# SELF-EFFICACY BELIEFS OF JUNIOR SECONDARY ENGLISH TEACHERS IN YOGYAKARTA PROVINCE OF INDONESIA


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# Declaration

This thesis contains no material that has been accepted for the award of any degree or diploma in any educational institution. To the best of my knowledge and belief, it contains no material previously published or written by another person, except where due reference is made in the text of the thesis.

Signed: ……

Date: ……

MONASH UNIVERSITY ETHICS COMMITTEE

This research project (2006/942) has been granted the approval of the Monash University Standing Committee for Ethical Research on 10 January 2007.

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# Chapter 1 Introduction

## 1.1 Overview

This chapter introduces the issues and contextual background for this research study. Three major areas are covered in this study; teachers' self-efficacy beliefs, teachers' work engagement and the effect of an in-service training program on the level of teachers' efficacy beliefs. I begin by presenting general concepts of teacher efficacy beliefs and exploring the teaching profession in the Indonesian context, including issues related to recruitment, retention and work engagement. The rationale, research objectives and key research questions, as well as the significance of the research will also be presented in this chapter. Finally, the chapter sets out the organizational structure of the thesis.

## 1.2 Background to the study

### 1.2.1 Why do teachers' self efficacy beliefs matter?

Teacher self-efficacy beliefs have received significant and increasing attention over the last three decades. At an early stage, perceived self-efficacy has been defined as people's beliefs about their capabilities to produce designated levels of performance that exercise influence over events that affect their lives (Bandura, 1977a, 1997, 1998). In its development, however, the concept was extended to embrace people's beliefs about their ability to exercise control over events that affect their lives (Bandura, 1989), and extended even further to encompass beliefs in peoples' capabilities to mobilize the motivation, cognitive

resources and course of action needed to exercise control over task demands (Bandura, 1990).

Based on this general definition of efficacy beliefs, teacher self-efficacy has been defined as teachers' judgments about their capability to bring about the desired outcomes of students' engagement and learning, even among those students who may be difficult and unmotivated (Bandura, 1977b; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). In terms of teachers' efficacy beliefs, researchers have come to suggest that these beliefs are held to be instrumental in affecting the effort teachers put into teaching, in setting goals, and in the aspirations teachers have for themselves and their students. However, over the course of the development of research in the field of efficacy beliefs, researchers have arrived at somewhat different constructs of these beliefs. Although there are definitional differences, researchers insist that teacher efficacy is an important dimension of teachers. For example, a high sense of efficacy is considered influential in the teachers' level of enthusiasm for teaching (Alinder, 1994; Guskey, 1984), commitment to teaching (Coladarci, 1992), with highly efficacious teachers tending to exercising higher levels of planning and organization (Alinder, 1994). As well as being willing to persist in dealing with problems and being more resilient in the face of setbacks (Ashton & Webb, 1986), highly efficacious teachers are more open to new ideas and are willing to experiment with new methods (Guskey, 1988; Stein & Wang, 1988). Even though teacher efficacy remains an elusive construct (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001), it

nonetheless appears to be important in the working life of teachers suggesting that it needs to be explored and examined in varying social and cultural contexts.

### 1.2.2 Teaching profession in the Indonesian context

Traditionally, membership of the teaching profession has provided high social status in Indonesia, more particularly in parts of Indonesia like the Yogyakarta province where Javanese culture is dominant. The high social status of teachers is recognized mainly due to their role model functions in the society. Being a teacher in a society such as this does not only refer to the teaching role in the classroom and the school generally, but also to roles played in the wider community. Javanese culture and society look upon teachers as a source of wisdom – as wise members of the society. People, therefore, go to teachers to seek an answer to not only academic problems, but also other problems, such as family and financial problems.

Although the teaching profession attracts high social respect, it does not provide teachers with high financial returns, with the result that teachers are forced to take on additional jobs to support their families. The teaching profession has been rewarded with lower salaries when compared with other professions like lawyers, doctors, nurses, and other government officers. Tomasevski (2002) has commented on the government of Indonesia's implicit policy on teachers saying that the official teachers' salary, like that of other civil servants has been kept low, with minimum working hours that allow teachers to hold second and

third job. She, however, fails to recognize that the work load of teachers remains very high. Apart from their teaching duties, teachers in Indonesia still have to perform administrative work, marking and attend professional development programs.

Furthermore, the teaching profession does not provide high academic recognition for teachers. Although teachers are socially respected, they do not have a privileged status, and are stereotyped as those who are humble, wise but not very smart, and live simply. Rarely do teachers get compliments when their students are successful in their school exams. Instead, parents usually refer to the institution outside the school where their children go for additional tutoring. On the other hand, when students experience low academic achievement, teachers are the first to be blamed. The image of the teaching profession is neither attractive nor prestigious in the eyes of the younger generation. Not many top-ranked students choose to be teachers, so that the stereotype of teachers not being very smart is reinforced. In addition, teachers usually come from low to middle socio-economic background and so look upon the work of those in teaching as an opportunity to secure a professional career.

Based on the job status and tenure, there are three groups of teachers in Indonesia. The first group is the part-time teachers, which is usually an initial position for most teachers in Indonesia. It is also a stepping stone toward a more secure work position as either a government employed or a full-time private teacher. A teaching career usually, though not always, starts from this status,

and teachers might stay for either a very short or a very long period before they get a fixed position either as civil servant or full-time private teachers. Some part-time teachers might get their fixed position before they have completed five years of teaching in this position, but some other teachers might spend more than twenty years in this position. Part-time teachers can work in either public or private schools. This group of teachers earns very little salary, but the expectation of being recruited as government employed teachers prevents them from quitting teaching.

The second group of teachers consists of civil servant teachers who are recruited and paid by the government. Being a government employed teacher seems to be the ultimate pursuit of teachers entering the career in Indonesia. A teacher, however, can only get the position as a government employed teacher after passing the recruitment test conducted every year by the government. While some teachers pass this test on the first occasion they sit it, others might have to sit the test several times before passing it. There are other teachers who, even after several attempts, do not pass the test and eventually due to an age limitation, give up their expectation of getting the civil servant position. These unlucky teachers do not usually quit their teaching jobs, but stay on as either part-time teachers or full-time private teachers.

The responsibility of civil servant teachers, according to Law No. 14, 2005, covers the main duty which consists of planning, executing and evaluating teaching processes, giving academic consultancy and training, and additional

duty that usually deals with administrative work. The item 34 (1) of the law further requires that apart from administrative work, teachers should teach for a minimum of 24 and a maximum of 40 hour teaching over the course of a working week ("Undang-Undang Guru dan Dosen ", 2005). Although being a civil servant teacher does not provide for high financial return when compared to other professions, it does to some extent provide for relatively high social status, especially in non-urban areas and where there is a dominance of people with Javanese cultural background. Civil servant teaching offers a life-long salary package as well as a retirement pension.

The third group of teachers is the full-time private teachers who are employed by a private school or education foundation and usually teach in private schools. As mentioned previously, after spending some time as a part-time teacher or after being unsuccessful in several government teacher recruitment tests, a teacher does not usually stop teaching, but rather continues in a part-time teaching job, or alternatively, works as a full-time teacher in a private school. This however does not necessarily mean that being a full-time private teacher always comes as a final choice. Some teachers begin their teaching career and are intent on teaching in private schools, especially in both academically well-reputed and financially secure private schools. Financially, some private teachers are well-off while others are quite poor, depending on the schools in which they are employed.

### 1.2.3 Recruitment, retention and engagement of teachers in Indonesia

Teacher recruitment is conducted in different ways based on whether the recruitment is done for part-time teachers, full-time private teachers, or civil servant teachers. For part-time teachers, recruitment is conducted by the school based on the subject the recruited teachers are going to be assigned. Although private schools sometimes recruit part-time teachers, the case happens more frequently with public schools. Teachers who are working part-time are sometimes doing something akin to an apprenticeship to prepare them for recruitment into being a civil servant teacher. This is because the amount of time working in a part-time position contributes credit toward the consideration for recruitment of civil servant teachers.

Full-time private teachers are recruited either by private schools or the education foundation with which the schools are affiliated. Though in most cases teachers decide to become private teachers after they get no opportunity to become civil servant, there are cases when teachers decide to become full private teachers from the beginning of their teaching career. This usually happens with those who work in reputable private schools.

Recruitment for civil servants, on the other hand, is conducted centrally by the government each year. Teacher graduates, either fresh graduates or those who have been teaching in the classroom, normally sit the recruitment test in the area

in which they reside. Recruitment is based on the positions available in relation to the various school subjects.

Issues of attrition and turnover among teachers have received important responses nowadays due to the worldwide high incidence. In the USA, for example, Ingersoll has reported that up to fifty percent of teachers leave the teaching profession in the first ten years of their career (Ingersoll, 2001). Li Feng (2005) further emphasizes that among those who stayed, only a quarter retired while half of them left for other careers (Feng, 2005). Teacher turnover and attrition also happens in other western countries with an estimated 25%-40% of beginning teachers leaving their jobs (Ewing & Smith, 2003).

Compared to the number from other countries like USA and other western countries, cases of teachers switching career, or teachers leaving their jobs in Indonesia are not very high. It is also a very rare case that teahers switch career from non-teaching to teaching because being a teacher in the Indonesian context starts very early on in one's educational history. Primary and secondary school teacher education programs require those who want to be teachers to make the decision to take up a teaching career as soon as they graduate from senior high school. When one wants to be a primary or secondary teacher, there is no other way than entering a teacher training college, or a university especially designed to prepare teachers. Because there is an age limit to register into these teacher colleges which are normally owned by the government, the decision to take on a teaching career should be made early.

In addition, teacher retention is not a relevant issue in Indonesia. As explained previously, there are few cases of teachers quitting teaching, except as a result of death or retirement. Once recruitment occurs, cases of quitting teaching due to poor evaluation results are very rare. Although the teaching profession might be as stressful as it is in other countries, it seems that not many people talk about teacher stress and the further effects of the stress on the job of teachers in Indonesia. In most cases, teachers will remain in teaching until retirement no matter how stressful their work becomes.

Unlike teacher attrition and turnover which do not seem to be a significant issue in Indonesia, teachers' work engagement is an important aspect of teachers and is worth investigating. This is firstly due to the fact that quality teachers are viewed to be important assets in the context of education in Indonesia. Furthermore, although the teaching profession traditionally has a high social status in Indonesia, it provides neither high financial satisfaction nor high academic recognition. The term "traditionally" here is meant to refer to the value in the society, especially the society with Javanese culture where teachers are considered to know everything and have social wisdom so that people come to seek for advice for their problems. Secondly, because most teachers stay in the profession the whole of their career life, it is worth questioning whether they are really engaged in the teaching profession. Additionally, the fact that many teachers have other jobs strengthens the importance of investigating their professional engagement.

### 1.2.4 Increase of perceived roles of teachers in Indonesia context

The significant roles of teachers are recognized and demanded in the implementation of the School Level Curriculum. At the initial stage of its development, this curriculum was also called the Competency-based Curriculum which was then the Curriculum 2004 (MoNE, 2003). Since the preparation of this curriculum, teachers have been considered vital not only in conducting teaching in the classroom but also in preparing the lessons. Teachers are considered to know best about the appropriate classroom activities and interaction for the students, more specifically concerning the level of the difficulty with respect to the academic level as well as the needs of the students. This is because teachers are believed to have a better understanding about the special characteristics of their students, the availability of the teaching equipment in the school, and even the support of the society around the school. Teachers, therefore, are assigned new tasks related to the development of materials to be presented in the classroom. This is new because in earlier curricula, they used to implement whatever materials prescribed and provided by the curriculum (MoNE, 2003).

Through the assignment of these new tasks, teachers are expected to be ready not only to decide whatever materials to bring into the classroom but also to take the responsibility for what they have chosen. In doing so, teachers are expected to have access to the power of decision making. More importantly,

teachers are supposedly ready to act autonomously given access to decision making is available for them.

The significant increase in the perceived importance of teachers' roles and function in education in Indonesia is further emphasized through Law No. 14, 2005 concerning the work of teachers and lecturers. In this regulation, the government acknowledges the importance of teachers in shaping and supporting the development of future generations. With this law, the government emphasizes the importance of both empowering teachers and at the same time improving the quality of teachers. This law is designed to support the improvement of access to education, educational quality, relevance and accountability in the face of local, national and global demand (MoNE, 2006). This regulation also promises a better salary package for teachers who are successful in the certification programs.

### 1.2.5 Teacher Professional Development Programs in Indonesian Context

Generally speaking there are three types of professional development programs for teachers in Indonesia, the pre-service, in-service and on-service. Pre-service programs are conducted in a college for teacher education or a university designed specifically to prepare teachers. These programs have experienced significant changes in the past two decades. Up to the beginning of the 1990s, to become a secondary school teacher, one could take a two or three year teaching diploma. Prior to this, a one-year teaching diploma was considered sufficient to

enter into the teaching profession. Since the beginning of 1990s to the beginning of 2000, a teacher has been required to have a four-year teaching degree or a non-teaching degree accompanied by a one-year teaching degree called the *Acta* 4. The *Acta* 4 program was aimed at developing teaching skills based on a particular subject discipline. Furthermore, pre-service programs for student teachers had already been grouped or streamed based on specific school subjects. For example, if one wants to be an English teacher, s/he should enter the English Education Department in a teacher college or university.

The issue of the Teacher and Lecturer Regulation 2005 or *Undang-Undang Guru dan Dosen Tahun 2005*, however, has set a higher standard for teacher quality. In terms of academic preparation, the Law No. 14/2005, has required that to become a teacher one should have a teaching degree or a four-year teaching diploma ("Undang-Undang Guru dan Dosen ", 2005) and hold a professional teaching certificate.

The second type of professional development available for teachers is professional training. This training might include areas such as curriculum, teaching strategies and classroom management, assessment, leadership, and some other areas related to the school subject, for example, speaking and writing skills for language teachers. Such training might also be conducted nationally, provincially, and even within an individual school. In terms of the trainers, provincial and district offices of the Ministry of National Education

(MoNE) usually employ a number of teacher instructors. Trainers can also be from universities.

On-service training is also available for teachers. This type of training is normally done in a narrower scope like schools or group of teachers teaching similar subjects. This training usually focuses more on the implementation of teaching and/or assessment techniques.

# 1.3 Rationale for the study

## 1.3.1 Changing perspectives and philosophies of English teaching in Indonesia

English has become an important foreign language in Indonesia. This perceived importance is recognized by the Indonesian government in the Law No. 20, 2003 concerning the National Education System. Item 36.1.3 of Chapter Explanation of the law, states that foreign languages, in this case English, is an important international language in establishing global relationships. Another part of the law emphasizes the government's awareness of the need for a good education system in global life (Department of Justice, 2003). The importance of the teaching of English is also signaled by the government program that includes English language teaching in the elementary school curriculum. Furthermore, since 2004 the government has established a pilot program to include English in grades four, five and six of elementary school curriculum, especially for schools in cities.

In addition, issues in English teaching in Indonesia have been interesting, especially when concerned with the teaching philosophy, methods, curriculum, assessment and more importantly the students' achievement. In terms of the philosophy of learning English, Dardjowidjojo (2000 in Lee, 2004) has stated that there have been changes in the philosophy of teaching English in Indonesia. These changes have affected the approaches and methods in the English teaching. Lee (2004) has noted several approaches of English teaching implemented in Indonesia, such as Grammar Translation Methods (GTM) widely used from the 1940s to the beginning of 1960s, the Oral-Aural Methods from 1968 to early 1970s, the Audio-lingual in 1975, the Communicative approach in 1984, the Meaningfulness approach in 1994, and the Literacy approach, which is the latest approach recommended in the teaching of English in Indonesia (Lee, 2004). These changes in the approaches do not end the long debate among experts in English teaching in Indonesia concerning the best suited teaching methods for the subjects.

Debates are also common in terms of the curriculum and the assessment implemented in the teaching of English in the country. Curriculum, which normally changes every ten years in the Indonesian context, seems to stimulate a never ending discussion among experts. Among the issues, one concerned with students' achievement seems to be very crucial. This is perhaps because students' achievement is not only the concern of schools, but also the parents, and even the society and the government. The issue of students' achievement

seems to be ever present whenever forums of English teachers are held. Although English has been a compulsory subject at junior secondary school early from the first year or Year Seven, its teaching does not bring about satisfactory result in both learners' communication skills and their English National Exam scores at the end of the junior secondary school period. As reported by the Ministry of National Education, the National Examination national average score of English is 6.61 for junior high school students, which was only 0.60 above the national passing grade standard for year 2005-2006. The issue of low achievement is very often attributed to the changing of curriculum, low relevance in the education program and low quality of teachers.

### 1.3.2 The implementation of the Competency-based Curriculum

In 2002 the Government of Indonesia introduced a draft of a curriculum called the Competency-based Curriculum. There were several shifts in terms of the philosophy and practices in teaching. Among other things was the change in the emphasis to the students' competencies as the focal objectives in the teaching learning process. More specifically, this curriculum highlighted the importance of gaining life skills at the end of a period of instruction, regardless of the debates on whether these life skills had already been parts of the teaching learning processes in the previous curriculum.

A more important change in the work life of teachers as a result of the introduction of the new curriculum is related to the shift in the responsibility of

the teachers, especially in terms of the preparation teachers have had to do. During the implementation of the previous curriculums, Curriculum 1975, Curriculum 1984 and Curriculum 1994, the government, in this case the Ministry of Education, provided teachers with detailed guidelines of the materials, teaching methods, and types of the assessment teachers should use in the classroom. The new curriculum, however, provided teachers with a wider mandate in which they have the right to determine their own teaching materials, teaching methods and assessment that are appropriate for their students. Such a wider mandate was considered a promising practice by some teachers, but was also seen as a burden by many more teachers. The shifting of academic culture from being very dependent on the central government to being more independent was very much overwhelming for many teachers in the country. Although training had been conducted to introduce, socialize and prepare the teachers for the new curriculum, there were still growing concerns on the level of readiness among teachers, especially among teachers in the rural areas.

This concern was even worse due to the fact that the draft of the new curriculum took significant time to be officially launched as the country's curriculum, and also because of the changes that continually happened in the course of its drafting. One example of these changes concerned the naming of the curriculum that always changed before it was officially issued. At the beginning, this curriculum draft was named the Competency-based Curriculum. Then it was the 2004 Curriculum and then the 2006 Curriculum and the *Kurikulum Tingkat*

*Satuan Pendidikan (KTSP),* which literally means the Education Level Curriculum or School Level Curriculum in the Indonesian context. Although the country experts working on the curriculum insisted on competencies as the essential basis of the curriculum, the changing of the names also changed some of the philosophies and practical guidance in the implementation of the curriculum. This uncertainty, to a certain level, stimulated problems among teachers.

## 1.4 Key research questions

The fact that the teaching profession in Indonesia does not provide good academic recognition stimulates interesting questions related to the reasons behind such low acknowledgement. Common beliefs, especially those built by the media, seem to suggest that low academic recognition of the teaching profession in Indonesia is due to low students' achievement which is believed to be mostly caused by the low quality of the teachers. However, such suspicion needs to be tested since student achievement does not solely relate to quality teachers. It is affected by complex interrelated factors comprising the input factors, teaching processes, learning atmosphere, school program, and the curriculum. It is, therefore, important to have a look at what the teachers feel and believe in order to arrive at a more comprehensive conclusion. This study therefore is an attempt to provide empirical data, particularly related to whether the teachers believe that they have the ability to carry out their teaching duties.

In addition, as stated in the previous section, staying in one profession, like the case of teachers in Indonesia, does not guarantee that teachers are engaged in the profession, especially when the profession does not provide them with good financial returns and academic recognition. Furthermore, because of the fact that many teachers in the Indonesian context hold other jobs to support their financial necessities, it is important that this research study also seeks to explore other aspects of the teachers related to their level of engagement.

The changing of practices among teachers from being dependent on the central government to independent due to the changes in the curriculum also raises questions in terms of the level of teachers' efficacy in the implementation of the new curriculum. The contribution of training arranged and conducted by the government, whether it strengthens the teachers' efficacy, is also interesting to investigate. This is because issues related to the improvement of teachers' quality and quality teaching will be the main issues in the future of education in Indonesia.

In trying to provide such empirical data, the present study covers three areas comprising English teachers' self-efficacy beliefs, work engagement and the effects of the Competency-based Integrated training on the teachers' self efficacy beliefs. There are some key questions that this research tries to answer in order to achieve the objectives of the study. Those questions are:

1. What is the level of self-efficacy beliefs among Junior School English teacher in Yogyakarta province in Indonesia?
2. Do factors like gender, age, English teaching background, teacher status, teaching experience, schools and districts affect the level of self-efficacy beliefs among Junior School English teachers in Yogyakarta province?
3. Does teacher training have influence on the level of efficacy among Junior School English teachers in Yogyakarta province?
4. What is the level of work engagement among Junior School English teachers in Yogyakarta province?
5. Is there any relationship between the levels of teachers' efficacy beliefs and the level of work engagement among Junior School English teachers in Yogyakarta province?

## 1.5 Significance of the research

This study is expected to be able to contribute to the body of knowledge related to the teachers' self-efficacy beliefs, particularly by providing findings on such research that include the special context of teachers. Regarding the multi-constructs in the current research on self-efficacy beliefs, it is worth considering how alternative insights may embrace cultural and political aspects of teachers' work.

Nationally speaking, this research tries to provide a consideration of the development of the education system in Indonesia. Pressures currently placed on teachers by both media and the community due to the low level of students'

achievement should be re-examined with the inclusion of the voice of teachers, more particularly about their efficacy and engagement to the profession. It is believed that with this additional dimension, whatever evaluation and judgment is made would be more comprehensive and more importantly fairer.

For the teachers themselves, this research is expected to provide one way of expressing their aspirations, which are rarely taken into account in the Indonesian context. So far a number of government policies addressed to teachers have positioned teachers only as an object without giving opportunities for them to express their views, and feelings about the policies.

## 1.6 Conceptual framework

As discussed in the previous section the teaching profession in Indonesia, especially in Yogyakarta, offers high social status with regard to the respect teachers are afforded by the society. However, the profession is not academically well regarded and teachers are poorly paid for their work. Such a situation is to some extent contradictory for a profession where paradoxical embodiments in relation to social status, academic recognition and financial returns exist. Questions, therefore, would immediately arise regarding the consequences of such a situation. One important consequence relates to the representation of teachers' self in relation to their profession. A further consequence concerns how teachers act in the profession.

Efficacy beliefs and engagement are important aspects of teachers' professional life. Although there are still arguments in terms of the direct relation between efficacy and teacher performance, it seems to be worth anticipating that efficacy and engagement play important roles in the teaching profession. These two factors become even more interesting especially when ability and quality are being questioned while financial return is not sufficient as in the Indonesian context.

One of the sources of efficacy beliefs is mastery experience. Mastery experience is supposedly related to the level of preparation program one has. Efficacy therefore is very likely affected by the amount of preparation program one has in relation to the profession. In terms of teacher efficacy, the kind and amount of professional programs one has taken will potentially influence the level of efficacy. Sense of efficacy might contribute to the level of teacher work engagement as well. There may be a possibility that teachers with a higher sense of efficacy would be more engaged in teaching or vice versa. Levels of efficacy might also be influenced by both internal and external factors. For teachers, internal factors could be in the form of gender differences, age, educational background, teacher status, teaching experience and the particular school subjects they teach. External factors, on the other hand, could be in the form of supports from colleagues and school, as well as from the government.

## 1.7 Definition of terms

Three terms or concepts are crucial to the present study. These are self-efficacy beliefs, work engagement and Competency-based Integrated Training (CBIT).

Self-efficacy has been a fruitful area of research in education for the past two decades. One definition that is used to frame the present research derives from Bandura (1977) and Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001). It is defined as teachers' judgment of their capability to bring about desired outcome of students' engagement and learning, even among those students who may be difficult and unmotivated (Bandura, 1977b; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001)

Work engagement has also been instrumental in research, especially in response to the problems related to teacher retention and turnover. It has also been important area of research in relation to burnout among teachers. The present research study adopts the definition of work engagement proposed by Scaufelli at al. (2002) stating that "work engagement is defined as a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind characterized by vigor, dedication and absorption" (Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzales-Roma, & Baker, 2002)

Competency-based integrated training or CBIT, for short, is an in-service training program designed by the Ministry of National Education (MoNE) of Indonesia as an attempt to socialize the newly issued School Level Curriculum or *Kurikulum Tingkat Stauan Pendidikan* (KTSP) in Indonesia. At the time this research was conducted this curriculum was still in its draft form and was called

the Competency-based Curriculum or *Kurikulum 2004* or *Kurikulum Berbasis Kompetensi* (KBK). The training program, therefore, was called the Competency-based Integrated Training (CBIT). The main purpose of the training was to prepare the teachers for the implementation of the new curriculum. The first part of the materials presented in the CBIT for English teachers focused on the philosophical and psychological bases of Curriculum 2004. The second part provided teachers with the teaching techniques recommended for teaching English in Indonesia. Such techniques were deemed genre-based English teaching. In addition, CBIT also provided training programs aiming to upgrade the competency level of the participants in all areas of speaking, listening, reading, and writing.

## 1.8 The structure of the thesis

As stated in the section concerning the objectives of the study, there are three areas to cover in this thesis. Those areas consist of the level of efficacy beliefs among junior secondary English teachers in Yogyakarta province, their work engagement and the effects of the CBIT in the teachers' self efficacy beliefs. In the presentation, this thesis is organized as follows:

Chapter 2 reviews the literatures that support the present research. It covers three main issues related to teacher self-efficacy, work engagement and professional development. In terms of teacher self-efficacy, this chapter focuses on the conceptual development of teacher self-efficacy beliefs, the sources of efficacy beliefs and changes in self-efficacy beliefs.

Chapter 3 discusses the research methodology used in the conduct of this present study. It covers the research design, population and recruitment of the sample, data collection, and procedure of data analyses. It also discusses the techniques of handling missing data, correlation analysis, and the exploratory analysis conducted on the data.

Chapter 4 presents the quantitative findings collected using the efficacy questionnaires. There are three parts of the analyzed data. Part 1 discusses the findings related to the level of efficacy beliefs among junior secondary English teachers in Yogyakarta province. Part 2 discusses the results of MANOVA statistical analysis concerning the main effects and two-way interaction effects of the demographic data. Part 3 discusses the findings of the repeated measures MANOVA on the effects of CBIT on the teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and Part 4 presents the data related to the level of work engagement among teacher sample collected using the work engagement scale.

Chapter 5 presents the qualitative data collected through both the interview protocol and classroom observation schedule. In report the findings, the researcher organized this chapter in the form of within-cases study case report on the four selected sample for the follow up case study research.

Chapter 6 presents the discussion and interpretation of the findings. Discussion and interpretation in this present study is built on the basis of both quantitative

and qualitative data. Interpretation is framed in the context of education and teaching in Indonesia.

Chapter 7 presents the conclusions, implications, and limitations of the study. It also discusses the future directions for research into teachers' efficacy beliefs.

# Chapter 2 Review of the Literature

## 2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews the theories supporting the conceptual development of the present studies. In particular, three main issues are discussed in this section. The issues deal with literatures related to (a) teacher efficacy as a concept, (b) teacher work engagement, and (c) the effects of professional development on teachers' efficacy beliefs.

Discussion starts by reviewing the two main strands of the concepts together with the other supporting research for the respective strand. The first strand is the concept of efficacy beliefs which draws from the social learning theories and the second from the social cognitive theories. Although this section addresses both strands, it emphasizes one of the strands from which this study is drawn. This section also reviews literatures related to the concept of collective efficacy, changes in self-efficacy beliefs and the relation between teachers' efficacy and students' achievement. More context specific issues and research findings in the field of teachers' efficacy beliefs providing contextual support for the present study are discussed later in this section and are used to build the conceptual foundation specific to the context of the present study.

The work engagement theories reviewed in this section center on the concept developed by Schaufeli and colleagues (Schaufeli, Salanova, Roma, & Bakker,

2002) and will focus on the elaboration of the three assumed factors of the engagement. In addition, this section also reviews one theoretical model of work engagement called the job-resource model, JD-R. The use of this model is important to frame the researchers' discussion and interpretation in the later chapter.

A number of research studies on professional development will also be discussed in this part to gain a sense of the influence of training on the teachers' self-efficacy beliefs as part of the framework for this investigation. The professional development reviewed in this section focuses on teacher training.

## 2.2 The development of teachers' efficacy beliefs: Concepts and measures

The concept of teacher efficacy beliefs was first introduced by the Rand researchers with the work of Rotter (1966) as its theoretical basis. In its development, however, there were two main strands of the concept. The first strand took the Social Learning theories as the basis with the major contribution from Rotter's "Generalized expectancies for internal versus external control of reinforcement". The second theoretical strand was initiated by Bandura (1997) and was based on the Social Cognitive theories. From the two main strands, the researchers developed a construct to measure the level of efficacy and to investigate the aspects of the beliefs and factors related to the beliefs, the development and changes.

## 2.2.1 Teachers' efficacy beliefs: First theoretical strand

As stated previously, the first strand of research in teacher efficacy was based on the Social Learning theories and was triggered by Rotter's article and caught the attention of the Rand researchers and other researchers at that time to further pursue on the field. For these researchers, teachers' efficacy was related to the beliefs of teachers in their reinforcement control over their actions. It was related to whether control of reinforcement was within or outside themselves. High sense of efficacy, therefore, was marked by the beliefs that the control over an event was within themselves, while low sense of efficacy was marked by the overwhelming influenced of the environment on their actions (Armor et al., 1976).

### 2.2.1.1 The Rand Researchers

Rand researchers were pioneers in the teacher efficacy research. In investigating the teachers' efficacy, they used a two-item scale known as the Rand Items. The first item was used to measure teachers' beliefs about the external power of the environment on teaching and was labeled the General Teaching Efficacy (GTE). The second item, on the other hand, was used to teachers' confidence in influencing the results of teaching and was called the Personal Teaching Efficacy (PTE). In the Rand study, teachers' efficacy was governed by the level of teacher agreement with the two items. Low efficacious teachers tended to state that external factors dominated their control over the reinforcement in their teaching.

Highly efficacious teachers on the other hand expressed their beliefs on their ability to control the reinforcement.

In their two publications, the Rand researchers set out an important contribution on the development of teacher efficacy concept. In their report related to the analysis on the preferred reading program, they suggested that teacher efficacy was related to variations in reading achievement (Armor et al., 1976). In the other project related to the programs to support education change, they found that teacher sense of efficacy was related strongly not only with student achievement, but also other aspects of the projects (Berman, McLaughlin, Bass, Pauly, & Zellman, 1977).

In relation to the perceived teacher control over the events that happened to them, a number of research studies with varying degree of success had come to suggest that more internally controlled teachers generally produce a higher level of achievement in their students than do less internally oriented teachers (Rose & Medway, 1981). Despite being the pioneers in the field, their short measure consisting of as few as two items seemed to prompt questions among other researchers in terms of its accuracy and reliability. There was therefore an increasing need to devise more comprehensive measures that could address more aspects of the teacher efficacy construct.

### 2.2.1.2 Responsibility for student achievement

The responsibility for student achievement (RSA) was developed by Guskey shortly after the Rand publication on the analysis of preferred reading programs. In general this scale was aimed at measuring the level of teachers' responsibility for student achievement. In this scale, Guskey (1981) proposed four types of causes of the success and failure of the students. They were the teaching ability, the efforts put into teaching, the task difficulty and the luck (Guskey, 1981). This 30-item scale was in the form of an alternative-weighting procedure in which participants were asked to assign a percentage of weight to every choice out of two alternatives. The alternatives, which Guskey stated to be internal, were designated by an *R*. Positive-even items were indicated by a plus sign and negative items by a minus sign following the *R*. The percentage the participants should assign ranged up to 100% (Guskey, 1981). In his later studies, Guskey made a revision on his RSA scale and reduced the weight assigned to the responses to a 10-point scale (Guskey, 1987).

The RSA scale was scored by averaging the weights assigned to the internal responsibility alternatives across items. Scores resulting from the RSA comprised the overall scores on how much the teacher assumed the responsibility for student outcome, which was the combination of *R*+ and *R*- scores, and two subscale sores on the teacher responsibility for student success, which was the average of the *R*+ scores, and the teacher responsibility for student failure, which was the average of the *R*- scores.

In the comparison between the overall *R*, the *R*+ and *R*- scores, Guskey found their inter-correlation was high because the overall *R* scores represented the averaged sum of scores from the *R*+ and *R*– subscores (Guskey, 1981). On the other hand, Guskey also found that the inter-correlations between the *R*+ and *R*- subscales were weak, only .203. Based on these findings, Guskey claimed that instead of being at two opposite ends of a single continuum, the positive and negative performance outcomes represented two separate dimensions and operated independently in their influence on the perception of self-efficacy (Guskey, 1987). Further, Guskey also believed that the use of the *R* score alone without taking the scores of the two separate subscales was inadequate.

### 2.2.1.3 Teacher Locus of Control

At the same time as the RSA was developed by Guskey in 1981, a 28-item scale of teacher locus of control was developed by Rose and Medway. This forced-choice scale was developed to measure the level of elementary school teachers' perceptions of control in the classroom (Rose & Medway, 1981). These 28 items consisted of 14 items describing student success and the other 14 describing student failure. Both the success and the failure situations were given two explanations, one attributed the positive outcome internally to the teacher (I+) and the other assigned responsibility outside the teacher (I-).

In using the scale, Rose and Medway asked the teacher participants to assign responsibility for student success and failure by choosing one of the two competing explanation for a situation (Rose & Medway, 1981). Due to the

previous findings suggesting that teacher attributions of causality were dependent on the nature of classroom and performance outcomes, separate scores were obtained for success and failure situations.

Rose and Medway reported that the TLC scale was internally consistent and yielded a higher correlation with classroom teaching behavior than the more generalized Rotter's I-E scale. In addition, because TLC was more classroom specific, It was more predictive than the Rotter's I-E scale (Rose & Medway, 1981).

#### 2.2.1.4 The Webb's Scale

The Web scale was developed at the same time as the RSA and TLC were developed. It was introduced by Webb and his colleagues and was proposed as an attempt to expand the reliability of the Rand items. Besides, it was also aimed to extend the measure of teacher efficacy while maintaining a narrow conceptualization of the construct (Ashton, Olejnik, Crocker, & McAuliffe, 1982).

### 2.2.2 Teacher efficacy belief: Second theoretical strand

#### 2.2.2.1 Social cognitive theory and self-efficacy

As it is evidenced that the second strand of the self-efficacy concept was based on the social cognitive theories, it is worth looking at how the concept of efficacy beliefs was drawn from such theory. Albert Bandura, who has been at the frontier of the development of self-beliefs research, had invested the initial theoretical

foundation of self-efficacy beliefs. In his Social Cognitive theory he assumed that the capability of human agency operates in a triadic reciprocal causation (Bandura, 1986). In this model, human functioning was viewed as being influenced by the dynamic interplay of personal factors in the forms of cognition, affect and biological events, behavioral factors, and the environment. Further, this multi-directional reciprocal causation suggested that the individual agency was a product of a combination of three interrelated forces of environmental influences, human behavior and internal factors as well as biological processes. By stating that an individual is simultaneously an agent and an object, social cognitive theory rejects the previously proposed dualistic view of self, as an agent when they act on the environment and an object when they reflect and act on themselves (Bandura, 1997).

Central to Bandura's Social Cognitive theory was the concept of self-efficacy which was originally defined as a specific type of expectancy related to one's beliefs about one's ability to perform a specific behavior or set of behaviors required to produce a certain outcome (Bandura, 1977b, 1982, 1986). However, the concept was extended to people's beliefs about their ability to exercise control over events that affect their lives (Bandura, 1989), and was further extended even to embrace the beliefs in their capabilities to mobilize the motivation, cognitive resources and course of action needed to exercise control over task demands (Bandura, 1990). Self-efficacy was, therefore, not just self-judgment of what one could do with whatever skills one possessed (Bandura, 1977a), but more

specifically, it was a perceived self-efficacy of people's beliefs about their capabilities to produce designated levels of performance that exercise an influence over events that affect their lives (Bandura, 1998). Further these beliefs determined how people feel, think, motivate themselves and behave.

Self-efficacy was considered a key factor in human agency, because it is such an influential drive in the individual. If an individual had adequate power to produce an outcome s/he would invest efforts to make things happen. This would not happen with a person who believes that they have no power to produce an outcome. Efficacious people would keep on trying, and find an alternative when they experience difficulties. Less efficacious people, on the other hand, would give up easily when facing problems. In addition, Bandura suggested that self-efficacy beliefs affect behavior through four mediating processes (a) goal setting and persistence, (b) affect, (c) cognition, and (d) selection of environment and activities (Bandura, 1986, 1989, 1990). Self-efficacy beliefs also affected people in choosing goals and goal-directed activities, expenditure of efforts and persistence in facing challenges and obstacles (Locke & Latham, 1990).

In terms of the degree of self-efficacy beliefs, Bandura asserted that they vary in three dimensions of magnitude, strength, and generality (Bandura, 1977, 1982, 1986). Magnitude refers to the number of steps of increasing difficulty or threat a person believes s/he is capable of performing. People might have different levels of self-efficacy depending on the situation they are in, more particularly depending on the level of stress and anxiety they experience. Self-efficacy also

differs in terms of its strength of expectancy. Self-efficacy might be higher when people are so convinced in what they are capable of doing, but lower when they were less confident. Self-efficacy also varies in the extent to which success or failure experiences influence efficacy expectancies in a limited specific manner to other similar behaviors or contexts. This was what Bandura (1986) and Smith (1989) in Maddux (1995) referred to as the generality dimension of self-efficacy.

### 2.2.2.2 Bandura's conception about teachers' self-efficacy beliefs

Bandura (1986, 1988) and Maddux and Meier (1995) share the beliefs that teachers' self-efficacy beliefs influence the affective or emotion in two domains, the type and intensity of the emotion (Maddux, 1995). O'Leary and Brown (1995) in addition also suggest that teachers' efficacy beliefs also contribute to the teachers' control over emotional responses. In terms of human cognition, self-efficacy beliefs have influences in four ways; through the goals they set for themselves, the plans and the strategies to achieve the goals, the development of rules for predicting and influencing the events, and the efficiency and effectiveness in solving problems (Bandura & Jourden, 1991 in Maddux, 1995). Teachers' self-efficacy beliefs will also determine the kind of environment they will enter and the kind of activities they will choose to do or not to do (Bandura, 1989; Taylor & Brown, 1988).

Bandura (1997), in relation to the teacher self-efficacy constructs, suggested that it was not necessary to have a construct which is uniform across various types of teaching tasks. Based on this he proposed a seven sub-scale measure of self-

efficacy consisting of 30 items. The subscales are (a) Efficacy to influence decision making, (b) Efficacy to influence school resources, (c) Instructional efficacy, (d) disciplinary efficacy, (e) efficacy to enlist parental involvement, (f) efficacy to enlist community involvement, and (g) efficacy to create a positive school climate (Bandura, 1997)

Bandura's concept of efficacy beliefs has received attention and framed much recent research in teachers' self-efficacy beliefs, including the present research on the junior secondary school English teachers' self-efficacy beliefs in the Indonesian context.

### 2.2.2.3 Ashton and Web's teachers' self-efficacy construct

In line with the general definition of self-efficacy beliefs, researchers had also invested much work into investigating what teachers' self-efficacy beliefs were. Ashton and Web (1986) were among these researchers. Although they still subscribed in part to the concept of internal/external control, they started to implant the principles of Bandura's efficacy in their research. In their project entitled 'Making a difference', they classified efficacy beliefs as having two dimensions, the sense of teaching efficacy and a sense of personal teaching efficacy . Teachers' sense of teaching efficacy is teachers' beliefs that teaching does matter so that teaching can influence students' learning. Teachers with a high sense of teaching efficacy believe that all students can learn and in spite of many obstacles, teaching can indeed affect students' learning performance. In contrast, teachers with low sense of teaching efficacy are preoccupied by the

belief that some students cannot learn and will not learn in school, so that there is nothing teachers can do to affect their learning.

The second dimension of teachers' efficacy beliefs is the teachers' personal teaching efficacy. This is the dimension that many researchers refer to as the teachers' self-efficacy beliefs. This dimension concerns the teachers' self assessment on their own teaching competence (Ashton & Webb, 1986). It is teachers' perceptions about the extent to which their ability can influence students' learning. The level of teachers' personal teaching efficacy is influenced by their beliefs on their own assessment of teaching-related duties, such as their perceived ability in managing the class, applying certain instructional strategies, and engaging students.

Teachers with a high sense of teaching efficacy will not necessarily have high personal teaching efficacy as well. There is possibility that teachers with high sense of teaching efficacy will be less efficacious. These teachers believe that teaching does matter in influencing students' learning but they believe that they do not have adequate abilities to make it happen. On the other hand teachers with low sense of teaching efficacy might have high level of personal teaching efficacy. What happens is that these teachers simply believe that no matter how able they are in teaching, some students will not learn because they cannot learn.

### 2.2.2.4 Ashton's vignette

As an attempt to address the assumption that teacher efficacy was context specific, Ashton and her colleague devised norm-referenced vignettes describing situations a teacher might encounter in their teaching duties (Ashton & Webb, 1986). Using these vignettes, they also asked teachers to make judgments on their effectiveness in handling the situations. Two frameworks of judgement were tested in this research. The first was developed by asking the teachers to rate their performance on a scale from extremely ineffective to extremely effective. The second judgement was made by asking teachers to compare their performance to those of other teachers. They had to judge themselves from much less effective than most teachers to much more effective to most other teachers.

### 2.2.2.5 The Gibson and Dembo's teacher efficacy scale

In the early 1980s, when early researchers on efficacy worked on the development of the efficacy construct, Gibson and Dembo developed the teacher efficacy scale (TES) (Gibson & Dembo, 1984). Although it was built on the formulation of the Rand studies, it was also underpinned conceptually by Bandura's model of self-efficacy. TES was a two-factor scale consisting of 30 items developed to measure teacher efficacy. These factors were personal teaching efficacy and teaching efficacy. According to Gibson and Dembo (1984) the two factors reflected the two expectancies of Bandura's social cognitive theory. The first factor, the personal teaching efficacy was seen to reflect the self-

efficacy, while the second factor, the teaching efficacy reflected the outcome expectancy (Gibson & Dembo, 1984).

Other researchers are still working on teacher self-efficacy beliefs using slightly different perspectives on what teachers' efficacy is. Some researchers suggest that teacher self-efficacy is teachers' judgment of their capability to bring about a desired outcome of students' engagement and learning, even among those students who may be difficult and unmotivated (Bandura, 1977b; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). It is not the beliefs on what to teach but the beliefs on the ability to execute specific teaching-related tasks. Rand researchers defined teachers' efficacy as the extent to which teachers believe that they could control the reinforcement of their actions that is whether control of reinforcement lies within them or the environment (Armor et al., 1976). There are even differences among researchers in terms of using the terms for this belief. Some use terms like general teaching efficacy (Ashton et al., 1982) or simply teaching efficacy (Gibson & Dembo, 1984; W. K. Hoy & Woolfolk, 1993) and personal teaching efficacy (Ashton & Webb, 1986; Gibson & Dembo, 1984) or simply teaching efficacy (W. K. Hoy & Woolfolk, 1993).

### 2.2.2.6 The Ohio State teacher efficacy scale (OSTES)

The Ohio State teacher efficacy scale (OSTES) was initiated and developed in the College of Education at The Ohio State University by Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). It was developed as a response to problems related to the lack of use and generalizability of the existing measures.

Tschannen-Moran and Hoy argue that to be useful and generalizable teacher efficacy measures should have the ability to address teachers' assessment of both their competence across the wide range of activities and tasks they are asked to perform (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001; Tschannen-Moran, Hoy, & Hoy, 1998).

In its development, the OSTES had been tested through three studies ending up with the examination of the factor structure, reliability and validity of the new measure. From the original 52-item scale at the first study, it resulted in a measure of a 24-item long form version and 12-item short form OSTES (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). The both the 24-item and 12-item scales measure three aspects of teaching tasks teachers required to perform in teaching. Those three aspects are the efficacy for instructional strategy, classroom management and student engagement.

## 2.3 New perspective on teacher efficacy research

Although many research studies have suggested the positive influences of teacher sense of efficacy on teaching quality in general, especially related to teachers' behavior in the classroom (Alinder, 1994; Coladarci, 1992; Guskey, 1984) teachers' attitude about teaching (Berman et al., 1977; Guskey, 1988; Stein & Wang, 1988), the way teachers refer to students (Ashton & Webb, 1986; Meijer & Foster, 1988; Soodak & Podell, 1996), and the ways to cope with problems (Gibson & Dembo, 1984), a different direction of teacher efficacy research has become apparent. Researchers seem to have begun exploring a new perspective

on efficacy research. Some research, for example Wheatley's (2000), explores the possible contribution of teacher efficacy doubt, and other research by Schaufeli and Salanova (2007) investigates teacher inefficacy, rather than efficacy, in relation to the burnout and work engagement.

Karl F. Wheatley (Wheatley, 2000, 2002, 2005), proposed a challenge to the importance of high sense of efficacy beliefs. In the context of teacher reform, he expressed his doubt on the level of efficacy beliefs that would really contribute to the success of any teacher reform program. In one of the articles he even stated the possibility of positive teacher efficacy as an obstacle to education reform (Wheatley, 2000). He started questioning the potential support of positive efficacy beliefs for education reform raising problems related to the ways in which teacher efficacy can promote reform in education.

> However, it is not evident how to develop teachers' efficacy beliefs so as to promote reformed classroom teaching. The success of intervention effort aimed at changing teacher efficacy and teaching practices continues to be modest … (Wheatley, 2000).

Wheatley (2000) further suggests that positive efficacy is an obstacle especially when it concerns the reform in education. His research introduces a new argument on the influences of teachers' efficacy doubts on the educational practices. He also suggests that it is efficacy doubt that has potential benefits on educational reform. According to Wheatley, efficacy doubts may support and enhance the professional learning of teachers, foster teacher reflection, support motivation to

learn and responsiveness to diversity as well as promote productive collaboration (Wheatley, 2000).

Schaufeli and Salanova (2007) investigate the relation between efficacy and burnout in teachers. In the research, they challenged the traditional view that lack of efficacy is a dimension of teacher burnout. They instead proposed to investigate the case by constructing an inefficacy scale, instead of a reverse version of efficacy scale, one used by Maslach, Jackson and Leiter (1986) to capture the real meaning of burnout.

Such new efforts open an opportunity to come up with different research direction and research findings on the issue. Such different findings will also provide new perspectives on how researchers should teachers' self-efficacy beliefs.

## 2.4 Sources of teachers' efficacy beliefs

Although there are differences in the terms for the concept of teacher self-efficacy beliefs used by researchers, there seems to be a shared idea concerning the source of the beliefs. A common understanding comes to suggest that self-efficacy beliefs develop from four principal sources of information: enactive mastery of experiences that serve as indicators of capability; vicarious experiences that alter efficacy beliefs through transmission of competencies and comparison with attainments of others, verbal persuasion and allied types of social influences that one possesses certain capabilities; and physiological and affective states from

which people partly judge their capableness, strength and vulnerability to dysfunctions (Bandura, 1997).

Enactive mastery experience according to Bandura (1997) derives from experiences of success, while failures, on the other hand, undermine sense of efficacy beliefs. Experience of success does not necessarily mean without difficulties. Bandura further states that when people experience easy successes all the time, they will be easily discouraged when facing problems because they expect quick results. Strong resilient efficacy beliefs require the ability to solve problems through perseverant efforts. That is why easy successes do not support the development of one's efficacy beliefs. Difficulties, on the other hand, do. This is because difficulties provide people with experiences to learn how to turn failure into success by exercising better control over the events.

The second source of efficacy beliefs is vicarious experience which is mediated by modeled attainment (Bandura, 1997). Individual beliefs in his or her ability can be promoted by an existing successful model. The more aspects individual have in common with the referral model, the more vicarious effect the model has on the individual. Although vicarious experiences are said to be not as strong as mastery information, it indeed contributes to boost one's confidence in the ability of doing something, more particularly when there is a doubt with respect to the amount of success one might get. When one doubts his ability of achieving success in a certain activity, successes of a referral model will lessen the doubt, thus increase the efficacy beliefs. That is to say that vicarious experience will

have its highest effect when the amount of uncertainty of the individual is most. When an individual has no prior success on certain ability, s/he will tend to look at relevant model to base on his/her efficacy judgment. Mixed experiences of success and failure are also conditions of vicarious experience effects. In this case continuous appraisals from the environment might be needed to boost the efficacy beliefs.

The third source of self-efficacy beliefs is verbal or social persuasion (Bandura, 1997). Although the power to strengthen efficacy sense is not as strong as enactive experiences or the vicarious experience, one's sense of efficacy is indeed strengthened when there are others who persuade verbally that one has the ability to do a certain task. Verbal persuasion usually takes the form of evaluation feedback. When people are told that they have the capability of doing some task regardless of the problems, they usually build the sense that they are capable of doing it based on the feedback. Feedback is usually given in indirect and subtle ways so that it lifts the sense of confidence.

The last source of efficacy according to Bandura (1997) is the physiological and emotional states which convey the somatic information. In terms of physiological states, people tend to consider their fatigue, windedness, aches and pains as indicators of inefficacy, especially in health functioning and activities involving strength and stamina. Furthermore, people often perceive low sense of efficacy when they have to do physiological activities in stressful and taxing situation.

And they, therefore, consider the stressful and taxing situation as signs of vulnerability or dysfunctions (Bandura, 1997, p. 106).

In addition to the four sources of efficacy beliefs, Maddux (1995) had listed another source of efficacy beliefs in addition to the above four sources, the imaginal experience. Imaginal experience, in Madux's term, is an extension of Bandura's term for vicarious experiences. These experiences are needed particularly when models are not practical or unavailable. When this is the case, imagining oneself or others overcoming problems or difficult situation will be useful information to develop sense of efficacy beliefs. Practical examples of these experiences are used in cognitive therapy used to deal with anxiety or fear problems (Beck & Emery, 1985 in (Maddux, 1995) and in the interventions to increase assertive behavior and self-efficacy for assertiveness (Kazduin, 1979 in Madux, 1995). Further, Madux, supporting Bandura's and other researchers, also states that these sources of efficacy differ in their power to influence the self-efficacy beliefs (Bandura, 1977a, 1982, 1986, 1997; Maddux, 1995; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001).

More recently, research has also suggested some other practical aspects of teacher life that might provide supports to the development of teachers' efficacy beliefs. Although researchers did not claim these them as sources of efficacy, they believed that they were potential in enhancing the level of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs. Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2002), for example, suggest that the

availability of resources and parents' supports has a significant influence on teachers' efficacy, especially that of new teachers.

> The availability of resources and the support from parents are two elements of support that are related to teachers' sense of efficacy. Because of the traditional isolation of teaching profession, and the dearth of meaningful feedback from administrators in traditional supervisory practices, perhaps it is not surprising that teachers do not look at these as primary sources to inform their efficacy judgments (M. Tschannen-Moran & Anita Woolfolk Hoy, 2002).

Milner and Hoy also found that respect and collegial support have contribution to the development of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs (Milner & Hoy, 2002). Goddard, Hoy and Hoy (2004), also believed that positive collective efficacy would contribute positively on teachers' self-efficacy beliefs. In supporting to the previous research findings on the influence of the organizational aspects of the school such as school climate, impediments to effective instruction and teacher empowerment (Moore & Esselman, 1992), and principal influence and academic press to school (W. K. Hoy & Woolfolk, 1993), they identified strong influence of collective efficacy beliefs to teachers' sense of efficacy. "… a school culture of perceived collective efficacy may exert a strong influence on teachers' sense of efficacy for instruction (Goddard, Hoy, & Hoy, 2004, p. 9)"

## 2.5 Collective efficacy

Just as personal efficacy is a very important indicator of individual behavior, social efficacy of a certain group sharing a collective interest is also important since an individual is bound to be a social member. Similarly, Bandura insisted on

the importance of collective efficacy since it is the nature of the individual neither to live in social isolation, nor to exercise control over her/his whole life entirely on her/his own. He further said that many of the challenges in life are due to common problems that require people to work collectively to cope with them (Bandura, 1997, p. 477). This leads to the importance of collective efficacy beliefs, a beliefs system reflecting the beliefs of group members regarding their performance capability as social members as a whole (Goddard et al., 2004).

For teachers, perceived collective efficacy is their judgment about their capability as members of a group in the school to perform the course of action required to bring positive effects on students' achievement. Teachers' collective efficacy beliefs are important because their interaction with other aspects of school is a part of the significant factors affecting students' outcome (Goddard et al., 2004). Collective efficacy beliefs to some extent also contribute to the level of efficacy among individual teachers, although some research also suggests a different provenance where the success of certain group members induces the sense of efficacy of other members. This is true especially when talking about collegial support in the development of teachers' personal efficacy beliefs (Milner & Hoy, 2002). Collective efficacy beliefs, therefore, will also contribute to the development of teachers' personal efficacy beliefs because this collective efficacy will theoretically provide vicarious experience that might stimulate a function of role modeling to other teachers, especially beginning teachers. When a role

modeling in the group is well developed collective efficacy will be an adequate support for the growth of personal teachers' efficacy among beginner teachers.

Collective teacher efficacy beliefs are said to contribute to the enhancement of teachers' sense of efficacy, especially in mediating the reinforcement of teacher individual self-efficacy beliefs. Little and Madigan in (Goddard et al., 2004) suggested that collective efficacy among teachers is a positive indicator of teacher effectiveness due to its facilitating effect on performance.

Collective teacher self-efficacy beliefs are also an important aspect of teacher professional development and learning, more particularly in supporting the development of teachers' individual efficacy beliefs. Communication among teachers, for example in teacher training or other professional development and professional learning contexts will bring about model as well as feedback for the participating teachers. The conceptual basis of the role compatibility of the development of collective efficacy belief with that of individual efficacy is suggested by Bandura (1997) who says that "... perceived personal and collective efficacy beliefs differ in the unit of agency but in both forms, efficacy beliefs have similar sources, serve similar functions, and operate in similar processes" (p.478). It is therefore theoretically proper to say that when collective efficacy beliefs develop, personal efficacy does, too.

## 2.6 Changes in self-efficacy beliefs

Bandura (1977, 1997) theorized that self-efficacy may be most malleable early in learning. He, therefore, has suggested that the first years of teaching could be critical to the long term development of teacher efficacy. This is supported by the findings suggesting that some of the most powerful influences on the development of teachers' sense of efficacy are experiences during student teaching and induction year (Mulholland & Wallace, 2001).

In a longitudinal research on the changes of teacher efficacy during the first years of teaching, Hoy and Spero (2005) found a similar patterns and changes over time. Using both Gibson and Dembo' short form scale and Bandura's teacher efficacy scale, they found that "… efficacy rose during teacher preparation program but fell with the actual experience as a teacher " (A. W. Hoy & Spero, 2005, p. 352). Hoy and Spero further argue that the decrease in efficacy is because novice teachers very often underestimate the complexity of the teaching task and their ability to manage many agendas at the same time. Such a decrease is also caused by their disappointment with the gap between their standard and their own teaching performance (A. W. Hoy & Spero, 2005).

In terms of the factors contributing to changes in efficacy beliefs, social cognitive theory proposes that behavior, cognitive and other personal factors, and the environment interact to influence each other through the process of reciprocal determinism (Bandura, 1986, 1997). More recently, Tschannen-Moran, Hoy and Hoy (1998) have suggested that although early years of teaching might be critical

for developing efficacy beliefs, little is known in relation to the kinds of context variables that contribute to teacher efficacy. They further state that teaching resources and constraint in teaching help teachers to make their own efficacy judgement. In addition, Hoy and Spero (2005) found that the level of support received by teachers in their first year of teaching was related to the changes of their level of efficacy.

Though, it is possible for teacher efficacy to change along with the amount of time teaching, there seems to be a shared belief that once it has been established it will relatively be stable. Teachers' self-efficacy potentially decreases during first year of teaching and then gradually rises with the amount of teaching and then relatively stable after a certain amount of time in teaching.

## 2.7 Teacher efficacy beliefs and students' achievement

Although there has been evidence convincingly show the direct relation between teacher efficacy and students' achievement, there has been a number of research suggesting that there is a link between teacher self-efficacy and students' achievement. For example, Midgley, Fedlaufer and Eccless found that there is a relation between the levels of teacher efficacy with the levels of students' achievement. They found that teacher efficacy beliefs have stronger effects on low achieving students than on high achieving students (Midgley, Feldlaufer, & Eccles, 1989, p. 256). They further believed that this is because of the tendency of

assigning teachers with low level of efficacy to low achieving students. In this case, it supports the previous findings (Ashton & Webb, 1986).

In terms of the mechanism of impact of teacher self-efficacy on students' achievement, researchers have suggested that it was the effort teachers invest in teaching, the level of aspiration, and the goal they set that provide the most significant effects of efficacy on students' achievement. For example, Allinder (1994) speculated that teachers with high level of efficacy greater levels of planning and organization. In addition, teachers with higher level of efficacy tend to be more open to new ideas, more willing to experiment with new methods (Guskey, 1988; Stein & Wang, 1988), and more committed to teaching (Coladarci, 1992). Higher efficacious teachers also increased teachers' persistence and resilience when facing problems (Gibson & Dembo, 1984) and made teachers less critical to students (Ashton & Webb, 1986), and put more efforts with students who were struggling (Gibson & Dembo, 1984).

## 2.8 Teachers' work engagement

Issues in teacher work engagement attract important consideration in research nowadays. This is due to the belief that work engagement contributes to positive consequences for both individuals and organization (A. B. Bakker & Bal, 2006). On the other hand, it is a fact that in western countries, career turnover and attrition is high in the teaching profession compared to in other professions (Ingersoll, 2002). Similarly, Pillay, et al. (2005) found that 25% to 40% of

beginning teachers in Western countries are either leaving their job or are burned out (Pillay, Goddard, & Wilss, 2005).

Although issues in work engagement among teachers are increasingly important, research in the field seems to be undeveloped compared to issues on engagement in other professions or issues about other professional characteristics of teacher profession. Engagement among teachers was initially connected to teachers' professional commitment (Buchanan, 1974; Deci & Ryan, 1985; Kanter, 1968; Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982). In their early discussion, teachers' commitment was defined as affective attachment to goals or values (Buchanan, 1974), psychological bond or identification of individual to an object (Kanter, 1968), and intrinsic or internal motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Hackman & Oldham, 1980).

There is, however, a more recent development in the direction of research in teachers' work engagement. Schaufeli and colleagues, for example, looked at work engagement as a different construct and defined it as a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind characterized by vigor, dedication and absorption (Schaufeli et al., 2002). *Vigor* is characterized by high levels of energy and mental resilience while working, the willingness to invest effort in one's work and persistence in the face of difficulty. *Dedication* is ones' sense of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration, pride and challenge. *Absorption* refers to the state in which one is highly concentrated and happily engrossed in works so that s/he feels time passes quickly and it is difficult to detach from work. Engaged teachers, therefore, feel strong and vigorous at work, enthusiastic and optimistic

about the work they do and are very often immersed in that work (Schaufeli et al., 2002). Further Schaufeli et al. (2006) stated that work engagement is not a momentary and specific state, it is a more persistent and pervasive affective-cognitive state that is not focused on any particular object, event, individual or behavior.

Kirpatrick (2007) has argued that empirical studies have revealed that job engagement is associated with various positive behaviors and outcomes for both employees and the organization. Other researchers had suggested that the level of work engagement in general is affected by personal characteristics, the workplace (Brown, 1996; Kahn, 1990) and the characteristics of the work, including job status and job demands (Mauno, Kinnunen, & Ruokolainnen, 2007). Teachers' engagement might be affected by their personal characteristics like identity, self-esteem, and the sense of efficacy. Therefore, teachers with clearer identity, higher self-esteem, and higher sense of efficacy tend to be more engaged in their job (Mauno et al., 2007).

Practically speaking, teachers' work engagement can include the level of energy and efforts teacher put into teaching, the commitment teachers have to teaching and the amount of time teachers spend in teaching. As research has suggested that efficacy affects commitment to teaching (Coladarci, 1992; Evans & Tribble, 1986), persistence and resilience (Ashton & Webb, 1986), the amount of time and efforts dedicated to teaching (Burley, Hall, Villeme, & Brockmeier, 1991; Gibson & Dembo, 1984; Glickman & Tamashiro, 1982), greater enthusiasm for teaching

(Alinder, 1994; Guskey, 1984; Hall, Burley, Villeme, & Brockmeier, 1992), it is, therefore, certain that self-efficacy is a predictor of teachers' work engagement.

### 2.7.1 Job Demands-Resources Model and teacher work engagement

Job Demands-Resources model or JD-R (A. B. Bakker, Demerouti, Boer, & Schaufeli, 2003; A. B. Bakker, Hakanen, Demerouti, & Xanthopoulou, 2007; Hakanen, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2006; Mauno et al., 2007; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004) is a model that commonly used in researching work engagement and burnout in a profession. According to this model, there are two broad categories of work characteristics in every profession. They are job demands and job resources.

Job demands are related to physical, psychological, social, and organizational aspects of the job that require sustained physical and/or psychological efforts that lead to certain physiological and/or psychological costs (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001, p. 501). Although they are not necessarily negative, job demands, i.e. excessive work load, role ambiguity, and job insecurity might result in various strain reactions like stress and impaired well-being (Demerouti et al., 2001; Mauno et al., 2007; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). On the other hand, job resources refer to those physical, psychological, social, and organizational aspects of the job that may (a) be functional in achieving work goals, (b) reduce job demands, and (c) stimulate personal growth and development (Demerouti et al., 2001, p. 501).

Research so far has suggested that job demands could lead to exhaustion (Lee & Ashforth, 1996) which might lead to negative consequences for the organization, such as absenteeism (A. B. Bakker et al., 2003) and impaired role performance (A. B. Bakker, Demerouti, & Verbeke, 2004). Job resources, on the other hand, will lead to engagement and positive outcomes, for example dedication and extra-role performance (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).

## 2.8 Teacher Professional Development

Gordon (2004) has proposed three elements to be covered in a successful professional development program. Those aspects include the capacity building, the core element and the purpose of professional development. Those three aspects can be further devided into seven elements that should be combined to optimize the effect of a professional development. He stated that,

> … a successful professional development includes a combination of experiences that empower 1) individual educators, 2) educational teams, and 3) the educational organization to improve 4) curriculum, 5) instruction, and 6) student assessment in order to 7) facilitate student growth and development (Gordon, 2004: p. 5).

According to Gordon, the first three elements belong to the capacity building, and therefore have no direct effect on student learning but increase the ability of individuals, groups, and schools to affect student learning. The next three elements belong to the core element of a professional development program and have direct effects on student learning. The last element, to facilitate student

growth and development, is the ultimate purpose of professional development (Gordon, 2004).

In terms of the models of teacher professional development, many have often proposed categories like (skill) training, workshops, seminars, action research, and some other models. Recently, however, there seem to be more simple classifications of professional development. Little (1993), for example, uses the term alternative models of professional development to refer to what she assumes to be 'more reformed' models of trainings. Although she seems to be unsupportive of teacher training as a model of professional development, she suggests that the present practices of teacher training have demonstrated greater sophistication.

Although training has been one of the most widely used models of professional development research has suggested that it is the least favor professional empowerment and has often been discussed with a negative connotation and portrayed as antithetical to authentic professional development (Gordon, 2004: p. 33). Such negative responses are mainly based on the common practices conducted in training in which there are no adequate opportunities for the participants to implement the newly trained skills with good supervision. This is also caused by the lack of consultation participants might have when they try to implement the new skills. This is in line with Little's idea about what an effective training should provide (Little, 1993; p. 132) In the discussion on the professional development that supports education reform, she has recommended that the level

of effectiveness of training is related to the ability of the training to provide teachers with opportunities for practice, consultation, and coaching (Little, 1993).

In terms of the effects of training on teachers' sense of efficacy beliefs, a number of research studies have suggested that there is an effect of training as professional development on teachers' sense of efficacy. Ross and Bruce (2007) for example stipulate the possibility of professional development on the level of efficacy beliefs. They theorize that professional development contributes in multiple ways to the four sources of efficacy information (J. Ross & Bruce, 2007). By attending a training program, there is a possibility for teachers to feel that there is an increase in their level of mastery in the field transferred through the training. The increase of perceived mastery will potentially elevate the level of efficacy. Communicating with colleagues and seeing other teachers' success while in the training can also provide vicarious experience, which in turn will help increase the teachers' sense of efficacy.

Further, using the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001), Ross and Bruce found that professional development contributed positively to all three dimensions measured, especially to teachers' expectations about their ability to manage students in the classroom.

> Although there were slight increases in the other dimensions of teacher efficacy measured by the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale, only changes in classroom management were statistically significant. We suspect that teachers' confidence in their ability to engage student interest and to use new instructional strategies follow confidence in classroom management (J. Ross & Bruce, 2007, p. 58)

Summarizing on the effective professional development training program, there seems to be an important function that training should serve. Such function is related to whether such training has the capability of providing opportunities for teachers to share experiences, both success and failure experiences. By providing such opportunities, a training program will function as a professional community learning, too.

# Chapter 3 Research Methodology

## 3.1 Introduction

This chapter outlines the methods used in the conduct of this research study. It covers the research design, the selection of the population and sample of the study, the data collection and data analysis. The method of handling the missing data is also discussed in this chapter.

## 3.2 Research design

Quantitative and qualitative research have often been characterized as incompatible. The notion appeared to flourish during a period of time when what has now been called the paradigm wars took place, reaching their peak during the 1980s (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). The apparent incompatibility of both types of research encouraged researchers at the time to choose either quantitative or qualitative method but not both.

More pragmatic researchers now view both research paradigms from different perspectives and have rejected the idea of their incompatibility. From the pragmaticists' point of view both quantitative and qualitative research have their respective important contribution to make and very often they require researchers to combine them to arrive at more comprehensive results.

More recently Johnson and Christensen (2004), for example, have identified three main paradigms of research commonly used in educational research, the quantitative, qualitative and mixed research paradigms. Although they acknowledge that there are still arguments concerning the nature of those three paradigms, they propose that the three paradigms are situated along a continuum with research being relatively more qualitative or relatively more quantitative, or mixed (Johnson & Christensen, 2004, p. 30).

This present study on the efficacy beliefs in the secondary school English teachers in Indonesian context has drawn on the mixed-method paradigm. To some extent it follows the conception of quantitative method, and therefore uses techniques and procedures of quantitative data collection and analysis. On the other hand it also applies the other techniques and procedures of data collection and analysis commonly used in qualitative research design.

Quantitative data of this study were collected using a survey, while the qualitative data were collected using the classroom observation schedule and interview protocol. By employing both quantitative and qualitative research, the researcher aimed to pursue a deeper understanding of the nature of self-efficacy and work engagement among teacher in the sample. Conducting follow up qualitative research on quantitative data collected using the quantitative method was expected to be able to provide more convincing evidence about the findings. Furthermore, qualitative research in the form of case studies on part of the sample might open a wider and deeper insight and understanding of the

findings previously revealed through the quantitative data collection and analyses. Qualitative data are also expected to be able to test the findings from the quantitative data, so that they can function to either confirm or question the findings.

This research in its own is interesting since so far most research in teachers' self-efficacy beliefs has been addressed to investigate teachers' efficacy beliefs in general. Numerous research studies have been conducted in this area of efficacy with the specific sample of science teachers, yet none has focused on teachers of a foreign language where cultural background was an important issue as well, because language is bound to the specific culture of the speakers. No research on teachers' efficacy beliefs that has been contextualized within issues of policy changes regarding teaching practices. This research, therefore, was important not only to see the cultural effects related to teaching profession on teachers' efficacy beliefs but also to investigate the effect of policy changes on teachers' efficacy beliefs.

## 3.3 Research site

This research was conducted in Yogyakarta province of Indonesia. It is a province located in the island of Java, about 650 kilometers east of Jakarta, the capital city of Indonesia. There are three main reasons why data were collected from this province. First, Yogyakarta is considered a province with typical Javanese culture; Teachers for Javanese people are considered sources of knowledge and wisdom. Besides, in the perspective of education in Indonesia,

Yogyakarta has long been known as city of education not only because of the oldest university in Indonesia, Gajah Mada University, is located in this province but also because the academic culture which is very strong in this region. These cultural and academic aspects provide teachers with social status and respect which to a certain extent would affect the work life of teachers. Therefore, conducting research in the level of teachers' efficacy beliefs in this area is worth doing.

Second, there are four districts and one municipality in this province. They are Sleman, Kulonprogo, Bantul and Gunungkidul districts, and Yogyakarta municipality. All districts and the municipality have different characteristics regarding to the socio-economy of the people which in turn impacts on the academic culture of the people. Sleman district and Yogyakarta City Municipality, for example, have relatively higher socio-economic condition and they have better academic atmosphere due to the existence of the four big universities in this area. Gunungkidul is considered the least in the rank due to the further location of the district from the city centre and the geographical condition which consists of a range of highlands and hills. Districts very often have different policies towards education in general and teachers teaching in the area in particular. These different policies and supports from the local government might provide sources of variance in terms of the level of efficacy of the teachers. Furthermore, different working atmosphere and the available facilities in the area will possibly provide sources of information related to the

level of teachers' efficacy beliefs. Different characteristics of different parts of the province are, therefore, expected to provide different information in relation to the sense of efficacy beliefs of the teachers.

Third, Yogyakarta province was the area most severely affected by the 26 July 2006 earthquake. More than five thousand people in the province were killed and many more lost their houses. The earthquake also damaged most schools in the region, especially in Bantul district, so that it affected the learning and teaching process. Teachers had to work even harder not only to present the materials, but also to motivate the students in learning. It was also harder for teachers because they had much less equipment, text books and other resources. Some of the teachers also had to teach in temporary schools which were built with bamboo and had no floors. Besides, they also had to cope with the traumatic feeling they suffered from the earthquake. Regarding the effect of the earthquake, investigating the state of their efficacy in teaching is also worth doing.

In addition, the researcher has been living and working in this province for the last two decades, so that it helps the researcher to get access to the participants. It also helps the researcher understand the cultural context within the area which in turn helps in framing the discussion and interpretation on the data.

## 3.4 Gaining Access

To comply with the requirement of conducting research involving humans, the researcher sought ethical approval from the Standing Committee on Ethic in Research involving Human (SCERH) Monash University and granted the project approval. The ethic committee suggested that the researcher ensure that in collecting the data the research study would not distress, embarrass or create psychological harm to the respondent.

After gaining approval from the ethic committee, the researcher still had to seek access to the participants. In doing so, he consulted with the teacher instructors in every district instead of getting names from the district office of the Ministry of National Education. This was handier in terms of avoiding long bureaucratic steps. The only permission sought by the researcher was that of school principals, particularly in relation to the classroom observation and interview with the participants.

## 3.5 Participants

Data were collected during the period of December 2006 – February 2007 in four districts and one municipality of Yogyakarta province with the target population of Junior Secondary School English teachers in the province. Criteria of sampling picked only teachers that had already attended the Competency-based Integrated Training (CBIT) conducted by the Ministry of National Education (MoNE) as the appropriate sample of the research. Data

collection was done while teachers were attending the teacher forum meetings in their respective districts and municipality.

There were two groups of participants in this research. The first group was one hundred and fifty two English teachers and the second group was four teachers who were members of the first group. Teachers in the first group were those who had been selected on the basis that they had attended the CBIT in 2004 to 2006 and had agreed to participate in this research by signing the consent form and returning the questionnaire. Teachers in the second group were selected based on the teacher instructors' nomination. This nomination was based on the teacher instructors' evaluation particularly about the English performance of the teachers. The nominated teachers, therefore, formed groups of teachers with high, medium and low English proficiency. The decision of asking for nomination from the teacher instructors was based on the assumption that they knew the teacher participants better due to their duties allow them to have access on the participants, especially in terms of the participant English proficiency.

## 3.6 Selection criteria and the recruitment of the sample

Certain criteria and procedures of sample recruitment were used in this study. As there were two groups of sample, two different criteria and procedures were used in recruiting the sample groups. The first criteria and procedure were applied to recruit the first sample group who were to fill the survey, while the

second were used to recruit the second sample group for the qualitative case study. Although they were recruited for different purposes of data collection, these two groups of sample were still from the same research population, as described in the previous section.

### 3.6.1 Selection criteria and procedure to recruit the sample for the survey

As stated in the previous section, the target population of the research was determined based on predetermined criteria. First, the teacher sample consisted of English teachers who teach in the four districts and one municipality in Yogyakarta province. Second, those English teachers had to have attended the *Pelatihan Terpadu Berbasis Kompetensi* (PTBK) or the Competency-based Integrated Training (CBIT). This was a training program designed by the Indonesia Ministry of National Education (MoNE) to prepare the teachers to implement the newly issued curriculum, *Kurikulum Berbasis Kompetensi* (KBK) or Competency-based Curriculum (CBC).

Competency-based was a concept underpinning the content of the new curriculum in Indonesia, the Curriculum 2006. When viewed from the general organization and the paradigms of the application, this curriculum was also known as *Kurikulum Tingkat Satuan Pendidikan* or KTSP, the school level curriculum, because of the nature of its application which is school based. Teachers attending this training, therefore, were expected to be able to understand, and then apply the new curriculum in their schools. Being an

integrated training program, it provided materials that were not only related to issues about curriculum change and how to deal with the change, but also materials related to the efforts of improving the teachers' competency and skills required to teach English, such as their English skills and teaching skills. The CBIT was done at the national and provincial levels, and was followed up with district level related trainings.

The second criterion of the selection of the sample was accessed directly when the survey was conducted in the district teaching forum meetings. By only asking participation from those teachers who had attended the CBIT, it was expected that the survey data collection would disqualify those who had not. Taking a list from the provincial office of the Ministry of National Education could have been easier but it did not seem to be a good idea at that time. Although there was such a list, the actual number of the teachers could be different from the one in the list. Firstly, this was because some of them had been promoted as school principals, and secondly it was due to the earthquake that happened in July 2006 that affected a major area of the province. The latter cause was the main reason for inviting only those who were still active in the teacher forum activities.

The recruitment, therefore, was carried out with no special invitation. Instead, the researcher went to the monthly English Teacher Forum meetings in all the districts and the municipality. This was once again due to the devastating effect of the 26 June 2006 Earthquake affecting major area in the province of

Yogyakarta. It was, therefore, not possible to contact or invite all the teachers either by mail or telephone. The earthquake damaged most of the infrastructure in the province including the transportation and communication networks. Emailing invitations through the internet was not feasible since very few teachers had access to the internet. Phone lines or cellular phones were not available to most teachers in this province.

The only feasible way of meeting with the teachers at that time was by going to the teacher forums which were being conducted in each of the districts and municipality. These teacher forums were conducted regularly once a month, and even in Bantul District and Yogyakarta Municipality teacher forums were conducted twice a month. To maximize the number of responses, the researcher came to all teacher forums within the periods of December 2006 to February 2007. This was done in case there were teachers that could not attend one of the meeting in one of the meetings.

In the meetings, the researcher explained the research project and asked the teachers to participate in the research by completing a survey. Upon requesting participation, the researcher explained the purposes of the research, the information required in the research, and the significance of their participation. Issues on confidentiality were also discussed in the preliminary explanation. Participation, however, was voluntary, signaled by the request to participants to voluntarily return the completed questionnaire together with the participants' consent forms.

This first group was required to complete a questionnaire consisting of seven sub-scales that took approximately 30 minutes of their time. The questionnaire was presented in two versions, the English and Indonesian versions. Participants were asked only to use the Indonesian version to help with their understanding. They were, however, asked to fill in the English version. This was because they were assumed to understand most of the words in the survey, because they were English teachers. The translated version, therefore, was given only to provide support to the teachers in case they had difficulties in understanding the survey. The questionnaire focused on the teachers' self efficacy for English and English teaching in general and in relation to the implementation of the new curriculum in particular. It was also aimed to investigate whether there were changes with respect to the teachers' self efficacy beliefs before and after teachers' attendance in the CBIT.

As stated in the previous section, teachers in the sample were from different districts and municipality in Yogyakarta province. This was meant to address whether there were differences in the level of teachers' efficacy beliefs due to different policy and support from the local government. Besides coming from four different districts and municipality, teachers in the research sample teach in different types of school, both public and private schools. This was also an important aspect in this research enabling the identification of any differences in the efficacy level of teachers from different types of schools. The teacher sample also comprised teachers different professional status; some of them were

civil servant teachers employed by the government, some were full time private teachers employed by private education foundations, and some other were part time teachers employed by the schools. This teacher status would probably provide information about the differences in on the level of efficacy among teachers with different employment status.

Among the first group of sample there were fifty two male and one hundred female teachers. The ages ranged from twenty two to fifty five years old. Twenty one (13.8%) teachers had the teaching experience of less than five years, seventy teachers (46%) between five to fifteen years of teaching experience and sixty one teachers (40.1%) had more than fifteen years teaching experience. There were one hundred and twenty two (80%) civil servant teachers, ten (6.6%) fulltime private teachers and twenty (13.2%) part time teachers. One hundred and nineteen (78.3) teachers taught in public schools and 33 (21.7%) other teachers in private schools. The sample teachers were from four districts and one municipality in the province, twenty two teachers (15.5%) from Yogyakarta City, twenty seven (17.8%) from Sleman regency, thirty three (21.7%) from Kulonprogo regency, twenty five (16.4%) from Bantul regency, and fourty five (29.6%) from Gunungkidul regency.

All aspects related to the teachers' employment status, the schools where the teachers taught, gender, ages, working experiences and the districts where the teachers were teaching were designed to be the independent variables of the

research that might provide effects on the level of efficacy beliefs of the teachers.

### 3.6.2 Selection criteria and procedure to recruit the second sample group

The second group of sample was selected based on the nomination of teacher instructors in every district and municipality. These teacher instructors were those involved in the CBIT training in the province and district levels and in other trainings in this area. There were normally two to four teacher instructors in each district and municipality. However, in the implementation of the training they usually worked together. It was therefore, a common practice that instructors in one district were very often also involved in the training in other districts.

There were four teachers resulted from the second recruitment process. These four teachers were nominated by the teacher instructors and were members of the first group. The nomination of the members of the second group was based on predetermined criteria related to their English proficiency. The teachers resulted from the nomination represented teachers with high, middle and low English proficiency.

At the nomination stage, there were actually nine chosen teachers out of twelve nominated teachers representing high, middle, and low proficiency respectively. At the final stage, however, only four of the nominated teachers expressed their

positive participation. Three of them reused to participate and the other two participants withdraw from their participation. Among these four teachers, one teacher was identified as having low English proficiency, two teachers were in the middle, and the other one was the high English proficiency. These four teachers participated in the follow-up study focusing on their teaching practices in the classroom. Participants were asked to complete a consent form and their participation was also voluntary. Data collected from this group of participants were gained through semi-structured interview and classroom observations.

## 3.7 Data Collection

In general, two types of data were collected in the research study. The first data were quantitative and the second were qualitative. Quantitative and qualitative data were collected using different instruments and through different data collection procedures. Data collection in the four districts and one municipality was facilitated by the teacher forums in each district and municipality for the survey and by the school principals and teacher instructors in the districts and municipality for the classroom observations and interviews.

### 3.7.1 Instrument to collect quantitative data

Quantitative data on teachers' self-efficacy beliefs in this study were collected using a six sub-scale questionnaire focusing on teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and the other aspects that might influence the teachers' work life. The six sub-

scales consisted of five subscales of teacher efficacy beliefs, and a nine-item teacher work engagement scale (see Appendix 5.1 for the complete survey).

#### 3.7.1.1 Teachers' self-efficacy scale

The teachers' self-efficacy scale used in this study consisted of two parts. The first part was a three-subscale questionnaire addressing the teachers' efficacy in a general. These three subscales were drawn from the long version of the Ohio State Teacher Self-efficacy scales (OS-TES) developed by Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001).

There were some considerations of using the survey. The first reason was related to the fact that it had been developed through a thorough review and analysis on the existing teacher self-efficacy measures. It was, therefore, reasonably valid, given the positive correlation with the existing measures (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). The second reason was related to the evidence that the survey had high reliability coefficient when used in different context of participant. For example, when applied in the United States context, it yielded an overall alpha coefficient of .94 and alphas of .91, .90 and .87 for the efficacy for instructional strategy, classroom management and student engagement subscales (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2002). Similarly in the Malaysian context, Murshidi et.al, (2006) found that the scale had the overall alpha coefficient was .80 with alphas of .77, .93 and .94 for the three subscales (Murshidi, Konting, Elias, & Fooi, 2006). The later context was an important consideration since there are significant cultural and social similarities between

teachers in Indonesia and those in Malaysia. The third reason was that by using a published survey, the researcher wanted to further explore the comparative and cross cultural effects of the measures with a culturally different sample group. Although the OS-TES had proven to be highly reliable for both the USA and Malaysia participants, there was no guarantee that the same findings would be found when it was applied to the even more specific context of Indonesia with teachers teaching English as a foreign language. Cultural and social aspects of Indonesian teachers might give rise to issues related to the findings. This research, therefore, was expected to provide cross-cultural validation on the existing teacher efficacy scales.

The three subscales drawn from the OS-TES measured the three issues in teachers' duties in the classroom. They consisted of eight items in every subscale. The first eight-item sub-scale, the efficacy for instructional strategy scale, tried to measure the beliefs of the teachers in their ability in planning, executing and evaluating their classroom English instruction. The second sub-scale, the efficacy for classroom management scale, dealt with measuring teachers' efficacy beliefs in managing the classroom. The third sub-scale, the efficacy for student engagement scale, was aimed to measure teachers' efficacy beliefs in engaging students in the classroom activities.

In the present studies, however, the items in the three subscales were anchored on a seven-point scale. This was due to a cultural consideration where a seven-point judgment seemed to be more common for the Indonesian sample. These

seven points fit the seven phrases commonly used to express rating in Indonesian context. These phrases were (a) *tidak ada sama sekali* (Nothing at all), (b) *sangat sedikit* (very little), (c) *sedikit* (little), (d) *lumayan* (just enough), (e) *cukup* (sufficient), (f) *banyak* (many) and (g) *sangat banyak* (great deal).

The second part of the teachers' efficacy survey was a two- subscale questionnaire aimed to address the specific context of this study, the junior secondary English as Foreign Language (EFL) teachers in the context of curriculum changes in Indonesia. Those two scales were developed by the researcher.

The first subscale, the teachers' efficacy for English, consisted of seven items addressing the English-related skills needed by teachers in doing their daily teaching duties. The items covered both productive and perceptive skills as well as English both for communication and instruction purposes. The second subscale, the efficacy for curriculum implementation sub-scale, was developed to investigate teachers' self- efficacy beliefs in the implementation of Curriculum 2004 in Indonesian Secondary School English teaching. This eight-item sub-scale was designed to address the contextual issues regarding the teaching of English in Indonesian secondary schools as a result of the change in curriculum from Curriculum 1994 to Curriculum 2004 and then to the 2006 School Level Curriculum. Aspects measured in this sub-scale were concerned mostly with the concepts and practices in competency-based language teaching and the contextual teaching and learning. These two aspects of the measure

were relevant to the materials given to teachers through the CBIT. The first aspect, competency-based language teaching, reflected the major characteristics of the Curriculum 2004 for English teaching in secondary schools in Indonesia. The second aspect, on the other hand, was related to the Contextual Teaching and Learning (CTL) which was also considered important in the implementation of the English teaching in Indonesia. The items also ranged from the issues related to preparation of the lesson plan and teaching materials, the presentation in the classroom and the evaluation of the students' achievement.

### 3.7.1.2 Teachers' work engagement scale

The teachers' work engagement scale, which was adopted from the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES 9), was used to measure the degree to which teachers were engaged in their teaching-related duties. Three dimensions of work engagement were covered by this scale. Those dimensions were vigor, dedication and absorption (Schaufeli et al., 2002). This work engagement scale was important to be used with sample teachers in Indonesian context where the teaching profession provided neither good financial returns nor high academic recognition.

In the administration of the data collection, the five-subscale teacher efficacy survey was used twice. Firstly it was used together with the work engagement scale to measure the level of teachers' efficacy at the time the data were collected or after attending the CBIT. Secondly it was repeated and used to measure the teachers' efficacy before they attended the training. In this case the

participating teachers were asked to recall their level of efficacy before they attended the CBIT. Altogether, therefore, there were 87 questions —48 items in the first section and 39 items in the second section of the survey.

## 3.7.2 Instrument to collect the qualitative data

Qualitative data were collected during the follow up qualitative case study with four participating teachers. This qualitative case study was aimed at getting in-depth insight about the efficacy beliefs of the participating teachers. It was also intended to probe the more contextual status of their efficacy, and their efficacy for teaching in the classroom. Two types of instrument were used to collect the qualitative data. The first instrument was an observation schedule and the second was a semi-guided interview protocol.

### 3.7.2.1 Classroom Observation Schedule

The observation schedule was used to obtain data about teachers' actual English teaching practices in the classroom. In the development of this instrument, the researcher was influenced by the draft of the Classroom Assessment Scoring System (CLASS) observation schedule developed by Robert C. Pianta et. Al (Pianta, Hamre, Haynes, Mintz, & La Paro, 2007). Major adjustments and modification, however, were carried out to fit with the purposes of this research study as well as to deal with the special context of the teaching of English in Indonesia. Five aspects were observed using the schedule. These aspects were related to the teachers' confidence in (a) their speaking of English in the classroom, (b) the use of instructional strategy, (c) the classroom management,

(d) the way to promote student engagement and (f) the curriculum implementation (see Appendix 5.2 for the complete schedule). The observation schedule was used only to reveal the level of teachers' confidence in the classroom regardless of the appropriateness of what they did. The data collected with the observation schedule were also accompanied with field notes about the teaching processes conducted by teacher participants made by the researcher during the observations.

### 3.7.2.2 Semi-guided Interview Protocol

The semi-guided interview protocol was devised to get data about teachers' aspiration and beliefs in the English teaching practices and their practices in the classroom. The interview was in the form of an approximately half-hour semi-structured interview consisting of eight questions. In general the interview tried to explore teachers' views concerning (a) their vision for teaching including their values, beliefs and expectancies about teaching English, (b) their efficacy in their English, instructional strategies, classroom management, student engagement and curriculum implementation, (c) their perceived effects of the CBIT training on their teaching efficacy, (d) their perceived school and collegial supports, and (e) their own self-evaluation on their teaching practices (see Appendix 5.3 for the complete schedule).

## 3.8 Processes of Data Collection

As there were three types of instrument used to collect the data, three main data collection processes were conducted in this study. These three processes were administered using different research instruments and followed by different steps. Those processes were the administration of the self-efficacy survey, the classroom observation and the interview.

### 3.8.1 The survey data

As discussed in the previous section, the survey was conducted during the period of December 2006 – February 2007. In administering the survey, the researcher did not use mailing procedures. Instead he came to the English teacher forum in all districts and municipality in Yogyakarta province and distributed the survey to the members of the forums. These teacher forum meetings were conducted regularly in every district, and were facilitated by the district teacher forum committee. These teacher meetings were parts of teachers' professional development and learning in the province. Activities of the teacher forum varied from one district to the other. In general, however, they covered information sessions about government policy, and seminars and workshops on instructional issues. The frequency of the meetings also varied from one district to the other. Mostly they met once a month, except for the Yogyakarta Municipality and Bantul district teacher forums that met twice a month and the Gunungkidul teacher forum that at the time the data were collected only met once in February 2007.

In collecting the survey data, the researcher distributed the survey together with the explanatory statement explaining the research in general, including the purposes and the significance of the study as well as contact person for the research. Participants were invited to complete the survey and do it in their own time and at their convenience and then return the survey to the researcher upon completing it. Upon agreeing to participate in the study, the participants were asked to sign the consent form.

The survey was given in two versions, the English and the Indonesian versions. The Indonesian version was aimed to support participants' understanding in case there were teachers who did not understand words or sentences in the survey. For practical reasons, however, the teachers were asked to complete only the English version.

The response rate achieved by this study was eighty one point seven percent (81.7%). From the two hundred copies of questionnaire the researcher copied, one hundred and eighty six of them were distributed to teachers during the period of data collection. From the distributed questionnaires, one hundred and fifty two questionnaires were returned to the researcher.

### 3.8.2 Classroom observations

Classroom observations in this study were conducted in the teachers' regular classes in their respective schools. The participating teachers were aware that they were being observed and of the purposes of the observation. The

observations were done in two teaching sessions for each teacher. Prior to the classroom observation, the researcher had paid several visits and had informal talks with the teachers. The researcher also went into the classroom several times before the observation took place. This was aimed to ease the situation, and to make the students and the teacher familiar with the researcher so that on the execution of the observation the researcher would not be a complete stranger that would have made the teachers to feel awkward. Data gained through classroom observation were in the form of checklist based on the observation schedule and accompanied with the researcher's notes on important things found during the observation. These checklists, together with the notes, were then used to make process vignettes.

### 3.8.3 The Interviews

Interviews with the participants were conducted outside their teaching hours. The approximately 30-minute-interviews were done at school after the teachers had finished their teaching sessions. Interviews were done in English, except for one teacher who expressed feeling it would be difficult if the interview was done in English. She was, therefore, interviewed in Indonesian. The interviews were recorded, and the data were transcribed into transcriptions that functioned as the main sources of the data in the follow-up study. The transcription of the interview done in Indonesian was then translated into English and verified by two Indonesian speakers who had adequate knowledge and skills in speaking and writing English.

## 3.9 Issues of confidentiality and anonymity

Confidentiality and anonymity were two important issues in conducting this research, especially in reporting the findings. Confidentiality was an important issue in this research. According to De Vaus (2002) there are three main reasons for assuring confidentiality in research. It improves the quality and honesty of responses, especially on sensitive issues, it encourages participation and thus improves the representativeness of the sample, and it protects a person's privacy. Confidentiality in this research study was assured by giving access to no one, except the researcher to the data. Research data would be kept in a secure location for five years and then destroyed after the completion of the study. Anonymity means that the researcher will not and cannot identify the respondent (Vaus, 2002). Based on the permission released by the SCERH Monash University, there was no need for the researcher to collect data that would possibly reveal the identity of the research subjects. Subjects' responses were kept anonymous. In responding to the questionnaire, the subjects were not required to write their names, so that there was no way that the subject would be personally identified. The only data needed from the subjects were those related to the demographic variables of the research. Names would in no way be used in the reporting result.

However, anonymity was not an issue concerning the data gathered through classroom observations and interviews. It was of course not possible to conduct both anonymous classroom observations and face to face interviews. It was only

at the reporting of the findings that the anonymity can be satisfied. In doing so, the researcher assigned different name to each participant. It was therefore expected that there would be no other people were capable of identifying the participants.

## 3.10 Data Analysis

Based on the types of data, there were two different data analyses in this study. The first analysis was the quantitative analysis of the data resulting from the teachers' efficacy and work engagement questionnaires and the second was the qualitative data analysis on data resulted from the classroom observations and the interviews.

### 3.10.1 Materials

Materials used in the data analysis in this research were in three categories. The first category of the material was the participants' responses on the survey. Data resulting from the survey were grouped in three parts. The first part consisted of data about the demographic information of the participants. These demographic data related to the gender, ages, educational background, teaching experiences, teacher status, the schools and the areas where teachers taught. All the above demographic data were meant to be the independent variables which potentially contribute to the level of efficacy of the teachers. The second part of the data was data about the level of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs collected using the five sub-scales of the self-efficacy survey. Data on teachers' efficacy were also

accompanied with the results of the repeated measures MANOVA on the effects of CBIT on the level of teachers' efficacy beliefs. The third part was the supporting information on the level of teachers' work engagement and the relation between teachers' efficacy and work engagement. This information provides additional information concerning the level of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs.

The second category was in the form of transcriptions of recorded interviews with the four teachers who were observed in the classroom teaching. Interviews were done in English except for one teacher who registered as having low English efficacy. This particular participant was interviewed in Bahasa Indonesia. This interview was later translated by the researcher and was checked by two people who spoke fluent English and Indonesian.

The third category of materials was materials collected from the classroom observations of the four participants' classroom teaching practices. These observations were used to develop vignettes of the teachers and their teaching practices in the classroom. Observations were initially recorded in the form of an observation schedule and then together with the researcher's field notes, the case study vignettes were written.

## 3.10.2 Statistical analysis on quantitative data

In analyzing the data the researcher classified the data into two classifications, the quantitative and qualitative data. These classifications were due to the

different nature of the data and the different treatments needed. Quantitative data in this research were analyzed using the SPSS package of data analysis. Some statistical forms of analysis were used in analyzing the research data. Those analyses were descriptive analysis, the General Linear Models consisting of Multivariate Analysis of Variance and the Repeated Measures Multivariate Analysis of Variance, and the Spearman Rho correlations.

### 3.10.3 Issues with missing data

A number of non-response answers appeared in the data. Although some alternatives are offered in the literature, the researcher chose the random assignment within groups as the method to handle the missing data. This was done by firstly dividing the sample into subgroups on the basis of background variable most likely related to the variable with missing data. Secondly, the missing data in the cases in a particular variable were substituted with valid values of the closest cases within the same variable (De Vaus, 2002). This method was chosen based on the consideration that deletion of cases with missing data and pair wise deletion would severely affect the number of cases due to the random nature of the missing data. Secondly, this method was chosen as an effort to minimize the effect of substituting the missing data thus reducing the variability on the variable.

### 3.10.4 Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistical analysis used in this research consisted of two analyses, the descriptive and the frequency. The descriptive summary covered the means, standard deviations, median and modus, while the frequency dealt with the number of cases in the data. In doing the descriptive analysis, the researcher also sought to identify the nature of the data, particularly the degree of skewness of the data and the kurtosis.

### 3.10.5 General Linear Model (MANOVA and Repeated Measures MANOVA)

Multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was used to analyze the association between the independent variables and the dependent variable and their contribution to the dependent variables. It was used to look at both the main effects of the independent variables and the interaction effects among the independent variables. Due to the limited power observed in the data, however, the interaction effects sought in the study was limited to the two-way interaction effects. MANOVA was used due to the robust nature of the analysis and although it is based on the assumption of normal distribution, it also works with data which are not normally distributed.

Repeated Measures MANOVA was used to investigate the association of data within different time frameworks. In this study the analysis was used to investigate whether there were differences of teachers' level of efficacy beliefs before and after attending the CBIT, and whether they changed in their level of

self-efficacy beliefs after attending their CBIT training. The data were collected by asking teachers to do self-report within two different time frames. The first self-report was done to report their level of self-efficacy beliefs at the time the data were collected or after they attended the CBIT, and the second was related to their level of self-efficacy beliefs before attending the training.

### 3.10.6 Spearman's Rho Correlations

In investigating the relations between the variables of the research, the researcher applied the Spearman Rho correlation. This correlation analysis was used due to the fact that the descriptive findings that some of the independent variables in the study were not normally distributed. The correlation sought in this research covered the correlation within the teachers' self-efficacy data or among factors in the teachers' efficacy scale, and the correlation between teachers' efficacy and the teachers' work engagement data.

### 3.10.7 Analysis on the qualitative data

Analysis on the qualitative data was done inductively in three main steps, coding to reduce the data, classifying the themes emerging from the data into meaningful categories, and interpreting the data. Unlike the deductive nature of the data analysis of the quantitative data, an inductive approach toward the qualitative data started by scrutinizing the individual themes before arriving at the categories built by the interconnected themes. Prior to the analysis, however,

initial steps of preparing the data for analysis was done, for example transcribing the recorded interview.

There were two main considerations in doing the data coding. The first was the concept of heuristic coding (Seidel, 1998) and the three types of coding (Flick, 2006). The coding process used in this study was heuristic in nature in that this coding was an initial step of data analysis that requires a researcher to work deeper and deeper into the data (Seidel, 1998). Further Seidel noted that heuristic codes helped organize the data and gave different views of the data. They facilitated the discovery of things and helped open up the data to further intensive analysis and inspection (Seidel, 1998).

Flick (2006) asserted that there are three types of coding serving three different functions in qualitative data analyses. The first coding, open coding, serves to capture all forms of categories emerging from the data. The second coding, axial coding, is done to build interconnection between the emerging categories. The third coding, selective coding, picks up relevant and potential categories for the discussion (Flick, 2006).

Following the two considerations, the coding processes in this study were expected to be able to arrive at meaningful categories and classifications of themes that were capable of supporting the interpretation of the findings. In the conduct of the analyses, the researcher also used the NVivo 7 software for

qualitative data analysis in both the preparation and the execution of the data analysis.

### 3.10.7.1 Data from classroom observations

Data resulting from classroom observation were in the forms of rating based on the categories presented in the schedule used to observe the teachers' classroom teaching practices. In addition the data were also supported with notes made by the researcher during the observations. In analyzing the data, first the researcher coded the results from each observation into themes emerging from all classroom observations. Secondly, the researcher assigned categories by looking at the interconnection among the themes. From these categories, the researcher made tabulation on the categories to see further connection among categories thus facilitating the interpretation.

### 3.10.7.2 Data from the interviews

First thing done in the analysis of the data from the interviews was transcribing the recorded interviews. The coding process was done in the same ways and steps as those done with the results from the classroom observation. First data were coded into themes. Then the connection among themes was used to formulate categories, and from these meaningful categories, an interpretation and explanations on the findings were built.

## 3.11 Instrument Validity and Reliability in the Indonesian Context

The first instrument, the scale, consisted of five subscales. Two subscales were devised by the researcher based on the theoretical construct that was believed to be fit with what the researcher wanted to measure. The efficacy for English subscale, for example, was developed based on the English-related skills an English teacher needs for both communication and instruction purposes. The other subscale, the efficacy for curriculum implementation, was developed based on the guidelines of the implementation of the curriculum in the English classroom.

The other three sub-scales, the efficacy for teaching strategies, efficacy for classroom management, and efficacy for student engagement, were adopted from Tschannen-Moran and Hoy's Ohio State teacher efficacy Scales (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). These scales had proven to have high reliability, with 0.91 for the teacher efficacy for instructional strategy, 0.90 for classroom management and 0.87 for student engagement. They were also high when applied in other research for the efficacy among new teachers in Sarawak, Malaysia with an overall reliability of 0.97, 0.94 for instruction, 0.93 for classroom management and 0.93 for students' engagement (Murshidji, Konting, Elias & Fooi, 2006).

The reliability of the data was computed using the Cronbach's alpha to find the reliability coefficient. Based on the analysis, the reliability coefficients of the

data were .97 for the overall efficacy scale, with .91, .92, .93, .91, and 94 respectively for the five efficacy subscales. The reliability coefficients for the engagement scale were also high with an overall Cronbach's alpha of .91 and the alphas of .76 for vigor, .83 for dedication and .79 for absorption.

## 3.12 Factor Analyses

Exploratory factor analyses were carried out on both teachers' efficacy and work engagement scales. The factor analyses, however, were not used as the basis of the analyses in the present study. This was due to the extensive validation that had been done to verify both scales. The factor analyses done in the present study, however, served to provide cultural comparison resulting from culturally different groups of sample and the possible potential adaptation in response to different cultural and social background of the participants as well as different nature of teaching profession. More detailed discussion on the result of the factor analyses could be found in the chapter on the presentation of the findings (Chapter 4).

# Chapter 4 Research Findings

## 4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings of the analyses on the quantitative data. Presentation begins with the results of the descriptive analysis consisting of sample description and distribution, and is followed by the findings of the quantitative results analyzed using the multi-factor Multivariate Analyses of Variance (MANOVA). It also reports the findings related to the effects of Competency-based Integrated Training (CBIT) on the teachers' self-efficacy beliefs analyzed using the repeated measures MANOVA. Another section in this chapter reports the findings about the level of work engagement of the participants, and the relation between teachers' efficacy and work engagement. The results of factor analyses and the reliability tests are also presented as separate sections in this chapter.

## 4.2 Results of the descriptive analysis

### 4.2.1 Sample description and distribution

There were seven independent variables involved in the data. Such variables included gender, age, educational background of whether the participants had English teaching background in their college or university, participants' teaching experience, teacher status, schools, and the districts where the teachers

taught. Table 4.1 shows the description and distribution of the sample based on the independent variables.

**Table 4.1. Description and Distribution of Teacher Sample**

| Independent Variables | Value labels | N | % |
|---|---|---|---|
| Gender | Male | 52 | 34 |
| | Female | 100 | 66 |
| Ages | <30 | 14 | 9 |
| | 31-40 | 84 | 55 |
| | 41-50 | 42 | 28 |
| | >50 | 12 | 8 |
| English teaching Background | Yes | 144 | 95 |
| | No | 5 | 3 |
| | No report | 3 | 2 |
| Teaching Experiences | Less than 5 years | 21 | 14 |
| | 5 – 15 years | 70 | 46 |
| | More than 15 years | 61 | 40 |
| Teacher status | Part time teachers | 20 | 13 |
| | Civil servant | 122 | 80 |
| | Full time private teachers | 10 | 7 |
| Schools | Public | 119 | 78 |
| | Private | 33 | 22 |
| Districts | Yogyakarta City | 22 | 14 |
| | Sleman | 27 | 18 |
| | Kulonprogo | 33 | 22 |
| | Bantul | 25 | 16 |
| | Gunungkidul | 45 | 30 |

From the descriptive analysis, it was found that there were more female teachers in the sample, with most participants of between 31 and 50 years of age, and with more than five years of teaching experience. Few teachers in the sample did not have English teaching background. Participants were from four districts and one municipality in Yogyakarta province teaching mostly in public schools.

## 4.2.2 Findings of quantitative data analyses

Quantitative data in this research study covered three major aspects including the teachers' self-efficacy beliefs, work engagement and perceived effects of Competency-based Integrated Training (CBIT) attended by the teachers prior to data collection. Data were collected using two scales of self-efficacy and work engagement. Data about the perceived influence of CBIT was collected by repeating the efficacy survey asking the participants to report their level of efficacy before and after their attendance in the training program.

### 4.2.2.1 Teachers' self efficacy beliefs

Data about teachers' self-efficacy were collected using five subscales of teacher efficacy survey. Three subscales were drawn from The Ohio State Teacher Self-efficacy scale (OSTES) consisting of efficacy for instructional strategies, classroom management and student engagement (Tshannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). The other two subscales consisting of efficacy for English and efficacy for curriculum implementation were developed by the researcher to address the specific context of the participants in the present study, see Table 4.2.

In the presentation of the efficacy data, the researcher has organized the findings in accordance with the kind of analyses. The first part of the presentation deals with the descriptive findings of the data covering the mean scores and standard deviations of every subscale. The following parts deal with the data resulting from the Multivariate Analyses of ANOVA (MANOVA) concerning the effects of the independent variables on the level of teachers'

efficacy, and the data about the perceived influences of CBIT resulting from the repeated measures MANOVA.

#### 4.2.2.2 Means and standard deviations of the teachers' self-efficacy data

The findings indicate that in general all mean scores of the subscales were above the middle point in the 7-point Likert-type scale. The overall mean of the efficacy data was 4.68 and the standard deviation was 1.45, with the means of 4.25, 4.77, 5.02, 4.71, and 4.51, and the standard deviations of 1.61, 1.31, 1.2, 1.21, and 1.47 respectively for the teachers' efficacy for English, instructional strategies, classroom management, student engagement and curriculum implementation sub-scales. Details of item mean scores and standard deviations can be viewed in Table 4.2.

The findings revealing a moderate level of efficacy beliefs imply that English teachers in the province were fairly confident in their teaching. In addition, this fairly high level of confidence among these participants was also interesting in the context where teachers had been long critiqued for not able to bring about high achievement among students, especially when achievement was measured using the results of the national examination.

**Table 4.2. Mean Scores and Standard Deviations of Self-efficacy Subscales**

| Subscales | Efficacy for … | Means*) | SDs |
|---|---|---|---|
| Efficacy for English | instructional English speaking | 4.85 | 1.22 |
| | English for communication | 4.39 | 1.27 |
| | understanding movies on TV | 3.95 | 1.11 |
| | understanding books written in English | 4.48 | 1.21 |
| | English songs | 4.11 | 1.33 |
| | instructional English writing | 4.87 | 1.23 |
| | English journal/publication writing | 3.08 | 1.47 |
| | Overall | 4.25 | 1.61 |
| Efficacy for Instructional Strategies | responding to questions | 4.84 | 1.21 |
| | gauging students' comprehension | 4.72 | 1.05 |
| | crafting good questions | 4.72 | 1.16 |
| | adjusting lessons to the proper levels of the students | 4.75 | 1.18 |
| | using a variety of assessment | 4.57 | 1.22 |
| (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001) | providing alternative explanation and examples | 5.09 | 1.08 |
| | implementing alternative instructional strategies | 4.67 | 1.09 |
| | providing challenges for capable students | 4.75 | 1.13 |
| | Overall | 4.77 | 1.31 |
| Efficacy for Classroom Management | controlling disruptive students | 4.95 | 1.24 |
| | making the expectation clear for students | 4.89 | 1.1 |
| | establishing routines to keep activities running smoothly | 4.82 | 1.19 |
| | getting students follow classroom rules | 5.34 | 1.03 |
| | calming disruptive or noisy students | 5.33 | 1.09 |
| (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001) | establishing classroom management for groups | 4.88 | 1.05 |
| | keeping a few troubled students from ruining the whole class | 4.93 | 1.15 |
| | responding to defiant students | 4.78 | 1.07 |
| | Overall | 5.02 | 1.2 |

Table 4.2 (continued)

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Efficacy for Student Engagement (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001) | getting through the most difficult students | 4.70 | 1.17 |
| | helping students think critically | 4.68 | 1.08 |
| | motivating students who show low interest in school work | 4.91 | 1.04 |
| | getting students to believe they can be successful in school work | 4.96 | 1.11 |
| | helping students value learning | 4.98 | 1.08 |
| | fostering students' creativity | 4.54 | 0.98 |
| | improving the understanding of students who are failing | 4.78 | 1.02 |
| | helping families to help children do well in school | 4.21 | 1.28 |
| | Overall | 4.71 | 1.21 |
| Efficacy for Curriculum Implementation | preparing lesson plans | 4.36 | 1.28 |
| | contextualizing teaching | 4.46 | 1.21 |
| | implementing genre based-teaching | 4.70 | 1.29 |
| | developing teaching materials | 4.63 | 1.15 |
| | stimulating students' inquiry | 4.30 | 1.13 |
| | presenting model in learning | 4.64 | 1.21 |
| | promoting interaction among learners | 4.36 | 1.18 |
| | using authentic assessment | 4.49 | 1.16 |
| | Overall | 4.51 | 1.47 |

***) On a 7-point Likert-type scale**

# 4.3 Results of Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA)

Multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was used to analyze the effects of the independent variables and the level of efficacy beliefs among the participants, particularly the difference among groups resulting from the categorical independent variables. Due to the limited power observed in the data only the main and two-way interaction effects were analyzed in this study. In addition, MANOVA was used due to the robust nature of the analysis.

The term multifactor was used in regard to the number of independent variables or the factors involved in the analyses. Such independent factors derived from the independent variables of the study and included gender, age, the English teaching background, teaching experiences, teacher status, schools and the districts where the teachers were teaching. Further analyses using Tuckey post hoc were carried out to locate the differences among more than two groups created by the categorical variables. Only significant findings were reported in this section using the level of significance of $p = 0.05$.

## 4.3.1 The main effects

### 4.3.1.1 The effects of gender differences on the teachers' self-efficacy beliefs

Multivariate tests of MANOVA revealed that there were significant differences in the level of efficacy between male and female teachers ($F(39,150) = 1.86$, $p < 0.05$). In general male teachers scored higher (M = 4.78, SD = 1.44) than female teachers (M = 4.64, SD = 1.3) except in two items related to the efficacy for helping families to help children do well in school and efficacy for implementing genre-based teaching.

Between subject effect tests, however, revealed that only one out of 39 items in all five subscales of the self-efficacy survey showed significant differences. This item was in the teachers' efficacy for student engagement subscale and was related to the teachers' efficacy for helping student value learning ($F(1,86) = 4.67$, $p < 0.05$).

The fact that gender differences contributed significantly to the level of teachers' efficacy beliefs was worth noting because there had been indication that demographic factors, like gender, were normally included merely as a control due to weak theoretical reasons to suggest them as related to self efficacy beliefs (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007). The findings showing a general trend of male teachers reporting a higher level of efficacy beliefs was also interesting, because teaching profession was usually dominated by female. This issue is discussed further in the chapter on discussion and interpretation of the data.

#### 4.3.1.2 The effects of age on teachers' self-efficacy beliefs

As stated previously, the age of the participating teachers was between 23 and 57 years. For the purpose of analysis, however, the sample was grouped into four age groups. These groups were teachers who were younger than 30 years of age, between 30 and 40 years, 41 and 50 years and older than 50 years. Teachers within the fourth group (>50 years) reported the highest level of teachers' efficacy (M = 4.79, SD = 1.78), followed by the second group (30-40 years) with M = 4.77 and SD = 1.21, the third group (41–50 years) with M=4.71 and SD = 1.22, and the first group (<30 years) reported the lowest level of efficacy with M = 4.4 and SD = 1.8. These findings were interesting in the case that teachers' efficacy in this study did not increase smoothly with age but fluctuated between the age groups.

**Table 4.3. Gender Differences in Teachers' Self-efficacy Beliefs**

| Efficacy Subscales | Efficacy for ... | Gender | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | | Male | Female |
| Efficacy for English | instructional English speaking | 5.4 | 5.0 |
| | English for communication | 4.7 | 4.3 |
| | understanding movies on TV | 4.6 | 4.0 |
| | understanding books written in English | 5.6 | 4.4 |
| | English songs | 4.7 | 4.3 |
| | instructional English writing | 5.6 | 5.0 |
| | English journal/publication writing | 4.6 | 3.7 |
| Efficacy for Instructional strategies | responding to questions | 5.6 | 5.0 |
| | gauging students' comprehension | 4.7 | 4.4 |
| | crafting good questions | 5.5 | 4.5 |
| | adjusting lessons to the proper levels of the students | 5.4 | 5.8 |
| | using a variety of assessment | 5.1 | 4.9 |
| | providing alternative explanation and examples* | 5.8 | 5.1 |
| | implementing alternative instructional strategies* | 5.1 | 4.8 |
| | providing challenges for capable students | 5.9 | 5.2 |
| Efficacy for Classroom Management | controlling disruptive students | 5.9 | 5.5 |
| | making the expectation clear for students | 5.0 | 5.0 |
| | establishing routines to keep activities running smoothly | 5.5 | 4.9 |
| | getting students follow classroom rules | 6.0 | 4.5 |
| | calming disruptive or noisy students | 6.0 | 5.8 |
| | establishing classroom management for groups | 5.4 | 5.1 |
| | keeping a few troubled students from ruining the whole class | 5.9 | 5.2 |
| | responding to defiant students | 5.6 | 4.5 |
| Efficacy for Student Engagement | getting through to the most difficult students | 5.4 | 5.1 |
| | helping students think critically | 5.0 | 4.5 |
| | motivating students who show low interest in school work | 5.7 | 5.3 |
| | getting students to believe that they can be successful in school work | 5.4 | 5.3 |
| | helping students value learning** | 5.9 | 5.5 |
| | fostering students' creativity | 5.2 | 4.7 |
| | improving the understanding of students who are failing | 5.9 | 5.5 |
| | helping families to help children do well in school | 4.2 | 4.3 |

Table 4.3 (continued)

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Efficacy for Curriculum Implementation | preparing lesson plans | 4.7 | 4.5 |
| | contextualizing teaching | 5.0 | 4.6 |
| | implementing genre based-teaching | 5.1 | 4.5 |
| | developing teaching materials | 5.1 | 4.7 |
| | stimulating students' inquiry | 4.5 | 4.2 |
| | presenting model in learning | 5.8 | 4.8 |
| | promoting interaction among learners | 5.5 | 4.8 |
| | using authentic assessment | 5.0 | 4.6 |

**) Significant at p = 0.05

Notwithstanding this fluctuation, the Multivariate test of MANOVA suggested that there was a statistically significant contribution of age on teachers' sense of efficacy ($F(117,150) = 1.95$, $p = 0.00$).

Because there were three age groups of participants, the Tuckey post hoc analyses were used to locate the significant differences among the groups Findings of these post hoc analyses reveled that although there were variation on the level of efficacy of all age groups, significant differences was only found between the first group, teachers younger than 30 years of age, and the other three age groups of teachers of 30 years of age or older.

At the univariate level, the tests of between-subjects effects revealed that there was a statistically significant contribution at $p = 0.05$ in six items of teachers' efficacy for English and teachers' efficacy for curriculum implementation (see Table 4.4).

As shown in Table 4.4, two items in the teachers' efficacy for English showed significant differences due to differences in age. These items were related to teachers' self-efficacy for understanding books written in English, $F(3,86) = 3.56$, $p = 0.02$, and teachers' self-efficacy for instructional English, $F(3,86) = 3.31$, $p = 0.02$.

Differences in age among the participants did not seem to contribute significantly to teachers' efficacy for instructional strategies, classroom management and student engagement. In these three subscales, there were no item showing significant differences at the significance level of $p = 0.05$.

Interesting findings were found in the efficacy for curriculum implementation. Among eight items in the subscale, four of them were statistically significant at the level of significance of $p = 0.05$. The four items showing significant differences at $p = 0.05$ were those concerning the teachers' efficacy for preparing lesson plans, $F(3,86) = 3.25$, $p = 0.03$, the efficacy for contextualizing teaching, $F(3,86) = 2.87$, $p = 0.04$, the efficacy for developing teaching materials, $F(3,86) = 3.24$, $p = 0.03$), and the teachers efficacy for using authentic assessment, $(3,86) = 4.33$, $p = 0.01$.

#### 4.3.1.3 The effects of English teaching background on teachers' self-efficacy beliefs

One of the independent variables of this study was related to whether the participating teachers had a background of study in an English teaching program before entering the profession as English teachers. This English

teaching program was attended by the participating teachers when they did the preservice program in the university. Among the sample, 144 teachers (94.7%) reported that they had English teaching program in their university, five teachers (3.3%) reported having no English teaching program and the other three (2%) teachers did not report whether or not they had an English teaching program.

MANOVA revealed that there was no significant contribution of English teaching background to the level of teachers' efficacy beliefs. This meant that regardless of their English teaching background, teachers in the sample were on an equal level of efficacy beliefs. However, this did not mean that there were no differences in the mean scores of the two groups of teachers. Surprisingly, when looking at the means of the groups, those who reported having no English teaching reported having higher level of self-efficacy beliefs than those who did have the English teaching. This was surprising, though careful consideration would suggest that this happened due to the lack of accurate understanding about quality English teaching among those who did not have the background. Such ignorance leads to the misjudgment of their efficacy.

**Table 4.4. Age Differences in Teachers' Self-efficacy Beliefs**

| Efficacy Subscales | Efficacy for …. | Ages (in years) | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | < 30 | 30-40 | 41-50 | > 50 |
| Efficacy for English | instructional English speaking | 4.8 | 5.0 | 5.0 | 4.9 |
| | English for communication | 4.3 | 4.6 | 4.5 | 4.6 |
| | understanding movies on TV | 4.3 | 4.0 | 4.1 | 3.8 |
| | understanding books written in English** | 5.0 | 4.6 | 4.5 | 4.7 |
| | English songs | 4.3 | 4.2 | 4.1 | 4.1 |
| | instructional English writing** | 5.3 | 5.0 | 4.6 | 5.5 |
| | English journal/publication writing | 3.1 | 3.2 | 3.0 | 3.4 |
| Efficacy for Instructional strategies | responding to questions | 5.2 | 5.0 | 4.8 | 5.4 |
| | gauging students' comprehension | 4.8 | 4.7 | 4.8 | 5.2 |
| | crafting good questions | 4.3 | 4.9 | 4.8 | 5.3 |
| | adjusting lessons to the proper levels of the students | 4.8 | 4.8 | 4.8 | 5.3 |
| | using a variety of assessment | 4.3 | 4.7 | 4.7 | 4.4 |
| | providing alternative explanation and examples | 4.8 | 5.3 | 5.0 | 5.2 |
| | implementing alternative instructional strategies | 4.7 | 4.8 | 4.7 | 4.9 |
| | providing challenges for capable students | 4.8 | 4.9 | 4.9 | 4.1 |
| Efficacy for Classroom Management | controlling disruptive students | 5.2 | 5.1 | 4.9 | 5.2 |
| | making the expectation clear for students | 4.9 | 5.1 | 4.8 | 4.9 |
| | establishing routines to keep activities running smoothly | 4.8 | 4.9 | 4.9 | 4.7 |
| | getting students to follow classroom rules | 5.4 | 5.4 | 5.3 | 5.8 |
| | calming disruptive or noisy students | 5.3 | 5.5 | 5.4 | 5.7 |
| | establishing classroom management for groups | 5.0 | 5.0 | 4.9 | 5.6 |
| | keeping a few troubled students from ruining the whole class | 4.8 | 5.0 | 5.2 | 5.1 |
| | responding to defiant students | 4.5 | 4.8 | 5.1 | 4.7 |

Table 4.4 (continued)

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Efficacy for Student Engagement | getting through to the most difficult students | 4.3 | 4.8 | 4.8 | 5.3 |
| | helping students think critically | 4.7 | 4.8 | 4.7 | 4.6 |
| | motivating students who show low interest in school work | 5.0 | 5.0 | 5.0 | 5.3 |
| | getting students to believe that they can be successful in school work | 5.2 | 5.1 | 5.0 | 5.3 |
| | helping students value learning | 4.8 | 5.2 | 5.1 | 5.0 |
| | fostering students' creativity | 4.8 | 4.8 | 4.8 | 3.8 |
| | improving the understanding of students who are failing | 5.2 | 4.8 | 4.9 | 4.5 |
| | helping families to help children do well in school | 3.6 | 4.2 | 4.3 | 4.3 |
| Efficacy for Curriculum Implementation | preparing lesson plans** | 4.2 | 4.5 | 4.3 | 4.9 |
| | contextualizing teaching** | 4.1 | 4.6 | 4.3 | 4.4 |
| | implementing genre based-teaching | 4.3 | 4.9 | 4.9 | 4.9 |
| | developing teaching materials** | 4.3 | 4.7 | 4.7 | 5.2 |
| | stimulating students' inquiry | 3.8 | 4.4 | 4.4 | 4.5 |
| | presenting model in learning | 4.3 | 4.8 | 4.8 | 4.4 |
| | promoting interaction among learners | 4.2 | 4.9 | 4.6 | 3.8 |
| | using authentic assessment** | 4.0 | 4.6 | 4.6 | 4.5 |

**) Significant at p = 0.05

#### 4.3.1.4 The effects of teaching experiences on teachers' self-efficacy beliefs

Multivariate tests revealed that there was a significant effect of teaching experience on the difference of the level of efficacy of the participating teachers, $F$ (1,98) = 1.33, $p < 0.05$. Findings also indicated that there was possibility that teachers' efficacy beliefs increased until a certain amount of time in teaching and then there was a chance to drop down toward the retirement age. Among the groups of sample, the group having teaching experience between five and fifteen years reported the highest level of efficacy beliefs, with the mean sore of 4.8 and standard deviation of 1.22. This group of teachers dominated those beginning teachers with less than five years of

teaching experience (M = 4.18, SD = 1.54), and those more experienced teachers with teaching experience of more than 15 years (M = 4.77, SD =1.32).

Because there were three groups of teachers based on the length of experience in teaching, Tukey Post Hoc was applied to locate the differences among the groups. The results of the post hoc analysis revealed that significant differences was only found between group of teachers having less than five years teaching experience and the other two groups of teachers with 5 – 15 years and more than 15 years teaching experience. There was no significant difference in the level of teachers' self-efficacy between teachers with 5-15 years and more than 15 years of teaching experience. In other words, only new teachers reported significant differences in their self-efficacy from those of more experienced teacher.

In addition, in the univariate level, findings suggested that among 39 items in the survey, 19 items show significant differences at the significance level of 0.05.

In the teachers' efficacy for English subscale, two items showed significant differences due to the differences in participants teaching experience. These two items were related to the teachers' efficacy for instructional English speaking, $F(2,86) = 4.20$, $p = 0.02$, and the teachers' efficacy for instructional English writing, $F(2,86) = 6.25$, $p = 0.00$..

Teachers' self-efficacy for instructional strategies was sensitive to differences in teaching experience with six of the eight items showing significant differences at $p = 0.05$. The six items were related to the teachers' efficacy for responding to questions, $F(2,86) = 5.86$, p = 0.00, the teachers' efficacy for gauging students' comprehension, $F(2,86) = 6.96$, $p = 0.00$, the teachers' efficacy for using variety of assessment, $F(2,86) = 6.07$, $p = 0.00$, the teachers' efficacy for providing alternative explanation and examples, $F(2,86) = 3.70$, $p = 0.03$, the teachers' efficacy for implementing alternative instructional strategies, $F(2,86) = 4.23$, $p = 0.02$, and the item measuring the teachers' efficacy for providing challenges for capable students, $F(2,86) = 5.99$, $p = 0.00$.

The positive effects of teaching experience were the least in the teachers' efficacy for classroom management. There was only one item showing significant differences in teachers' efficacy due to differences in teaching experience at the 95% degree of confidence. This item was related to the teachers' efficacy for getting students follow classroom rules, $F(2,86) = 3.39$, $p = 0.04$.

In the teachers' efficacy for student engagement, there were three items showing significant differences due to differences in teaching experiences. Those items were related to the teachers' efficacy for fostering students' creativity, $F(2,86) = 7.19$, $p = 0.00$, for improving the understanding of students who are failing, $F(2,86) = 6.59$, $p = 0.00$, and for helping families to help children do well in school, $F(2,86) = 4.60$, $p = 0.01$.

**Table 4.5. Contribution of Teaching Experience to Differences in Teachers' Self-efficacy Beliefs**

| Efficacy Subscales | Efficacy items | Means score as function of teaching Experience | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | <5 | 5-15 | >15 |
| Efficacy for English | instructional English speaking | 5.0 | 5.2 | 5.4 |
| | English for communication | 4.4 | 4.5 | 4.6 |
| | understanding movies on TV | 3.8 | 4.3 | 4.7 |
| | understanding books written in English | 4.7 | 5.2 | 5.2 |
| | English songs | 4.1 | 4.8 | 4.4 |
| | instructional English writing** | 5.1 | 5.2 | 5.7 |
| | English journal/publication writing** | 4.0 | 4.0 | 4.3 |
| Efficacy for Instructional strategies | responding to questions** | 4.9 | 5.2 | 5.7 |
| | gauging students' comprehension** | 4.0 | 4.7 | 4.8 |
| | crafting good questions | 4.8 | 5.4 | 5.6 |
| | adjusting lessons to the proper levels of the students | 5.2 | 5.3 | 5.3 |
| | using variety of assessment** | 4.5 | 5.1 | 5.4 |
| | providing alternative explanation and examples** | 4.8 | 5.7 | 5.9 |
| | implementing alternative instructional strategies** | 4.4 | 5.0 | 4.5 |
| | providing challenges for capable students** | 4.6 | 5.8 | 6.2 |
| Efficacy for Classroom Management | controlling disruptive students | 5.4 | 5.9 | 5.7 |
| | making the expectation clear for students | 4.7 | 5.3 | 5.0 |
| | establishing routines to keep activities running smoothly | 4.4 | 5.4 | 5.8 |
| | getting students follow classroom rules** | 5.3 | 5.9 | 6.1 |
| | calming disruptive or noisy students | 5.4 | 6.3 | 5.9 |
| | establishing classroom management for groups | 4.7 | 5.6 | 5.3 |
| | keeping a few troubled students from ruining the whole class | 5.1 | 5.9 | 5.6 |
| | responding to defiant students | 4.8 | 5.7 | 5.4 |

Table 4.5 (continued)

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Efficacy for Student Engagement | getting through the most difficult students | 5.2 | 5.3 | 5.4 |
| | helping students think critically | 4.3 | 4.9 | 5.1 |
| | motivating students who show low interest in school work | 5.0 | 5.7 | 5.7 |
| | getting students believe that they can be successful in school work | 5.1 | 5.5 | 5.5 |
| | helping students value learning | 5.5 | 5.8 | 5.9 |
| | fostering students' creativity** | 4.2 | 5.1 | 5.4 |
| | improving the understanding of students who are failing** | 5.1 | 6.1 | 5.9 |
| | helping families to help children do well in school** | 3.7 | 4.3 | 4.7 |
| Efficacy for Curriculum Implementation | preparing lesson plans** | 4.1 | 4.5 | 5.2 |
| | contextualizing teaching** | 4.4 | 4.9 | 5.1 |
| | implementing genre based-teaching** | 4.2 | 4.8 | 5.3 |
| | developing teaching materials** | 4.3 | 5.1 | 5.4 |
| | stimulating students' inquiry** | 4.1 | 4.4 | 4.6 |
| | presenting model in learning** | 4.7 | 5.4 | 5.8 |
| | promoting interaction among learners | 4.6 | 5.4 | 5.6 |
| | using authentic assessment** | 4.1 | 4.9 | 5.3 |

**) Significant at p = 0.05

Teachers' efficacy for implementing the curriculum was greatly affected by the differences in the teaching experience. Of eight items in the subscale, seven items were significant. The seven items showing significant differences at $p$ = 0.05 were items measuring teachers' efficacy for preparing lesson plans, $F(2,86) = 8.17$, $p = 0.00$, for contextualizing teaching, $F(2,86) = 7.75$, $p = 0.00$, for implementing the genre-based teaching, $F(2,86) = 8.26$, $p = 0.00$, for developing teaching materials, $F(2,86) = 10.80$, $p = 0.00$, for stimulating students' inquiry, $F(2,86) = 3.53$, $p = 0.03$, for presenting model in learning,

$F(2,86) = 7.04$, $p = 0.00$, and for using authentic assessment, $F(2,86) = 6.55$, $p = 0.00$.

#### 4.3.1.5 The effects of teacher status on teachers' self-efficacy beliefs

As mentioned in Chapter One, there are three types of teacher status in the teaching profession in the Indonesian context. They are civil servant teachers who are employed by the government, full-time private teachers who work for private education foundations or private schools, and part-time teachers who work in either public or private schools on the basis of a part-time contract. Based on the status of the teachers, one hundred and nineteen (78.3%) teachers were civil servant teachers, ten (6.6%) fulltime private teachers and twenty (13.2%) part time teachers.

Both Multivariate tests and tests of between-subjects effects of MANOVA revealed that there was neither significant contribution of teacher status in the level of efficacy beliefs nor differences between-subjects effects among the 39 items in the survey. Although there were differences in the mean score of the three groups resulted from the categorical independent variables, such differences were not statistically significant. The general trend, however, suggested that the more secure the status the more efficacious the teachers were, for example civil servant teachers reported higher sense of efficacy (M = 4.73), than the full-time private teachers (M = 4.67), while the full-time private teachers dominated the part-time teachers (M = 4.52).

### 4.3.1.6 The effects of schools on teachers' self-efficacy beliefs

There were two types of school where the participating teachers were teaching, public and private schools. One hundred and nineteen (78.3) teachers taught in public schools and the other 33 (21.7%) in private schools. Findings suggested that teachers teaching in public schools reported higher level of efficacy (M = 4.76, SD = 1.36) than those who are teaching in the private schools (M = 4.41, SD = 1.23).

In addition, Multivariate tests of MANOVA revealed that the types of school where the participants were teaching contributed significantly to the differences in the teachers' efficacy, $F(1,48) = 1.73$, $p = 0.04$. In the univariate level, the tests of between-subjects effects also suggested that there were significant differences in the teachers' efficacy beliefs due to differences in what schools the teachers were teaching. Seven items in the survey were significant at $p = 0.05$.

In the efficacy for English, there were two items in this subscale that showed significant difference at $p = 0.05$. These two items were related to the teachers' efficacy for instructional English speaking, $F(1,86) = 8.39$, $p = 0.00$, and the teachers' efficacy for understanding movies on TV, $F(1,86) = 4.46$, $p = 0.04$. Although the difference in the types of school did not contributed significantly to teachers' efficacy for student engagement, it provided significant effects on both teachers' efficacy for instructional strategies and classroom management. In the teachers' efficacy for instructional strategies one item that was

significantly affected by school type was the teachers' efficacy for providing challenges for capable students, $F(1,86) = 4.6$, $p = 0.04$. One item in the teachers' efficacy for classroom management was also significant with $F(1,86) = 4.36$, $p = 0.04$. This item was related to the teachers' efficacy for getting the students follow classroom rules.

The difference in the type of schools where the participants taught seemed to contribute substantially to the differences in the teachers' efficacy for curriculum implementation. Among eight items in this subscale, three items showed significant differences at $p = 0.05$. The three items which were significant at $p = 0.05$ were the teachers' efficacy for contextualizing teaching, $F(1,86) = 5.35$, $p = 0.02$, for stimulating students inquiry, $F(1,86) = 69$, $p = 0.05$, and for using authentic assessment, $F(1,86) = 8.23$, $p = 0.00$.

#### 4.3.1.7 The effects of districts on the teachers' self-efficacy beliefs

As previously mentioned, the participating teachers were from one municipality and four districts in Yogyakarta province of Indonesia. Based on their mean scores, teachers from Yogyakarta municipality reported the highest self-efficacy beliefs (M = 5.14, SD = 1.06), followed by teachers from Kulonprogo regency (M = 4.84, SD = 1.1), teachers from Sleman regency (M = 4.64, SD = 2.06), teachers from Gunungkidul regency (M = 4.55, SD = 1.25), and teachers from Bantul regency (M = 4.49, SD = 1.09).

Surprisingly, although districts had different policies regarding teachers and the teaching profession that could potentially affect the level of teachers' efficacy beliefs, Multivariate tests of MANOVA suggested that there was no significant contribution of districts to the level of self-efficacy of the teachers, $F(156, 204) = 1.726$, $p = 0.12$. This implied that such different policies were not related to differences in the level of teachers' efficacy beliefs.

### 4.3.2 The interaction effects

Due to the limited power observed in the data, this research only worked on the two-way interaction effects in the MANOVA. Although the researcher had set such a limitation, some interactions involving the variables related to participants' education background regarding whether the participants had received an English teaching program in their preservice program, and participants' teacher status did not show any $F$ and $p$ values. This could be because there were not enough members in the groups created by the categorical variables to make sufficient linear association. For example, the number of participants with no English teaching background was only five (3%) out of one hundred and two teachers in the sample, and only ten (7%) participants reported being part-time private teachers. In the presentation of the results, therefore, only interactions with significant differences were reported.

#### 4.3.2.1 Interaction effects of gender and age on teachers' efficacy beliefs

The F-test in the Multivariate analyses of Repeated Measures MANOVA revealed that there was a significant two-way interaction effect of gender and age groups on the teachers' efficacy beliefs, $F(78,98) = 1.56$, $p < 0.05$. However, the results of the tests of between-subjects effects indicated that there were only two items of all 39 items in the five subscales that showed significant differences at the 95% level of confidence ($p = 0.05$). This meant that although the data indicated that a significant combined effect of gender and age of the participating teachers was present, not many items in the scale were sensitive to the interaction effect of gender and age differences. Significant differences at the 95% degree of confidence were only found in two items, with one item respectively in the teachers' efficacy for instructional strategies and teachers' efficacy for student engagement subscales.

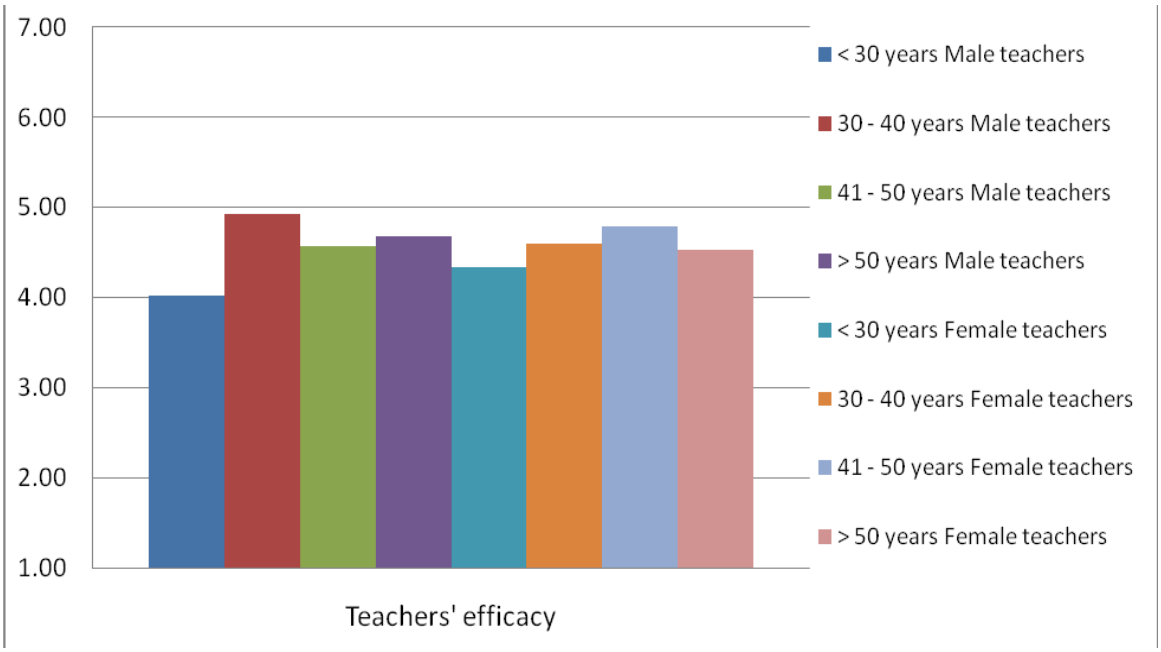
The first two significant items were items related to teachers' efficacy for responding to defiant students, ($F(2,86) = 4.21$, $p < 0.05$ and teachers' efficacy for improving the understanding of students who are failing, $F(2,86) = 4.21$, $p < 0.05$.

Interestingly, the combined gender by age effects brought about different patterns of changes in the level of teachers' efficacy where rapid increases in the efficacy happened earlier in the teaching career of male teachers with the highest mean appearing at the age of 30 to 40, while for female the highest was

later at 40 to 50 years of age (see Figure 4.1). Another interesting finding was that although the group of young male teachers, younger than 30 years of age, reported lower efficacy than the young female teachers at the same age group, the older male teachers, age between thirty and forty, reported higher level of efficacy than the female at the same age group. An assumption of the causes of this trend, which is suspected to be related to different ways of coping shock in early teaching career between male and female, is further discussed in the chapter about discussion and interpretation.

**Figure 4.1**

**Gender and age differences in teachers' efficacy beliefs**



#### 4.3.2.2 Interaction effects of teaching experience and school on teachers' efficacy beliefs

The *F*-test in the Multivariate analyses of variance suggested that there was significant interaction effect of teaching experience and school on the levels of teachers' efficacy beliefs, $F(39,48) = 1.68$, $p < 0.05$. Further examination on the tests of between-subjects effects revealed that teachers' efficacy beliefs were fairly sensitive to the combined effects of teaching experience and school type differences, where there were eight items in all subscales showing significant differences at $p < 0.05$. Those significant items were found in two items of teachers' efficacy for English subscale, one item in teachers' efficacy for instructional strategies, one item in the teachers' efficacy for classroom management, and five items in the teachers' efficacy for curriculum implementation. No significant item was found in the teachers' efficacy for student engagement subscale.

An item in the teachers' efficacy for English subscale that was related to teachers' efficacy for instructional English speaking was sensitive to the combined effect of teaching experience and school differences with $F(1,86) = 4.81$, $p < 0.05$. Another item that was significantly affected by the combined effect of teacher experience and school differences was related to the teachers' efficacy for English journal /publication writing, $F(1,86) = 4.92$, $p < 0.05$.

There was no item in the teachers' efficacy for instructional strategy subscale that showed significant difference due to combined effects of teaching

experience and the type of schools. An item in the teachers' efficacy for classroom management, however, showed significant difference due to the interaction effect of teacher experience and school type. This item was related to the teachers' efficacy for getting students follow classroom rules with $F(1,86) = 4.01$, $p < 0.05$.

Data indicated that teachers' efficacy for curriculum implementation were highly sensitive to the combined effects of teachers' experience and school, where five of the eight items in the subscale showed significant differences at the 95% degree of confidence. These five items were related to teachers' efficacy for preparing lesson plans with $F(1, 86) = 6.81$, $p = 0.01$, teachers' efficacy for contextualizing teaching with $F(1,86) = 7.08$, $p = 0.01$, teachers' efficacy for developing materials with $F(1,86) = 4.3$, $p = 0.04$, teachers' efficacy for presenting a model in learning with $F(1,86) = 4.23$, $p = 0.04$, and teachers' efficacy for using authentic assessment with $F(1,86) = 7.8$, $p = 0.01$.

#### 4.3.2.3 Interaction effects of age groups and teacher status on teachers' efficacy beliefs

Although results of *F*-tests in the Multivariate test of ANOVA did not result in significant differences at the level of 95% confidence, it was interesting to see that the interaction effects of age groups and teacher status were almost significant at the level of 90% confidence, with $F(39,48) = 1.57$, $p = 0.07$. In addition, although the tests of between-subjects effects in MANOVA indicated that only two items in all of the subscales were found to be sensitive to the

combined effect of age and teaching status, changes in the levels of efficacy beliefs as a result of the increasing age of teachers with different status were worthy of exploration. This was due to the different natures embodied in the three teachers' status in Indonesian context. Further discussion on these issues appears in Chapter 6.

## 4.4 Results of the Repeated Measures MANOVA

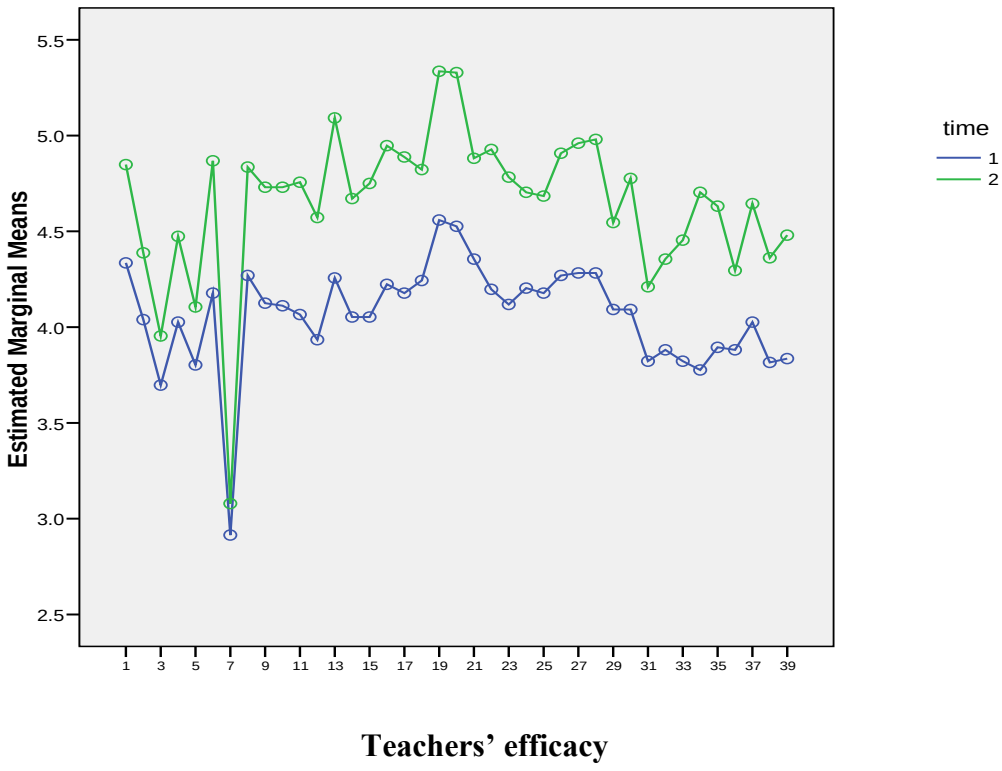
Repeated measures MANOVA was used in this study to investigate the differences of the secondary school English teachers' efficacy beliefs in Yogyakarta province as a result of the teachers' attendance in the Competency-based Integrated Training (CBIT). As stated in the background of this study, this training was aimed at upgrading the teachers' competence in teaching in general and in the implementation of curriculum in the classroom in particular as an attempt to better respond to the newly issued Curriculum 2006, which was, at its initial stage, called the Competency-based Curriculum.

In collecting the data, the researcher asked the participants to report their levels of efficacy beliefs before and after the training. In the execution of the data collection, teachers were first asked to report their efficacy beliefs at the time the data were collected, and then with the same items, they were asked to report their efficacy before they attended the CBIT training. The recorded data were then coded into the Efficacy_NOW and Efficacy_THEN formats. Efficacy_NOW referred to the level of the teachers' efficacy at the time the data

were collected or after attending the training, while Efficacy_THEN referred to the level of teachers' efficacy beliefs before they attended the training.

In general, Multivariate tests in the Repeated Measures MANOVA suggested that there were significant differences between the level of teachers' efficacy beliefs before and after their attendance in the Competency-based Integrated training, $F$ (38, 114) = 3.511, $p < .05$. Differences in the means of the teachers' self-efficacy beliefs can be seen in Figure 4.2, with *time_1* representing the level of teachers' efficacy before attending the CBIT, and *time_2* representing the levels of teachers' efficacy after the training.

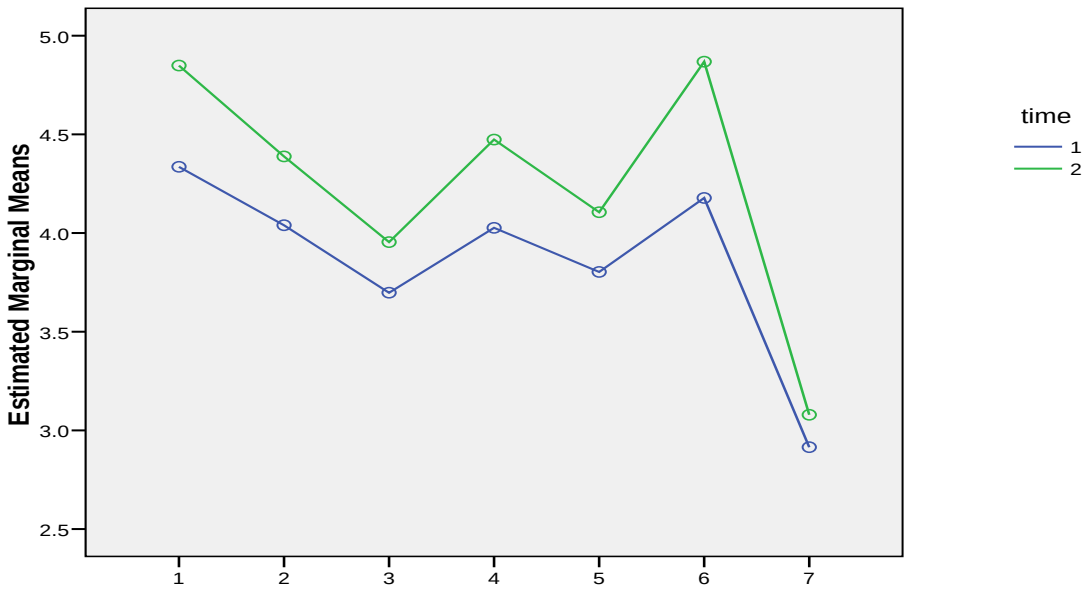
**Figure 4.2. Difference in means of teachers' efficacy before and after CBIT**



### 4.4.1 The effects of Competency-based Integrated Training on the teachers' efficacy for English

Multivariate tests in the Repeated Measures MANOVA on the teachers' efficacy for English subscale revealed that there were statistically significant differences in the levels of teachers' efficacy before and after they attended the CBIT, $F(6,146) = 7.9$, $p < .05$ (Figure 4.3). As in the general trend, the mean scores of the after-training items in the efficacy for English subscale were higher than the before-training ones.

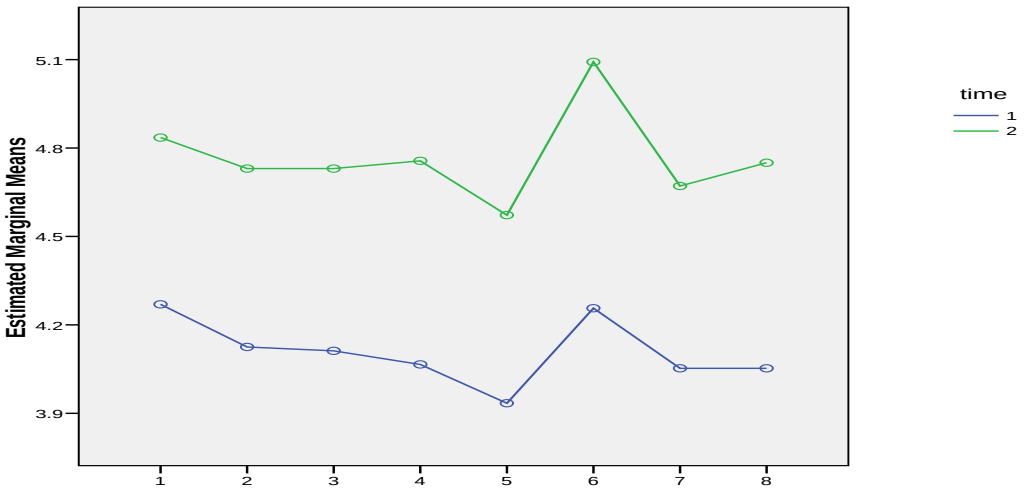
**Figure 4.3. Difference in means of teachers efficacy for English before and after CBIT**



### 4.4.3 The effects of Competency-based Integrated Training on the teachers' efficacy for Instructional Strategies

Results of Multivariate tests in Repeated Measures MANOVA suggested that there were significant differences in the mean scores of teachers' efficacy for instructional strategies before and after the CBIT, $F(7,145) = 2.745$, $p < .05$. In this subscale, it was found that the training contributed positively towards the level of teachers' efficacy for instructional strategies where after-training mean scores were higher than the before-training ones (Figure 4.4).

**Figure 4.4. Difference in means of teachers' efficacy for instructional strategy before and after CBIT**

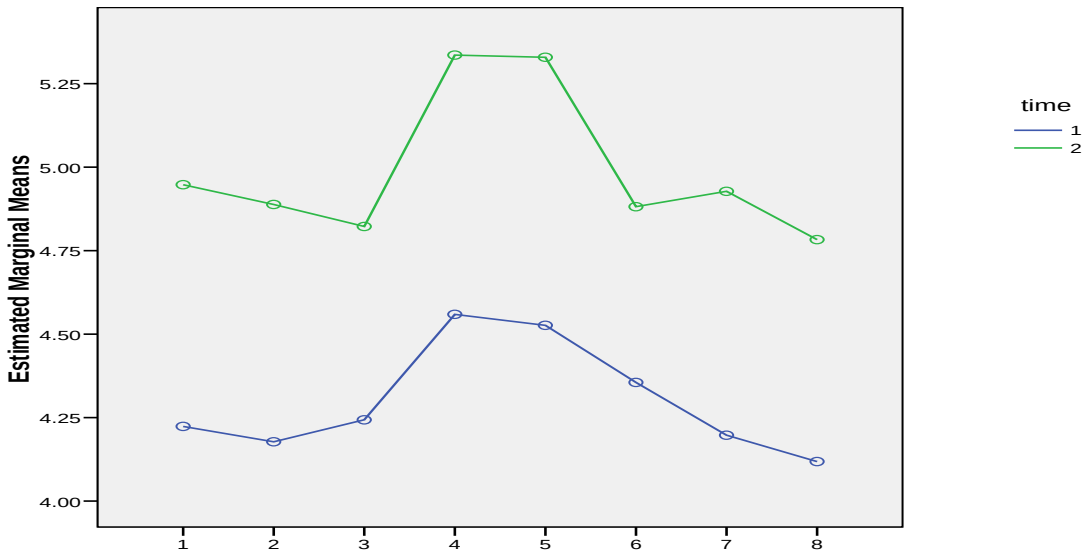



**Teachers' Efficacy for Instructional Strategies**

### 4.4.4 The effects of Competency-based Integrated Training on the teachers' efficacy for Classroom Management

Multivariate tests in the Repeated Measures MANOVA suggested that the CBIT contributed positively to the levels of teachers' efficacy for classroom management. This in turn brought about differences in the mean scores of the teachers' efficacy where after-training mean scores were higher that the before-training ones (Figure 4.5). The tests also suggested that the differences in the levels of teachers' efficacy were statistically significant, $F(7,145) = 2.9$, $p < .05$.

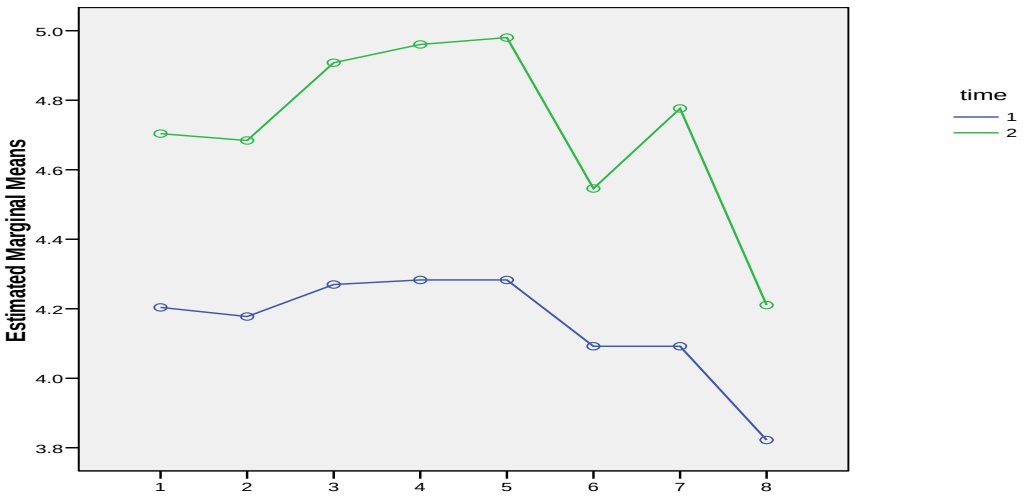
**Figure 4.5. Difference in means of teachers' efficacy for classroom management before and after CBIT**



### 4.4.5 The effects of Competency-based Integrated Training on the teachers' efficacy for Student Engagement

Multivariate tests of Repeated Measures MANOVA suggested that there were significant positive contributions of CBIT to the levels of teachers' efficacy for student engagement. After-training mean scores were higher than the before training scores for all eight items in this subscale (Figure 4.6). Furthermore, the Multivariate tests also revealed that these differences in the means were statistically significant, $F(7,145) = 3.86$, $p < .05$.

**Figure 4.6 Difference in means of teachers' efficacy for student engagement before and after CBIT**



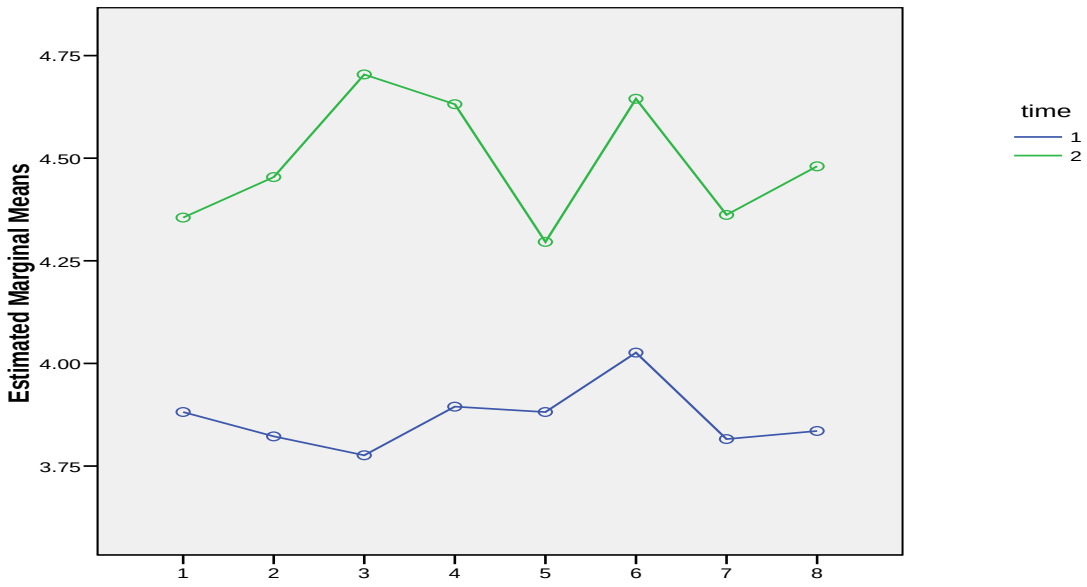
### 4.4.6 The effects of Competency-based Integrated Training on the teachers' efficacy for Curriculum Implementation

There were significant differences in the means of the teachers' efficacy for curriculum implementation before and after CBIT, $F(7,145) = 4.44$, $p < .05$. The differences were resulted from the positive contribution of the training, so that the after-training mean scores were higher than that of before-training (Figure 4.7).

## 4.5 Data on teachers' work engagement

Data related to the work engagement of Junior secondary school English teachers in this study were collected using the short form of the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES 9) developed by Schaufeli et al. (Schaufeli, et al., 2001). This scale is a three-factor scale consisting of nine items aiming to measure the three dimensions of work engagement- *vigor*, *dedication* and *absorption*. Three items were used to measure each dimension. All nine items were anchored on a seven-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (never) to 7 (always).

**Figure 4.7. Difference in means of teachers' efficacy for curriculum implementation before and after CBIT**




**Teachers Efficacy for Curriculum Implementation**

Results suggested that the work engagement among the junior secondary school English teachers in Yogyakarta province of Indonesia was generally above the mid-point on the 7-point Likert-type scale (Overall mean = 5.05, SD=1.13; with *M*=4.99, SD=1.13 for vigor, M=5.44, SD=1.08 for dedication, and M=4.71, SD=1.03 for absorption). Detail of the mean scores can be observed in Table 4.6. These findings were to a certain extent interesting in respect of the low financial return and academic recognition the teachers receive in the Indonesian context. From these findings it was suggested that low financial returns and academic recognition did not affect the level of teachers' work engagement much. This was also supported by the fact that the mean score of dedication was

the highest among the three factors. Further interpretation of these findings can be found in the discussion and interpretation chapter.

**Table 4.6. Means and Standard Deviations of Teachers' Work Engagement**

| Engagement Items | | Means | SDs |
|---|---|---|---|
| Vigor | At my work, I feel bursting with energy. | 4.88 | 1.09 |
| | At my job, I feel strong and vigorous. | 5.11 | 1.05 |
| | When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work. | 4.99 | 1.23 |
| Dedication | I am enthusiastic about my job. | 5.43 | 1.04 |
| | My job inspires me. | 5.24 | 1.07 |
| | I am proud of the work that I do. | 5.66 | 1.13 |
| Absorption | I feel happy when I am working intensely. | 4.87 | 1.19 |
| | I am immersed in my work. | 4.92 | 1.15 |
| | I get carried away when I am working. | 4.36 | 1.32 |

Multivariate tests of ANOVA revealed that there were no significant main effects of independent variables on the level of participants work engagement. Although there were differences in the means of the groups created by the categorical variables, such differences were not significant. MANOVA did not reveal any significant interaction effects of the independent variables either.

The fact that all participating teachers were engaged in the teaching profession at relatively the same level no matter what background they had was interesting to explore. Questions related to factors affecting the relatively high level of teachers' work engagement beyond the predetermined independent variables in this study were considered worth exploring in the discussion section.

# 4.6 Results of Reliability test on the data

## 4.6.1 Reliability of self-efficacy scales

The reliability test on the efficacy scales revealed that the overall value of the Cronbach's alpha of the five subscales in the teachers' efficacy survey was .97, which means that the items within these subscales had very good internal consistency. Although there was a concern of the possibility of redundancy among items, the mean of the inter-items correlation of .49 rejected this idea. With such level of inter-items correlation, it can be argued that there are correlations among the items but no redundancy.

Reliability of every subscale was also high with the Cronbach's alpha of .91 for the Efficacy for English subscale with the inter-items $r$ = .59, .92 for the Efficacy for instructional strategies with the inter-items $r$ = .59, .93 for the Efficacy for Classroom Management with the inter-items $r$ = .61, .91 for the Efficacy for student engagement with the inter-items $r$ = .57, and .94 for the Efficacy for curriculum implementation with the inter-items $r$ = .65.

## 4.6.2 Reliability of work engagement data

Reliability analyses on work engagement data revealed that the nine items of the scale had very good internal consistency with a Cronbach's alpha value of .90 with the inter-items $r$ = 5.2. Each subscale also showed good internal consistency with the Cronbach's alpha value of .76 for Vigor with the inter-

items *r* = .51, Cronbach's alpha of .83 for Dedication with the inter-items *r* = .63, and Chronbach's alpha of .79 for Absorption with the inter-items *r* = .56.

# 4.7 Data Correlation

## 4.7.1 Correlation among teachers' efficacy subscales

Spearman *rho* correlation results showed that there were positive significant correlations at the significance level of 0.01 among data collected using the five subscales of the teachers' efficacy survey. Detail of the correlation value could be observed in Table 4.7.

**Table 4.7. Correlation among Efficacy Subscales**

| Efficacy for ... | (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| English (1) | 1 | | | | |
| instructional strategies (2) | .727* | 1 | | | |
| classroom management (3) | .62* | .78* | 1 | | |
| student engagement (4) | .59* | .78* | .78* | 1 | |
| curriculum implementation (5) | .71* | .77* | .68* | .74* | 1 |

## 4.7.1 Correlation between teachers' efficacy and teachers' work engagement

Spearman *rho* correlation analyses on the relation between teachers' efficacy beliefs and work engagement revealed that there was a positive significant correlation between the two (see Table 4.8). An increase in the level of efficacy would be likely to bring about an increase in the teachers' work engagement.

**Table 4.8. Correlation between Teachers' Efficacy and Work Engagement**

| | Teachers' work engagement |
|---|---|
| Efficacy for English | .488** |
| Efficacy for instructional strategies | .434** |
| Efficacy for classroom management | .470** |
| Efficacy for student engagement | .476** |
| Efficacy for curriculum implementation | .565** |

# 4.8 Results of Exploratory Factor Analyses

Exploratory factor analysis was used to investigate the factor loading of the items used to collect the data. The factor analysis was carried out for both the teacher efficacy and teacher work engagement scales. This was done due to the fact that this study had the predetermined model specifying the number and composition of the factors in the surveys. Besides, it was also undertaken based the expectation that there would be differences in the factor loading due to the different groups of participants. The factor analyses used in this study applied the principal component analysis extraction method and varimax rotation method.

Several steps were followed in the conduct of the factor analysis for both scales. The steps included the trying out of several different factors specified in the analysis. These variations in the number of the specified factors were made to test the consistency in terms of the factor loading emerging from the analysis. In doing the factor analysis for the teacher efficacy scale, the researchers used an

unspecified number of factors, five factors and six factors. As hypothesized, the teacher efficacy survey consisted of five subscales, and it therefore consisted of five factors. From the factor analysis involving the unspecified number of factors, five and six factors, the results were relatively the same in terms of the loading of the items in the survey. Differences were found in the degree of the loading but not in the number of factors or the items loaded in the factors. Because the results were relatively the same regardless of the number of factors specified, they were reported based on the unspecified number of factor. Detailed results can be found in Section 4.9.2 of this chapter.

Factor analysis in the teacher work engagement was also carried out by varying the number of the factors. As hypothesized, the teacher work engagement survey consisted of three factors as vigor, dedication and absorption. In doing the factor analysis, the researcher varied the number of factors using an unspecified number of factors, two factors and three factors. Detailed results of the factor analysis were reported in section 4.9.2.

### 4.8.1 Results of the exploratory factor analyses on the teachers' efficacy data

The teachers' efficacy survey was hypothesized to consist of five factors in two general parts. The first part consisted of three factors of general teacher efficacy beliefs which was made up of three factors addressing the efficacy for instructional strategies, classroom management and student engagement. The second part of the survey consisted of two subscales developed by the

researcher to address the specific context of teachers' work life in Indonesia. Those two subscales were hypothesized to represent two factors consisting of the teachers' efficacy for English and teachers' efficacy for curriculum implementation.

As stated previously, results of the exploratory factor analyses on the teacher efficacy scale reported in this section were based on the factor analysis using an unspecified number of factors. The first reason of choosing to report on the analysis based on this unspecified number of factors is that it yielded consistent results among the analysis using the unspecified number of factors, and the analyses using five factors and six factors. The second reason was that by using an unspecified number of factors, the researcher assumed that there was no by-design factor effect, thus minimizing the intervention.

The results of factor analysis suggested that principal component extraction and varimax rotation methods came up with an extraction of five factors with more than one eigenvalues. While the two factors designed by the researcher sat nicely on two separate factors, see Table 5.6, problems appeared with respect to the three factors drawn from the published Ohio States Teacher Self-Efficacy Scales (OSTES). Based on the loading patterns found in the data, seven items in the teacher efficacy for instructional strategies were loaded as one single factor, while the remaining item, the item about the teacher efficacy for providing challenges for capable students, was loaded in a different factor.

In the teacher efficacy for classroom management, only five items were loaded as one factor, while the other three items appeared to have cross loading with heavier loading on different factors from the other five items. Special treatment was done for this subscale, by doing factor analysis separately using two and three factors factor analysis. Results from this special treatment confirmed the assumption that in this present study it appeared that the efficacy for classroom management subscale had a high order factor consisting of two different factors. The first factor seemed to be related to teachers' control, with three items related to the teachers' efficacy in dealing with disruptive, troubled and defiant students (items number 1, 7 and 8) and the other factor was related to the teachers' efficacy for managing the classroom in general (items number 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6). Interestingly item number 5, the item about teacher efficacy for calming disruptive and noisy students did not load on the teachers' control, regardless of the word calming disruptive and noisy students in the statement. The two factors resulted from these factor analyses can be argued due to the different perception among the teachers in the sample about the ideas if controlling and managing the class. Further explanation about this difference in perception is discussed in the discussion and interpretation section.

Another problem was also found in the teacher efficacy for student engagement subscale, where only five of the eight items in the subscale were loaded on one factor. The other three items were loaded on two different factors. In addition, the five factors loaded as one factor were identified as the same factor as the

classroom management factor. One item in the subscale was loaded as the same factor as the teacher efficacy for curriculum implementation subscale, and the other two items were loaded as a different factor. Although the three subscales adopted from the OSTES were loaded as three factors, the third factor that consisted of five items was derived from items coming from all the three different subscales.

### 4.8.2 Results of Exploratory Factor Analyses on Work Engagement Data

At the early stage, the exploratory factor analysis on the teachers' work engagement scale was also conducted using an unspecified number of factors, two factors and three factors factor analyses. The report, however, was based on the unspecified number of factors, for the same reasons as those for the factor analyses on the teachers' self-efficacy scale. Results revealed that the analyses failed to extract the data into three factors as was hypothesized. Instead it resulted in only two factors, (see Table 4.10). In the rescaled factors, the first hypothesized factor, vigor, seemed to be fit nicely in one factor. The second hypothesized factor, dedication, also fit in as one factor, although the last item was also loaded moderately as a different factor. The problem with this factor was that it was identified as the same factor as vigor. Factor analyses, therefore, failed to separate these two hypothesized factors, instead they were loaded as one factor.

**Table 4.9. Factor Loading of the Teacher Self-efficacy Items**

| Self-Efficacy items | Factor Loading | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Efficacy for English | | | | | |
| instructional English speaking | | | 71 | | |
| English for communication | | | 72 | | |
| understanding movies on TV | | | 70 | | |
| understanding books written in English | | | 70 | | |
| English songs | | | 71 | | |
| instructional English writing | | | 62 | | |
| English journal/publication writing | | | 66 | | |
| Efficacy for Instructional Strategies* | | | | | |
| responding to questions | | | | | 60 |
| gauging students' comprehension | | | | | 53 |
| crafting good questions | | | | | 74 |
| adjusting lessons to the proper levels of the students | | | | | 69 |
| using variety of assessment | | | | | 50 |
| providing alternative explanation and examples | | | | | 58 |
| implementing alternative instructional strategies | | | | | 53 |
| providing challenges for capable students | | | | 63 | |
| Efficacy for Classroom Management* | | | | | |
| controlling disruptive students | 45 | | | 66 | |
| making the expectation clear for students | 59 | | | | |
| establishing routines to keep activities running smoothly | 56 | | | | |
| getting students follow classroom rules | 67 | | | | |
| calming disruptive or noisy students | 78 | | | | |
| establishing classroom management for groups | 69 | | | | |
| keeping a few troubled students from ruining the whole class | 52 | | | 69 | |
| responding defiant students | 42 | | | 67 | |
| Efficacy for student engagement* | | | | | |
| getting through the most difficult students | 69 | | | | |
| helping students think critically | 65 | | | | |
| motivating students who show low interest in school work | 74 | | | | |
| getting students believe they can be successful in school work | 67 | | | | |
| helping students value learning | 71 | | | | |
| fostering students' creativity | | | | 64 | |
| improving the understanding of students who are failing | | | | 67 | |
| helping families to help children do well in school | | 49 | | | |

Table 4.9 (continued)

| Self-efficacy Items | Factors | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Efficacy for Curriculum Implementation | | | | | |
| preparing lesson plans | | 78 | | | |
| contextualizing teaching | | 69 | | | |
| implementing genre based-teaching | | 61 | | | |
| developing teaching materials | | 71 | | | |
| stimulating students' inquiry | | 71 | | | |
| presenting model in learning | | 64 | | | |
| promoting interaction among learners | | 51 | | | |
| using authentic assessment | | 64 | | | |

Notes: Factor loading x 100, rounded

Only loading > .39 displayed

* Drawn from the OSTES (Tshannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001)

### 4.8.2 Results of Exploratory Factor Analyses on Work Engagement Data

At the early stage, the exploratory factor analysis on the teachers' work engagement scale was also conducted using an unspecified number of factors, two factors and three factors factor analyses. The report, however, was based on the unspecified number of factors, for the same reasons as those for the factor analyses on the teachers' self-efficacy scale. Results revealed that the analyses failed to extract the data into three factors as was hypothesized. Instead it resulted in only two factors, (see Table 4.10). In the rescaled factors, the first hypothesized factor, vigor, seemed to be fit nicely in one factor. The second hypothesized factor, dedication, also fit in as one factor, although the last item was also loaded moderately as a different factor. The problem with this factor

was that it was identified as the same factor as vigor. Factor analyses, therefore, failed to separate these two hypothesized factors, instead they were loaded as one factor.

The first two items of the third hypothesized factor, absorption, were loaded as different factor from the first two subscales. Exploratory factor analysis, therefore, identified these two items as a different factor. The first item, however, was not loaded as the same factor as the first two, but was loaded as the same factor as both vigor and dedication.

**Table 4.10. Factor Loading of the Teachers' Work Engagement Items**

| Self-efficacy Items | Factor Loading | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Raw Factors | | Rescaled Factors | |
| | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 |
| Vigor | | | | |
| At my work I feel bursting with energy. | 77 | | 70 | |
| At my job, I feel strong and vigorous. | 76 | | 73 | |
| I am enthusiastic about my job. | 86 | | 83 | |
| Dedication | | | | |
| My job inspires me | 84 | | 79 | |
| When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work | 88 | 48 | 71 | |
| I feel happy when I am working intensely. | 75 | 55 | 63 | 46 |
| Absorption | | | | |
| I am proud of the work that I do. | 82 | | 73 | |
| I am immersed when in my work. | 49 | 85 | 43 | 73 |
| I get carried away when I am working. | 22 | 125 | | 95 |

Notes: Factor loading x 100, rounded

Only loading > 39 displayed

Based on the results of the exploratory factor analyses on both the efficacy and work engagement data, it is worth noting that there was a need to look at the

items more intensively so that the two scales could be optimized for a better future use. Detailed interpretation and collaboration of the findings of the factor analyses are discussed in the Discussion Chapter.

# Chapter 5 Findings from Qualitative Case Studies

## 5.1 Overview

This section is the second part of a two-chapter section presenting the data collected in this research study. In particular it presents the qualitative data collected using both the interview protocol and the classroom observation schedule. The presentation is organized in terms of the cases. However, in order to provide a complete understanding of each case, the researcher considered worthy to present the summary of the participants' self report from the efficacy survey. Therefore, each case starts with a description of the participants, is then followed by the presentation of the self-report data collected using the efficacy survey, the interview protocol, and finishes with the data from the classroom observation from each participant.

There were several issues addressed in the interview protocol (see 6B). In summary these issues included (a) visions for teaching covering the teachers' beliefs and values about English teaching, (b) sense of teaching efficacy, (c) perceived supports from colleagues and school, and (d) perceived effect of the Competency-based integrated training (CBIT) on the level of teacher efficacy. The collegial and school supports included supports in terms of facilities, administration and supports when teachers had to make decisions.

Data about the participants' classroom practices were collected using the observation schedule (see 6C). It is worthy to note that the purpose of the observations was to reveal data concerning the teachers' confidence in doing teaching-related tasks, regardless of the appropriateness of what they did. In line with the main objectives of this study, there were five main aspects of the teachers' practices observed in their classroom. They were a) the teachers' confidence in using English, b) their practices in implementing instructional strategies, c) managing the classroom, d) engaging the students and e) implementing the curriculum. In addition, the data were supplemented by the researcher's field notes on teachers' general practices, for examples the routines built by teachers.

## 5.2 The Cases

There were four participants in this follow up case study. Each participant represented an individual case. As described in the chapter on methodology, the selection of these teachers was based on the nomination of the teacher instructors who were involved in organizing the CBIT in the region. These four teachers represented the high, middle and low ranks of teachers. One teacher was from the high-ranked, two teachers were from the middle-ranked and another teacher was from the low-ranked teachers. All participants were from one district and one municipality in the province. All teachers had more than fifteen years of English teaching experience. Three were teaching in public school and one was in private school.

Although it was not designed to be the case, all the teachers who were observed and interviewed were female. At the beginning of the data collection, there were twelve teachers nominated by the teacher instructors. From that group of twelve teachers, eight teachers expressed their willingness to join the follow up study, and of those two were male teachers. Because the design of the case study required six teachers, two from each level recommended by the teacher instructors, four female and the two male teachers were selected. However, at the end of the data collection the two male teachers withdrew their participation. This was unfortunate, since their withdrawal was at the critical end of the scheduled data collection period, leaving insufficient time to organize replacement observations and interviews before the researcher had to return to Australia.

All participants in the follow up case study had more than fifteen year teaching experience. This was based on the fact that in the sample involved in the survey in the present study, most of the English teachers had been teaching for more than fifteen years. Therefore, taking this group of teachers as participants in the follow up case studies would best represent the biggest number of English teachers in the region.

### 5.2.1 Case #1: Dewi

Dewi had been teaching English for 21 years. She was teaching in one of the top-ranked schools in the province, with students with very satisfactory achievement.

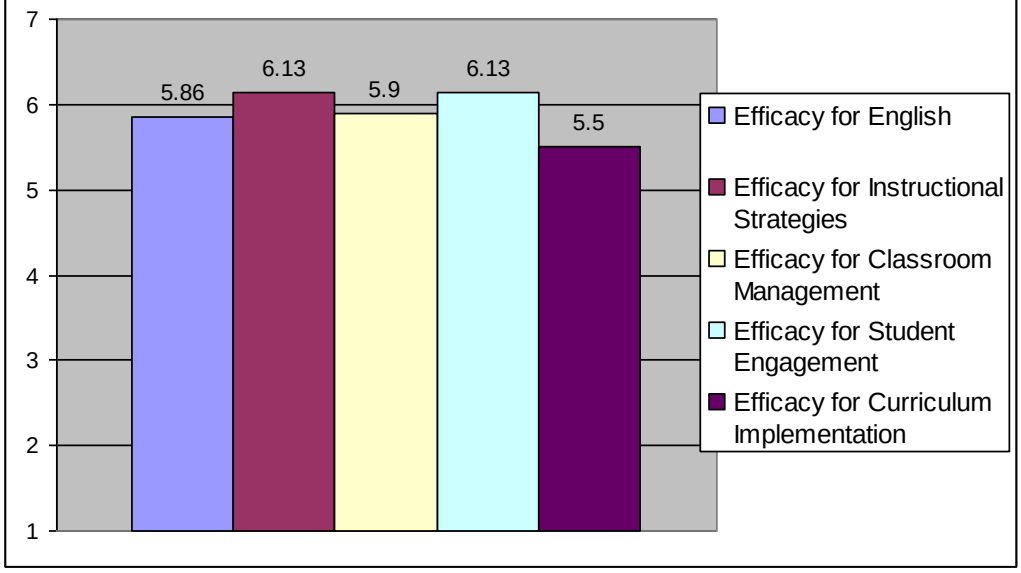
Dewi was the only high-ranked teacher participating in this follow up study. She held an English teaching degree from a teaching college in the province. At the time the data were collected she was in her first year of her post-graduate program also majoring in English teaching.

Dewi was an experienced teacher not only in terms of her English teaching, but also in her other activities related to English teaching and teaching in general. She was one of four teachers participating in a two-month visiting teacher program held in cooperation between the Indonesian and Australian governments. She went to Darwin and Victoria and taught Indonesian for Australian Indonesian teachers in both regions. She was also a frequent speaker in a number workshops and training seminars for English teachers in the province.

#### 5.2.1.1 Dewi's self-assessment about her efficacy beliefs: Self-efficacy survey results

To begin with the individual case, Figure 5.1 presents the results of Dewi's self-assessment of her own level of efficacy based on the survey data. The overall mean of her self-efficacy was 5.9 on a seven-point scale, which meant that she was at the 84% confidence. This reflected a very high level of self-efficacy beliefs.

**Figure 5.1**
**Survey data on Dewi's self-efficacy beliefs**




When looking at the mean score of every sub-scale, the Dewi's highest level of efficacy was in both efficacy for instructional strategies and efficacy for student engagement where she rated herself as being 87.6% confident, followed by her efficacy for classroom management at 84.3%, her efficacy for English at 83.7%, and her efficacy for curriculum implementation as the lowest at 78.6% confidence. Based on these data, it was worth looking further at data about the level of her efficacy beliefs collected from both the interview and classroom observation.

### 5.2.1.2 The Interviews with Dewi

The interview with Dewi was conducted on a Friday morning. She had no class at the time the interview was conducted.

#### 5.2.1.2.1 Visions for teaching

The visions for teaching in the interview covered issues related to the teachers' beliefs and values about English teaching. Such issues were explored using questions about what is considered to be desirable characteristics of English classes and the criteria of a successful English teacher.

When asked about the kind of English classes she wanted to emerge from her teaching, Dewi signaled that active involvement was the desired characteristic of her classroom. She said:

> Actually when I am in class, I would like my students active in using English whether in asking questions or between students, they will also discuss in English. But you know… but Indonesian students are lack of initiative, we have to motivate them a lot to speak in the class. Actually I just want to bring the outside world into the class and I want them practice a lot. But I still find difficulties in motivating them to speak (Dewi – interview).

On the other hand, when asked about the kind of English class she did not want to emerge, Dewi said that she did not like a traditional classroom. She referred to a traditional classroom as one in which the teacher was the centre of the teaching processes, while the students did nothing except receiving information and knowledge.

Dewi had an interesting vision about successful English teachers. She said,

> In my opinion, officially the successful teacher must be a teacher who has good planning and administration works in which it will spend a lot of time to prepare it. But in my opinion it is not a successful teacher. A successful teacher, besides making preparation, she/he should motivate the students to make something different. For example when they start

> from zero, there must be 1, or 2, or 3. Moreover, to me a successful teacher is the one who has given the students knowledge and it will stay longer in their mind after they become adult people (Dewi – interview) .

**5.2.1.2.2 Self-efficacy beliefs**

The first aspect of teacher efficacy beliefs in the interview was related to the teachers' efficacy for English and was explored using the question "Do you think your English is sufficient to support your teaching?" In responding to this question, Dewi said that she was confident in her English and was aware of the potential support gained from her English in carrying out her teaching duties in general. In her interview she said, "It really supports me much, because I like knowing anything outside my own subject. I like reading, I like asking somebody else just for learning and to support my own subject".

Dewi responded confidently to the question about the instructional strategies she used in her classroom. She said that she usually used mixed methods. She believed that there was no single best method, or one best approach in teaching English. She also critiqued the tendency of recommending one approach called the genre-based approach in the CBIT. She commented that this approach was only one of the ways of teaching English.

When it came to the question about her confidence in her ability to manage the classroom, Dewi expressed her class management preferences by saying:

> I don't like to have strict class because language cannot be taught in a strict class like in mathematic or science, so sometimes I lower the students' anxiety by sometimes telling jokes or talking about their

> interest, or something then I will lead them back to my own topic. That is what I usually do in my class (Dewi – interview).

When dealing with disruptive students, Dewi said that she used a personal approach by moving closer to the students and talking with them. She also tried to be reasonable by telling the student about the possible impact of their behavior on their own future. She said,

> Well, I usually come closer to them or ask them to come in front or sit infront of me. But I usually say 'Ok I just want to see your face and get closer to you'. And then while teaching, when the other students are doing the tasks I usually talk with them what actually make such things. It works so far… so far so good (Dewi – Interview).

She also spoke about the other techniques she used to deal with disruptive students. She said,

> Usually I give them illustration that If we are still like this we will be left behind, and so on, and so on. Sometimes I give them a small gift, like a candy. But not always…, because… in my opinion if every time I give them a candy, they will just think about the candy not their efforts to speak (Dewi – Interview).

For Dewi, student engagement was an important issue in English teaching. It should be implanted from the beginning of the teaching period, in her case at the beginning of semester. To improve student engagement, she encouraged discussion with the students. She said,

> Ehm ... active involvement of the students. Usually at the first semester, every time I come to the class, usually at the beginning of semester, I usually ask them to discuss together what we want to have during the semester. Not only for me but also them, they have to be responsible to the teaching learning process. And then, by doing so, by discussing it, they will know what they have to do (Dewi – interview).

In addition, Dewi was in a sense quite flexible and tolerant with the English spoken by her students. For her, although she was quite aware of the quiet nature of her students, the most important thing was to make the students speak English in the classroom. Therefore, she did not respond to students who spoke Indonesian in her classes. In addition, she argued that the students were quiet because of the demanding nature of the teachers and the teaching. Students did not speak English because they were afraid of making inappropriate English. In this case, Dewi proposed a solution by encouraging the students to really talk in whatever level of English they had at that time –no matter what geographical accent the English had. The purpose was to make the students feel comfortable when talking. By doing so, she believed that the students would slowly develop enough courage to really speak English.

> When I ask them in English and they respond to me in Indonesian, I do not want to give them a response. So whatever their English is, usually I say that no matter what your English is, Bantulnese English, Slemanese English, Godeanese English, try to speak English. By producing English, I will help you. If you do not produce anything it is really difficult for me to help you out. I usually say like that. Hmmm... when they do group discussion, sometimes I hear strange English, 'litle-litle sih I can' or litle-litle to me' sithik-sithik aku. For me that is ok, that is only a stepping stone for them to motivate them to speak (Dewi – interview).

In terms of her readiness in implementing the curriculum, Dewi ranked herself eight to nine on a ten-point scale. This indicated that she considered herself as being ready. When asked further about this very high confidence, she said that it was because she had her own 'ingredients' to implement the curriculum, without elaborating on what these 'ingredients' were.

In addition, she critically compared the old and the new curricula by saying:

> Actually Curriculum 1994 is good, because we promote communicative approach in which we have to communicate in English as much as possible in class, not all the time. Now the latest curriculum is, I think, a kind of combination of communicative approach and text-based or genre-based approach. Because they have different philosophical background, we as teachers should be very creative enough in mixing two kind of ingredient to be the best one to reach the goal of teaching and learning English (Dewi – interview).

She also emphasized the important roles of a teacher in the implementation of the new curriculum by saying that:

> So far, what I see actually it must be focused on students, because we will think about students learning, learner centre, and so on and so on. But the students cannot do anything without the facilitator, and we are as English teachers are facilitators. What I want to say is no matter what the curriculum is, as English teacher I have to facilitate our students to speak English, to listen, to improve their four skills, yes so that when they have to write something they can do their best (Dewi – interview).

**5.2.1.2.3 The contribution of CBIT**

In responding to the question about the contribution of CBIT to her teaching, Dewi said that it was between five or six on a ten-point scale. However, she was somewhat skeptical in commenting on the materials presenting in the training.

> CBIT, okay. It seems still about the text itself. When I am teaching in the class, as we know in the training, we have to fulfill four steps, BKOF and so on and so on, in my opinion it is not a must. It depends on the students, at the beginning may be yes, we have to build knowledge of the field about the text itself, and then MOT and so on and so on. But to me, after my students know that, I will skip directly to the modeling. And in the modeling it is not only, err.. what is it, constructing the text. I also use deconstructing the text (Dewi – interview).

#### 5.2.1.2.4 School and collegial support

Dewi said that she got full support from both the school and colleagues. For example, she obtained most of the facilities she needed to conduct instruction and the school also facilitated her opportunities to attend professional programs that were conducted regularly either in the district or the province. These also included support in decision making related to teaching practices in the classroom and in using the school facilities. In terms of her English teaching, she pointed out the support from her colleagues when she implemented a new approach in teaching.

> Yes, in terms of English teaching, at first only me that implemented the approach, ah not approach but techniques by doing role plays and drama. At first I found difficulties in making my colleagues understand that language class must be noisy. At first, but now it is getting better and better, even the other subjects follow what I did (Dewi – interview).

### 5.2.1.3 Dewi's classroom practices

Data about Dewi's classroom practices were collected in her two teaching sessions, using the classroom observation schedule. In both observations, Dewi taught Year 8 students. The classes were big, with 35 to 40 students, organized traditionally in four rows consisting of five desks with two chairs at every desk. There were more female students than male. Teaching was conducted in three phases covering opening, presentation and closing. The opening was done by checking attendance and reviewing the previous meeting discussion, and was followed by leading into the main topic. In general the teaching approach was designed following genre-based teaching.

#### 5.2.1.3.1 Teacher's uses of English

There were two aspects observed from the classroom in relation to the teachers' confidence in speaking English. Those aspects were English for communication in general and English for instruction. English for communication in this case referred to the use of English in building the classroom communication in general, for example establishing interpersonal relationship between the teacher and the students and among the students themselves. English for instruction, on the other hand, referred to the use of English in explaining materials and giving examples.

In both observations, the teacher spoke English on most occasions in trying to build good communication with the students. She spoke Indonesian on some occasions to strengthen the interpersonal relation between the teacher and the students. She also used Indonesian jokes to entertain the class. In terms of the instructional English, Dewi also showed high confidence in speaking English. All explanations, alternative explanations and examples were given in English.

#### 5.2.1.3.2 Teachers' uses of Instructional Strategies

Dewi's efficacy for instructional strategies was observed in terms of her effectiveness in addressing or responding to problems or questions raised by the students. She tried consistently to help students who had problems or questions. There was, however, no evidence of systematic efforts in addressing these problems. Her responses were mostly spontaneous and incidental and there were not many students asking questions and seeking help. In most cases, it was

the teacher who raised questions. She was quite successful in using good questions to help students' comprehension.

In terms of the use of variety of measurement, the researcher did not find significant efforts on the part of the teacher to use various forms of measurement. There was an indication that such lack of use of various measurements was due to convention, as a block evaluation system is applied in education in Indonesia. In this system, teaching is conducted based on a certain unit of materials called a block. Although evaluation during teaching process is encouraged, a major evaluation using various measurements is only used after the teacher has finished one block of material.

In responding to the levels of each individual student, the teacher occasionally anticipated or was sometimes responsive to individual student's needs and cues for support. At other times this was not the case. The teacher appeared to be emotionally or psychologically available to individual students only on limited occasions. This, perhaps, was because of the large number of the students in the class. In relation to the ability of the teacher to provide alternative explanation and examples, the observations revealed that most of the time she tried to provide multiple, appropriate examples to illustrate the identified problems. However, there was no strong indication of planned systematic efforts to provide appropriate challenge for capable students. There seemed to be a single design of the lesson plan without anticipation of students with relatively higher

level of ability. This is an interesting aspect and will be discussed further in the discussion chapter.

#### 5.2.1.3.3 Classroom management

There were two general issues noted during the classroom observations. The first related to disruptive behavior and the second concerned establishing classroom rules and routines. In terms of the disruptive behavior, the teacher dealt fairly well with students' disruptive behaviors. However, although in general the teacher maintained a focus on learning activities, on some occasion she failed to prevent distractions from interfering with time for learning.

In trying to establish smooth classroom activities, Dewi tried to set up standards and rules, and to use them to create a positive atmosphere for student learning. However, there were times when she failed to notice the consequences of standards she had already set up, for example students speaking Indonesian, or students working individually instead of working with friends in a group. This in turn resulted in uncertainty and disorganization.

#### 5.2.1.3.4 Student Engagement

Two aspects were observed in relation to the ability of the teacher to engage the students. The first dealt with the teacher's efforts to promote active engagement and the second related to her efforts to sustain engagement. In promoting active engagement, Dewi was quite successful, in that most students participated actively in most activities by frequently volunteering information or insights,

and by responding to teacher prompts. She was successful in maintaining the student engagement throughout different activities, although there were also a small number of students who engaged for only parts of activities.

#### 5.2.1.3.5 Curriculum implementation

The teacher's efficacy for implementing the curriculum in the classroom was observed in various aspects from preparation through to the evaluation stage. Such aspects, however, were based on the two areas of competency-based teaching (CBT) and contextual teaching and learning (CTL) recommended in the competency-based integrated training program (CBIT) the participants had attended.

In terms of the preparation of the lesson plan, Dewi seemed to be more flexible in following the lesson plans she prepared before the class. She did not even make a detailed lesson plan as was suggested by the curriculum but instead she prepared for her lesson herself with only general guidelines for the conduct of the lesson. In the presentation of her teaching she quite often made adjustments with respect to the classroom situation. This was mostly due to her belief about the nature and function of a lesson plan. When the researcher looked at this in her interview, he found the reason behind this. In the interview she said that,

> For lesson plan, yeahh may be not always. Because this one, err.. lesson plan, I am always an impulsive person. It is too bad may be. When I have written, I have planned my lesson plan, when I come to the class directly I have a new idea, so I have to reconstruct my lesson plan. So the lesson plan sometimes is not in line with what I did in the class (Dewi – Interview).

Strong evidence was found in terms of Dewi's efforts in contextualizing the lesson. She always tried to relate classroom activities to the students' life to bring context and meaning to the activities. Most of the time, she also provided the students with illustration and examples that were close to their everyday life.

In terms of the implementation of the genre-based teaching, Dewi followed the general design of the approach. However, when it was carefully scrutinized there was evidence that she did not rigidly follow the steps of the design. Instead, she implemented various different techniques she called the mixed methods. This again reflected her belief identified from the interview, that genre-based teaching was only one alternative approach.

#### 5.2.1.4 Case summary

Based on all data collected in this study, besides assessing herself as being highly efficacious in the survey, Dewi was also found to be highly confident from both her interview and classroom observations. For example she reported high confidence in her English, was flexible in implementing instructional strategies, more flexible and tolerant with the students, and more prepared for the implementation of the curriculum. However, there were also practices that she admitted to be lower than the expectation of the CBIT, particularly in preparing the lesson plans and teaching materials. Those practices seemed to reflect her beliefs about them. Further discussion and interpretation of what she did and why she carried out those practices will be further explored in discussion chapter.

## 5.2.2 Case # 2: Tina

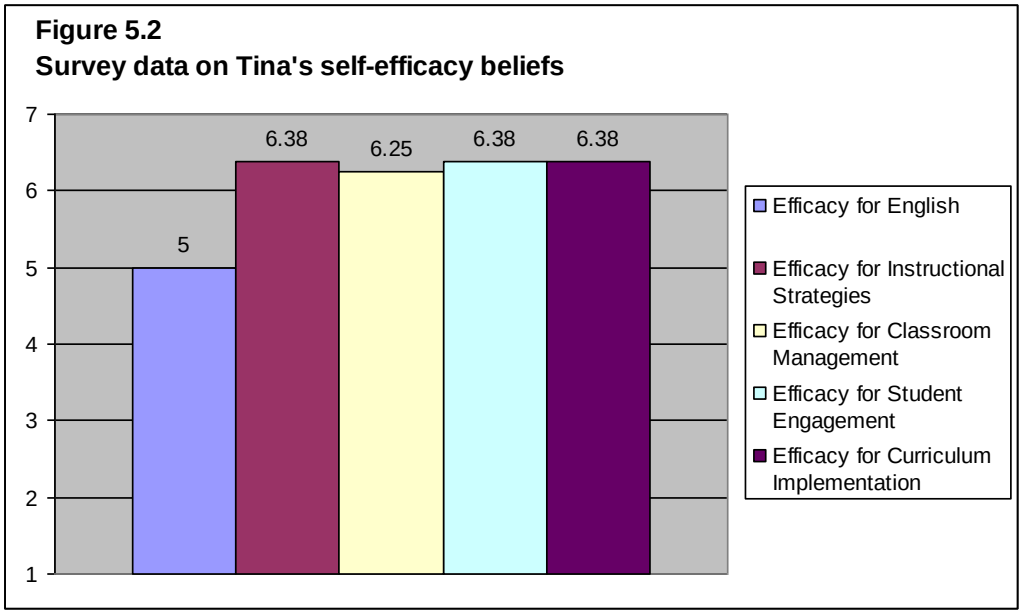
Tina had been teaching English for 22 years in the same school as Dewi. Based on the recommendation of the teacher instructors she was identified as to belonging to the middle-ranked group of teachers. She held an English teaching degree from a teacher's college in the province.

From frequent informal conversations, Tina often expressed her concerns related to teaching in a top-ranked school. One of her concerns related to the low recognition of teacher from the society in general. According to Tina what was not rewarding about being a teacher in such a school was that whenever her students had high achievement in examination, the society would take it as normal because the students would continue their good performance even when the teachers did not work hard enough at teaching. The students were good because they were born to be good.

### 5.2.2.1 Tina's self-assessment about her efficacy beliefs: Self-efficacy survey results

Tina's self-assessment on her level of efficacy beliefs is presented in Figure 5.2, showing the results of her efficacy survey. Overall means suggested that her level of efficacy was 6.1 which meant that she was 87.2% confident. This was a very high level of efficacy considering that she was identified as being in the middle-ranked group of teachers. Or perhaps, because the recommendation was based only on teachers' instructor evaluation of her English, which she reported to be lower than any other subscales in the survey.

**Figure 5.2**
**Survey data on Tina's self-efficacy beliefs**




Regardless of the recommendation of the teacher instructors, the survey revealed that Tina reported herself as being highly efficacious in all subscales. She was 71.4% confident in her efficacy for English, 91.1% in her efficacy for instructional strategy, 89.3% in her efficacy for classroom management, and 91.1% in both her efficacy for student engagement and curriculum implementation.

### 5.2.2.2. Interview with Tina

The interview was conducted in the staff room at the end of her teaching session. It was conducted in English and tape recorded.

#### 5.2.2.2.1 Visions for teaching

When asked about the type of English classroom she wanted to have, Tina said that her ideal English classroom was one characterized by high involvement of the students. Further, she said that high involvement should mean that when she was teaching she wanted the students to be active in all classroom activities. On the other hand, Tina said that she did not want to have a passive classroom with students with low motivation, a classroom where there was only one-way communication focusing on doing what was in the student working sheet.

In terms of the criteria for a successful English teacher, she indicated that a successful English teacher was a teacher who could manage the classroom and who could turn passive students into active ones.

#### 5.2.2.2.2 Self-efficacy beliefs

Tina expressed her doubt in responding to the questions about her efficacy for English. When responding to the question as to whether her English was sufficient to support her teaching, she said,

> I don't think so. Because I still need more and more... I still need to improve my English. That is why we as teachers, English teachers here always practice and discuss the teaching problems with other English teachers (Tina – interview).

In terms of the strategy she used in her instruction, Tina emphasized her ability to create a supportive atmosphere for the students to learn as her main goal. She said that there were three steps she commonly practised in her teaching. She said,

> Ok, there are some steps here. The first one is deciding the theme of teaching and the genre will be used. The second one is develop the materials on both the theme and genre. The third develop activities to create atmosphere in which the students practice a lot and master the target language of English (Tina – interview).

She also nominated bringing some brochures as an example of materials she believed to be able to create joyful supportive learning atmosphere.

Tina seemed to lose track in answering the question about her confidence in managing the classroom. She appeared confused between managing the class and engaging the students in learning. In responding to the question of 'To what extent can you manage your classroom in general?', she told the researcher about her ability to make the students involved in the learning processes, her ability to encourage them to practise and to create conditions where students did the tasks happily and voluntarily. Interestingly, Tina did not agree with the term 'disruptive' students and did not consider disruption a problem. She said that disruption was caused by students who needed different degrees of attention. She, therefore, paid some extra attention to those students.

In the implementation of the curriculum, Tina rated her own readiness at eight to nine on a ten-point scale. This is interesting because she was identified as a middle-ranked teacher who also expressed her low confidence in her English.

#### 5.2.2.2.3 The Contribution of CBIT

In responding to the questions related to her attendance at the Competency-based integrated training, she said that the training was always positive. She

could meet friends and share ideas with other teachers. However, when it came to the question related to the contribution of CBIT, she rated it very low, between two and three on a one-to-ten point scale. In particular, she commented on the trainers by saying:

> Because the trainers do not really understand the psychology... no, no I mean the philosophy of the curriculum. Only some of them master the content but not the philosophy. The trainers do not have competence to train actually. (Interview – Tina)

#### 5.2.2.2.4 School and collegial supports

Tina said that she got great support from her teacher colleagues and the school. She also commented positively on the school atmosphere where team work ran very well. She said, "The teamwork among English teachers is good, they are ready to help the most problems emerge in the teamwork".

### 5.2.2.3 Tina's classroom practices

The observations of Tina's classes were done in her year seven sessions. There were 35 to 40 students in the class, with more girls than the boys. Observations were recorded in a classroom observation schedule.

#### 5.2.2.3.1 Teacher's use of English

In both classroom observations, the researcher found that Tina tried to speak English most of the time. Although she seemed to be struggling, her confidence in speaking English in front of the students was fairly high. However, she also spoke Indonesian on some occasions, especially in establishing interpersonal relationships with the students. Concerning her use of English for instructional

purposes, she spoke English in both explaining and giving examples to the students. Some translation into Indonesian, however, was used quite frequently when she provided alternative explanation or examples.

**5.2.2.3.2 Teacher's uses of instructional strategies**

The overall impression held by the researcher was that Tina implemented a rigid procedure in her teaching. She was trying to implement the genre-based approach, a new approach to teaching that was recommended by CBIT. The rigid presentation of this approach led to a classroom which was predictable. For example, in both classes, the teaching steps were almost the same, without any significant variation. Classes started with reviewing the previous lessons, either by doing the homework in front of the class, or questions and answers done to resolve the homework. The following steps were building knowledge of the text (BKOF) that mostly done with the teacher explaining the materials, modeling of the text (MOT), joint-construction of the text (JCOT) and then summing up with students individually constructing the text (ICOT). All steps were done in the order that was recommended in the training.

Although there were not many students raised questions or problems, Tina did not seem to invest significant efforts in responding to the problems or questions raised by students. Everything seemed to go so well in the class that there was an impression that the lesson was too easy for the students. Questions were mostly raised by the teacher, with the students managing to answer them relatively easily. In addition, Tina seemed to have difficulty in crafting good

questions to raise challenges among the students. There was no indication that she used different types of measurement to measure the students' comprehension and there was no indication that the teacher anticipated students' different individual levels of needs.

There seemed to be only one single design of classroom activities for the whole of the student cohort in the classroom, regardless of their individual differences. Because there were not many students who raised questions or problems there was no significant need for the teacher to provide alternative explanations or examples. She indeed provided more than one example, and sometimes also provided some translation, but it did not seem that those efforts were necessary.

#### 5.2.2.3.3 Classroom management

There were two aspects of the classroom management observed from the participants' classroom. They were the teacher's efforts in managing disruption and her methods of establishing classroom rules and routines. In relation to the first aspect, Tina did not seem to be aware of disruption present in her classroom. Because the lesson was at a lower level than the students' levels, there were a great number of students who were busy with themselves although they were still able to answer the teacher's questions when it was their turn. In addition the researcher found an indication that the teacher paid more attention to active students than to those who were less active. For example, more active students tended to get more opportunities to answer questions.

In terms of the establishment of classroom rules and routines, to a certain extent Tina had a set of standards and rules, though on some occasions she failed to notice the consequences of these standards. For example, some disruptions were left unattended. Some classroom routines were in place, but there were also some times of uncertainty and disorganization. This happened mostly because the time allocated to do the exercises was longer that what was needed by the students.

#### 5.2.2.3.4 Student engagement

Aspects of student engagement observed in the classroom covered the efforts made by the teacher to promote and sustain engagement. In terms of efforts to engage the students, Tina was able to make some of the students voluntarily participate in the classroom more particularly by responding to her prompts or questions. However, such engagement had not reached a level where students actively volunteered information or insights, or manipulated the materials.

Tina tried to sustain students' engagement to a level where most of them were engaged in most of the class activities. For example, she went round the class to supervise and help students working in pairs or groups.

#### 5.2.2.3.5 Curriculum implementation

Tina put significant effort into implementing the newly issued curriculum 2006, more particularly in terms of the preparation she made prior to teaching. She used the syllabus and lesson plans she made together with the teaching forum in

the municipality as the bases of her teaching. This syllabus and the lesson plans were developed based on the objectives recommended by the government. Although Tina had made several adjustments in relation to the teaching materials, there was still a gap between the materials she presented and the competence of the students in her school. There was an indication that the lessons were too easy for the students.

To a certain extent, Tina tried to contextualize the teaching materials and activities so that they were more meaningful for the students. Such efforts were done by providing examples and illustrations that were close to the students' life. She also used translation on some occasions.

Tina implemented the genre-based approach in her classroom as recommended by the CBIT. However, it seemed that she tried to implement it in a rigid way. She did BKOF at the beginning of the teaching, followed by MOT, JCOT, and finished the presentation with ICOT. Because the steps were somewhat predictable, there was an indication that the teaching was monotonous and did not provide challenges for the students.

There were not many occasions on which the teacher promoted inquiry among the students. The activities were very teacher-controlled where freedom to explore ideas among students was limited. Tina attempted to provide model of the outcomes she expected to happen in the students, but the modeling activities were not very effective. This was again due to the indication that the students

were already able to produce such outcomes. For example, when giving model of the structure of a narrative, the students seemed to have known such structure of the text. However, credit should be given to Tina's efforts to encourage interaction among students. A great amount of time in the classroom was spent in either pair or group work.

Throughout the class, Tina did not seem to have a systematic plan for undertaking assessment. Question and answer activities or pair and group work did not seem to be designed to assess students' achievement that would contribute to the students' achievement rapport, instead they seemed to be a means to achieve the instruction goals.

#### 5.2.2.4 Case Summary

In summary, Tina was an interesting case. She was identified by the teacher instructors as being in the middle-ranked group of teachers. However, she rated herself as being very highly efficacious, even higher than the teacher in the high-ranked group.

The interview and the classrooms observations revealed different findings about levels of self-efficacy beliefs. For example, in the interview she said that her English did not sufficiently support her teaching and needed more improvement (see 5.2.2.1.2). This seemed to be in line with her own rating in the survey and the identification of the teacher instructor. Supporting her high rating in the efficacy survey, she stated that she was confident in her ability to implement

effective instructional strategy. In another section of her interview, however, Tina did not seem to be highly confident, especially in her ability to manage the classroom and the student engagement. She appeared to be confused when asked about the two aspects of teaching.

Data from the classroom observation suggested different levels of confidence. In terms of her use of English, she was quite confident, though there was also impression that she was struggling, for example in applying the teaching approach in the classroom. She did not invest significant effort in responding to students with problems. She did not anticipate individual needs of the students with different levels. Although she rated highly in the efficacy for implementing the curriculum, she did not appear to be at ease in the classroom. She was not very successful in adjusting the teaching materials to the level of the students.

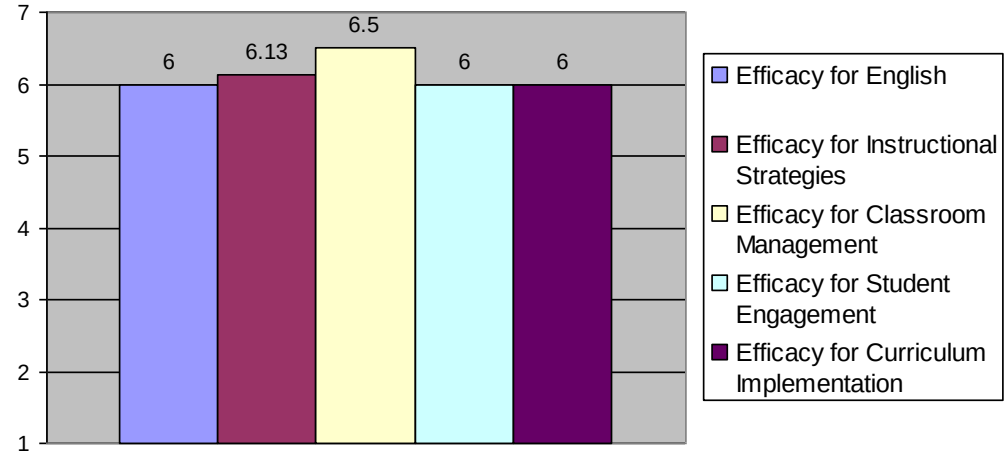
### 5.2.3 Case #3: Rina

Rina taught at a middle ranked public school in the province. She had been teaching for 18 years when the data were collected. She was nominated by the teacher instructors as belonging to the middle-ranked group of teachers. She earned her bachelor in English teaching from a reputable private university in the province. She was active in the English teacher forum in the municipality where she acted the chairperson. At the time the data were collected she was in her first year of her post-graduate program in English teaching.

### 5.2.3.1 Rina's self-assessment about her efficacy beliefs: Self-efficacy survey results

Data from the efficacy survey revealed that Rina reported herself as highly efficacious with an overall means of 6.13. This implied that she was 87.5% confident in her ability to teach English in general. Figure 5.3 suggests that she had the highest confidence in her efficacy for classroom management with a level of confidence of 92.9% and followed by her second highest level of confidence at 87.6%. In the other three subscales, efficacy for English, student engagement and curriculum implementation, she rated herself of being at 85.7% confidence.

Figure 5.3
Survey data on Rina's self-efficacy beliefs




Such confidence was striking for a teacher who was identified as being in the middle-ranked group. Such a very high level of efficacy was also an interesting

starting point from which to look further at her confidence in the data from both her interview and classroom observation.

### 5.2.3.2 The Interview

The interview with Rina was conducted after she finished her teaching sessions one Wednesday afternoon. The interview was done in English and was tape recorded.

#### 5.2.3.2.1 Visions for teaching

Rina expressed an almost similar idea to the other participants when asked about the English the type of class she wanted to happen in her teaching. According to Rina, all students should be on-task and were active as well as creative. Active in her opinion meant that all students participated well in the class program and tried to answer questions she raised.

In addition, Rina said that she did not like classrooms where the students were off-task and did not pay attention to her explanation. She did not want English classes that were book-oriented.

> I don't like if my students are off-task, passive. Off-task means when I explain something they do not care with my explanation. So I do not like it, I do not like my students are passive. So that is what I do not like it. (Rina – Interview)

When asked about the criteria of a successful English teacher, Rina focused on the teachers' ability to help students master teaching materials.

> I hope I belong to a successful teacher, because it is my dream, I love my profession… I love my students very much… I feel that I am successful when my students understand what materials I gave to them. (Rina – Interview)

#### 5.2.3.2.2 Self-efficacy beliefs

Rina expressed her high confidence in her English. In answering the question 'Do you think your English is good enough to support your teaching?', she said,

> Yes of course. With good English of course I will be more confident. So if I feel confident, it will influence my performance. And if the students see the teacher is confident, they will be good to us and believe in us" (Rina – interview).

Rina also expressed high confidence in the use of instructional strategies by telling the researcher a number of teaching approaches and techniques she could use in teaching her class. She said,

> I use communicative approach, sometimes I use CTL, some time I give a modeling, inquiry. And then I also give three-phase technique, at first I give opening like greeting, checking student attendance, and bla bla, and the content of the topic, and then the closing... To make my student interact, I always give a task like in CBC we have BKOF, MOT and then Joint construction. In Joint construction I ask my students to practice or do in groups or in pairs, so they have to interact with each other and I just facilitate them (Rina – interview).

In this regard, however, Rina seemed to be procedural and text book. For example, she said that she applied the teaching techniques recommended in the CBIT, such as the building knowledge of the field (BKOF), modeling of the text (MOT), joint construction of text (JCOT) and independent construction of text (ICOT). She also talked about the steps she employed in the classroom when answering questions about classroom management in general. She talked about

her use of brainstorming at the beginning of the class. She also talked about the three-phase technique consisting of opening, executing and closing.

When dealing with disruptive students, although she tried to be reasonable with the students, in the end she would give a strict choice whether they wanted to stay in the classroom and behave or leave her classroom.

> Sometimes there are students that are disruptive, what I do is I will approach him, because usually they are boys, and then I will give him more attention, and then I give him some questions, "Which one do you like better? Stay here with me or go out, and bla.. bla.. bla.. and many kinds others. (Rina – interview)

In relation to the implementation of the curriculum, Rina was optimistic and rated herself as being at eight to nine on a ten-point scale. She passionately talked about what was good about the curriculum.

> I think the new curriculum makes the students more active because it emphasizes the students' competent. Not the teacher who is active, but the students. The teacher just facilitates, just a facilitator I mean… Okay curriculum 2004 needs teacher to be active and innovative, so it needs time to make teachers aware that is it good curriculum, so you must be innovative if you want to be a professional teacher you have to be innovative. (Rina – interview).

Rina responded optimistically and confidently when she was asked whether the new curriculum was a burden for the teacher, especially about the requirement for teachers to make syllabus and to develop materials that fit with their students' characteristics. She said, "No I don't think so I think it is very easy for us because it (is) our duty yeahh…, make lesson plan, make syllabus. All the teachers must be able to make (them)".

#### 5.2.3.2.3 The contribution of CBIT

Rina said that CBIT influenced her teaching. However, she also admitted that this influence did not only come from the training. According to Rina the contribution of the training to her teaching was only at five or six on a ten-point scale.

> Actually I was still confused about what CBC is, but by joining CBIT, I feel that I understand more. Not only from training I think but I also read and read… The CBIT influenced my ehmm, maybe I would say that actually I not only got from training, but also from sharing, from reading and from surfing in the internet. So I think from training just five to six, the rest from the other (Rina – Interview).

#### 5.2.3.2.4 Collegial and School supports

Rina said that she had considerable support from both the school and the teacher colleagues. Support was especially strong from the school. She said that normally she would not have a problem in getting support from the principal when she needed it. For example, she mentioned her decision to give the students English course. She also mentioned the support she got when she needed more dictionaries and tape recorders. She also had support from her teacher colleagues in the form of teacher discussions and fora.

### 5.2.3.3 Rina's classroom practices

Observations of Rina's classroom were done in two teaching sessions with two different groups of students. As in other public schools, there were between 35 – 40 students in the classroom. In general the classrooms were organized in the

form of four rows of desks consisting of five desks in each row with two chairs at each desk.

#### 5.2.3.3.1 Rina's use of English

From both observations, the researcher gained the impression that Rina was highly confident in speaking English in front of her students. She spoke English most of the time in both building interpersonal relationships with the students and in conducting the instruction, particularly in explaining and giving examples. She spoke Indonesian on some occasions when complication emerged while she was trying to develop concepts or illustration with the students. Sometimes she also used some translation in helping students with their understanding. In general, however, English seemed to be identified with her classes.

#### 5.2.3.3.2 Rina's uses of instructional strategy

Rina gave the researcher the impression that she was supportive in the implementation of the newly introduced genre-based approach. This could be seen from the preparations she made before coming to the class and through to the implementation of the teaching approach she used in her classrooms. In terms of the instructional planning, she was well equipped with the syllabus and the lesson plans she had written up. Those preparations were so detailed that she theoretically anticipated most occurrences could possibly happen in her classroom.

With respect to her effectiveness Rina appeared to have made consistent efforts in helping students with problems or difficulties. She tried to cover the whole class by exercising high level of mobility in the classroom. She worked with groups and helped them solve their problems or questions. On the other hand, Rina used a great number of questions either to prompt the students' responses or to facilitate students' understanding. However, there was no strong indication that such questions were deliberately planned. They appeared to be spontaneous without systematic planning. Rina did not seem to use variety of measurement to gauge students' comprehension. She used questions and answers, pair work and group discussion, but they did not seem to function as means of assessing students' achievement. She did not seem to make notes to contribute to the rapport of the students' achievement.

In responding to the differences in individual levels or individual needs of the students, Rina seemed to relay on her intuition. She did not seem to systematically anticipate such individual differences. However, there was also indication that she was emotionally available for those students having difficulties. In responses to these students, she often provided additional or alternative explanations. In general, however, it appeared that there was only one single design of instruction regardless of individual differences among the students.

#### 5.2.3.3.3 Classroom Management

Rina exercised her ability in managing the classroom relatively effectively, in particular in relation to the two aspects observed using the classroom observation schedule. In terms of controlling student disruptions, she dealt well with both non-disruptive off-task students and students with disruptive behaviors. She preferred an interpersonal approach in dealing with such disruptions. However, there were also times when she exercised her authority to deal with students with disruptive behavior. In general, she was able to maintain focus on learning activities, although occasionally there were times when she could not prevent distractions from interfering with time for learning.

Rina was quite successful in setting standards, rules and classroom routines. Although there was still some level of uncertainty and disorganization, in general she managed to provide a supportive atmosphere for learning.

#### 5.2.3.3.4 Student engagement

Rina appeared to get difficulty in trying to promote interaction among students. Most activities seemed to be teacher-oriented or at least were led by the teacher. Pair work and group discussions were organized, but in most cases the students did what the teacher asked them to do. Few students volunteered information or insights. Their frequent responses were in the form of responding to the teacher's prompts. Such student engagement was sustained in most activities in the class.

#### 5.2.3.3.5 Curriculum implementation

As stated previously, from both observations the researcher got a strong indication that Rina was familiar with and supportive of the new Competency-based Curriculum. Her comprehensive syllabus and lesson plans signified her strong support, and she was a well-prepared teacher in terms of the syllabus and lesson plans. This mostly was because of her important role in the teaching forum, where she acted as the chairperson in her district. This was also reflected in her beliefs in the importance of preparation for teaching, as she stated in her interview (see section 5.2.3.1.2).

Rina appeared to invest great efforts in trying to contextualize the classroom activities. She tried to relate the classroom activities to the students' daily life in bringing in the context and improving the meaning of the activities. She also provided multiple examples nuanced with the students' environment, some of which were presented in Indonesian or Javanese, the first languages of the students.

In terms of the implementation of the genre-based teaching, Rina was fairly procedural. She organized the presentation following the major steps recommended by the approach. She started her teaching by allocating a certain amount of time to build the students' knowledge about the field (BKOF), followed by presentation of model (MOT), and summing up with constructions of text, which were ordered from group (JCOT) to individual (ICOT) constructions of text.

The teaching procedures Rina brought to the classroom made the flow of the classroom activity highly teacher-controlled. This in a sense limited the opportunity for the students to contribute more in terms of making inquiries in learning. Although there were times where the students worked in groups or pairs or even individually constructed texts individually, there was an indication that the frameworks the teacher had planned undermined the creativity of the students. There was limited space to create texts that were different from the models provided by the teacher.

Rina did not seem to use various authentic assessments to measure the students' achievement. Results of the pair work, group discussion or classroom discussion did not seem to contribute much to the students' rapports. They were designed to help teachers to present the instruction.

### 5.2.3.4 Case summary

Data about Rina suggested an interesting point in looking at the efficacy of an individual teacher. Although she was identified as being in the middle-ranked teacher group, her self-assessment on her efficacy beliefs was higher than the teacher instructors' indication. Her interview also suggested that she was highly confident in doing the teaching duties.

From both the interview and the classroom observation, there was a strong indication that Rina's confidence was very high. However, there was also an indication that Rina was very confident in implementing the instructional

strategies which led to an authoritative style of teaching. Compared to the other participants, Rina was the least flexible in using teaching techniques in the classroom. She followed steps of the genre-based approach rigidly which in turn resulted in less interaction among the students. She was not very flexible in dealing with disruption either.

### 5.2.4 Case #4: Putri

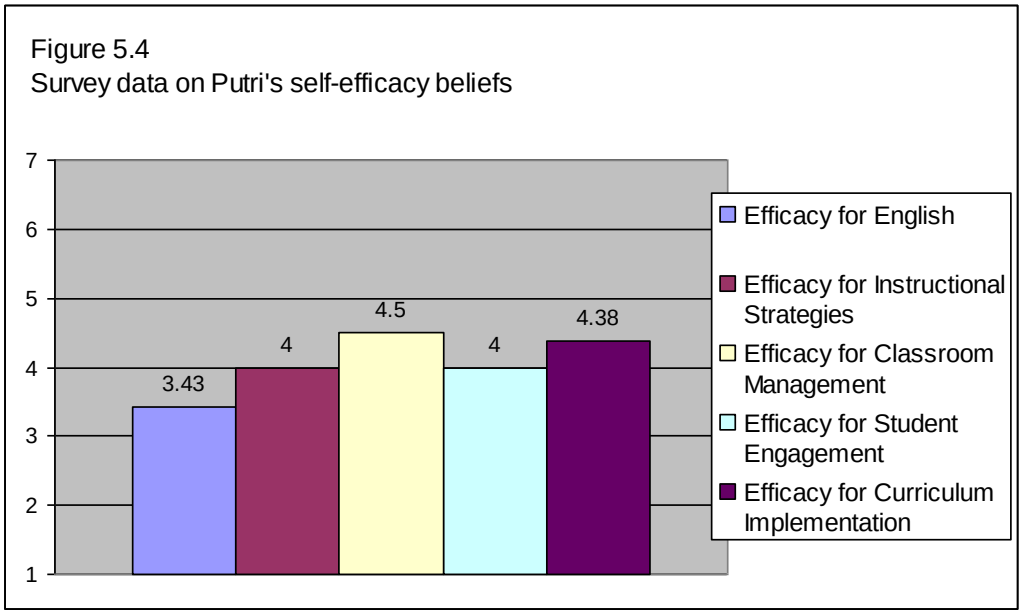
Putri was the only participant teaching in a private school. She had been teaching for 18 years and was identified as belonging to the group of low ranked teachers. She was the only teacher who asked the interview to be conducted in Indonesian. She gained her English teaching degree from the teaching college in the province.

Putri taught English in a relatively small private school in a quite remote village in the province. In terms of the quality of input, her school was much lower than the schools of the other three participants. In addition, her school was severely affected by the 2006 earthquake. As a result, more than 75% of the school's buildings collapsed and could not be used to conduct teaching. Most of the classes were conducted in a temporary building made from bamboo, but the structure did not have a proper floor.

### 5.2.4.1 Putri's self-assessment about her efficacy beliefs: Self-efficacy survey results

Data from the efficacy survey suggested that among the four participants, Putri reported the lowest self-efficacy beliefs. The average score of the 39 efficacy items was 4.07 which indicated 58.14% confidence. Figure 5.4 shows that her lowest confidence in her English, at 49%. She rated herself the highest score on her efficacy for classroom management at the level of confidence of 64.29%, followed by her efficacy for curriculum implementation at 62.71%, and both her efficacy for both instructional strategies and student engagement at 57.14% confidence.

Figure 5.4
Survey data on Putri's self-efficacy beliefs




### 5.2.4.2 The Interview

The interview with Putri was conducted after she finished her teaching sessions that day. It was tape-recorded and was conducted in Indonesian. The reason she

gave for this was because she was afraid that her messages were not accurate when she spoke in English.

#### 5.2.4.2.1 Visions for teaching

When asked about the classes she would like to have, Putri preferred the more flexible classes with reasonable load of materials so that the students would not only master the materials but also enjoy their learning. Putri critiqued English classroom that was too rigid, the one that was strictly based on the guidelines provided by the government (the Ministry of National Education). She further suggested that such classes were too overloaded so that it was difficult for the teachers not only to cover all the recommended materials but also to develop more joyful activities for the students. Putri mentioned English classes that were too book-oriented as the types she did not want to happen in her teaching.

In terms of the criteria of successful teachers, Putri said that there was a tension between what the society saw as a successful teacher with her beliefs. According to Sri, so far the society has considered the result of the national examination as the only measure of whether or not a teacher was successful. However, she believed that there were even more important things to consider. She believed that a successful teacher was a teacher who could provide the long term needs of the students after they graduated from school, and even after they were really living their own lives in society.

#### 5.2.4.2.2 Self-efficacy beliefs

Putri did not directly express her confidence in speaking English. Even when she was asked about the question of whether her English adequately supported her teaching duties, she answered with other information, telling the researcher about what she gained from the training she had attended so far. Although she tried to give a good impression about this issue, there was an indication that she was not confident about her English.

In terms of instructional strategies, Putri was quite confident about her ability to bring proper instructional strategies to her classes. She gave an indication that what she had done so far was the best approach for students having specific characteristics, such as hers. She was open to innovation and willing to invest efforts in trying new techniques in teaching. This can be seen from her answer to the questions on instructional strategy.

> Instructional strategy – hmm we tried this – I tried this, in the form of games. What we are doing now – with the help of Pak Tri of course, we tried board game last year, but now it is slot board, like what I did in the previous class … I asked the students to do the game in pairs so that every student was active. And normally the students managed to understand the teaching materials through these games (Putri – interview).

Putri indicated a high level of confidence in managing the classroom. This was mainly because of the small number of students she had in the class, which was far fewer than the number of students in the other three participants' classes.

In engaging students in learning, Putri emphasized the personal approach to get the students' attention. Then gradually, she brought the students to the learning materials. Putri did not agree with the term disruptive students. In her opinion, those students who happened to show unfavorable behavior were doing so because they needed more attention. In dealing with these students, she did not usually give advice, which she said could take time, rather she normally moved close to the students and made eye contact or employed a slight tap on the shoulder.

Putri commented positively on the implementation of the new curriculum. She said that it was better suited to the students' level of knowledge. Furthermore, the load of the materials was not as heavy as that of the old curriculum. It also gave more space to the teachers to adjust the materials to their students' needs and characteristics. Putri, however, said that the curriculum required the teachers to work harder, and many of her colleagues were struggling in the implementation of the curriculum. Therefore, she recommended the government to have frequent training in relation to the practical implementation of the curriculum.

When asked about her readiness in implementing the curriculum, Putri rated herself as being at six to seven on a ten-point scale. However, she said that she like the new curriculum better than the old one.

#### 5.4.2.2.3 The contribution of CBIT

In responding to the question about the contribution gained from attending the CBIT, Putri said that the training had improved her confidence in her teaching of English. However, when she was asked to rate the contribution of the CBIT alone, and was asked to rate it on a ten-point scale, she said that the contribution of the CBIT alone was at seven on the scale. She also acknowledged the contribution of discussion with her colleagues and her reading to her readiness to implement the curriculum.

#### 5.4.2.2.4 School and collegial supports

Putri felt that she had significant support from her school and colleagues. She gave an example of the support of school in terms of teaching equipment she needed and the permission she needed when she had to attend training or workshops. She said,

> In this school, I got support from the principal, especially when I had to attend seminars or workshop. Because my school was a private school, sometimes we have to pay when we want to attend a seminar. And the school will normally help me with that (Putri – the interview)

She also said that the school gave her autonomy in making decision about her own class. She also commented on the support from her colleagues, especially when she had problems in her teaching. She said that she often gained valuable feedback from other English teachers in the school and even from English teachers from different schools.

### 5.4.2.3 Putri's classroom performance

Observations on Putri's performance were done in two sessions in classes with relatively smaller number of students. There were only 18 students in the first class and 14 students in the second. The number of students present in those sessions was less than two-third of the real number. This was because of the effect of the May 2006 earthquake that had forced many students to leave schools. It was also because it was raining in the morning so that many students chose not to go to school.

#### 5.4.2.3.1 Teacher's use of English

Putri appeared to be quite confident in speaking English in front of the class. Most of the interpersonal communication with the students was conducted in English. Instructional activities, like explaining and giving examples, were also done mostly in English. Only on certain occasions where additional explanation was needed, or when students had difficulty in understanding the lesson did Putri switch into Indonesian. In this case, translation was frequently used to help improve students' understanding.

#### 5.4.2.3.2 Teacher's use of instructional strategies

Putri was the only teacher among the participants who used more varieties of techniques and approach in teaching. Although she still designed her instruction based on the genre-based approach, her activities were not structured rigidly to consist of BKOF, MOT, JCOT and ICOT. Instead, she used techniques and methods that encouraged her students to be actively involved in the class

activities. An example of teaching techniques that she used when the classes were observed was the use of games to help students construct texts. This game, that she called a slot board game, seemed to be successful both in encouraging students' involvement and in student interaction.

Although there was no indication that she systematically designed specific ways to deal with students' difficulties and problems, Putri was quite effective in addressing students who had difficulties or problems. Because she managed to create such supportive atmosphere that students felt comfortable in the classroom, the number of students seeking assistance was relatively high. In responding to the questions, Putri was very often forced to speak Indonesian. This was predictable, not only because of her limited English but also because of the low level of English her students had.

In terms of measuring the students' comprehension, there appeared to be no systematic ways designed to do so. Assessment was done spontaneously and only for the sake of achieving the objectives of the session. There was no indication that the teacher made planned notes that contribute to the rapport of the students. Questions were crafted mostly spontaneously, and used mainly as prompts.

As found in the classrooms of the other participants, Putri's classroom also seemed to be single designed based on a uniform level of student ability, without paying significant attention to differences in individual students' needs

or levels. Although the teacher provided alternative explanations and examples for students who had problems, she did not seem to provide significant challenge for those who were capable.

#### 5.4.2.3.3 Classroom management

From both classroom observations, the researcher did not find significant disruptions in Putri's classroom. Disruption was minimal because most students were highly involved in the activities, particularly in the games that were designed for instructions. Secondly, this was also because of the small number of students in the classroom.

Interestingly, although it did not seem that the teacher overtly established classroom rules and routines, the class was positively controlled with only insignificant disorganization happening in the class. Everybody in the class appeared to know what they were expected to do or how they were expected to function.

#### 5.4.2.3.4 Student engagement

In relation to the student engagement, Putri managed to promote high engagement among the students. Most students were actively engaged in most class activities. Students very often volunteered information or insights and actively responded to the teacher's prompts. Such positive engagement was sustained throughout different activities during the sessions.

#### 5.4.2.3.5 Curriculum implementation

Basically speaking, Putri organized the instruction based on the Competency-based curriculum. This was proven from the syllabus and lesson plans that she took as the basis for conducting her teaching. She used the syllabus and lesson plans that were made together with the other English teachers in the district as the basis of her instruction. However, in her teaching activities, she equipped herself with more comprehensive and practical notes highlighting activities she planned do in the classroom.

Putri also tried to contextualize the lessons by making them meaningful to the students' lives in particular. She emphasized the benefits of the activities for the students at the beginning of her lessons and throughout the teaching session she provided illustration and examples that were close to her students' daily lives.

There were two things that were missing from Putri's classroom. The first was her ability to promote inquiry among the students. Everything was guided to happen as what the teacher had planned it to happen. There was not enough room to accommodate students' creativity. Questions designed by the teachers did not seem to lead the students to further explore the possibilities of enhancing concepts or manipulating materials. Second, as in other participants' classrooms there was no indication that the teacher used authentic assessment to contribute to the students' achievement rapport during the teaching sessions.

### 5.4.2.4 Case summary

All data related to Putri revealed with interesting facts about the participant. First of all, this participant was identified by the teacher instructors as being in the low-ranked teacher group. Secondly, her own assessment on her level of efficacy beliefs and the results of the interview were also low and supported the teacher instructors' identification. Only in terms of implementation of the curriculum did she express her comfort and confidence. Thirdly, contrary to these opinions, the data from the observations revealed that on many occasions she matched the criteria in the literature of a highly efficacious teacher. This realization was supported by the facts that she was open to innovation, and willing to implement new methods in teaching.

In terms of her performance in general, Putri indicated a reasonably high confidence level in the classroom. She spoke English confidently in front of the students, invested in efforts to implement various teaching techniques that fitted her students and was quite flexible. She was also confident in managing her relatively small number of students in the classes. Furthermore, she was also highly tolerant of difficult students, instead of considering them as disruption, she considered them as merely in a need of more attention. Although she did not rate very highly in her readiness to implement the curriculum, she was positive and optimistic about the implementation of the curriculum.

## 5.3 Conclusion

Looking at the four cases, the researcher found that teacher's efficacy beliefs were not simple. They were very complicated and multi facetted, and varied even within individual. Being highly efficacious in one aspect of teaching did not provide a guarantee of being highly efficacious in another. For example, in the case of Putri, although she rated herself as being less efficacious, she showed high level of confidence in the classroom. She was open to innovation and invested greater effort in teaching.

Teachers' efficacy beliefs were subtly related to aspects of teachers' lives that were influenced by many factors. Aside from the sources of efficacy information suggested in the literature, there were other factors influencing teachers, including the gender, age, teaching experience and the school aspects of the teachers and the contexts of the tasks. Furthermore, findings of this follow up study showed that the recognition of possible opportunities and the limitation of the teachers themselves also served as an important function of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs.

In one case, for example, a teacher's recognition of high quality input with potentially high student achievement might serve either as a support or an obstacle. In Tina's case, for example, teaching in a high-ranked school did not boost her confidence. The fact that achieving predetermined standards of student achievement, in this case the national examination, was relatively easy stimulated burden, instead of opportunities. The teacher was so overwhelmed by

the guidelines offered by the government that she neglected the possibility of exploring and bringing the students' to their optimum achievement. As a result, teaching became somewhat meaningless routines to achieve institutional goals, rather than to help students' to arrive at their optimum development.

A different situation was faced by Putri, where her recognition of her limitation as well as the limited ability of her students had challenged her to invest more effort into her teaching. Her awareness that achieving the nationally predetermined standards was not easy encouraged her to do her best to help her students push themselves to their limit. Such recognition also served as a starting point to explore even a wider opportunity for the students. Instead of taking the students' limitation for granted, she created an atmosphere that provided the students with meaningful contextual learning. By doing this she hoped to explore students' potential to their limits, even beyond the academic standards the government set for them. This in turn would help students develop even more in areas she believed to be more fundamental for their own lives.

The findings from this study have important implications and consequences for both English teachers and the teaching profession in the region studied in particular, and in the field of teachers' efficacy research in general. They also open up further opportunities to explore for example the extent to which high efficacy is ideal for the quality improvement of teachers. In addition, such findings also led to a challenging further inquiry about what factors within and outside teachers that are possible to elevate teachers' potential and performance.

Further exploration, discussion, and elaboration on these implication and consequences will be given in the following chapters on the discussion and interpretation of the findings.

# Chapter 6 Discussion and Interpretation

## 6.1 Overview

This chapter presents the discussion and interpretation of the findings from the present study. It is presented in a framework that serves to provide answers for the key questions that have driven this study.

As a back drop to the discussion I briefly describe the status of the teaching profession from the Indonesian perspective. This description will frame the discussion and interpretation of the findings. In addition, in an effort to provide a comprehensive contextual basis for understanding my interpretation of the findings, I also considered it necessary to present a description of the trends in teaching English in the region at the time the data were collected.

## 6.2 Teaching profession and the teaching of English in Indonesia

As discussed in the background chapter, being a member of the teaching profession in Indonesia offers teachers high social status. However, this high social status does not provide teachers with high levels of privilege, academic recognition, and good financial returns. Teachers are stereotyped as being those who live modest and simple lives. In addition, the poor salary of teachers very often requires them to take on other jobs to support themselves and their families.

The teaching profession does not provide teachers with high academic recognition and they are often critiqued and blamed for the low achievement of the students in the national examinations and in particular, for the low quality of the country's educational outcomes. In addition to living modest and simple lives, teachers are also stereotyped as being not very smart and to be poorly qualified.

The only attraction of the profession is probably related to the fact that in most cases it is a life-long profession which provides for a life-long pension. Once a teacher manages to pass the government teacher recruitment test and becomes a civil servant teacher, there is little chance of losing that position. This is perhaps why although teachers do not get a high salary and are not academically recognized, there are many who want to enter the profession.

In addition, teacher retention is not an issue for teacher recruitment authorities and employers in Indonesia. There are few cases of teachers quitting the profession, except on death or retirement. Once recruitment is made, cases of quitting teaching due to bad evaluation results are rare. Although the teaching profession might be as stressful in Indonesia as it is in other countries, it seems that not many people talk about teacher stress and the flow-on effects of the stress among teachers in Indonesia. In most cases, teachers will remain in teaching until retirement day, no matter how stressful their work becomes.

The teaching of English in Indonesia, in particular, has changed over the last three decades. English has been taught using different approaches such as the audiolingual, grammar translation methods, and the communicative approach. At the time the data were collected, it was at the beginning of the period when competency-based English teaching was being implemented. This new form of English teaching was first introduced in 2003 together with the introduction of the draft of the new curriculum, the Competency-based Curriculum (CBC), which later became known as the Curriculum 2004, followed by further revisions in the form of Curriculum 2006.

After the initial drafting by the government, in this case the Ministry of National Education (MoNE), the draft of the new curriculum was introduced and distributed to teachers through workshop and training programs, one of which was the Competency-based integrated training (CBIT) program. This nationally conducted training program covered materials ranging from language skills to practical implementation of the curriculum. It also covered the philosophical bases of the curriculum, as well as the syllabus design, material development and assessment of student achievement. The training even recommended teaching materials and approaches to support the implementation of the curriculum in the classroom.

From the perspective of CBC, English teaching objectives were formulated in the form of competences. The competency-based curriculum divided the learning objectives into competence standards, which were then broken down

into basic competences. Each competence standard was composed of five basic competencies: (a) discourse competence, (b) actional competence, (c) linguistic competence, (d) socio-cultural competence, and (e) strategic competence.

In practice, the curriculum considered discourse competence the main communicative competence learners should demonstrate (Depdiknas: 2003, 6). However, CBC also stated that discourse competence could only be achieved if learners acquired the other four supporting competencies (Depdiknas: 2004, pp. 6-7). This requirement of achieving discourse competence seemed to be closely related to the notion of communicative competence proposed by Canale and Swain (1980), Swain (1983) and Celce-Murcia & Olshtain (2000).

In terms of the classroom implementation, although there were shared beliefs among teachers there was no single most effective approach in the teaching of English. There was also a strong indication during the training that the government recommended one approach to English teaching, namely the genre-based approach. Although this approach was originally associated with teaching reading and writing, in the Indonesian context it was adapted to teaching English as a foreign language (EFL). Based on this approach, teaching English emphasized the ability of the students to produce texts in both spoken and written English and organized teaching into two cycles with four steps in each cycle: building of the field (BKOF), modelling of text (MOT), joint construction of text (JCOT) and independent construction of text (ICOT). The impact of training in the genre approach was so significant that the approach

was considered the most appropriate when teaching English, and was implemented on most occasions by most English teachers.

In addition, the teaching of English in Indonesia was influenced by the contextual teaching and learning (CTL) approach introduced shortly before the CBC. While the genre-based approach provided the procedural steps in EFL teaching, CTL provided more conceptual aspects of teaching. EFL teachers in Indonesia were quite familiar with the CTL, particularly with its seven principles that were considered essential in the instruction: constructivism, contextual learning, inquiry, modeling, learning community, promoting interaction among learners, and authentic assessment. Based on the CTL, the conduct of English teaching would involve as many of its principles as possible. Therefore, the teaching of English in Indonesia was designed based on the genre-based approach and was nuanced with the principles of contextual teaching and learning.

Another important practice in the English teaching in Indonesia concerned the assessment of the students' achievement. Assessment was carried out on the basis of a block system and was usually done at the end of each unit of teaching materials. However, there was an indication that the most important assessment of the students' achievement was the national examination conducted at the end of the schooling period. For the junior secondary school it was done at the end of the third year (Year 9). This was considered to be most important because the results were powerful determinants concerning which senior high school

students could attend after graduation from the junior high and for their future after completing school. Unfortunately, this result was also considered by parents and society more generally, as the most important measure of the successful teaching. Due to the importance of the role of the national examination, teachers were often forced to focus on students achieving high scores in the exam, and neglected other objectives of learning a school subject, for example establishing the communicative skills of the students. In an effort to meet the demands of parents, schools have often required teachers to prepare the students for the examinations by providing them with drilled practice exercises. This has been a continuing concern for teachers and has been hotly debated among English teachers in Indonesia. Since the national exam focuses mostly on the reading and grammatical skills, the teachers have often neglected the student communicative skills. This has resulted in an impression that teachers failed to help students speak English for communication.

## 6.3 English Teachers' self-efficacy: Overall Findings

Table 6.1 shows the mean self-efficacy scores reported by the participants. In general, the overall findings of the present study indicated that the mean score of the efficacy beliefs among junior secondary school English teachers in Yogyakarta province was 4.68 with the standard deviation of 1.48. This implies that the teachers were at the level of 67% confidence in doing the teaching-related duties. Furthermore, the analyses of the data also revealed that in all

subscales the level the teachers' efficacy beliefs among the sample were above the mid-point on the 7-point scale.

**Table 6.1. Means and Standard Deviations of Teacher Efficacy**

| Efficacy subscales | Means*) | SDs | Level of Confidence (%) |
|---|---|---|---|
| Efficacy for English | 4.25 | 1.61 | 61 |
| Efficacy for instructional strategy | 4.77 | 1.31 | 68 |
| Efficacy for classroom management | 5.02 | 1.2 | 72 |
| Efficacy for student engagement | 4.71 | 1.21 | 67 |
| Efficacy for curriculum implementation | 4.51 | 1.47 | 64 |
| Overall | 4.68 | 1.45 | 67 |

These levels of confidence are interesting in relation to the status of teaching profession in Indonesian context but are not surprising. The fact that all subscales were rated above the mid-point on the scale was to some extent interesting, though they cannot be classified as being satisfactory. Again, such levels of confidence are perhaps a reflection of the conditions of teaching and of the teaching profession in the region. Two main contextual reasons serve to explain these levels of confidence among the participants. Firstly, there have been long debates in the Indonesian education system in general in relation to the quality of the English teaching. Such debates had been important issues not only in the media but also in education forums like seminars, workshops and conferences for teachers. The criticism that there has been low quality among English teachers in particular can be attributed to a) the low English scores gained by the students in the national exam, and b) the low communication skills demonstrated by the students.

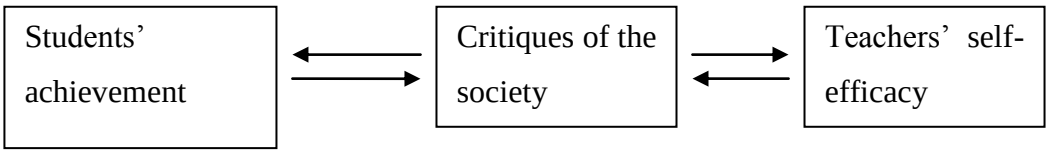
Based on the data from the Indonesian Ministry of National Education about the results of the National examination from 2006-2007, the average score of English in the province was 6.24 on a ten-point scale. It was slightly above the minimum passing score for the national examination which was 5.25 and was the lowest compared to the other three subjects in the national examination. Although the average was still above the passing grade, it was still considered much lower than the society's expectation. In addition, the students' ability to use English in communication in this period was very low, too. Not many students were able to speak English in their daily communication, even in the classroom. This low achievement of the students has been seen by the society to reflect the quality of teaching conducted in the classroom, and this in return has been related to the quality of the teachers.

When comparing the level of efficacy beliefs reported by the teachers, the scores gained by the students, and the critiques by the society, the researcher found a strong indication that there was a relationship among them. Although quite a number of researchers have suggested that teachers' efficacy is a factor in relation to students' outcomes such as achievement (Ashton & Webb, 1986), motivation (Midgley et al., 1989), and persistence (Milner & Hoy, 2003), the present study indicated a slightly different type of relation among the three.

Based on the findings, the researcher assumed that the relationship between teachers' efficacy beliefs and the low achievement of the students was not direct but was mediated by the society's critiques (See Figure 6.1). In addition,

although there was a possibility of a combined effect of students' achievement and social critiques, the two factors seemed to contribute unequally. In the context where a society critiques teachers' performance, it was the critiques from the society that directly affected the level of confidence among the participants. Such critiques served as negative social persuasion which in turn served to lower the level of efficacy among teachers in the sample.

**Figure 6.1**
**The relationship between students' achievement, critiques from the society and teachers' self-efficacy**




However, there was another possibility in interpreting the findings especially when the above mid-point level of efficacy was considered as positive regardless of the low achievement of the students and the critiques of the society. If that was the case, one possible explanation of why teachers in the sample rated themselves as moderately confident would be based on the nature of self-efficacy itself. Measures of self-efficacy were constructed on self-perception rather than the actual level of competence (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007), thus the perception of confidence was less influenced by factors outside of the perceivers. When teachers in the sample were asked to reflect on their own ability, they did not consider other peoples' judgments or beliefs about what they could do and what they had done. What they actually did was

express their own beliefs and expectations of what they could do in a given situation.

Secondly, Web and Ashton (1987) have suggested that factors like excessive role demands, poor morale, lack of recognition, inadequate salaries and low status might diminish teachers' sense of efficacy. When considering the Web and Ashton's ideas it seemed that the factors, except the poor morale and low status, existed in the case of the teaching profession in Indonesia. Compared with other professions, the teaching profession in Indonesia receives significantly lower salaries and although teachers are accorded high social status in the society, they also receive more critiques than the acknowledgements in relation to their work.

However, to a certain extent the findings tended to support Ashton and Web's analysis. The problem was that Ashton and Web did not seem to provide any explanation in terms of to which level such factors could diminish teachers' sense of efficacy. What was found in the data was that although teachers in the sample had high job demand, low academic recognition and low financial returns, they still rated themselves as above mid-point indicating a moderate level of efficacy. Such a phenomenon can be traced to two aspects.

First, although teachers in the sample had excessive role and job demand, received low financial returns and low academic recognition, they did not exhibit poor morale. They still considered the teaching profession as something

they could be proud of and showed high levels of work engagement. Furthermore, the fact that teachers rated their dedication to their profession as the highest among the three factors of work engagement provided evidence that teachers in this region sustained good morale. Second, the teaching profession is still respected by the society as being a morally good profession. From this point of view, there was an indication that teachers' good morale and high social status were important factors that kept teachers' self-perception of their ability high. These two factors also made the participants feel committed to the profession.

### 6.3.1 Teachers' efficacy for English

Because the teachers in the sample were English teachers, investigating their confidence in their ability in both spoken and written English was important to determine. In this regard, the investigation of the teachers' efficacy for English was not limited to the confidence in using English for instruction in the classroom, but also for more general communication in an English language communicative context.

Based on the data, the average score of the teachers' efficacy for English was 4.25 (see Table 6.1), or a 61% confidence level. Although it was still above the mid-point, this was the lowest score among the five subscales. The fact that participants rated their confidence in English as the lowest was cause for concern. It is reasonable to argue that, with such a level of confidence in the

subject matter it would be hard for teachers to help their students secure a high level of achievement.

In addition, when looking carefully at the seven items in the teachers' efficacy for English subscale (Table 6.2), I found that teachers were more confident in their instructional English, that is, the English they spoke in the classroom, but were less confident in speaking English for communication. The participants scored the highest means in the two items measuring the teachers' ability in instructional English; the efficacy for instructional English speaking and instructional English writing, which meant they were quite confident in speaking English to explain and give examples in the classroom. They were also fairly confident in using written instructional materials in the classroom.

**Table 6.2. Means and Standard Deviations of Teachers' Efficacy for English**

| Subscales | Efficacy for ... | Means*) | Level of confidence (%) |
|---|---|---|---|
| Efficacy for English | instructional English speaking | 4.85 | 65 |
| | English for communication | 4.39 | 63 |
| | understanding movies on TV | 3.95 | 56 |
| | understanding books written in English | 4.48 | 64 |
| | English songs | 4.11 | 59 |
| | instructional English writing | 4.87 | 70 |
| | English journal/publication writing | 3.08 | 44 |
| | Overall | | 61 |

*) On a seven-point scale

However, the findings also suggested that the teachers' efficacy for English for communication was only number four in the rank. Besides, teachers' efficacy for journal or publication writing was the lowest, with the mean score of below mid-point on a seven-point scale indicating a level of confidence of only 44%.

This very low score has important implications for the development of the profession among the participants. For example, publishing a journal article is an important aspect in the evaluation to achieve a certain level in the profession. Failure to publish such an article would also prevent teachers from pursuing leadership positions as school principals.

The findings reflected the general situation of English teaching in Indonesia, where English was spoken only inside the classroom. One possible explanation was due to the fact that English was a foreign language. Although teachers spoke English in the classroom, they did not usually communicate in English even with the other English teachers in the school. Therefore, there were not many English teachers, who were confident in their English for communication. The situation was even worse because these teachers had limited opportunities for teachers to practice speaking English outside of the school context and little opportunity to use English in the school context with other colleagues. In addition, although the local government occasionally provided opportunities for teachers to attend a professional development program which focused on improving teachers' English communication skills, such opportunities were far from being sufficient.

Another possibility was due to the high demand of the new curriculum. As discussed in the previous section, the curriculum required the teachers to be able to help students produce both spoken and written texts. This was to some extent too demanding because many teachers have had little exposure to native

speakers of English who could model them the language in use. The demand of producing students capable of speaking English for communication, while at the same time lacking the capacity to support the task, might have been so overwhelming that in the end it diminished the level of teachers' efficacy.

## 6.3.2 Teachers' efficacy for instructional strategy

Among the five subscales in the teachers' efficacy scale, the efficacy for instructional strategies was rated the second highest by the participants, with the mean score of 4.77. This high confidence among the teachers was not surprising as it was likely to have been the result of the CBIT attended by the teachers not long before the survey was conducted. This was because the instructional approach, especially the one recommended for the implementation of the new curriculum, was the major focus of the material presented during the training program. Familiarity with this approach may have resulted in the teachers rating themselves as being fairly confident in implementing the instructional strategies in the classroom. Although their feeling of mastery could probably not be categorized as a mastery experience as suggested by Bandura (1977, 1997), this expectation of success has elevated the level of efficacy among the teachers.

Besides, there were also extensive follow up activities initiated by the teaching forums in each district and municipality aiming at improving the understanding and mastery of the teachers. These follow-up activities took the form of discussion forums, workshops, and peer teaching. In addition the follow up

activities often involved teachers in the region who were considered successful in the implementation of the recommended teaching strategies. These successful teachers were good models for other participants. The presence of successful models provided access to vicarious experience and potentially boosted the level of self-efficacy of the participants.

### 6.3.3 Teachers' efficacy for classroom management

Among the efficacy subscales, classroom management was rated the highest by the participants. To a certain extent, this was surprising because managing a classroom with a large number of students like those found throughout Indonesian is often difficult. However, for the participants, a classroom of 35 – 40 students did not appear to be a serious problem. They rated themselves as being 72% confident in managing their classrooms.

The main reason why the participants rated their efficacy for classroom management the highest is related to the perceived control among teachers over their students' behaviors. There was a strong indication that the participants interpreted classroom management as the ability to control students in the classroom. This was supported by the fact that it was easy for the participants to find words or phrases in most items that tapped control-related meanings (see Table 6.3). Only item number two in the subscale, the efficacy for making their expectations clear for students, was probably associated with aspects of control, while the other seven items were unequivocally connected to the sense of control.

The identification of the teachers in relation to the connection between classroom management and teacher's control can also be found in the interview data. One of the teachers in the interview was to some extent fairly authoritative in managing the classroom, particularly when dealing with disruptive students.

**Table 6.3. Mean Scores and Standard Deviations of Teachers' Efficacy for Classroom Management**

| | Efficacy for ... | Means*) | % of Confidence |
|---|---|---|---|
| Efficacy for Classroom Management | controlling disruptive students | 4.95 | 71 |
| | making the expectation clear for students | 4.89 | 70 |
| | establishing routines to keep activities running smoothly | 4.82 | 69 |
| | getting students follow classroom rules | 5.34 | 76 |
| | calming disruptive or noisy students | 5.33 | 76 |
| | establishing classroom management for groups | 4.88 | 70 |
| | keeping few troubled students from ruining the whole class | 4.93 | 71 |
| | responding to defiant students | 4.78 | 68 |

*) On a seven-point scale

These levels of efficacy that were driven by the sense of having control over the students could be explained from two contextual factors. These factors came from the natural characteristics of the students. Indonesian students, like those of other Asian countries, have the reputation of being silent and more importantly obedient. Expressing unfavorable behaviors in front of teachers is something that is culturally inappropriate. This made it far easier for the teachers to handle and manage their classes regardless of the large number of the students. Second, in the Indonesian context, the obedient nature of the students stems from the teachers' role to educate the students. From this

perspective, teachers are assigned a role model function for the students. This role model function is also reflected in the Javanese words for teacher, '*guru'*. For Javanese, the word guru is an acronym for *digugu* and *ditiru*, meaning people to whom the society listens and looks up as a model. These two factors, the obedient nature of the students and the role model function, helped teachers establish a perception of control among the participants and served as a source of the teachers' efficacy beliefs in the region.

### 6.3.4 Teachers' efficacy for student engagement

In this study, student engagement was deemed an important factor in the achievement of teaching objectives. It is believed to be a factor of effective learning (Ainley, 2004). Measured using an eight-item subscale, teachers' efficacy for student engagement came up as the third highest among five teachers' efficacy subscales. The mean score of 4.71 on a 7-point scale indicated that the participants were at 67% confidence in engaging their students in learning.

The result was to some extent lower than expected. Given that Indonesian students were highly obedient and respectful to the teachers, it was expected that teachers would not experience problems in engaging their students. A possible explanation why teachers rated their confidence in student engagement lower than their confidence in classroom management was related to their own perception about engaging the students. For the participants, engaging students in the classroom activities was definitely influenced by the obedient and

respectful nature of the students. However, there seemed to be another more important aspect of the teachers that could strengthen the engagement of the students. This aspect concerned with the teachers ability to design and then present activities that were able to actively involve the students. The idea was supported by the interview data where the participants referred to student engagement as ‘active participation’ and ‘active involvement’. While they identified classroom management as controlling the students, they identified engaging the students as involving the students in active participation.

Based on the perception of the participants, being obedient did not always mean being actively involved. If the teachers viewed engagement as involving a high degree of active involvement, being too obedient would raise problems. And this seemed to be the case. The nature of being obedient among the students might be viewed as passive involvement. This was why teachers rated themselves higher in their efficacy for classroom management, but lower in their efficacy for students’ engagement. For the participants, managing, or in their sense controlling the class was easier than engaging the students in the classroom activities.

### 6.3.5 Teachers’ efficacy for curriculum implementation

Among the five subscales in the teachers’ efficacy survey, the efficacy for curriculum implementation ranked fourth with the overall mean score of 4.52 and standard deviation of 1.47. This indicated that the teachers in the sample were at 65% confidence in implementing the curriculum. This was surprising

considering that the participants had attended the CBIT not long before the data were collected, in which curriculum implementation in the classroom was the main training materials. Besides, there were also intensive follow up activities conducted in the teacher forums in all districts serving to strengthen the participants' ability to implement the curriculum in the classroom. Such follow up activities were in the form of workshops in designing syllabus and lesson plan, developing teaching materials, and there were even also clinical teaching initiated by the teacher forum in every district.

Although the findings from the repeated measures MANOVA revealed that there was a significant increase in the level of teachers' confidence before and after the CBIT, such an increase did not seem to help the teachers step out from their doubt in her ability to implement the new curriculum in the classroom.

There were some possible explanations why the CBIT and its follow-up activities failed to elevate the level of teachers' efficacy for implementing the curriculum. Firstly, teachers in the sample were not quite ready for the curriculum change, particularly in relation to the wider mandated changes introduced by the new curriculum. Based on its implementation guidelines, the new curriculum offered wider mandates to teachers in the development of the syllabus, materials and the assessment system. The reason for extending this responsibility was because teachers were considered to better understand the materials best suited to the capabilities of their students. However, this did not mean that the teachers had to do everything themselves. In fact, teachers were

encouraged to work with their colleagues in the teacher forums in the district to develop curriculum materials and learning experiences collaboratively.

However, there was an indication that such wider mandates, to some extent, gave a rise to problems because they were related to the changing of teaching habits and culture among teachers. In the era of Curriculum 1994, teachers had been accustomed to bringing into the classroom whatever materials had been devised by the central government. Teachers had no right to determine the kinds of materials best fitted to the characteristics of the students. However, such practices were discontinued in the implementation of the new curriculum, where teachers were required to develop the most appropriate materials themselves. They were also had to design the assessment they would use to evaluate the students' achievement. This constituted a significant change in the nature of teachers' work practices and presented them with significant new challenges which potentially impacted significantly on their levels of efficacy for particular teaching related tasks.

Secondly, the new curriculum also introduced a different paradigm in the teaching of English. Based on the previous curriculum, Curriculum 1994, teaching of English was mainly governed within the framework of communicative approach. In the new curriculum, however, the teaching of English was conducted based on the genre-based approach. The shift in the paradigm stimulated changes in other aspects ranging from the formulation of teaching objectives, the teaching techniques used in the classroom and the

assessment criteria. The effects of the change in the teaching paradigm brought about different teaching practices from those the teachers had used in the old curriculum. This possibly diminished the sense of efficacy among the participants.

## 6.4 The effects of demographic factors on the teachers' self-efficacy beliefs

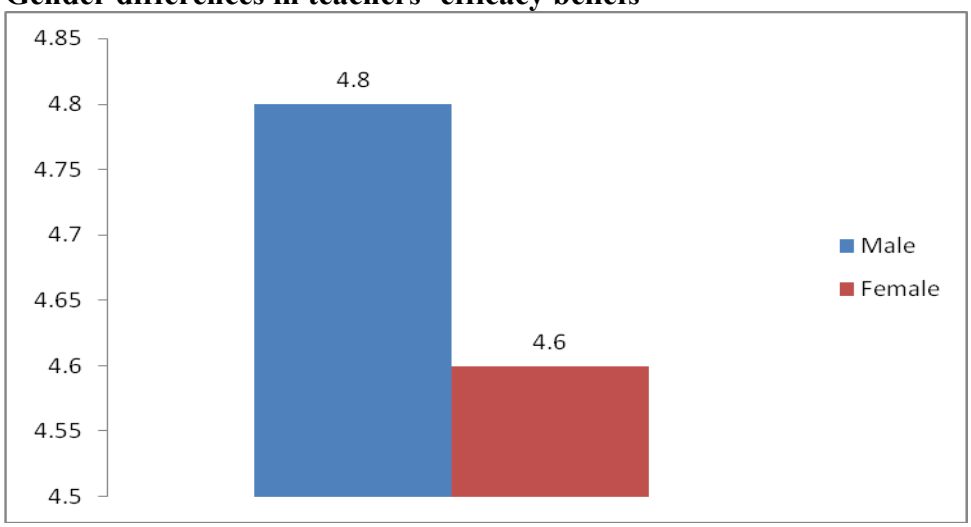
Five types of demographic data were included as the independent variables in the present study. They were gender, age, English teaching background, teaching experience and teacher status. MANOVA, however, did not find significant contribution of English teaching background and teacher status.

The first significant effect was found in the differences in gender. It indicated that differences in the level of teachers' efficacy beliefs had something to do with differences in gender. The findings were interesting because so far there have not been an agreement among researchers in terms of the contribution of gender on teachers' self-efficacy beliefs. Some researchers have suggested that female teachers tended to have higher self-efficacy beliefs (J. A. Ross, 1994; Shahid & Thomson, 2001). On the other hand, other researchers have suggested that male teachers tended to show higher levels of confidence (Imants & De Brabander, 1996; Silver, Mitchell, & Gist, 1995). Equally, Tscannen-Moran & Hoy (2002) have suggested that the effect of gender would only show up in research with a large sample (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2002). Tschannen-Moran & Hoy (2007) also suggested that the inclusion of demographic variables

was only to act as a control because there was no theoretical reason to suspect that they necessarily related to self-efficacy.

In the present study, male teachers showed higher efficacy beliefs than the females (Figure 6.2). The most appropriate explanation for these findings was once again related to the perceived control over the students in teaching. This is due to the perception that successful teaching was considered related to success in controlling the students, in which male teachers tended to be more confident.

**Figure 6.2**
**Gender differences in teachers' efficacy beliefs**

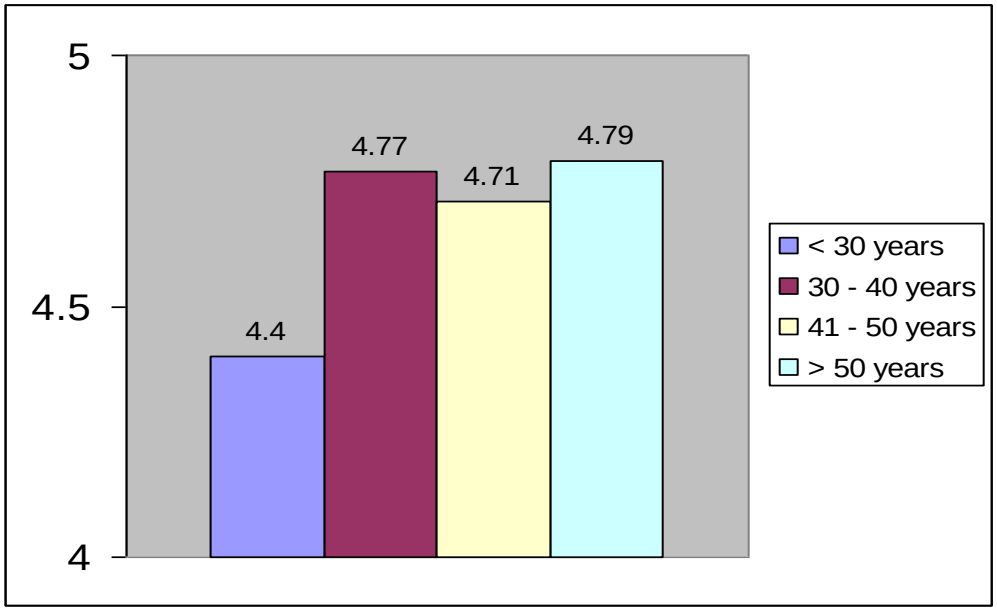



There has been no research suggesting that differences in age have made significant contribution to teachers' self-efficacy beliefs. Although a number of researchers have included age as one of the demographic factors (Cruz & Arias, 2007; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007; Wolters & Daugherty, 2007), they have normally treated it as a control variable. Findings of the present study suggest that although differences in age contributed significantly to the differences in

teachers' self-efficacy beliefs, there was no evidence that self-efficacy increased with age, or vice versa. This study has shown that teachers' self-efficacy fluctuated as a function of age (Figure 6.3), and that self-efficacy was lower among younger teachers those (younger than 30 years), and then increased among teachers between 30-40 years of age. It then decreased again among those older than 40 years of age and reached the peak when people were above 50 years of age. Further analysis using the Tukey post hoc, however, suggested that the significant differences were only between the first group, teachers younger than 30 years of age, and the teachers in the other age group. No significant differences were found among the other three groups of teacher, those older than 30 years of age.

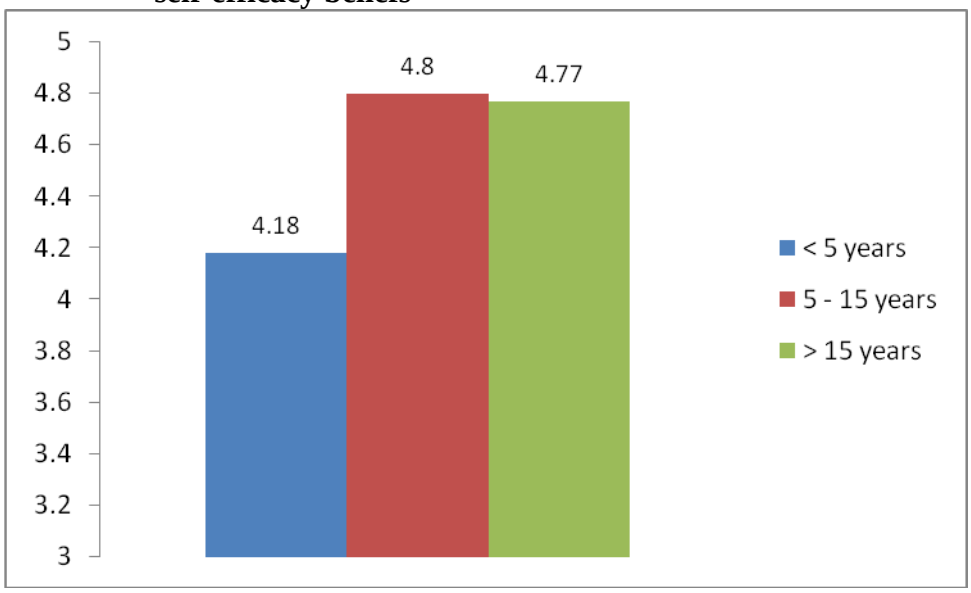
Explanations regarding these findings are further confirmed by the findings suggesting that although differences in age contributed significantly to the differences in the level of efficacy, such significant differences were not found in the entire groups created by categorical variables, in this case in all age groups, but only between the first age group and the other three age groups. There were no significant effects of age on the other three groups. It was therefore assumed that teachers' efficacy increased at in the early age period and then remained stable once teachers were above thirty years of age. These findings confirmed earlier research claiming that self-efficacy beliefs were fairly stable once established (Bandura, 1977a; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007).

**Figure 6.3**
**Teachers' self efficacy as a function of age**




Teaching experience was also found to be related to teachers' self-efficacy. Differences in the amount of time in teaching contributed to differences in the level of self-efficacy beliefs. However, it appeared that differences in teaching experiences did not produce a linear correlation with the level of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs. Teachers' self-efficacy beliefs appeared to increase up to a certain point of teaching experience and then started to decline. The data suggested that teachers' efficacy beliefs were the highest among the group of teachers who had teaching experiences between five and fifteen years, then dropped away again until the age of retirement (Figure 6.4).

**Figure 6.4 Contribution of teaching experience to differences in teachers' self-efficacy beliefs**




These findings suggest that the lower sense of efficacy among teachers with less than five year teaching experiences was in a sense predictable. This was due to their lack of mastery experiences. In addition, the first five years in teaching is a critical period when novice teachers might face reality shock (Weinstein, 1988; Wheatley, 2005) due to the complexity of teaching duties and are thus forced to recalibrate the meaning of good and successful teaching (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007). This early period in the teaching profession is also a time where novice teachers re-evaluate their perception of their own teaching ability to a level that low enough for them to turn their confidence into a certain level of doubt.

Although the findings suggest that it was not statistically significant, the lower level of efficacy beliefs reported by the most experienced teachers in the sample, those with more than fifteen years teaching experience, was interesting.

This was because a number of research study have indicated that teachers' sense of efficacy is fairly stable once it has become set, so that it would not necessarily increase along with the increase of teaching experience (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007). Although it did not have to be increasing with the teaching experience, the weakening of efficacy beliefs among more experienced teachers seemed to be somewhat strange.

It might be argued that the reason behind this was related to the specific context and specific time of the data collection. As required by the research design, teachers in the sample were those who had attended the CBIT. In addition, at the time the data were collected, the participants were at the beginning of implementing a new curriculum with a new approach in teaching English. This was perhaps why experienced teachers, who were normally older, felt that they were not very confident in coping with the change, and therefore they rated themselves slightly lower.

Another interesting idea might be raised in relation to the contribution of both age and teaching experience on the level of teachers' self-efficacy. Because both factors resulted in the same pattern of change, it seemed to be reasonable to state that there was an overlap between the contribution of teachers' age and teaching experience on the teachers' self-efficacy, especially that of young teachers and teachers with less time in teaching. In this case, it was difficult to positively assert whether such changes in the teachers' efficacy was a function of differences in age but not teaching experience or vice versa.

## 6.5 The effects of task settings on the teachers' self-efficacy beliefs

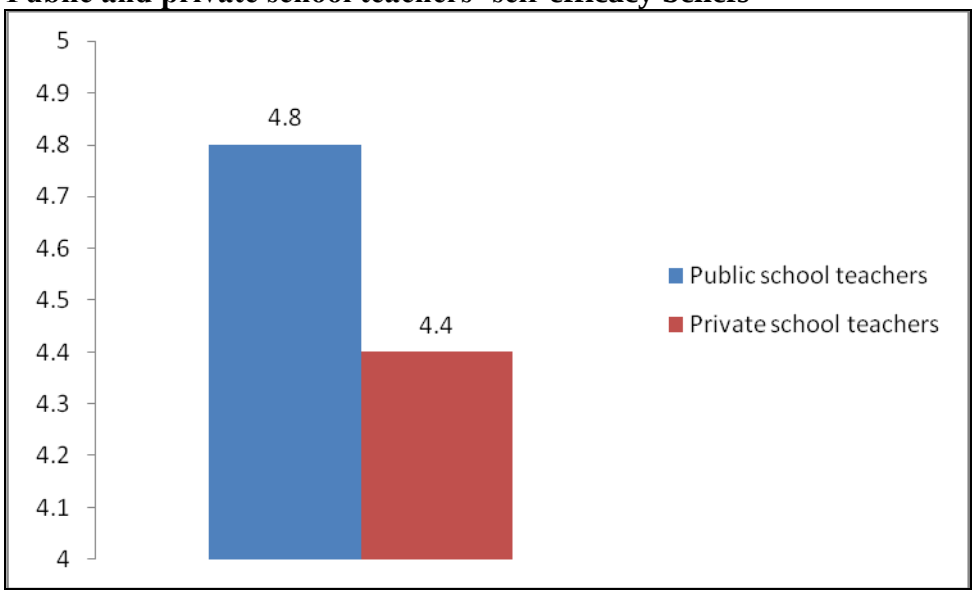
The use of the term task setting or context was in a sense influenced by the same term used by Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007). The task contexts investigated in this study consisted of the schools and the districts where the teachers were teaching. The inclusion of the two contexts was driven by the expectation that they constituted differences in terms of resources or supports, and the work atmosphere.

In terms of the school as contextual independent variable, the findings of the present study showed a significant contribution of school type on the differences in the level of teachers' efficacy beliefs. This indicated that there were significant differences between the level of efficacy beliefs of teachers teaching in public schools and that of teachers teaching in private schools. Teachers in public schools rated themselves higher than those in private school (see Figure 6.5).

Differences in the level of efficacy between public and private schools could be explained in terms of the available resources and supports for teachers. In most cases, teachers in public schools have more resources available for them. Public school teachers in the Indonesian context normally have better access to a wide range of professional development programs initiated by the government. The findings of the present research corroborated previous research suggesting the possible contribution of available resources found in a number of research. For

example Tschannen-Moran and Hoy stated that the availability of resources made a significant contribution to differences in efficacy, especially for novice teachers (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007).

**Figure 6.5**
**Public and private school teachers' self-efficacy beliefs**




The second task context variable was related to the district or municipality where the teachers were teaching. The inclusion of this context variable was based on the consideration that districts very often had differences in terms of policy toward teachers and teaching profession. Furthermore, different districts do offer different challenges and consequences for teachers. For example, teachers who taught in the district in the city centre or close to city centre had different challenges as well as opportunities from those who taught in rural areas.

Though there was an expectation that differences in districts were related to differences in the level of teacher efficacy of the participants, the data revealed a different finding. There was no significant contribution of district toward the variation in the level of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs in the present study. This indicated that differences in the policies of different districts in relation to teachers and teaching profession were not related to the differences in the efficacy of the teachers in the sample.

## 6.6 The interaction effects

Interaction effects in this study were measured using the Multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA). However, due to the limited power observed in the data, only two way-interactions were measured. Among all the two-way interaction, only two combinations showed significant contribution to the level of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs at the 95% level of confidence, $p = 0.05$.

The first significant two-way interaction effect resulted from the combined effect of gender and age on the differences in teachers' efficacy beliefs, particularly between male and female teachers under thirty years of age. These significant differences were probably due to the learning process of the young teachers. As mentioned in the previous section in this chapter, the gap seemed to appear as these young teachers faced the reality of teaching and when they were recalibrating their perception of their own ability. In coping with this, the male teachers seemed to be more effective than the females, so that they did not suffer from too much loss of confidence. On the other hand, female teachers

seemed to be more severely affected by the gap between their early beliefs in their ability to teach and their experience of the real teaching duties. Their sense of efficacy, therefore, decreased more than that of the male teachers. The significant difference between the two groups confirms Bandura's statement that self-efficacy beliefs are most flexible during early learning (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007), in this case in the teaching profession.

The findings of the present study revealed significant interaction effects of teaching experience by school particularly on the teachers' efficacy for curriculum implementation. The findings indicated that these efficacy beliefs were sensitive to the combined effects of teachers' teaching experience and the school where the teachers were teaching. At the univariate level, five out of eight items showed differences due to the interaction effects of teaching experience by school. This was perhaps due to the access the participants had to the professional development programs offered by the office of the MoNE in the province. More experienced public school teachers normally had greater access to school facilities and professional programs than both the younger teachers and the teachers from private schools. This greater access though did not necessary provide successful experiences, although it may have improved the expectation of success among the participants. This high expectation of success together with the opportunity to see successful models boosted their level of efficacy beliefs.

## 6.7 The effects of training as professional program on the teachers' self-efficacy beliefs

Findings of the repeated measures MANOVA in the present study revealed that CBIT, as a professional development program, exercised significant effects on the level of teachers' efficacy beliefs. The participants reported that they were more confident after attending the training program.

Although the participants reported significant differences in their efficacy before and after their attendance in the CBIT, data from the interview revealed that the differences were not due to the training alone. When the participants were asked about the contribution of the training alone, one of the teachers rated it at seven on a ten-point scale, while the other three teachers rated it even less.

There were several possible explanations for the significant effects of the CBIT on the teachers' self-efficacy beliefs. First, by attending the CBIT teachers were more prepared for their teaching-related duties. This was because CBIT provided the teachers not only with the philosophy of the new curriculum, but also with the implementation of the curriculum. This training was also designed to improve the teachers' English skills. Although most participants had not experienced successes, their expectation of success might have increased their level of efficacy beliefs. Second, by attending the CBIT, the participants had the opportunity to share experience with their teacher colleagues. There was a strong indication that the teachers shared experiences of successes, as well as sharing the problems they face in implementing the new curriculum. This was

supported by the data from the interviews where all participants mentioned sharing with colleagues as the most prominent factor influencing their level of confidence. From sharing these success experiences with their colleagues, the teachers to some extent modeled success behaviours as vicarious experiences (Bandura, 1977a, 1997), and perhaps helped to boost their own level of efficacy.

## 6.8 Teachers' work Engagement

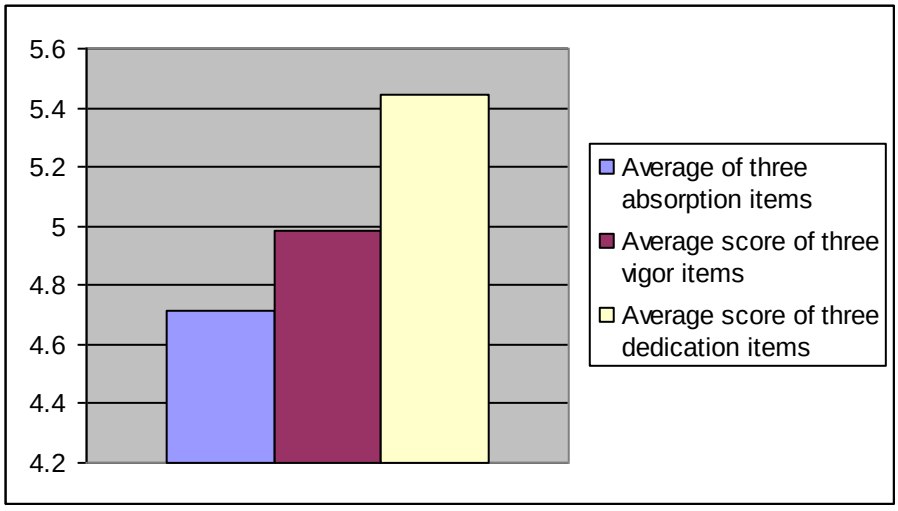
Unlike teacher attrition and turnover which do not seem to be a significant issue, teachers' work engagement is an important aspect of teachers in the Indonesian context. This is because there seems to be no guarantee that staying in a profession the whole of one's life means enjoying the profession, feeling devoted and being highly committed to it. Sticking with the job and being engaged in it are two different things. Watt, Richardson, and Tysvaer (2007), for example, have suggested that high levels of engagement were found even among those who planned to have other careers rather than spending their whole life in a teaching career.

Results of the present study suggest that work engagement among the junior secondary school English teachers in Yogyakarta province was generally high, with an overall mean of 5.04 and standard deviation of 1.13 on a 7-point Likert-type scale. Interestingly, although the teaching profession did not provide high privilege and financial returns, teachers in the sample reported dedication as the highest among the three components of work engagement with a mean score of

5.44, followed by vigor with a mean score of 4.99, and absorption with a mean score of 4.71 (see Figure 6.6)

The findings also suggested that the level of engagement among teachers in the present study had nothing to do with demographic factors like gender, age, educational background, teaching experience and teacher status. In addition, task settings like the types of school and the districts where the teacher taught did not contribute to differences in teachers' work engagement.

**Figure 6.6**
**Levels of teachers' work engagement**




Although research had not yet come to a suggestion that there are gender differences in teachers' work engagement, there were expectations that this would be the case for teachers in the Indonesian context. Male teachers in this context are expected to provide the main financial support for their family. Given that the teaching profession does not provide good financial returns, it was expected that responsibility to provide living for male teachers would to

some extent be a factor potentially promoting differences in teacher engagement. While female teachers might feel secure with a lower income and enjoy their teaching position due to their limited financial necessity, in this case to provide additional financial support to the family, male teachers would have to find other jobs to provide an adequate living for their family. The responsibility to do the duties of the other job(s) would take a certain amount of time, effort and energy of male teachers away from the teaching profession. Male teachers, therefore, would be potentially less engaged in their teaching work. The results of the present study, however, told a different story. There was no significant contribution of gender on the differences in the work engagement among the teachers.

Differences in age were also potential causes of differences in work engagement among teachers. Older teachers might show either lower engagement due to the increased responsibilities they had, or higher engagement levels due to their more settled profession. However, this was not the case based on the data. Differences in ages did not stimulate differences in the level of engagement of the teachers in this province.

Furthermore, the researcher also anticipated to see the influence of teacher status in work engagement. As previously mentioned, government employed teachers had a more secure position given that there were not many cases of teachers losing their jobs after gaining this professional status. Although one might argue that a secure position would bring about a higher level of

engagement, it could equally produce quite a different effect, where such a feeling could lead to diminishing engagement in the profession. For example, in the Indonesian context, it was fair to expect that after a teacher gained this secure position as a civil servant, s/he would tend to be less engaged in the teaching profession and start to look for and engage more with the second or third jobs. This anticipation was relevant when referring to the Annual Report of the Commission for Human Rights in Education suggesting that:

> Teachers traditionally had high social status in Indonesia but teaching is today a low-paid and low-prestige profession. As the World Bank has put it, "the GOI's –Government of Indonesia's- implicit policy on teachers' (and all civil servants') salaries has been to keep official salaries low, keep working hours to a minimum, and to allow teachers to hold second and third jobs (Tomasevski, 2002)No. 21.

Data on teachers' work engagement collected from the sample, however, did not support the assumption. There was no significant difference in work engagement of teachers who were civil servants from those who were not.

The school context was a variable that might relate to the level of teacher work engagement among teachers. The possibility of supporting teachers' work engagement was probably related to the more conducive atmosphere and culture of the schools. However, findings of the present study did not identify significant differences in teachers' work engagement. Both teachers teaching in public and private schools were engaged in their work at similar levels.

It was thought that the districts where the teacher sample taught might impact on the teachers' work engagement. Those districts with more positive policies

toward teachers and the teaching profession might be expected to make a positive contribution compared to those with less positive ones. Research had suggested that work engagement to some extent is boosted by opportunities and resources (Mauno et al., 2007; Oplatka, 2004). Differences in resources provided by different districts should contribute to differences in the work engagement of teachers in those areas. The data again, however, rejected this hypothesis. No significant differences in teachers' work engagement resulted from the different districts in which they taught.

There were several possible explanations why teachers remained engaged in their profession in Indonesia when factors such as gender, age, educational background and other independent variables do not have any contribution. First, such a level of work engagement might relate to the intrinsic social and cultural embodiment of teaching profession in this society. It is reasonable to argue that it is the intrinsic nature of that teaching profession that provides such high levels of vigor, dedication and absorption among the participants. These intrinsic values are related to the socio-cultural and religious aspects of the profession that were held by the teachers. At this stage, it was interesting because previous studies of pre-service teachers in Brunei Darussalam (Yong, 1995), a country which resembles the community profile in Yogyakarta, Indonesia, revealed different findings. In his study, Yong suggested that it was extrinsic motives that functioned as the main determinant of the sample in entering teaching profession (Yong, 1995). This could be true in the context of

Yong's research where among the fourteen reasons listed, none was related to the social and religious aspects of the participants (Yong, 1995, p. 277).

In contrast to Yong's findings, the present study with participants mostly coming from Javanese culture and where most members of the society were Moslems, gave an important consideration to the socio-religious aspects seemed important. In this Javanese-rooted area, the teaching profession commands a positive social image for those who chose to be teachers. Especially in the Yogyakarta context, for most members of the society, teachers are still respected figures, on which society could rely for the role modeling function of teachers. As also discussed in the previous section, the strong role-model function of teachers was shown by the famous acronym derived from the Javanese word for teacher, *guru*, which means someone to listen to as a model.

Furthermore, the perceived role-model function of teachers seemed to be a code of conduct for the teachers themselves in doing not only their academic tasks, but also in behaving in the society. From this, it could be inferred that teachers themselves would consider themselves as society role-models or at least that the society would keep eyes on whatever they do. They thus would make themselves socially acceptable, and build a good image for the society. In relation to their work engagement, teachers would set their own norm that being a less engaged teacher was not something that the society expected from them. This perceived role-model would keep them highly engaged because teachers believed that the society expected them to behave so.

Secondly, religion seemed likely to have been an important factor related to the high level of engagement among teachers in Yogyakarta. As most of the people in Yogyakarta are Moslems, Islamic teachings concerning the duty of spreading knowledge among human being seemed to be of great influence. Although the Koran does not explicitly refer specifically to teachers, it repeatedly highlights the importance of spreading knowledge and the honor of having 'useful' knowledge, which means that the knowledge is to be shared with other. Therefore, teachers seemed to consider the teaching profession not as a profession, but also a way to achieve a better life in the life after death. This idea seemed to be a strong determinant of why teachers might remain highly engaged in this region.

## 6.9 Correlation between teachers' self-efficacy and teachers' work engagement

Spearman rho correlation analyses on the relation between revealed that there was a positive significant correlation between the teachers' efficacy beliefs and work engagement (see Table 4.8 on page 131 for detail Pearson Rho correlation coefficient). This indicated that an increase in the level of efficacy would be likely to bring about an increase in the teachers' work engagement.

## 6.10 Conclusion

The overall level of teachers' efficacy beliefs among the participants was 67%, which indicated a moderate level of confidence. In general this fits well with the

nature of the teaching profession in the region where it is accorded high social status but not academic recognition and privilege. Although the findings still to a certain extent reflect positive self-efficacy, the level of confidence was not very high. The first question that needs to be answered is whether such a level of confidence among the teachers is adequate enough to bring about quality English teaching in particular and quality education in the region in general.

Positive expectations could be developed based on these results, especially when referring to the idea that teachers' efficacy doubts had potential benefits particularly with regard to educational reform (Wheatley, 2002). Wheatley has suggested that "… it is difficult for teachers to learn and improve much without experiencing efficacy doubts"(Wheatley, 2002, p. 13). However, it is difficult to identify how such efficacy doubts are grounded. It seemed promising to expect that doubts were part of incomplete mastery experiences. However, there was not yet a guarantee whether such doubts were grounded in the developing nature of the individual professional or were stimulated by the overwhelming outside pressures, like severe critiques from the society. Such questions are important in order to better understand how improvements in the quality of teachers and teaching can be achieved. Answering these questions would be important in anticipating the possible implications of where these doubts are grounded.

# Chapter 7 Conclusions and Implications

## 7.1 Introduction

Over the last three decades teacher efficacy has been the subject of a great many research studies resulting it being considered an important dimension of teachers' professional lives. It has been shown to impact on teacher behavior in the classroom, attitudes towards teaching, how students are referred to, and the various ways in which teachers cope with problems. It has also been shown to affect students' efficacy, motivation and achievement.

The present study investigated teachers' efficacy beliefs and work engagement in the cultural setting of Yogyakarta, Indonesia. It investigated questions related to the level of efficacy and work engagement among junior school English teachers in a context where English is a foreign language spoken almost exclusively inside the English language classroom. It would be rare for these English teachers to have the opportunity to communicate in English. Further it examined the complex ways in which social status, academic recognition, and financial returns influence both levels of efficacy and work engagement.

In relation to the above explanation, therefore, a research involving characteristics of teaching profession in a specific cultural context is worthy to be done especially as an effort to provide cultural comparison contributing to the theories of teacher self-efficacy beliefs. Besides, it also provides empirical

data on the contribution of factors like social status, academic recognition, and financial returns on the level of teachers' self-efficacy. In addition, such a research is important in relation to the education reform in Indonesia, where an improvement of quality teachers is one important agenda in the improvement of quality education that the government has planned.

## 7.2 Major Findings

As presented in Chapters 4 and 5, the findings of the present study centre on three major fields: (a) teachers' self-efficacy, (b) the effects of professional development training on teachers' self-efficacy, and (c) teachers' work engagement. All findings are situated in the context of education in Indonesia, more particularly among the junior secondary school English teachers in Yogyakarta province, one major centre of Javanese culture in Indonesia.

### 7.2.1 Teachers' efficacy beliefs

There are currently two different views about how teacher efficacy beliefs contribute to the work of teachers. The majority of the research studies suggest that a high sense of efficacy contributes positively to a teacher's behavior and impacts on his/her level of enthusiasm (Alinder, 1994; Guskey, 1984), commitment to teaching (Coladarci, 1992), planning and organization (Alinder, 1994), and persistence in dealing with problems (Ashton & Webb, 1986). In addition, highly efficacious teachers are more open to new ideas and are willing to experiment with new methods (Guskey, 1988; Stein & Wang, 1988). More

recent studies, however, consider positive efficacy as an obstacle to development suggesting that efficacy doubt might contribute more to the improvement in teacher quality (Wheatley, 2000, 2002, 2005).

In the present study it was found that the overall mean of the teachers' efficacy among the sample was 4.68 on a seven-point scale, with the mean scores of all five subscales above the mid-point. This indicates that in general the participants were at 67% level of confidence in doing their teaching-related duties. Further, the participants rated teachers' efficacy for English the lowest among the five subscales in the teacher efficacy questionnaire. In this case, the participants rated themselves as higher in confidence in their English for instruction, but lower in their English for communication. This finding is important, especially when improvement of student achievement is considered crucial. Such low levels of confidence in English for communication raises questions concerning the teachers' ability to bring about higher levels of student achievement, and therefore emphasizes a need to provide more opportunities for teachers to improve their levels of English competence. The findings therefore have important academic implications in relation to teacher professional development, particularly in the effort to improve the English competence of these participants.

Another important finding was related to the gap between teachers' efficacy for classroom management and student engagement. The participants rated themselves as more confident in their ability to manage the classroom than their

ability to engage students. This gap resulted from the participants' perception that classroom management was closely related to the ability to exercise control over students, while student engagement was related to students' active participation in classroom activities. Given that Indonesian school students are 'naturally' obedient but very quiet, managing them is much easier than engaging them into active participation in class activities.

Although teachers in the sample had recently attended the CBIT in which the new curriculum was the focus of the training program, this training did not appear to increase to a significant level the teachers' efficacy for curriculum implementation – it ranked fourth among the five subscales in the efficacy questionnaire. This highlights the need for more opportunities to include aspects of curriculum implementation in the teacher development programs. Interestingly, teachers in the sample reported relatively high levels of efficacy for instructional strategies, which are closely connected with the implementation of curriculum in the classroom.

Furthermore, the present study also found that teachers' self-efficacy among the participants was related to gender, age and teaching experience. There were significant differences in the level of efficacy beliefs between male and female teachers, with male teachers reported higher efficacy (M = 4.78; SD = 1.44) than the female (M = 4.64; SD = 1.3). There were also significant differences between differences between the levels of efficacy beliefs of youngest teachers in the sample (M = 4.4; SD = 1.8) and the other three groups of older teachers

with the mean scores and standard deviations of M = 4.77 and SD = 1.21 for the 30-40 year group of teachers, M = 4.71 and SD = 1.22 the 41–50 year teachers, and M = 4.79, SD = 1.78 for those above 50 years of age. In addition, differences in teaching experiences resulted in differences in the level of efficacy beliefs, with the least experienced teachers reported the lowest self-efficacy (M = 4.18, SD = 1.54).

In terms of the effects of age and teaching experience, there seems to be a shared contribution, if not an overlap, between the contribution of age and teaching experience on teacher efficacy beliefs. The contribution of the two variables follows a similar pattern, where teachers who were younger than 30 years of age, who were also the least experienced, differ significantly in their level of efficacy from the other groups. While the older groups, which are also the groups with longer time in teaching, did not show significant difference. These findings fit neatly with the previous findings suggesting that once it is established, teacher efficacy is relatively stable (Bandura, 1997; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007)

Although there no combined effects found between the types of school and district where the participants were teaching, the present study found that there was a combined significant effect of gender by age and teacher experience by school on the teachers' self-efficacy beliefs. In terms of the contribution of gender by age, the present research found that male teachers of 30-40 years old reported significantly higher than that of female at the same age (see Figure

4.1). In addition the there was significant higher increase of efficacy reported by the male teachers.

In relation to the above findings, there is an indication that such differences are due to the ways young male teacher cope with the reality shock of their early experiences in teaching. The fact that there was a more rapid increase in the level of efficacy among young male teachers compared to those of young female teachers suggests that male teachers are less severely affected by the initial shock and recover more quickly to build their confidence in the profession. In addition, Figure 4.1 shows that although the beginning level of efficacy of male teachers younger than 30 years of age is lower than the female teachers, the male teachers between 30 - 40 years of age reported higher efficacy than the female.

Furthermore, the present study has shown that the more experienced public school teachers were significantly higher in their sense of efficacy than those teaching in private schools, a phenomenon that may be related to the differences in the level of access to facilities and professional development programs in public and private schools. In most cases, more experienced teachers in public schools have wider access to both facilities and professional development programs. Their assessment of the available access to these two job resources increases the level of efficacy among the older public school teachers.

In conclusion, although the level of teachers' confidence was moderately high, such a level of efficacy was contextually optimal, given that at the time the data were collected improvement in quality teachers was an important dimension of the education reform agenda being rolled out across Indonesia. This moderate level of efficacy is not surprising given the changes taking place with regard to the curriculum and teaching practices during the time the data were collected. Such a level of confidence is likely due to the incomplete but developing mastery of the participants in the implementation of the new curriculum being required of all classroom teachers across the length and breadth of the Indonesian archipelago.

The finding of such a moderate level of efficacy supports Wheatley's proposal that teachers' efficacy doubt may be very important with regard to teacher reform (Wheatley, 2000, 2002, 2005). Teachers in the present study were not too confident so that they might be prepared to put in a more significant effort in improving themselves, perhaps be ready to take on new initiatives and teaching strategies, as well as exerting effort in improving their teaching performance.

## 7.2.2 The effect of CBIT on teachers' efficacy beliefs

Research has recommended that in-service training programs consider the local, because what works in one culture might not work in another (Vulliamy, 1998). In addition, other researchers have warned of the potential danger of professional development programs designed by external experts that place little

value on local practitioners' knowledge. In other words, teacher professional development is reduced to a list of generic, standardized, teacher-proof skills (Knamiller et al., 1999) that are sensitive to culturally specific requirements.

Findings of the present study have revealed that there were significant effects of CBIT on the teachers' efficacy beliefs. Results of the repeated measures MANOVA showed that there was a significant increase in the level of teachers' efficacy with the participants being more confident in their professional practice after they had attended the CBIT. However, data from the interviews have also indicated that these effects were not from the training alone. Thus, when asked to rate the effect of the training alone the participants gave it a low rating, but commented that the training in general had an important role in helping them meet together as professionals to share experiences with their colleagues. The interview data also suggested that the opportunities to meet and share experiences contributed significantly to the increase in their sense of confidence compared to the contribution of the trainers in the training program, especially when the trainers were school teachers that taught students with the relatively the same characteristics as their own students. As a common practice in the teacher training, some trainers were either bureaucrat from the MoNE office or lecturers from universities.

The above data has important policy implications especially for the government in designing the types and methods of training that will be most effective. Training should provide opportunities more frequent meetings with teacher

colleagues where they a facilitated in sharing ideas and strategies. The findings support the need to build learning communities among the teachers so they can share the benefits from the training programs.

### 7.2.3 Teacher's work engagement

An important theoretical model, the JD-R (A. B. Bakker & Bal, 2006; Arnold B. Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; A. B. Bakker et al., 2007), has identified two constructs that may contribute to the level of teacher work engagement: job demands and job resources. The demanding aspects of a job, for example work load, if it leads to constant overtaxing, may in the end lead to exhaustion that impairs performance and provides negative consequences for organizations. Job resources like salary, work opportunity, interpersonal and social relations, collegial support, role clarity, and access to decision making, on the other hand, lead to engagement and positive outcomes (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).

Following the general trend in the findings from the work engagement research, the findings of the present study are of importance. In a profession where job demands are very high, there is a lack of job resources, a moderate work engagement among teacher participants might be expected. The findings suggest that the overall teachers' work engagement was 5.04 with the standard deviation of 1.13. Interestingly, the participants rated themselves highest in their dedication to teaching profession, regardless of the low financial return and academic recognition they receive. This is theoretically different from major finding from research involving dedication in a profession, for example Bakker

et al.'s (2004) which suggests that it is job resources that lead to dedication. It is therefore surprising that the findings of the present study indicate that work engagement is still high regardless of minimal job resources available the participants. In addition, it is also revealed that work engagement among participants is not related to the demographic factors, like gender, age, teacher status, teaching experience, type of school and the district where the teachers taught.

The present study has proposed that the level of work engagement among the participants resulted from the social and religious values of the teaching profession in the region. In addition it was also affected by the perceived teachers' social role model function of teachers, ensuring that they see it inappropriate to be less engaged in this profession. Furthermore, this study has shown that there is a positive significant relationship between teacher work engagement and the level of teachers' efficacy beliefs of the participants. An increase in teacher work engagement was related to the increase in the teachers' efficacy beliefs.

## 7.3 Contributions of the present research

An important contribution of this research is that it is the first study to systematically investigate teachers' sense of efficacy and work engagement in an Indonesian context. Previously, in the profession where membership is likely to be life-long, there has been little attention paid to how teachers feel about their work and how they engage in their profession. The findings of the present

research provide evidence of the importance of looking at how teachers perceive their ability and how they engage with their work. The empirical findings from this study suggest that efficacy and engagement can be measured even in the context where teachers are considered to have no choice but to devote themselves to their life-long profession. Furthermore, the findings have important policy implications for government in designing professional development programs to improve teachers' quality.

In addition, there are two other important contributions from the present study, in relation to research methodology and theories of teachers' efficacy beliefs.

Previous researchers have acknowledged that research based on quantitative or qualitative only, as a limitation of their design and have suggested that a mixed-methods design might result in more comprehensive findings. In response to the acknowledged need to collect a richer array of data of teacher efficacy beliefs, I have applied a mixed-method using both quantitative and qualitative research methods in the present study. By conducting a follow up qualitative study founded on the findings from quantitative data, it was expected to provide more comprehensive findings, which offered a firm basis for understanding further influences on teacher self-efficacy beliefs.

Second, exploratory factor analysis on the Ohio State Teacher Efficacy Scale (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001) found some problems. Although they were identified as three factors by the participants they did not load following the

original factors, with factors having different number of items from the original OSTES factors. For example, most items in the classroom management and student engagement subscales merged and were loaded as one factor. This indicated that classroom management and student engagement are difficult to separate for this group of participants. Another interesting finding from the factor analysis showed that the participants identified higher order factors within the original classroom management factor, where classroom management was identified as comprising management and control 'sub' factors. Though there is a possibility that these findings may be the result of translation, it is reasonable to argue that the specific socio-cultural background of the participants played an important role on how they viewed their level of efficacy on various subscales. For example, the participants indicated control as one important aspect in classroom management.

Theoretically, the present study has made a contribution to the literature on teacher efficacy beliefs. The first contribution is related to the source of efficacy information. As is widely recognized in the literature, there are four sources of efficacy beliefs that consist of mastery experience, vicarious experience, social persuasion, and somatic and psychological condition (Bandura, 1997). Madux (Maddux, 1995) added the imaginal experience as an extension of vicarious experience. For Maddux, where a model cannot be easily found, people can imagine someone with certain characteristics who is able to do a certain task

well. This imaginal experience boosts the level of efficacy, although it is not as strong as mastery experience or vicarious experience.

The present study, however, found that future expectations of success also increased teachers' confidence. This expectation of success was derived from the belief that the participants knew how to do something appropriately and well, regardless of their past successful experiences or mastery experiences. Specifically in this study, these expectations developed after the teachers had attended the training on the new curriculum. Though they did not have successful experiences, given that they felt familiar with what they were going to do they expected that they would be successful when approaching the teaching with what they learned during the training program.

A second theoretical contribution concerns the extent to which the teachers' efficacy is good for them. So far, the mainstream literature on teacher efficacy has considered positive teacher efficacy as good, suggesting that teachers with a higher sense of efficacy are better than those with lower sense of efficacy. More recently, however, Wheatley (Wheatley, 2000, 2002, 2005), has offered the alternative suggestion that positive efficacy could be an obstacle to development and that efficacy doubt has greater potential in the context of education reform, as is the case in Indonesia at the present time. In addition, there seems to be no clear criteria for judging what level of positive efficacy can be considered good, or indeed what level of efficacy doubt has the potential to be generative and positive.

This present research study has offered a solution to the problem related to the lack of quantified measure of efficacy level. Instead of simply saying positive and negative, or high and low efficacy beliefs, it offers an effort of quantifying the level of efficacy. By putting the level of confidence on a 100-percent scale, it is expected to give a clearer figure about at what level of efficacy the participants are and consequently facilitates easy interpretation of the findings. In addition, the present study also offers a specifically appropriate identification of the level of the participants' efficacy by saying that it is contextually optimal. It is not optimal, but more importantly it is optimal for the participants in their specific context in relation to the characteristics of the teaching profession they are in.

Third, in complementing the Asthon and Web's findings (Ashton & Webb, 1986), the present study reveals that when teaching profession requires excessive role demand from teachers but offers teachers with neither good financial return nor academic recognition, high social status and good morale make the level of efficacy remain positive.

## 7.4 Implications

The results of the present research study have a number of implications not only on the teaching profession in Indonesia in particular and on the education system in Indonesia in general but also on the field of teacher self-efficacy future research.

So far, there is an impression that teachers are considered the sole major cause of the low quality of education in Indonesia. Therefore, every effort of improving the quality of education has centered on teacher training, hoping that such training would in turn improve the quality of education because the quality of teachers is improved. Not many people, especially in the government, seemed to pay sufficient attention on how teachers believe in their capability in conduct the teaching duties or how they perceived the profession they work in.

In terms of teacher quality improvement, the findings implied that there is an urgent need of providing more opportunities for the teachers to improve their English. Given that their confidence in English is the lowest, there seems to be difficult for them to help students achieve their optimal level of achievement. Such opportunities to practice English could be in the form of teacher professional development aiming specifically to improve their English or other activities that can upgrade their communication skills.

In relation to the efficacy for curriculum implementation, it seems that teachers need more opportunities to communicate and share experiences with other teachers. It implies that there is a need to design a teacher forum that is supportive to such a need. The concept of professional community learning seems to be promising to answer the problems.

On the other hand, the findings that English teachers in Yogyakarta province rated themselves as moderately confident and relatively highly engaged in their

profession should open up alternative considerations of why the quality of education is still lower than expected. The agenda of quality education improvement should incorporate teacher factors with those outside teachers. People should start looking at factors other than teachers that might cause the inadequate quality of education, for example the government policy on modes of student assessment. In addition, improving teachers' well-being and extending to them wider autonomy would be of importance in facilitating quality teachers.

In terms of teacher efficacy research, the multifaceted nature of teacher efficacy found in the present study confirms that teacher efficacy remains an the elusive construct (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). This implies the need of continuing research in the field of teacher efficacy across various contexts of the teaching profession. The findings that different levels of efficacy of an individual teacher for different tasks also points to the importance of individual differences, and even to the importance of different situations within which individuals function.

## 7.5 Limitations and future research

There are several limitations in the conduct of this study. First, it was conducted at the time when the new curriculum was still in its draft stage. Although there seemed to be no significant changes in terms of its conceptual foundation, there was still a great deal work needing to be done by teachers to improve their understanding as well as their practices in the classroom. The fact that they were still at the beginning of the implementation of the curriculum may have

contributed to the teachers' lack of experience either in the form of mastery or problems.

Second, that the present study was confined to a limited number of participants with a specific socio-cultural background may be considered as further limitation. While it enabled the researcher to look at the specific aspects of the sample, it may well have obscured important possible variances resulting from groups with different socio-cultural backgrounds. Therefore, it may have been even more beneficial to explore the level of efficacy among teachers with different socio-cultural backgrounds by involving participants from different provinces or those having different ethnicity or religious backgrounds to enrich the findings and improve their generalizability.

Future research with an extension of time for the data collection, for example a longitudinal study, would be worth conducting. In addition, research with a larger sample should improve the reliability of the findings, as well as provide for a more thorough investigation of the importance of teacher efficacy beliefs, how these might change over time, and the durability of the changes.

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# Appendices

1. Ethic approval
2. Explanatory statement
3. Participants consent form
4. Principal permission letter
5. Principal consent form
6. Instruments
7. Survey data
8. Interview transcription
9. Observation checklist