

Contents

Introduction..... 1

List of OFW '97-IDN Participants

Itinerary

Working Group 1

Communication and Development..... 5

Working Group 2

Education and Development..... 39

Working Group 3

Public Administration..... 83

Working Group 4

Law and Development 107

Working Group 5

Economic Development..... 147

Introduction

The sixth Overseas Field Work (OFW) of the Graduate School of International Development (GSID), Nagoya University was successfully undertaken in Jakarta and Yogyakarta Special District (DIY) in Indonesia during July 29-August 24, 1996 (hereafter "OFW'97-IDN"). It was conducted under the academic exchange program between Gadjah Mada University and Nagoya University, and constitutes an integral part of GSID's formal curricular activities. In the whole process of preparation as well as the research, we received tremendous help from professors, administrators, and students of the Faculty of Social and Political Science, headed by Dr. Yahya Muhaimin, Dean of this faculty. This year we especially indebted to Mr. Sunyoto Usman, Vice Dean, who acted as the Director for the Gadjah Mada side of this joint project in place of Dr. Yahya, who was busy preparing to leave for Washington, where he will resume his new post as Education attaché at Indonesian Embassy.

As shown in Tables 1 and 2, thirty one students and five advisors from GSID participated in this program. The students were divided into five working groups (WG) based on their fields of interest and directed by the respective advisors as follows.

	Field	Advisor
WG-1	Communication and Development	Tagayasu Naito
WG-2	Education and Development	Aiko Kurasawa
WG-3	Public Administration	Hirotsune Kimura
WG-4	Law and Development	Nobuyuki Yasuda
WG-5	Economic Development	Hiroshi Osada

In addition, two Indonesian students of GSID did us the tremendous service of accompanying us at their own expense and assisting with the project in various ways, for which we would like to express our sincere thanks.

The first part of research was conducted in Jakarta until August 9. We mostly visited government offices relevant to the fields of our research, including ministries of Information, Education, Internal Affairs, Woman's Role, and Economic Planning Bureau. During our research in Jakarta we stayed in a hotel located near the city center. We were assisted by two professors of Gadjah Mada University who took the trouble of coming to Jakarta to coordinate our project. But in the course of both preparation and research we were also given assistance by persons of various sectors, who offered their help on the basis of friendship with us, including several graduates of GSID, who are now working at government offices. Most of the interviews in Jakarta were conducted in English.

We then moved to Yogyakarta either by plane or by train according to each WG's schedule. In Yogyakarta, one professor of Gadjah Mada University was assigned to each WG as an advisor and one or two students as counterparts to assist us with our research. In Yogyakarta most of the research was

conducted in Indonesian language, with the Gadjah Mada student counterparts serving as interpreters. Members of WG-1 and 2 stayed with Indonesian families in a village called Wonolelo and conducted research in this village. Students of other WGs stayed in a hotel near the university and commuted to the research sites.

We would like to express our thanks to advisors and counterparts from Gadjah Mada University including professors Ana Nadhya Abrar, Usmar Salam, Kumoromo Wahyudi, Nurhasan Ismail and Tri Widodo, among others. They accompanied us without fail during the research in Yogyakarta and extended us unlimited help. We are also indebted to our respondents at various government offices, private organizations, NGOs and companies. Equal thanks are due, too, to the officials and residents of Wonolelo village, who received us with warmest hospitality and provided us with the wonderful opportunity of sharing village life.

OFW'97-IND was arranged so that each WG could take responsibility for planning and conducting research as well as allocation of budget and tried to minimize "top-down" decision-making. For our counterparts in Indonesia, this arrangement approach may have caused extra confusion and trouble, for which we must extend our deep apologies. However, we consider that this more participatory approach allowed greater benefits, both in terms of educational gains and effective use of the limited budget.

I would like to express my appreciation to Mr. Andin Hadiyanto, an Indonesian graduate student of GSID, who helped us in correspondence with Gadjah Mada University in the process of communication.

In editing this report, I would like to acknowledge the assistance of Ms. Melisanda Berkowitz, an American graduate student of GSID, who helped to refine reports of respective working groups. Then, thanks are due to Mr. Tetsuo Umemura, the secretary of this project, who has worked very intensively since the very beginning of our preparation.

Aiko Kurasawa
Professor and Project Director
OFW'97-IND

List of OFW'97-IDN Participants

Table 1 GSID Faculty Members Participating OFW '97-IDN

	Area	Advisor	
WG-1	Communication and Development	Tagayasu Naito	Associate Professor*
WG-2	Education and Development	Aiko Kurasawa**	Professor
WG-3	Public Administration	Hirotsune Kimura	Professor
WG-4	Law and Development	Nobuyuki Yasuda	Professor
WG-5	Economic Development	Hiroshi Osada	Professor
	OFW97 Project Coordinator	Tetsuo Umemura	Research Associate

* Shizuoka Eiwa College.

**Project Director, OFW'97-IDN.

Table 2 GSID Students Participating OFW'97-IDN

WG	Name	F/M	Course*	Nationality
1	Yoshika Hirata	F	DID	Japan
	Toshiyuki Matsumoto	M	DID	Japan
	Kumi Kanamura	F	DICOM	Japan
	Nobue Nakashima	F	DICOM	Japan
	Marcus Franz Dieter Bingenheimer	M	DICOM	Germany
2	Yukiko Iwamoto	F	DID	Japan
	Takako Suzuki	F	DID	Japan
	Norihiko Suzuki	M	DID	Japan
	Junko Taguchi	F	DID	Japan
	Takashi Hattori	M	DID	Japan
	Hitomi Furumoto	F	DID	Japan
	Hedvig Rozsnyoi	F	DID	Hungarian
Boonpun Sanbho	F	DID	Thailand	
3	Sayaka Izume	F	DICOS	Japan
	Teruyuki Kurihara	M	DICOS	Japan
	Izumi Suzuki	F	DICOS	Japan
	Yuko Hiraide	F	DICOS	Japan
	Hideki Yamamoto	M	DICOS	Japan
4	Yukari Ando	F	DICOS	Japan
	Nobuko Kawamura	F	DICOS	Japan
	Rodrigo Pires De Campos	M	DICOS	Brazil
	Kyoko Kinoshita	F	DICOS	Japan
	Christine Sakamoto	F	DICOS	U.S.A.
5	Joseph Imoukhqede Unufegan	M	DID	Nigeria
	Sumedi Andono Mulyo	M	DID	Indonesia
	Norihiko Takeuchi	M	DID	Japan
	Aparecida Mitsue Mituiassu	F	DID	Brazil
	Chie Yoshimoto	F	DID	Japan
	Percy Wen-Long Lee	M	DID	Canada
	Yayoi Watada	F	DID	Japan
	Megumi Yanagitsubo	F	DID	Japan

*Courses:

DID: Department of International Development.

DICOS: Department of International Cooperation Studies.

DICOM: Department of International Communication.

Program of All Working Groups (OFW'97-IDN)

	Date			Program
1	July	29	Tue	From Nagoya to Jakarta
2		30	Wed	Program of respective WGs
3		31	Thu	Program of respective WGs
4	August	1	Fri	Program of respective WGs
5		2	Sat	Day off
6		3	Sun	Day off
7		4	Mon	Program of respective WGs
8		5	Tue	Program of respective WGs
9		6	Wed	Program of respective WGs
10		7	Thu	Program of respective WGs
11		8	Fri	Program of respective WGs
12		9	Sat	From Jakarta to Yogyakarta
13		10	Sun	Day off
14		11	Mon	Visit to UGM and BAPEDA
15		12	Tue	Program of respective WGs
16		13	Wed	Program of respective WGs
17		14	Thu	Program of respective WGs
18		15	Fri	Program of respective WGs
19		16	Sat	Excursion to Borobudur, etc.
20		17	Sun	Day off
21		18	Mon	Program of respective WGs
22		19	Tue	Program of respective WGs
23		20	Wed	Program of respective WGs
24		21	Thu	Report Writing
25		22	Fri	Presentation, Farewell Party
26		23	Sat	From Yogyakarta to Bali
27		24	Sun	Day off
28		25	Mon	From Bali to Nagoya

Working Group 1

Communication and Development

1. Introduction	1
2. Communication Policy in Japan	2
2-1. Main objectives	2
2-2. Development of the main body	3
3. Communication Development Project	3
3-1. Purpose of research	3
3-2. Status of the village	4
3-3. Research method and content of the questionnaire	4
3-4. Analysis	6
3-5. Findings from the research in W Village	6
4. Japan and Chinese language in the context	7
4-1. Purpose of the research	7
4-2. Research methodology	7
4-3. Research design and data collection	7
4-4. Data analysis and the research results	7
4-5. Village development	10
4-6. Summary of the research	10
5. Conclusion	10

Working Group 1

Chairman
Takayama Hiroshi (University of Tsukuba)
Yoshikawa Kenji (Hosei)

Written by
Yoshida Hiroaki (University of Yamaguchi)
Yamaoka Kazuo (Nihon University)

Working Group 1

Communication and Development

1. Introduction	1
2. Communication Policy in Indonesia.....	2
2-1 Multilingual culture.....	2
2-2 Development of the mass media	4
3. Communication in a Javanese Village.....	13
3-1 Purpose of research	13
3-2 Outline of the village.....	15
3-3 Research method and content of the questionnaire	16
3-4 Analysis.....	16
3-5 Findings from the research in W village	22
4. Japan and Japanese Language in Indonesia.....	23
4-1 Purpose of the research	23
4-2 Japanese language study.....	23
4-3 Japanese organisations for Japanese language	24
4-4 Japan and Japanese language in Indonesia.....	26
4-5 Methods and results.....	26
4-6 Findings from the research.....	29
5. Conclusion	29

Advisor

Tagayasu Naito, Associate Professor
(Shizuoka Eiwa College)

Written by

Yoshika Hirata Toshiyuki Matsumoto
Kumi Kanamura Nobue Nakashima

Working Group 1

Communication and Development

1. Introduction

During Repelita VI (five-year development plan, 1994/95-98/99) the development of information, social communication and the mass communication has played an important role in the efforts to realize a conducive climate supporting the expansion and progress of public participation and responsibility in national development. The development of information pertaining to social communication and the mass media is directed toward the promotion of Pancasila (the national ideology) and the 1945 Constitution in all aspects of people's lives.

Indonesia has promoted development by introducing foreign capital under the new order system. In the process it is thought that development involved the mobilization of means of communication including the mass media. At the same time development involved the double objective that national integration should be carried out in the context of Indonesia's multi-ethnic society. Indonesian has established a single national language and has succeeded in structuring a domestic satellite communication system. Indonesia is very unusual in having achieved great success in national integration and communication development. But as yet there has been no detailed research about how communication policies penetrate into and influence the agricultural villages where most Indonesians live, though each communication policy has been introduced for a long time. Therefore we decided to conduct research in an agricultural village to clarify the influence of the communication policy.

On the other hand, we also conducted research about international communication. As mentioned above, Indonesia is keen on the introduction of foreign capital and the establishment of an export-oriented industrial structure. These tendencies involve the positive acceptance of foreign information and culture. Foreign countries promote a variety of cultural exchanges as part of their cultural policy. In our research we tried to clarify the structure of foreign cultural penetration and acceptance by taking Japanese language education as example.

During the first half of OFW we visited the Ministry of Information, TV stations, a radio station and newspaper company, from which we obtained information about national communication policy and mass media. During the latter half of OFW we visited a Javanese village to conduct our research on how recent economic and social change influences the people. We also conducted our research on the Indonesian impression of Japan, including the Japanese language and culture, through Indonesian Japanese learners from the viewpoint of international communication between Indonesia and Japan.

2. Communication Policy in Indonesia

2-1 Multilingual culture

2-1-1 The linguistic and ethnic conception of Indonesia

There are approximately 583 languages and dialects in the archipelago. Indonesian and the other local languages spoken are normally classified into the Austronesian language family. This also includes Micronesian, Melanesian and Polynesian languages, and spreads over the area from Madagascar to Hawaii.

Table 2-1 The relation between population and language

POPULATION 5 YEARS OF AGE AND OVER BY PROVINCE AND MOTHER TONGUE						
Province						
Language	All Indonesia		Jakarta		Yogyakarta	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
Indonesia	25,775,145	15%	6,477,165	77.8%	88,691	3.3%
Java	67,453,465	38.7%	951,081	11.4%	2,536,866	94%
Sunda	25,222,111	14.5%	405,666	4.9%	13,440	0.5%
Madura	7,142,046	4.1%	14,472	0.2%	28,764	1.1%
Batak	3,608,559	2.1%	81,273	1.0%	4,667	0.2%
Minang	4,16,889	2.5%	85,598	1.0%	1,050	-----
Bali	2,709,969	1.6%	1,630	-----	258	-----
Bugil	3,680,331	2.1%	15,346	0.2%	1,147	-----
Banjar	3,130,627	1.8%	5,227	0.01%	1,232	-----
Others	30,345,949	17.4%	193,721	2.3%	19,345	0.7%
Foreign Language	918,186	0.01%	93,476	1.1%	2,328	0.1%
Total	174,303,277		8,324,655		2,697,788	

Source: Biro Pusat Statistik (1996) *Population of Indonesia. Results of the 1995 Intercensal Population Survey Series 52*, Jakarta.

Table 2-1 shows the complex ethnolinguistic situation in Indonesia. At the same time, the difference of linguistics between Jakarta and Yogyakarta is clear. In Jakarta, Indonesian, the national and official language, is mainly used even at home. In contrast, Javanese is the most dominant in Yogyakarta. They normally belong to the different ethnic groups of the population. These language names are also used as names of the ethnic groups who speak the languages. Each of the ethnic groups have their own culture and customs as well as their own language. Thus, Indonesia is a typical multilingual country.

The establishing of "Indonesian", as the national language

- The unification of a multilingual country and language -

To unite the variety of ethnic groups that have different languages and cultures, the official language plays an important role. When it declared independence after Second World War, Indonesia declared the Melaju Language (Bahasa Melaju) as its national language, and named it Indonesian (Bahasa Indonesia). Since its establishment, Indonesian has been enriched by the influence of local languages and the ongoing coinage of new words.

However, around the time of independence in 1945, the rate of population who spoke the Melaju language

as their mother tongue was only 2%. Why, then, was such a language chosen as the national language? The Melaju language originated from the area around Sumatra and was a “lingua franca” for trade from the Malay peninsula through west Java. Thus, the grammar of Melaju language was fairly simple. Javanese (Bahasa Java), the language which had the largest number of speakers as a first language, included a complex honorific system, making it difficult to master for those with other mother tongues.

Choosing Melaju as the national language had great implications for Indonesia as a multilingual country. If a language which has many native speakers is chosen as the national language, the speakers have advantages in every social situation. Therefore, Indonesian as a national language itself implies that all ethnic groups are treated equally. Thus, people in Indonesia use two different languages in general—Indonesian as the official language, and their own local languages for daily use within their own ethnic groups.

Indonesian language usage

There are a few newspapers and magazines written in local languages. However, their circulation is small and only for certain areas. In mass media, Indonesian is preferred, and almost all TV programs are broadcast in Indonesian.

In elementary school education, local languages are spoken in classes until 3rd grade. After that, Indonesian is introduced. This is in accordance with the principle of government to protect the local languages. Only Indonesian is used in higher education. However, the local languages used in elementary school are limited to eight major local languages are also taught as specialties in language departments in universities. This situation is clearly not equal for people who speak other minority languages. As a result, many minority languages in Indonesia have been weakened and even lost.

One point in which Indonesian is linguistically unique is its formality. For example, when strangers meet, they speak in Indonesian, and often they do not know what native languages each other speak. People prefer to use Indonesian in formal situations, such as meetings or public speech. This is a common phenomenon in multilingual societies.

2-1-2 The linguistic situation in Jakarta and Yogyakarta

The linguistic situation in Jakarta

In Jakarta, the number of people whose mother tongue is Indonesian is increasing. This tendency is caused by the special condition of a capital city where many people with different mother tongues come together from various areas in search of employment. When parents who speak different local languages use Indonesian at home, their child will naturally speak Indonesian as their first language. Therefore, Indonesian originally a mixture of Melaju and other local languages, is evolving into a Creole language. This situation may be problematic from the point of view of choosing Indonesian as an official language, since people speaking Indonesian as their mother tongue have advantages over non-native speakers.

The linguistic situation in Yogyakarta

Javanese, the local language spoken in Yogyakarta, has the largest number of native speakers in Indonesia. There are three different speech levels in Javanese. A speaker is required to use them properly depending upon the situation.

Though Javanese originally had its own Javanese characters, it is now written in alphabet. The Javanese characters are only taught a little in school, and there are few chances to use it in daily life. Therefore, few people can read or write it. One newspaper company is publishing a Javanese version of its newspaper once a

week. The number of copies is less than 10% of the Indonesian version. Many Javanese people regard the ability to use the honorific as educated and sophisticated. Nevertheless, young people are losing this ability.

Generally, Javanese is used as a daily spoken language in local society, and at home. As we mentioned before, it is common for people in Yogyakarta to use Javanese and Indonesian interchangeably.

2-2 Development of the mass media

2-2-1 Television and radio in Indonesia

General structure of the TV network

Television broadcasting in Indonesia began when the state-owned station TVRI (Televisi Republik Indonesia) was founded in 1962. Since its inception, TVRI has been among the responsibilities of the Directorate General of Radio, Film and TV which is part of the Ministry of Information. Privatization began in 1989 when RCTI (Rajawali Citra Televisi Indonesia) was founded. During the the first half of the 90's, four other private stations went on air: SCTV (Surya Citra Televisi), TPI (Televisi Pendidikan Indonesia) in 1991, ANTV(Andalas Televisi), and INDOSIAR in 1995. During the OFWs of 1996 and 1997 working groups from Nagoya visited RCTI and SCTV (in 1996) as well as TPI, INDOSIAR and TVRI 's local station in Yogyakarta (in 1997).

There is a formal broadcasting law in Indonesia, which has not come into force yet. For example, one of the rules stipulates that the language of all broadcasts has to be either Indonesian or English with subtitles. Other imported productions, e.g. from India, must be dubbed in Indonesian. Since there was only the national broadcasting company before 1989, a formal regulation was not needed. The creation of private stations has done little to hasten the development toward a formal framework. The draft version of the broadcasting law, which comes into existence this October, is expected to clarify only the topics on which a decision is indispensable while being vague on a host of other subjects. Until now, the agreement is profitable for both sides; reportedly, the Ministry of Information skims off 12.5 % of the private station's profits, who have to air the government news in 'exchange'. Besides that, and the relatively lenient censorship, the privates are allowed to work as they see fit in order to maximize their profits. While the economic profits of the private stations stem almost 100% from advertisement, TVRI, which is not allowed to air commercials, collects a monthly fee from the viewers (Rp.4000-6000 for color TVs, depending on size, Rp.1000-3000 for black-and-whites). It is not clear how well this system works, and how much TVRI depends on subsidies from the general budget of the Ministry. Judging from the equipment we could see, TVRI seems to be much less well off than the privates. Moreover, it is a government institution, and according to the management there are many more people on the payroll than necessary which usually reduces the efficiency of the whole organization. Also, from Monday to Saturday, TVRI is only on air for approximately 10 hours, and shows considerably fewer foreign movies, which indicates that it is probably not competitive.

Perhaps the most intriguing aspect of Indonesian TV is its ownership structure. A TV station is an expedient way to create profit. National government policy has been changed to introduce free markets and see the advantages of commercialized media, e.g., stimulation of consumption. The private TV stations are without exception, directly or indirectly owned by members of Suharto's family or old friends.

RCTI belongs to the business empire of Suharto's second son Bambang Trihatmodjo; SCTV is owned by Suharto's brother-in-law Sudwikatmono; TPI is part of the many activities of Siti Hardyanti Rukmana (Tutut), Suharto's powerful daughter; ANTV is owned by PT Bakrie Brothers, the company of Abu Rizal Bakrie, the former President of the Chamber of Commerce. After these enterprises were all well established, Suharto went a step further and allowed the Salim Group of his long-time friend Liem Sioe Liong to found INDOSIAR.

One central question in the TV-business is the share of foreign productions. Basically there are two reasons for a TV-station to buy foreign products. One is that it is more economical to buy cheap series (such as 'Asian drama' and ancient American series like "Flipper") than producing them. On the other hand, to buy more expensive rights, especially for recent American movies, is seen as an investment to attract viewers, which is essential for the advertisement business. For the latter type of production there is no domestic alternative since the Indonesian film industry can neither produce high-budget movies nor series like 'Baywatch' which contradict the officially prescribed morality but nevertheless find a big audience. Asked if the sensual appeal of 'Baywatch' doesn't upset the more conservative viewers, one manager of a private TV-station answered; "We tell them: 'What do you want, these people wear their bikinis at the beach, not in a living-room. What else should they wear at the beach?'" One major share of foreign programs consists of cartoons from America and Japan. Like with the high-budget movies, there is as yet no domestic competition in this area".

The problem with all foreign productions, of course, is that the world depicted is remote from the world of the audience. Especially in the rural communities, traditional Indonesian or Javanese programs like 'Kethoprak' are much more popular than, say, 'Robocop'. Indeed, there were complaints in the early days of privatization that there were too many imported products. The official policy of all private stations we asked was to reduce the share of imported productions and expand the home-made productions. RCTI started with 95% foreign-made programs in 1989 and reduced this share to 60% in 1996. As a goal, the managers envisioned that 80% of all its broadcasts should be produced in Indonesia. In the case of TPI, we were given similar data. They also said that approximately 40% of their entertainment programs are produced locally. INDOSIAR, however, claimed to have so-called 'canned-products' down to 35-40%, about 60% of its programming supposedly consists of in-house and local productions. This seems plausible as INDOSIAR has the largest studios and the most sophisticated equipment of all TV-stations in Indonesia. When it was founded 2 years ago, it not only imported the hardware from Hong Kong, but also brought over a number of in-house-advisors, who, until recently, were helping to get the organization established.

On the basis of intensive questioning of this year's as well as last year's OFW, it must be said that, Japanese programs that are broadcast in Indonesia, mainly ubiquitous cartoons, have popularity. For instance, a few years ago 'Tokyo Love Story' and 'Oshin' were shown, and the series 'Yokoso Yoko' is part of INDOSIAR's Wednesday afternoon routine,

About two-thirds of all foreign programs come from the U.S.A. The remaining third come from Japan, India, Hong Kong, the Philippines and Brazil.

A rough count of all the foreign productions that are presented to the Indonesian viewer during one week (21-27 Sept. 1997) is given below. 'Others' comprises children's programs, fitness, sports and travel.:

Table 2-2 TV programs of each TV station

	Total	TV series	Movies	Cartoons	Other
TVRI 1 (10 hours)	18	8	4	1	5
TVRI 2 (4 hours)	14	7	1	3	3
RCTI	41	22	11	3	5
SCTV	41	21	8	8	4
TPI	34	18	5	7	4
ANTV	62 (30*)	13	3	1	45**
INDOSIAR	54	31	10	8	5

Note: * excluding MTV-productions. ** thereof : 32 MTV music-productions, 11 sports & fitness.

Source: Compiled from newspapers.

This is only a superficial count of the entries in a weekly TV-program, and the analysis needs refinement with regard to the quality and the sharing of broadcasting time of these productions, e.g. the foreign productions shown by TVRI, 'New Lassie', 'Big Brother Jake', are considerably less likely to attract viewers than the movies on RCTI 'Superman IV', 'JKF', 'Radio Days'. Nevertheless a few conclusions can be drawn from the table. Assuming TVRI broadcast for 20 hours, the way it makes use of foreign productions would be roughly parallel with TPI (for the special role of TPI see below). Along the same lines, RCTI and SCTV obviously belong to one group. ANTV focuses on music and sport and buys a lot of its programs from MTV. The many imports of INDOSIAR seem to contradict the statement we were given by one of the managers that they are reducing the share of foreign productions.

When one compares broadcasting times, there are two interesting points, the late start of TVRI in the early afternoon, and the relatively late start of INDOSIAR at 7 a.m.. While the other four private stations start the day with a traditional Islamic morning prayer, which we found to be very popular in the mostly Muslim rural areas, the station owned by the Christian Chinese minority is silent at that time and starts at 7 a.m. with 'Music & Info'. The broadcasting time of the Indonesian TV-stations are:

Table 2-3 The broadcasting time of the Indonesian TV-stations (August 1997)

	Weekdays	Sundays
TVRI	2:30 pm to 11:00-12:00 pm	6:00 am to 11:00-12:00 pm
RCTI	5:30 am to 1:30 am (Sat until 4 am)	5:30 am to 2:00 am
SCTV	5:00 am to 1:30 am	5:00 am to 1:30 am
ANTV	5:30 am to 3:00-4:00 am	5.30 am to 2:00 am
TPI	5:10 am to 1:00-2:00 am	5:10 am to 0:15 am
INDOSIAR	7:00 am to 2:00 am (Fri & Sat until 5:30 am)	6:00 am to 1:30 am

Source: Compiled from newspapers.

It has been mentioned already that the average broadcasting time of state-owned TVRI is only 10 hours, about half of the time of its private competitors. It is very influential though, because of its virtual monopoly on news coverage. Though the private stations try by a variety of means to fit in 'information programs', they are more confined to soft-news that avoid politically charged issues. All official news programs have to broadcast the official TVRI news. Since TVRI is a subdivision of the Ministry of Information, there is to date nothing like free, i.e., government-independent news-coverage on Indonesian TV.

There is also TVRI 2 which goes on air everyday between 4:30 p.m. and 8 to 9 p.m. Its *raison d'être* is the desire of the Ministry of Information to present an English version of the government news. The other programs are grouped around the TVRI-News at 6:30 p.m. and the following Evening News at 7 p.m.

Besides its central station in Jakarta, TVRI has 14 local stations all over Indonesia. The current system is that Jakarta provides 8 of the 10 hours daily broadcasting time, and the local stations fill the remaining two hours.

Air time reserved for local stations is between 4:30 p.m. and 6 p.m., and again between 7:30 p.m. and 9 p.m. The main task for the local station in Yogyakarta is to prepare the local news (Berita Daerah) for the Yogyakarta Special Region which is broadcast between 5 and 5:30 p.m. daily. Besides the news, the local stations provide a few small-scale programs on education and sports as well as music and entertainment. The latter are usually of traditional local content, e.g. Kethoprak, a form of traditional Javanese drama, or 'Sinetron', a TV-drama that was very popular among the villagers we interviewed.

Among the private stations, TPI has a special position. It has supposedly committed itself to the advancement of education and for this purpose works closely with the Ministry of Education (DEPDIBUD). From TPI's public relations department we got the following figures: 16.6% of the broadcasting time is reserved for material from DEPDIBUD which TPI broadcasts as it is. This material consists mostly of school lessons in Math, English, etc. One program is called 'Titian Ilmu', 'stepping-stones to knowledge'. Another 16.6% of the time is for so-called 'informal education', e.g. programs on religion. Entertainment programs make up 31.9%, 12.5% is news, 2.4 % sports and 20% of all broadcasting time consists of commercials. This last figure is more or less the same for all private stations. TPI shows a lot of Indian ('Mahabharata') and other programs made in Asia, about 10 per week. Perhaps being situated between the state-owned station and the privately owned makes it follow the government policy to keep American influence at bay. Its target-group consists mainly of female viewers aged 15+.

TV in the villages

TV in rural areas is one of the major agents of change all over the world. The fact that advanced literacy is not a necessary requirement makes TV more common than the newspaper, and the higher entertainment value makes it superior in that respect to the radio. When we asked for the source of some piece of news a respondent had obtained, the answer was almost always from TV. In a village community even the relatively high investment it takes to buy a TV can be avoided or at least postponed, because it is often possible to watch at a neighbor's home..

Indonesia's countryside has room for many more TVs. During the two visits, we went to three different villages which had saturation levels, that is, percentage of households with TVs, as follows:

Sarirejo III:	81%	
Purworejo:	60%	
Wonolelo:	71%	(Radio 84%)

Almost all TVs in the villages are black and white. The ownership of a TV set correlates with the level of education. The owners of a TV tend to have completed elementary education or secondary education and are much more informed on matters regarding the outside world. We found that although the respondents might be aware that a certain program is foreign, they sometimes did not know where the program was from.

Radio Broadcasting

The world of Indonesian radio is much more diversified than that of TV and certainly deserves further research. Next to the state-owned radio RRI (Radio Republik Indonesia) there exist more than 600 private stations. Most are local, but there are some that broadcast nation-wide. Yogyakarta has 16 private radio stations. Private radio started in 1966, much earlier than private TV. In the early 1970's the government put an end to the relative freedom they had enjoyed until then, and introduced a strict set of measures for better control. These private stations have to renew their licenses every year. Like private TV stations they are not allowed to produce their own news but, again like TV stations, they try to maneuver around that handicap through talk shows or information programs. Economically they work like private companies, relying on their revenue from advertisement, the share of ads of the total broadcasting time being up to 50% .

State-owned radio RRI

RRI (Radio Republik Indonesia) has a large network with its headquarters in Jakarta and 52 local stations all over the country. It belongs institutionally to the Ministry of Information, the heads of the stations being

directly subordinate to the Directorate of Radio, a subdivision of the same General Directorate as TVRI.

The Radio is mostly financed by the Ministry, though 5% of all broadcasting time is sold for advertisement. As most state-owned companies, RRI probably has too many people on the payroll to work as efficiently as a private company. We were told about an interesting double-standard of promotion; there are professional promotions and structural promotions. The first means that someone is promoted to a position because he or she has the professional requirements for the job. Structural promotion means that someone holds a position for structural reasons that might include age, relationships or quotas that have to be met. In RRI, professional staff on the same level in the hierarchy receive higher pay than structural staff.

Local station in Yogyakarta - Rural Broadcasting

When we visited RRI's local station in Yogyakarta, we investigated a program the local stations prepare specifically for the rural area in the range of their broadcasting. This Siaran Pedesaan or Rural Broadcasting is on air twice daily for 20 min. In the Yogya-region, farmers listen to it from 7:40 until 8 p.m., and again when the same feature is repeated the next morning from 5:10 to 5:30 am. Siaran Pedesaan has its roots in an agricultural program that started in 1969. Inspired by a similar program produced by Radio Australia, it aimed at the welfare of farmers, their standard of living, the efficiency of farming and the technology involved. Further developments led to include fishery, forestry and animal husbandry. Over 35 institutions are involved in its production, contributing to topics as diverse as health, agriculture and education. The influence of the program is enhanced by the Kelompencapir, of which there are about 2300 in the Yogya-region. In the Kelompencapir, listeners ideally discuss what they have heard and decide how to use the information. It is a listener-orientated program that is well received. It has question-and-answer features and discussions as well as some entertainment. We were told that the station receives ample feedback from its listeners. Some people send diseased fruit and ask to be told what they can do to prevent further outbreak. Some people send healthy fruit as a present or proof of success. Once, the station received a letter from a man as far away as Sumatra, who asked for specimens of an improved breed of plants that he had heard of through Siaran Pedesaan while he was in Yogyakarta.

2-2-2 Newspapers

Newspapers in Indonesia

In Indonesia, the number of daily newspapers is the second largest in Southeast Asia, after Thailand. With 193 million people in 1994, Indonesia is potentially the greatest newspaper-reading market in the Southeast Asian region. In 1995/96, the total newspaper circulation reached 4,733,243 copies of daily newspapers.

Until 1995/96, 292 national press publishers had got Licenses for Press Publication, consisting of 77 daily newspapers, 90 weekly newspapers, 177 magazines, and eight bulletins. The 77 Indonesian daily newspapers included among others, English language dailies, and regional newspapers.

The national newspapers are all published in Jakarta and distributed from the capital city into the regions. Regional newspapers are published in the provinces. Indonesia consists of 13,600 islands divided into 27 provinces. The regional newspapers are rarely distributed nationwide, while half of the circulation of national newspapers is distributed to the 27 provinces outside Jakarta.

Village development projects by Ministry of Information

To meet the need for information for rural people, the Government has launched two projects: SKUD (Selat Kabar Untuk Desa; Newspapers for the Villages) and KMD (Koran Menbagnan Desa; Newspapers for

Developing Villages). SKUD distributes general newspapers to the village offices expense of the Ministry of Information. At present, five newspapers which are issued in the capital are involved in this program. KMD delivers newspapers written in local languages, even to village people. SKUD and KMD are expected to benefit villages since rural people will have access to information and gain knowledge in to overcoming their local problems. We were able to visit the KR newspaper that distributes to rural areas under the KMD project.

KMD(Koran Membagnan Desa)

KMD started in 1979 under the Ministry of Information to promote development of village information. In the beginning, the program was named Koran Musk Desa which means "to spread newspapers into villages". In 1991, the government changed the project's name to Koran Membagnan Desa, meaning "newspapers making villages developed". The Ministry of Information supports 50% of the expenses to issue 3500 newspapers on condition that each newspaper publishes a minimum of 3500.

The Ministry of Information expresses the purpose of KMD as follows: to emphasize the existence of local general newspapers in rural areas by supporting the publishing of local newspapers, and to promote information to villages to raise social participation of village people for their economic development.

This project began with 13 states and 34 newspapers. In 1984/85 the number of newspapers contracted under KMD reached 50 in 26 states. In 1997/98, 62 newspapers are estimated to participate. Twelve newspapers of the 62 are regarded as independent, called "mandiri", and they have already not been supported financially by the Ministry of Information. KR, which we interviewed in Yogyakarta was also the one such "mandiri" newspaper.

The KMD program is rapidly developing. The number of newspapers published increased from 9,775,000 (1979) to 41,372,480 (1997), beyond the policy goal of 8,400,000. This resulted from each company's efforts to issue more than 3,500 newspapers.

At the present time, the forms of newspapers contracted by KMD are as follows: special edition published as one independent newspaper, 22; supplements, 21; columns using a part of a page in KMD, 19.

Table 2-4 Newspaper

Year	Contracted-(1)	Published-(2)	Grants	Readers' group "kelompokcapir"(3)
1979	9,775,000	*	211,726,500	*
1980/1981	7,150,000	*	250,250,000	*
1981/1982	15,562,000	*	704,340,000	*
1982/1983	12,480,000	23,751,884	561,600,000	**
1983/1984	8,658,000	23,998,260	432,900,000	**
1984/1985	8,580,000	22,992,008	429,000,000	462
1985/1986	10,000,000	18,232,080	429,000,000	704
1986/1987	9,999,000	20,720,320	429,000,000	809
1987/1988	7,200,000	22,306,626	330,000,000	540
1988/1989	7,200,000	24,384,850	330,240,000	1,859
1989/1990	7,680,000	31,698,714	330,240,000	1,377
1990/1991	7,680,000	34,426,370	330,240,000	1,695
1991/1992	7,680,000	37,871,022	330,240,000	1,708
1992/1993	8,400,000	38,556,580	378,000,000	1,647
1993/1994	8,400,000	39,798,158	378,000,000	1,662
1994/1995	8,400,000	40,414,096	420,000,000	1,658
1995/1996	8,400,000	40,942,430	546,000,000	1,053
1996/1997	8,400,000	41,372,480	588,000,000	922

Notes: * Materials that have not been collected. ** Groups that have not been organized.

(1) the number of newspapers contracted with the government.

(2) the number of newspapers actually published.

(3) Please refer to the next chapter.

Source: Ministry of Information.

KR (Kedauratan Rayat)

KR is a local newspaper company near Yogyakarta. Besides other Indonesian newspapers, this company publishes newspapers written in Javanese, called "Kandha Raharja". They were also given grants by the government like other local newspapers, but from 1991, the government stopped the grants, regarding KR as independent (mandiri).

KR issues more than 100,000 Indonesian daily newspapers and 7,000 Javanese weekly newspapers. The number of Javanese newspapers exceeded the number expected by government. The price of the Javanese paper is Rp.100 while the Indonesian paper is Rp.700. Rp.100 is worth little at the present time in Indonesia, and KR stated that the Javanese paper is not profitable for them. They issue Javanese local newspapers by using profits from the Indonesian newspapers. They issue Javanese papers not for profit but as a social service.

There are two reasons to use Javanese language. First, there are some people who understand only Javanese, and second, it is one method of protecting Javanese culture. Actually some people make a point of reading Javanese newspapers although they can understand Indonesian language. KR have decided the motto of the Javanese newspaper as "For fellow countrymen who love Javanese culture"

The government directs KR to publish articles about all areas, such as agriculture, economics, politics, hygiene and culture, but the articles are geared mainly towards technical topics or better living conditions, because this newspaper is primarily aimed at the development of rural areas.

This Javanese newspaper is distributed in four ways. They are first distributed to branch offices in each prefectural capitals, and then agencies under the branch offices deliver the newspapers into villages. Another ways is to give newspapers to secretaries of government. In that case they cannot give newspapers free of charge. A third way is to deliver newspapers from branch offices to leaders of readers' groups of kelompokcapir. Fourthly, KR also sends newspapers by mail to other states.

The Ministry of Information determines the effects of KMD from the results of discussions held by

kelompok members. Kelompok is a group for audiences/readers of radio, TV and newspapers. They discuss the information from mass-media and try to implement the information from those discussions. Readers' groups have such discussions once a month. They submit the records of those discussions. The government holds a conference once a year to decide the to kelompok in the whole country.

2-2-3 Kelompok (The Listeners, Viewers, and Readers Group)

- A Strategy for Information Development in Indonesia -

Background

With the introduction of the Communication Satellite in Indonesia in 1976, coverage of the electronic media, both radio and television, has been greatly enhanced. Now, radio coverage reaches more than 80% of Indonesia's population while television coverage reaches more than 60%.

Media coverage in Indonesia is designed to support its national development strategy, which is aimed at attaining equity, economic growth and national stability. Modern media with their ever-widening horizon, both in terms of coverage and influence, have penetrated rural life and have flooded the rural areas with information reflecting the multi-dimensional nature of national development. A question may now be asked how this abundance of information is understood by the target audience in rural areas. Research conducted by the Department of Information on the system of rural information in Indonesia in the early 1980's, found that most of the messages were not properly understood, particularly by the rural population, for various reason listed below.

- 1) Difficulty in comprehending media presentation, including the language being used.
- 2) Subject matters were too general and did not meet the needs of the rural population.
- 3) The audience is mostly passive.

In the effort to remedy the situation, Indonesia introduced a nationwide system of Kelompok, named from the capital letters of the Indonesian phrase that means LVR (Listeners, Viewers and Readers) Groups, as an extension of Radio Listeners' Group of Rural Broadcasting, which was established to develop listening habits among members of the village communities two decades ago.

Kelompok System and Role

Kelompok has an important role in the overall information strategy of the nation which is aimed at creating equity and a balanced flow of information while fully committed to the cause of developing the intellectual life of the people. In addition, it is also designed to improve the general comprehension of the rural media audience, and at the same time, receive feedback that would provide indications of the audience's wishes and their needs.

Kelompok assigns selected members to regularly monitor the contents of both printed and electronic media, to be presented at periodic Kelompok meetings. Members are also encouraged to criticize, offer suggestions, introduce problems of common interest and arrive at solutions to problems. Whatever information is produced by a group discussion, it is plied back to the media, thus encouraging lively dialogue with rural people, whose voice would otherwise go unheard through the modern media.

The Kelompok system has become a significant part of the communication and information strategy in Indonesia, particularly for the benefit of rural people. This strategy has been translated into comprehensive, integrated information policy, which encourages the participation of rural communities. It has now become a nationwide policy. There are about 92,100(1996) Kelompok throughout Indonesia, in a total number of 65,554 villages. Table 1-5 shows the number of Kelompok in each province.

The Ministry of Information regards the role of Kelompencapir as follows: The spontaneous establishment of tens of thousands of LVR Groups throughout the country reflects Indonesia's determination to improve its information infrastructures to all citizens while encouraging the media to design their program contents to meet the real needs and aspirations of village audiences. Thus, the Kelompencapir system is rightfully termed as an agent of development, change and modernization. This system, which permeates the entire country and social life of all stratas of the rural community, has started to reap positive influence on the people's attitudes and behavior towards life, environment, development, change and modernization.

Table 2-5 The number of Kelompencapir

NO	PROVINCE	NUMBER OF KELOMPENCAPIR
1	D. I. ACHE	3,633
2	NORTH SUMATERA	5,394
3	WEST SUMATERA	4,266
4	RIAU	1,890
5	JAMBI	2,475
6	SOUTH SUMATERA	2,650
7	LAMPUNG	3,455
8	BENGKULU	2,075
9	DKI. JAKARTA	57
10	WEST JAWA	8,320
11	D.I.YOGYAKARTA	57
12	CENTRAL JAWA	13,964
13	EAST JAWA	13,870
14	BALI	1,625
15	EAST KALIMANTAN	1,875
16	CENTRAL KALIMANTAN	1,295
17	WEST KALIMANTAN	2,280
18	SOUTH KALIMANTAN	3,489
19	NORTH SULAWESI	1,610
20	CENTRAL SULAWESI	1,390
21	SOUTH SULAWESI	3,381
22	SOUTHEAST SULAWESI	1,525
23	WEST NUSA TENGGARA	1,745
24	EAST NUSA TENGGARA	4,113
25	MALUKU	2,129
26	IRIAN JAYA	395
27	EAST TIMOR	52
	TOTAL	92,100

Source: Ministry of Information.

3. Communication in a Javanese Village

- A Case Study of W village -

3-1 Purpose of research

In the past two decades Indonesia has experienced spectacular economic and social development. The average annual growth rate (%) of GDP was 6.1% from 1980 to 1990 and 7.6% from 1990 to 1995. Total fertility rate in Indonesia decreases from 4.3% in 1980 to 2.7% in 1995 (based on 1987 constant price, World Bank, *World Development Report 1997*). Average number of family members and dependency ratio in Indonesia are shown in Tables 3-1 and 3-2.

Table 3-1 Average number of family member

Region/Province	1980	1990	1995
1.Sumatera	5.2	4.9	4.6
2.Java	4.6	4.3	4.1
- DKI Jakarta	5.6	4.7	4.5
- West Java	4.5	4.3	4.1
- Central Java	4.8	4.4	4.1
- DI Yogyakarta	4.6	4.0	3.6
- East Java	4.5	4.1	3.9
3.Kalimantan	5.1	4.7	4.5
4.Nusa Tenggara Bali,East Timor	5.0	4.8	4.5
5.Sulawesi	5.4	4.9	4.5
6.Maluku and Irian Jaya	5.7	5.1	4.7
Indonesia	4.9	4.5	4.3

Source: Bps, Statistik Indonesia 1995.

Table 3-2 Dependency ratio

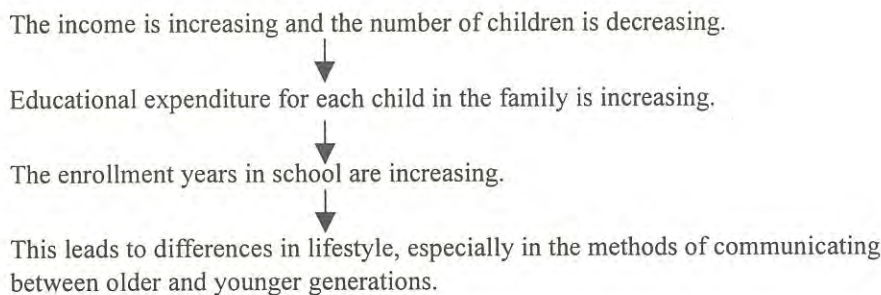
Region/Province	1980	1990	1995
1.Sumatera	88.4	78.0	67.6
2.Java	72.9	59.8	53.6
- DKI Jakarta	68.2	50.6	46.3
- West Java	82.7	69.9	61.8
- Central Java	76.5	66.6	59.4
- DI Yogyakarta	69.1	55.1	48.7
- East Java	67.9	56.8	51.8
3.Kalimantan	82.2	72.0	61.9
4.Nusa Tenggara Bali,East Timor	83.6	73.7	69.3
5.Sulawesi	89.6	73.1	65.8
6.Maluku and Irian Jaya	83.2	80.0	71.5
Indonesia	79.1	67.8	60.6

Source: Central Bureau of Statistics, Welfare Indicators 1995.

Note: Dependency ratio : population in the age-group 0-14 expressed as percentage of the population in the age-group 15-64.

The number of family members and the dependency ratio are getting smaller.

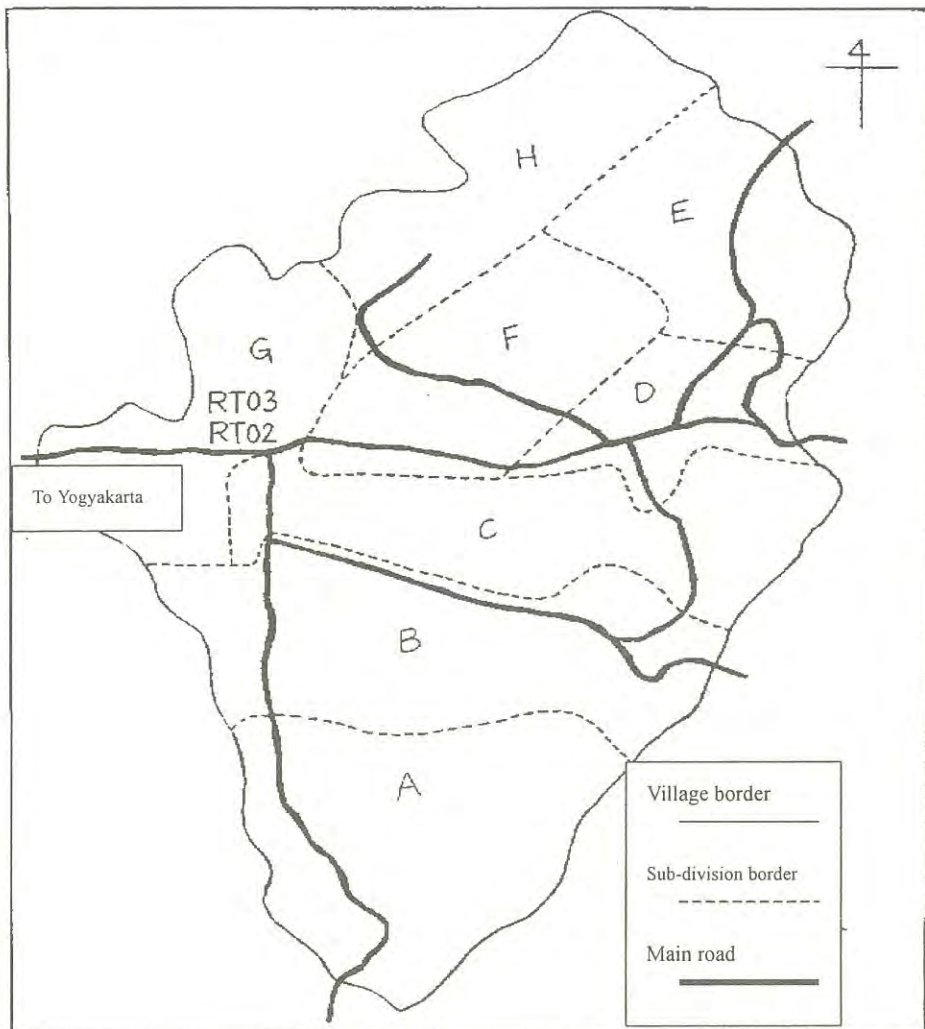
We hereby hypothesize as follows:



In this chapter, we try to explain the gap of general communication between different generations in terms of mass media and personal communication.

We selected DI Yogyakarta (Daera Istimewa Yogyakarta, Yogyakarta Special District) to clarify our hypothesis, first, because the above-mentioned tendency is very typical in DI Yogyakarta, and second, because there is a complex situation with regard to language in DI Yogyakarta, as explained in chapter 1. We also selected W village, DI Yogyakarta because this village is designated by the president as IDT (Inpres Desa Teritinggal), categorized as a “the least developed village”, and we wanted to test our hypothesis in even the lowest administrative level of an agricultural village.

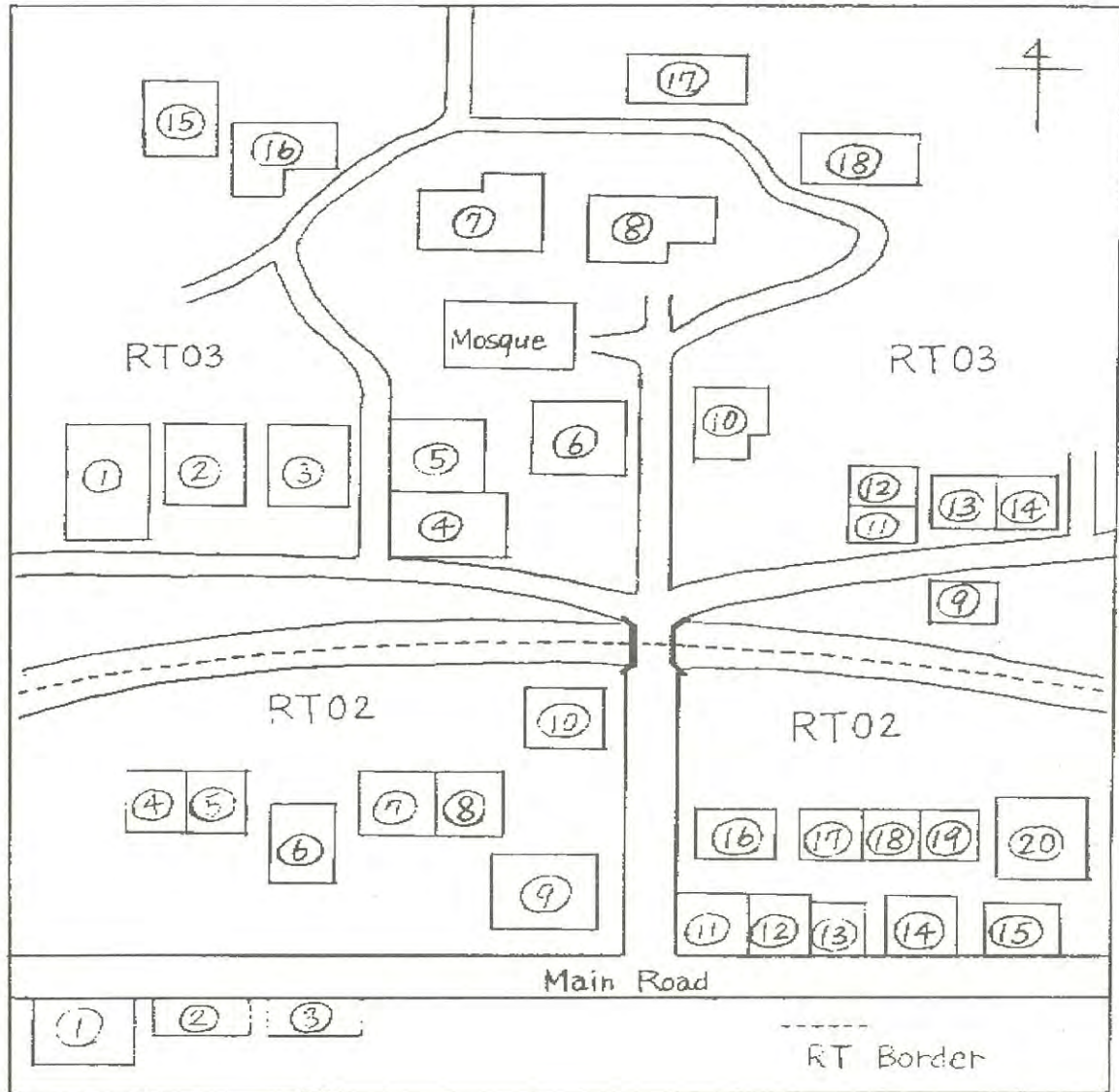
Map 1 W Village, Pleret, Bantul.



3-2 Outline of the village

The village where we home-stayed is located in the Pleret sub-district, Bantul prefecture, and southwest of Yogyakarta. We call this village “W village”.

Map 2 RT 02 and 03



The population of this village is 4,062 and there are 792 households. Most of the villagers are engaged in agriculture and their main products are rice during the rainy season and tobacco during the dry season. Corn is cultivated before the rainy season. Since most of the people cannot earn enough of their living from farming, they usually have side jobs or temporary jobs including raising livestock, transporting farm products, selling firewood, and construction work. There are several industries in W village, most of them small-scaled industries like the making of ring cakes and the production of furniture. People use individual wells and 5 pipelines to get drinking water. Many people commute by the only asphalted road from the village to work places or schools. The road condition is not good as there are many holes in the asphalt and it is narrow. This village got

electricity in 1988, and about 80% of the households now use it. They have no telephones. Most of the villagers speak both Indonesian and Javanese, but they usually speak Javanese in their households. Some older people and young children speak only Javanese. Almost all the villagers are Muslim, and Islam is a major part of their daily life.

W village consists of 8 sub-divisions. We chose sub-division G for our research because G is located in the west border of W village, and we speculated that G was where exchanges with the outside of W village were the most active among all the sub-divisions and there were several important village organizations like the village office, one of 5 primary schools, mosque and grocery stores. G consists of 5 RT (RT means neighborhood association), of which we researched RT02 and RT03. RT02 and RT03 have 38 households. RT02 is on the north side of the main street. RT03 is next to it and to the north of RT02, located on the slope of the hill.

3-3 Research method and content of the questionnaire

We interviewed 56 villagers of RT02 and RT03 directly using our questionnaires in Indonesian or Javanese with the help of interpreters. This included the 38 heads of all the households and his /her spouse (we call them “older generation” here) and 18 young people who are not married (we call them “younger generation”). The details of our questionnaire are as follows:

- I . Personal details
 - family composition, sex, age, occupation, address, educational information
 - religion
 - language
- II . Lifestyle and means of obtaining information
 - questions regarding specific domestic and foreign news
 - meetings
 - TV, radio, newspapers, magazines
 - daily routine
- III . Previous contact with Japanese
 - Japanese TV programs, Japanese comics
- IV . Education
 - educational opinion research

3-4 Analysis

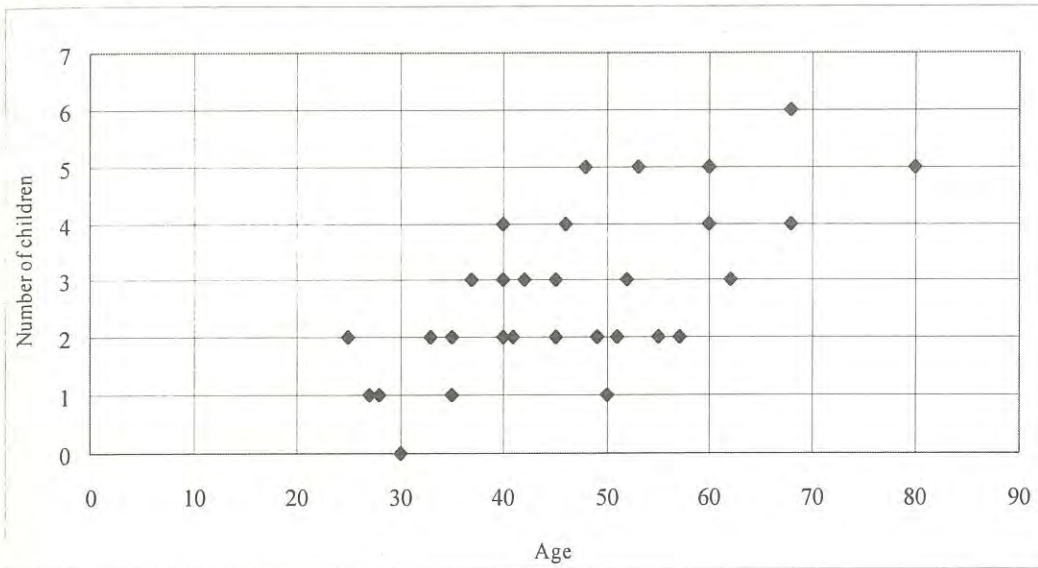
3-4-1 Number of the children

Recently, the number of children is decreasing in Indonesia. Here is an example of W village. Figure 2-1 may show that the younger the adult, the fewer children he or she tends to have. We assume that this phenomenon means that PKK (Pembinaan Kesejahteraan Keluarga: family welfare movement) is penetrating rural areas very well.

As part of KB (Keluarga Berencana: family planning) PKK started in 1967. PKK is characterized as a movement in which women, particularly married women, are called upon to participate more actively in the development process by modernizing their homes and the lives of their families. The main activity of PKK is the creation of women’s group in every village or neighborhood, where they hold regular meetings, primarily a social gathering. In the meetings, important topics including health problems, children’s education, and household management are discussed for the purpose of improving the welfare of the family and promoting the development of the village. Topics like cooking, sewing, gardening and activities concerning preparations for

village or neighborhood festivals are also included.

Figure 3-1 Age and number of children (Target: 38 local people in W village)

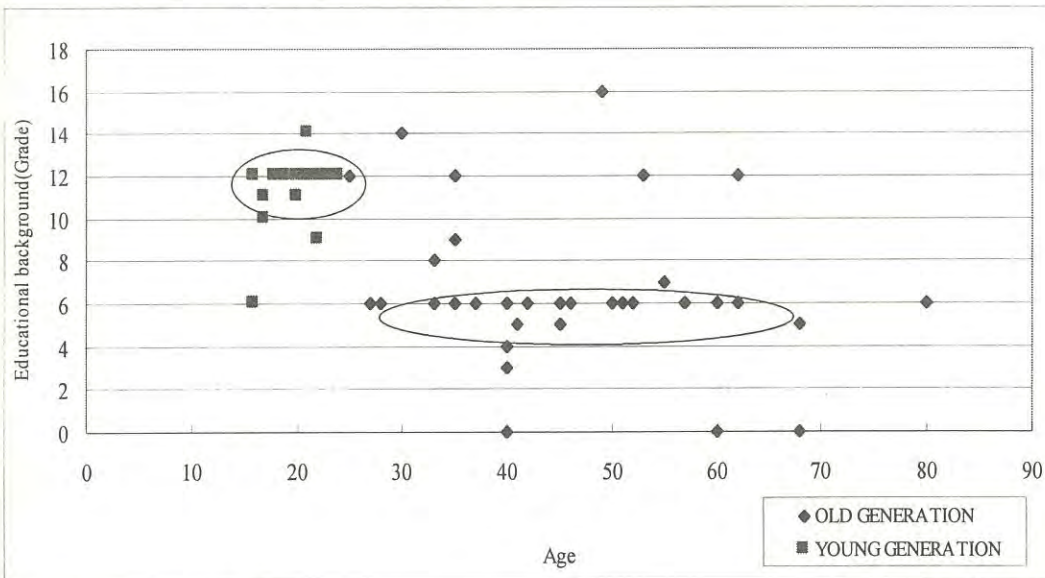


Source: Compiled from the questionnaire.

3-4-2 Age and educational background

There are five primary schools in W village. Three of them are public schools and two are private schools. Almost 100% of children go to primary schools in the village, but they go out of the village in order to go to secondary schools. We visited one of the public primary schools in W village. The village officer said that 90% of 6th grade students in this school went on to secondary school. All the children of RT02 and RT03 go to this school. We asked 56 villagers about their educational background or their present grade. Results are shown in Figure 3-2.

Figure 3-2 Age and educational background



Source: Compiled from the questionnaire.

Educational background of about 80% of the older generation is primary school, but that of about 90% of the younger generation is high school.

We asked 56 villagers the level of education they wanted for their children and what level of education the children wanted. The older generation answered that they wanted their children to go to college/university and the younger generation also answered that they wanted to go to college/university. Both older and younger generations believe that education will give their children or themselves a variety of practical and specialized knowledge of culture and training for better jobs, and that higher education is necessary for their future.

3-4-3 Information source

We asked both older and younger generations if they watched TV and listened to radio, and what types of programs they liked. The results of these questions are shown in Tables 3-5 and 3-6.

Table 3-3 The diffusion of TV and radio

	TV	Radio
Households which have	27	32
Households which don't have	11	6
Total	38	38
The diffusion	71%	84%

Source: Compiled from the questionnaire.

Table 3-4 Do you watch TV and/or listen to radio?

	TV				Radio			
	Old	(%)	Young	(%)	Old	(%)	Young	(%)
Respondents who watch or listen to	34	89%	18	100%	30	79%	17	94%
Respondents who don't watch or listen to	4	11%	0	0%	8	21%	1	6%
Total	38	100%	18	100%	38	100%	18	100%

Source: Compiled from the questionnaire.

Table 3-5 TV program

TV program	Old	(%)	Young	(%)
Respondents	34		18	
News	22	65%	13	72%
Movie	6	18%	12	67%
Sport	6	18%	1	6%
Classic	20	59%	1	6%
Drama	6	18%	3	17%
Music	2	6%	5	28%
Entertainment	1	3%	4	22%
Religion	0	0%	0	0%

Source: Compiled from the questionnaire.

Table 3-6 Radio program

Radio program	Old	(%)	Young	(%)
Respondents	30		17	
News	11	37%	4	24%
Movie	1	3%	0	0%
Sport	2	7%	0	0%
Classic	9	30%	1	6%
Drama	0	0%	0	0%
Music	9	30%	17	100%
Entertainment	1	3%	2	12%
Religion	3	10%	0	0%

Source: Compiled from the questionnaire.

The number of older generation respondents in Table 3-4 is 34, though some households do not have TVs, as they watch TV at relative's and friend's houses. Two TV programs indicate that more than 50% of both older and younger generations watch. Both older and younger generations often watch news, but 59% of the older generation watches classic TV programs while 67% of the younger generation watch movies. There is a large difference in radio listening. Approximately one third of the older generation listen to news, classic and musical radio programs. All the younger generation listen to music.

The difference between the older and younger generations about reading newspapers is obvious as shown in Table 3-7. One hundred percent of the younger generation read newspapers, but only 42% of the older generation read newspapers. The younger generation does not read newspapers every day. Most answered that they read newspapers from time to time and are usually circulated among friends (see Table 3-8). We speculate that they are often in contact with each other. "Kedaulatan Rakyat" is very popular among them.

The younger generation also reads magazines more often than the older generation. "Nova" and "Kartini" are popular among them.

Table 3-7 Newspaper

Newspaper	Old	(%)	Young	(%)
Respondents who read	16	42%	18	100%
Respondents who don't read	22	58%	0	0%
Total	38	100%	18	100%

Source: Compiled from the questionnaire.

Table 3-8 Way of obtaining

Way of obtaining	Old	(%)	Young	(%)
Regular subscription	2	13%	1	6%
Buy at store	0	0%	2	11%
Read at work place	4	25%	0	0%
Circulation(borrow)	9	56%	14	78%
Other means	1	6%	1	6%
Total	16	100%	18	100%

Source: Compiled from the questionnaire.

Table 3-9 Magazine

Magazine	Old	(%)	Young	(%)
Respondents who read	6	16%	14	78%
Respondents who don't read	32	84%	4	22%
Total	38	100%	18	100%

Source: Compiled from the questionnaire.

We asked both the older and the younger generations if they were aware of domestic news e.g. the accident of the Sempati aircraft or foreign news, the coup d'état in Cambodia. The result of Table 3-10 is that the primary information sources from which they obtained these two pieces of news were TV and newspapers. There is a difference between the older and the younger generation.

Table 3-10 Domestic and foreign news

Domestic news	Old	(%)	Young	(%)
Respondents who know	16	42%	16	89%
Respondents who don't know	22	58%	2	11%
Total	38	100%	18	100%
Foreign news				
Respondents who know	11	29%	10	56%
Respondents who don't know	27	71%	8	44%
Total	38	100%	18	100%

Source: Compiled from the questionnaire.

We have given careful consideration to questions of a generation gap between older and younger generations in terms of acquiring information through mass media.

The older generation has fewer chances than the younger generation in terms of getting information through the mass media such as TV, radio, newspaper and magazine which is directed by the government toward the improvement of the socialization of Pancasila and the 1945 Constitution in all aspects of the people's life.

3-4-4 Daily routine of local people

We would like to introduce four examples from 56 respondents showing a typical daily routine.

They pray 5 times a day and this means that Islam is a major part of their daily life. The younger generation more often has the chance to watch TV and listen to radio, compared to the older generation. Recreation in Example I and II means that the younger generation spends their spare time with their friends.

Example I : 20 year-old woman / house keeping

	4	6	8	10	12	14	16	18	20	22
Meals				○	○				○	
TV / Radio			●●●● (TV)						●●●●	
Tasks		○	○		○			○	○	○
Pray		○			○	○		○		○
Recreation					○		○	○		

Source: Compiled from the questionnaire.

Example II : 17 year-old boy / high school student

	4	6	8	10	12	14	16	18	20	22
Meals		○				○				○
TV / Radio		●					●		●●●●	
Tasks			○	→		○				
Pray		○				○		○	○	○
Recreation								○	○	

Source: Compiled from the questionnaire.

Example III : 52 year-old man / farming labor

	4	6	8	10	12	14	16	18	20	22
Meals		○	—————▶		○				○	
TV / Radio	※ He does not watch TV at all.									
Tasks			○		○		○	○	○	○
Pray		○				○	○		○	○
Recreation						○				

Source: Compiled from the questionnaire.

Example IV : 45 year-old woman / farmer

	4	6	8	10	12	14	16	18	20	22
Meals		○			○				○	
TV / Radio		△ (Radio)					●			●
Tasks	○	○	○	—————▶	○		○	—————▶	○	○
Pray	○				○	○		○	○	
Recreation										

Source: Compiled from the questionnaire.

3-4-5 Personal communication and meeting

Local community meetings in Indonesia play an important role in the process of national development. Local people regularly participate in many kinds of meetings, where they can exchange their information and opinions about news, technological knowledge, government policies and anything else pertaining to daily life. In W village, we asked 18 younger and 38 older respondents how many and what type of meetings they usually attended. We discovered that there were more than 40 types of meetings. In general, meetings observed in Indonesia can be classified into 4 categories:

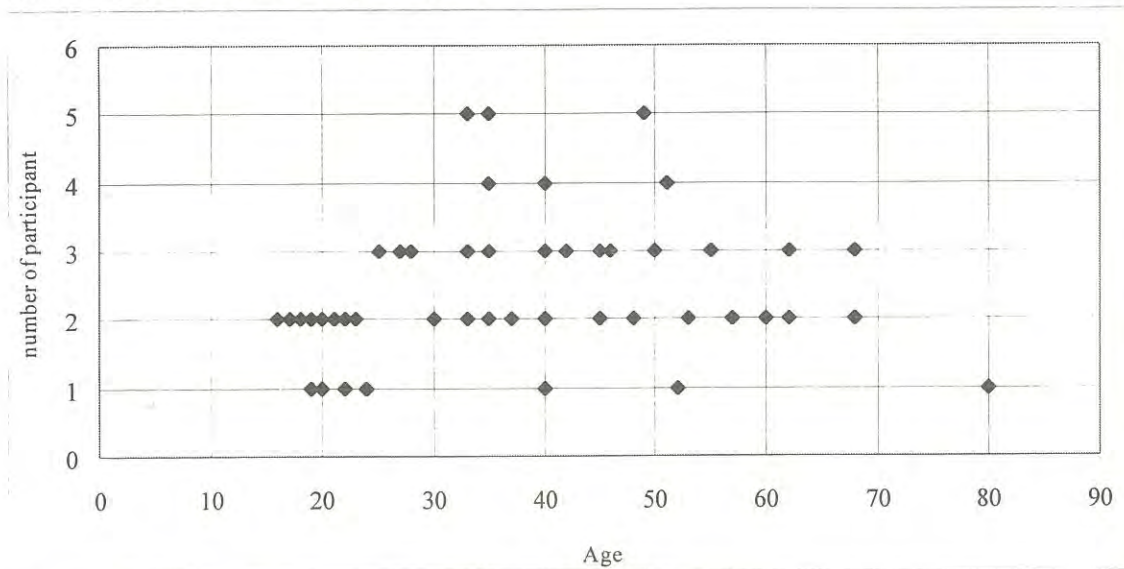
- 1: community activity (Ex. Youth meeting, RT meeting)
 - 2: religious activity (Ex. Pengajian)
 - 3: activity to spread the government policy (Ex. Dasa wisma)
 - 4: agricultural activity (Ex. Kelompok tani)
- (note) Pengajian : one of the religious meetings. The main activity is to read the Koran and to discuss religious affairs.

Dasa wisma : RT meeting for women with 10 programs. It is like PKK but the parent organization is based on RT. Therefore the scale of Dasa wisma is generally smaller than that of PKK.

Kelompok tani : the farmers' organization to promote farming activity, e.g., to introduce new farming technologies and to discuss problems of farming.

Figure 3-3 and Table 3-11 shows the results of this research.

Figure 3-3 Age and number of participants



Source: Compiled from the questionnaire.

Table 3-11 Meeting and number of participants(unit:man)

No.	Meeting name	Older participants	Younger participants	Total
1	Youth meeting (Perkumpulan muda-mudi)	5	11	16
2	RT meeting	10	0	10
3	Pengajian	14	9	23
4	Dasa wisma	25	0	25
5	Kelompok tani	5	0	5

Source: Compiled from the questionnaire.

The older generation take part in many kinds of meetings more often than the younger, where they discuss social, religious, educational and cultural matters. This means that meetings are one of the most important means of communication, substituting for mass media.

On the other hand, most of the younger people participate less often in their meetings such as Youth meetings and Pengajian. But they usually have extra time because many are students or unemployed. They take advantage of their time for watching TV, listening to radio, reading newspapers and writing letters instead of attending formal meetings to get information. Moreover, in order to communicate among the younger generation, they frequently come together, for example at night, and that may be considered as a type of informal meeting. Thus, it can be supposed that each generation has a different style of communicating.

3-5 Findings from the research in W village

- The number of the children is decreasing and the educational background of the younger generation is increasing.
- A generation gap between older and younger generations has appeared in general communication in terms of the mass media and personal communication.

Mass media

The younger generation has more diverse information sources and has more contact with the mass media.

The younger generation has higher ability to assimilate information and is more interested in information.

Personal communication

The older generation takes part in many kinds of formal meetings and exchanges information with each other.

The younger generation does not take part in many kinds of formal meetings but they get together informally and exchange information with each other.

4. Japan and Japanese Language in Indonesia

4-1 Purpose of the research

Two people in the group are majoring in Japanese language teaching in DICOM (Department of International Communication) in GSID (Graduate School of International Development). Japanese Language Teaching is regarded as part of international communication training in our department. In this OFW (Overseas Field Work), both students researched impressions of Japan, the Japanese language and culture through learners of Japanese language in Indonesia, from the point of view of information they have received from abroad through the media.

The number of Japanese language learners in Indonesia is the fourth largest in the world, after China, Korea and Australia. Before going to Indonesia, we studied Japanese language teaching in Indonesia and discovered the following characteristics. There are many learners who are high school students because they can choose Japanese as the second foreign language at school. There are many people who need Japanese for jobs, because Indonesia and Japan are strongly connected economically. The tourism industry is prospering in Indonesia and Japanese is needed to deal with tourists from Japan. Japanese products and sub-culture, including TV dramas, cartoons, comics and pop-songs are widespread. From the reasons above, we predicted that learners belong to various generations and occupations.

We intended to clarify the basic questions of why Indonesians study Japanese and how Japanese culture is influencing Japanese learners. We administered questionnaires and interviewed learners in Jakarta and Yogyakarta and interviewed staff of Japanese governmental organizations such as Japan Foundation, AOTS (Association for Overseas Technical Scholarship) Alumni Society and JICA (Japan International Cooperation Agency). We also visited two private Japanese language schools in Jakarta, two high schools in Yogyakarta, and Gadjah Mada University.

4-2 Japanese language study

There are 37 universities and IKIP (Institut Keguruan dan Ilmu Pendidikan; Institute of Education and Pedagogy) that have Japanese language courses in Indonesia. People who graduate from these universities become teachers of high school Japanese language study.

Pajajaran University, which has the oldest department of Japanese, established the department in 1962. Later, in 1966, Indonesia University established the Department of Japanese Study. Both have been in the forefront in Japanese language study in Indonesia.

It is particularly revealing that most high school students choose Japanese as one of the second foreign

languages (Japanese; 60,000 students, French; 25,000 students, German; 35,000 students, Arabic; 5,000). However it is left to the principal of each high school to include a Japanese course. Therefore, not all schools have Japanese courses, especially in Yogyakarta, because it has not been so long since the Japanese language has been offered, and there were no public high schools in this district that offer Japanese as a second foreign language.

High school students' requirements are divided into three majors: science and mathematics, social science, and language. Only students of the language program can choose Japanese when they are in third year of high school.

In 1994, the curriculum of high schools changed, and students can now start learning Japanese when they are in the third year, as opposed to the former system where they could learn Japanese from the second year. This curriculum was implemented in 1996 though the syllabus and textbooks suited for the new curriculum have not been prepared.

Table 4-1 The number of schools, teachers and learners

	Organization	Teachers	Learners
University	37	280	7,000
High school	350	400	60,000
Private Japanese Language school	90	330	6,000
Total	477	1,010	73,000

Source: Ministry of Education and Culture.

4-3 Japanese organisations for Japanese language

4-3-1 The Japan foundation

The Japan Foundation was established in October 1972 as a special legal entity under the auspices of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs to serve as Japan's first international cultural-exchange organization. The Japan Foundation regulations specify the aims of this organization as follows.

"The purposes of the Kokusai Kooryuu Kikin, The Japan Foundation, are to efficiently implement activities for international cultural exchange and thereby to contribute to the enhancement of world culture and the welfare of mankind, with a view to deepening other nation's understanding of Japan, promoting better mutual understanding among nations, and encouraging friendship and goodwill among the peoples of the world." (Japan Foundation Regulations, Article 1)

There are 18 offices abroad, and there is a Japanese culture and language center in Jakarta. Jakarta Japanese culture center and Japanese language center started in 1972 and 1991 respectively. The Japanese culture center introduces Japanese culture to Indonesia and also supports Indonesian traditional cultures. The Japanese TV drama "Osin", which is very famous among Indonesian people, was introduced to Indonesia by the Japan Foundation. The activity of the Japanese language center is to support the study of Japanese in Indonesia in a comprehensive way. Its activities include sending of Japanese teachers, managing Japanese language courses, training of teachers in language-teaching methodology, developing Japanese Language Proficiency Tests, and conducting Japanese speech contests. Under the principals of local institutions, they are consulted through requests from Ministry of Education and Culture.

There are four levels (intermediate and advanced) and eight classes in their Japanese language course. The tuition is far cheaper than other schools. Therefore, the number of people who take the entrance examination are two and half times as many as are permitted to enter the classes. After graduating from the intermediate class, most students have fluency of level 3 of the Japanese Language Proficiency Test. If they graduate from advanced classes, they may try the level 2 test. This is almost the same ability as graduating from the Department of Japanese language of Gadjah Mada University.

Viewed by districts, the number of candidates for the Japanese Language Proficiency Test is much larger in Bandung and Jakarta, where Japanese language study is more common than in other cities.

The number of candidates has consistently increased, but it has not show much increase in the last several years. The staff of the Japan Foundation said this was the result of the high application fee. There is a large gap between levels 2 and 3. They are therefore considering a level 2.5.

At present, the Japan Foundation is assigning four youth Japanese teachers to high schools in Bandung, Manado, Bali and Jakarta. They are also assigning professional Japanese teachers to IKIP (Institut Keguruan dan Ilmn Pendidikan; Institute of Education and Pedagogy) in Bandung, Pajajaran University, IKIP Surabaya, North Sumatera University, Indonesia University and Gadjah Mada University.

4-3-2 AOTS (Association for Overseas Technical Scholarship) alumni society

AOTS was established in 1959 as an affiliated organization under the Ministry of Industry of Japan. They accepted industrial technical trainees from foreign countries and trained them in Japan. These trainees organized the AOTS Alumni Society after returning to their own countries. This AOTS Alumni Society is what sustains the Japanese language course.

AOTS has only lower basic and upper basic levels. Both Japanese and Indonesian teachers were teaching Japanese in this school. One of those Japanese teachers was a man with experience teaching Japanese in Indonesia several years ago as a member of the Japan Overseas Cooperation Volunteers. All of the Indonesian teachers had graduated from the department of Japanese language of universities or junior colleges. AOTS has their own training programs for Japanese language teachers. The textbook use is “Shin · Nihongo no Kiso” that was written with the aim of especially developing especially the speaking abilities of learners. Teachers also use other materials chosen to meet the needs of students. We had the impression that learners in this school can speak Japanese better than the students belonging to the same-level classes of other schools. We believe the comparatively intensive schedule of the course in this school is effective.

The tuition (Rp.300,000 for 66 hours) is high compared to those of other schools. We found office workers who were learning Japanese through the financial support of their companies.

4-3-3 JICA (Japan International Cooperation Agency); Japan Overseas Cooperation

Volunteers

We were fortunate to be able to interview a coordinator in charge of recruiting Japanese language teachers of Japan Overseas Cooperation Volunteers. She was also sent to Indonesia as a Japanese teacher from JICA before becoming a coordinator.

At present, JICA assigns Japanese teachers mainly to tourism vocational schools. Formerly, they sent teachers to universities, but now they also send teachers to the Japan Foundation, because from the viewpoint of ODA, it is natural for JICA to contribute not only to universities but also to the tourism industry. The Indonesian government is promoting tourism because the natural resources from which they have been acquiring foreign currency will run short within the next ten years. We talked to a tourism course student in

Gadjah Mada University. He had decided to enter the course because that industry is expected to play a vital role for Indonesia in the next generation. The coordinator said that in such developing countries as Indonesia studying foreign languages is not for knowledge, but for survival.

Teacher training is the main job of the Japan Overseas Cooperation Volunteers. The teachers sent by JICA instruct Indonesian teachers in methodology and construction of examinations. However it is difficult to instruct them because of their nationality and the present situation of the educational system in Indonesia. In Indonesia, teachers' and professors' salaries are very low. They don't have enough time to study new teaching methods, because most of them are doing part time jobs to make ends meet.

4-4 Japan and Japanese language in Indonesia

- A survey of Japanese language students in Jakarta and Yogyakarta

4-4-1 The Purpose and Method

We researched attitudes toward Japan and its language through interviews and a questionnaire for Japanese language learners.

4-4-2 Questionnaire

The Purpose

In this research, our aim was to clarify the image of Japan and Japanese language among learners, and to discover how information about Japan is expressed in Indonesian society. At the same time, we studied how these images connected with learner's motivation to study Japanese.

The Method

We distributed the questionnaire to Japanese language learners, in cooperation with several educational institutions teaching Japanese in Jakarta and Yogyakarta. Respondents filled them in by themselves, choosing answers scaled 1 to 5 depending on their level of agreement with each statement.

The contents of the questionnaire

The questionnaire has several sections: image of Japanese language, motivation to study Japanese, impression of family, friends and associates regarding their studying Japanese. For each section, some choices are prepared.

4-4-3 Interview

We chose a number of respondents and conducted face-to-face interviews.

The Purpose

We interviewed learners to ask them more details on similar topics as the questionnaire. This interview included questions about the learner's personal experiences.

The method

We asked them on several topics: their contacts with Japanese media, TV programs, comic books, foods, feelings toward Japan and their memory about the Japanese occupation period. Then we tried to determine how these facts are related with Japanese language learning.

4-5 Methods and results

4-5-1 The details of respondents

About 160 learners answered the questionnaire. They have various occupations: 39 high school students, 73

college students, 21 people who have jobs. Their ages are from early teens to 50s, and 80% of them are under 30 years old. The newest learners have just finished 2 weeks, and the longest-term learners have already studied Japanese for 5 years. We conducted this research at the following institutes: 2 private language schools in Jakarta, 2 private language schools, 1 language department in university, 1 private high school in Yogyakarta.

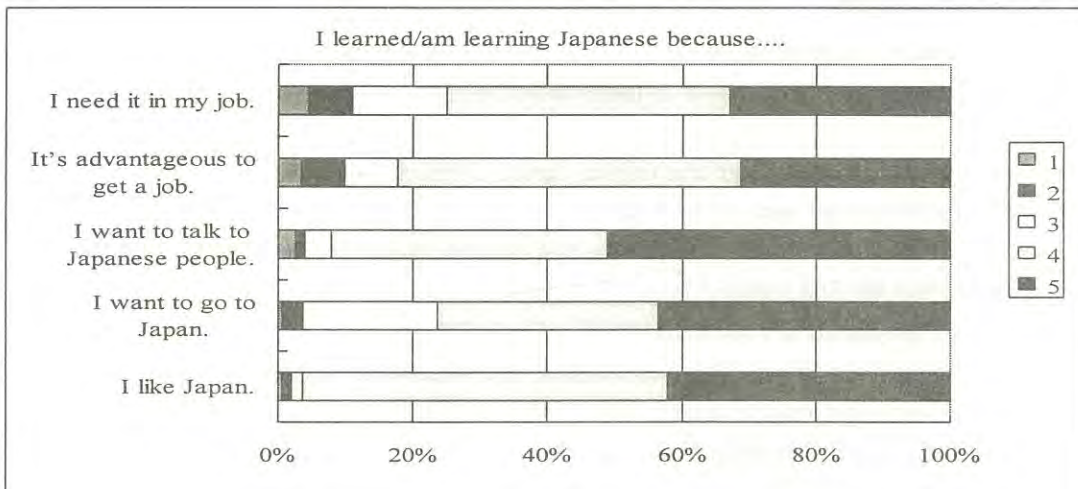
4-5-2 The learner’s motivation to start Japanese language learning

In the questionnaire and interview, we asked respondents why they wanted to study Japanese. In Indonesia, most of the learners study Japanese at private language schools or in higher education since it is not common to study Japanese in school. Most of them study of their own free will. In such cases, it is important to analyze their motivation when we consider the situation of Japanese language teaching .

Putting together the results of the questionnaire and interview, we discovered that the motivation was divided into two types. One is their interest in Japan. In the questionnaire, some statements showed their attraction to Japan was high. It seems that this is caused by their closeness to Japan since Japanese products and media fills people’s daily life in Indonesia.

Another type of motivation is the advantages of knowing Japanese. Many learners think that they can get a good job or important position if they can speak Japanese. Some of them actually need Japanese in their job. This means that Japanese is regarded as a social tool. See Figure 4-1 below.

Figure 4-1 Why do you learn Japanese?

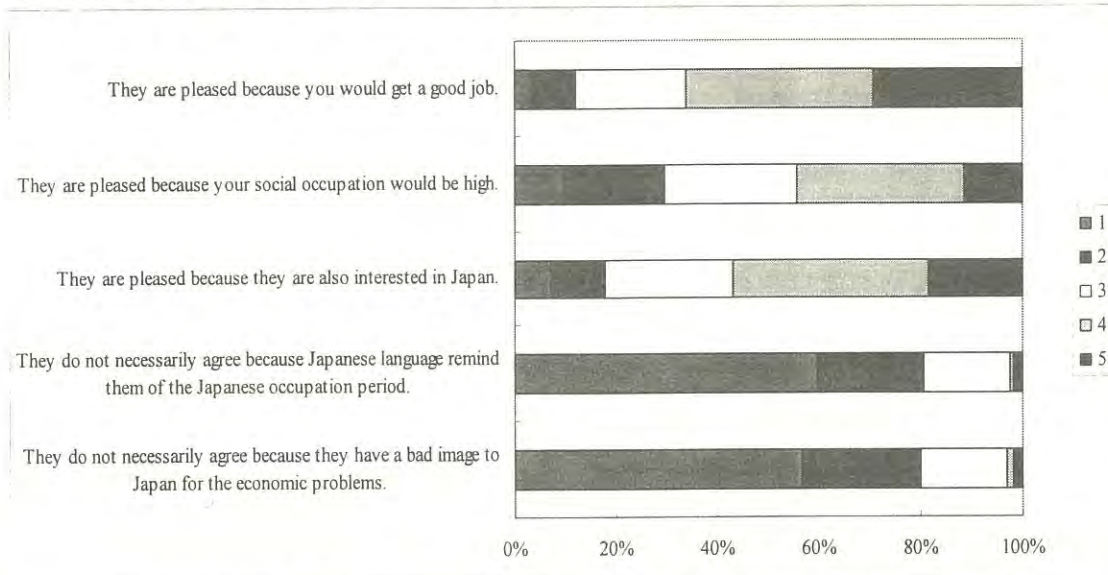


Note: 1- Strongly disagree 2- Disagree 3- Neutral 4- Agree 5- Strongly agree
 Source: Compiled from the questionnaire.

4-5-3 The sentiment toward Japan

We asked learners some questions about the sentiment toward Japan. Japan and Indonesia have a close relationship, especially in the field of business and trade. Many people in Indonesia have great interest in Japan, and generally, most of the feelings are agreeable. However, Japan occupied Indonesia for 4 years during World War II. Most of the learners answered that they had heard from their parents or relatives of bitter experiences during the occupation period. So people have an ambivalent feeling toward Japan. In the questionnaire, we asked the respondents about the feelings of those around them against studying Japanese. The results indicated that the feeling towards learning Japanese language was agreeable for people who do not study it themselves. See Figure 4-2 below.

Figure 4-2 What are your elders thinking about that you are studying Japanese?



Note: 1- Strongly disagree 2- Disagree 3- Neutral 4- Agree 5- Strongly agree
 Source: Compiled from the questionnaire.

4-5-4 Regional differences

This time, we conducted research in 2 places, Jakarta and Yogyakarta. We found that the environment of Japanese language teaching is quite different in these two cities. The differences reflect the characters of society in the two cities.

As mentioned above, Japanese language teaching has spread differently depending on the area in Indonesia. Jakarta is located in the West Java area, where Japanese language teaching began and is most widespread. In Jakarta there are many educational institutes besides the first Japanese language school, established in 1960s. In contrast, it was in 1989 that the first Japanese language institute was founded in Yogyakarta. Actually, Japanese language teaching has just started in Yogyakarta.

Likewise, the economical conditions of both cities make their situation different. Japanese companies have extended their business very vigorously in Jakarta. We saw billboards and Japanese products all around the city, and it is not rare to see Japanese businessmen in the business district. It appears an attractive incentive for Indonesian people to get a job with a Japanese company since the working conditions are good. We met several learners working in Japanese companies. According to them, there is usually no need to speak Japanese to get jobs with Japanese companies. However, they ended up studying Japanese because they began to experience some difficulty or uneasiness that were caused by a lack of Japanese ability. In such cases, some companies pay their school expenses. In Jakarta, there are many learners like them. They usually have a clear aim, and they don't have much time to achieve their purpose.

In contrast, there are very few Japanese companies in Yogyakarta. Only the tourist trade needs people who have Japanese speaking ability. We felt these differences have affected the learner's desire to study Japanese.

4-5-5 The Penetration of the Japanese Subculture Media in Indonesia

In Indonesia, there are many types of Japanese subculture media. For example, various kinds of Japanese comic books have been translated into Indonesian. Japanese foods, too, have become popular these days, and several names of the foods such as "Sukiyaki" or "Tempura" are well-known to Indonesian people. Also,

numerous Japanese TV cartoons and soap operas have been broadcasted for approximately 10 years. They are quite popular, especially for young people, including high school and college students. In most cases, people recognize the comics and programs as being made in Japan. When we asked the learners about their knowledge of Japanese TV programs, many learners listed 5 or more titles quite easily. The influence of Japanese TV programs seemed most influential, and we had the impression that the image of Japan has been reaching the daily life of Indonesian people.

Though it is still not clear that this cultural influence directly affects Japanese language learning, there is no doubt that Indonesian people have come to feel closer to Japan.

4-6 Findings from the research

From our research, we found the significant penetration of information about Japan. This tendency is especially strong among the young generation. They feel familiar and friendly toward Japan, through close economic relationship, Japanese media, and Japanese language learning.

Learning a foreign language has an aspect of understanding a country's culture, and making the learner sympathetic toward a country. In this point of view, the development of Japanese language learning in Indonesia seems to play an important role in cross-cultural communication between Japan and Indonesia. Actually, most of the learners are eager to know about Japan, or to gain contact with Japanese culture.

However, the influence of the Japanese economy also seemed to be powerful for the motivation of the learners. Tourism is one of the biggest industry in Indonesia, and a considerable part of learners study Japanese to get jobs in tourism. Most of the adult learners study Japanese for their job. When we consider Japanese language learning in Indonesia, we should not overlook the aspect of Japanese language as a social tool. The remaining question about cross-cultural communication between Japan and Indonesia seems to be whether or not the dominant image of Japan as an economic country changes.

5. Conclusion

- To integrate the variety of ethnic groups in Indonesia that have different languages and culture, Indonesian (formerly called Melaju Language) was chosen as the National language in 1945, and since then it has played an important role for the development in Indonesia.

- As part of the national development policy, *Kelompok* and KMD is being promoted and in particular KMD is closely related to integrating the multiethnic and multilingual country. On the other hand, especially in the field of TV media, private TV stations were established and TV media is being diversified. This tendency is caused by a market-oriented viewpoint and seems adverse to the national policy.

In W village we could hardly observe the influence of *Kelompok* and KMD.

- Because of the economic and social development a generation gap between older and younger generations has appeared in general communication. Specifically the diversity of the younger generation's information sources has made progress, compared with the older generation and the younger generation has more opportunity and time than the older generation to gain outside information.

- We found significant penetration of information about Japan. This tendency is dominant especially among the younger generation. However, the influence of the Japanese economy on the motivation of language learners also seemed to be quite powerful. Most of the adult learners study Japanese for their jobs. This situation may

show the market-oriented aspect of Japanese language learners.

The remaining question in cross-cultural communication between Japan and Indonesia seems to be whether or not the dominant image of Japan as an economic country changes.

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Working Group 2

Education and Development

1. OBJECTIVES

1. To identify the current state of the education system in the country.
2. To identify the current state of the education system in the country.
3. To identify the current state of the education system in the country.
4. To identify the current state of the education system in the country.
5. To identify the current state of the education system in the country.
6. To identify the current state of the education system in the country.
7. To identify the current state of the education system in the country.

Working Group 2

2. ANALYSIS

1. To identify the current state of the education system in the country.
2. To identify the current state of the education system in the country.
3. To identify the current state of the education system in the country.
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9. To identify the current state of the education system in the country.
10. To identify the current state of the education system in the country.

3. CONCLUSIONS

Working Group 2

4. REFERENCES

1. Working Group 2
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Working Group 2

Education and Development

I	INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.	Overview.....	1
2.	The Education System in Indonesia.....	1
3.	Issues and Purpose of Research.....	2
4.	Method of Research.....	3
5.	General Information of Education in DIY.....	4
6.	General Information of Desa Wonolelo.....	5
7.	Outline of 4 Primary Schools in Desa Wonolelo.....	5
II	ANALYSIS.....	11
1-1	Parent and Community Support.....	11
1-2	Effective Support from the Education System.....	15
1-3	Frequent and Appropriate Teacher Development Activities.....	18
1-4	Sufficient Textbooks, Other Teaching Materials and Adequate Facilities.....	20
2-1	Enabling Conditions & School Climate.....	23
3-1	Participation.....	29
3-2	Academic Achievement.....	32
4	Contextual Factors.....	34
III	CONCLUSION.....	35

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Working Group 2

Education and Development

I INTRODUCTION

Working Group 2 focused its research on the education sector. The research consisted of two parts. The first part was undertaken in Jakarta, the capital city of Indonesia, mainly to get general information and find out the key issues of the Indonesian education sector. The second part mainly took place in a village called Desa Wonolelo¹, Yogyakarta Special Region Province (Propinsi Daerah Istimewa Yogyakarta; DIY), Java, Indonesia, to find out the current situation and problems of Indonesian education in a rural area, which was the main purpose of this field research.

This report evaluates the effectiveness of school education in one rural area of Indonesia, based on the investigations of both parts of the field research.

1. Overview

Indonesia's economy has experienced relatively rapid growth. In 1993 Indonesia's per capita GNP was approximately US\$740 and GDP was US\$940. This economic development has been guided by the 25-year Development Plan, PJP II (1994/95 to 2018/19), and by the sixth Five-Year Medium Term Development Plan, REPLITAVI (1994/95 to 1998/99). Both heavily emphasize human resource development (HRD) as the most decisive factor of development, particularly important as the PJP II period is identified as the 'take-off' period of industrialization. HRD is both a pre-condition of, and a factor sustaining and underlying, economic development. The education sector creates human resources that complement physical resources, equipping the population with necessary skills and training.

Since independence in 1945, the educational attainment of the Indonesian people has improved remarkably. Illiteracy has fallen to 17% in 1993 from 49% in 1970, and the average length of schooling has risen to over 10 years. The net enrollment ratio at primary level rose to 94% in 1994 from 63% in 1970. The junior secondary school enrollment ratio rose to 43% in 1994 from 15% in 1970. Primary schooling is virtually universal. Junior secondary schooling was made compulsory in 1994 and is anticipated to be universal by 2005. Further, the expansion of senior secondary schooling and higher education is sustainable and systematic.

Indonesia has a relatively high but rapidly falling population growth rate (1.6%), so her large population is expected to reach 210 million by the year 2000. At that time, almost 40% of the population will be less than 18 years old. Indonesia is geographically dispersed, and has a multiplicity of distinctly different cultural groups, speaking over 400 languages and dialects. A national language, Bahasa Indonesia, has been established, and is spoken by virtually all citizens, but learnt by most as a second language in school. As seen from all the above points, Indonesia's educational challenge has been daunting.

2. The Education System in Indonesia

Based on the National Education Law No.2 of 1989, the national education system consists of two main subsectors – in-school and out-of-school education. School education covers basic education (7-15 years),

secondary education (16-18 years), and higher education. Pre-school education is not officially included as part of the school system. School education is organized in schools through teaching and learning activities that are gradual, hierarchical, and continuous. Out-of-school education is organized outside formal schooling through teaching and learning activities that may or may not be hierarchical and continuous.

Indonesia has a 6-3-3-4 (primary, junior secondary, senior secondary, higher) education system. In 1984, 6-year primary education was made compulsory, and was regarded as basic education. Basic education was extended to nine years from 1994 to include junior secondary education. There is an out-of-school education program officially recognized as equivalent to in-school basic education. Secondary education consists of general, vocational, service, and special secondary schools, while higher education consists of academic and professional education. Religious (mostly Islamic) schools are found at all levels, and since 1975 have been alternatives to general academic schools. The core academic curriculum is identical even at religious schools, but they offer additional religious instruction.

Administrative jurisdiction is complicated. The central Ministry of Home Affairs (MOHA) through each provincial government administers primary schools. The Ministry of Education and Culture (MOEC) is generally in charge of general education, and technical and vocational education, whereas the Ministry of Religious Affairs (MORA) is in charge of Islamic schools at all levels. At both the primary and secondary school level, however, curriculum and examination policies are overseen by MOEC. Higher education is administered by MOEC, but MORA oversees the Islamic University. The fragmentation of administration is an impediment to educational reform.

Out-of-school education, which is referred to as non-formal education, is administered by the MOEC and includes basic literacy, primary and junior secondary school equivalency courses, income generating, and apprenticeship courses. The non-formal education system is recognized as having been very successful in helping to significantly reduce illiteracy.

3. Issues and Purpose of Research

MOEC has identified three principal goals in improving education in Indonesia:

1. Universalization of basic education,
2. Improvement of teacher quality through all levels, and
3. Improvement of both the enrollments, including reducing dropouts and repeaters, and the quality of education throughout all levels.

In recent years, secondary education has been the main focus of attention in Indonesia, as the country tries to extend compulsory education from 6 to 9 years. Nevertheless, we decided to concentrate our research only on primary schools, for there are no junior secondary schools and only 1 kindergarten and 5 primary schools in Desa Wonolelo. We also assumed that improvement of the quality of primary education, especially in rural areas, is still very important to fulfill Indonesia's educational goals. Our research was based on measuring the effectiveness of primary schools in the rural area, so as to find out the main points for improvement.

¹ 'Desa' means *village* in Indonesian national language (Bahasa Indonesia).

Box 1 Madrasah and Pusanren (Islamic education in Indonesia)

Since Islam arrived in Indonesia in the 13th century, it has played a very important role not only in the religious field but also in politics and education as well. Traditionally, Muslims in Indonesia have conducted education in religious schools called Pusanren, which are widespread in Indonesia. Graduates become informal religious leaders or religious specialists in local areas, such as officers in mosques.

Madrasah is an Arabic word which means “school”. In the beginning of the 20th century, some religious leaders suggested including a “modern” European education curriculum in Islamic education. To follow through on the suggestion, Madrasah were established as new style religious schools.

Madrasah and Pusanren provided alternative education before Independence. There was also a European education system of the Dutch colonial government, which trained colonial officers. Gradually, Madrasah and Pusanren generated the growth of nationalism, which was essential for the Independence movement. Since Independence, these institutions of religious education have been forced to adjust their curriculum to the changes in Indonesian society, and gradually the curriculum has become similar to the general school curriculum. Recent changes of the labor market mean that Madrasah and Pusanren cannot ensure the graduates’ employment more than general schools. Under Suharto’s development strategy, this trend has grown. Islamic education in Indonesia has split into two different directions. One is to compromise with the labor market’s needs by adjusting curriculum as already mentioned and the other is to refine their tradition emphasizing their role to train religious leaders and experts. Even considering this factor, the role of Madrasah and Pusanren is still enormous in Indonesian society, not only to absorb school age children and raise the enrollment ratio, but also to enhance national cohesion.

Today, Islamic education system corresponds to the general education system at every stage of education from pre-school to tertiary level. Mainly, the Ministry of Religious Affairs supervises religious education while the Ministry of Education and Culture significantly controls the curriculum except for religious subjects.

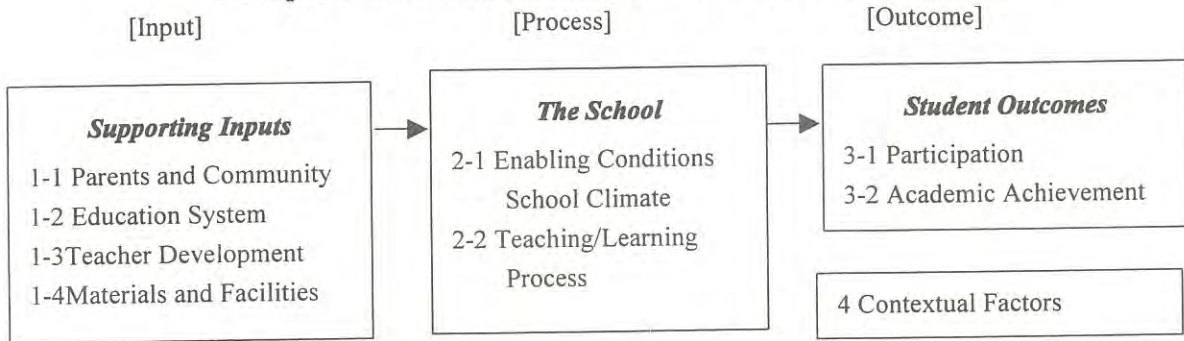
4. Method of Research

To judge school efficiency, we use a conceptual framework within which we examine the quality of education. This framework combines two traditional methods: Effective School research and School Improvement movements. Effective School research uses quantitative input-output analyses of data to identify significant system-wide variables. It also includes analysis of quantifiable school processes. On the other hand, School Improvement research relies on qualitative in-depth case study methods to understand process variables and to determine which inputs are more significant at the school level.

Based on both traditions, the framework identifies several key factors. The factors are divided into four categories: supporting inputs from outside the school, enabling conditions, school climate and the teaching/learning process inside the school. All of them interact with each other, influenced by the context surrounding the school, and this interaction determines a school’s quality.

As we had opportunity to visit the relevant ministries to collect statistical data from large- scale surveys and to research at the school level, we worked using this framework to compare the characteristics of effective schools in a rural area of Indonesia. During the research at the school level, we observed classes and meetings, interviewed headmasters, teachers and other residents, and collected available data.

Conceptual Framework: Factors that Determine School Effectiveness



5. General Information of Education in DIY

The DIY region comprises an area of 3,186 km, with a population of 3,154,265, with a population density of 990 people/km². Population growth over the last five years has been relatively low (0.86% annually). The population distribution is highly uneven: 60% of Indonesians live in Java Island, although Java comprises only 7% of the total Indonesian land area. Though the industrial sector has grown, the main sector of DIY is still agriculture.

Education is the premier sector of DIY. According to Education Statistics of Indonesia 1996, the educational situation of DIY is as follows:

	School Level (General+Islamic)	National	DIY
Number of Students	Primary School Level	29,453,920	354,643
	Junior Secondary School Level	7,745,565	157,346
	Senior Secondary School Level	4,457,208	127,251
	Higher Education Level	2,229,796	155,248
Participation Rates (NER) (%)	Primary School Level	93.56	92.13
	Junior Secondary School Level	40.82	56.77
	Senior Secondary School Level	27.52	46.31
	Higher Education Level	10.06	40.03

Source: MOEC, Indonesia: Education Statistics in Brief 1995/96.

One important educational feature of DIY is that the number of university/college students is greater than the number of senior secondary school students and almost the same as junior secondary school students. There are 7 national and 56 private universities and colleges in DIY. The majority are located in the City of Yogyakarta and Subdistrict (Kecamatan) Depok at the northern edge of the city, where the University of Gadjah Mada, the second highest ranking university in Indonesia, can be found. The other colleges are outside these two administrative boundaries.

6. General Information of Desa Wonolelo

Desa Wonolelo, the village where we stayed for two weeks to conduct our research, is located in the Pleret Sub-district, 19-km southeast of the City of Yogyakarta. This village is described as a backward village and a target of the IDT (Inpres Desa Tertinggal) program, a Presidential Instruction Program for Less-Developed Villages on the Intensification of Efforts to Alleviate Poverty².

Desa Wonolelo is bordered by hills on one end of the village. It has 8 sub-villages and total population of 4082, comprising 1033 households. A proper bridge leading out of the village was completed in 1990. It allows people to commute by car or motorbike and has helped the village to promote development. Main products are rice during the rainy season and tobacco during the dry season, along with vegetables and livestock. There is no irrigation system in the village. Instead people use several wells scattered in the fields for watering. As cottage industries, villagers make ring cakes and furniture. Electricity has been introduced. Bicycles are the main form of transportation, followed by motorbikes and a few cars. It takes about two hours to commute to the City of Yogyakarta by bicycle. As for mass communication, many of village people have TV and radio, and some of them, especially younger people, read newspapers and magazines³. Telephone lines have not reached the village yet, so people often write letters as a way of general communication. There are Mesjid and Nusala, the Mosque sound communication system, and some notice boards for transmitting orders or messages from the village officers. There was only one public school before the 1970s, and in those days the private Islamic school (Pusantren⁴), called Pungajian, was an alternative for people seeking formal education.

7. Outline of Four Primary Schools in Desa Wonolelo

In Indonesia, there are several varieties of schools in primary education. First, primary education is divided into two types: Sekolah Dasar (SD) and Madrasah Ibtidaiyah (MI). SD is the general type of primary school, under the Ministry of Education and Culture (MOEC), and MI is religious and falls under the Ministry of Religious Affairs (MORA). There are both public and private SD and MI.

There are 5 primary schools (4 SD and 1 MI) in Desa Wonolelo. Unfortunately, though, we were able to research only 4 schools, 3 SD and 1 MI. Furthermore, some information and data on the MI were not available.

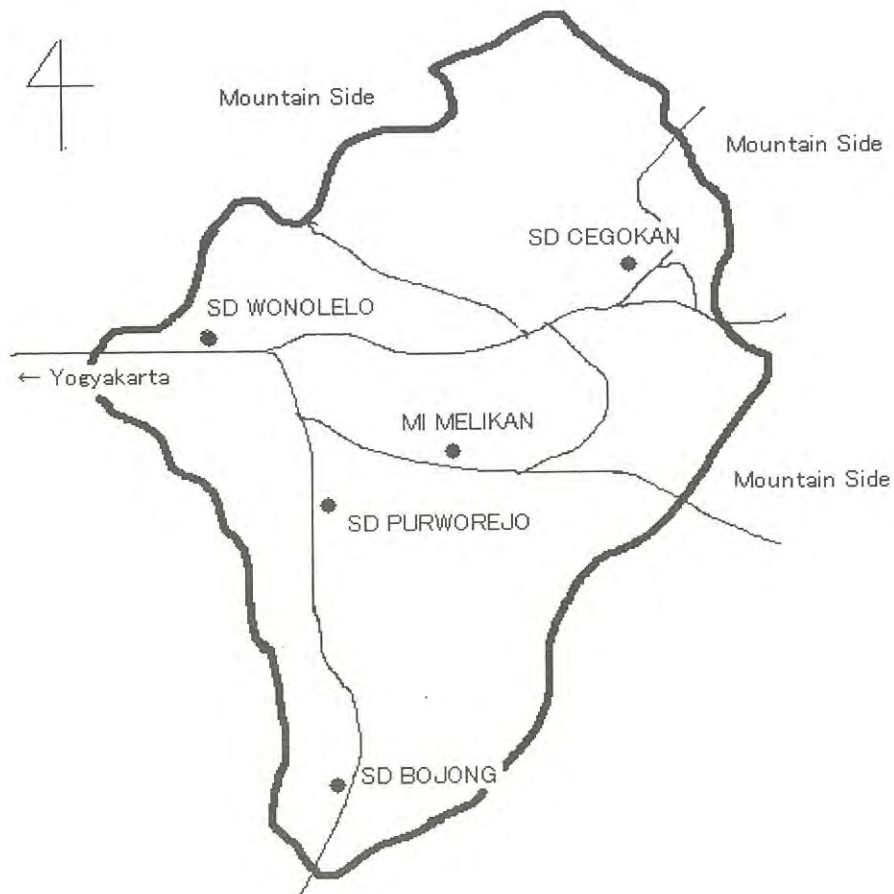
The map below shows Desa Wonolelo and the four primary schools (1998.8).

² According to IDT Program Implementation Guidance, National Development Planning Agency and Ministry of Home Affairs, Jakarta, March 1994, the IDT program constitutes an extension and improvement of various programs and endeavors to alleviate poverty directly at the community level. A village is one that is defined in accordance with Chapter 1, Law No.5/1979, regarding Village Government. A less-developed Village is one which falls under the category of being less-developed as defined by the State Minister for National Development Planning/Chairman of the National Development Planning Agency and the Minister of Home Affairs on the basis of data resulting from a Central Bureau of Statistics survey.

³ According to the interview done by Working Group 1 and 2, in some area of Desa Wonolelo, 27 (71%) households out of 38 have TV and 32 (84%) out of 38 have radio, and all of 18 young people, 16-24 year-olds, read newspapers and 14 (78%) of those read magazines.

⁴ There are two kinds of Islamic school in Indonesia: Madrasah and Pusantren. Pusantren has historically and traditionally played an important role in Islamic education. It has a boarding system and is led by the instructor called Kiai.

Map of Desa Wonolelo and School Location



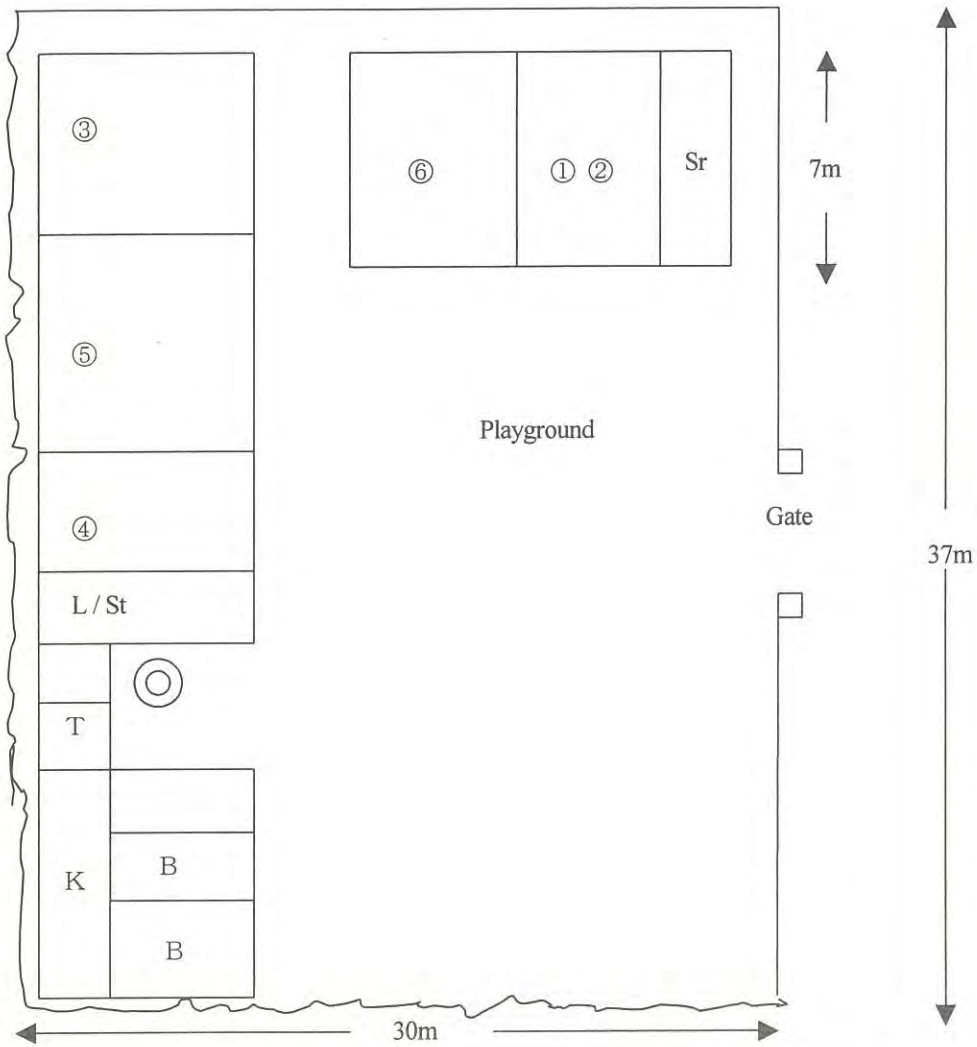
Basic Data of 4 schools in Desa Wonolelo

Name of School	Sekolah Dasar Negri Wonolelo (SD-W)	Sekolah Dasar Negri Purworejo (SD-P)	Madrasah Ibtidaiyah Melikan (MI-M)	Sekola Dasar Muhammadiyah Bojong (SD-B)
Type of School	General, Public	General, Public	Religious, Private	General, Private
Establishment	1967	1974	1971	1977
Headmaster (Name)	Mr.Sugiyanto	Mr.Sukanto	Mr.Sugiri	Mr.Asngari HW
(Sex/Age)	Male/56	Male/57	Male/55	Male/57
(Experience/Tenure)	36Year/2Year	38Year/8Months	18Year/10Year	35Year/7Year
Number of Students	197	48	90	72
Number of Classrooms	5	4	5	4
Number of Teachers	9	7	7	3(+3)
Entrance Fee (Rp.)	0	0	500	0
Tuition (Rp./Month)	0	0	1,500	2,000
Transition Rate*(%)	90~100	N/A	50/50**	100

* Transition Rate here means the percentage of students who continue schooling to the junior secondary school.

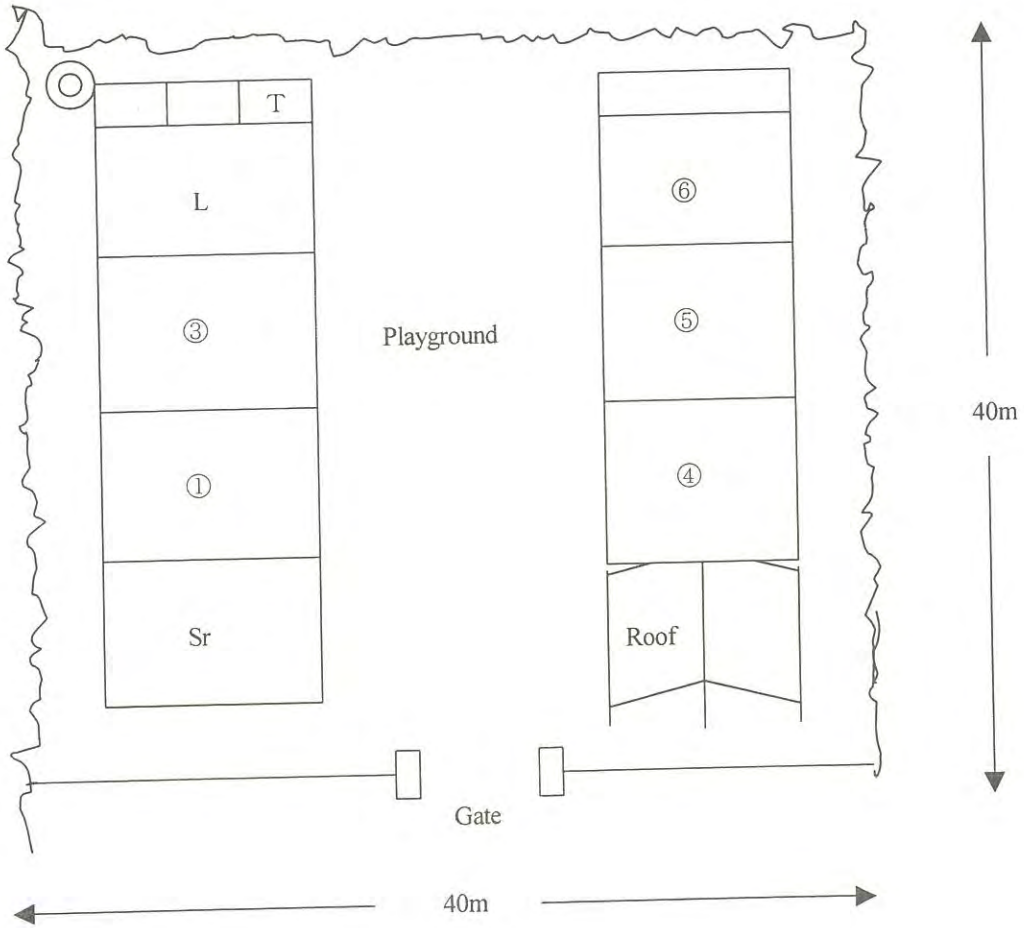
** At MI-I, 50% of students continue to the general secondary schools, while the others go to the religious schools.

* SD Negri Wonolelo (SD-W)

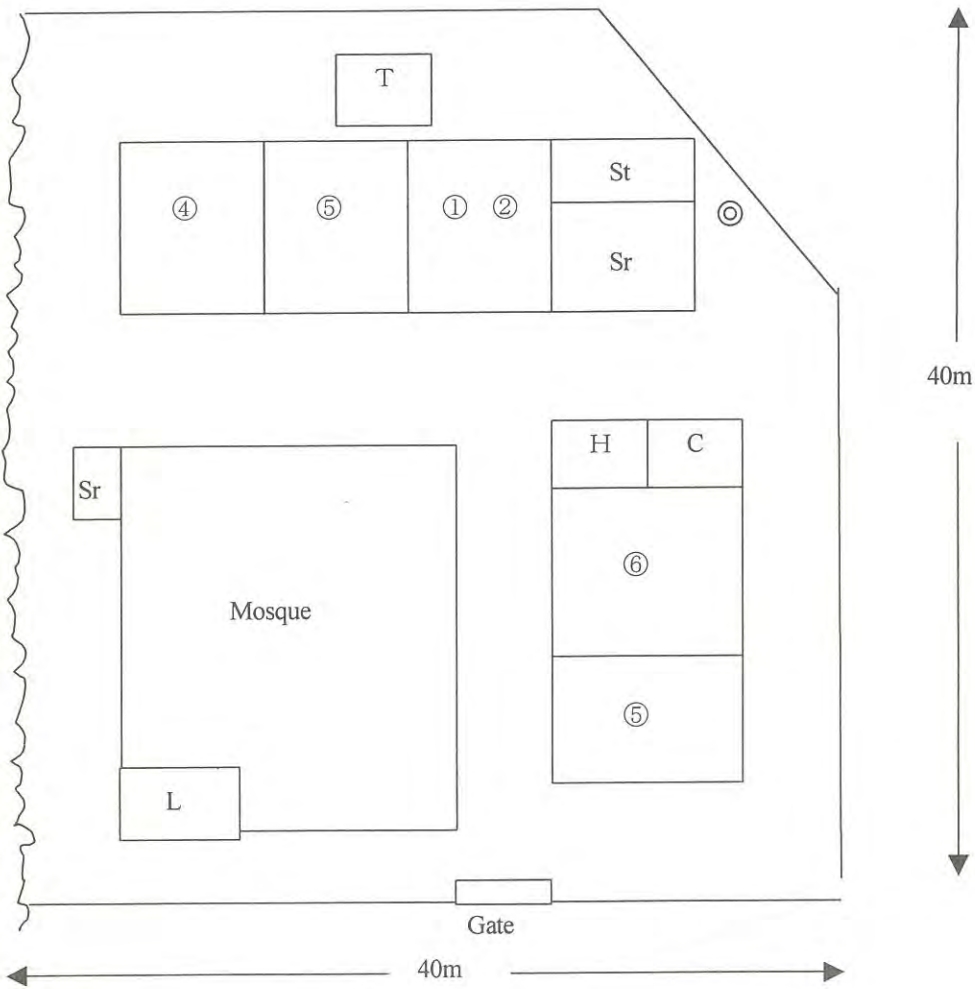


- | | |
|-----------------|----------------------------|
| Sr : Staff Room | ① : First Grade Classroom |
| K : Kitchen | ② : Second Grade Classroom |
| B : Bedroom | ③ : Third Grade Classroom |
| T : Toilet | ④ : Fourth Grade Classroom |
| L : Library | ⑤ : Fifth Grade Classroom |
| St : Store Room | ⑥ : Sixth Grade Classroom |
| ⊙ : Well | |

* SD Negri Purworejo (SD-P)



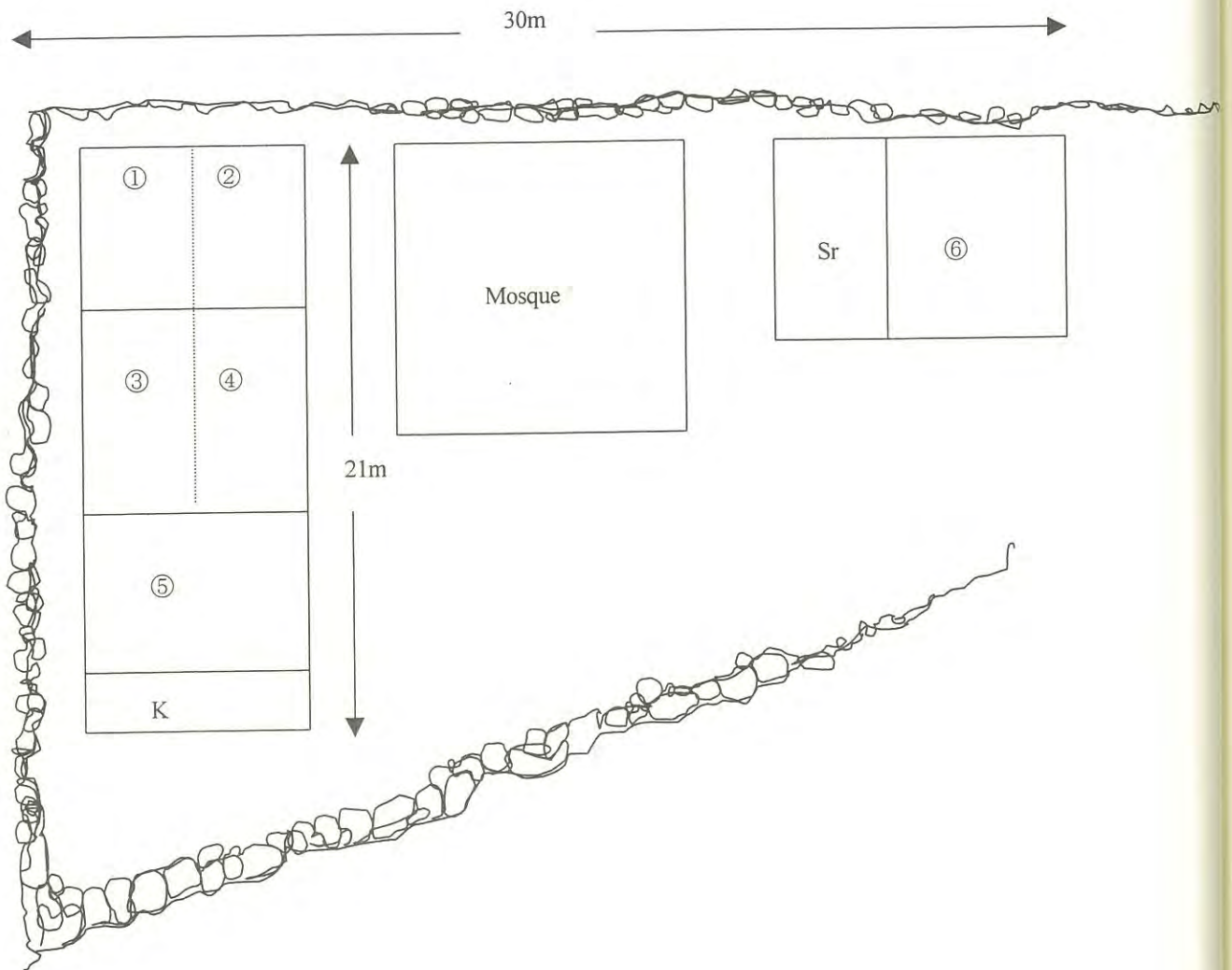
* MI Malikan (MI-M)



H: Headmaster's Room

C: Clinic

* SD Muhammadiyah Bojong (SD-B)



II ANALYSIS

1-1 Parent and Community Support

1) Introduction

Strong parent and community support are essential to effective schools. Some people even say primary school is a community activity. In Indonesia, it is compulsory to have Badan Pembantu Pembinaan Pendidik (=BP3: Committee for helping the development of education) in each school, especially public ones. Usually, BP3 consists of all the parents, organizers, a headmaster and all the teachers. Organizers are those who have influence and respect in the area so that residents can easily trust them and leave decision making of school management to them. BP3 plays an important and strong role in school. In Indonesia, it is not a volunteer organization but an officially made one; however, members are generally eager to act as supporters. In fact, reliance on BP3 is relatively strong from both the school side as well as the parents' side. Therefore, this time we focused on mainly the role of BP3 to get to know the parents and the community support of each elementary school.

2) Methods of Research : Interview and Questionnaire

We interviewed the following people:

SD-W: Headmaster, leader of BP3, one of the parents

SD- P: Headmaster, some teachers, leader of BP3, 2 households of the parents

MI- M: Headmaster, 3rd and 6th grade teachers, leader of BP3, one of the parents

SD- B: Headmaster, 3rd grade teacher

Even though this is not enough data to judge the problems of each school and the differences among the schools in Wonolelo village, we were able to gain a basic understanding of each school. Since we were not able to interview a leader of BP3 and parents of SD-B, we will exclude this school from our consideration in this section.

3) Physical Access to the School

In urban areas of Indonesia there is a school district "rayon system" which limits school enrollment to residents of a fixed area. However, there is no regulation in the rural area. Therefore all the schools in Wonolelo are open to anybody from anywhere, both inside and outside of the village. Most of the students go to SD-W from the sub- villages of Guyangan, Depok and Mojosari and some are from Ploso, Purworejo and Bawuran village. About 10 students from Depo go to SD-P as well as about 6 students from Bojong, but more than half of the students are from inside the sub village of Purworejo. In addition, there are only a few houses around SD-P, so students have to commute a relatively long distance. In the case of MI-M, most of the students live nearby the school, and some are from Mojosari and Cegokan.

4) The Regulation of BP3

Each school has regular BP3 meetings as well as ones which only organizers attend (table.1-1-1). Main issues of discussion are the annual plan, budget, students' attitudes and achievement. At MI-M, in addition to the above issues, they emphasize the 6th graders' future course guidance and 5th and 6th graders' school trip with their parents. Regarding the budget, the fee of BP3 is the second biggest source after the aid from the government, specifically for the public schools. In the case of very expensive projects such as the extension of a

uilding, all members will get together to talk about it. However, if the budget is small, organizers have authority to make decisions.

Table 1-1-1 BP3 at each school

	SD-W	SD-P	MI-M
No. of students	196	48	90
No. of organizers	16	3	10
Fee of BP3	Rp.500	Rp.700	Rp.500,750,1000*
Frequency of meeting **	2/year	4/year	4/year

*Depends on the family income level; parents decide the amount of the payment

**Extra meetings are held on the basis of their needs.

5) Relationship Between School and BP3

All the headmasters commented that the ties between BP3 and the school administration are sufficiently strong and that financial support has been done well. What other kinds of support do schools receive from BP3? At SD-W, sometimes in-kind support is given, but BP3 rarely provides a workforce. This is not because of the wide area of the residence but because they are too busy with private matters to spare time to work for the school. At SD-P, on the other hand, BP3 sometimes provides a workforce even if not all the parents can participate. In the case of MI-M, they collect an additional fee, which is Rp.250/student, as tuition three times a week. Also they value workforce and work together for one purpose. Since most of the parents live close by the school, they have a strong sense of belonging to the school: the school is ours and we are the ones to take care of it. In fact, existing buildings were built by them.

We saw young people playing soccer almost every evening at SD-W as one of the activities for celebration of Independence Day. Likewise, community people take advantage of the school facilities there. On the other hand, since the headmaster of SD-P arrived at his post eight months ago, the school has not been used for community purposes. If there is any demand from the community, the school would accept it, but the headmaster's worry is that some problems might remain afterwards. There is very active community involvement at MI-M. Parents are involved with school activities such as sports festivals and art festivals, as well as a fence making. Not only them but all the community members have a lot of opportunity to use the school facilities. For example, there are some religious classes for the adults, and meetings on family planning, transmigration, and so forth at school.

6) Parental Concern for Childrens' Education

Generally, parents wish to send their children to higher levels of educational institutes. A mother of a 1st grader from SD-W, who herself dropped out of junior high, is eager to provide financial support for her children. Also, she often helps her child with her homework and gives her some advice. In addition, she has observed her class three times already. She thinks education is very important and tries to give much nutritious food and maintain the cleanliness at home for her children. A father of a 3rd grader from SD-P, who dropped out of senior high, is sometimes too busy but he helps with his child's homework and asks her about school life. Even though he is occasionally late to pay the fee, he sends her to religious school in the evening in order for her to get a better job in the future. He also cares about his children's health. Another father of a 3rd grader, who graduated from elementary school often helps with his child's homework and even he lets her concentrate on study without giving her any duties at home. He is concerned about giving his children nutritious food and if there is any need for them to consult a doctor, he will do so. He has a strong opinion that education is much

more important than money and it is education that we need to get opportunity to seek by ourselves for our better future. A father of a 6th grader from MI-M, who dropped out of elementary school, also often helps his child with homework and gives him advice, especially on religious matters, since he believes that the stronger the religious belief you have, the more consideration you can gain from the others. He also cares about his children's health condition very much.

7) Parental Appreciation of Education from the View of the School

SD-W: Relatively good. The school wants the parents to give their children some good advice.

SD-P: Not too bad, but not good either. Since the parents have little interest in education, parental support, such as help with homework, seems rather weak. The school wants the parents to give more attention and support for their children to have better education.

MI-M: Relatively good. They emphasize religious education to make people better.

8) BP3's Opinion About Education and Their Own Role

SD-W: It is important to share responsibility with the school, and parents' involvement is also essential. Education is beneficial to get a better job. They advise schools to have good communication with the parents.

SD-P: Education is meaningful not only for the children's better future but also for community development. Therefore they advise parents on how to teach the children at home and also give advice to schools on how to use the budget efficiently.

MI-M: Parents have a lot of responsibility for their children's education; however, since many of them have only a low level of educational background, it is not easy to help the children with their homework. Therefore the school suggests the parents to have meaningful time with the children at home. They consider that helping parents with work is very useful for the children in order to gain knowledge and special skills. In terms of religion, contribution is natural thing to do and it is not a matter of wealth. The parents support school by sharing the budget for the teachers' salary and they help finding the new students. They give suggestions to school how teachers should be strict.

9) Evaluation From the Questionnaire to the Students

We asked 3rd and 6th graders of each school to answer the questionnaire. From that, we would like to point out three questions to evaluate;

1) Are you sometimes too busy with your work at home?

Ans.) a. Yes, often. b. Yes, sometimes. c. Yes, occasionally. d. No.

2) Do your parents help with your homework?

Ans.) a. Yes. b. Yes, but only sometimes. c. Not really. d. Not at all.

3) Do you get sick easily?

Ans.) a. Yes. b. Yes, sometimes. c. Yes, occasionally. d. No.

The results are as follows (table.1-1-2) ;

Table 1-1-2 Questionnaire to 3rd and 6th graders of each school

School & grade	SD-W/3rd	SD-W/6th	SD-P/3rd	SD-P/6th.	MI-M/3rd	MI-M/ 6ht
No. of students	31	32	7	14	11	22
Q / A						
1-a	3	4	1	3	0	1
1-b	11	20	1	10	11	9
1-c	5	4	3	1	0	12
1-d	10	3	1	0	0	0
2-a	20	0	0	0	1	3
2-b	8	15	3	4	8	11
2-c	1	6	3	8	0	6
2-d	0	11	0	2	0	2
3-a	7	0	1	0	0	0
3-b	4	5	2	0	0	0
3-c	12	23	1	14	11	22
3-d	3	4	2	0	0	0

Most of the students who help their family at home get more or less busy with their duty. The result of Question 2 implies that parents have busy lives as well, since most of the students do not get enough parental help with their homework except 3rd graders of SD-W. On the other hand, one of the other reasons for this could be the low level of parental educational background. It is the 6th graders who do not get any help at all from their parents. If the parents only graduated from elementary school or even dropped out of it, it would be very difficult to give any help to their children, especially to 6th graders. The result from question 3 indicates a deep parental concern for their children's health. However, approximately a quarter of the 3rd graders of SD-W get sick easily. This means there should be a warning to the parents for them to provide their children with a hygienic study environment.

10) Characteristic of Each School

SD-W: It is a public school and village people say it is the best one in Wonolelo village. There are many students and that makes their budget bigger. The school allows the community to make use of it outside of school time. However, contribution from the community is rather weak since most of it is only financial support.

SD-P: It is also a public school. There used to be more students, but the result of good family planning and transmigration lowered the population, especially in this area. The limited number of students causes a limitation of the budget. Therefore, they have to make the BP3 fee rather high. Yet since it is still not enough, the teachers have to contribute Rp.5,000 / month, which the school uses for teachers' official trips, training and even for maintenance of school buildings. Teachers say that generally the financial condition of the students' families is low compared with the other schools in the village, and parental appreciation of education is also low. We might say that because of their poor condition, they are forced to concentrate on how they can live now rather than on the future. In that sense, children are very important workers at home. However, there are parents who are eager to support their children's education, as mentioned earlier. They may not want their children to face the same hardships they have faced due to their limited educational background.

MI-M: Since it is a private and religious school, they have many ways of getting donations from outside, for instance from other religious schools, private companies, as well as the community. At this stage, they have shortage of students (school can accommodate up to 130 students) and the headmaster's main concern is how to

get more students. Because they are a private school, they have to manage by themselves. Therefore the ties between the school and the community can be strong. In fact, parents and students feel the school indeed belongs to them. Also, strong religious thought helps a lot in terms of donation: in Islam 2.5% of wealth has to be given to those who need support.

11) Epilogue

It is difficult to analyze the condition and problems of each school with such limited data. However, we would like to make the following comments.

When we compare the above three schools in Wonolelo in terms of the students' health, condition is settled on the whole in order for them to prepare for their study at every school (some of the 3rd graders of SD-W are the exception as we mentioned earlier). Also, monetary or in-kind contributions from parents and the community is relatively good as well. However, when it comes to the workforce contribution, MI-M has the strongest support, and the communication between parents and school is the most frequent there. Generally, at each school BP3 has been playing a strong and important role, and the parents rely heavily on BP3 organizers. Moreover, school management is practically controlled by the organizers of BP3. In this respect, the central plan of setting the BP3 at every school is working effectively. It is true that there is a limitation on what they can do, as one of the teachers from SD-P mentioned, but organizers must take the initiative to improve school conditions. Take, for example, the SD-P parents whom we interviewed: if they can be models for the others and influence them, school development should not be so difficult. In that sense, SD-P seems to have good prospects for the future. Of course, the parents' educational background greatly affects their ability to help in children's homework and how much they value education. But those are only secondary matters. Parents must take the first step by participating, and BP3 as a whole should support them. In that sense, the budget can come afterwards, and what school really needs is the parents' understanding and action for their precious children and the children's future.

1-2 Effective Support from the Education System

Support to schools by the education system's management structure is critical to enhance the quality of school. With this recognition, we researched the relationship between the schools and higher levels of administration in terms of four points. These are 1) Delegation of Authority and Responsibility, 2) Communication of Expectations, 3) Provision of Service, and 4) Monitoring and Evaluation. This section compares the schools in Wonolelo village in terms of each of these points.

1) Delegation of Authority and Responsibility

It is necessary for the government to have a clearly defined policy for delegation of authority and responsibility to schools. In Indonesia, the criticism is often made that institutional arrangements, especially its organizational complexities, hinder activities to improve the quality of primary education. Therefore, the government has been trying to rectify this and give authority to lower levels of government.

One of the collaborations in which the government succeeded was to establish and foster the school cluster system. In this system, teachers and headmasters are gathered in a Nucleus school, and discuss matters with the tutors' advice there. In the light of decentralization, the government adopted the system of sub-districts to give the authority to this level. In Wonolelo village, all of the schools joined the cluster system, although the Madrasah school joined a different school cluster system.

In spite of the cluster system, there is still a difference in the degree of authority among the schools in this village, because of the different system on which each school builds. According to other research done on the whole of Indonesia, a private school has more authority than a public one. This research argues that the public school is entangled in a lot of regulation, and the headmaster can't perform his/her duties. Here in the village, SD-B gets more subsidies from the government as a salary for 3 teachers, while the headmaster exercises his idea to improve the student achievement with less regulation. MI-M, though also private, is not so free in terms of regulation, in view of the fact that it is under the supervision of both MORA and MOHA and doesn't get many subsidies from the government.

2) Communication of Expectations

To improve the quality of schools, it is essential for the system of educational administration, namely the government, to set standards and communicate these expectations to the school. Interviewed at the central office of MOEC in Jakarta, the officials specified their priorities for primary education, namely 1) equity and access, 2) relevance, 3) quality, and 4) efficiency. A project called the Primary Education Quality Improvement Project (PEQIP) began in 1991, which clearly sets forth the standards. Hence, the main point here is how often the government conveys this idea to the schools in the village.

Table.1-2-1 shows the frequency of supervisors coming to each school for three years. The data source for SD-W is not reliable enough to use, so that SD-W is not included in this table. We can see that supervisors come to MI-M the most frequently, considering that the number of their visits are the most, and that its average days of interval between visits and its variance is the lowest. Yet it should be noted that the standard and emphasis are different for each institution. If only the frequency of supervisors from MOEC is considered, SD-P has the best connection with it.

Table 1-2-1 Frequency of Supervisors (1994 to 1997)

	N	MOEC	MORA	Yayasan	Average Days of Interval	Standard Deviation
MI-M	51	21	30	-	15.5	20.3
SD-P	28	27	1	-	37.6	49.6
SD-B	40	21	5	14	27.3	27.2

* These data are obtained from the guest book of each school.

* SD-W is not included because of the poor reliability of its guest book.

* Yayasan means private organization.

3) Provision of Service

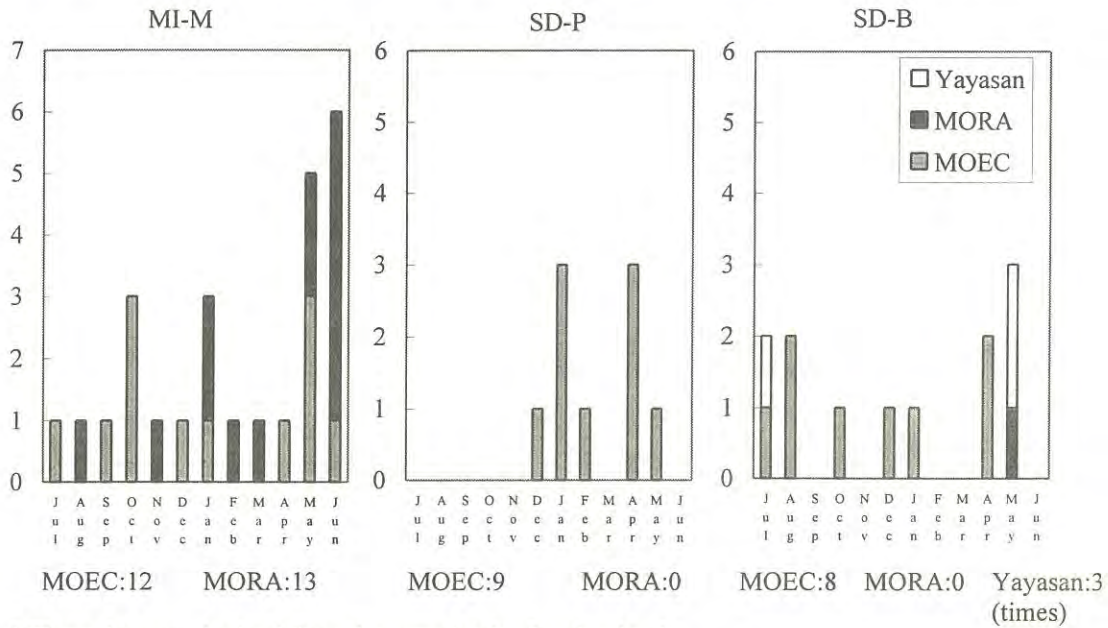
If a school gets more service, its quality will be, without a doubt, improved. Here, we researched the amount of money each school gets annually, taking this as a proxy for the provision of service.

In the village, SD-B got the highest amount of all, receiving 1,200,000 rupiah per year. Next are SD-W and SD-P, receiving 800,000 rupiah. MI-M is the last, getting only 8,000 rupiah.

4) Monitoring and Evaluation

To monitor and evaluate the school is vital for its improvement. Again, the role of supervisors is critical.

Figure 1-2-1 The Date and Frequency of Supervisors Visits (1996-1997)



* These data are obtained from the guest book of each school.
 * SD-W is not included because of the poor reliability of its guest book.

Figure.1-2-1 indicates the date and frequency of supervisor visits. Again, data of SD-W is not included. From this figure, it can be seen that supervisors come to MI-M most frequently, and that they come to SD-P rarely and irregularly. However, at least they come to school in April and/or May. It suggests that they check the results of the national test called NEM, which is held in these months.

5) Conclusion

Table.1-2-2 summarizes our findings.

Table 1-2-2 Comparison of Schools in the Part of Effective Support from the Education System

	Degree of autonomy	Frequency of supervisors	Provision of service	Monitoring and evaluation
SD-W	Middle	-	Middle	-
MI-M	Low	High	Low	High
SD-P	Middle	Low	Middle	Low
SD-B	High	Middle	High	Middle

In this part, we considered the relationship between school and the system above it, namely the government. Considering the discussion above, it can be said that SD-B has the best relationship with the government, getting more money and using it freely. MI-M also has a good relationship with the government, obtaining much advice from MOEC and MORA. But with quite limited resources and less autonomy, it may not fully exercise this connection. In contrast, SD-W and SD-P get many subsidies from the government, though they don't get much advice, indicating that there is much room for improvement regarding these schools.

1-3 Frequent and Appropriate Teacher Development Activities

1) Introduction

In Indonesia, one of the biggest challenges is that the educational system should respond flexibly and efficiently to produce the type of skilled workers that a rapidly modernizing economy will require in the future. In order to achieve the above mentioned goal, the quality of basic education should be improved. Otherwise, the problems of low quality at the basic level are transmitted through the system. In our overseas fieldwork in Indonesia, we applied a conceptual framework set up by Heneveld (1994) to monitor and evaluate school effectiveness. It suggests the importance of “frequent and appropriate teacher development activities.” In the field of professional development, especially in the rural area, given the low turnover of teachers and improvements made in pre-service teacher training, the strategy for improving the quality of teachers at the primary level must rely on what is done in in-service training.

2) Government Policy on In-service Training

Through interviews with educational experts and officials at different governmental levels, we could gain an overall picture of educational policy in Indonesia.

- a) After attempting traditional in-service training at central training centers in the 1970's and faced with unsatisfactory results, the government of Indonesia formulated an in-service / on-service program for teacher quality improvement where learning accomplished at the training center (in-service) would be reinforced and extended by the on-the job-learning in the school (on-service). This program (PKG: *Pemantapan Kerja Guru*) has gone through several models. A large number of secondary school teachers have been trained to become teacher trainers at the provincial and district levels. At the provincial level, instructors have been trained to plan school-based teacher education efforts to train the local tutors for those programs (*guru inti*) and to manage special PKG programs for teachers from remote area schools.
- b) The Teacher Upgrading Program : The government launched a program in 1990 designed to upgrade the qualifications of primary school teachers to a D2 level. The program also included an in-service activities section. For those teachers already on the job, a blanket upgrading program to D-III for SMP teachers was started. The program is offered through distance education by the Indonesia Open Learning University (UT). Following this upgrading, the teachers will qualify for higher civil service salaries. Because of this, there is a strong incentive for teachers to participate in this upgrading program. However, this upgrading will not necessarily lead to an improvement in the quality of teaching, and problems have already been revealed by other researchers: i) the program is too rapid and curriculum/program content is without inappropriate curriculum, program content; and ii) the length of the upgrading process is longer than expected.

Table 1-3-1 Number of Teachers by Qualification, 1994-95

Qualification	Primary	Jr. Secondary
<Sr. Secondary	78,447 (6.7%)	
Sr. Secondary/Teacher training for Jr. Sec	1,032,449 (88.0%)	
<D 1		44,001 (11.2%)
D 1		132,413 (33.7%)
D 2		64,923 (16.5%)
D 3		40,434 (10.3%)
Bachelor	29,481 (2.5%)	38,657 (9.8%)
Graduate/ Post-graduate	32,263 (2.8%)	72,160 (18.4%)
Total	1,172,640	392,588

Source: Statistik Persekolahan, MOEC (1994-95)

3) The Implementation of the Government Policy in Rural Areas

This section compares the policy and its implementation. In order to make the research more objective, we interviewed not only headmasters but also teachers, and collected additional data in four elementary schools: SD-W, SD-P, SD-M, and SD-B in Wonolelo village. Due to the lack of opportunity to interview any officials from the Teacher Training Center, the language handicap, and the limited time, a thorough analysis could not be carried out.

In order to monitor the frequency and appropriateness of teacher development activity, we focused on the following areas: frequency of teacher development activities; the content and appropriateness of teacher development activities; the collaboration of staff members; and results of the in-service program.

a) Frequency of Teacher Development Activities

- The teachers receive training approximately once or twice a year in all schools we visited. In each case, the headmaster encouraged teachers to participate in the training. Each time the length of training was a maximum of three days.
- During the training-learning process we encountered lack of teacher mastery. This may be due to the very short and infrequent teacher training.

b) Appropriateness of Teacher Development Activities

- Most of the teachers of third and sixth grade received training mainly on curriculum, teaching method, and basic skills (problem solving). We asked the teachers to evaluate the appropriateness of the content of the training received. Most of them thought that the content was more or less relevant. They could apply about 70% to 80% of the content in their teaching practice. One exception is SD Impress where only 50% of the content could be put into practice in the third grade.
- In schools where student achievement and pedagogical skills were not so high and other problems were experienced during the class observation, these difficulties show that the teachers did not receive appropriate training.

c) The Teacher Upgrading Program

- Nevertheless, although most of the teachers interviewed have D2 qualification, they still face serious difficulties in practice.
- This fact may be due to the low quality of upgrading program, because of reasons mentioned before in the report. GOI's policy on teachers' salaries has been to keep official salaries low, keep working hours to a minimum, and allow teachers to hold multiple jobs to supplement their income.
- However, it was found that outside jobs are affecting teachers' performance in the classroom, preparation, in-service training or other professional development activities.

We have overviewed the current situation and main problems in the field of in-service training. In order to improve teachers' competence in general, it is necessary to have a combination of revitalization of the content and decentralization of the existing in-service teacher training program (PKG, MGMP) at the district level and the systematic involvement of regional MOEC staff including supervisors and principals in the training program.

- Each participant should be given training for 5 -6 days (including practical work) in each subject.
- Training should concentrate on developing classroom activities and teaching skills.
- Training should be followed up by help in the classroom and KKG, and by further training by consultants.
- Proper financial incentives should be provided by the government for teachers, so that the teachers are not compelled to take on multiple jobs.

1-4 Sufficient Textbooks, Other Teaching Materials and Adequate Facilities

1) Sufficient Textbooks and Other Materials

We chose our target study on mathematics and science classes of Grade 3rd and 6th. Although the Indonesian government wants a 100% textbook distribution rate, some of the remote schools are not able to achieve this. SD-W and SD-P receive the textbooks from MOEC, and MI-M from MOEC and MORA. According to the opinion of teachers in our target study, the general opinion was that students' textbook-distribution rates in 5 subjects (Pancasila moral education, Indonesia Language, Science, Society and Mathematics) is about 80%, and about 50% in other subjects. But based on our survey, the actual textbook distribution rate ranged from SD-P's 50% to MI-M's 100% (Table.1-4-1). At SD-W and SD-P, the students do not own the textbooks but only borrow them and have to return them to school at the end of the semester. Textbook return rates in both schools are close to 100%. Only at MI-M is the textbook distribution rate 100%, and students own and can keep the textbooks. We do not know whether the difference in treatment among SD-W, SD-P and MI-M is due to a budget limitation, religious affiliation, or other reasons.

The students get the textbooks before the new semester just on the first day or after . All teachers say that students mostly understand the textbooks in the class. There are enough notebooks, pencils and erasers for all students. The students use rulers, gradators and compasses in both 3rd and 6th grade math classes. Most of the students do have their own rulers, but only the teachers and a few students have their own graduates and compasses. So teachers said that students are in need of having their own rulers, graduates, and compasses.

Aside from the textbooks, teachers use other materials to supplement their teachings. The amount of other materials used is shown in Table.1-4-1. However, despite many available resources, on the average teachers use only one or two supplementary materials.

The teacher uses almost no instruments in the 3rd grade science class. The teachers of SD-W and SD-P said that students do not need instruments because 3rd grade students do not do experiments. But a teacher of

MI-M said that measuring beakers and globes are needed. The students in the 6th grade do experiments, and instruments are used in SD-W and SD-P (for example, magnets) and in MI-M (electric batteries). The teacher of SD-W said that each student wants to have one magnet. The teacher of SD-P said that a photostat is needed. The teacher of MI-M said that a thermometer and a hygrometer are needed. In other words, experimentation instruments are heavily needed by all schools.

All teachers receive chalk, textbooks and teacher's manuals. Additionally, teachers of SD-W and SD-P receive clothes, and teachers of SD-P and MI-M receive notebooks. We asked the teachers about what they think of the teacher's manual for each subject. Teachers in SD-W's 3rd and 6th grade math, and science of 6th, in SD-P's 3rd and 6th grade math and science, and in MI-M's 3rd grade math and science do use the teacher's manuals. They said that it is useful for their job. All teacher feels that materials used in mathematics and science classes are not bad compared with the national average.

2) Adequate Facilities

School facilities are as follows. Only MI-M has a headmaster's room, but one third of the space in this room is used as a clinic. There are teacher's rooms at all schools. But in the teacher's room of MI-M there is a bookshelf, as a library. In SD-W, the clinic and library share one room. In SD-P, the clinic shares with a classroom and library shares with a playroom. There is no laboratory at any school. There are two washrooms for teachers and students. There are lodges for teachers at SD-W and SD-P. But due to poor maintenance, the lodge at SD-P cannot be used. The lodge at SD-W is well maintained, and a married couple who takes care of the school lives there. It is used as a kitchen for making school meals. There is no lodge at MI-M. SD-W has five classrooms. Grade One students use a classroom from 7 to 10:30 and Grade Two students use the same room from 10:30 to 12:30. SD-P has four classrooms. MI-M has five classrooms. There are wells at all schools. Because MI-M is a religious school, it has a Mosque. MI-M t has no school ground.

Classroom facilities are as follows. At SD-W and MI-M, two students share one desk. There are teacher desks, blackboards, students' and teachers' lockers at all schools. All teachers said that the size of the classroom and number of desks and chairs relative to the number of students is just right. The SD-P buildings are in poor condition.

3) Conclusion

It is necessary to improve the distribution rate of textbooks per student. Besides, all schools have problems of the inadequate of libraries. In the case of SD-W, the size of the library and the number of books are particularly inadequate. In the case of SD-P, the size is large enough but books are old and the space is used as a storeroom. In the case of MI-M, there is no library, only a bookshelf in the teachers' room. Therefore there is not enough space for students to stay inside. However, its rate of usage is high compared with SD-W and SD-P. It is necessary to prepare libraries with enough space and books. No school has a science classroom. All teachers said that science laboratories and facilities for experimentation are important for the curriculum.

Table 1-4-1 School Textbooks and Other Materials

School	SD-W	SD-P	MI-M	SD-W	SD-P	MI-M	SD-W	SD-P	MI-M	SD-W	SD-P	MI-M	SD-W	SD-P	MI-M	
Grade	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	
Number of students	31	7	11	31	7	11	31	7	11	31	7	11	31	7	11	
Subject	Math	Math	Math	Science	Science	Science	Math	Math	Math	Math	Math	Science	Science	Science	Science	
	borrow	borrow	free	borrow	borrow	free	borrow	borrow	free	borrow	borrow	free	borrow	borrow	borrow	
	on the first day	on the first day	before or after the new term	on the first day	on the first day	before or after the new term	on the first day	on the first day	before or after the new term	on the first day	on the first day	before or after the new term	on the first day	on the first day	before or after the new term	
Textbooks	80%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	80%	100%	100%	
Distribution	90%	100%	N/A	100%	100%	N/A	100%	100%	N/A	100%	100%	N/A	100%	100%	N/A	
Return Percentage	mostly	mostly	completely	mostly	mostly	completely	mostly	mostly	completely	mostly	mostly	completely	mostly	mostly	mostly	
Understand																
Notebook, pencil, eraser	all students	all students	all students	all students	all students	all students	all students	all students	all students	all students	all students	all students	all students	all students	all students	
Other materials	2	1	3	4	1	2	4	1	2	1	1	2	1	1	3	
Use of instruments	ruler graduator compass	ruler compass	compass					compass		compass	ruler compass	compass	compass	ruler compass	magnet	
Demand	ruler graduator compass	ruler compass	compass			beaker mesclinder globe		compass		compass	ruler compass	compass	compass	magnet	photostat	
Supplies to teachers	chalk textbook teacher's manual clothes	chalk, clothes textbook teacher's manual notebook	chalk textbook teacher's manual notebook	chalk textbook Teacher's manual clothes	chalk, clothes notebook textbook teacher's manual	chalk notebook textbook teacher's manual	chalk textbook Teacher's manual clothes	chalk, clothes notebook textbook teacher's manual	chalk notebook textbook teacher's manual	chalk textbook teacher's manual notebook	chalk, clothes textbook teacher's manual notebook	chalk textbook teacher's manual notebook	chalk textbook teacher's manual clothes	chalk textbook teacher's manual clothes	chalk, clothes notebook textbook teacher's manual	chalk notebook textbook teacher's manual
Teacher's Manual	Used	always	always	not used	sometimes	always	not used	sometimes	always	sometimes	always	not used	sometimes	always	always	not used
	Useful?	useful	useful	n/a	useful	useful	n/a	useful	useful	useful	useful	n/a	useful	useful	useful	n/a
Compared with the national average	not bad	not bad	not bad	not bad	not bad	not bad	not bad	not bad	not bad	not bad	not bad	not bad	not bad	not bad	not bad	not bad

Table 1-4-2 School Facilities

School	SD-W	SD-P	MI-M
Headmaster room	none	none	2/3
Teacher room	1	1	1
Clinic	1/2	1/2	1/3
Library	1/2	1	none
Laboratory	none	none	none
Toilet (student)	1	1	1
Toilet (Teacher)	1	1	1
Classroom	5	4	5
Lodging for Teachers	1	1	none
Well	1	1	1
Ground	1	1	none
Other	none	Mosque	none

Table 1-4-3 Classroom Facilities

School	SD-W		SD-P		MI-M	
Grade	3	6	3	6	3	6
Student desk /	20	13	7	14	10	11
Student number	31	32	7	14	11	22
Teacher desk	1	1	1	1	1	1
Blackboard	1	1	1	1	1	1
Student locker	1	1	1	1	1	1
Teacher locker	1	1	1	1	1	1

2-1 Enabling Conditions & School Climate

1) Introduction

Enabling Conditions and School Climate factors are considered in this section.

The research was conducted in 4 schools, SD- W, SD-P, MI-M, and SD-B.

Table 2-1-1 Enabling Conditions

School	SD-W	SD-P	MI-M	SD-B
Effective Leadership	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair
A Capable Teaching Force	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair
Flexibility and Autonomy	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair
Length of Time-In-School	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor

Table 2-1-2 School Climate

School	SD-W	SD-P	MI-M	SD-B
High Expectation of Students	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair
Positive Teacher Attitudes	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair
Order and Discipline	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair
Organized Curriculum	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair
Rewards and Incentives	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor

2) Enabling Conditions

2.1 Effective Leadership exists in a school when :

1. The Head sees that the resources are available to provide adequate support to teachers, sufficient learning materials, and an adequate and well-maintained learning facility. However, SD-W and SD-B lack classrooms (SD-W has 5 classrooms for 6 grades and SD-B has 4 classrooms for 6 grades). MI-M and SD-B do not have grounds , and at SD-B water is not available.
2. In all 4 schools, the head actively pursues medium instructional standards.
3. In all 4 schools, the head communicates regularly and effectively with teachers, parents, and others in the community.

4. In all 4 schools, the head maintains medium visibility and accessibility to pupils, teachers, parents, and others in the community.

2.2 In regards to Capable Teaching Force, in all 4 schools, the teachers are considered capable because :

1. All teachers have completed at least secondary school (DII) ;
2. The majority of teachers have taught for more than one year ;
3. There is a low teacher turnover rate from year to year;
4. Most of the teachers are present at the school for the full school day and teach most of that time.

2.3 Flexibility and Autonomy

1. In all 4 schools, the staff in the school can determine the specifics of how school time and resources are used to increase academic performance to a medium level.
2. All 4 schools are able to draw on various constituencies for resources to a moderate extent.

2.4 Length of Time-In-School

In all 4 schools, the students spend most of the days in a year at school and are actively engaged in longer daily school hours. For the first and second grade in all 4 schools, we found that they do not have enough time to learn (about 3 hours per class).

3) School Climate

3.1 High Expectations of Students

1. In all 4 schools, there is a clear schoolwide set of academic and social behavior goals which are continuously monitored.
2. The School Head and teachers communicate to students and their parents that they expect the students to work hard and to excel academically.
3. There are not many opportunities for students to take responsibility.
(At MI-M and SD-B, students perform well in the responsibilities delegated to them.)
4. In all 4 schools, past students achievement levels were lower than national averages.

3.2 Positive Teacher Attitudes

In all 4 schools, the teachers have confidence in their ability to teach. They are committed to teaching and care about their students. In addition, they cooperate in efforts to improve the school and to help each other with instructional problems.

3.3 Order and Discipline

In all 4 schools, classrooms and classes are well-organized. School rules and regulations are clearly articulated, agreed upon by both teachers and students, and equitably maintained.

3.4 Organized Curriculum

All 4 schools emphasize the acquisition of basic skills. They also define learning objectives that are matched to identified teaching strategies, available materials, and an integrated sequence of topics across the grade levels.

However, the schools lack materials, and the teachers rarely produce local teaching-learning materials.

3.5 Rewards and Incentives

Although the standards that define academic success are clear and known by all teachers and students, none of the schools could use rewards and incentives because their academic achievement is below standard.

2-2 Teaching/Learning Process

1) Introduction

As part of the school process, class activities have an important role. In fact, what happens in school is mainly determined by them. In order to analyze and identify class management, we observed teaching in three elementary schools, SD-W, SD-P and MI-M.

Observation was limited to the 3rd and 6th grades. This focus was chosen because dropout and repeater rates below the 3rd grade are higher than for higher grades; and for the 6th grade, it is possible to use NEM results as a measure of achievement. The study is effectively limited to mathematics, because the teaching of math and science is easier to observe, and it is also easier to compare lessons, than for arts subjects. Also the language handicap of the observers makes for less of a disadvantage.

The observation was carried out using indicators based on four factors, such as learning time, variety in teaching strategies, frequent homework, as well as frequent student assessment and feedback. However, due to the limited time at our disposal, we visited each class only once, which is not enough for a thorough analysis. Therefore we also interviewed the six teachers concerned and collected additional data from schools to make the research more objective.

2) Learning Time

2.1) Maximization of school learning time

Learning time refers to the amount of time a student spends on learning activities. This learning time can be maximized if classroom time is used efficiently.

To maximize the learning time, a time-use allocation for different subjects should be clearly established and respected by teachers. Looking at the timetable of SD-W (Table.2-2-1), we observe that, theoretically, a quite clear time-use allocation has been established. (The other schools have more or less the same timetables.) Actual time-use allocation, however, is dependent on the teachers. Teachers in the schools we have visited teach all subjects of a given grade, apart from religious and physical education; therefore different subjects normally do not start exactly as scheduled. Teachers covered all subjects of a day, and taught in the order of the timetable, but time-use allocation was not fixed.

As is apparent from Table. 2-2-2, the length of each lesson is around one hour, except for the 3rd grade of SD-P where the teacher had to leave the school earlier.

Table 2-2-1 Timetable of SD-W

	Time	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday	Saturday
3rd grade	7:00-7:40	Ceremony	Math	Indonesian	P.E.	Math	Math
	7:40-8:20	Pancasila	Math	Indonesian	P.E.	Math	Math
	8:20-9:00	Pancasila	Social S.	Science	Indonesian	Indonesian	Indonesian
	9:15-9:55	Math	Social S.	Science	Indonesian	Indonesian	Indonesian
	9:55-10:35	Math	Art	Religion	Skill	Skill	Science
	10:35-11:15	Java lan.	Art	Religion	Skill	X	X
	11:25-12:05	Java lan.	P.E.	X	X	X	X
	12:05-12:45	X	X	X	X	X	X
6th grade	7:00-7:40	Ceremony	Math	Indonesian	Math	Indonesian	Indonesian
	7:40-8:20	P.E.	Math	Indonesian	Math	Indonesian	Indonesian
	8:20-9:00	P.E.	Social S.	Science	Indonesian	Science	Pancasila
	9:15-9:55	Math	Social S.	Science	Indonesian	Science	Pancasila
	9:55-10:35	Math	Religion	Art	Skill	X	Social S.
	10:35-11:15	Java lan.	Religion	Art	Skill	X	X
	11:25-12:05	Java lan.	Skill	P.E.	Religion	X	X
	12:05-12:45	Art	Skill	X	X	X	X

No students were late during the time of our observation. This may not be special or unusual, because it was the case in all the six classes of three different schools which we visited in two weeks. However, this punctual observation does not necessarily imply that there is no tardiness at all. In fact there do not seem to be firm and enforced policies against tardiness and absenteeism on the part of both students and teachers.

This may come as a surprise, but one reason for the lack of tardiness is probably the 'flexibility' in time-use allocation which we have mentioned above. Schools are supposed to start at 7 o'clock a.m., but not all students are there at that time. However, by the time actual teaching starts all students have arrived.

2.2) Efficient use of learning time

Our next point concerns efficiency. Is that one hour of classroom learning time used efficiently? There is an established pattern of teaching strategies, and the content of lessons in all six classes is quite similar. Roughly speaking, it is divided into: explanation, setting of tasks, task correction and non-instructional time. When homework had been given at a previous lesson, it was corrected in class.

Table 2-2-2 Time-Use Allocation

	3rd grade			6th grade		
	SD-W	SD-P	MI-M	SD-W	SD-P	MI-M
Number of students	31(M19F12)	7(M4F3)	11(M8F3)	32(M17F15)	14(M10F4)	22(M11F11)
Length of lesson	68min.	31min.	53min.	64min.	51min.	104min.
Homework correction	No	No	No	54min.	No	No
Explanation	9min.	10min.	6min.	8min.	11min.	11min.
Tasks	32min.	14min.	12min.	No	31min.	32min.
Task correction	14min.	4min.	16min.	No	No	13min.
Non-instructional time	13min.	3min.	9min.	2min.	9min.	48min.
Feedback	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes
Homework	No	No	Yes	Yes	No	Yes

When a teacher enters the classroom, he announces the subject. Then he starts to write the topic on the board and explains it, using the technique of asking questions to the class in order to introduce a new topic. Subsequently he sets tasks which consist usually of five to ten problems from the textbook (drill and practice). During some of the time students are working on their tasks, the teacher walks around the classroom and makes sure that all students are working. On the other hand, most teachers also spent time sitting at their desk, reading books or doing paperwork while the students work.

When most students have finished the problems, the teacher asks students one by one to come to the board and present their answers.

The main part of a class is work on these tasks which takes between 12 and 32 minutes. Thus it occupies quite a large part of learning time, although the quantity of tasks is very limited. It is, moreover, an individual type of work which highlights considerable ability differences between students. Also, contents are monotonous and students tend to get bored easily and lose concentration quickly.

The part of non-instructional time is large, too. Most of this time the teacher is copying the textbook to the board. As he concentrates on copying, students are playing or chatting with friends. This problem may be caused by lack of material. Actually, lack of material and facilities is also what most teachers indicated as the biggest problem when we interviewed them.

2.3) Variety of teaching strategies

It is true that the lack of material and facilities makes teaching difficult, because teachers have to cover the lack through extra-work. However, an adequate supply of material and facilities would not be the only possible solution, because even in the current situation teachers could use the existing equipment in a more efficient and innovative way.

For example, one 6th grade class was studying the notion of scale. When the teacher explained what scale means, he referred briefly to a world map on the wall of the classroom. In the actual event he did not go beyond this reference, but we could imagine ways to use the map further, and make up problems involving the notion of scale in real-world situations. So even if most classrooms do not have more equipment than a map, even this could be used more efficiently.

Indeed, teachers could use a variety of different techniques which do not necessitate extra facilities - class discussion and group work for example. What teachers actually do at the moment is limited to explaining, asking questions, drill and practice, as well as correction.

We can note as a good point that the style of explanation of all teachers was not limited to a mere one-way lecture, but involved the class in question and answer. However, this way of teaching targets primarily the students who understand new problems quickly. It often ignores those who may have problems in following the lesson.

Also, when teachers walk around while students work on their tasks, they merely check if students are working. They do not seem to pay attention if students need help. During the lessons we observed, no teacher stopped to explain something to a student individually. According to our interviews with teachers, their solution for students who experience difficulties in following the lesson is extra homework or other encouraging out-of-class work (for details on teachers, cf. table.2-2-3). Having said this, it should be noted however that four out of the six teachers have a second job. This means they are quite busy, and anyway classrooms are locked at noon. Thus it is difficult to imagine how out-of-class work can be realized.

Table 2-2-3 Teacher Information

	3rd grade			6th grade		
	SD-W	SD-P	MI-M	SD-W	SD-P	MI-M
Age	45	37	51	40	38	60
Gender	M	M	M	M	M	M
Education	D2	D2	D2	D2	SH	PGA
Experience (years)	14/19	17/17	4/10	1/17	17/17	10 /29
Teaching time per day	5H	5H	5H	5H	5H	5H
Time of preparation per day	1H	1H	2H	1H30	1H30	N/A

3) Frequency of Homework

Homework is meant to show students that learning is more than just a classroom activity, and that independent learning is valued. It is difficult to assess the frequency of homework after just one session of observation, but it is at least possible to verify whether the teacher has set homework at a previous lesson and whether he gave homework in the lesson we have been present at.

In the classes where we have observed teaching, three teachers gave homework; but as far as previous lessons are concerned, only one teacher had given homework. This means that three teachers have not given any homework at all on both occasions; but three teachers gave homework.

According to the interviews, all teachers check if students have done their homework, and if not, they make students stand outside the classroom as a punishment. We could only observe one instance, in the 6th grade in SD-W, where the teacher had students exchange exercise-books and correct the answers together in class; afterwards students returned the exercise-books.

Although we had no opportunity to observe other cases of feedback concerning homework, we could examine the feedback for tasks set by the teacher during a lesson (table.2-2-4). There are basically two kinds of feedback: the collection of exercise-books and raising of hands. Some teachers collect exercise-books, check and sign them, then return them to the students. Other teachers just ask if students have done their tasks without fault, then, who has had one, two faults, etc.

Table 2-2-4 Feedback

	3rd grade			6th grade		
	SD-W	SD-P	MI-M	SD-W	SD-P	MI-M
Exercise-book collection	o		o			
Raising of hands		o		o		o

4) Frequency of Student Assessment and Feedback

Monitoring students' work helps teachers diagnose what students know already and where further instruction is needed. Therefore we must pay keen attention if assessment and feedback occur regularly, and in an integrated way, in the classroom, school, and on higher levels of the educational administration. It is also important that feedback to students is immediate at the classroom level and continuous over time.

According to the interviews which we conducted with teachers, three teachers set tests at the end of a chapter in the textbook, and two teachers give tests once a week for the purpose of evaluation. Unfortunately there was no occasion to actually observe a test in class. Schools publish an official final assessment three times a year, i.e. at the end of each term. All schools monitor the results of students, and produce lists containing the achievements of every student. Subsequently they send these records to the higher levels of the educational system.

There is a board in every classroom with a graphic assessment of students' results. This makes ranking visual and is meant to motivate students. However, as the new school year had just started, there was nothing on the boards at the time we visited schools.

5) Conclusion

We can conclude that the primary education system of Indonesia is well established and follows a systematic pattern. Teaching strategies in the six classes we visited were similar, despite differences in school type, size and policies. Teaching strategies are basically intelligent, using a variety of teaching techniques such as a process of explanation involving the entire class, drill and practice, questions, task correction and an adequate feedback.

However, this over all pattern is not primarily designed to address the needs of the class, but rather to follow the required curriculum. We believe that this is one of the reasons why dropout and repeater rates still remain comparatively high in Indonesian schools. This partially offsets the positive development of all children in the village of Wonolelo having the opportunity to enroll in a primary school.

Difficulties in class management are caused by a numbers of different problems, especially the lack of material and facilities and inadequate teacher training. The most immediate concern for the improvement of class management, however, should be motivating teachers to take into account the needs of the class as a whole, including those students who may need additional help.

For basic improvements in class management it is not necessary to look at the lack of materials and facilities, nor the deficiencies in teaching skills. A first step would rather be a change in the evaluation of teachers which at the moment is based entirely on completion of curriculum, not on the quality of teaching. This should increase the motivation of teachers and improve the quality of teaching for all students, especially those experiencing difficulties under the present system.

3-1 Participation

1) Introduction

It is said that a school is effective when student participation is high in terms of daily attendance, continuation and completion. In other to investigate continuation and completion, it is necessary to look at the number of repeating students in each grade level, and the number of drop-outs from each class during the school year and between grades, and also the percentage of students who successfully complete all grades.

The number of repeaters and dropouts was made the focus of the present research in Desa Wonolelo, as the Ministry of Education and Culture pointed out these two facts as the main issues in education in Indonesia.

2) Data for Drop-Outs, Repeaters and Transition to Junior Secondary School

Table 3-1-1 SD-W

Year	Number of Students	Dropout		Repeater		Transition	
		Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
1992/93	--	9	--	--	--	--	--
1993/94	--	10	--	--	--	--	--
1994/95	--	5	--	--	--	--	--
1995/96	201	0	0	--	--	--	--
1996/97	198	--	--	15	8	34	100

Note: -- means not-available.

Table 3-1-2 SD-P

Year	Number of Students	Dropout		Repeater		Transition	
		Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
1992/93	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
1993/94	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
1994/95	69	4	6	--	--	--	--
1995/96	70	0	0	--	--	--	--
1996/97	51	0	0	--	--	--	--

Note: -- means not-available.

Table 3-1-3 MI-M

Year	Number of Students	Dropout		Repeater		Transition	
		Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
1992/93	123	1	1	6	5	7	44
1993/94	117	1	1	4	3	11	48
1994/95	105	2	2	5	5	10	59
1995/96	97	3	3	2	2	11	61
1996/97	94	2	2	1	1	8	44

Note: -- means not-available.

Table 3-1-4 SD-B

Year	Number of Students	Dropout		Repeater		Transition	
		Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
1992/93	78	0	0	13	17	--	--
1993/94	77	1	1	10	13	--	--
1994/95	75	1	1	5	7	--	--
1995/96	75	4	5	5	7	13	100
1996/97	73	2	3	3	4	9	100

Note: -- means not-available.

3) Comparison among Schools

Looking through the data, we can say that it is difficult to find any remarkable difference among schools on this topic. There are several reasons for this. First, we could not get enough information about the numbers of students, dropouts and repeaters and the transition, because some of schools did not keep all the data on them for every year. Secondly, even though they kept the data, they sometimes did not make it clear in the records whether students left schools as dropouts or merely changed schools. Thirdly, as the total number of students was not so large, just one or two dropouts or repeaters could cause big difference in percentage between years and/or schools.

But when we consider the national rate of dropouts, 1.2%, and that of repeaters, 1.7%, it is not only a few students who dropout from school or repeat the same grade in Desa Wonolelo. So we will discuss this topic below not as a comparison but as an overview.

Regarding repeaters, however, it should be noted that the percentage has decreased year by year, as can be seen remarkably in MI-Melikan and SD-Bojong.

4) Reasons and Solutions for Dropouts and Repeaters

According to our interview with the headmasters of 4 schools and the village official in charge of education, the reasons why some students leave school are usually their poor academic performance and/or economic hardship. To improve this situation, the headmasters have tried to have consultations with parents of students who are absent from classes for a long time, or look as though they may drop out of school or repeat the same grade. They said that what they could do for those students was only to explain how education was important for their future. Despite this effort, some parents and sometimes even students do not want to continue schooling. Thus, schooling is dependent upon the students' and parents' will, even though it is compulsory for all school-age children in Indonesia.

We also would like to mention the 'Packet A' out-of-school program for children who do not go to schools. The village officer whom we interviewed said that dropout was not such a serious problem since this program provides primary education out of school.

5) Intention of MOEC

As we already mentioned, MOEC considers the high rates of dropouts and repeaters to be the biggest problem of education of Indonesia. And as the solution for it, MOEC has been introducing some projects through the province, such as the 'School Feeding Program', 'Learning Package Program' and awareness campaigning towards parents. The 'School Feeding Program', especially, is very much emphasized on as one of the most effective solutions. In fact, even in Province D.I.Yogyakarta, for 589 schools (SD/MI), 69626 students, in 127 IDT Desa including Desa Wonolelo, this program has been enforced as the Presidential Instruction Program.

6) School Feeding Program

The School Feeding Program has been in force since the 28th of July 1997, as part of the IDT program, in all the 5 schools in Desa Wonolelo. Students are provided small traditional snacks between 8:45 and 9:00 a.m. three times per week. Members of PKK in each sub-village, where the school was located, prepare those snacks. Each group consists of three to seven women. Members have to decide the menu, purchase materials and cook food, following the manual by the government. They are supposed to buy local materials such like rice, bananas, beans and so forth, in the market. The government provides Rp.250 per student, but this is not enough. SD-Wonolelo has a kitchen to be used for cooking, while in the case of other schools, chiefs of each sub-village provide their own houses. Members start preparing the day before feeding and spend more than 5 hours, up to midnight. Although it looks like hard work, they said it was their national duty and they were willing to contribute their time and effort to improve children's health. It seems that the program is well organized, but it is surely due to their devoted work.

Contrary to the intention of MOEC, the headmasters think that this program may be good for children's health but not for reducing the number of dropouts and repeaters.

We cannot yet say how effective this program is since it has just started. This is a one-year program and will be evaluated by the government after 9 months to see if they should continue it or not. We will have to wait to see the relation between this school feeding program and the number of dropouts and repeaters.

7) Packet A/B Program

There are two out-of-school programs for children who do not go to primary school and junior secondary school. These programs are called 'Packet A' and 'Packet B', and they absorb dropouts also. Packet A is

equivalent to primary school, and Packet B to junior secondary school. Because of the existence of this program, the education and welfare officer of the village does not consider dropout a serious problem. Even if a student drops out from primary school education, he/she might continue education, utilizing Packet A. After receiving the certificate of completion for Packet A, he/she is entitled the same status as primary school graduates. A regulation says that Packet A graduates are allowed to continue their study on to junior secondary school. But in Desa Wonolelo, so far nobody has continued his or her study after finishing Packet A. Their economic situation, ability, and motivation are given as probable reasons. Whatever the reason, Packet A does not seem to help the government's goal of extending compulsory education up to junior secondary school.

The social status of Packet A graduation is relatively low. We had a chance to observe the examination of Packet A and B. By our standards, the examination atmosphere was terrible. It was noisy and disorderly. Students talked to each other while the examination was going on. It is doubtful whether this examination functions as an assessment of achievement. The ability of Packet A graduates may be estimated lower.

8) Conclusion

The biggest problem is that the schools and the village office do not consider dropouts and repeaters to be a problem. Even from the fact that there was no clear data on the number of students who left schools, we may say that these officials did not pay attention to the issue as much as MOEC does, and also that the supervisor does not check data strictly. It is obvious, however, that reducing dropouts and repeaters is the key issue for Indonesia in extending compulsory education from 6 years to 9 years. But the number of dropouts and repeaters will decrease only when teachers, students and parents consider it as an important problem to be solved by them.

3-2 Academic Achievement

1) Introduction

To check academic achievement, we have to look at the following three points:

- ① Literacy—An ability to read and write
- ② Numeracy—A facility with arithmetic
- ③ Problem solving skills—Skills in solving problems

Since it is very difficult to evaluate these abilities of students, especially for foreigners like us, we decided to utilize the score of EBTANAS (Evaluasi Belajar Tahap Akhir Nationale). EBTANAS is the examination held at the final grade of each stage of education such as primary school, junior secondary school and senior secondary school. At the end of every May for primary schools, EBTANAS is held nationwide, and children's continuation to higher education is decided according to the score. Since there is no entrance examination for public schools, EBTANAS is very important for continuation. The reason we decided to utilize NEM (score of EBTANAS) is that this examination is the only one which is comparable nationwide. The examination for primary school students covers 5 subjects: (1) Pancasila Moral education, (2) Indonesian Language, (3) Science, (4) Social Studies, and (5) Mathematics. This is enough to evaluate students' academic achievement. According to our interviews with school teachers, they consider EBTANAS to be very important.

2) EBTANAS scores in Desa Wonolelo

EBTANAS (NEM) scores in this village are shown Tables 3-2-1 and 3-2-2. Unfortunately, the national averages for these years are still not available. According to previous years' statistics, SD Wonolelo's score is close to the national average. So we presume SD Wonolelo's score is the same as the national average.

For both academic years 1996/97 and 1995/96, SD Muhammadiyah Bojong (SD-B) achieved the best score even though this school has the poorest facilities in Desa Wonolelo. This is very impressive. We may be able to conclude that facilities are less important in improving academic achievement.

MI Melikan's achievement is the worst. For religious primary schools, there is another evaluation system of academic achievement for students to continue their study on to the religious junior secondary school. Therefore it is assumed that teachers tend not to pay attention to this exam so much. But the transition rate to religious junior secondary school is not high, either. According to our interviews with the headmaster and teachers, they are trying to improve the NEM scores by having a pre-exam. Therefore, academic achievement of this school appears to be relatively low in Desa Wonolelo.

Table 3-2-1 1996/97 NEM average of each school in Desa Wonolelo

	SD-W	SD-P	MI-M	SD-B	AVERAGE
PPKN	6.84	6.52	6.11	7.54	5.40
BI	6.04	5.15	5.09	6.79	4.61
IPA	5.69	5.31	4.07	5.95	4.20
IPS	4.03	4.42	3.05	5.53	3.41
MAT	4.79	4.98	5.11	6.44	4.26
Total Score	27.39	26.38	23.43	32.25	21.89
Number of Students	34	11	18	9	---

Table 3-2-2 1995/96 NEM average in each school in Desa Wonolelo

	SD-W	SD-P	MI-M	SD-B	AVERAGE
PPKN	7.22	6.76	6.28	7.20	5.49
BI	6.18	5.73	5.44	6.37	4.74
IPA	6.35	5.30	5.21	6.13	4.60
IPS	4.78	4.46	4.33	5.42	3.80
MAT	4.33	3.96	3.39	5.48	3.43
Total Score	28.86	26.21	24.65	30.60	22.1
Number of Students	33	14	18	13	---

*PPKN----Pancasila moral education

BI-----Indonesian language

IPA-----Science

IPS-----Social Studies

MAT-----Mathematics

3) Conclusion: Overemphasis on EBTANAS

The Ministry of Education and Culture sees the major problem of primary school education to be dropouts and repeaters. The Ministry is operating two programs to make enrollment greater and reduce dropouts and repeaters, as mentioned in the last chapter. At primary school education, the enrollment ratio is almost 100%. Therefore the main issue is to reduce dropouts and repeaters. The "School Feeding Program" was especially emphasized as a program for reducing dropouts and repeaters. The Ministry's endeavor on the problems stands out. To assess the consciousness of these problems at the school level, we distributed a questionnaire to headmasters and teachers. The questionnaire was distributed to 4 headmasters and 22 teachers from all four primary schools. The question is "What is your major concern in your school? Please select the three points which you consider the most important." The options are as follows:

- A. Students' Score
- B. Students' Score on EBANAS(NEM)
- C. Students' Social Skills
- D. Daily Attendance
- E. Transition Rate
- F. Dropouts
- G. Repeaters
- H. Enrollment
- I. Reputation of School
- J. Enjoyment of School Life

Table 3-2-3 Priorities of School Education

	SD-W	MI-M	SD-P	SD-B	TOTAL
A) Students Score	5	2	0	0	7
B) NEM	6	2	6	3	17
C) Social Skill	2	3	2	0	7
D) Attendance	2	4	1	0	7
E) Transition Rate	1	3	0	2	6
F) Dropout	0	0	0	0	0
G) Repeater	0	0	0	0	0
H) Enrollment	1	5	1	2	9
I) Reputation	2	1	7	1	11
J) Enjoyment	5	1	7	1	14
Number of Respondents	8	7	8	3	216

Table 3-2-3 shows their priorities of school education. The score of EBANAS is the most important issue. They also consider the reputation of their school very important. Since the reputation can be achieved by getting a good score on EBANAS, these two factors reinforce each other. The priority of 'Enjoyment of school life' is also one of the highest. What is striking is the priorities of Dropouts and Repeaters. Not one respondent selected these among the three most important issues.

Before closing this section, we would like to point out a problem with utilizing NEM to evaluate academic achievement. According to our interviews with teachers, every school in which we did research has some program solely to prepare students for EBANAS. Because of this over-emphasis on EBANAS, students do study only for this exam, especially in 6th grade. They know much about the questions of previous years. As an evaluation of the total ability of students, this test is a problematic. EBANAS does not change its format so much. The back wash of the examination will affect students' study.

4 Contextual Factors

Schools don't exist in an ideal world. In reality, they are embedded in institutional, cultural, social, and political contexts that greatly influence how school factors interact with each other and how effective a school can become. For this reason, we take these factors as one part of the research. Here, the relationship between school and religion, namely Islam, is singled out, and in exploring the reason why students and parents in two neighborhood association of Dusun Wonolelo choose public/religious schools, the effect of Islam on schools will be discussed.

Virtually all of the people in the village are Muslims. Two schools exist near Dusun Wonolelo, one public school (SD-W) and the religious school (MI-M). The latter is farther than the former. After research, we perceived that almost all parents and students prefer SD-W.

MI-M offers many advantages. First of all, its curriculum is more beneficial to students. Students at Madrasah can take general subjects, the same as SD-W. In addition, they can take religious subjects, which seem meaningful for Muslims. Secondly, the reputation of graduates from MI-M is better, especially in terms of the discipline they have and the manner in which they perform. Thirdly, we can say from the discussion above that material factors and the quality of teachers at MI-M are at least the same as those at SD-W. Considering these reasons and the fact that parents, whose idea may be more conservative than those of younger people, always possess the choice of primary school, it is natural to think that MI-M would be more attractive.

In actuality, parents prefer SD-W. By interviewing people living in RT02-03, we could get at least some hints. First, they praise the number of students who can go to secondary school, not the percentage of them. SD-W has the most students in this village, so this school is more capable of sending more students to higher education. Secondly, there is an alternative for religious learning in this village. A cram school called Pungajian is near the dusun, hence the students of SD-W learn general curriculum at public school in the morning, and acquire the knowledge of religion in Pungajian in the afternoon. Thirdly, people there value history and tradition. We can't always assume that the oldest school, like SD-W in the village, is the best school, but nevertheless parents view this as the proxy of the quality of the school.

Fourthly, the geographical situation of school is vital in the dusun. According to the answers on our questionnaire, we realized that almost all of the people there take this as the reason for choosing SD-W. Fifthly, they perceive that there is a difference of job opportunities between public and religious school, even though we were not able to confirm whether this is true or not. Lastly, there is a trend throughout Indonesia now that people with a high educational background are inclined to believe in Islam, and many religious leaders are getting higher education. Therefore, we can say that the general curriculum is getting more and more important in the education of Indonesia.

What can we learn from this argument? It may be possible to say that Islam, though all of people in the village believe in it, is not such an important in the choice of the primary school. In contrast, it can be mentioned that their views of school are rather realistic. Their preference is the curriculum for general subject, not for religious one, and their concerns are about the increase of job opportunities and the distance to school, not about the discipline which students may get. At the same time, it is interesting to note that their judgments are not so rational. They pay attention to the tradition and the size of school, but not much to the current condition of the school.

As a part of our research, it should be noted that these findings are relevant to school quality in various ways. Children with excellent ability may go to SD-W, affecting the composition of students' background and increasing the average points of NEM. Parents may eagerly support SD-W, but not another school, although they may live near it. And these findings may explain the remainder that other parts of our research could not explain.

III CONCLUSION

Universalization of primary education in Indonesia was introduced in 1984 and since then it has been successfully expanded. However there are still quality problems which should be solved, because the poor quality of primary education prevents the achievement of improving the quality of junior secondary education.

In Wonolelo, the SD primary school to junior secondary school transition rate is almost 100%; in other words, most of the students at SD primary school continue to study at a higher level. Their academic

achievement at the time of graduation is at the same level as the national average. Comparing the four primary schools, the score of final tests at the general private school was higher than at the other schools, and that of the religious private school was the lowest. The drop-out rate in Wonolelo is slightly higher than the national average.

We have researched the inputs and process of these four schools and analyzed them to identify cause and consequence.

The community provides financial support to the school. Comparing three schools, the amount of financial support at newer schools is larger than at older schools. Communication between the school and parents and community at newer schools is also more frequent than at older schools.

There is a big difference between the general private school and other schools in their monitoring system and provision of services. In other words, the general private school has the best relationship with the government and gets more financial support. Moreover, the school is not controlled as strictly and has relative autonomy. In contrast, the religious private school is supported by a different education system management structure, and has less autonomy.

Material support is adequate as far as teacher activities, materials and facilities are concerned. Both the quantitative and the qualitative situations at three of the four schools are relatively similar. There is a sufficient number of teachers at each school. The qualification of teachers at all schools is quite high, even compared with the national standard, and teachers have opportunities to receive training in the framework of a well established training system. Although textbooks are not free, which is against the national policy, the distribution rate of textbooks is quite high. The curriculum was renewed in 1994 so that it is still difficult to evaluate, but according to the interview with teachers, the contents of textbooks are sufficient.

At the school level, all elements such as a capable teaching force, time spent in school, expectation of students, positive teacher attitudes, discipline and curriculum, are satisfactory. The situation of all four schools is similar, except for two factors: effective leadership and flexibility and autonomy. Considering these two factors, the general private school has more flexibility and autonomy than the other three schools.

At the class level, there is no big difference between the three schools. As all teachers use the same teaching strategies, it seems that they are following what they learned in the training. Teaching strategies are basically intelligent, using a variety of techniques. However, they are not specifically designed to address the needs of a particular class but rather to fulfil the required curriculum. It should also be mentioned that students were rather passive in their way of learning in class.

Identified school characteristics

School Type	General Public (SD-W)	General Public (SD-P)	Religious Private (MI-M)	General Private (SD-B)
Parent/Community		more involved	more involved	n/a
Education System				more autonomy
Teacher Qualification	high	high	high	n/a
Materials/Facilities	good	good	good	n/a
School Condition				more flexibility
Teaching/Learning				n/a
Participation				
Academic Achievement			lower score	higher score

After all, most of the differences in output among the four schools can be accounted for by the degree of emphasis on decentralization, even though each school may have its own particular problems, and we should

suggest solutions in each factor. Therefore we conclude that the most significant cause which prevents improvement of quality of primary education is limitation of institutional capacity at school level.

Based on this case study, we suggest some recommendations for both the long and the short term. First, institutional capacity should be redistributed to all levels of administration, particularly to the district and school level to make educational administration more effective. Secondly, training for headmasters should be designed to build up the capacity of school management and the ability of strong leadership. Training for teachers also should also be designed to support headmasters. It is necessary to decentralize the existing in-service training to the district level in order to improve competence of teachers. All school staff should be more active. As there are adequate materials and facilities, teachers could utilize them more effectively, if their motivation were increased. Thirdly, supervisor visits should be more regular in order to ensure systematic involvement.

Photo 1 : Students (SD-Wonolelo).

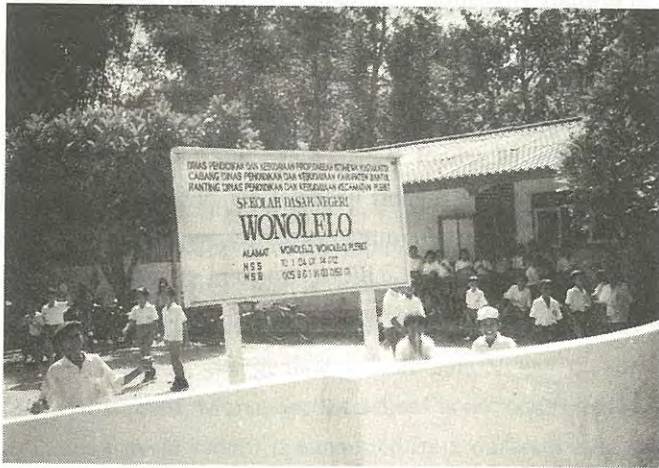


Photo 2 : School feeding (SD-Wonolelo).

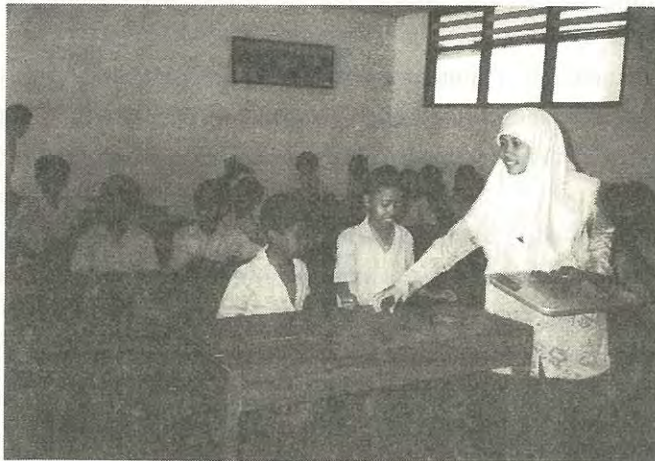


Photo 3 : Interview with students (MI- Melikan).



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Documents and data which were provided by schools in Desa Wonolelo.

- * SD Negri Wonolelo
 - Buku Induk Murid I , II ,III (*Students' background and information book I , II , III*)
 - Daftar Calon Murid Baru (*List of students: newly enrolled*)
 - Murid Keluar (*List of students : going out of school*)
 - Daftar Nilai Latihan EBTA SD 96/97 (*List of pre-final examination scores for primary school*)
 - EBTANAS (*Final national examination scores*)
- * SD Negri Purworejo
 - Buku Induk Murid (*Students' background and information book*)
 - Masuk/Keluar (*List of students: in/out*)
 - Nama / Jabatan / Pelaksanaan Supervisor (*Supervisor's name / position / purpose of viti*)
 - Panitia EBTANAS 96-97 (*Committee of Final national examination 96/97*)
 - Surat Tanda Tamat Belajar (*Certificates for graduates*)
 - Guest Book
- * MI Melikan
 - Buku Pokok (*Students' background and information book*)
 - Buku Daftar Nilai THB (*List of students' scores*)
 - Buku Daftar Hadir Murid (*List of students: absent*)
 - Buku Keadaan Murid (*Book of students' condition*)
 - Data Lulusan Siswa (*List of students: graduated*)
 - Buku Dropaut (*List of students: dropout*)
 - Daftar Mutas Siswa (*List of students; Moving in/out*)
 - Nilai EBTANAS Murni (*Scores of final examination*)
- * SD Muhamadiyah Bojong
 - Jadwal Pelajaran 97/98 (*Course schedule 97/98*)
 - Daftar Calon Peserta (*Students: Newly enrolled*)
 - Keadaan Murid Awal (*Number of students for initial period*)
 - Daftar Nilai Rapor (*List of scores*)
 - TH. Ajaran (*School academic year*)
 - Guest book

The first part of the document discusses the importance of maintaining accurate records of all transactions. It emphasizes that every entry should be clearly documented and supported by appropriate evidence. This includes receipts, invoices, and other relevant documents that can be used to verify the accuracy of the records.

The second part of the document outlines the various methods used to collect and analyze data. It describes how different types of information are gathered and how they are processed to identify trends and patterns. This involves a combination of manual review and the use of specialized software tools to ensure thoroughness and efficiency in the analysis process.

The final part of the document provides a summary of the findings and conclusions drawn from the data. It highlights the key insights gained from the analysis and discusses the implications of these findings for the organization. The document concludes by emphasizing the need for ongoing monitoring and reporting to ensure that the information remains current and relevant.

In addition to the primary data sources, the document also mentions the use of secondary sources to provide context and support for the findings. These sources include industry reports, market research, and other external data that can help to validate the results and provide a broader perspective on the issues being studied.

The document also addresses the challenges associated with data collection and analysis, such as ensuring data quality, handling missing information, and dealing with complex or noisy data. It offers practical advice and best practices to overcome these challenges and ensure that the analysis is as accurate and reliable as possible.

Overall, the document provides a comprehensive overview of the data analysis process, from data collection to final reporting. It serves as a valuable resource for anyone involved in data management and analysis, offering clear guidance and practical advice to ensure the highest quality of results.