ask the students to work in groups or to work in pairs.”

Some teachers (30%) considered a key change they had made was to use different forms of curriculum documents such as the syllabus and lesson plans. One of them, for example, claimed: “I think the most key changes I made were the use of
a different syllabus and different lesson plans which incorporated different competencies from the previous curriculum.”

Almost a quarter of the teachers included the use of a thematic approach as one of the key changes they had made. Within this category, one teacher claimed: “Using a thematic approach is a key change I made because the new curriculum policies expect teachers to use a thematic approach from Year 1 to Year 3.” Another participant said: “Implementing a thematic approach is a key change I made after I implemented the KTSP although I don’t integrate writing with other subjects in a thematic approach very often.”

Four teachers (7%) considered the use of the environment as a resource for learning as a key change they had made. The comments made in this category were very general such as: “As a result of implementing the KTSP, I used the environment as a learning resource to help my students generate ideas.”

D. Most helpful aspects of the KTSP for teachers in teaching writing

The teachers were asked to report on what they had found most helpful about the KTSP in teaching writing. The analysis of their responses identified five categories which are reported in the following table (Table 19).

Table 19

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Most Helpful Aspects of the KTSP for Teaching Writing</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The use of active methods to teach low level skills of writing</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competency-based outcomes</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The use of various teaching aids to teach low level skills of writing</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thematic approach</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The use of various textbooks to implement KTSP</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>76</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

No. of teachers = 61

Table 19 shows that out of 61 teachers, almost half (48%) reported to have found active learning to be most helpful as a means of teaching low level skills of writing. Many of the comments in this category were specific, for example, the following quote typifies many of the comments: “Active methods which the KTSP
suggests should be used when implementing the KTSP in writing are helpful for me in teaching aspects of writing, such as handwriting or punctuation."

Over a quarter of teachers (28%) considered their familiarity with the competence-based nature of the KTSP as the most helpful aspect. Within this category, a typical comment was: “The KTSP is competency-based, similar to the KBK, so it is quite familiar.” Another comment was; “It is very helpful that the KTSP is a competency curriculum so when teaching writing, teachers already know what students need to achieve.”

Almost a quarter of teachers (23%) noted the use of various teaching aids in teaching low level skills of writing as the most helpful aspect. The following comment made by a teacher in this category exemplifies this: “Using different teaching aids for writing is very helpful to teach students to write neatly.”

Eleven (18%) of the teachers reported to have found the thematic approach to be the most helpful aspect of the KTSP. One teacher whose comment was apt in this category stated: “The thematic approach which is recommended in the KTSP is very helpful as teachers could relate writing to other subjects through a theme.” Another teacher commented that: “Under the KTSP, a thematic approach is very helpful to teach contextually.”

A small number of teachers (5%) nominated the use of various textbooks as most helpful. One of these teachers claimed that: “A textbook helps teachers teach to meet the competency in the KTSP.” Another one said: “Textbooks provided activities to implement the KTSP in writing.”

E. Most difficult aspects of the KTSP for teachers in teaching writing

In another open-ended question, teachers were asked to comment on the most difficult aspect of the KTSP in relation to teaching writing. Their responses were categorized and are presented in the following table.
Table 20

*Most Difficult Aspect of the KTSP in Teaching Writing*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Implementing a thematic approach</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using various methods to teach low level skills of writing</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student factors</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Implementing an active method</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No major difficulties</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time allocation to teach writing</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Choosing relevant materials to be taught</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>70</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

No. of teachers = 61

The two most cited aspects of teaching writing identified by the teachers as difficult were the implementation of a thematic approach and using various methods to teach low level skills of writing. Each of these aspects was identified by over a quarter of teachers (28%).

Within the first category, the majority of the teachers made general comments such as: “*I really find implementing a thematic approach, including teaching writing, is very difficult.*” Some teachers made specific comments, such as the following example, about their difficulties: “*It is difficult to implement it. It is still not clear how to do it and how to assess individual learning areas.*” Another teacher commented: “*It is problematic for me to implement it as I am still confused about to which subject I should give priority and what theme to use.*”

Regarding the second category, using various methods to teach writing, the majority of comments referred to difficulties in teaching low level skills of writing. In other words, these teachers reported they found it difficult to use a variety of methods to teach hand writing and punctuation. For example, a typical comment was: “*I don’t know how to teach using various methods, especially in teaching handwriting.*”

In the next category, 13 teachers (21%) perceived student factors as the greatest obstacle for them in implementing the KTSP in teaching writing. One
teacher stated: “My students seem to have low motivation, I asked them to be actively involved in practicing writing, but they don’t seem interested.” Others made comments such as: “My students have low reading ability and poor handwriting so this is problematic when implementing the KTSP in writing lessons.”

Eleven teachers (18%) claimed that they found the active method in teaching writing difficult to implement. Within this category, all the teachers made general comments such as: “I do not know how to teach active learning in writing.” Four teachers (7%) argued that insufficient time was allocated to teaching writing. One teacher, for example, commented: “Sometimes I do not cover everything I plan to teach because the allocated time to teach writing is not enough.”

Finally, two teachers (3%) reported difficulty in finding relevant materials to use in teaching. They claimed there were not sufficient materials related to their context.

Six teachers (10%) claimed to have no major difficulties in implementing the KTSP in teaching writing. One commented: “I have attended several training sessions about the KTSP, so have no major difficulties in implementing it, including in writing.” Another commented: “The KTSP is competency-based like the KBK, so it is not really difficult to implement it in any subjects.”

F. Support that will assist teachers in implementing the KTSP

The final open-ended question relating to KTSP implementation in writing asked teachers to identify support that would assist them in implementation. Their responses are reported in the following table (see Table 21).
Table 21

Support for Teachers to Implement the KTSP in Writing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Training</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Various teaching aids</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>External support</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The availability of relevant textbooks</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The availability of sample of supporting documents</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>152</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

No. of teachers = 61

The most common support needed, according to the teachers, was training. The majority of them in this category commented that they had not received training about specific teaching methods recommended in the KTSP or had little understanding of active learning, a thematic approach and/or the use of various innovative methods in literacy teaching. Therefore they considered training as the support they needed most to help them implement the KTSP in writing (82%). Common comments in this category, for example, were: “I have not received any training in active learning or a thematic approach. I need specific training on how to implement them.” Others wrote: “Comprehensive training on a thematic approach will be very useful to support my implementation of the KTSP in literacy, including writing.”

Next, almost two-thirds of teachers (64%) reported that the availability of various teaching aids would assist them in implementing the KTSP in relation to teaching writing, especially teaching handwriting. These included letter cards and pictures. One teacher commented: “The availability of letter cards and pictures would be helpful for me to teach handwriting.”

Just over half of the teachers (51%) stated that external assistance, such as from their school, colleagues and parents supported their implementation of the KTSP. For example, several teachers stated: “Our school can assist us by providing relevant materials.” Others made comments such as: “Parents could support us implement the KTSP by helping children at home with homework.” Another comment
in this category was: “Other teachers who have attended training from the government could support us by sharing their knowledge.”

Almost a third of teachers (31%) noted that the availability of textbooks, particularly thematic textbooks, as a resource that would assist them in implementing the KTSP in writing. One teacher claimed: “It would be very helpful to implement the KTSP in every subject if various relevant textbooks are available.” Another one commented: “Various relevant textbooks that incorporated the competencies we need to meet in literacy subjects, and a range of interesting activities would very much support the implementation of the KTSP.” Other comments similarly reported: “The availability of textbooks with a thematic approach would be very helpful.” Thirteen teachers (21%) listed the availability of samples of supporting documents as being greatly helpful to implementation of the KTSP. These included a syllabus and lesson plans. One teacher wrote: “Samples of a syllabus and lesson plans would assist me to prepare mine to implement the KTSP in writing.”

5.2.5 The teachers’ interpretation of the KTSP

The data in this section focus on the teachers’ interpretation of some of the key concepts of the KTSP. As stated in the previous chapter, the scope of this study was limited to the implementation of the KTSP in a specific curriculum area. Therefore, the teachers’ interpretation of the KTSP was related to six key concepts outlined in the Curriculum Policies and Curriculum Guidelines in relation to the teaching of writing. These six key concepts were:

1. student-centred learning;
2. active learning;
3. the role of the teacher as a facilitator;
4. students’ interaction as a means of promoting learning;
5. assessment for learning; and,
6. a thematic approach to learning.

In this section of the questionnaire, the teachers were asked to describe, in their own words, their interpretation of the six concepts outlined above. The teachers were asked to complete a response to the following six statements about each of the above concepts from the KTSP:
a. To me, student-centred in writing activities means:
b. To me, active learning in writing activities means:
c. To me, teacher as a facilitator in writing activities means:
d. To me, interaction in writing activities means:
e. To me, assessment in writing activities means:
f. To me, a thematic approach in writing activities means:

As this section of the questionnaire was administered in an open-ended question format, it was possible for the participants to give more than one answer. In parallel with the open-ended questions in the previous section, the responses from the questions in this section were also analysed by first collating the responses under each question heading. The responses then were coded into categories based on the recurrent themes, identified by key words that emerged from the teachers’ responses. The responses to each concept are presented in the following six sections. The discussion of these results is presented in Chapter 7: Discussion.

A. Interpretation of student-centred in writing activities

Table 22 summarises teachers’ interpretation of student-centred writing activities. The one hundred and one responses were grouped into the four categories of how teachers interpreted student-centred learning as students being: active learners; students engaged in low level skills of writing; teachers acting as facilitators of learning; and students constructing their own knowledge.

Table 22

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers’ Interpretation of Student-Centred Writing Activities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>responses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students as active learners</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students engage in low level skills of writing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher as a facilitator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students as constructors of knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequency %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51   84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31   51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15   25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4    7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>101  100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

No. of teachers = 61

The majority of the teachers interpreted the concept of student-centred learning as students being active (84%). Within this category, their interpretations
ranged from general to specific. The majority of the teachers defined this term in
general as: “The focus is on students who actively participate in the lesson.” A
number of teachers were more specific, for example, claiming that: “Student-centred
in writing means that students should actively participate in writing activities such as
practicing handwriting.” Some teachers also wrote that student-centred writing
means that students should be actively listening to their teachers.

The table also shows that just over half of the teachers related student-
centredness to activities concerned with students’ abilities to produce low level skills
of writing. Some teachers, for example, stated: “Student-centredness means students
should write using neat handwriting and correct handwriting.” Others noted:
“Students could copy poems and stories from the textbook in beautiful handwriting
with correct punctuation.”

A quarter of teachers associated student-centredness in writing with teachers
as facilitators. For example, teachers’ comments from this category included the
following: “Student-centred in writing activities mean that teachers guide the
students in writing and provide writing tasks” and “Student-centred in writing
activities mean that teachers should facilitate students in writing activities.”

A small percentage of teachers interpreted student-centredness in writing as
knowledge construction. These teachers generally defined this concept as students
construct their own knowledge.

B. Interpretation of active learning in writing activities

The teachers’ responses related to their interpretation of the concept of active
learning in relation to the KTSP are presented in Table 23. There were 88 responses
which were grouped into six categories through thematic analysis.
### Table 23

*Teachers’ Interpretation of Active Learning in Writing*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Interaction between teachers and students and among students</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Active participation in practicing low level skills of writing</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher-directed teaching</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher as a model and a facilitator</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Integrating writing with other subjects</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students as constructors of knowledge</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>88</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Number of teachers = 61

As shown in the table above, twenty-six (43%) of the 61 teachers interpreted active learning in writing as a learning process which involves interactions between teachers and students and among students. Within this category, most of the teachers made a similar comment about active learning, stating that active learning in the teaching of writing is about teachers allowing a large amount of interaction between teachers and students in the classroom. The majority of these teachers interpreted interaction as the teacher giving instructions to students and students carrying out those instructions stating they gave writing tasks with students carrying them out. Some teachers indicated active learning to mean students work with other students in writing activities under the teachers’ direction.

Twenty four teachers (39%) understood active learning to be students actively practicing the low level writing skills in the classroom. The following quotes exemplify this category: “Students actively copy text from a textbook to practice their handwriting, students actively practice handwriting and the use of capital letters through copying, and students actively improve their handwriting by writing their activities based on the theme given.”

Almost a third of teachers (31%) interpreted active learning in writing as teacher-directed teaching. Some teachers, for example, affirmed that active learning in writing occurred when teachers directed the students in what to write and how to write. Others reported active learning as teachers explaining the task and then giving the same writing tasks to students to complete individually.
Twelve teachers (20%) associated active learning as the teacher acting as a facilitator. In this category, all teachers gave general definitions such as: “Active learning is a learning process where teachers facilitate and guide writing lesson.”

Five teachers (8%) claimed active learning to mean integrating writing activities with other subjects. These participants remarked that active learning involves the integration of writing with other subjects such as science and social studies.

Two teachers (3%) stated active learning to be students constructing their own knowledge. They noted that teachers should encourage students to write critically and construct their own understanding.

C. Interpretation of teacher as facilitator in writing activities

Teachers were also asked a specific question regarding their interpretation of the role of the teachers under the KTSP, that is, as a facilitator of learning in writing lessons. Their responses are presented in the following table.

Table 24

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers’ Interpretation of Teachers as Facilitators of Writing</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teachers should guide students</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers should focus on low level skills of writing</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers should provide students with information</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers should direct learning</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>88</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

No. of teachers = 61

Table 24 shows that there were 88 responses regarding teachers’ interpretation of a teacher’s role as a facilitator. These fell into four categories. Over two thirds (69%) of the 61 teachers interpreted this term to mean teachers as guides. Within this category, general comments were made: “Teachers as a facilitator in writing to me means that teachers should guide and facilitate students to write.” However, most comments were more specific, such as: “Teachers should guide students to write to achieve the goals of the course” and “teachers facilitate and guide students to write neatly and beautifully.”
Nearly one third of teachers (31%) interpreted the role, teacher as facilitator as teachers focusing on low level writing skills. For example, the following comment exemplified this category: “Teacher as a facilitator in writing means that teachers should focus their teaching on handwriting, capital letters and the use of full stops in a sentence.”

Almost a quarter of teachers (23%) interpreted the role of teacher as facilitator as teachers providing students with information or being a source of information. For example, comments in this category included: “Teacher as a facilitator means that they become a learning resource that provides information to students” and “As a facilitator, teachers are responsible for giving relevant materials to their students as they are the source of information.”

Thirteen (21%) teachers interpreted this term as teacher-directed teaching in writing classes. For example, one of them opined: “As facilitators, teachers should teach how to write, give writing tasks to students and then ask the students to practice.” Another teacher commented: “Being a facilitator, a teacher determines what to teach and then explains the lesson so that students can understand it well.”

D. Interpretation of student interaction in writing activities

Another key concept of the KTSP that the teachers were asked to interpret was students’ interaction in writing. Their responses which are grouped into three categories are presented in Table 25 below.

**Table 25**

*Teachers’ Interpretation of Students’ Interaction in Writing*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher-directed writing activities</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students work with other students</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Focus is on low level skills of writing</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>71</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

No. of teachers = 61

More than half of the teachers interpreted students’ interaction in writing as teacher-directed activities (62%). The following quote exemplifies this category: “Interaction in writing means that teachers explain the writing activities that will be
done, students ask questions and then practise.” Another group of comments simply appeared to imply interaction as the teacher giving the students instructions. These comments are reflected in the following quotation from a teacher’s response: “Interaction means students do writing assignments given by the teacher.”

Twenty-two teachers (36%) seemed to understand interaction in writing as students working with other students. For example, one teacher commented that “Interaction means students discuss and share their writing.” Others stated that “Interaction in writing involves group work or pair work where students do their writing task together.”

Eleven teachers (18%) understood interaction in writing as interaction in the classroom which involves the teacher and students and focuses on low level writing skills. For example some teachers asserted: “Interaction means that students write sentences correctly that their teachers dictated using neat handwriting.” Another teacher wrote: “Interaction is about teachers writing samples on the board, and students copying them.”

E. Interpretation of assessment in writing activities

Teachers were also asked to describe their interpretation of assessment of writing in the KTSP. Their responses are summarised in Table 26.

Table 26

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers’ Interpretation of Assessment of Writing in the KTSP</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Assessing low level skills of writing</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assessing the process and the product of writing activities</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>61</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

No. of teachers = 61

Table 26 indicates that 64% of teachers understood the assessment of writing as assessing students’ handwriting and other low level skills of writing. Most of the comments emerging in this category were very specific: “Assessing students’ handwriting, assessing students’ use of capital letters, assessing students’ use of full stops” and, “Assessing student spelling through dictation.” 36% of teachers also
considered the assessment of writing in the KTSP to focus on the process and the product of writing activities. Most of the comments in this category were very general: “The assessment should focus both on the process and on the product.” There were, however, some comments which were more specific, for example: “Teachers should assess students’ involvement in the given activities, whether they actively participate in the process, and the results of their writing should also be assessed.”

F. Interpretation of a thematic approach in writing activities

To complete this section, teachers’ interpretation of a thematic approach to teaching which the KTSP recommends for the early years of primary school was sought. Their responses are presented in Table 27 below.

Table 27

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers’ Interpretation of a Thematic Approach in Writing</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Integrating writing with other subjects based on given themes</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Focusing on handwriting and low level skills of writing</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A flexible approach to writing</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>62</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

No. of teachers = 61

On the whole, the majority of teachers reported holding a similar view of a thematic approach. Eighty-five percent of the teachers stated that a thematic approach to writing means the integration of writing with other lessons based on a particular theme. Most of the comments in this category were general, such as: “A thematic approach in writing means writing is integrated with other lessons through the means of a theme.” There were some comments that offered a rationale for the approach such as: “Integrating writing with other subjects using a theme in order to establish meaningful learning.” Some teachers also noted the relationship between the competencies of writing and the integrated subject, declaring: “A thematic approach means teachers combine writing with other subjects using a theme if the expected competencies of the two different subjects are compatible with each other.”
In addition to these responses, a few teachers (8%) commented that this approach means the focus is on handwriting and other low level skills of writing. Another 8% stated that a thematic approach to writing gives flexible support because it improves students’ writing, motivates students to write and/or guides students to comprehend techniques of writing.

5.3 Summary

This chapter reported the results from Phase 1 of the study which used a questionnaire to collect quantitative data. In relation to demographic information, the results show that most of the teachers involved in this study were female and had a diploma two level of qualification in primary education. In addition, most of them had only taught in Y2 for up to 3 years although most of them had taught in a primary school for more than 4 years.

In terms of the workplace, the results show that most of the schools where the teachers taught had more than one Y2 class which indicated a potential opportunity for them to discuss the KTSP with their Y2 colleagues in their school. The results also revealed that most teachers had large classes with more than 36 students whose ages ranged from 7-8 years old. Despite the size of these classes, the results show that most of the teachers did not have teaching support to assist them.

Further, the results show that most of the teachers had started to implement the KTSP before the implementation became compulsory in 2009. However, more than half of these teachers had not prepared the KTSP syllabus by themselves, having either copied or adapted the government prepared syllabus. In addition, most of them had received PD, mostly offered by the Department of Education, to implement the KTSP.

Several findings emerged in relation to the teachers’ implementation of the KTSP in their writing lessons and the factors that influenced their interpretation and implementation. They were asked to comment on the following six factors:

a. The implementation of a thematic approach to writing in their classroom;
b. Types of learning resources they used to teach writing;
c. Key changes they had made to help implement the KTSP in writing lessons;
d. Most helpful aspects of the KTSP for them in teaching writing;
The results show that the majority of teachers reported that they had implemented a thematic approach to writing as recommended by the KTSP. Four types of learning resources were identified, with the majority of teachers claiming to use various teaching aids for low level skills of writing.

Five key changes were identified, including the use of various teaching aids and teaching methods to promote active learning, as well as the use of different forms of teaching documents. To a lesser extent, teachers identified the use of a thematic approach and the use of the environment as changes they had made.

Almost 50% of the teachers identified the use of active methods to teach low level skills of writing as one of the most helpful aspects of the KTSP for teaching writing. Other helpful aspects identified included, competency based outcomes, various teaching aids, a thematic approach and the use of textbooks. Interestingly, two of these aspects, a thematic approach and use of active methods, were also identified as two of the most difficult aspects of implementing the KTSP in writing, along with another four aspects. These were the use of various teaching methods, student factors, time and finding relevant materials.

Almost all the teachers identified training as an area of support most needed to help further implement the KTSP, along with the need for various teaching aids and external support, and to a lesser extent relevant textbooks and a sample of supporting documents.

The final section of this chapter reported the findings about the teachers’ interpretations of the key concepts. All 61 teachers responded to the relevant question concerning the six key concepts related to writing taken from the KTSP. Many teachers made more than one comment about each concept, the categories emerging ranging from two (concept of assessment) to six (concept of student-centred).

The majority of teachers interpreted concept one, student-centred learning in writing activities, as students actively participating in writing lessons. However, this was in sharp contrast to almost one third of teachers claiming that student-centred
writing was about students engaging in low level skills of writing. A quarter of the teachers commented on the role of the teacher as a facilitator of student-centred learning with just 7% interpreting this as students constructing their own knowledge.

Forty-three percent of teachers interpreted active learning in writing activities, concept two, as interaction between students and students and the teacher. Twenty percent of them saw active learning being orchestrated by the teacher as a facilitator, and yet interestingly, 39% saw active learning as students actively participating in low level skills of writing, and 31% interpreted active learning as learning directed by the teacher. Active learning was also interpreted as the way in which writing is integrated with other subjects by 8% of teachers, with 3% of teachers claiming that active learning was about students constructing knowledge.

In response to the third concept, teachers as facilitators in writing activities, just over two-thirds of the teachers interpreted this as teachers should guide writing. All the other interpretations were about teachers focusing on low level skills of writing (31%), providing students with information (23%) and directing learning (21%). Although there appears to be a subtle difference between the first category (teachers as guides) and the following three categories, further comments from teachers in the first category, suggested that the emphasis was on guiding students to produce neat hand-writing and achieving the skill-based goals of the writing program. Thus the difference between guiding and providing information/directing in the context of skill-based teaching may not be so different.

Over half of the teachers interpreted the fourth concept, interaction in writing activities as teacher directed writing activities, in which the teacher interacts with the students by telling them what to do and answering questions about the task. Conversely, over a third of teachers interpreted this concept as students working with other students in pairs or groups to discuss and share their writing task. Eighteen percent of teachers interpreted this concept as a one-way process, in which students were told what to do, with the focus on low level skills of writing.

The fifth concept, assessment in writing activities, was interpreted in two ways. Almost two thirds of the teachers interpreted this concept as assessing low level skills of writing, while just over one third wrote about assessing the process and product of writing activities. The final concept, a thematic approach to writing
activities elicited three categories. The majority of teachers interpreted this concept as *integrating writing with other subjects based on given themes*, while a small number of teachers interpreted this as *focusing on handwriting and low levels of skills of writing* (8%) and *a flexible approach to writing* (8%).

As demonstrated, the results of Phase 1 of the study were wide ranging and complex, giving insight into the teachers’ interpretation and implementation of the KTSP, while raising a number of issues about their knowledge, understanding and practices. The next chapter presents results from Phase 2 of the study which investigated qualitatively further insights into the interpretation, implementation and issues raised in Phase 1. The results from both phases are discussed in Chapter 7: Discussion.
CHAPTER 6

Results from Qualitative Methods

6.1 Introduction

This section reports the results from Phase 2 of the study. As explained in Chapter 4, ten teachers out of a possible 61 who indicated their willingness to be involved in Phase 2 of the study were chosen on the basis of their school’s sub-district and because their school’s profile matched one of the categories that represented a range of contexts and socio-economic conditions. The results were based on classroom observations of these ten teachers, informal discussion at the end of each classroom observation, document analysis which included the analysis of teachers’ syllabus, lesson plan and samples of children’s writing produced during the observations, and post-observation interviews with the teachers approximately one week after their last observation. The results from this phase of the study refined and elaborated the questionnaire results reported in the previous chapter, particularly those concerned with the teachers’ interpretation of the KTSP in relation to the teaching of writing in Y2, their actual practice in teaching writing following this interpretation, and factors which influenced their interpretation and implementation of the KTSP.

The Phase 2 results are reported in four sections. The first section briefly describes the schools and teachers that participated in this phase of the study. The second focuses on the teachers’ interpretation of the KTSP; while the third reports on their writing program in relation to the Y2 implementation. The final section identifies the factors that appear to influence the teachers’ interpretation and implementation of the KTSP.

6.2 Information on Teachers

Ten teachers, who had completed the questionnaire and agreed to take part in Phase 2 of this research, were selected from ten different schools (See page 76 for the explanation of how these teachers and their schools were selected). Table 28 provides brief background information about each of these teachers. This information was reported by them in their individual interviews and recorded using pseudonyms to protect their identity. The information included: the teachers’ highest qualification;
experience in teaching primary school and Y2; the year they started to implement the KTSP; and the related PD they had attended. As described in the previous chapter, all these factors had the potential to influence the teachers’ interpretation and implementation of the KTSP.

Table 28

*Information on Participating Teachers in Phase 2*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Highest Qualification</td>
<td>Teachers’ Vocational Schools*</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Diploma 2 in Primary Education</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bachelor Degree in Education</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experience in teaching in Primary School</td>
<td>1 – 3 yrs</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4 – 6 yrs</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7 – 10 yrs</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11+</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experience in teaching Y2</td>
<td>3 yrs</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4 yrs</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5 yrs</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7 yrs</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8 yrs</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The year of KTSP implementation</td>
<td>2007</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2008</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2009</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional development attended about the KTSP</td>
<td>PD on the KTSP in general</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PD on the KTSP in literacy subjects</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PD on a thematic approach</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PD on models of teaching suggested by the KTSP</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PD on lesson plan and syllabus development</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

No. of teachers = 10

*See page 86-87 for an explanation of the educational qualifications in Indonesia.*
Table 28 indicates that six out of the ten teachers in Phase 2 of the study held a Bachelor Degree in Education. Three graduated from Diploma 2 in primary education, and each of whom was currently studying for their bachelor degree when this research was conducted. One teacher listed Teacher Vocational School as her highest qualification.

The table also shows the teachers to have shared some similar characteristics. All of them had taught Y2 for at least 3 years and had begun to implement the KTSP before it became compulsory, although some started earlier than others. For example, three teachers commenced implementation in 2007, five in 2008 and two in 2009. Further, all of them had attended PD related to the KTSP in general. This type of professional learning included: information about the background of the KTSP, which covered all the regulations related to this curriculum; matters to consider when developing the KTSP; and the development of the syllabus and lesson plans.

Two teachers had training on the teaching and learning of literacy subjects within the KTSP and these focused on the teaching of handwriting. Two teachers reported they had attended sessions pertinent to models of teaching which reflected a student-centred approach to learning. Seven had attended workshops on a thematic approach as recommended for pedagogical use in Years 1-3 in the KTSP. In addition to this, three teachers had training which specifically focused on the preparation of a syllabus and lesson plans within the framework of the KTSP.

In addition, during their final interview, four of the teachers reported having attended PD which was delivered by the Department of Education at the provincial level. The teachers who had not attended in-service training about the KTSP delivered by the Department of Education claimed to have learnt about it from their Y2 colleagues who had been selected to attend to represent their schools. Further, all teachers in this study reported having had the opportunity to discuss the implementation of the KTSP in a Teacher Working Group (KKG). They reported that, in the KKG, they met with other Y2 teachers from different schools to discuss the implementation of the KTSP. The meetings were facilitated by a supervisor from the local education authority and allowed teachers to share the problems they had in implementing the KTSP in their classrooms.
6.3 The Teachers’ Interpretation of the KTSP in Relation to the Teaching of Writing in Y2

This section reports data related to how the teachers understood some of the key concepts of the KTSP related directly to the process of teaching writing in the classroom. The intention is to elaborate findings on the interpretation of the key concepts identified through analysis of the teachers’ returned questionnaires.

The key concepts from the KTSP, as has been stated earlier, were derived from the Curriculum Policies and Curriculum Guidelines. Altogether six key concepts were identified and these were considered as they relate to the teaching of writing in Y2. They include:

1. student-centred learning;
2. active learning;
3. the role of the teacher as a facilitator;
4. students’ interaction as a means of promoting learning;
5. assessment for learning; and
6. a thematic approach to learning.

6.3.1 Student-centredness in writing

Student-centredness is one of the key concepts of the KTSP, explicitly stated in the Curriculum Policies and Curriculum Guidelines as one of principles to be considered when schools develop and implement the KTSP. The Curriculum Guidelines state:

The curriculum (the KTSP) is developed based on the principle that learners have a central position to develop their competency in order to become spiritual, virtuous, healthy, knowledgeable, capable of doing something, creative, independent, democratic and responsible citizens. To achieve this, learners’ competency should be developed based on their potential, development, need, benefit and a demand from their environment. Thus, having a central position in this context means that learning activities are learner-centred. (Translated from BSNP, 2006, p.5)

Despite this promotion of student-centred learning, no detailed explanation of this term was found in the Curriculum Policies and the Curriculum Guidelines. Therefore, it is possible that teachers would interpret this term in different ways.
The ways in which teachers in this study appeared to understand the term ‘student-centredness’ as revealed in their interviews could be grouped into two categories. The first relates to the competencies for Y2 students which focused on low level skills of writing; and the second relates to the notion of active students.

**Student-centred learning in writing means the focus is on the competencies**

When asked about their understanding of the notion of student-centredness, seven teachers stated that they were not sure what this concept meant, as they had not attended any professional development that comprehensively discussed it. Therefore, they tried to understand the concept by focusing on the competencies their students were expected to meet. The competencies these teachers referred to focused on the low level writing skills such as handwriting and the use of capital letters and full stops.

Ria, one of the teachers who began to implement the KTSP in 2009 and had only attended a professional development session about the KTSP in general, expressed her understanding of student-centredness when interviewed:

*Frankly speaking I am not really sure about what this student-centredness means. I have not attended any training or workshop that explicitly shows or guides what it is and how to implement this in the classroom. I think if this is related to writing then it focuses on the students’ writing such as on their handwriting, how to write neatly and correctly. This is in line with the standard competencies that the students should achieve at early grades.*

This view was shared by Farah, who was studying for her bachelor degree at the time of the interview, and who had also attended the same type of professional development:

*I guess student-centredness, particularly in writing lessons, should be related to children’s handwriting; how to make them write correctly and beautifully because at Year 2, the students’ achievement focuses on this.*

Rahma, who had not attended any formal training on the KTSP, had a slightly different interpretation stating:
I do not understand it well. I just learned about the KTSP from a Year 2 teacher in my school who attended the training and from the Teachers’ Working Group. As far as I know, we have to relate it to the outcome. In this case, I always emphasise the correct use of capital letters and punctuation.

**Student-centred learning means the students are active**

Three teachers interpreted student-centredness as the state of children being active in the classroom. These teachers claimed to have attended various workshops and training sessions on the KTSP, which included information about models of learning promoting active learning. These teachers were each studying for a bachelor degree in primary education at the time of the data collection.

Mawar, who reported having participated in several workshops on the KTSP, including models of teaching and learning, described her interpretation as:

*Student-centred to me means students should be active in participating in classroom activities as requested by the curriculum. If the activities focus on writing, then students should be active in doing their task regardless of the type of tasks given.*

Similarly, Sari, who also claimed to have participated in several workshops devoted to the KTSP, stated that:

*Student-centred in writing means that students should be active in writing based on the example and the tasks given by the teacher.*

### 6.3.2 Active learning in writing

Active learning is another key concept underpinning the KTSP. During their interviews, teachers, including those who interpreted student-centredness as the state of being active in the classroom, found it difficult to define what active learning meant to them. When asked about this, they chose to express their understanding by illustrating how they encouraged their students to be active in writing lessons. These teachers reported this student activity to be fostered by giving individual or group work after an explanation had been provided and extensive rehearsal had occurred. The teachers’ examples of active learning indicated that they perceived the concept to involve students undertaking writing tasks or activities as instructed by their teacher. They noted that these included a range of activities from copying texts to
discussing writing. However, there remained a focus on the low level skills of writing. In some cases, the teachers modelled these tasks before the students were expected to do them. Some teachers also saw students sharing their writing products with their peers as part of active learning. This type of sharing usually referred to the activity where students exchanged their work with their friends in order to check each other’s answers.

During her interview, Dina, who had been teaching in primary schools for 30 years, including several in Y2, and who had attended a workshop on active learning prior to the introduction of the KTSP, expressed her understanding of this key concept as students doing what a teacher asks of them. This included students listening to texts read by the teacher, answering questions related to the text and recounting the story in their own words. She expressed these ideas in the following way:

Well to make my students active, I will normally read a text or a story first from the text book, ask them to listen and later on they will answer the questions related to the story. When they understand, I would ask them to rewrite the text or the story using their own words and with neat handwriting and I will ask them to read their story. In this process, students should be active to give a response or to do what they were asked.

Similarly, Aida saw this concept as the teacher providing tasks for the students who were deemed to be active while they completed them. She gave the following example of how she encourages her students to be active when the writing task involves copying a poem:

In order to make my students active, I need to show them first how to read a poem and explain the materials related to the poem. Then I will point to several students to read the poem in front of the class. Next, they will write the poem in their books neatly using cursive writing. If time permits, they will compose their own poem based on the theme of the whole lesson. If not, it will be their homework. In this way, it’s not only the teacher who is active but also the students.

Mawar provided the following example in her interview to illustrate her interpretation of the concept:
I stimulate their (students’) thinking by asking questions about what they do before going to school. Then they will write this down using cursive writing in their books and share with their friends. Some students will read their writing in front of the class.

Ani illustrated her understanding of active learning with an example of how she integrated science and writing. To do this, she asked her students, who were working in groups, to write sentences about energy. She stated:

To make my students active, I divided them into groups and each member of the group would write based on certain topics. Later they would discuss and select which one is the best.

In the above examples, the teachers appeared to be in control of the learning process and, therefore, dominated the structure, form and outcomes of the activities. When asked why they appeared to be dominant in directing students in the learning process, most of them stated that teachers should be active in the class. Mawar, for example, responded:

Active learning means that it is not only the students that should be active, but also the teachers. Therefore, teachers must be active in explaining first, ask questions etcetera to stimulate students’ thinking.

6.3.3 Teacher as a facilitator of writing

The KTSP requires teachers to take on the role of a facilitator of students’ learning. As with other concepts of the KTSP, the term facilitator was not defined explicitly in the Curriculum Policies or the Curriculum Guidelines. Therefore, it is possible for teachers to interpret this term in a range of ways based on their knowledge, experience and background. Despite this possibility, the results from the interviews with all ten teachers demonstrated they shared an understanding of the role of a facilitator. This shared view saw facilitating learning as related to the students’ active participation after the teacher had explained the lesson and given the task the students were required to complete. The students would then practise what they had learned by accomplishing the task.

While they all saw the proposition as students being active after the teacher has explained the lesson and provided an opportunity to practise the new learning, their approaches to "guiding/facilitating" seemed to differ a little. For instance, Nini
saw the teacher facilitating by explaining the task and then getting the students to do it by themselves. As she stated:

*Being a facilitator means it is not only the teacher who is active all the time but students must be also. Nevertheless, as teachers, we must explain the task first, and then let the students do it by themselves.*

Sari included a guiding role for the teacher when the students were working on the task. She said:

*The KTSP requires the students to be active; however, teachers first have to explain the main material to the students, show examples and then guide the students, thus acting as a facilitator.*

Ria's views seemed to emphasise practising as the application which appears to give the students less autonomy than Sari and Nini allowed. She stated that:

*Being a facilitator does not mean that it is the students who have to be active all the time. Teachers must explain first, show examples using various media to ensure that students understand and then have them practise it.*

In fact, these teachers seem to be on a continuum from Nini who says explain and then let the students do the task, to Ria who sees the task as practise or imitation of the models the teacher has shown with seemingly no student autonomy permitted.

### 6.3.4 Students’ interaction in writing

The teachers described their interpretation of interaction in writing mostly in terms of students working in groups or in pairs and discussing their writing under the guidance of the teacher. However, the meaning teachers ascribed to students discussing their writing differed. For example, one of the teachers saw discussion about writing as involving a process where first her students were instructed to answer comprehension questions from the textbook, working individually. Next, she assigned the students to small groups and asked them to compare the answers they had written in their exercise books. This interpretation is illustrated in the following quote:

*I divide my students into groups of four or five. They write and then discuss the answers to the questions from the textbook; for example about the text related to daily activities. …I will come and check and see if they need help. Later on, I will ask some of them to read their answer in front of the class.*
Other teachers asked their students to discuss their writing by exchanging work. In this case, the teachers asked each student to mark their peers’ work. After completing that process, the students would select the best work in the group to be read in front of the class. A teacher, for example described this view of interaction in the following way:

I encourage interaction in my class by giving group work to my students so they can discuss...as you saw in the observation, I read a story about a smart animal, and then I gave questions. After that, I asked the students to mark their friends’ answers. Next, they would select the best work in their group to be read in front of the class by one member of the group.

Similarly, another teacher stated that she encouraged interaction by asking students to share their writing and discuss it in pairs. However, observation in this classroom showed that this teacher saw discussion in this context as meaning that the students exchanged their work with their friends and checked each other’s work against the correct answers provided by the teacher.

There were other teachers who averred that interaction meant their students discussing their writing in a group. However, during the classroom observations little evidence was found that their students worked in groups to discuss their writing. When asked about this, these teachers confessed that they did not always divide the students into groups. They would include only group work and discussions based on the theme of the current learning and the time available.

6.3.5 Assessment in writing

Assessment is an important aspect of the KTSP. In the context of this study, the scope of assessment is limited to the teachers’ evaluation of their students’ writing. The teachers were asked about their interpretation of assessment in writing in the KTSP in the interviews using the samples of work from the observed lessons as a stimulus. The teachers’ responses indicated that they were assessing their students’ writing on the basis of the neatness of their handwriting, correct pen hold, correct letter formation, accurate spelling and the use of appropriate simple punctuation, such as full stops and capital letters in sentences. When asked about their reasons for focusing on these aspects, all the teachers contended that these features were emphasised in the Basic Competencies students should achieve in Y2 as illustrated in the following quotes:
When assessing students’ writing, I always focus on the use of capital letters, the neatness of their writing and also the spelling of the students’ words. I have to make sure that the target of the Basic Competencies stated in the curriculum is met.

I also focus on the content to see whether it is relevant to the given theme, but my main focus was on the use of capital letters, letter formation and the neatness of their handwriting as these are the main competencies they have to achieve at Y2.

Thus it appears that teachers’ interpretation of assessment in writing is strongly influenced by the competencies that students are expected to achieve in Y2.

The majority of the teachers did not comment on whether they used various methods to assess their students’ writing in general. However, two teachers mentioned portfolios, which are examples of a type of assessment suggested in the KTSP. These teachers agreed that they compiled their students’ work into portfolios with some of the writings being displayed on the wall as learning resources. Further questioning did not reveal a purpose beyond the use of a portfolio as a means of organising and storing students’ learning products. There was no evidence of the portfolio strategy being used as a means of assessing or documenting the students’ writing development.

6.3.6 A thematic approach in writing

The Curriculum Policies and Curriculum Guidelines clearly state that a thematic approach is to be encouraged in Years 1-3. The data analysis showed that all ten teachers viewed this approach as an integration of one subject with another using a theme and also the integration of language skills of speaking, listening, reading and writing. Although the responses were generally similar, there were differences. These included variation in the amount of detail provided in the description of the approach and how its purposes were viewed. As would be expected, those seven teachers who had attended a workshop on the thematic approach gave more detailed descriptions of the approach than the three who had not attended; they tended to view the approach as just an integration of more than one subject through a theme. The more detailed responses also varied in emphasis. Some of the teachers saw the purpose of a thematic approach as making the lessons more meaningful for students as is illustrated in the following quotation:
To me, a thematic approach in writing means the integration of more than one subject using a theme to make the lessons more meaningful for the students as they can see things as a whole.

Other teachers emphasised the approach as allowing them to attend to the basic competencies common to several subjects at one time through a theme saying, “A thematic approach means integrating several basic competencies from several lessons and delivered in a theme.”

Similarly, other teachers noted that the common basic competencies are the starting point for deciding which subjects can be integrated in a thematic approach:

A thematic approach means integrating writing with other lessons through a theme. But first we have to map the basic competencies of several subjects to see if they can be integrated as not all subjects can be integrated through a theme. If they cannot be integrated, each subject can be taught independently.

This section has described the interpretation of the six key pedagogical concepts identified in the KTSP, by the cohort of ten teachers involved in Phase 2 of this study. The following section examines the way in which cohort implemented their writing program in relation to the KTSP.

6.4 The Teachers’ Implementation of the KTSP in Relation to the Teaching of Writing in Y2

This section reports results which showed the manner in which teachers implemented the KTSP when teaching writing in their Y2 classrooms. The results were based on the data collected through classroom observations, informal discussion immediately after the observations, document analysis which included teachers’ syllabi and lesson plans, students’ writing samples, and post-observation interviews.

As mentioned earlier, each teacher was observed four times. However, the first observation was to enable the researcher to become familiar with the class, allow the class to become familiar with the presence of the researcher, and negotiate with the teacher the next three observations. Each teacher nominated which lessons were to be observed and all the lessons observed were guided by the teachers’ lesson plans. Each observation was followed by an informal discussion to discuss and clarify issues which emerged in the observed lesson so as to understand further teachers’ implementation of the KTSP in writing and to give each teacher the
opportunity to talk about what had been observed. A full, post-observation, semi-structured interview was conducted with each teacher after the last of the four classroom observations. The purpose of this final interview was to elaborate findings from Phase 1 of the study regarding the issues concerned with the three research questions, and to follow upon issues emerging from the observations and post-observation discussions. The data from the previous classroom observation were also used to inform the questions asked in each semi-structured interview.

The results convey information as to how the teachers implemented the KTSP and are reported in three main sections: supporting teaching documents used by the teachers; the teaching process; and assessment of writing as required by the KTSP. Supporting teaching documents in this study refers to the teachers’ syllabi and lesson plans used in the classroom. The teaching process describes teachers’ actual practices in delivering writing lessons; and, the assessment section reports how teachers assess their students’ learning.

6.4.1 Supporting teaching documents

The planning documents teachers employed provided evidence of how they implemented the curriculum that framed their teaching. The teachers in this phase of the study used a syllabus and lesson plans to support their planning and lesson delivery. All the teachers’ syllabi were developed collaboratively with colleagues and reflected some common characteristics, including a focus on the basic competencies.

The teachers explained in the interviews that they collaboratively developed their syllabus for each subject in Y2 with other teachers through a Teacher Working Group. This group, facilitated by the Department of Education, is comprised of teachers who work at the same level of schooling in the same subject area in schools located close to each other. The group worked collaboratively on different issues such the development of the syllabus, models of learning and teaching.

Based on this syllabus, the teachers then developed their lesson plans independently and took into account the particular context of their schools. Niar, for example, stated:
The syllabus I used was the product of working collaboratively with a group of teachers of Y2 from my school and other schools located close to each other. Based on the syllabus, I developed my lesson plans independently.

Similarly Mawar stated:

I used a syllabus which was developed collaboratively with other Y2 teachers in the Teacher Working Group. We developed the syllabus under the guidance of a tutor appointed by the Department of Education. I used this syllabus as a reference to develop my lesson plans in which I incorporated the context of my school.

This thesis has emphasised that teachers must refer to the Competency Standards and Basic Competencies set out by the government in the Curriculum Policies document when developing their syllabi. Teachers, however, have the freedom to determine other aspects of the syllabus such as the content, materials and learning indicators which provide evidence that students have met the competencies. The analysis of teachers’ syllabi and lesson plans in relation to writing showed that administratively, each teacher had incorporated the required Competency Standards in their syllabus and lesson plans and had developed these documents based on the format suggested by the Curriculum Guidelines. The teachers’ syllabi and lesson plans in the observed classes were structured around the Competency Standards and Basic Competencies (see Table 1, p. 26) for the teaching of writing as mandated in the Curriculum Policies.

Although Competency Standards are set for each semester, the Curriculum Policies allow flexibility for teachers to determine the sequence of Basic Competencies they want to teach. This flexibility was seen in the observed classes where some teachers focused on the Basic Competencies from semester 1 while others focused on those for semester 2. Out of 30 observations, three focused on BC 1, 17 on BC 2, two on BC 3 and eight on BC 4.

Four expected Basic Competencies must be demonstrated in writing in Y2 (see Table 29). Teachers, as mentioned earlier, are given freedom to determine learning indicators, which function as evidence, to show that students have met the expected competencies. The syllabus and lesson plans showed that all the teachers commonly translated these Basic Competencies into four learning indicators. They appeared to formulate their learning indicators by simply restating the Basic
Competencies in a slightly different way, for example, learning indicator 1, or adding basic information for learning indicator 3. Table 29 provides a typical sample of learning indicators from one of the teacher’s writing syllabus, covering two semesters.

**Table 29**

*Learning Indicators Written by Teachers as Part of Their Writing Syllabus for Semesters 1 and 2*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Basic Competencies (BC)</th>
<th>Learning Indicators</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Complete a simple story using correct word</td>
<td>Students complete simple stories using correct words</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Write simple sentences which are dictated by teachers using cursive writing by paying attention to the use of capital letters and full stops</td>
<td>Students write simple sentences correctly which are dictated by teachers using neat and legible cursive writing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Describe plants or animals in simple sentences using written language</td>
<td>Students write characteristics of animals using simple sentences with correct punctuation and neat handwriting.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Copying poems using neat cursive handwriting</td>
<td>Students copy poems using neat and legible cursive writing</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The teacher’s syllabus and lesson plans showed the learning indicators nominated to be achieved through a range of activities which included copying, dictation, completing simple sentences, answering comprehension questions and composing recounts.

During the informal discussions immediately following each observation, all teachers explained their learning indicators and the activities they used to achieve them. All of them stated that, when preparing their syllabus and lesson plans, they always commenced by looking at the Competency Standards and the Basic Competencies and planned their lessons based on these.
Tina, for example, stated:

_When planning the syllabus and lesson plans, we always start by looking at the competency, both the Competency Standards and Basic Competencies. We plan our lessons based on these standards. I choose activities which help to meet the competencies._

Another teacher, Ria, said:

_The government has already determined what competency standards and basic competency [students need] to achieve in every lesson, like writing. So what we do is first of all study these standards, then we proceed to prepare the lesson based on these competency standards - like preparing materials and learning indicators. I gave my students activities I adopted from a relevant textbook._

In addition to this, the teachers also explained in the interview that they followed the Basic Competencies exactly as stated in the Curriculum Policies. This was also evident in their lesson plans. Rahma, for example, revealed:

_I just followed the competency standard and basic competency for writing in Year 2 as written in the Curriculum Policies. I did not change or modify them. As far as I am concerned, all my colleagues in my Teacher Working Group do the same. We want to make sure our students meet the standards._

In addition to this focus on the Basic Competencies, the teachers’ syllabi and lesson plans reflected a thematic approach. However, as will be reported later in this section, only three teachers were seen to integrate writing with other subjects during the observations. Further, all the teachers listed textbooks as the main learning resource in their syllabus and lesson plans, and included letter cards and pictures as their main teaching aids. The teaching methods commonly described in the teachers’ syllabi and lesson plans included lecturing, group work, discussion, question sessions, demonstration and assigned student tasks. The methods used to assess the students’ writing, as recorded in the teachers’ documentation, were product-oriented and the criteria reflected the Basic Competencies.

### 6.4.2 The teaching process

The findings regarding the teachers’ implementation of the KTSP as evident in the way they taught writing are reported according to the six categories emerging from a thematic analysis of the data from Phase 2 of the study. The categories were: the nature of the delivery of the writing lessons; the instructional design; the...
classroom environment; learning resources; the writing activities and writing products students produced in the observed classes. These are reported in turn in the following sections.

The nature of the delivery of writing lessons

As mentioned earlier, the lessons to be observed were nominated by each teacher. Although all the teachers’ syllabi and lesson plans reflected a thematic approach, only three teachers were willing to be observed when integrating writing with other subject areas while seven chose to be observed teaching writing as part of other modes of literacy. Thus, the delivery of writing in the lessons observed could be classified into two types. In the first, and more common type, writing was taught as part of language arts and was integrated with other language skills such as reading, listening and speaking; in the second type, writing was integrated with other subjects such as social studies and science and contextualised through a theme.

Those teachers undertaking the approach of integrating writing with the other language modes proceeded in a number of different ways. For example, in five of the classrooms observed, students were asked to read a short recount or a short story from a textbook. After several reading activities based on this text, students would either be asked to retell the text or the story using their own words, or to write sentences based on the text and dictated by their teachers. In two classes, students were observed practising reading a poem. This activity was followed by the students copying the poem using cursive handwriting. In two classes, the students were observed talking about their daily activities during one of which the teacher first asked a number of individual students what they did in the morning before they came to school. The students responded using simple sentences. Similar sentences were then practised orally and written on the board by the teacher. The students then wrote sentences about their own morning activities, using the sentence structure modelled by their teacher and recorded on the board. Following this, the teacher nominated individual students to read their sentences to the whole class. Before their students commenced any writing activities, all the teachers were observed reminding them to use correct capital letters, punctuation and cursive writing. Additionally, they reminded their students that these aspects of writing had been covered in previous lessons and were the focus of the current activity.
The language arts subjects in the observed lessons were taught in two sections of approximately 35 minutes each. During individual informal discussions with the researcher, the teachers explained that the time spent on each language skill was generally determined by the main competencies on which they were focused.

The teachers who integrated the language modes stated that they also incorporated a thematic approach in their daily teaching. Their statements were supported by their syllabus and compilation of lesson plans for Y2 that reflected a thematic approach. Ria stated:

As you just saw, I integrated writing with reading... But actually, I also use a thematic approach in my other lessons. My syllabus and lesson plans are organised using a thematic approach.

Another teacher, Rahma, similarly stated:

The focus of my teaching today is writing. I teach it as part of the Indonesian language subject. I also integrate other aspects of literacy, like writing, with other subjects if it is possible to do that.

These approaches were reflected in the teachers’ syllabi and lesson plans.

In terms of the second type of writing activity, that of integrating with other subjects, the three teachers were observed to integrate writing into social studies and science. Typically, the teacher asked the students to read a text about a topic in social studies or science and to answer comprehension questions based on this reading. The students were also observed writing sentences about these topics which were either dictated by their teacher or composed independently by the pupils.

During the informal discussions which followed the observed classes, the three teachers noted that a thematic approach was recommended for Years 1 to 3. The following comment made by Mawar was typical of the way the teachers talked about how they planned this type of learning:

The teachers are encouraged to use a thematic approach from Years 1 to 3. In order to do that, we first have to map all the Standard Competencies and Basic Competencies for all the subjects offered and then we integrate or link them through a theme. However, we do not always have to integrate one subject with others. It depends on the competencies to be achieved. In the subject that I have just taught, I used a thematic approach because
the competencies allowed me to integrate writing with social studies.

The nature of instructional design

All the teachers observed appeared to share similarities in the way they taught writing regardless of whether it was integrated with other subjects through a thematic approach or integrated with other language skills. They appeared to structure their writing lessons following a similar sequence. For example, the teachers were observed to begin the lesson by either explaining the learning objectives to be covered during the lesson, or stating the goal of the lesson. This was followed by a short review of a previous lesson. Next, they presented new information followed by the guided practice of the students. During guided practice, the teachers gave feedback and corrected the students’ work. Finally, the students undertook independent practice in which teachers gave the students the same task to complete individually before their work was collected and marked. For example, in one observed class, the teacher gave the students a poem from a textbook to copy in order to practise their handwriting. Another teacher asked the students to compose a personal recount as a means of practising handwriting, punctuation and correct use of capital letters. Regardless of the task, be it copying or writing independently, the emphasis was always on the low level skills of writing, the activity being seen as a means of practising these skills.

At each stage of the observed lessons described above, all the teachers appeared to be dominant and to control activities in their classrooms. The teachers determined the topics to be learned and the activities or assignments to be completed. The students were observed to do similar tasks presented by their teachers. Some students were observed sitting quietly waiting for other students to finish or occasionally disturbing other students with off-task talk.

During the informal discussion at the end of each observed lesson, teachers gave reasons for the sequencing of their lessons, one teacher commenting:

As you have seen in my lesson, I started by reviewing the previous lesson and then I explained. After that, the students had an opportunity to practise individually or with friends in a group. I think this way is better to achieve the competencies.
Other typical comments were:

*It is practical to teach this way. It helps me control the class and it is an effective way to achieve the goals.*

*I always teach like this. Even in other subjects.*

Thus, the teachers’ reasons for the sequencing of their lessons varied so as to meet the competencies, to control the class or to be pragmatic.

**The nature of classroom interaction**

Despite the similarities in the way the teachers sequenced their lessons, there were differences observed in the manner of presenting their materials and involving their students in the learning process. These differences were found in the patterns of interaction in the classrooms, especially in the way the teachers involved their students in writing activities.

One pattern of interaction emerging from the observations showed that seven of the teachers encouraged interaction by first explaining the lesson, then asking students questions to ascertain whether they had understood the content. This was followed by oral practice with the whole class and, finally, by giving students instructions about completing a writing task. For example, some teachers were observed to read aloud a short children’s story from a textbook while their students listened. The students then answered their teachers’ questions about the story, the majority of which were closed and the answers were judged to be either correct or incorrect. The purpose of this interaction appeared to be checking that the students had understood the main elements of the story. When the teacher considered the students to have understood the story, they were asked to copy it from the textbook using cursive writing and correct punctuation.

Another pattern of interaction demonstrated by three teachers was encouraging participation by the students by asking questions, demonstrating and drilling before giving them writing tasks. For example, one teacher was observed to stimulate her students by asking questions about their routine before coming to school. Although these were mainly open-ended questions encouraging the students to describe their routines, the teacher emphasised the correct nature of the sentence structure, rather than the meaning of the sentence. Next, she orally modelled several sentences related to daily activities to demonstrate correct sentence structure. She
then asked the students to repeat each sentence after her and nominated several individual students to retell what other students had stated. After a number of these sequences, she asked the students to write several sentences about the routines they had practised orally.

Although there were differences among the teachers in the way they involved their students in writing activities, in all cases the classroom observation revealed that they initiated and controlled most of the classroom discourse. All were seen to use questions to initiate interaction with their students or to involve their students in classroom activities. The types of questions they asked included those which were closed requiring a yes or no answer and those which were open requiring students to provide more extended information. Out of 30 observed lessons, the majority of patterns of interaction involved teachers initiating the interaction, students responding, followed by feedback from teachers. This pattern is referred to as IRF/E, initiation (I) from teachers, response (R) from students and feedback (F) for evaluation (E) by teachers. This kind of interaction was particularly dominant after students read a short text from their textbooks. For example, in one observed class, the teacher had the following dialogue with her students:

   Teacher: What happened with Rika yesterday?
   Students: She was ill.
   T: Good. Did she go to school?
   S: No, she did not.
   T: Good. Who took her to the hospital?
   S: Her mother.

Three teachers were observed fostering interaction that modified the IRF interaction pattern. These teachers included questions prompting their students to elaborate brief or incomplete answers. However, they did not appear to use their students’ responses in their prompts which seemed to be an opportunity lost to stimulate further exploration of their ideas. For example:
T: What do you do before going to school?
S1: I have breakfast.
T: Good. What else?
S2: I tidy my bed.
T: Good. What else.
S3: I take a bath.
T: Good! Now write in your exercise book five sentences about what you do before going to school. Don’t forget to use cursive writing and correct capital letters.

In three of the thirty observations, there was interaction between the students when they worked in pairs or small groups. This occurred when students were asked to first write the answers to comprehension questions based on a text which had been introduced by the teacher. Next, students in each group compared their answers, as directed by their teacher, and commented on the answers. For example, one student read what she had written and her friend commented that the answer was the same as hers, and what she had written was correct. Finally, the teacher nominated individual students to read their answers to the whole class. When describing this interaction in the post observation interviews, the three teachers referred to it as an example of the collaborative learning and discussion methods they used in their lessons.

The nature of the classroom environment

As mentioned, the Curriculum Policies and Curriculum Guidelines suggest that the KTSP has a student-centred orientation. It also promotes the use of the environment as a learning resource. This is not surprising given that the use of environmental print is regarded as an important aspect of a student-centred classroom, particularly in relation to literacy as it is believed that this can stimulate students’ literacy development.

In line with the KTSP, all the observed class rooms had pictures, posters, letters and charts displayed on the walls, although the amount of environmental print varied. Some teachers displayed a variety of such print, as name labels, sight vocabulary and the names of the months and days of the week. However, some of the pictures and posters displayed did not necessarily correspond to the themes or the topics of the observed lessons. During the classroom observation, some teachers appeared to use pictures or posters relevant to their topic or theme but at the completion of the lesson, these were put away in special lockers. When asked during
the informal discussion at the end of the observed lesson for the reason for this routine, a teacher explained that the classroom was shared with another grade, so she thought it was better to put away all the materials for her class and just leave the posters that reflected common themes. These included pictures of Indonesian heroes and presidents. Other teachers said that they would display their posters again when they needed them.

Students’ writing and art were also displayed in six classrooms. Some teachers regarded students’ work to be part of the environmental print, explaining that displaying students’ writing motivated them to improve their writing as seeing it displayed made them feel proud. Others said it was good if parents could see their children’s writing products, and a few opined students’ writing could become learning resources. The types of student writing displayed were mostly poems and simple compositions. There were four classes where students’ writing was not displayed at all. During the informal discussion, a teacher from one of those classes explained that the room was shared with other levels of class so it was not appropriate to display her students’ work. The remaining three teachers related that they had displayed their students’ work in the previous Y2 classes they had taught, but no longer did this. They provided no reason for this change.

**The nature of learning materials**

Learning materials in this study referred to teachers’ tools for presenting particular content related to their stated topic or theme. These are important aspects in the implementation of the KTSP as learning materials can be used as teaching aids to help achieve basic competencies outlined in the teachers’ syllabi.

As stated earlier, one of the purposes of the KTSP was to acknowledge the local context that varies widely across Indonesia. Therefore, under the KTSP, schools and teachers were encouraged to prepare learning materials which addressed their local context. Despite this, ready to use textbooks were the main learning materials observed and reported to be used across all the observed classes. While some textbooks, as reported by the teachers in the interviews, were nominated by the Department of Education, schools could determine the main textbooks to be used. Apart from these, the ten teacher cohort also reported selecting supplementary books
to support their teaching; these textbooks were commercially prepared by various publishers.

It was apparent that the student activities and the way the teachers integrated writing either with other language skills such as reading or with other subjects, were based on the main textbooks the teachers used. In other words, the teachers in this study appeared to adopt or adapt activities or assignments suggested by the textbooks rather than creating their own. The teachers claimed that all the textbooks were based on the KTSP and so promoted a thematic approach and covered the learning outcomes for Y2 which were based on the Competency Standards stated in the Curriculum Policies. The teachers saw textbooks as a means of helping them to prepare and implement writing lessons which reflected some elements of the KTSP. They stated that they provided lists of topics to be covered, tasks to be completed and activities to be explored, each of which claimed to promote active learning. One teacher stated in the interview: “Many commercial textbooks were based on the KTSP and relevant, so easy to use.” This is supported by a comment from another teacher who said: “The textbooks provide complete materials and how to teach them and they are all relevant to the outcomes to be achieved in Y2... [they] help us save a lot of time in preparing the lesson.” Another teacher concluded that the textbooks provided students with many interesting pictures and that these supported her teaching of writing, such as through cloze activities.

Apart from the textbooks, three teachers reported using handouts, either adapted from a textbook or simply photocopied from other resources. One teacher said that sometimes she prepared the handout by adapting it from a textbook and that she tried to relate the task to the places in the province where the students lived. Another teacher said she simply photocopied from other resources to give her students a variety of activities.

The nature of writing activities and students’ writing products of observed lessons

This section describes the nature of the writing activities students engaged in, as stated in the teachers’ syllabi and lesson plans and observed in the participating classrooms. It also presents the types of writing that students produced in the observed lessons. The purpose of looking at students’ writing was to appraise the
products which were the outcome of the writing lessons observed. These products provided further evidence of the intent of the lessons and what learning, in relation to the KTSP, the teacher valued.

The main focus of the writing students produced in the observed lessons, as reported by all teachers during informal discussions and as evident in their lesson plans and the observed lessons, was mainly to practise cursive writing, punctuation, the use of capital letters at the beginning of sentences and to a lesser extent spelling. These aspects reflected the Basic Competencies students were expected to achieve in Y2. The teachers gave less attention to spelling, which is normally given more attention in year 3, mainly addressing this aspect by reminding the students to write ‘correctly spelled’ words when they wrote sentences. It is important to note, that unlike in written English, spelling in Bahasa Indonesia is phonetically regular and, therefore, relatively straightforward for students.

Three teachers who were observed to integrate writing with other subjects such as social studies also stated that apart from practising these aspects, they used writing to improve their students’ understanding in other subjects. However, when they were observed to integrate writing with other subjects, it appeared that their emphasis remained on the surface features of writing rather than the content of the subject about which they were writing.

The activities the students performed in the thirty observed lessons could be categorised into four levels according to the cognitive demand they appeared to make (see Table 30).

Teachers were asked to nominate three writing samples from each observed lesson to illustrate the outcome of their teaching. Altogether 90 samples were collected and each one was discussed with the teacher in the informal interview after each observation. The following Table 30 shows the range of writing activities the students undertook and the writing products they produced in the 30 observed lessons.
Table 30

*The Nature of Writing Activities and Students’ Writing Products*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of demand</th>
<th>Type of Activities</th>
<th>Frequency of observation</th>
<th>Product Description</th>
<th>Quantity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Copying a written text</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Copying a poem from a textbook</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Copying teacher written sentence from the board</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Copying short text from the textbook</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Dictation</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>A range of dictation practices</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Writing simple sentences, which have been practised orally, dictated by the teacher.</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Writing sentences about daily activities such as what is done before going to school</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Answering questions and completing sentences</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Statements that answer short text</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Answering questions in written forms</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Completing sentences related to the text in the textbook.</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Completing sentences/cloze passage</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Completing sentences describing animals</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Composing recounts</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Composition about student experiences during their holiday</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Writing recounts independently</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Free composition about floods</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Copying a written text</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Copying a poem from a textbook</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Level 1, which appeared to have the lowest level of cognitive demand of all the writing activities in the observed lessons, involved a range of copying activities which emphasised the mastery of neat handwriting. Out of 30 observations, eight lessons involved some form of copying. The writing products students produced in these lessons were sentences or a poem copied either from the board or the textbook.

Level 2 consisted of dictation activities where students wrote several sentences which were dictated by the teacher. The sentences dictated by the teachers were already familiar to the students since they had been practised in whole class activities. In this type of activity, the students read a short text in their textbooks as a group guided by their teacher. Next, they practised making simple oral sentences based on that text. Then, some students were nominated to write the sentences on the board with the teacher’s assistance. After that, the teacher dictated the sentences the students had practised. Out of 30 observations, 13 fell within this category. The writing products students produced in this type of activity were a range of short, simple sentences related to a text as dictated by the teacher.

Level 3 activities, with greater cognitive demand, required the students to answer questions or complete sentences. The questions asked were related to a short text from a textbook they had read and designed to test their comprehension. In the other type of activity in this category, the students were required to complete a series of sentences on a worksheet by filling in a missing word from those provided or to complete sentences related to a topic such as animals. Out of 30 observations, 8 fell within this category. As with the other categories, the writing products students produced in these types of activities were short, simple statements that answered literal comprehension questions based on a text from the class textbook before completing sentences describing animals.

Level 4 involved activities where students independently composed recounts such as writing about their experience during a holiday or about floods. This type of activity was observed in only two classes where writing was integrated with other subjects. Writing in these cases was integrated with other subjects under themes such as ‘myself’ and ‘events’.

The following samples reflect the activities which the students completed in the observed lessons. The first sample (see Figure 7) is typical of the types of writing
students produced in the Level 1 activities. In this example, as was the case in most, the students copied a poem from the textbook used in their class. The main purpose of this copying task was to practise cursive writing. This was evident in the emphasis the teachers placed on neat cursive handwriting when directing the students to complete the task and explaining the criteria they would use to assess the task. The teacher nominated the sample below as an example of ‘good cursive writing’ from a student in her class.

![Sample text](image)

*Figure 7. Copying written text sample: Level 1.*

An example of activity type 2 is represented in Figure 8. In other classes, students were observed doing Level 2 dictation activities. In these classes, the teachers dictated sentences and the students wrote these in their books. The sentences dictated were extracted from a short story for children from the textbook the class had read together. When assessing the sample below, the teacher commented that the student had correctly spelt all the words and used capital letters and full stops appropriately. The student’s writing was also neat and legible. However, the teacher noted that the student should practise writing cursively.
Some teachers explained they used writing to help achieve a basic competence for speaking (see Figure 9). In these classes, the teacher nominated individual students to describe the daily activities they completed before coming to school. These were practised orally and when they were familiar, the students wrote the sentences into their books. The teacher considered the writing sample below to be very good, claiming that the capital letters and full stops had been used as she had taught the students.

Writing activities at Level 3 included answering questions and completing sentences by providing a missing word from a list provided or completing sentences
which described animals. Figure 10 illustrates writing activities type 3 where students answer questions about a short text, particularly related to social studies.

![Figure 10. Sample of answering questions: Level 3.](image)

In one of the two observed classes which focused on describing animals (see Figure 11), for example, the students were encouraged to draw and complete simple sentences about familiar animals, particularly those they might find at their house. This writing task was designed to address Basic Competency 3. The main focus, as noted by the teachers, was to describe an animal in simple written sentences using neat handwriting and correct basic punctuation. When the teacher was asked to comment on this writing, she stated that the student could describe the chicken correctly, but needs to improve his use of capital letters, full stops and cursive writing.

![Figure 11. Describing animal: Competency 3.](image)
Two classes were observed to integrate writing with social studies and science. The teachers in these classes reported that they used writing to develop a better understanding about a given theme in other subjects. One observed class, for example, talked about the nature and impact of a flood under the ‘event’ theme and during independent activities students were asked to compose paragraphs about the flood (see Figure 12, Level 4). Even though this type of activity was categorised at Level 4 because of its higher cognitive demand and some attention was given to content, the focus remained on accuracy, correct punctuation and neat, correct handwriting. One teacher’s comment during the interview was:

*The content was relevant to the given theme as it talked about the flood. The spelling was correct and the writing was cursive and legible. However, the student still needed to improve the use of capital letters and punctuation.*

![Figure 12. Recount: Level 4.](image)

6.4.3 Classroom assessment

Assessment is another key concept of the KTSP. When assessing writing, all ten teachers in this study focused on the quality of their students’ handwriting, punctuation and spelling. This focus on low level skills was also evident in their syllabi and plans, classroom observations, informal discussions and the students’ samples of writing selected by them. In all of the 30 observations, the teachers emphasised these low level skills of writing and frequently reminded their students to
use neat cursive handwriting and correct punctuation. The following quotations from various teachers of the observed lessons illustrate the manner this was achieved:

**Don’t forget to use cursive handwriting.**

**Make sure you write neatly with cursive handwriting that I have taught you.**

**Those who don’t make mistakes in using capital letters and full stops will get a high score.**

When teachers were asked to select samples of good and poor writing products from their students and comment on them, all chose writing samples based on neat handwriting, with only a few mistakes in the use of capital letters. The 90 writing samples collected reflected this emphasis. During the interviews, all the teachers explained that they assessed their students’ writing on the basis of their control over low level skills, regardless of the type of writing task being assessed.

For example, in the informal discussion following the observations, some teachers reported the goals for writing lessons for Y2 to be able to write neatly and correctly. Thus their assessment was based on these goals regardless of whether the activity was copying, rewriting stories or writing simple sentences. One of these teachers stated:

**Well, I assessed my students best on the outcome to be achieved… and that was using neat cursive handwriting and correct punctuation.**

However, three teachers who also assessed their students’ understanding of the content in tasks where writing was integrated into other subject areas. But, even in these cases, the focus largely remained on low level writing skills. This is illustrated in the following quotations from the teachers:

**Apart from the capital letters, punctuation and handwriting, I also see whether the content is related to the given theme. For example, if the theme is about their experiences during the holidays, then the content should be relevant.**
I combined language arts and science which focused on the topic of energy. I ask my students to write sentences about energy. I will assess whether the students write sentences correctly about some facts related to energy, but I will also see the handwriting and the use of capital letters and punctuation that have been studied.

Some of the writing samples from two observed lessons were marked by the teachers who ticked or graded them using a scale of 0 – 100, although it was not clear what this score specifically meant. None of the writing samples had been corrected or had written comments from the teacher.

6.5 Factors Influencing Teachers’ Interpretation and Implementation of the KTSP

This section describes the factors appearing to influence the teachers’ interpretation and implementation of the KTSP in teaching writing in the observed lessons as reported by them in the semi-structured interview, classroom observations, informal discussions and document analysis. The influencing factors in this study refer to two aspects. First, those factors that appeared to be barriers impeding teachers from changing their practices to reflect those suggested by the Curriculum Policies and Curriculum Guidelines framing the development of the KTSP. The second set of factors seemed to facilitate the teachers’ decisions to implement the practices promoted by the new curriculum. Based on the classroom observations, informal discussions with the teachers and semi-structured interviews, three main factors were identified as appearing to influence the teachers’ interpretation and implementation of the KTSP in teaching writing in the observed lessons. These three factors were teachers’ knowledge, class sizes and the physical layout of the classroom, and learning resources. The following section describes each of these factors in turn.

1. Teachers knowledge

The teachers’ lack of knowledge regarding the KTSP appeared to be one of the factors that impeded their implementation of the KTSP in writing. It seemed that the teachers did not have sufficient knowledge to implement the KTSP as required by the Curriculum Policies. Most of the teachers’ comments during their interviews
indicated they were aware of their lack of knowledge about the six pedagogical concepts of the KTSP investigated in this study. For example, one of the teachers claimed she did not understand what a facilitator was:

*I am aware that under the KTSP, teachers should be facilitators. But I am not sure what facilitator really means. In my class, I facilitate learning by explaining the lesson first and then asking my students to practise. That’s my understanding.*

Further, seven out of the ten teachers interviewed revealed they did not know the meaning of student-centred. Therefore, they interpreted and implemented the concept by looking at the competencies that should be achieved, as one of the teachers reported:

*I know that the KTSP should be student-centred. But I don’t know what it means and how to apply it. I just focus on the competency and give [the students] activities that will achieve these competencies.*

Another typical teacher comment was:

*Frankly speaking I am not really sure about what this student-centredness means. ... I have not attended any training or workshop that explicitly shows or guides what it is and how to implement this in the classroom. Therefore, I just try to understand it literally based on my understanding. I think if this is related to writing then it focuses on the students’ writing such as on their handwriting and how to write neatly and correctly. This is in line with the Standard Competencies that the students should achieve in the early grades.*

All ten teachers stated they attended some form of PD about the KTSP. Most of that PD, however, concerned the KTSP in general, rather than focusing on language arts. One teacher, for example, opined:

*I attended a seminar organised by a university, but it was about general information related to the KTSP. It talked about the rationale of the KTSP, government policies and the Curriculum Manual related to the development of the KTSP, the syllabus and lesson plans. It also mentioned that the learning should be active and that we teachers should use various teaching methods. But it was not related particularly to certain subjects and not detailed. I have not attended training organised by the Department of Education. My colleague was sent to that training. So, I just asked her about the KTSP especially about the syllabus and the lesson plan because she also did not get much information about how to make students learn actively.*
Two teachers reported having attended the PD on literacy but it did not relate directly to the implementation of the writing component. For instance, one of the teachers said the following in an interview:

*I attended a workshop on writing but it was about teaching handwriting not writing as composition. So I structure my lesson based on the activities suggested by textbooks which are relevant to the goal of my lessons.*

Another teacher noted that the PD she attended focused only on the components of speaking and writing for Years 4-6.

*I have attended a workshop on models of active teaching that can be implemented in the classroom. The models were various but none of the models related to the teaching of writing in the early years of primary school. The models were more related to speaking or writing particularly for years 4 up to 6.*

Eight teachers stated that they had never attended any training about active learning. These teachers claimed to follow the activities suggested by the textbooks they used:

*I have not received or joined workshops or seminars about active learning. I just follow the activities from textbooks which have been promoted as providing active learning activities.*

Seven out of ten teachers in Phase 2 of the study claimed to have attended PD on a thematic approach, and in the interview they were able to explain this approach in a way that reflected the information in the Curriculum Guidelines. However, when asked to nominate lessons to be observed, only 3 of them chose to be observed while teaching employing a thematic approach. The other seven preferred to be observed while teaching writing independently or as part of the language arts. One teacher claimed she would be self-conscious if she was observed while teaching using a thematic approach, as she had not attended any formal training about it:

*I do not feel confident being observed while integrating one subject with other subjects, using a thematic approach. I still need to practice a lot because it is quite new. I have attended a workshop about a thematic approach but it focused on how to prepare a syllabus and lesson plans using a thematic approach. I think I need training in implementing this approach.*
Another comment which was made by another teacher during the interview was supportive of the last interviewee’s position:

I have not attended training on a thematic approach. I just learned about it from a colleague who seems familiar with this approach. I know that in a thematic approach we integrate one subject with others. Like writing or other literacy subjects with other subjects, through a theme. But the whole concept is still not clear to me. Therefore, it is better that I don’t teach in a thematic manner during the observation.

One teacher claimed to have attended training that also introduced a direct teaching method which she found most relevant to her classes. She stated:

I have attended a workshop on models of teaching and learning that promote active learning suggested by the KTSP. I found that direct teaching is the most appropriate for Y2. Other models such as jigsaw were difficult to implement.

Three teachers claimed to use their existing knowledge when implementing the KTSP in writing. In determining the teaching strategies used, they started by looking at the competencies students were expected to achieve in Y2. Then they used the method they believed would enable their students to achieve those competencies. One experienced teacher talked about her method of achieving this in the following quote:

I first study the competencies students should meet in Y2. Then I plan my program in ways that will achieve the competencies. I’ve been teaching for quite a long time and that is what I normally do with my students.

Other teachers also relied on their experience to guide them in selecting appropriate methods:

I teach based on my knowledge and experience... This is Y2 and based on my experience, lots of explanation should be given to Y2.

I have not attended any training on models of teaching and learning of literacy, especially writing, so in my classroom I just do it to the best of my knowledge and my experience. I look at the topic and the learning outcome and find materials that can support my teaching.

In summary, teachers’ lack of knowledge, particularly in relation to the six key concepts of the KTSP, appear to influence their interpretation and
implementation of the KTSP in writing to Y2 students. This lack of knowledge was evident in their comments during the interview. All of them reported having attended PD about the KTSP; however, the training provided was general. In addition, most of the teachers had not attended training related to the six pedagogical concepts, such as active learning, investigated in this study. It appeared that this lack of knowledge about the KTSP led some of the teachers to teach based on their experience and existing knowledge.

2. Class size and the physical layout of the classroom

Class size and layout of the classroom also appeared to influence teachers’ practices in implementing the KTSP in writing lessons. Most of the classes involved in this phase of the study were considered large. Four classes consisted of 40 to 44 students, three had 35 to 39 students, and only three classes had 29 or less students, with the smallest having 22 students. None of these classes had any teaching assistants in the classroom which means that it was the classroom teacher who managed all the learning and teaching processes. Although some teachers in this study did not seem to mind their large classes, the high number of students appeared to influence their practices. For example, during the informal discussion a teacher, stated:

*I have forty students in my class. I have to control them otherwise they would make lots of noise that would disturb others. That’s why it is good to do one activity at the same time [with all the class] because it will be easy for me to control.*

During the informal discussions, some teachers indicated that they could not ask every one of their students to practise individually what they had learnt in front of the class one by one due to the large number of students. In several observed lessons, these teachers appeared to nominate a limited number of individual students to read what they had written or to explain their work to the whole class. A teacher explained her reason for this practice:

*I want to give enough practice to my students but time does not permit because there are 40 students. So I just nominate some of them to do things in front of the class.*

Another teacher gave support, noting:
Sometimes I ask them to discuss their work in a group. But I don’t do that very often because it will be very noisy. They will talk at the same time. Some of them just play. Therefore, I like to do a whole class activity. It is more manageable and can minimize this problem.

Other teachers reiterated the difficulty they also had in not being able to approach all of their students personally to monitor their work:

*I took time to supervise my students’ work by approaching them while they were working. But of course I cannot do this for all of them because of the large number of students in my class. So, normally, I will nominate some of them to come to the front of the class and share their work with everyone.*

The ten classrooms also shared a similar physical arrangement. The desks and tables were made of wood and therefore were relatively heavy. They were arranged in traditional rows, facing the board at the front of the class, with each desk accommodating two students. This appeared to influence the way the teachers structured their lesson. One teacher gave expression to the problem:

*S有时候 I ask my students to work in group but it takes time to rearrange the desks...and we do not have much time to do that as I have to cover many things in my teaching that need enough time.*

Some teachers found solutions to the problem. One teacher was observed to ask students in the front seats to turn to face their peers sitting behind them, when doing the task as a group. Other teachers claimed to be flexible in arranging the seating depending on the theme of the learning and the tasks given. However, they did not provide further explanations about how they achieved this. Non-traditional seating arrangements were not evident during any of the observations.

Two teachers stated that classroom conditions such as the number of students, classroom layout and the type of furniture remained the same regardless of the curriculum and pedagogical changes outlined in the KTSP. During the interview, a teacher with more than 20-year-experience teaching in primary school opined:
As far as I am concerned, my class was always like this since the first time I taught many years ago. The curricula we used had been changed several times but my class was always like this. Even though the new curricula emphasised collaborative work or active learning, my class was always like this. No changes were made to implement any new curriculum.

In summary, class size and layout of the classroom influenced teachers’ practices in implementing the KTSP in writing lessons. Large classes appeared to influence teachers’ decisions towards teaching in a traditional way in order to establish and maintain control of their students. In addition, the teachers saw the style of furniture as making it too difficult to manipulate in order to facilitate small group, collaborative activities. Despite the changes promoted by the new curriculum, classroom conditions remained constant thereby inhibiting full implementation of the KTSP.

3. Learning resources

The availability of teaching aids also influenced some teachers in their implementation of the KTSP in writing. Seven teachers reported in the interview that they did not have enough teaching aids to support their implementation of the KTSP particularly in relation to the achievement of the competencies. These teachers claimed they had minimal resources such as pictures and letter cards. As one of the teachers expressed her problem:

*I only have limited teaching aids to use in my class. To teach handwriting, I used a big ruler to draw lines on the blackboard.*

A lack of teaching aids was also evident in most of the observed classrooms. Although all the classrooms had some pictures, posters, letters and/or charts displayed on the wall, six of them displayed very little environmental print. Additionally, some of the pictures and posters displayed did not correspond to the themes or the topics of the current lessons. The following comment was typical of the many teachers made in the interview:

*Actually I want to surround my class with many pictures or use various pictures based on the theme of the subjects, but because I do not have many of these, I just use a few and rely most of the time on pictures provided in the textbook.*
Two of the classes observed also shared the classroom with another class that used it in the afternoon. Because of this situation, the teachers put away the pictures and the posters in special lockers at the conclusion of their class; they simply left the common things such as pictures of Indonesian heroes and presidents on display. One teacher stated:

*This classroom is used by another grade in the afternoon. When the class finishes, I put all the pictures and posters for Y2 in our lockers. Sometimes if I do not have enough time, I just leave the pictures in the lockers and use the textbook. It is not comfortable, but we have to share the classroom.*

During the observations, none of the ten teachers or the students referred to the environmental print on the wall of their classroom.

**6.6 Summary**

This chapter has presented the results from Phase 2 of the study which involved ten teachers selected from those who participated in Phase 1 of the study. The data were gathered using classroom observations, informal discussion after each observed lesson, post-observation, semi-structured interviews and document analysis which included teachers’ syllabi and lesson plans, and samples of students’ writing. The data from these different sources provided insights into the teachers’ interpretation and implementation of writing in relation to the KTSP and the factors that appeared to influence it. The analysis of Phase 2 data showed the teachers’ interpreted the six key concepts related to writing in a range of ways. The teachers’ actual implementation of the KTSP in their classrooms also varied, particularly in relation to the types of teaching documents they used, their classroom practices and their assessment practices in KTSP writing in relation to the KTSP. The six categories which emerged from the analysis of data related to the teachers’ classroom implementation were largely concerned with the nature of the learning goals and writing activities in the lessons observed, the delivery of the writing lessons, the instructional design, the classroom environment, learning resources available, and the writing products produced by the students in the observed classes. In addition, the data showed there to be three sets of main factors inhibiting the teachers’ interpretation and implementation of the KTSP in writing. They were: the teachers’ lack of knowledge of the new curriculum and the key concepts underpinning it; large class sizes and the inflexible physical layout of the classroom; and a lack of learning
resources. The results from Phase 2 of this research are discussed along with those from Phase 1 of the study in Chapter 7. It will examine the common themes to emerge in both phases of the study and discuss these in relation to other research.
7.1 Introduction

This study investigated the implementation of the Indonesian KTSP in the teaching of writing in Y2 primary schools in Makassar City, South Sulawesi, Indonesia. Specifically, it investigated how teachers interpreted the KTSP, how they implemented it and the factors influencing that interpretation and implementation. The study employed a mixed method approach conducted in two phases. The first phase collected quantitative data through a questionnaire, which was administered to 61 Y2 teachers. The second phase elaborated this data through an in-depth qualitative study of the practices and views of 10 of these teachers. This phase deployed observation, informal discussion at the conclusion of each observation, semi-structured, post-observation interviews and analysis of documents, including teachers’ syllabi and lesson plans, and students’ writing products. The results of these two phases have been reported separately in the previous two chapters. In this chapter, these results are discussed in three sections, which correspond to the research questions. These are:

1. How do teachers interpret the KTSP in relation to teaching writing to Y2 students?
2. How do teachers implement the KTSP in teaching writing to Y2 students?
3. What factors influence teachers’ interpretation and implementation of the KTSP in teaching writing to Y2 students?

Key issues which emerged from the teachers’ interpretation and implementation of the KTSP in writing and factors influencing them are discussed at the conclusion of this chapter.

7.2 Teachers’ Interpretation of the KTSP

The teachers’ interpretation of the KTSP in this study was based on their understanding of the six key concepts of that curriculum in relation to writing. These were:
1. student-centred learning;
2. active learning;
3. the role of the teacher as a facilitator;
4. students’ interaction as a means of promoting learning;
5. assessment for learning; and,
6. a thematic approach to learning.

These concepts were chosen as they represent the underlying philosophical basis of the KTSP. They are outlined in both the Curriculum Policies and the Curriculum Guidelines informing teachers about the pedagogical practices that are expected to occur in the classroom, and the changing role of the teacher in implementing these practices. The teachers’ interpretation of these concepts was examined in relation to the teaching of writing in their Y2 classrooms.

Two main findings with regard to teachers’ interpretation of the KTSP in relation to teaching writing in Y2 were found. These findings emerged from Phase 1 of the study and were strengthened by the analysis of data from Phase 2. The first was that the teachers in this study appeared to interpret the KTSP through a traditional view of learning. The second was that the teachers’ interpretation seemed to be influenced by the competencies expected of Year 2 students as outlined in the Curriculum Policies of the KTSP. The following sections discuss these key findings in turn.

**Finding 1: Teachers interpreted the KTSP in writing through a traditional view of learning**

The teachers in this study appeared to interpret the KTSP in writing through a traditional view of learning. The traditional approach to learning has been broadly defined as one which is teacher-centred, where the teachers are concerned with transmitting information and students passively receive it (Cox, 2005). Generally, in this approach, the students do activities requiring low levels of thinking (Cox, 2005). This traditional view of learning was evident in the teachers’ responses when they were asked to describe their interpretation of the six key concepts of the KTSP in the questionnaire; in the nature of the teaching observed in the classroom; in their responses during the interviews; and through document analysis. This influence was clearly evident in relation to five of the six key concepts as discussed in the following
section. The only key concept where the teachers’ understanding seemed somewhat consistent with that promoted by the KTSP was in their description of a thematic approach to learning.

First, the influence of a traditional view of learning was seen in the teachers’ understanding of student-centredness, the first of the key concepts of the KTSP investigated in this study. One of the ways the majority of teachers in Phase 1 of the study described student-centredness was that students were involved actively in writing activities provided by their teachers. Although this would appear to conform to the concept of student-centredness, further analysis showed that the teachers’ view of active learning reflected a traditional view of learning. That is, the teachers defined being active as the students being seen to practise handwriting or copy texts provided by the teacher.

This definition of student activity as being physical rather than intellectual was also evident in Phase 2 of the study. Teachers made reference to low level activities that were not cognitively demanding in the informal discussions that followed the classroom observations and in the semi structured interviews. Additionally, these types of activities were the most frequently observed in the ten teachers’ classrooms. However, there were two occasions where a teacher asked her students to write about their experience during the holidays and about a flood in their village. Although this type of activity would appear to involve higher level thinking and composition, the emphasis of both occasions was on the neatness of the handwriting, correct spelling and low level punctuation skills which reflect a traditional view of learning.

It is perhaps not surprising that the teachers had developed a view of student-centredness that matched their existing pedagogical practices. The KTSP Curriculum Policies provided little support to assist them to understand this new concept. The term was not defined in the documents and teachers were not provided with examples of pedagogical approaches they could use in their writing lessons to shift the focus from teacher to student-centred.

Second, the influence of a traditional view of learning was also evident in the teachers’ interpretation of active learning, the second key concept of the KTSP investigated in this study. The teachers appeared to be familiar with this term as they
mentioned it in their responses to the question about their interpretation of student-centredness. However, the majority of the teachers interpreted student-centredness in writing as active learning. In fact, the notion of active learning has been promoted in Indonesian curricula for the last three decades. However, as described in the previous section, active learning to these teachers was related more to activities in which the students were physically rather than intellectually active. When asked explicitly about active learning, the teachers’ interpretation also appeared to be consistently influenced by a more traditional view where the teachers’ role is dominant (Browne, 2009; Cox, 2005).

As with the concept of student-centredness, most of the teachers described active learning using terminology consistent with the learning perspective which informs the KTSP. However, the evidence from the study suggests that they understood the concept of active learning through the framework of a traditional view of learning, as was the case with student-centred learning. For instance, the most frequent response in the questionnaire indicated that the teachers thought that active learning involved interaction between the teacher and the students in writing activities. However, the nature of this interaction described by the teachers indicated a relationship that could be represented as the teachers tell and the students do such as is exemplified in the following quotation from one of the teachers, “Active learning means teachers direct the students in what to write and how to write.”

More than 20% of the participants indicated their understanding that active learning occurred when teachers acted as models and/or facilitators. These responses seemed to indicate that these teachers knew some of the terms associated with active learning as found in the constructivist perspective of learning (Park, 2008; Prince, 2004; Broadhead, 2001) which informs the KTSP. However, all the teachers who used these terms also stated that active learning means that teachers dictate learning.

Evidence from Phase 2 of the study supported the finding that the teachers’ understanding of active learning was influenced by a traditional view of learning. In the individual interviews with the ten teachers, their description of active learning indicated that they saw this as the students being involved in writing activities which were determined by the teacher. The writing activities observed confirmed this view. The observations showed that writing activities ranged from copying to discussion,
all of which focused on low level writing skills such as handwriting and simple sentence level punctuation. These activities were done by students individually or in a small group. Although working in groups is associated with student-centred pedagogy, this was not the case in this context. In the participating classrooms, the students were first asked to answer several comprehension questions based on a text from the textbook they used. They did this task individually. After that, the students were asked to discuss their written answers in their group. Some teachers also mentioned that to engage their students in active learning, they asked the students to reflect on their writing. However, based on these teachers’ explanations and discussion, reflection and discussion in these contexts referred to the activities where students worked in pairs to check whether their answers to the given questions were correct. In both these group contexts, the focus was on obtaining the correct answer to the teacher’s questions or comprehension exercises from a textbook.

Similarly, the teachers’ interpretation of the role of a teacher as a facilitator in writing, the third key concept of the KTSP, appeared to reflect a more traditional view of learning. When the teachers were asked about their understanding of this new role, their responses in Phase 1 of the study revealed that being a facilitator does not appear to be different from a more traditional perspective where teachers are dominant in orchestrating the lesson. The teachers’ responses, when analysed and categorised, were mostly concerned with the notion of teacher-directed learning. Although 69% of the teachers stated that being a facilitator means teachers guiding student writing, the word guide seems to relate to the idea that teachers tell students what and how to write with an emphasis on low level writing skills. This finding was elaborated in Phase 2 of the study where teachers described being a facilitator as explaining the lesson first, demonstrating it and then asking the students to practise what had been demonstrated. This adds further evidence of teachers interpreting the concept of a facilitator as taking on the role of a knowledge transmitter, which is highly influenced by the traditional view of teaching (Cox, 2005).

Further, the teachers’ responses when asked about their understanding of the fourth key concept, student interaction, strengthened the view that they interpreted the KTSP in writing through a traditional view of learning. For instance, in Phase 1 of the study more than half of the 61 participants interpreted students’ interaction in writing as involving teacher-directed activities. That is, they described interaction in
writing as teachers explaining the writing activities to be done by the students, students asking questions about the format and then completing the teacher directed activities. Some participants stated that interaction means students write sentences dictated by their teachers correctly using neat handwriting. Others wrote that interaction occurred when teachers wrote samples on the board and students copied them.

Some teachers seemed to understand interaction in writing as students working with other students, commenting that interaction means students discuss and share their writing. Others stated that interaction in writing involved group work or pair work where students do their writing task together. However, the teachers’ interview responses in Phase 2 of the study suggested that their application of *discuss and share* had a traditional meaning, where the learning was still dominated by the teacher. Although the teachers indicated that their students work collaboratively as a group and discuss their writing, they were not sharing their own written texts in these interactions. Rather, the students discussed their written answers to their teacher’s questions with their peers to check for correctness. In some cases, the teachers reported that their students marked each other’s answers in this type of interaction.

This view of the role of interaction in learning to write is in contrast to that suggested in the KTSP. Under the KTSP, it is suggested that learning be conducted collaboratively and constructively, between the teacher and students and between the students themselves (BSNP, 2006). Students are to be encouraged to move away from being competitive and individual. It is recommended that classroom activities be designed to encourage students to share what they know with others and to listen to the ideas that others offer to them. In this way, schools and classes become communities of learners (Browne, 1993). Further, in terms of writing activities, social constructivist research suggests that writing is about the joint construction of meaning. Students, even in the early years of schooling, do not always need to write alone. The teacher can ask children to work in pairs or small groups to compose and write (Tompkins, 2012). Becoming a writer has been seen as an outcome of children’s involvement with other people and with the culture and in this way it becomes shared social communication (Barratt-Pugh, 2002; Dyson, 1985). This view of interaction in writing contrasts to that taken by the teachers in this study.
Finally, the influence of a traditional view of learning is evident in the teachers’ interpretation of assessment in writing, the fifth key concept of the KTSP. An analysis of the findings related to this concept revealed that the teachers’ understanding mainly focused on the products of the writing activities thereby reflecting a traditional approach. In contrast, under the influence of a constructivist view, the KTSP emphasises both product and process, suggesting that assessment should take many forms. Some of these recommended approaches include, but are not limited to, authentic and performance-based assessment and portfolios (BSNP, 2006). This implies that teachers should assess not only the product but also the process of writing.

The teachers’ traditional view of assessment was seen in the results from the questionnaires showing that some 64% of them were of the opinion that assessment in writing in the KTSP means that the focus is on the product, and more specifically on the surface features of writing, including handwriting form, the use of capital letters and simple punctuation such as full stops in sentences. Only 36% of these teachers commented that apart from the product, the writing process should also be assessed. However, according to them, process referred to a student’s participation in writing activities given by the teachers such as copying or practising handwriting. Participation was described as students correctly completing the task in a timely fashion and without being distracted rather than concerning their engagement with the process and content of writing.

This finding was supported by the results from the interview analysis where all ten teachers reported that assessment in writing means evaluating the correctness of the surface features of the students’ writing products. This is exemplified by the following quotation, “Assessment in writing to me means that I correct the writing students produce. I check their handwriting, capital letters and use of full stops.”

Further, the interview analysis also revealed that the form of assessment the teachers used was mainly scoring or grading the students’ written products. While there were two teachers who reported that they used writing portfolios, these were used to organize students’ written products rather than as a way to assess their writing development across time.
The above findings derived from the teachers’ interpretation of five of the six key concepts suggest that their interpretation of the KTSP seemed to be influenced by their current practices which reflected a traditional approach to learning in which the role of the teacher was dominant. Such practices are common in the classrooms across Indonesia (MBE-USAID, 2003; Rahayu, 2011; Sari, 2012). The findings were also consistent with other research that examined how implementing agents understand and interpret the new curriculum (Blignaut, 2008; Spillane, 1999). Although the contexts differed from the current study, these studies also found that the teachers’ existing knowledge appeared to influence their interpretation of the changes required in ways that were inconsistent with the policymakers’ intent.

Also of note, is the way in which some of the teachers in this study used terminology consistent with the key concepts of the KTSP: yet they were either unable to explain what the terms meant or interpreted them in ways that were more consistent with a traditional view of learning. Further, there was no evidence of approaches consistent with the way the teachers defined the key concepts in the observations of their lessons, the informal discussions that followed, the interviews, or the analysis of planning documents and their students’ writing samples. This inconsistency was apparent in the earlier discussion of active learning and in the interpretation of student-centredness as students constructing their own knowledge. This finding is consistent with that of an earlier study on the implementation of competency-based curriculum in Indonesia which found that, while the teachers acknowledged that students should construct their own knowledge, they did not understand what this concept meant nor did they understand how to help their students to construct knowledge (Utomo, 2005).

The teachers’ interpretation of a thematic approach in writing, the sixth key concept of the KTSP, was in contrast to that of the other five concepts in that it appeared to be in line with the definition given by the KTSP Curriculum Guidelines (BSNP, 2006). The findings suggest that the teachers were able to explain the concept and were aware of what a thematic approach required. However, their understanding seemed to be on a fairly superficial level and further, most of them reported in the questionnaire in Phase 1 of the study that a thematic approach was the most difficult aspect of the KTSP to implement. Given this perception of difficulty, it was not surprising that only three of the 10 teachers in Phase 2 nominated to be
observed during a thematic writing lesson. This difficulty the teachers experienced with integrating curriculum through a thematic approach was also found in a study of curriculum change in Hong Kong (Yeung & Lam, 2007).

There was evidence that the teachers interpreted the concept of a thematic approach in a way consistent with the KTSP Curriculum Guidelines in both Phase 1 and Phase 2 of the study. In Phase 1, for example, 85% of the teachers interpreted a thematic approach in writing as the integration of writing with other content areas based on a given theme. In spite of this, there were no details to confirm that teachers understood how to implement this approach as their responses were confined to general statements such as: “A thematic approach means we integrate writing with other subjects such as science in thematic teaching.”

Similarly, during the interview, in Phase 2 of the study, the teachers noted that a thematic approach involves teaching through themes as a means of integrating curriculum. Seven out of the ten teachers interviewed even provided an explanation of what they meant by this. They explained the purpose of the thematic approach as stated in the KTSP, indicated that it is a means of creating meaningful learning. They also talked about how to prepare syllabi and lesson plans related to a thematic approach. However, from the evidence collected in the three classrooms where teachers were using what they perceived to be a thematic approach, it would seem that their understanding of the concept was superficial. For instance, most of the integrated activities that the three out of ten teachers in Phase 2 of the study described involved students answering questions about the content in another discipline such as social science. This suggests that a traditional view of learning also influences the teachers’ interpretation of this concept despite it appearing to be better understood.

Finding 2: Teachers interpreted the KTSP in writing through the competencies Y2 students were expected to achieve

The second recurring theme in relation to the teachers’ interpretation of the KTSP in writing is associated with the competencies to be achieved in writing for Y2. As explained in Chapter 2, these expected competencies emphasise the mastery of low level skills of writing which involve neat handwriting and the correct use of capital letters and full stops.
The teachers in this study appeared to interpret the KTSP in writing through the competencies which Y2 students were expected to achieve in the KTSP. When describing their interpretation of the KTSP, most of the teachers appeared to consistently relate it to low level writing skills as described in the competencies expected for Y2. This was evident in their comments about all of the key concepts which were the focus of this study. For example, some teachers stated that student-centredness means students should write using neat handwriting and correct spelling. Others noted that students could copy poems and stories from the textbook in *beautiful handwriting* using *correct punctuation*. Similarly, when describing the role of a facilitator, some teachers reported this to mean they should focus their teaching on *handwriting, capital letters* and *the use of full stops in a sentence*. In addition to this, when describing their interpretation of interaction in writing, some teachers stated that interaction is about the mechanical aspects of writing, stating that, *students write sentences that their teachers dictate, correctly using neat handwriting.*

The findings from the interviews with the ten teachers also revealed that the expected competencies consistently appeared in teachers’ interpretation of the KTSP. One teacher, for example stated:

*I guess student-centredness particularly in writing lessons should be related to children’s handwriting; how to make them write correctly and beautifully because at Y2, the students’ achievement focuses on this.*

Further, the influence of the competencies to be achieved in writing for Y2 was evident in the teachers’ responses when they were asked to describe their interpretation of assessment in writing in the questionnaire. Their responses focused on the aspects of writing emphasised in the competencies. Data from the questionnaire showed that some 64% of the teachers agreed that assessment in writing in the KTSP means to focus on the product with the main attention being given to the low level skills of writing. This included assessing students’ handwriting and their use of capital letters and full stops. This basic punctuation was applied to sentences presented in isolation rather than in continuous text.

This finding was supported by the results from the interview analysis which showed the ten teachers in Phase 2 of the study consistently reported that assessment in writing means evaluating students’ writing with the main attention being given to
these low level skills. Again, aspects such as neat handwriting, correct letter formation, accurate spelling and the use of appropriate punctuation were emphasised by the teachers. For instance, one teacher stated:

*When assessing students’ writing, I always focus on the use of capital letters, the neatness of their writing and also the spelling of the students’ words. I have to make sure that the target of the basic competence stated in the curriculum is met.*

It is important to note that spelling in Bahasa Indonesia is phonetically regular and, therefore, is relatively straightforward for students. In this context, it would not be regarded as a high level skill or cognitively demanding, even for young students.

The influence of the writing competencies on teachers’ interpretation of curriculum as demonstrated in this study is not unique. Teachers in countries that adopt standard-based curriculum, have been encouraged to understand the curriculum by first looking at the expected learning outcome, standard or competencies before planning learning experiences and instruction (Graff, 2011; Cho & Trent, 2005). This approach, which appears to occur as an attempt to align standards and curriculum to ensure the standards are met, is called a backward design.

Backward design has become widespread in the United States (Graff, 2011; Cho & Trent, 2005; Wiggins & McTighe, 2005) and involves three processes. First, it starts with the end, or with the desired results; second, acceptable evidence showing students to have met those desired results is determined; and third, the teachers plan learning experiences and instructions to help students develop the skills and knowledge needed to produce evidence of learning (Wiggins & McTighe, 2005). This was how the teachers in this study prepared their lessons. Several studies have found that backward design is an effective method of helping students meet expected standards (Fox & Doherty, 2011; Kelting-Gibson, 2005). Wiggins and McTighe argue that teachers cannot plan how they are going to teach until they know what they want their students to learn. Therefore, the power of the backward design has implications for the nature of the competencies and for the way they are interpreted. In the case of this study where the competencies were interpreted in a relatively narrow way, this appeared to lead to a failure of the teachers to attend to the pedagogical approaches recommended in the KTSP.
To sum up, the teachers in this study appeared to interpret the KTSP conservatively, based on their experiences and existing knowledge that were influenced by a traditional view of learning. In addition, their interpretation was strongly influenced by the expected competencies for Y2 level that were narrowly focused on low level writing skills and handwriting. These findings suggest that the teachers’ interpretations of the pedagogical aspects of the KTSP in relation to the teaching of writing did not reflect the underlying learning perspective which informed the KTSP.

7.3 Teachers’ Implementation of the KTSP

There were two main findings identified in this study regarding the teachers’ implementation of the KTSP in relation to teaching writing. First, the teachers demonstrated a traditional approach to learning in their writing lesson practices. Second, the teachers appeared to restrict their teaching of writing to the expected Basic Competencies. The following sections discuss these key findings respectively.

Finding 1: Teachers demonstrated a traditional view of learning in their practices when implementing the KTSP in writing

As discussed previously, the KTSP promotes student-centred learning, encourages teachers to use active methods and various types of assessment, and suggests teachers shift from focusing on teaching to emphasising learning (BSNP, 2006). These concepts have been widely linked to the constructivist perspective of learning. However, there did not appear to be evidence found in this study that the teachers had incorporated practices consistent with this view of learning when implementing the KTSP in writing. Rather, their practices reflected a traditional view of learning.

In Phase 1 of the study, the teachers were asked to report key changes they had made in their writing lessons as a result of implementing the KTSP (see Table 25). Almost 50% of the teachers gave responses which seemed to indicate they had made changes in their classroom practices as suggested by the KTSP such as, the implementation of various methods of teaching to promote active learning. However, further analysis of the data revealed that their understanding of these terms, as has been discussed in previous sections, appeared to reflect a traditional view of learning.
A traditional view of learning was also evident in all the classroom observations conducted in Phase 2 of the study. This view was clearly observable in many aspects of the teachers’ practice. First, it was reflected in the teachers’ role in the classroom which could be characterised as predominantly teacher-centred. It was evident that the teachers took a dominant role in orchestrating activities in the classroom. They, for example, reported that they determine all the topics to be learned and all activities or assignments to be done and the students were all observed to do similar tasks. In addition to this, the teachers were seen to focus on the transmission of knowledge in all the observed lessons.

Teacher-centredness was particularly evident in the way teachers presented their lessons. Regardless of their different backgrounds and the varying contexts of the schools, all the teachers were observed using mainly explicit teaching methods in their writing lessons. For example, the teachers began each lesson by either explaining the learning objectives to be covered during the lesson, or stating the goal of the lesson. This was followed by a short review of a previous lesson. Next, they presented new materials followed by guided practice in which the students worked individually under teacher direction. During guided practice, the teachers gave feedback by correcting students’ work orally. Finally, students undertook independent practice. In independent practice, teachers gave tasks to students which they completed individually and their work was collected for marking. In the classroom observations there did not appear to be evidence of teachers acting as a facilitator in ways consistent with constructivist perspectives.

Similarly, the teachers’ traditional view of learning was evident in the nature of the classroom interaction. In this case, the majority of classroom interaction in the observed classes appeared to follow a pattern where the teachers initiated a question and called on a student, the student responded, and the teacher evaluated the student's answer as either correct or incorrect. This sequence, known as IRE (Initiation, Response and Evaluation) (Perrott, 1988) is considered to be consistent with a transmission model of teaching (Myhill, Jones, & Hopper, 2006; Perrott, 1988). The students in the observed classes very seldom asked questions about the information presented or sought clarification to extend their understanding.
In addition to this, students were observed to be involved mostly in lower level writing activities such as copying and dictation. In one observed class, for example, students practised handwriting by copying a poem from a textbook. In others, students were observed writing sentences dictated by their teachers. In some classrooms interaction between students was observed as they worked in small groups. In these contexts, the teachers directed the students to work individually on comprehension questions based on a text. Then they were grouped and told to exchange their written answers, taking turns to comment on them. For example, one student would read what she had written and her peers would note if the answer was the same as theirs and together they would decide if what they had written was correct. The teachers referred to this sequence as an example of collaborative learning through discussion. However, this type of interaction does not appear to match the definitions of collaboration learning through discussion as discussed in the literature. In these definitions, there is an emphasis on a learning situation where two or more students actively interact with each other to construct knowledge; search for understanding, meaning, or solutions; or to create an artefact or product of their learning (Harding-Smith, 1993; Hargreaves, 2007).

Further, the teachers’ traditional view of learning was evident in their approach to the teaching of writing. It was apparent that the observed learning proceeded from teaching a part to the whole, thereby reflecting a traditional approach. In this case, the students were observed to learn parts of sentences, starting from words; then they learned to combine or add words to form sentences. This appears to be inconsistent with the underlying concept of the KTSP which promotes a whole to part approach and which, in turn, reflects a constructivist approach (Brooks & Brooks, 1999). In this approach, students are encouraged to use language as a whole so they can see the big picture first before moving to analyse the whole picture so as to discover the relevant parts and make connections.

Similarly, the teachers appeared to demonstrate a traditional view of learning in their assessment. This was evident in the teachers’ syllabus and lesson plans, classroom observations, informal discussions and students’ samples of writing. The teachers’ syllabi and lesson plans indicated that they focused their assessment on the writing products the students generated. The observations, informal discussions and the students’ samples of writing further demonstrated that the assessment of students’
writing products made by all 10 teachers involved in the second phase of the study focused on the accuracy of low level of writing skills, such as neat cursive handwriting and sentence level punctuation, regardless of the type of writing being completed. This assessment, as reported by the teachers, was conducted without the presence of the students. In addition to this, the teachers did not appear to use a range of assessment types in writing lessons as suggested by the KTSP. Rather, they relied on objective skill-based tests, which reflect a traditional view of learning.

This finding suggests that the teachers’ classroom practices were inconsistent with the constructivist learning perspective which informs the KTSP. Rather, they appeared to take a traditional approach to implementing the KTSP.

The findings of this research were similar to previous research findings about the implementation of change in other contexts in that, although teachers were directed to change practices in their classrooms, they still delivered their lessons using their existing traditional methods (Blignaut, 2008; Curtner-Smith, 1999; DeSegovia & Hardison, 2009; Obara & Sloan, 2009; Utomo, 2005). De Segovia and Hardison in their study concerned with the implementation of a new English curriculum in Thailand reported that the teachers in their study struggled with the introduction of new pedagogical concepts promoted in the new curriculum. The reform mandated a shift from a teacher-centred approach to a learner-centred one involving all subjects including English. However, this study found no evidence of the teachers implementing the new approach as suggested. Rather, they delivered subjects using their old practices. Similarly, Blignaut (2008) found that learner-centred practices which were promoted in a new curriculum in South Africa appeared to be non-existent in teachers’ classrooms. In addition to this, it was found that assessment practices did not reflect the intent of curriculum policy.

There appeared to be one exception to this general finding and this applied to the implementation of a thematic approach. The majority (97%) of the teachers in this study reported in the questionnaires that they had implemented a thematic approach in their classroom as suggested by the Curriculum Policies. Further, 20% of them noted that implementing a thematic approach was one of key changes they had made to implement the KTSP in writing. However, when the ten teachers participating in Phase 2 of the study were asked to nominate four lessons to be
observed when teaching writing, only three of them were willing to be observed while integrating writing with other subjects such as science and social studies. The remaining seven teachers preferred to be observed while teaching language arts and writing as a separate subject. They reported that this was because they still did not understand how to teach using a thematic approach.

The three teachers who were observed appeared to demonstrate a traditional view of learning when teaching through a thematic approach. Their teaching was teacher-centred and the students were involved in lower level activities. When integrating writing with other subjects such as science, the teachers divided their students into groups and asked them to discuss their work. However, the discussion in this context appeared to focus on students comparing or exchanging their answers to simple questions from science textbooks. For example in one of the observed lessons where science was integrated with writing, students were first asked to write answers to questions about energy individually. Next, they exchanged their answers with a partner to check whether they were correct or not. Later, the teachers checked the use of full stops and capital letters in their answers to address the competencies for writing. In another example, one of these teachers also directed students to write a personal recount related to the current theme in social studies. However, the emphasis remained the same; that is, on low level writing skills. Thus, although teachers’ interpretation of a thematic approach in writing appeared to be in line with the KTSP, as discussed in previous sections, little evidence was found in the observation that this had been put into practice. Further, where a thematic approach was used, the teaching was more consistent with a traditional approach than a constructivist one.

Several studies have shown that while teachers understand the concept of integrating curriculum through a thematic approach, its implementation is far from easy (Yeung & Lam, 2007). Indeed, implementing curriculum integration initiatives appears to be challenging and problematic to teachers. A study in Hong Kong (Yeung & Lam, 2007) found that although curriculum integration through a thematic approach had been imposed on schools for more than twenty years, it appeared that this change was not successfully implemented. The findings indicated that most of the teachers in their study still remained practising or showing more acceptance of a teacher-centred, discipline-based type of teaching and curriculum. Similarly, in a
Norwegian study of curriculum change, Broadhead (2001) reported that teachers found integrated themes to be challenging as they must familiarise with and understand the content requirements within subjects and then bring this knowledge together across them.

The teachers’ preference for a traditional approach rather than that promoted by the KTSP was evident in their reliance on textbooks as a primary resource in the teaching of writing. Despite the Curriculum Policies and Curriculum Guidelines encouraging teachers to develop their own material based on their local contexts, this study found that most of the teachers used textbooks which they claimed were relevant to their lessons. More than 70% of the teachers in the questionnaire reported that textbooks were the most common learning resources they used to support the implementation of the KTSP in writing. This finding was reflected in the classroom observations and the teachers’ lesson plans of the observed lessons, where all the teachers used textbooks as part of the delivery of their lessons.

This practice, however, is not new since textbooks have long been considered as the most readily assessable instructional aid for teachers (Remilland, 2005). They often use textbooks for guidance as this resource provided a list of topics to be covered, assignments to be completed and class activities to be explored (Cohen, 2003; Remillard, 2005). Indeed, textbooks can play a significant role in the implementation of new curriculum (Ball & Cohen, 1996; Remillard, 2005) and can facilitate change. Further, they may communicate and provide guidance for change (Ball & Cohen, 1996). However, it could be argued that in order to have this facilitating role, the textbooks would need to be consistent with the approaches promoted by the new curriculum. This would not seem to be the case in the current study where the textbooks appeared to lead the teachers to implement a more traditional approach. In one observed classroom, for example, a teacher delivered the lesson from a textbook, while all the students followed what the teacher read, by looking at the same textbook. It was also evident that the writing activities and types of writing exercises given to the students were adopted from the textbooks that focused on traditional tasks such as dictation and copying.
Finding 2: Teachers in this study appeared to restrict their teaching to the expected competencies when implementing the KTSP in writing

The teachers in this study appeared to focus their teaching on the expected competencies when implementing the KTSP in writing. Expected competencies in this study, as mentioned, refer to low level writing skills which include neat handwriting and the use of capital letters and full stops. These are part of the Basic Competencies for writing in Y2 as determined by the Curriculum Policies that frame the development of the KTSP. Evidence suggests that the teachers viewed the expected competencies as central to their teaching. Most of them reported in the questionnaire that the changes they had made in order to implement the KTSP were related to ensuring their students achieved the Basic Competencies, stating that the various teaching aids and learning resources they used were all designed to meet these.

The teachers’ emphasis on outcomes was also evident during the Phase 2 classroom observations where all the teachers organised their lessons based on the competencies outlined by the Curriculum Policies. They assigned their students activities that appeared to address the competencies directly. These activities included copying poems from textbooks, copying teachers’ writing from the blackboard, writing sentences dictated by their teachers, writing sentences modelled orally by their teachers, completing stories by filling in missing words, and writing one or two simple sentences about animals. In two classes, students were observed writing personal recounts. However, regardless of these different types of writing activities, they were all designed to lead directly to the achievement of the stated competencies, which focused on the low level writing skills.

As noted earlier, the teachers interpreted the competencies in a narrow way and required their students to practise skills focused on writing tasks. The writing products (n= 90) collected for analysis after the classroom observations reflected this orientation. That is, they were predominantly copied text or poems (n= 24) or sentences which had been dictated by the teachers or written after oral practice (n=36). There were fewer samples which were answers to questions or completed cloze passages (n=24) or recounts (n=6). The last type of writing products (recounts) were produced in the two classrooms that combined language arts with other content
areas such as social study. Although there was a range of writing products, the focus remained on the lower level skills of writing.

Similarly, the expected competencies also strongly shaped the teachers’ assessment in that it focused on low level skills of writing. This was particularly evident in the classroom observations, informal discussions, interviews and the manner in which the teachers appraised their students’ samples of writing. That is, the 90 writing samples collected were all mainly assessed on the basis of the relative neatness and accuracy of the handwriting and the use of simple punctuation as reported by the teachers in the informal discussion and interview. Further, in the lessons observed, the teachers frequently reminded the students that they would be assessed on these particular aspects of writing. Even in one of the classrooms where students were given the opportunity to write a recount, the emphasis remained on low level skills as exemplified in the following quote: “Write your experiences during your holiday. Those who don’t make mistakes in using capital letters and full stops will get a high score.” Consistent with this emphasis, the teachers selected samples of student writing based on neat handwriting and minimal mistakes in the use of capital letters and full stops.

In the interviews following the observations, some teachers stated that the learning indicators for writing lessons for Y2 are to be able to write neatly and correctly. These learning indicators were written into their lesson plans and syllabi. Thus their assessment was based on these goals regardless of whether the activity was copying, rewriting stories or writing simple sentences. One teacher expressed this as: “I assessed my students on the outcome to be achieved ... and that was using neat cursive handwriting and correct use of capital letters and full stops.”

In addition to this, the strong influence of competencies on teachers’ practices appeared to be influenced by the textbooks they used. As discussed in the previous section, the teachers in this study used textbooks as their primary resource in implementing the KTSP in writing. The textbooks used appeared to be strictly organised according to the minimum standard competencies to be achieved in Y2. As a result, the activities the teachers provided for their students addressed these competencies for writing such as copying a poem, completing sentences or practising the use of capital letters and full stops.
Even though an analysis of the samples of writing collected in this study suggested that the students were capable of using simple punctuation and neat handwriting, the teachers’ focus remained on these aspects. The following sample of writing, demonstrates the high level of handwriting skills the children in the classrooms studied typically showed.

The teachers’ focus on the achievement of the expected writing competencies appeared to restrict the writing activities made available to students. However, there was some evidence that students in this study were capable of producing writing which was more demanding than the majority of writing activities observed. For example, in two observed lessons, the students were asked to compose their own texts. While the focus remained on practising low level skills, and although the writing of different genre types had not yet been taught in Y2, the students’ samples showed that they were capable of communicating their own ideas in writing. For example, the text below showed that the student seemed aware of the essential aspects of a recount. She used an opening and a brief conclusion. She reported events in sequence and used appropriate vocabulary. The content was also relevant to the topic.
Flood moment

One day in my village it rained heavily. Eventually it was flooded in my village. There was a lot of rubbish. We had to clean it from the ditch. We did not forget to clean the river so that it would not overflow. That was the flood moment in my village. The end.

This suggests that the teachers structured their teaching around the competencies as outlined in the Curriculum Policies and that given the narrow scope of these outcomes and the teachers’ even more restricted interpretation of them, there was strong encouragement to retain traditional approaches to pedagogy. The teachers appeared to design their lessons starting from the expected competencies which informed the learning outcomes they wanted their students to achieve. This further supports the evidence presented earlier in this chapter about the way in which the teachers utilised a backward design (Wiggins & McTighe, 2005). Clearly, this approach to design occurred not only in their interpretation but also in their implementation of the KTSP.

The teachers’ focus on the competencies and use of a backward design may have also impacted on their role in their classrooms. In this study, despite using backward design, teachers’ retained their traditional role as a knowledge transmitter. It would seem that one of the factors that influenced the teachers in this study to
retain their traditional role may have been the nature of the expected competencies coupled with the teachers’ narrow interpretation of them which, in turn, led them to focus on low level writing skills. It followed that they would choose to teach and assess these skills in more direct ways to achieve the learning goals pragmatically. The choice of these direct methods meant that the teachers retained their traditional role.

In summary, the teachers in this study appeared to restrict their teaching to the expected competencies for writing in Y2, despite the Curriculum Policies noting that these were basic and teachers should encourage their students to achieve outcomes beyond the prescribed level. While focusing on low level writing skills seemed to result in neat writing with minimal mistakes in surface features, it also appeared to limit opportunities for extending students’ writing beyond these aspects. Thus, the strong influence of a narrow interpretation of the Y2 competencies, meant that teachers’ implementation of the KTSP in relation to the teaching of writing, did not reflect the underlying learning perspective it promoted.

7.4 Factors which Influenced the Teachers’ Interpretation and Implementation of the KTSP

This study revealed a range of factors that appeared to influence the teacher’s interpretation and implementation of the KTSP in relation to the teaching of writing in Y2. These factors could be categorised as those relating to the teacher, to the nature of the expected competencies and those concerned with the context. All of these factors were both self-identified by the teachers and evident less directly in the collected data. The first factor was based on the analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data, while the second and the third factors particularly emerged from the analysis of qualitative data.

Finding 1: Teacher factors

This category focuses on the teachers’ knowledge related to the KTSP and its implementation. This study found that the teachers’ knowledge appeared to be insufficient to implement the KTSP in teaching writing in ways that were suggested by the Curriculum Policies.
First, there was ample evidence that the teachers in this study did not seem to teach in ways that were consistent with the practices suggested by the Curriculum Policies and Curriculum Guidelines of the KTSP. This was, in part, due to their lack of knowledge of the six key concepts identified in the KTSP and how to enact them in classrooms. While the KTSP seems to encourage the teachers to provide learning experiences based on constructivist perspectives, the teachers’ existing understanding and implementation in the classroom, appeared to be consistent with a more traditional approach, in which learning was teacher-directed. There was no evidence found, in any of the participating classrooms that students had an opportunity to construct their own knowledge and understanding through writing activities. This suggests that there was a mismatch between the teachers’ interpretation and implementation of the KTSP in writing and the theoretical perspectives which informed it.

Second, even when teachers appeared to have an understanding of some of the key concepts such as active learning and a thematic approach, this proved to be superficial. For instance, in Phase 1 of the study, the teachers were asked to identify the most difficult aspect to implement about the KTSP (see Table 27). The teachers’ most frequent response was related to their difficulties in implementing a thematic approach and active learning. Although most of the teachers in this study were able to explain the concept of a thematic approach, their understanding appeared to lack depth. Similarly, when asked what kind of support they needed to implement the KTSP in writing, most of the teachers (see Table 28) stated that they needed training, as was illustrated in the following teacher’s comments.

*I need specific training on how to implement active learning in writing.*

*Comprehensive training on thematic approach will be very useful to support my implementation of the KTSP in literacy, including writing.*

The teachers’ insufficient knowledge was also evident in Phase 2 of the study. Most of the teachers reported in the interview that they did not understand key aspects of the KTSP, particularly student-centredness, active learning and how to implement a thematic approach. For instance, one teacher stated:

"I need specific training on how to implement active learning in writing. Comprehensive training on thematic approach will be very useful to support my implementation of the KTSP in literacy, including writing."

The teachers’ insufficient knowledge was also evident in Phase 2 of the study. Most of the teachers reported in the interview that they did not understand key aspects of the KTSP, particularly student-centredness, active learning and how to implement a thematic approach. For instance, one teacher stated:
I don’t know exactly what student-centredness and active learning is, so I just teach to the best I know.

Another teacher stated:

I never attended any training on how to teach active learning and a thematic approach.

Although most teachers in this study attended PD related to the implementation of the KTSP, this training did not appear to address the complexity of the new curriculum. Further, it did not seem to meet the teachers’ needs or assist them to develop the new knowledge and skills they required to implement the KTSP. In Phase 1 of the study, most (95%) of the 61 teachers reported that they had attended PD about the KTSP in general with 83% of them, attending more than one session. More than half (n=33 or 54%) of the teachers had attended one (n=12), two (n=17), three (n=2) or four or more (n=2) sessions focused on literacy subjects. Despite these training sessions, there still appeared to be a mismatch between teachers’ current knowledge and skills and the underlying theory of the KTSP as was discussed earlier.

Part of this mismatch may be due to the PD being provided not matching the knowledge and skills required to implement the KTSP. For instance, some teachers reported that the sessions they had attended only focused on the teaching of handwriting. Further, when the PD did have a broader focus, teachers tended to interpret what they learnt in ways that matched how they currently taught. For instance, one teacher recounted how she had attended a workshop on various teaching methods, including the explicit method of teaching and the use of ‘jigsaw’ (a collaborative strategy). It was interesting to note that this teacher said that the explicit method was the best method to implement in the classroom. However, in observations of her classroom, it was clear that she had interpreted the explicit method in a narrow way. That is, she dominated the teaching and learning processes and directed the student activity. Further, the focus was on directly teaching low level writing skills such as handwriting and simple sentence punctuation. Indeed, this type of teaching method dominated in all of the classrooms observed in Phase 2 of the study.

Another aspect of the implementation that appeared to be influenced by the teachers’ lack of knowledge was the emphasis they placed on the competencies. In their interviews, seven out of the ten teachers in Phase 2 of the study claimed that
they did not understand the KTSP very well so used the competencies to guide their planning and teaching. One of these teachers commented:

*Frankly speaking, I am not sure what student-centredness means. I am also not really sure about the teaching of a thematic approach in the classroom. So, I just focus on the competencies.*

Analysis of data from the observations, informal discussions, interviews and documents indicated that the three teachers who appeared to understand the key concepts of the KTSP (through their use of constructivist terminology to describe some of the key concepts), had a narrow view of these that did not reflect the KTSP. These teachers also relied on the competencies to guide their planning and teaching.

This suggests that the teachers’ lack of understanding of the key concepts of the KTSP led them to focus on the competencies to be achieved in Y2. This finding supports previous research which found that curriculum change which is not understood well leads teachers to focus on what will be tested (Utomo, 2005).

Further, the teachers’ lack of knowledge was also apparent in their narrow interpretation of the Basic Competencies. Most of the teachers appeared to interpret the basic competences as highlighting the importance of low level writing skills, such as neat handwriting and correct use of simple punctuation. Consequently, the writing activities made available to students and teachers’ assessment of students’ writing reflected this narrow interpretation. The Basic Competencies (see page 26) while being narrow, seem potentially broader than the teachers’ interpretation suggests. Further, the teachers were encouraged to provide their students with opportunities to demonstrate competency beyond these basic indicators. While the second and fourth competencies were relatively narrow, emphasising copying, dictation and the correct use of capital letters and full stops, the first and third competencies seemed to give more scope for a broader interpretation. However, regardless of this, the teachers’ narrow interpretation of the competencies was evident in both the first and third Competency Standards.

To meet the first competency standard, students were expected to complete simple stories using correct words. The teachers interpreted this requirement as their students being able to select the correct words from a list provided, to fill in gaps in simple sentences (a cloze activity). When the students were deemed proficient at this
level, they were asked to complete the given sentences using their own words. There was little evidence that students were encouraged to engage in activities with higher cognitive demand such as writing their own simple stories or completed a whole story as apparently encouraged in the competency. Although there were two teachers who asked their students to write a simple recount, the focus remained on low level skills such as neat handwriting.

To meet the third competency, the students were required to “write simple descriptions of plants or animals using written language”. The learning indicator commonly developed by the teachers participating in the study, as evident in their syllabi, interpreted this competency as requiring a student to “write characteristics of animals using simple sentences with correct punctuation and neat handwriting”. To meet this learning indicator, the teachers guided the students to practice these simple sentences orally and then they wrote them on the board. When the sentences were familiar to the students, they copied them from the board using neat handwriting. Next, teachers asked the students to complete sentences that described an animal under a picture of that animal and using words that were provided. These activities were evident in two observed classes that focused on describing animals. There was no evidence in any of the observed classes or student writing samples that the students wrote their own descriptions of animals or plants.

This suggests that the teachers did not understand the full extent of the skills, knowledge and understanding their students were expected to demonstrate to meet the competencies. They only recognised the low level skills that were part of the competencies, and focused on these in their planning, teaching and assessment. This would seem to be a consequence of the teachers not understanding the key concepts of the KTSP or where there was some understanding, as with the thematic approach, not having the skills to implement the pedagogy advocated by the new curriculum. The influence of teachers’ lack of knowledge of the KTSP on their misunderstanding of the competencies was also found in an earlier study undertaken by the Indonesian Centre of Curriculum (Pusat Kurikulum, 2007).

The teachers’ apparent lack of knowledge was also evident in their role as a curriculum developer. The teachers did not appear to extend the minimum competencies to address their students’ needs or respond to their contexts despite
being empowered by the new curriculum to do so. In developing their KTSP, the school and teachers were required to refer to the Standard Competencies stated in the Curriculum Policies that framed the development of the KTSP. These competencies according to these policies were, however, basic or minimal. Schools could set higher standards based on the context of their school (PP No 19 Standar Nasional Pendidikan, 2005). Despite this encouragement, it was evident in this study that the teachers appeared to aim for the minimal competencies. None of the teachers were seen to teach beyond the Basic Competencies. This could suggest that the teachers did not consider their students’ background when developing their KTSP. As mentioned, there was evidence found that the students in this study were capable of producing writing beyond copying as shown by their writing products. In addition to this, the background of the students showed that not only had they attended Y1, but additionally, most of them, as reported by the teachers, had attended pre-primary where literacy learning is part of the curriculum. However, this previous knowledge of the students did not seem to be taken into consideration. This is not surprising since developing curriculum, let alone in a constructivist way, in real working contexts, was relatively new to the teachers, although those with a degree in Diploma 2 and Bachelor degree in education or who were currently studying for their bachelor degree might have taken more relevant courses at the university.

Thus, this discrepancy between what the KTSP expected teachers to do and the teachers’ actual practices in the classroom appeared to be influenced by the teachers’ existing knowledge and skills related to the key concepts of the KTSP and its implementation. These findings reflect those found in other studies about the implementation of change (Blignaut, 2008; De Segovia & Hardison, 2009; Park, 2008; Yeung & Lam, 2007). For instance, De Segovia and Hardison (2009) found that pedagogical concepts promoted in a new curriculum appeared to be non-existent in the classrooms of the teachers who participated in their study. As in the present study, one of the factors found to contribute to this failure was that the teachers in their study did not have enough knowledge required to implement the suggested pedagogy. Also consistent with the current study, other factors that inhibited change related to teachers being pragmatic. The teachers in Phase 2 of the present study claimed that their existing practices helped students better understand the lesson because they were focusing on meeting skill-based competencies.
As with the current study, Blignaut’s study (2008) found several factors that impeded teachers’ understanding and implementation of new curriculum. One of these was the teachers’ prior experience of teaching and learning. She argued that the new curriculum policy messages were often interpreted in light of what teachers already understood or the knowledge base they already had. This appears to be the case in this study, as teachers interpreted and implemented the KTSP in relation to their experience and knowledge.

**Finding 2: The nature of expected competencies factor**

Another factor influencing the teachers’ implementation of the KTSP in the teaching of writing found in this study was related to the nature of the Competency Standards and Basic Competencies for writing in Year 2. It appeared that some of these competencies were narrow and very skill-based and, therefore, did not seem to promote higher level writing practices or activities which were consistent with a constructivist perspective. This was particularly evident with regard to the second and fourth Basic Competencies which were “write simple sentences which are dictated by teachers using cursive writing by paying attention to the use of capital letter and full stops, and copying poems using neat cursive handwriting” (Peraturan Menteri Pendidikan Nasional No 22 SI, 2006a, p. 321-322).

These narrow competencies appeared to lead teachers to focus on the mastery of low level writing skills, such as neat handwriting and the use of sentence level capital letters and full stops. They did this pragmatically through activities such as dictation and copying which reflected a traditional approach of learning. When teaching to meet these two Basic Competencies, all the teachers in this study provided activities that required the students to copy their teacher’s handwriting from the board, text from textbooks and poems using cursive writing. Similarly, students were required to write simple sentences dictated by their teacher after they had practised them orally. This type of activity was evident in the teachers’ syllabi and plans, observed lessons, students’ samples of writing, informal discussions and in the interviews. Out of 30 lessons observed, 25 focused on achieving Basic Competencies 2 and 4. Indeed, all the activities provided to students by the teachers in these 25 lessons focused on copying and dictation.
This tendency by the teachers to be pragmatic in meeting the requirements of all four competencies by direct traditional teaching methods seemed to be strengthened by their use of backward design (Wiggins & McTighe, 2005). As mentioned earlier, the teachers in this study designed their lessons in a backward way. That is, they started from the competencies and then determined the content and instruction required to meet them. Since the competencies were very skill-based, the teachers selected pedagogy consistent with a traditional view of learning as they indicated that this approach matched the competencies well. For instance, one teacher claimed in the informal discussion:

_We plan our lessons based on these Competency Standards. Therefore, I choose activities which help to meet the competency._

Another teacher made the following comment during the interview:

_The competencies are students should write correctly and beautifully, use correct capital letters and full stops, and be able to write simple sentences or words that are dictated to them. So to achieve this, I give them practice through copying and dictation activities and other similar activities._

Thus, the perceived and stated relatively narrow and skill-based competencies for writing in Y2 discouraged the teachers from making the pedagogical changes recommended by the Curriculum Policies of the KTSP. That is, the nature of the competencies encouraged the teachers to focus on low level writing skills and select traditional pedagogy rather than apply the key concepts which encouraged students to construct meaning. This finding supports the view that narrow competencies in a competency-based curriculum will lead to narrow and behaviourist-oriented teaching (Bowden, 1997).

**Finding 3: Contextual factors**

The teachers in this study were asked to provide information about the contextual factors which influenced their practices in implementing the KTSP in writing. In this study, contextual factors refer to class sizes, the physical condition of the classroom and the availability of resources. Most of the classes involved in this study were considered large, having between 36 and 45 students; and none of these classes had any teaching assistants available to help the teachers.
Although teachers in this study did not seem to consider the size of their class as problematic, the high number of students did appear to influence their selection of teaching methods. This was evident in the observed lessons where all the teachers took a dominant role in their classroom and provided students with similar activities saying that this was in order to control their large classes. One teacher, in an interview, for example, stated:

*I have forty students in my class. I have to control them otherwise they would make lots of noise that would disturb others. That’s why it is good to do things at the same time because it will be easy for me to control.*

Large classes also influenced the type of activity the teachers provided for their students. Seven of the ten observed teachers stated that they could not ask all their students to practise in front of the class one by one due to their large class size. In observed lessons, these teachers nominated several individual students to read what they have written in front of the whole class. One of them said:

*I want to give enough practice to my students but time does not permit because there are 40 students. So I just nominate some of them to do things in front of the class.*

Interestingly, none of these teachers used pair or group work in this context to give the children an opportunity to share their work with their peers.

The classroom furniture also influenced teachers’ choice of pedagogy. The heavy desks and chairs in all observed classrooms made it very difficult for teachers to rearrange the furniture for group work. Two teachers stated that after the introduction and implementation of the KTSP, their classroom conditions remained unchanged. Observations suggested that this was the case for all but one of the ten teachers. This teacher who had smaller, lighter desks, however, did not change the setup of her class to promote student interaction in any of the observed lessons. It would seem that the teachers in this study were not aware of alternative classroom conditions that might facilitate the KTSP.

Another factor, identified by the teachers as influencing them in applying various teaching strategies in their classroom, was the availability of resources. More than half of them stating in the questionnaire that they needed more learning resources to implement the KTSP. However, during the interviews in Phase 2 of the
study, all the teachers indicated that the learning resources they needed were to support the teaching of handwriting as this was an important competency their students needed to achieve.

Despite the teachers only stating their need for resources to support the teaching of handwriting, classroom observations showed that only three of the 10 classrooms were equipped with a range of learning resources, while the other classes had minimal aids such as pictures and letter cards. As mentioned, the Curriculum Policies and Curriculum Guidelines suggest that the pedagogy used in implementing the KTSP is student-centred. The literature indicates that the effective use of a print-rich environment is an important part of student-centred learning, especially in relation to literacy (Schluze, 2006; Tompkins, 2008; Vukelich & Christie, 2009). However, in this study only three teachers appeared to provide such an environment.

These findings suggest that the classroom environment and the lack of resources influenced the teachers in this study to implement the new pedagogy recommended in the Curriculum Policies. Similarly, studies in other contexts have found that a lack of resources and large classes are key factors hindering teachers in the implementation of change similar to that suggested in Curriculum Policies. Blignaut (2008), in her study concerned with implementing curriculum change in South Africa, found that a lack of resources such as textbooks and learning materials coupled with large classes hampered teachers’ efforts to implement student-centred pedagogy. Consequently, teachers in the study persisted with a traditional approach to teaching similar to that of teachers in the current study.

### 7.5 Key Issues

This section discusses the key issues that emerged from the discussion of teachers’ interpretation and implementation of the KTSP in relation to the teaching of writing. These key issues included: the level of teachers’ knowledge; the match between the mandated competencies and teachers’ existing knowledge; and the transferability of a western learning philosophy to the Indonesian context.
The level of teachers’ knowledge

It was evident in this study that the teachers’ lack of knowledge of the pedagogical concepts of the KTSP was one of the main factors that influenced their interpretation and implementation of this new curriculum in relation to teaching writing in Y2. The teachers appeared to have insufficient knowledge of the changes promoted by the new curriculum as seen in their apparent lack of understanding and application of the six key concepts investigated in this study. Consequently, they interpreted and implemented the curriculum through the lens of their existing knowledge which reflected a traditional approach to teaching. Even though there were opportunities to interpret the first and the third of the four listed Basic Competencies in greater depth, or to extend and broaden the competency requirements as allowed in the Policy document, this was not taken up by any of the teachers in this study. In addition, evidence from this study showed that the teachers’ knowledge appeared to be insufficient to assist them to develop a school-based curriculum in a manner that reflected the intent of the KTSP.

Although most of the teachers in this study claimed to have attended professional development about the implementation of the KTSP, the training they received appeared to be insufficient to support them in their implementation of the KTSP in writing in a manner consistent with curriculum policy. Most of the teachers had attended general sessions about the KTSP up to three times, and more than 50% of them attended PD on literacy. However, their description of the PD implied that the content did not seem to address the complexity of the intended change, thereby suggesting that the teachers were not well equipped to implement the new curriculum in accord with KTSP requirements.

This lack of preparation of teachers, who are responsible for implementing curriculum change, has been found to hamper them in implementing the change (De Segovia & Hardison, 2009; Park, 2008; Utomo, 2005; Yeung & Lam, 2007). For example, De Segovia and Hardison (2009) found no evidence that the teachers in their study implemented new approaches as suggested in the new curriculum policy. Rather, they delivered subjects using their existing practices. As in the current study, the teachers reported that they had insufficient training on how to implement a learner-based approach; and they did not have enough knowledge to implement the
required reform. Similarly, in Utomo’s study (2005) of implementing change in Indonesia, the teachers reported receiving only one third of the training needed to implement change.

Additionally, the finding in this study that teachers were impeded in implementing the change by a lack of knowledge is consistent with change theory. This theory indicates that effective change will occur if teachers, as key curriculum implementers, have a clear understanding of the change itself and have the opportunity to develop new knowledge, skills and attitudes. (Fullan, 1993). In fact, deep change requires new ways of thinking and behaving and demands the acquisition of new knowledge and skills for teachers (Fullan, 2007). Professional development is the key to facilitating this kind of change (Guskey, 2002). Indeed, Fullan (2007) argues that staff development and successful innovation or improvement is closely related.

That the teachers in the current study continued to teach using a traditional approach is not surprising given research has identified that an imposed curriculum requires teachers to update their knowledge and skills in a manner that is consistent with the demands of the new curriculum (Fullan, 2007; Guskey, 2000). Clearly, the teachers in the current study did not have sufficient opportunities to update their skills and knowledge to a level which would allow them to meet the demands of the new curriculum. This may be because they mostly attended single day PD sessions which did not seem to provide the depth of understanding required by the KTSP. Guskey (2000) argued that these types of “one-shot workshops”, focusing on teachers’ mastery of prescribed knowledge and skills do not support the implementation of new curriculum. It could be argued that for Indonesian teachers this is particularly the case with constructivism representing a fundamental change in all aspects of the teaching and learning process. Therefore, the teachers could not be expected to incorporate these major changes without extensive preparation involving effective and on-going PD.

In addition, the change of role from knowledge transmitter to learning facilitator implies that a totally different set of pedagogical skills is required (Soderman, 2005; Weimer, 2002). Unless teachers are well trained and supported, they will easily return to practices that are familiar to them (Broadhead, 2001) as
happened in the current study. Further, change according to Fullan (2007) is a complex process that takes time. However, even with ample time, this study reinforces that changes required will not happen if teachers’ lack of knowledge is not addressed appropriately as was evident in this study. It would seem that the length of time that the teachers had been implementing the new curriculum did not influence their interpretation or implementation. The demographic data revealed that, even though some teachers had been implementing the KTSP since 2007, their interpretation and implementation of it differed little from that of the teachers who had begun the process later in 2009.

There was evidence found in this study that the teachers’ learning community, the Teachers Working Group (KKG), also contributed to their interpretation and implementation of the KTSP. Those involved with this group described it as focusing on the preparation of syllabi and lesson plans. While the forums provided the teachers with an opportunity to share issues and solve problems together, the teachers’ reporting of the solutions suggested tended to reinforce traditional pedagogy.

The curriculum innovation investigated in this study imposed changes to teachers’ classroom practices and gave them a new role as curriculum developers. This new curriculum promoted competency-based and school-based curriculum approaches. In addition, it also promoted a shift from a focus on teaching to one on learning that required teachers to change their pedagogical approach in the classroom from teacher-centred to student-centred. However, evidence from this study suggests that the teachers were expected to understand and implement these changes without sufficient support to develop the new knowledge and skills required. What the teachers experienced reflected similar patterns or trends in educational reforms in other countries such as Hong Kong where Cheng (2009) found teachers were required to implement curriculum reform without an appropriate package of support.

Thus, it would seem that the teachers’ level of knowledge was an important factor influencing their interpretation and implementation of the KTSP. By their own admission, the participating teachers did not understand or know how to implement the new pedagogy demanded by the Curriculum Policies. Consequently, they did not
demonstrate control of the new pedagogy required, but rather continued to teach in a traditional manner.

**The relationship between the competencies and the teachers’ existing knowledge**

The second major issue emerging in this study concerned the way in which the relatively narrow competencies and the teachers’ even narrower interpretation of them influenced the retention of their existing practices rather than striving to change and to teach using the pedagogy suggested by the Curriculum Policies. Some of the expected Basic Competencies prescribed in the Curriculum Policies for writing in Y2 appeared to be very skill-based, thereby encouraging the teachers to take a pragmatic view and teach these through teacher-centred methods. The influence of the competencies also appeared to have led the teachers to use traditional assessment practices and assess a narrow range of low level skills such as handwriting and simple punctuation.

Further, the teachers’ use of backward design seemed to encourage them to employ a traditional approach where they transmitted knowledge to their students. Although this design has been found to be effective in aligning the curriculum and learning outcomes in other studies (Graff, 2011; Fox & Doherty, 2011), evidence from the current study suggests that in this context it discouraged the teachers from selecting teaching and learning activities that allowed students to construct their own knowledge. This could be due to the nature of some competencies for writing in the KTSP being narrow and skill-based. Teachers reported that these competencies encouraged them to provide student activities such as copying and dictation which did not promote active learning with higher levels of thinking. One teacher, for example, stated that the competencies required students to be able to write neatly and use capital letters, so she thought her traditional method was the best way to achieve these competencies. This evidence suggests that the skill-based competencies were compatible with the teachers’ existing practices and knowledge and so encouraged their retention. This case, albeit for different reason, was also found in a study in Thailand where teachers retained their existing practices as they viewed them more suited to their classroom context (De Segovia & Hardison, 2009).

Evidence from the current study is consistent with other studies of competency-based education and backward design which suggest that behavioural
approaches are predominantly selected by teachers if the learning outcomes to be achieved are very prescriptive, skill-based and narrow (Kouwenhoven, 2003; Wiggins & McTighe, 2005). Although backward design, according to Wiggins and McTighe (2005), can lead to traditionally-oriented direct or didactic instruction or to constructivist-oriented facilitating and coaching, depending on the skills and knowledge to be achieved, this is not the case in the current study where teachers’ instruction was dominated by direct instruction. As mentioned, this was to some extent influenced by the narrow and skill-based competencies.

Thus, it would appear that the teachers were indirectly encouraged to continue to take a traditional approach to teaching by the narrow and skill-based competencies required, coupled with their narrow interpretation of them and the use of backward design.

**Transferability of a western learning philosophy to Indonesian classrooms**

The third major issue which emerged in this study related to the difficulty the teachers experienced when implementing the pedagogy suggested by the Curriculum Policies. Despite the variation in the teachers’ educational backgrounds, experience in teaching and the range of school contexts within which they taught, it was evident that they all interpreted and implemented the KTSP in a traditional way in contrast to the intent of this curriculum. As has been discussed, this was influenced by factors such as the teachers’ lack of knowledge of the pedagogy itself, the nature of the competencies required to be achieved, and contextual factors such as large classes and a lack of resources. Thus, it would appear that a learning philosophy from other cultures with different educational systems and access to different resources was imported and imposed in an Indonesian context without sufficient understanding and preparation.

As mentioned, the Curriculum Policies which govern the development of the KTSP indicate that the constructivist learning approach, which was developed in western countries, informs the pedagogy of the KTSP (Muslich, 2007; Sanjaya, 2008). These policies encouraged a paradigm shift from a focus on teaching to one on learning; this requires teachers to adopt a new role as a facilitator of learning (BSNP, 2006; Tim Pustaka Yustisia, 2007). The policies also suggest that the KTSP should be designed and delivered through learning processes which are active,
creative, effective and joyful and where the focus is on the students. In other words, the KTSP should be student-centred and provide students with learning experiences that involve both cognitive and physical processes. These processes should encourage interaction among the students and between the students and the teachers.

Evidence from this study suggests that the teachers were struggling to implement this form of pedagogy in their classrooms. The transition from teacher-centred, which represents the traditional approach, to student-centred as advocated from a constructivist perspective did not seem to occur in ways that complied with the Curriculum Policies.

However, it was not surprising that the teachers struggled to implement this form of pedagogy. Other studies have found that implementing pedagogy based on a constructivist perspective is challenging if the curriculum implementers do not have a deep understanding of the philosophical, psychological and epistemological underpinnings of constructivism (Simpson, 2002), as was the case in this study. Further, it is even more challenging when the classroom environment does not facilitate the types of learning experiences that constructivism demands. This includes manageable class sizes and adequate resources. In fact, one of the criticisms regarding a constructivist approach is that it may not necessarily transfer to developing countries where there are limited resources and different learning cultures in large classes (O’Sullivan; 2003).

Another criticism of educational reform in developing countries, which seems to be applicable to this study, is that the influence of globalisation has encouraged countries in the Asia-Pacific Region to follow the emerging international trends in educational reform (Cheng, 2009). As a result, these trends have led to what Cheng calls educational reform syndromes. One of these, which appears to be the case in this study, is ignoring local culture and contextual conditions in implementing educational reforms.

Cheng (2009) also suggested that in order to support educational reform, working conditions at both institutional and system levels need to facilitate and empower teachers to perform effectively. This should allow teachers to select instructional strategies according to the nature of the content, their students’ needs, and their teaching objectives; therefore, those strategies selected may not reflect a
constructivist approach. These types of choices were made by teachers in this study who used traditional approaches which they saw as effective in assisting students to achieve the expected competencies. This could imply that constructivist pedagogy should not be considered as best practice, which is suitable for all students, or deemed to be the appropriate standard for all educational practice, regardless of the demands of different educational contexts.

7.6 Summary

This study investigated teachers’ interpretation and implementation of the KTSP in relation to teaching writing in Year 2. In addition, it identified factors influencing the teachers’ implementation. It was found that the teachers’ interpretation and implementation of the new curriculum reflected a traditional view of learning where the role of the teacher was dominant. This was inconsistent with the KTSP and its underlying perspective which promoted student-centredness. There were three main factors that appeared to influence this outcome: teacher factors; the nature of competency factors; and contextual factors. The first related to teachers’ lack of knowledge of the KTSP and the skills they required to implement it; the second concerned the narrowness and skill-based nature of most of the expected competencies for writing in Y2 which, in turn, led the teachers to retain their traditional approaches; and the third concerned the class sizes, the physical conditions of the classrooms and access to resources which were deemed inadequate to support the pedagogical changes demanded by the new curriculum. It was evident in this study that these three sets of factors encouraged the teachers to retain their existing practices reflecting a traditional view of learning.
CHAPTER 8
Conclusions and Implications

8.1. Introduction

This chapter provides an overview of the study and the key findings emerging from it. Following the overview, the implications and contributions of the study are described. Finally, the study’s limitations are discussed and recommendations for future research are proposed.

8.2. Overview of the Study

The aims of this study were to investigate teachers’ interpretation and implementation of the KTSP, a new curriculum at the time of this study, in relation to teaching writing to Y2 students in Makassar City, Indonesia. Additionally, the study explored the factors that influenced their interpretation and implementation. This investigation focused on teachers as their role is one of the key factors in the successful implementation of curriculum change (Fullan, 2007). In addition, teachers are agents of change (Priestly, 2011) and have the most impact on changes to students’ learning achievements (Hattie, 2003; Louden et al., 2003).

In this study, the teachers’ interpretation and implementation of the KTSP in relation to the teaching of writing in Y2 of the primary school were investigated within the framework of six key concepts derived from the Curriculum Policies and Guidelines that framed the implementation of the KTSP. These concepts were student-centred learning, active learning, the role of the teacher as a facilitator, students’ interaction as a means of promoting learning, assessment for learning and a thematic approach. They were chosen because they represented a paradigm shift in teaching and learning processes in Indonesia; a shift which required teachers to emphasise learning rather than teaching.

This study utilised a mixed method approach in which quantitative data was collected first (Phase 1), followed by accumulation of qualitative data (Phase 2). In Phase 1, 61 Y2 teachers from different primary schools in Makassar City, Indonesia completed a questionnaire about their understanding and implementation of the KTSP in writing classes and identified factors that they perceived as influencing their implementation. In Phase 2 of the study, ten of the 61 teachers were selected on the basis of their school’s sub-district. Qualitative data were gathered from these
teachers through classroom observations followed by informal discussions. At the end of the observation period (4 lessons), an interview was held with each teacher. In addition, document analysis of the teachers’ syllabi and lesson plans, and student writing samples was conducted. These qualitative data sources provided a deeper understanding of the teachers’ interpretation and implementation of the KTSP. The following sections present the key findings, implications, contributions and limitations of this study. Finally, recommendations for future research are suggested.

8.3. Key Findings

The key findings, which are structured as responses to the three research questions that guided this study, are presented in this section.

Research question 1: How do teachers interpret the KTSP in relation to teaching writing to Y2 students?

There were two main findings regarding how teachers in this study interpreted the KTSP in relation to teaching writing in Y2. The first was that the teachers seemed to interpret the new curriculum through the lens of a traditional view of learning. While the key concepts which informed the KTSP and framed this study seem to reflect a constructivist approach to learning, it was evident that all the teachers in this study appeared to interpret these concepts conservatively, using their existing knowledge and practices, which were influenced by a more traditional view of learning.

Although the teachers knew some of the terms which described the key concepts, such as active learning and teacher as facilitator, their interpretation of them differed from those promoted within the constructivist perspective evinced by the KTSP. For example, one recurrent theme indicated that meaningful and active learning to these teachers referred more to physical rather than to intellectual activity. Indeed, there was only one instance where the teachers’ understanding of a key concept, a thematic approach, matched that of the Curriculum Guidelines of the KTSP. However, despite this understanding, most of them claimed that it was the most difficult concept to implement. Further, their understanding seemed to be on a superficial level. This was evident in the second phase of the study when only three out of ten teachers chose to be observed while teaching using a thematic approach. The other seven teachers claimed that they were not sure how to implement the
approach and, therefore, did not have the confidence to be observed while deploying it.

The second finding was that the teachers appeared to interpret the KTSP in writing through the competencies which Y2 students were expected to achieve. Some of the competencies allowed for construction of texts, but they largely emphasised skills. Further, the teachers interpreted them narrowly as mainly focusing on low level writing skills, such as neat handwriting, and the correct use of capital letters and full stops within individual sentences rather than texts.

Thus, the findings suggest that the teachers’ interpretation of the KTSP in relation to teaching writing in Y2 was inconsistent with the underlying theory, as expressed through the six key concepts that inform the KTSP and the Curriculum Policies that framed the development of the KTSP. While the new curriculum emphasised student-centred approaches that fostered the co-construction of learning, the teachers’ interpretation saw the requirements as narrow and focussed on knowledge transmission and skills practice.

**Research question 2: How do teachers implement the KTSP in teaching writing to Y2 students?**

There were two main findings in relation to how teachers implemented the KTSP when teaching writing in Y2. First, the teachers’ practices in the writing lessons observed reflected a traditional view of learning. Second, the teachers based their teaching on a narrow interpretation of the competencies their students were expected to demonstrate at Y2 level.

With regards to the first finding, there was no evidence found that the teachers had incorporated the six key concepts investigated in this study in their practices in ways consistent with the Curriculum Policies and its underlying theory. Rather, they appeared to demonstrate a traditional view of learning throughout the observed lessons, including by taking the role of knowledge transmitter. Their practices also reflected a traditional view of the assessment of students’ writing when they focused mainly on the achievement of low level skills such as handwriting and simple punctuation when grading and scoring. The teachers’ use of a textbook as the main resource that helped them to implement the KTSP appeared to further reinforce
their use of a traditional approach. This approach was also evident in all the observed lessons where writing was integrated with other subjects. In this context, the emphasis remained on the students writing answers to the teachers’ questions and those from the textbook with their writing being assessed in terms of the low level skills demonstrated. These findings, in turn, strengthened the evidence that the teachers’ understanding of the key concepts of the KTSP was superficial.

Second, when implementing the KTSP in writing, the teachers in this study appeared to restrict their teaching to the expected competencies which, in turn, largely focused on low level writing skills. To meet these competencies, the teachers assigned their students activities such as copying and dictation. While there were two observed lessons in which teachers asked their students to write a recount, the focus remained on neat handwriting and the correct use of simple punctuation. In addition, when designing their lessons, the teachers appeared to start from the competencies before determining the content and instructional method to be included. To achieve these competencies, they consistently taught using traditional methods where the emphasis was on transmitting knowledge. Thus, these findings suggest that the teachers’ implementation of the KTSP in writing was inconsistent with the Curriculum Policies and the underlying theory which informed the KTSP.

**Research question 3: What factors influence teachers’ interpretation and implementation of the KTSP in teaching writing to Y2 students?**

There were three factors, all both self-identified by the teachers and which emerged from the analysis of data from the questionnaires, classroom observations, interviews and document analysis that appeared to influence the teachers’ interpretation and implementation of the KTSP in writing. These included teacher factors, the nature of the expected competency factors; and contextual factors.

The first, teacher factors, refers to the teachers’ lack of knowledge and skills needed to implement the KTSP in writing in ways that were consistent with the Curriculum Policies. This study found that the teachers’ lack of knowledge of the six key concepts of the KTSP, and lack of the skills required to teach in ways that were consistent with these concepts, led them to continue using a traditional approach where learning was teacher-directed. Even when teachers appeared to have knowledge of some of the key concepts such as active learning and a thematic
approach, this understanding lacked depth. Further, the teachers’ lack of knowledge appeared to lead them to focus on the Basic Competencies to be achieved in Y2 and to interpret these narrowly. As a result of this, the teachers focused on low level writing skills and provided the students with writing activities, such as copying and dictation, which reflected a traditional view of learning. The teachers’ lack of knowledge was also apparent in their role as curriculum developers. There was evidence to suggest that many students in this study could do more than copy text and complete sentences with missing words. However, the teachers did not seem to structure their writing lessons in ways that allowed students to explore writing beyond copying or word completion.

The second factor that appeared to influence the teachers’ interpretation and implementation of the KTSP by encouraging them to persist with a traditional approach was the nature of the Competency Standards and Basic Competencies for writing in Y2. Two of these Basic Competencies seemed narrow and skill-based which seemed to lead teachers to focus on the low level writing skills such as handwriting and simple punctuation. To meet these competencies, teachers selected activities such as copying and dictation which reflected a traditional view of learning. While the other competencies were slightly broader in scope, the teachers interpreted them narrowly so as not to challenge their existing pedagogical practices. The teachers’ use of backward design further encouraged them to retain their traditional approach to teaching. When using backward design, a teacher starts with the learning outcomes, then uses them to determine the content and instruction that they perceive as effective in meeting the required competencies. This approach to syllabi and lesson planning led the teachers to be pragmatic and favour a traditional approach which they saw as effective in teaching the low level skills required.

The third factor concerned the context which included aspects such as class sizes and the physical conditions apparent in the classrooms. Most of the classes involved in this study were considered large, having between 36 and 45 students in each, and with no access to teaching assistants. These conditions may, to some extent, have encouraged teachers to persist in using a traditional approach to teaching. Evidence from the classroom observations showed that all the teachers taught using skill-based direct methods, focusing on transmitting knowledge to their students. Most of them commented on this type of approach as helping them to
control their large classes. Further, the physical condition of the classroom, such as
the heavy furniture available in all but one class, did not seem to promote student
interaction in the majority of the lessons observed. Indeed, teachers commented that
the heavy desks and chairs were not flexible enough to allow for group work.

8.4. Implications for Curriculum Change

There were three major concerns arising from the findings of this study that
have implications for implementing curriculum change more effectively. These
include teachers having sufficient knowledge of the new curriculum, the nature of the
competencies reflecting the intent of the curriculum, and the difficulties associated
with implementing a curriculum that reflects a western philosophy in an eastern
context.

The first concern is that the teachers in the current study did not seem to have
sufficient knowledge to allow them to interpret and implement the new curriculum.
The teachers in this study needed sufficient knowledge of the new curriculum and the
concepts it was founded on to enable them to take on the role of curriculum
developer and a curriculum implementer. This study found the teachers to have
limited understanding of the six key concepts that framed the Curriculum Policies
and Guidelines documents. Further, when the teachers developed their school-based
syllabi, they focused on the achievement of the Basic Competencies rather than on
the changes in pedagogical practice recommended by the new curriculum. As these
competencies emphasised low level skill development, they were encouraged to use
the familiar traditional methods of teaching rather than changing their practices to
reflect the intent of the new curriculum.

Although the teachers in this study received professional development
designed to support their implementation of the KTSP, this training was seen as
inadequate to support the degree of change required. This suggests that well-
designed professional development programs that are responsive to teachers’ learning
needs are required if future curriculum change is to be effective. It could be argued
that this is particularly the case for teachers, such as those in the current study, who
are expected to the adopt models, such as constructivism, from western countries.
Such models represent a fundamental change in all aspects of the planning, teaching
and learning process. The teachers should not be expected to incorporate these major
changes without adequate preparation, including hands-on experience and modelling. This study emphasises that if teachers are not well prepared and supported, they are likely to retain practices that are familiar to them rather than change their practices to reflect those promoted by a new curriculum. Given the complexity of curriculum change in the Indonesian context, there needs to be on-going support for teachers if reform efforts are to be successful.

Teachers’ learning communities, such as the Teachers Working Group (KKG), can contribute to the development of teachers’ knowledge about new curriculum, as was found in this study. However, the teachers reported that they focused mainly on the preparation of a syllabus and lesson plans in this group, so the group leadership may need help in structuring the assistance they provide. The findings suggest that the KKG is well positioned to take a more active part in the interpretation and implementation of the KTSP, if they were given guidance to support them in this broader role.

The second concern is that there seems to be inconsistency between the competencies mandated in the Curriculum Policies and the underlying theory of the KTSP. That is, the competencies for Y2 in writing focus on low level skills which encourage traditional approaches, while the underlying theory that seemed to inform the KTSP was constructivist. The finding from this study reveals that this inconsistency encouraged the teachers to retain their old practices. These practices were drawn from a transmission model which emphasises a teacher-directed approach. In an attempt to align their curriculum to the learning outcomes students were expected to demonstrate, the teachers focused on the narrow and skill-based competencies which did not seem to promote student construction of knowledge.

Further, teacher use of backward design appeared to strengthen their use of traditional methods, as they taught pragmatically to meet the expected competencies. This suggests that there is a need to review the Competency Standards and Basic Competencies for writing in the early years of primary school if teachers are to be expected to facilitate students to construct their own knowledge and to move away from traditional teaching practices.

The third concern is that an approach developed in a western cultural context may not readily transfer to an Indonesian context which exhibits a different learning
culture. One of the changes advocated by the KTSP is the incorporation of pedagogical concepts which are influenced by a constructivist perspective, an acknowledged western approach. The incorporation of this perspective into the learning processes in the classroom is reflected in the use of a student-centred approach, active learning, a facilitator role for teachers, students’ interaction, authentic practices in assessment and employment of a thematic approach. In developing and implementing the KTSP, the teachers in this study, who were used to teaching using a transmission method, were encouraged to provide learning experiences in ways that are consistent with the constructivist perspective. This study found that the teachers’ current knowledge and skills were not sufficient to support the implementation of constructivist teaching. In addition, the teachers’ classroom conditions and resources did not support the implementation of constructivist teaching.

In conclusion, effective implementation of a new curriculum at the classroom level requires teachers to have sufficient knowledge and appropriate working conditions to meet the demand it makes. This access to new knowledge needs to continue through the implementation process. In addition, at the macro level, effective implementation requires that the new curriculum be reviewed during the implementation process, including the impact of the expected outcomes. Failure to address emerging barriers to the implementation process could encourage teachers to retain their old practices or lead to superficial change.

8.5 Contribution of the Study

The findings of this study have generated understanding of how Y2 teachers interpreted and implemented a new curriculum in Makassar, Indonesia. The findings are important in informing the government and other relevant decision makers of the conditions required by teachers if they are to implement successfully and sustain fundamental changes in their teaching practice. This includes the support offered by effective PD provided both before and during the implementation process. This training needs to be responsive to the teachers’ knowledge and skill-based needs. This study also found that teachers are discouraged from making changes in their practice when the student competencies, which are the mandated as the outcome of schooling, do not match the intent of a new curriculum. This suggests that policy makers need to review the writing competencies outlined in the KTSP, or any new
curriculum, to ensure these encourage the types of learning promoted in the curriculum. This study has also added to a better understanding of existing knowledge on implementing curriculum change by agreeing that change is a complex process (Brady & Kennedy, 1999; Fullan, 2007), particularly when this involves adopting philosophies and approaches from other cultural perspectives. Further, that even with time, change will not occur unless teachers as the key agents of change are supported in meeting the demands of a new curriculum.

From a cross-cultural aspect, this study has contributed to an understanding of how teachers who taught in a transmission-oriented manner struggled to implement pedagogy which is influenced by a perspective of learning that grew in the western culture. It showed how a pedagogical approach from another culture is understood and implemented in a context with a different learning culture and the high degree of support that is required if it is to be successful. This is important to inform policymakers in Indonesia and other countries facing similar issues to avoid a view of ‘imported’ philosophy as a set of isolated instructional methods that can easily replace traditional teaching techniques. Rather, it should be viewed as a culture that forms the overall practices in school (Windschitl, 1999). Therefore, constructivism in education needs to be seen as involving a cultural change and as such has implications for policymakers in that they will need to attend to all levels of education and provide considerable support for this type of paradigm shift.

Finally, this study helped the teachers involved to reflect on their current understanding of and practices in teaching writing.

8.6 Limitations of the Study

This study had a number of limitations. The first was due to the small numbers of participants. The first phase of the study involved a small number of participants, 61 Year 2 teachers, who were selected using a convenience sampling method; and the second phase sampling ten of these teachers who were representative of the range of schools in the area. Therefore, the results of this study cannot be generalised to all primary school teachers in Indonesia although some findings may apply to primary teachers in general, and Indonesian language teachers, in particular. The second limitation was the teachers’ interpretation and implementation of the KTSP in this study were mainly examined in relation to the six
key concepts of the KTSP as they applied to teaching writing to Y2 students. This limits the scope of the study and hence the generalisation of its findings.

8.7 Recommendations for the Future Research

The key issues which emerged from this study and its limitations have implications for future research. First, there is a need to conduct extensive studies on teachers’ implementation of the KTSP, or any future curriculum innovation, as it relates to all grades and levels of schooling, and involving larger, more representative samples to allow greater generalisation.

Second, there is a need to investigate the effectiveness of the PD which is provided for teachers to support them in implementing change. Such research could include aspects such as the extent to which PD helps teachers in understanding, implementing and sustaining change. The results would support policy makers in the provision of appropriate support to teachers in this enterprise.

Third, other aspects related to change need investigation in the Indonesian context. This is particularly the case for teacher beliefs given their influence on how teachers respond to change (Fullan, 1991). Further, investigation of the nature of teachers’ reliance on the textbooks when implementing new curriculum would also inform future change processes.

There is a need to critically review the curriculum itself, including the competencies to be achieved at every level of schooling. This is particularly important given the influence of backward planning as shown in this study. Finally, further research must be conducted into the implications, from a cultural point of view, of adopting a constructivist perspective in Indonesia.

8.8 A Final Note

During the final stage of this study, the Ministry of National Education of Indonesia was preparing to launch a new curriculum to replace the KTSP for primary, junior, and high schools in Indonesia. Some changes were proposed in terms of the learning areas and the delivery process. However, the new curriculum will still be competency-based in nature and continue the move teachers away from a traditional to a more progressive approach which is evident in the KTSP. It is hoped
that the findings from this study will inform the policies and practices developed to assist teachers to implement the new curriculum effectively.
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*Peraturan Menteri Pendidikan Nasional No 23, SKL [Ministerial of National Education Decree No 23, Graduate Competency Standards] (2006b).*

*Peraturan Menteri Pendidikan Nasional No 24, Pelaksanaan SI dan SKL [Ministerial of National Education Decree No 24, The implementation of Content Standards and Graduate Competency Standards] (2006c).*


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Appendix A: Questionnaire

Investigating the Implementation of the Indonesian KTSP (School-Based Curriculum) in the Teaching of Writing in Year Two

Please answer the questions below by putting a tick in the box or writing the answer in the spaces provided.

A. This section is about you as a teacher.

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1. Gender: | ☐ Female  
☐ Male |
| 2. What is your highest qualification? | ☐ Vocational School for Teacher  
☐ Diploma Two in Primary Education  
☐ B.Ed  
☐ Master Degree  
☐ Other (please specify)  
_________________________ |
| 3. How many years have you taught in primary school? | ☐ 1-3 yrs  
☐ 4-6 yrs  
☐ 7-10 yrs  
☐ + 11 yrs |
| 4. How many years have you taught in Year 2? | ☐ 1-3 yrs  
☐ 4-6 yrs  
☐ 7-10 yrs  
☐ + 11 yrs |

B. This section is about your work place.

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1. How many Year 2 classes are there in your school? | ☐ 1  
☐ 2  
☐ 3  
☐ +4 |
<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>How many children are there in your class?</td>
<td>..................................................  .........................................</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>What is the age range of the children in your class?</td>
<td>..................................................  .........................................</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| 4. | Do you have any teaching support [people]?  
If yes, please state. | ..................................................  .........................................  ..................................................  .........................................  ........................................ |

C. This section is about supports you have received or preparation you have taken to implement the KTSP.

The KTSP has been piloted since 2006 and its implementation in each grade will be compulsory from the start of the 2009/2010 academic year.

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>When do you start implementing the KTSP in your writing class?</td>
<td>☐ 2006  ☐ 2007  ☐ 2008  ☐ 2009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Do you implement a thematic approach in your writing class?</td>
<td>☐ Yes  ☐ No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Do you prepare the KTSP syllabus by yourself?</td>
<td>☐ Yes  ☐ No</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| 4. | If your answer to question No.5 is Yes, how do you prepare it? | ☐ By creating your own  
☐ By copying one from Y2 teachers in the same school  
☐ By copying the one prepared by the government.  
☐ By adapting the one prepared by the government.  
☐ Other, please specify  
__________________________ |
5. If your answer to question No. 5 is No, how do you prepare it?

- By collaborating with other Y2 teachers in the same school.
- By collaborating with other Y2 teachers from other schools.
- By copying the one prepared by the government.
- By adapting the one prepared by the government.
- Other, please specify ____________________

6. Have you ever attended any training/seminar/workshop/socialization/discussion or professional development about the KTSP?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>General Information about the KTSP</th>
<th>Literacy Subject in the KTSP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7. If yes, how many times have you attended this kind of training/seminar/workshop/socialization/discussion or professional development?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>General Information about the KTSP</th>
<th>Literacy Subject in the KTSP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 time</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 times</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 times</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 or more times</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
8. What is the average length of the training/seminar/workshop/socialization/discussion or professional development about the KTSP you have attended?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Half day</th>
<th>One day</th>
<th>Two days</th>
<th>Three days or more</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

9. Overall how useful was the training/seminar/workshop/socialization/discussion or professional development about the KTSP you have attended?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Not very useful</th>
<th>Quite useful</th>
<th>Very useful</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

10. Who organized the training/seminar/workshop/socialization/discussion or professional development about the KTSP you have attended? (You can tick more than one option if that is applicable to you).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Provider</th>
<th>General Information about the KTSP</th>
<th>Literacy Subject in the KTSP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Department of education
Universities
Own school
Other schools
Other (please specify) / Don’t know
D. This section is about your writing program.

1. What types of material resources do you use in your classroom to support your implementation of the KTSP in writing lessons? Please state:

2. Can you identify any key changes you have made to implement the KTSP in writing?

3. What’s most helpful about the KTSP for you in teaching writing?

4. What’s most difficult about the KTSP for you in teaching writing?
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Can you name three things that will assist you in implementing the KTSP?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

E. This section is about your understanding of the KTSP in relation to the teaching of writing in Year 2 regardless of whether your implementation is still in progress.

*Describe the following concepts from the KTSP using your own words.*

1. To me, student-centred writing activities mean:

2. To me, active learning in writing means:
3. To me, teacher as a facilitator of writing means:

4. To me, students’ interaction in writing means:

5. To me, assessment of writing in KTSP means:

6. To me, thematic approach in writing means:

Thank you very much for your cooperation.
## Appendix B: Sample of Writing Lesson Observation Protocol

Teacher Number: 01_01  
Class: Y2_1  
Date: 9/2/2010  
Time: 2 x 35 minutes  
Lesson: Indonesian Language  

Content: recounting and writing simple sentences about students’ daily activities.

### Observation Number: I

#### Aspect / focus of writing:
1. The use of capital letters and full stops.
2. The use of cursive writing.
3. Writing simple sentences about students’ ‘daily activities’.

#### Description of the classroom:
The class consisted of 35 students. Students sat in rows. Desks were heavy. There were two students sitting at each desk. Various pictures, especially alphabetic letters, were hung on the wall. There were no students’ writing products displayed.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Structure</th>
<th>What the teacher is doing: Activity / lesson Description (strategy used, students’ engagement, students’ interaction, assessment etc.)</th>
<th>What the students are doing</th>
<th>Comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 7.30  | Opening Lesson    | - Greetings  
- Introduce the topic of the lesson to be learnt.  
- Ask students to prepare their textbooks and workbooks.  
- Ask students | - Listen to the teacher’s explanation  
- Respond to the teachers’ questions | - The teacher appears to dominate the conversation.  
- Students wait instructions from the teacher about what to do. Initiatives are always from the teacher.  
- The teacher asks |
whether they understand her instruction or not.

questions whether the students understand her instruction or not. The questions are in Yes/No question forms such as ‘Do you understand already?’ Students answer ‘Yes, we do.’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Activity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7.40</td>
<td>Main Lesson</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Explain briefly how to write correctly, starting from using date, simple capital letters and full stops.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Ask the whole class what they do before going to school.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Teacher models several sentences orally e.g.: ‘Before going to school, I have breakfast.’, and then writes the sentences on the board.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Nominated students recount his/her activities before going to school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Pay attention to the teacher’s explanation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- One student said ‘Have breakfast’ Another said, ‘Tidy my bed’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Students repeat the modelled sentence after the teacher.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Students write the sentences that have</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- The use of capital letters and full stops have been taught in previous lessons.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Students wait for instructions from the teacher.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Interaction occurs between teacher and students only.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Interaction takes place when the teacher asks questions and students respond with the answers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- No group work/activities; all individual activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- The teacher do not expand the responses from students.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>E.g.:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>T: ‘What do you do before going to school?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>S: Have breakfast.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>T: What else?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
using the pattern given by the teacher.

- Ask students to ‘write the sentences that have been practicing in their work books using beautiful cursive writing and correct capital letters and full stops.’

- Ask students if they have understood what they have to do and invite questions if they have not.

been practiced as instructed by their teacher.

- No questions from the students.

S2: Take a shower.

- The teacher appeared to follow the activities recommended in the textbook.

- Teacher emphasises the use of cursive handwriting and the use of capital letters and full stops when teaching and giving feedback about the students’ writing:

Quotes from teacher: ‘Don’t forget to use cursive handwriting.’

‘Make sure you write neatly and use capital letters and full stops correctly.’

The students’ writing products are assessed based on neat handwriting and correct use of full stops and simple capital letters within the practiced sentences.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8.35</td>
<td>Closing</td>
<td>Teacher writes homework on the blackboard about poetry</td>
<td>Students write down what homework they need to do.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix C: Interview Protocol

Time of interview:

Date:

Place:

Interviewee/Teacher Number:

Opening: [Describe the project, telling interviewee about the (a) purpose of the study (b) the confidentiality of the responses (c) what will be done with the data to protect the confidentiality of the interviewee, and (d) how long the interview will take.]

Question:

The KTSP has been piloted since 2006 and its implementation in each grade will be compulsory from the start of the 2009/2010 academic year:

1. When do you start implementing the KTSP in writing lessons?
2. Could you tell me your understanding about the KTSP particularly in relation to
   - Student’s centred in writing
   - Active learning in writing
   - Teacher’s role as a facilitator of learning in writing
   - Interaction as a means of promoting learning in writing
   - Assessment for learning in writing
   - Thematic approach in writing
3. Have these aspects of the KTSP influenced the way in which you teach writing now? Could you describe how you teach writing in relation to the KTSP?
4. What aspects of the KTSP do you find helpful in writing?
5. What are the factors, if any, that inhibit you from implementing the KTSP in writing?
6. Is there anything else you want to say about the implementation of the KTSP in writing?

(Thank the interviewee for their cooperation and participation in the interview).
Appendix D: Writing Syllabus Analysis Sheet

Teacher Number:
Date:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Teacher’s comments</th>
<th>Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Competency Standards</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Basic Competencies</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Learning indicators</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Content</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Learning activities</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Learning Resources</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 Assessment Types</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Appendix E: Sample of Lesson Plan Analysis Sheet**

Teacher Number: 01_01  
Date: 9/2/2010  
Time: 2 x 35 minutes  
Lesson: Indonesian Language  
Content: recounting and writing simple sentences about students’ daily activities,  
Observation Number: I

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Teacher’s comments</th>
<th>Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1  | Competency Standards        | 1. Stating opinion, feelings and experience orally through asking questions, telling stories and reciting a poem (speaking).  
2. Do early writing through activities which focus on completing stories and dictation. | Competency standards were taken from the curriculum document.                      | Speaking and writing skills are integrated.                               |
| 2  | Basic Competencies          | 1. Recount daily activities using language which is readily understood by other people (speaking).  
2. Write simple sentences which are dictated by teachers using cursive writing by paying attention to the use of capital letters and full stops (writing). | Competency standards were taken from the curriculum document.  
The focus of the lesson is on Speaking and Writing. In this session, writing activities are expected to help students to meet the competencies for speaking. |                                                                      |
3. Learning indicators

1. Students are able to recount personal experience for example going to school.
2. Students are able to write simple sentences, either through dictation or copying using cursive writing by paying attention to the use of capital letters and full stops (writing).

Learning indicators were prepared by teachers by looking at what has to be achieved in the Basic Competencies.

It appears that the learning indicators area repetition of the Basic Competencies.

4. Content

- cursive writing
- use of capital letters and full stops.
- daily activities

The learning activities are divided into three sections. Opening, main lesson and closing. In the main lesson, the focus is on explaining the lesson first, showing samples, and then practising the skills that are the focus of the lesson.

The teacher seems to use direct and explicit methods.

- Students worked individually

5. Learning activities

- pre teaching
- teacher explains the lesson
- teacher demonstrates some sentences orally and in written form
- the teacher asks and invites questions
- teacher assigns tasks
- students practice the skills which are the focus of the lesson.

6. Learning Resources

Textbooks
Letter cards

For this lesson, the textbook and letter cards are used to support the process of teaching and learning.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>#</th>
<th>Assessment Types for writing</th>
<th>Assessment based on the product of the writing lesson</th>
<th>For writing, the focus is on students’ neat handwriting and use of capital letters.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
Appendix F: Sample of Students’ Writing Analysis Sheet

Teacher number: 01_01
Observation number: 1
Sample number: 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Description of students’ writing</th>
<th>Teachers’ comments</th>
<th>Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Types of writing</td>
<td>Basic competency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Students copy sentences about daily activities completed before going to school.</td>
<td>1. Recount daily activities using language which is easily understood by other people (speaking).</td>
<td>The composition is assessed based on the handwriting and transcription of writing.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Translation:

1. Before going to school I put on my shoes.
2. Before going to school I say good bye to my parents.
3. Before going to school I put on my uniform.
4. Before going to school I have breakfast.
5. After getting up, I tidy my bed.

Translation:

1. Sebelum ke sekolah saya memakai sepatu.
2. Sebelum berpamitan dengan kedua orang tua.
4. Sebelum ke sekolah saya memakai busana pagi.
5. Setelah bangun tidur saya merapikan tempat tidur.
Appendix G: Sample of Primary Analysis for Interview

S1-TI  R: Could you tell me your understanding about student-centered concept and how this influenced the way you teach writing now?

T1: I related student-centredness with the competencies to be achieved. I mean I focus on the competencies. Well, actually, frankly speaking I am not really sure about what this student-centredness means. I have not attended any training or workshop that explicitly shows or guides what it is and how to implement this in the classroom. I think if this is related to writing then it focuses on the students’ writing such as on their handwriting, how to write neatly and correctly. This is in line with the standard competencies that the students should achieve at early grades.”

In my class, all the writing activities that I gave to students are structured to meet these competencies. As you observed in my class, I gave copying and dictation activities. These related to the competencies the students should demonstrate.
### Appendix H: Sample of Coding Manual for Questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher Number</th>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Coding</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>T.1. – T.61</td>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>1.1.1= Female&lt;br&gt;1.1.2= Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Highest Qualification</td>
<td>1.2.1= Vocational School for Teacher&lt;br&gt;1.2.2= Diploma Two in Education&lt;br&gt;1.2.3= B.Ed.&lt;br&gt;1.2.4= Master Degree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Length of teaching in Primary School</td>
<td>1.3.1= 1-3 yrs&lt;br&gt;1.3.2= 4-6 yrs&lt;br&gt;1.3.3= 7-10 yrs&lt;br&gt;1.3.4= + 11 yrs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number of Y2 classes in teachers’ school</td>
<td>2.1.1= 1&lt;br&gt;2.1.2= 2&lt;br&gt;2.1.3= 3&lt;br&gt;2.1.4= +4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Student-centred in writing</td>
<td>5.1.1= Active students&lt;br&gt;5.1.2= Focusing on secretarial aspects of writing&lt;br&gt;5.1.3= Teachers as facilitator&lt;br&gt;5.1.4= Knowledge construction</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX I: English Translation of Students’ Writing Products

Translation for Figure 7
The nature
When I wake up in the morning
I see the sun which lights the
Earth.
My Earth looks beautiful.
The flowers are multi-coloured.
The bees and butterflies fly
around and dance joyfully.

Translation for Figure 8
1. Malin Kundang lived a poor life.
2. After Malin Kundang grew older, he wandered.
3. Malin became very rich.
4. One day Malin returned to his village.
5. He brought his wife and his staff with him.

Figure 7. Copying written text sample.

Figure 8. Dictation sample.
**Figure 9.** Copying oral text sample.

Translation for Figure 9

1. Before going to school, I put on my shoes.
2. Before going to school, I say good bye to my parents.
3. Before going to school, I put on my uniform.
4. Before going to school, I have breakfast.
5. After getting up, I tidy my bed.

**Figure 10.** Sample of answering questions.

Translation for Figure 10

Answer the following questions!

1. (a) Write 3 examples of negotiation in a family!
   (b) Answers: Recreation, job description, and buying something.

2. (a) Write 3 examples of negotiation in the classroom.
   (b) Answer: head boy election, supervision team or class division and visiting friends.
Figure 11. Describing an animal.

Translation for Figure 11

My name is rooster
I sound like kukuruyut.
I have two eyes.
I have two legs.
I have two ears.
I have a long wattle that hangs under my beak.

Figure 12. Recount.

Translation for Figure 12

Flood moment

One day in my village it rained heavily.
Eventually it was flooded in my village. There was a lot of rubbish. We had to clean it from the ditch. We did not forget to clean the river so that it would not overflow. That was the flood moment in my village. The end
a. Teacher Info Letter and Consent Form

Dear Year 2 teachers,

My name is Sulfasyah. I am a Ph.D student at Edith Cowan University, Perth, Western Australia. I am presently conducting a piece of research which has been approved by the ECU Human Research Ethics Committee. My research focuses on the implementation of the Indonesian KTSP, the latest educational curriculum, in the teaching and learning of Writing in Year 2. I would like to find out about:

- your understanding about the KTSP in relation to the teaching of writing in Year 2;
- the extent to which you incorporate the KTSP in your practices in teaching writing to Year 2 students;
- factors that influence the extent to which you incorporate the KTSP in your practices in teaching writing to Year 2 students; and,
- the impact of your new practices on your students’ writing products.

The information from this research will be used to evaluate the implementation of the KTSP in relation to the teaching of writing in Year 2. The findings will inform the government and other stakeholders about the delivery of Professional Development and other support needed by teachers to improve the teaching of writing.

I would like to invite you to participate in this study. Participation in the research will involve the completion of a questionnaire (enclosed) which will take approximately 30-45 minutes to complete. A self-addressed stamped envelope is included for you to return the questionnaire should you choose to participate in the research. There is a consent form which will need to be signed and returned with the completed questionnaire if you wish to participate in the research.

This consent form also asks if you would be willing to be observed approximately 3 – 4 times when teaching writing and to be later interviewed. With your permission, observations and interviews will be audio-taped and transcribed. The tapes will be stored securely at Edith Cowan University for the duration of the study and then destroyed. You do not need to volunteer for this aspect of the study in order to complete the questionnaire.

Your participation in this research is voluntary and the information collected will be kept strictly confidential and anonymous. Should you agree to participate, you can withdraw at any time without explanation and without affecting the relationship with the researcher and her institution/university. Findings of the study will be made available to you at its conclusion.
If you have any questions concerning the study, please do not hesitate to call me on 0815 241 94110 or to my principal supervisor, Associate Professor Caroline Barratt-Pugh, on +4 08 9370 6346. If you wish to speak with an independent person about the conduct of the project, please contact Ms Kim Gifkins, Research Ethics Officer: research.ethics@ecu.edu.au Telp: +61 8 6304 2170.

Thank you for your interest in this study. Your contribution to this study will be highly valued.

Sincerely,

Sulfasyah
Teacher Consent Form

**Project Title:** Evaluating the Implementation of the Indonesian *KTSP* (School Curriculum) in the Teaching and Learning of Writing in Year Two

I ___________________ have read the information provided with this consent form and any questions I have asked have been answered to my satisfaction.

I agree to participate in the following activities associated with this research (please tick box):

- [ ] To complete and submit the questionnaire
- [ ] to be observed when teaching writing approximately 3-4 times and to be interviewed after those sessions (if asked)

I understand that the research is confidential and I understand that I can withdraw from this study at any time without explanation and without affecting the relationship with the researcher and her institution/university.

I give my permission for the contribution that I make to this research to be published in a journal, reported to relevant stakeholders and disseminated at conference presentations, provided that I or the school are not identified in any way.

Name of Participant (printed):

Signature of Participant: __________________________ Date: / / 

____________________________
b. School Principal Info Letter and Consent Form

[Insert Title and Name]
[Insert Position]
[Insert Primary School Site]
[Insert Postal Address]

Dear [Insert Title and Name of School Principal] [DATE]

My name is Sulfasyah. I am a Ph.D student at Edith Cowan University, Perth, Western Australia. I am presently conducting a piece of research which has been approved by the ECU Human Research Ethics Committee. My research focuses on the implementation of the Indonesian KTSP, the latest educational curriculum, in the teaching and learning of Writing in Year 2. I would like to find out about:

- teachers understanding about the KTSP in relation to the teaching of writing in Year 2;
- the extent to which teachers incorporate the KTSP in their practices in teaching writing to Year 2 students;
- factors that influence the extent to which teachers incorporate the KTSP in their practices in teaching writing to Year 2 students; and,
- the impact of teachers’ new practices on their students’ writing products.

The information from this research will be used to evaluate the implementation of the KTSP in relation to the teaching of writing in Year 2. The findings will inform the government and other stakeholders about the delivery of Professional Development and other support needed by teachers to improve the teaching of writing.

I would like to invite your school to participate in this study. Participation in the research will involve Year Two teachers and their students. The Y2 teachers will be invited to complete a questionnaire which will take approximately 30-45 minutes to complete. Later on, should they wish to participate, the teacher will be observed approximately 3-4 times while teaching writing and later on be interviewed. With the teachers’ permission, observations and interviews will be audio-taped and transcribed. However, teachers do not need to volunteer for the classroom observations and interviews in order to complete the questionnaire.

There is a consent form which will need to be signed and returned if you wish your school to participate in the research. I have also attached a parental information letter and consent form should you need to ask parental consent. Your school participation in this research is voluntary and the information collected will be kept strictly confidential and anonymous. The tapes and hard copy data will be stored securely at Edith Cowan University for the duration of the study and then destroyed. Should you agree to participate, you can withdraw at any time without explanation and without affecting the relationship with the researcher and her institution/university. Findings of the study will be made available to you at its conclusion.
If you have any questions concerning the study, please do not hesitate to call me on 0815 241 94110 or my principal supervisor, Associate Professor Caroline Barratt-Pugh, on +4 08 9370 6346. If you wish to speak with an independent person about the conduct of the project, please contact Ms Kim Gifkins, Research Ethics Officer: research.ethics@ecu.edu.au Telp: +61 8 6304 2170.

Thank you for your interest in this study. Your contribution to this study will be highly valued.

Sincerely,

Sulfasyah
School Principal Consent Form

Evaluating the Implementation of the Indonesian KTSP (School Curriculum) in the Teaching and Learning of Writing in Year Two

- I have read this document and understand the aims, and procedures, as described within it.

- For any questions I may have had, I have taken up the invitation to ask those questions, and I am satisfied with the answers I received.

- I am willing for this [insert name of Primary School] to become involved in the research project, as described.

- I understand that participation in the project is entirely voluntary and confidential.

- I understand that the [[insert name of Primary School] is free to withdraw its participation at any time, without affecting the relationship with the researcher and her institution/university.

- I understand that this research may be published in a journal, reported to relevant stakeholders and disseminated at conference presentations, and agree to this, provided that neither the participants nor the school are identified in any way.

- I understand that the [insert name of Primary School] will be provided with a copy of the findings from this research upon its completion.

Name of School Principal
(printed):

Signature: ___________________________ Date: / / 

____________________
Dear Parents / Guardians,

My name is Sulfasyah. I am a Ph.D student at Edith Cowan University, Perth, Western Australia. I am presently conducting a piece of research which has been approved by the ECU Human Research Ethics Committee. My research focuses on the implementation of the Indonesian KTSP, the latest educational curriculum, in the teaching and learning of Writing in Year 2. I would like to find out about:

- teachers’ understanding about the KTSP in relation to the teaching of writing in Year 2;
- the extent to which teachers incorporate the KTSP in their practices in teaching writing to Year 2 students;
- factors that influence the extent to which teachers incorporate the KTSP in their practices in teaching writing to Year 2 students; and
- the impact of teachers’ new practices on their students’ writing products.

The information from this research will be used to evaluate the implementation of the KTSP in relation to the teaching of writing in Year 2. The findings will inform the government and other stakeholders about the delivery of Professional Development and other support needed by teachers to improve the teaching of writing.

I would like to invite your child to take part in this study. She/he will participate in writing lessons within a normal classroom setting. Evidence of learning and teaching will be collected by collecting students’ work samples as designated by their teacher.

Should you agree to allow your child to participate in this study, you will be kindly asked to sign the consent form enclosed. Your child’s participation in this research is voluntary, strictly confidential and anonymous. You have the right to withdraw consent at any time without explanation and without affecting the relationship with the researcher and her institution/university. Findings of the study will be made available to you and your child at its conclusion.

If you have any questions concerning the study, please do not hesitate to call me on 0815 241 94110 or to my principal supervisor, Associate Professor Caroline Barratt-Pugh, on +4 08 9370 6346. If you wish to speak with an independent person about the conduct of the project, please contact Ms Kim Gifkins, Research Ethics Officer: research.ethics@ecu.edu.au Telp: +61 8 6304 2170.

Thank you for your interest in this study. Your contribution to this study will be highly valued.

Sincerely,

Sulfasyah
Parent Consent Form

Project Title: Evaluating the Implementation of the Indonesian KTSP (School Curriculum) in the Teaching and Learning of Writing in Year Two

- I ___________________ (the parent/guardian of the participant) have read the information provided with this consent form and any questions I have asked have been answered to my satisfaction.

- I understand that participation in this study is voluntary and confidential.

- I agree to allow my child _______________ (child’s name) to participate in the activities associated with this research and understand that I can withdraw consent at any time without explanation and without affecting the relationship with the researcher and her institution/university.

- I give my permission for the contribution that my child makes to this research to be published in a journal, reported to relevant stakeholders and disseminated at conference presentations, provided that my child is not identified in any way.

Name of Child (printed):

Name of Parent/Carer (printed):

Signature of Parent/Carer: Date: / /
CHILD CONSENT FORM

Evaluating the Implementation of the Indonesian KTSP (School Curriculum) in the Teaching and Learning of Writing in Year Two

- I know that I don’t have to help with the project, but I would like to.
- I know that I can stop whenever I want.
- I know that I will be doing writing activities and other school work as part of the project, and that I will be audio-recorded in these class times.
- I understand that I need to draw a circle around the word YES, on this page before I can help with the project.

YES

NO

I would like to help with the project

Not this time

Name of child:

Today’s Date: / /