



COMPARATIVE STUDY ON HIDDEN CURRICULUM  
IN ACCORDANCE TO THE SCHOOL CULTURE  
DEVELOPMENT INDICATOR BETWEEN  
THAILAND AND INDONESIA

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## ACKNOWLEDGED

I would to thank you Ahmad Dahlan University in Indonesia that Memorandum of Understanding between educational administration department Thaksin university Sonkhla Thailand and Educational administration department Ahmad Dahlan University Yogyakarta Indonesia. Scope and fields of academic cooperation the parties, hereby agree to implement within the framework of the rules and regulations applicable in each of the institutions and subject to available of funds and resources, joint research for student or faculty members in relevant and area.

This research success by Thailand and Indonesia University. Especially Assoc.Prof. Dr.Dwi Sulisworo who is co-researcher with Asst.Prof.Dr.Rungchatdaporn Vehachart, the interviewees who are the sample, International relations section Thaksin University. So I would like to thank a lot for them.

Asst.Prof.Dr.Rungchatdaporn Vehachart

## ABSTRACT

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This study aims to determine differences of hidden curriculum in Thailand and Indonesia. Results of this study can be used to develop a strategic plan to improve the education quality in both countries. This study was conducted in primary schools in Indonesia and Thailand using depth-interview and observation method for data collection. This research used descriptive method with comparative types. Through this method, an overview of the implementation of the hidden curriculum in Indonesia and Thailand can be mapped. Then the researchers analyzed the factors affecting the certain phenomena. The results showed differences in implementation of hidden curriculum in Thailand and Indonesia lies in the implementation of team teaching indicator, grouping students based on academic ability, focusing the curriculum, and the development of school culture, and student affective. Implementation of the hidden curriculum has a significant influence on the students learning performance.

**Keywords:** hidden curriculum, team teaching, school culture, education, learning

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## PART 1

### INTRODUCTION

Indonesia and Thailand have same commitment for better future generation. The agreement among ASEAN country members on ASEAN Economic Community give new opportunities for close collaboration each other countries including on education quality improvement.

In general, Indonesia and Thailand has a lot of similarities in the education system. These similarities among other are in the education system level and the evaluation of learning outcomes. Even both countries have similar education system, the learning outcome is much different. From PISA 2012, Thailand got score position at 427 for mathematics, 441 for reading comprehension, and 444 for science; on the contrary, Indonesia got 375, 396, and 382 for mathematics, reading comprehension, and science respectively. This result can be interpreted that there is something different on curriculum implementation including the hidden curriculum as well.

Experts and specialists of curriculum studies believe that explicit and formal curriculum is not the only thing which students learn in schools and much of knowledge and taught of students is through interaction and communication which has arose from social and educational environment of school, and such taught has a significant effect on formation of moral and social personality of students (Hashemi, Fallahi, Aojinejad, & Samav, 2012). Hidden curriculum can reinforce the lessons of the formal curriculum, or it can contradict the formal curriculum, revealing hypocrisies or inconsistencies between a school's stated mission, values, and convictions and what students actually experience and learn while they are in school (Hidden curriculum, 2015). In many cases, probably hidden curriculum has the influence in it.

We hope that Comparative Study on Hidden Curriculum in Accordance to the School Culture Development Indicator between Thailand and Indonesia. It is useful for Thai and Indonesia Educators.

The purpose of this research is to figure out how the implementation of the hidden curriculum in both countries could have a positive impact on learning outcomes and the positive values creating for students. Based on the problem of hidden curriculum implementation, this research will compare the implementation of the hidden curriculum between Thailand and Indonesia. The research finding hopefully will contribute to the policy of the hidden curriculum implementation for better education quality of both countries.

Therefore, the research questions are

- (1) What is the differences of the hidden curriculum implementation between Thailand and Indonesia school?
- (2) What is the implication of the hidden curriculum in both countries, Thailand and Indonesia to student learning outcomes?

### Objective

Comparative study on hidden curriculum in accordance to the school culture development indicator between Thailand and Indonesia.

## Scope of Research

1. Content :There are 3 variables of hidden curriculum that be analyzed i.e organizational, social, and culture. The indicators of those variable are measured from some indicators, namely the implementation of team teaching, the policy for grade promotion, the students grouping, the curriculum focus, the school efforts for character development, and student affective. To collect the data, the instrument is a depth-interview and observation technique. The collected data is then processed, reduced, analyzed to get a conclusion.

2.Population and sample: The sampling technique in this study using purposive sampling technique. The sample schools are 3 from Indonesia (Yogyakarta Special Province) and 3 from Thailand (Songhkla and Krabi Provinces). All schools are elementary school level. Schools from Indonesia are SD Muhammadiyah Bodon, SD Muhammadiyah Kadisoka, and SD Muhammadiyah Karangturi. While schools from Thailand are Anuban Muslim Krabi School, Songserm Sasana Vitaya School (SSVS), and Sangkhomislam Wittaya School (SWS).

## Methods

This research is qualitative using comparative descriptive method. Through this research, the overview of the hidden curriculum implementation in Indonesia and Thailand can be figured out. Next, the factors that cause the certain phenomena, for example, there are similarities or differences in implementation can be analyzed. This method is an ex post facto research. Based on the results of depth interviews, students in Thailand were not grouped by a particular capability. All students are considered equal and receive the same treatment on their learning process. Differently at school in Indonesia, especially in Yogyakarta, some schools have policy to group students into some categories based on their ability. This is as a consideration related to the proper treatment to students. Students with high ability will be given the opportunity to continue to the next competence. While students with lower abilities specifically guided to master the competency.

## Benefits are expected from research.

1. To benefit policy for the religious schools are networked with other countries such as Thailand, Indonesia.
2. To network with the international and to be ASEAN community of language, culture, traditions.

## Technical terms

***The hidden-curriculum:***concept is based on the recognition that students absorb lessons in school that may or may not be part of the formal course of study.

***Team teaching implementation :*** The main objective of the team teaching policy is to serve student with the suitable teachers by their relevant disciplines and competences.

***Grade Promotion Policy:*** There are some different between Indonesia and Thailand school one the grade promotion policy.

***Student Grouping :*** Indonesia education system see the grouping based on certain skills is important;

***Curriculum Focus :***The focus of curriculum is important on education. It will contribute the successful of teaching and learning activities. Based on The Ministry of

Education of Thailand, core competencies of students, consist of: 1) Communication Capacity. 2) Thinking Capacity. 3) Problem-Solving Capacity. 4) Capacity for Applying Life Skills. 5) Capacity for Technological Application.

***School Culture Development :*** The culture development of primary school (Prathom I-VI) in Thailand has similar characteristics with one in Indonesia in term physical, living values, and positive habits embedded on students.

***Student Affective:*** From the observation data, the profile of primary school students in Indonesia and Thailand as a result of the implementation of the hidden curriculum is compared.



## **PART 2**

### **REVIEW LITERATURE**

The document review for Comparative Study on Hidden Curriculum in Accordance to the School Culture Development Indicator between Thailand and Indonesia.

#### **HIDDEN CURRICULUM**

There are two type of curriculum, i.e formal curriculum and hidden curriculum. The formal curriculum is the planned program of objectives, content, learning experiences, resources and assessment offered by a school; it is sometimes called the 'official curriculum'(UNESCO, 2012). The hidden curriculum refers to the unwritten, unofficial, and often unintended lessons (Hidden curriculum, 2015), and also involves all the incidental lessons that students learn at school (UNESCO, 2012). It includes the lessons about behavior, perspectives, attitudes, personal relationships, the use of power and authority, competition, sources of motivation and so on that students learn at school(Boutelier; UNESCO, 2012) and character development (Jerald, 2014).

The hidden-curriculum concept is based on the recognition that students absorb lessons in school that may or may not be part of the formal course of study. For example, how they should interact with peers, teachers, and other adults; how they should perceive different races, groups, or classes of people; or what ideas and behaviors are considered acceptable or unacceptable(Hidden curriculum, 2015). The rules that teachers think you know without being taught are called the hidden curriculum in a part (Konieczka, 2013).

On the implementation of curriculum, the hidden curriculum has three variables which related to the social interaction behavior at the school and the environment. Those variabl es are organizational, social system, and cultural variable. Organizational variable describes and focuses on team teaching arrangement, grading policy, student grouping policy, and curriculum management. Social system variable describe the social competence of teachers affecting the interaction among teachers, students, parents, staffs, and people around the school. Cultural variable figures out and related to the system values, beliefs, meaning, and structure.

#### **THAILAND INDONESIA EDUCATION AT A GLANCE**

Education in Indonesia falls under the responsibility of the Ministry of Education and Culture and the Ministry ofReligion Affairs. In Indonesia, all citizens must undertake nine years of compulsory education which consists of six years at elementary level and three in secondary level. Islamic schools are under the responsibility of the Ministry of Religious Affairs. The Constitution also notes that there are two types of education in Indonesia: formal and non-formal. Formal education is further divided into three levels: primary, secondary and tertiary education. Schools in Indonesia are run either by the government (public) or private sectors (private). Some private schools refer to themselves as "national plus schools" which means that their curriculum to exceeds requirements set by the Ministry ofEducation, especially with the use of English as medium of instruction or having an international-based curriculum instead of the national one.

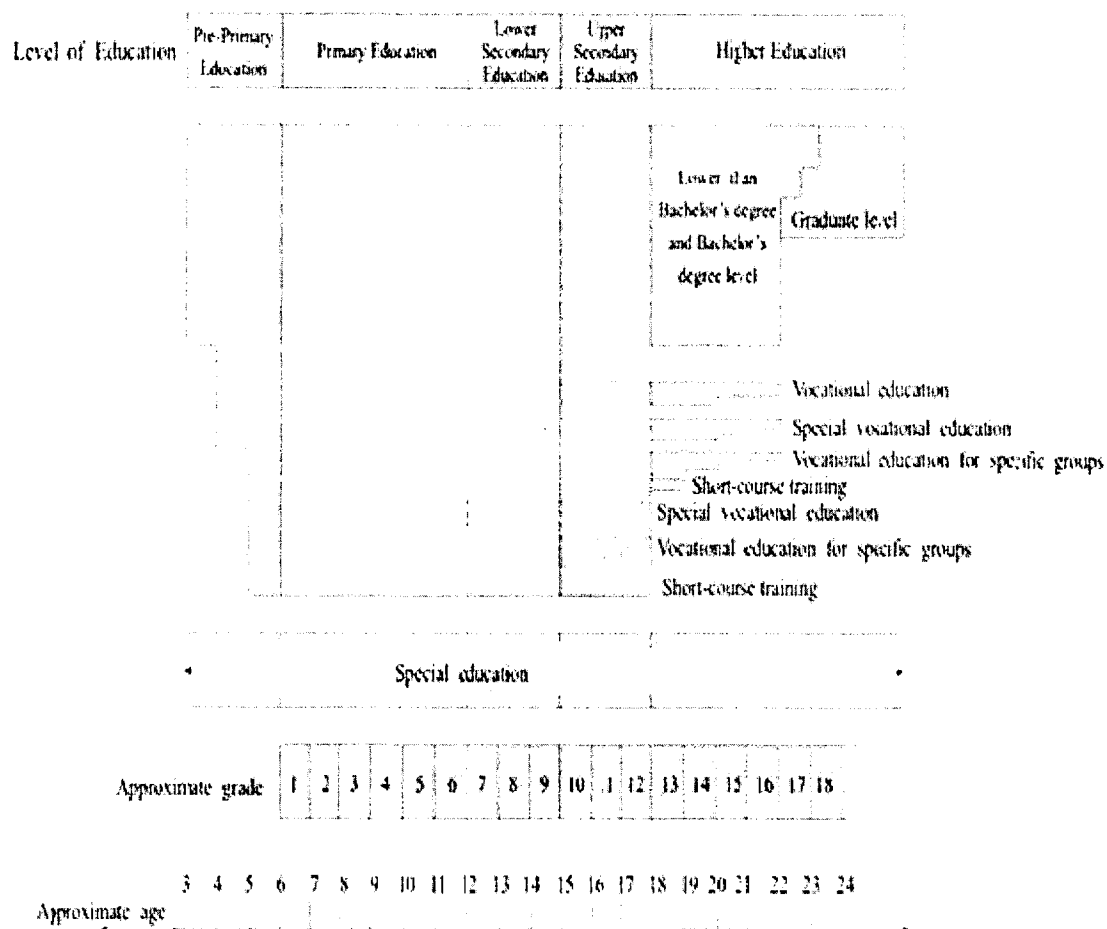
Education in Thailand is provided mainly by the Thai government through the Ministry of Education from pre-school to senior high school. A free basic education of twelve years is guaranteed by the constitution, and a minimum of nine years' school attendance is mandatory. However, in 2009 the Ministry of Education extended free education to fifteen years. Formal education consists of at least twelve years of basic education, and higher education. Basic education is divided into six years of elementary education and six years of secondary education, the latter being further divided into three years of lower- and upper-secondary levels. Kindergarten levels of pre-elementary education, also part of the basic education level, span 2–3 years depending on the locale, and are variably provided. Non-formal education is also supported by the state. Independent schools contribute significantly to the general education infrastructure. Administration and control of public and private universities are carried out by the Office of Higher Education Commission, a department of the Ministry of Education.

In general, Thailand Indonesia has a lot of similarities in the education system. These similarities among other are in the education system level and the evaluation of learning outcomes. Figure 1 and 2 show the scheme of education in Thailand and Indonesia respectively.

**SCHOOL SYSTEM IN INDONESIA BASED ON LAW NO. 20, YEAR 2003**

Usia Sekolah Resmi Official School Age	Jenjang Pendidikan Level of Education	Pendidikan Akademik Academic Education Kemendikbud MoRA	Pendidikan Akademik Academic Education Kemendikbud MoRA	Pendidikan Akademik Academic Education Kemendikbud MoRA	Pendidikan Profesional Professional Education Kemendikbud MoRA/MoEC
26	Pendidikan Tinggi Higher Education	Program Doktor Agama Islam	Program Doktor Islam	Program Spesialis II	
25		Program Doktor Agama Islam	Program Doktor Islam	Program Spesialis II	
24		Program Magister Agama Islam	Program Magister Islam	Program Spesialis I	
23		Program Magister Agama Islam	Program Magister Islam	Program Spesialis I	
22		Program Sarjana Agama Islam	Program Sarjana Islam	Program Diploma 4	
21		Program Sarjana Agama Islam	Program Sarjana Islam	Program Diploma 4	
20		Program Sarjana Agama Islam	Program Sarjana Islam	Program Diploma 4	
19	Pendidikan Menengah Secondary Education	Madrasah Aliyah (MA) Islamic GSSS	Sekolah Menengah Atas (SMA) General SSS	Sekolah Menengah Atas (SMA) General SSS	Madrasah Aliyah Kejuruan (MAK) Islamic Vocational SSS
18		Madrasah Tsanawiyah (MTs) Islamic GSSS	Sekolah Menengah Pertama (SMP) General SSS		
17		Madrasah Tsanawiyah (MTs) Islamic GSSS	Sekolah Menengah Pertama (SMP) General SSS		
16		Madrasah Tsanawiyah (MTs) Islamic GSSS	Sekolah Menengah Pertama (SMP) General SSS		
15		Madrasah Tsanawiyah (MTs) Islamic GSSS	Sekolah Menengah Pertama (SMP) General SSS		
14		Madrasah Tsanawiyah (MTs) Islamic GSSS	Sekolah Menengah Pertama (SMP) General SSS		
13		Madrasah Tsanawiyah (MTs) Islamic GSSS	Sekolah Menengah Pertama (SMP) General SSS		
12	Pendidikan Dasar Basic Education	Madrasah Ibtidaiyah (MI) Islamic Primary School	Sekolah Dasar (SD) Primary School		
11		Madrasah Ibtidaiyah (MI) Islamic Primary School	Sekolah Dasar (SD) Primary School		
10		Madrasah Ibtidaiyah (MI) Islamic Primary School	Sekolah Dasar (SD) Primary School		
9		Madrasah Ibtidaiyah (MI) Islamic Primary School	Sekolah Dasar (SD) Primary School		
8		Madrasah Ibtidaiyah (MI) Islamic Primary School	Sekolah Dasar (SD) Primary School		
7		Madrasah Ibtidaiyah (MI) Islamic Primary School	Sekolah Dasar (SD) Primary School		
6		Madrasah Ibtidaiyah (MI) Islamic Primary School	Sekolah Dasar (SD) Primary School		
5	Pendidikan Anak Usia Dini Early Childhood Education	Bustanul Athfal / Raudatul Athfal (RA/BA) Islamic Kindergarten	Taman Kanak-Kanak (TK) Kindergarten		
4		Bustanul Athfal / Raudatul Athfal (RA/BA) Islamic Kindergarten	Taman Kanak-Kanak (TK) Kindergarten		
3		Bustanul Athfal / Raudatul Athfal (RA/BA) Islamic Kindergarten	Taman Kanak-Kanak (TK) Kindergarten		
2		Bustanul Athfal / Raudatul Athfal (RA/BA) Islamic Kindergarten	Taman Kanak-Kanak (TK) Kindergarten		
1		Bustanul Athfal / Raudatul Athfal (RA/BA) Islamic Kindergarten	Taman Kanak-Kanak (TK) Kindergarten		
0		Bustanul Athfal / Raudatul Athfal (RA/BA) Islamic Kindergarten	Taman Kanak-Kanak (TK) Kindergarten		

**Figure 1 Indonesia Education System (SEAMEO)**



**Figure 2**Thailand Education System(SEAMEO)

Based on both figure, Indonesia and Thailand look like has similar education system. Just the terminology for every level use the different name but the same thing. For example, Indonesia education system call pre-school but in Thailand is pre-primary education. Both countries have formal and non formal education.

### EDUCATION IN THAILAND

Nick Clark, Editor, World Education News &Reviews : The education system of Thailand with insight on how best to evaluate benchmark academic credentials from both the secondary and tertiary levels. As a follow-up to this profile, we will be offering a free interactive webinar on March 28 presented by WES Credential Evaluator AditiKadakia. After Aditi's presentation, there will be opportunities to submit Thailand-related questions.

Thailand is a constitutional monarchy, with a bicameral parliament. King Rama IX has been head of state since 1946 and is responsible for appointing half of the members of the Senate (the other half are elected) on recommendation from the Senate Selection Commission, made up of both elected and appointed officials, and the Prime Minister who acts as the head of government. The lower house is democratically elected and is the primary legislative branch of the Thai government.

The country has been embroiled in anti-government protests since November of last year, and has faced political unrest for close to a decade, following a military coup that ousted

Prime Minister Thaksin Shinawatra in 2006. Opponents of Mr. Shinawatra have consistently charged him of corruption and operating the government for his own financial gain. Protesters, who are largely middle class Bangkok residents, fear that the 2011 election of Mr. Shinawatra's sister, Yingluck Shinawatra, is allowing the former premier to hold onto power while in exile outside the country.

The political turmoil has meant that legislative policy has taken something of a backseat over the last eight years, which has stalled the passage of meaningful and needed reform within the education system. This is despite a national education budget that has doubled over the last decade.

Thailand: Vital Facts	
Population	67.5 million (CIA World Factbook, July 2013 est.)
Language of Instruction	Thai, with English as a second language from grade 5
Compulsory Education	9 Years
Academic Year	May - March (school); June - March (higher)
Number of Universities and Colleges	170 (79 public universities; 71 private universities, colleges and institutes; 20 community colleges; MOE 2012)
Number of students	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Primary (6-12): 5,371,000 (2010, UIS)</li> <li>- Secondary (12-17): 4,893,000 (2010, UIS)</li> <li>- Tertiary: 2,497,000; 18% private (2010, UIS)</li> <li>- University: 1,706,516; 11% private (2009, Ministry Education)</li> </ul>
Gross Enrollment Ratios (2010, UIS)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Primary: 91 percent</li> <li>- Secondary: 79 percent</li> <li>- Tertiary: 48 percent (gross graduation rate: 29 percent)</li> </ul>
Education administered by	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Ministry of Education</li> <li>- Office of the National Education Commission (policy and development)</li> <li>- Office of the Higher Education Commission</li> </ul>
Literacy (2005, UIS)	Adult (15 & older): 93.5%; Youth (15-24): 98.1%

Figure 3 Thailand in Education

### Education Policy

The country is divided into 76 administrative *changwats*, or provinces. Current education policy is guided by the National Education Act of 1999 and the 15-year National Education Plan (2002-2016). Among other things, the most recent plan expresses the need to expand access to higher education and improve quality standards.

Under the National Education Act, 12 years of free public schooling is guaranteed to all Thai citizens, with a 2002 amendment also guaranteeing two years of free preschool. Currently, the first nine years of primary and secondary education are compulsory, consisting of six years of primary education and three years of lower secondary (age six to 15). Students continuing beyond compulsory education complete a further three years of upper secondary education before entering the labor market or undertaking higher studies.

In 2010, 76 percent of the relevant age group graduated from lower secondary (gross graduation ratio). The gross enrollment ratio for upper secondary in 2010 was 79 percent, which is low compared to middle-income regional neighbors. At the tertiary level, the gross enrollment ratio in 2010 was a relatively high 48 percent; however, the gross graduation ratio of 29 percent is suggestive of high drop-out rates.

According to Ministry of Education figures for 2009, 16 percent of the 7,930,761 children undertaking compulsory education did so in the private sector. At the upper secondary level, 20 percent of students studied at private schools, particularly those following

the vocational stream (35 percent), while 14 percent of tertiary students attended a private institution, again mainly in the vocational sector. Schools in the private sector are either for-profit, often internationally oriented, or fee-paying non-profit schools typically run by charitable or religious organizations.

In 2010, 22.3 percent of the national budget was spent on education, a high percentage relative to the global average and regional neighbors. As such, the main source of revenue for education comes from the national budget. Other sources of funding include academic tuition fees, donations and loans.

The language of instruction is Thai, although universities now offer an increasing number of international programs taught in English, and recent reforms have made English mandatory one day a week in schools. Bangkok University, Mahidol University and Chiang Mai University offer some of their programs in English, while Assumption University and the Asian Institute of Technology offer all programs in English.

The academic year has traditionally run from May to March in the school sector and June to March in the tertiary sector, with two semesters per year. There are 200 required school days each year. However, there are reforms currently being enacted pushing back the start of the academic year at the tertiary level to August-September in order to align with other regional ASEAN education systems. A reported 12 universities have so far shifted to the new calendar. The school calendar is also being adjusted in 2014 from a May start to a June start.

Education is administered at three levels, national, regional and local. The Ministry of Education oversees most aspects of education in Thailand at the national level, supported by the Office of the Higher Education Commission (or Commission on Higher Education) in the tertiary sector, which recently took over the duties of the Ministry of University Affairs. Other ministries oversee relevant professional specializations in the tertiary sector. The Office of the Private Education Commission, under the Ministry of Education, oversees and subsidizes private institutions of education. The Office of the Vocational Education Commission is responsible for technical and vocational education and training.

At the regional level, the 76 provinces are grouped into 12 education regions (not including Bangkok), each with a regional office. In addition, the provincial offices oversee education in the individual provinces. At the local level, each municipality is responsible for primary education within its own jurisdiction.

### **School Structure**

School education in Thailand is 12 years in length and free to all students in the public sector. The first nine years of schooling are compulsory. The education system has a 6-3-3 structure: six years of primary education, three years of lower secondary and three years of upper secondary. Grades one through six are known as Prathom 1 – 6, while grades 7 -12 are known as Matthayom 1 – 6. Prior to 1977, the structure of school education was 4-3-3-2. Students take national examinations at the end of years 3, 6 and 9. Prathom III students are tested in mathematics and Thai, while at the end of the primary cycle they are tested in mathematics, Thai, science and English. Secondary Grade 3 students are tested in mathematics, Thai, science, English and social sciences. Schools attached to universities tend to be the most sought after, and students are required to sit for competitive entrance examinations, as is also the case with prestigious private schools. Admission to most public schools is open.

#### ***Primary (PratomSuksa)***

Primary education in Thailand begins at the age of six (after up to three years of non-compulsory preschool), and constitutes the first six years of basic education. Learning time at the primary level cannot exceed five hours a day.

The curriculum is focused in eight core learning areas: Basic skills (Thai and math), life experience (science and social studies), character development (ethics, arts, music and PE), work education (technology & basic vocational skills), special education (English or

other subjects tailored to local community needs.) English is taught nationwide from the first year of primary school.

There is a final examination at the end of Prathon VI, which leads to the ***Certificate of Primary Education***.

#### **Secondary (MatayomSuksa)**

The six-year secondary cycle is split into lower (Matayom 1–3) and upper secondary education (Matayom 4–6). The lower secondary cycle constitutes the final three years of compulsory basic education. Students wishing to continue on to upper secondary school must pass an entrance examination. At the lower secondary level, school learning time cannot exceed six hours each day and at the upper secondary level it should not be less than six hours each day.

##### ***Lower***

At the lower secondary level all schools offer a general educational program leading to the ***Certificate of Lower Secondary Education***, also known as ***Matayom 3 or MS 3***. The basic admission requirement to public secondary school is the completion of primary education or its equivalent. Admission to private schools and top public schools is by means of an entrance examination. Competition for places at top public schools is high, as attendance at the best schools maximizes the chances of gaining entry to the nation's best universities. The general curriculum, which private schools must also follow, covers five main subject areas: Thai and foreign languages, science and mathematics, social studies, arts, vocational education. Students must complete 90 units of study, with passing grades in at least 80 units including Thai and social studies. Assessment is conducted in school and students accumulate grade points.

##### ***Upper***

Students who have successfully completed the lower secondary level and passed the entrance examination for upper secondary schooling can choose to follow general (academic) upper secondary education or vocational upper secondary education. In 2009, a total of 1,250,233 students followed the general curriculum and 750,750 followed the vocational track. One-third of students in the vocational track attended a private institution, while just one in 10 did so in the general stream.

Government upper secondary schools are either general (academic), vocational or comprehensive institutions. General education is intended for students hoping to further their education at university, while vocational schools offer programs primarily designed to prepare students for employment; comprehensive schools offer both general and vocational programs. Typically, higher achieving students follow the general stream.

##### ***General (Academic) Upper***

The general education curriculum includes five subject areas: Thai and foreign languages, science (chemistry, biology, physics), mathematics, social studies, character development (health and physical education, arts and crafts), work and occupational education.

Students must take a mix of compulsory and elective subjects, specializing in one of three areas: sciences, arts and languages, and mathematics and languages. Specializations are typically chosen according to desired program of university study.

Students earn credits for each subject successfully completed, with passes in a minimum of 75 credits required for graduation including in all compulsory subjects. Fifteen credits must be obtained in compulsory subjects (Thai language, social studies, physical education, and science), 15 credits from compulsory elective subjects, with the remainder (45) earned from optional subjects. Students must also take final examinations at the end of upper secondary in all subjects taken. The certificate awarded on completion of upper secondary is the ***Certificate of Secondary Education***, also known as ***Matayom 6 (MS 6)***.

After their final school examinations, students wishing to continue on to higher studies take a mix of university admissions examinations.

### ***Vocational Upper***

Having completed lower secondary education, students may choose to follow a vocational upper secondary specialization. In 2009, approximately 38 percent of all upper secondary students were in the vocational stream. However, the government is moving to try and increase the attractiveness of vocational secondary education, setting a target of 49 percent participation in the coming years. The move has been spurred by a perceived shortage of qualified vocational graduates in the labor market.

Students take the same compulsory subjects as those in the academic stream (Thai, social studies, physical education and science), with specializations in one of five major fields: agriculture, home economics, business studies, arts and crafts, engineering.

There are four types of certificates that may be awarded. The two most common are the *Certificate in Vocational Education (BorWor Saw)* and the *Certificate in Dual Vocational Education (DVT)*, both requiring three years of study. DVT programs require a significant amount of practical on-the-job training in partnership with industry.

Students can also follow a credit accumulating system that can be taken over a period of three to eight years and which results in the award of the *Certificate of Vocational Education, Credit Accumulating System*. There is also a *Certificate in Vocational Education, Evening Class*, generally taken by mature students.

A grade point average of not less than 2.00 is required for successful completion

### **UNDERSTANDING THAI CULTURE**

Thailand is the country where Agama Yoga School makes its home, and therefore this land is our host. As foreigners, we are guests here – something happy travelers often forget but worth a reminder now and then....A few little stories and tips can go a long way toward deepening a cultural understanding that helps integrate a visitor personally – and our entire school community generally – into our Thai landscape. Therefore, we invite you to read these tips, passed from an excellent resource website for everything from customs to news to holidays and helpful information: [www.thaizer.com](http://www.thaizer.com). Please visit often for new articles and updates!

#### ***Land of Smiles***

Thailand is famously known as the “Land of Smiles,” and for good reason. But a Thai smile does not automatically mean that a person is happy. Such an assumption can lead to misunderstandings between Westerners and Thais.

#### ***The Wai as a Form of Respect***

In the title, I’ve described the *wai* as a greeting, but it is more than that because it is also a form of respect. The *wai* may be used as a greeting, but it isn’t the equivalent of saying “hello” and there are times when use of the *wai* would be inappropriate. There are different types of *wai* for different situations and Thai people inherently know the correct form to use. As a foreign visitor you will not be expected to understand them all so don’t worry, but it’s important to realize that it is the social inferior who always initiates the *wai*.

#### ***Social Superiors***

The idea of all people not being equal may rest uneasy with some visitors, but it is part of Thai culture. Monks and elderly people are at the top of the social hierarchy, but again that doesn’t mean you should *wai* the old lady selling fruit outside your hotel! Social superiors may or may not return a *wai*.

#### ***Returning a Wai***

Advice given in some guidebooks says that you should always return a *wai*. Strictly speaking that isn’t true. For example, if the waitress or cashier at the restaurant *wais* you for leaving a tip, it would not be appropriate to *wai* in return. Like it or not, in this instance you are the social superior and respect is being shown to you; a smile in return would be a more appropriate response. Similarly, the bellboy and receptionist at your hotel are not your social equal even if you do the same job in your home country. Of course, that doesn’t mean you

shouldn't be friendly, but there's no need to return a *wai* every morning. In fact, doing so may cause them embarrassment. In many other circumstances though, you can safely return the *wai*, but if you're not sure a smile will almost always get you by.

### ***Waiing Objects***

On the bus or in a Songthaew (truck taxi), some Thai people routinely *wai* when they pass sacred places or Buddha images. And it isn't just the passengers; don't be surprised if you see the driver lift both hands off the steering wheel as he passes a Buddha image or wat (monastery).

### ***No Wai***

Although the *wai* is often used as an indication of respect, it does not automatically mean all Thais will use it in deference to an overseas visitor. Thai people, particularly the younger generation, know it is not the way foreigners do things so don't be offended if you don't receive a *wai*. In some instances a handshake or smile may be offered in place of a *wai*.

From Advice drawn from: <http://www.thaizer.com/>. Return to articles | Share this

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## **EDUCATION IN INDONESIA**

Students wearing the pramuka (boy scout) uniform studying. This uniform is usually worn on either Friday or Saturday. The students pictured above are listening to a guide at the Trowulan Museum, East Java whilst examining a model of the Jawi temple.

Education in Indonesia falls under the responsibility of the Ministry of Education and Culture (*Kementerian Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan* or *Kemdikbud*) and the Ministry of Religious Affairs (*Kementerian Agama* or *Kemenag*). In Indonesia, all citizens must undertake nine years of compulsory education which consists of six years at elementary level and three in secondary level. Islamic schools are under the responsibility of the Ministry of Religious Affairs.

Education is defined as a planned effort to establish a study environment and educational process so that the student may actively develop his/her own potential in religious and spiritual level, consciousness, personality, intelligence, behaviour and creativity to him/herself, other citizens and the nation. The Constitution also notes that there are two types of education in Indonesia: formal and non-formal. Formal education is further divided into three levels: primary, secondary and tertiary education.

Schools in Indonesia are run either by the government (*negeri*) or private sectors (*swasta*). Some private schools refer to themselves as "national plus schools" which means that their curriculum exceeds requirements set by the Ministry of Education, especially with the use of English as medium of instruction or having an international-based curriculum instead of the national one. In Indonesia there are approximately 170,000 primary schools, 40,000 junior-secondary schools and 26,000 high schools. 84 percent of these schools are under the Ministry of National Education (MoNE) and the remaining 16 percent under the Ministry of Religious Affairs (MoRA). Private schools only comprise 7% of the total schools number.

### ***Early kingdoms***

Education system in the era of Hindu-Buddhist civilisation is called *karsyan*. *Karsyan* is a place of hermitage.

### ***Era of Islamic states***

The emergence of Islamic state in Indonesia is noted by the acculturation of both Islamic tradition and Hindu-Buddhist tradition. At this time period, *pondok pesantren*, a type of Islamic boarding school was introduced and several of them were established. The location of pesantren is mostly far away from the hustling crowd of the city, resembling the location of Karsyan.



### *Colonial era*

Elementary education was introduced by the Dutch in Indonesia during the colonial era. The Dutch education system are Query strings of educational branches that were based on social status of the colony's population, with the best available institution reserved for the European population. In 1870, with the growth of Dutch Ethical Policy formulated by Conrad Theodor van Deventer, some of these Dutch-founded schools opened the doors for pribumi (lit. native Indonesians). They were called *SekolahRakjat* (lit. folk school), the embryo of what is called *SekolahDasar* (lit. elementary school) today. In 1871 the Dutch parliament adopted a new education law that sought to uniform the highly scattered and diversified indigenous educational systems across the archipelago, and expand the number of teacher training schools under supervision of the colonial administration. The budget for public schooling was raised in steps from ca. 300,000 guilders in 1864, to roughly 3 million guilders by the early 1890s. Most often however the education development were starved of funding, because many Dutch politicians feared expanding education would eventually lead to anti-colonial sentiment. Funding for education only count for 6% of the total expenditure of the colonial budget in 1920s. The number government and private primary schools for native had increased to 3,108 and the libraries to 3000 by 1930. However spending sharply declined after the economic depression in 1930. Tech nische Hogeschool te Bandoeng, opened as a branch of Delft University of Technology.

The Dutch introduced a system of formal education for the local population of Indonesia, although this was restricted to certain privileged children. The Schools for the European were modeled after the education system in Netherlands itself and required the proficiency in Dutch language. Dutch language was also needed for higher education enrollment. The elite Native/Chinese population who lack Dutch language skills could enroll in either Dutch Native or Chinese Schools. The schools were arranged in the following levels:

- **ELS** (*Dutch: Europeesche Lagere-School* lit. "European Low School") - Primary School for Europeans
- **HSS** (*Dutch: Hollandsch-Schakel-School* lit. "Dutch-Switch School")
- **HIS** (*Dutch: Hollandsch-Inlandsche-School* lit. "Dutch-Native School") - Primary School for Natives
- **HCS** (*Dutch: Hollandsch-Chinesche-School* lit. "Dutch-Chinese School") - Primary School for Chinese
- **MULO** (*Dutch: Meer Uitgebreid Lager Onderwijs* lit. "More Advanced Low Education") - Middle School
- **AMS** (*Dutch: Algemene Middelbare-School* lit. "General Middle School") - High School or College
- **HBS** (*Dutch: Hogere Burger-School* lit. "Higher Citizen School") - Pre-University

For the population in the rural area, the Dutch created the *Desa Schools* or Village schools system which aimed to spread literacy among the native population. These schools provide two or three years training of vernacular subjects (reading, writing, ciphering, hygiene, animals and plants, etc.), and served as a cheaper alternative schools. These village schools however received much less funding than the privileged European schools, thus the quality of education provided is often lacking. Despite of its flaw, the number of Village Schools has reached 17,695 by 1930. The rest of the rural education were left to the work of Christian missionary, which are considered more cost-efficient. The segregation between Dutch and Indonesian in education pushed several Indonesian figures to start educational institutions for local people. Arab Indonesians founded Jamiat Kheir in 1905, Ahmad Dahlan founded Muhammadiyah in November 1912, and Ki Hajar Dewantara founded Taman Siswa in July 1922 to emancipate the native population. Pesantrens (Islamic Schools) were also mushrooming rapidly during these period.

During the colonial period there was also a large gap between educated male and female population. In 1920, the island of Java and Madura out of the 6.5% literate male population, only 0.5% of the female native population are literate. Similar phenomenon can be observed on the Foreign Orientals (Arabs and Chinese), with 26.5% literate male population and only 8.5% literate female out of the total population. In the outer islands beyond Java the difference between literate male and female population are 12% and 3% out of total population respectively. Inspired by a Javanese-born aristocrat Kartini who died young at the age of 25, the Van Deventer family worked to increase female involvement in education and received support from the Dutch government. Eventually leading to foundation of Kartini Schools in 1911. The Dutch colonial government also established a number of universities and colleges for native Indonesian on the island of Java. Prior to founding of Bandung Institute of Technology in 1920, there are no university-level of education in the country and students have to go abroad (mainly to Netherlands) in order to receive them. Most of these universities had become the country's top educational institution as of today. These educational institution are as follow:

- *School tot Opleiding van InlandscheArtsen* or STOVIA, a medical university which later become *GeneeskundigeHogeschool* in Batavia.
- *Nederland-IndischeArtsen School* or NIAS, a medical school in Soerabaja.
- *Rechts-Hoge-School*, a law school in Weltevreden, Batavia.
- *De TechnischeHoge-School*, or THS, a technic school in Bandoeng and the first full-fledge university in the country opened in 1920.
- *MiddelbareLandbouw-school*, an agriculture college which later become *LandbouwkundigeFaculteit* in Buitenzorg
- *Opleiding-School voorInlandscheAmbtenaren* or OSVIA, colleges for training Native Civil Servants.
- *Hollandsche-IndischeKweek-school*, colleges for training teachers.

By the 1930s, the Dutch had introduced limited formal education to nearly every province of the Dutch East Indies, although by this period only 7% of the population were literate and 2% are fluent in the Dutch language. Around the Outer Islands beyond Java, to meet demand of schooling the Dutch government relied heavily on missionary schools that mostly provide basic and moral education.

#### ***Early education***

Pre-School education in Indonesia is covered under *PAUD* (*PendidikanAnakUsiaDini*, lit. Early Age Education) that covers *Taman Bermain*(playgroup) and *Taman Kanak-Kanak* (kindergarten, abbreviated as *TK*). PAUD is under direct supervision and coverage of Directorate of Early Age Education Development (*DirektoratPengembanganPendidikanAnakUsiaDini*). From the age of 2, parents send their children to attend *Taman Bermain*. From the age of 4, they attend *Taman Kanak-Kanak*. Most TK arrange the classes into two grades, grade A and grade B, which are informally called *kelasnolkecil* (little zero grade) and *kelasnolbesar* (big zero grade) respectively. While this level of education is not compulsory for Indonesian citizens, it is aimed to prepare them for primary schooling. Of the 49,000 kindergartens in Indonesia, 99.35% are privately operated schools. The kindergarten years are usually divided into "Class A" and "Class B" students spending a year in each class.

#### ***Public primary and secondary education***

Indonesians are required to attend twelve years of school. They must go to school six (or five, depending on the institution) days a week from 6:30 a.m. until afternoon (usually 2 or 3 p.m.). They can choose between state-run, nonsectarian public schools supervised by the Department of National Education (Depdiknas) or private or semi-private religious (usually Islamic) schools supervised and financed by the Department of Religious Affairs. Students can also choose to participate in extracurricular activities provided by the school such as sports, arts, or religious studies. However, although 86.1 percent of the Indonesian population

is registered as Muslim, according to the 2000 census only 15 percent of school-age individuals attended religious schools. Overall enrolment figures are slightly higher for girls than boys and much higher in Java than the rest of Indonesia.

A central goal of the national education system is not merely to impart secular wisdom about the world but also to instruct children in the principles of participation in the modern nation-state, its bureaucracies, and its moral and ideological foundations. Beginning under Guided Democracy (1959–65) and strengthened in the New Order after 1975, a key feature of the national curriculum—as was the case for other national institutions—has been instruction in the Pancasila. Children age six and older learned by rote its five principles—belief in one God, humanitarianism, national unity, democracy, and social justice—and were instructed daily to apply the meanings of this key national symbol to their lives. But with the end of the New Order in 1998 and the beginning of the campaign to decentralise the national government, provincial and district-level administrators obtained increasing autonomy in determining the content of schooling, and Pancasila began to play a diminishing role in the curriculum.

A style of pedagogy prevails inside public-school classrooms that emphasises rote learning and deference to the authority of the teacher. Although the youngest children are sometimes allowed to use their local language, by the third year of primary school nearly all instruction is conducted in Indonesian. Teachers customarily do not ask questions of individual students; rather, a standard teaching technique is to narrate a historical event or to describe a mathematical problem, pausing at key junctures to allow the students to call out responses that "fill in the blanks". By not identifying individual problems of students and retaining an emotionally distanced demeanor, teachers are said to show themselves to be patient, which is considered admirable behaviour.

Children aged 6–11 attend primary school, called *Sekolah Dasar* (SD). Most elementary schools are government-operated public schools, accounting for nearly 93% of all elementary schools in Indonesia. Students spend six years in primary school, though some schools offer an accelerated learning program in which students who perform well can complete the level in five years.

Three years of junior high school (*Sekolah Menengah Pertama*, or SMP), which follows elementary school. Some schools also offer an accelerated learning program in which students who perform well can complete the level in two years. After completion of them, they may be attend three years of high school (*Sekolah Menengah Atas* or SMA). Some high schools offer an accelerated learning program so students who perform well can complete their level within two years. Besides high school, students can choose among 47 programmes of vocational and pre-professional high school (*Sekolah Menengah Kejuruan* or SMK), divided in the following fields: technology and engineering, health, arts, craft and tourism, information and communication technologies, agro-business and agro-technology, business management. Each requires three years of study. There are academic and vocational junior high schools that lead to senior-level diplomas. There are also "domestic science" junior high schools for girls. At the senior high school level, three-year agricultural, veterinary, and forestry schools are open to students who have graduated from an academic junior high school. Special schools at the junior and senior levels teach hotel management, legal clerking, plastic arts, and music. Students with disabilities/special needs may alternately opt to be enrolled in a separate school from the mainstream called *Sekolah Luar Biasa* (lit. Extraordinary School).

([https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Education\\_in\\_Indonesia](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Education_in_Indonesia))

## MULTICULTURAL EDUCATION

Multicultural education is an idea or concept, a process, and an educational reform movement that assumes America's diversity should be reflected in the staffing, curriculum

instructional practices, policies, and values of our educational institutions (Banks & Banks, 2006; Grant & Ladson-Billings, 1997). Although the United States has always been diverse, between 1923 and 1965 restrictive policies limited immigration, particularly from countries outside of Europe. In the last three decades U.S. society has become increasingly both multicultural and multilingual. The 1990s witnessed a rapid influx of immigrants from Asia and Latin America, and a recent survey conducted by the US. Census Bureau estimates there are 11 to 12 million new immigrants. More than 20% of children in the United States are either foreign-born or have a parent who was born abroad. Although more stringent security and immigration screening was instituted after 9/11, refugees from conflict-ridden countries like Somalia, Sudan, Bosnia, and Myanmar continue to enter the country in steady numbers. Instead of moving to traditional gateway cities like New York, Chicago, and Los Angeles, recent refugees are settling in mid-sized cities like Seattle, St. Paul, Atlanta, and Buffalo where the cost of living is more affordable.

At the dawn of the 21st century, U.S. schools are more linguistically, culturally, religiously, ethnically, and racially diverse than ever before (Prewitt, 2002). Students of color (i.e., Black and African American, Hispanic and Latino, Asian American, and Native American) make up 43% of the national public school population. In some states, like California, and in the 20 largest urban school districts across the country, students of color constitute an overwhelming majority of the school population. Nationwide, 18.4% of school-age youth speak a language other than English at home. In some urban school districts, over 100 different languages are spoken. This demographic imperative is an important reason for developing and implementing multicultural education and making U.S. schools more responsive to the needs and perspectives of students from diverse groups and their families.

Despite the changing face of America, however, students from diverse racial, ethnic, and linguistic backgrounds continue to experience unequal educational opportunities and often do not see the history, values, and cultural knowledge of their home communities represented in the school curriculum. The racial achievement gap between White students and African American and Latino students has remained stagnant. The average twelfth-grade low-income student of color reads at the same level as the average eighth-grade middle-class White student. According to the 2000 census, 88% of white students graduate from high school, but the rate for Hispanics is just 56%. There is a gender gap in many high schools as well. Girls continue to be underrepresented in advanced math, science, and technology courses, and their test scores in these subject often fall behind boys as they progress through school.

In response to these inequities, scholars, educators, and parents called for an education that both multicultural and equitable, one that incorporates culturally responsive curriculum and instructional methods, equitable assessment practices, and organizational structures that promote interaction across racial and ethnic line and facilitate academic achievement for all students (Nieto, 2003). Multiculturalists believe that "all students - regardless of their gender social class, and their ethnic, racial, a cultural characteristics - should have an equal opportunity to team in school" (Banks Banks 2006). Historical development although the genesis of multicultural education is often traced to civil rights movement of the 1960s, recent historical studies indicate that efforts by educators, parents, and community organizations to develop culturally responsive schooling date back at least to the 1930s and 1940s. Known at the time as intercultural or intergroup education, several

urban school districts enacted policies to promote racial and ethnic diversity in the wake of racial in the years before, during, and immediately after World War II. Intercultural advocates in cities like New York, Pittsburgh, Chicago, and Detroit produced curriculum materials on Black history and race relations, designed professional development programs that provided urban teachers a forum in which to develop and present their own intercultural curriculum projects, and instituted college courses for preservice teachers to promote cultural pluralism and improve human relations (Johnson, 2007).

In some school districts, such as New York City and Pittsburgh, intercultural education was also linked with community activism by parents and grassroots organizations to hire more teachers of color and improve racial attitudes through public education campaigns that involved radio programs, films, art exhibits, and multicultural children's literature. Characterized as "educating for democracy," intercultural education advocates contrasted America's stated democratic ideals of freedom and equality of opportunity during the war years with the historical reality of ongoing prejudice and discrimination toward those racial and ethnic groups who were disenfranchised and marginalized by school systems (Johnson, 2002).

Diversity work in the schools was largely halted during the Cold War era, when intercultural courses were criticized as "subversive and un-American, and several teacher union leaders who promoted intercultural education as well as scholars who were frequent guest speakers at intercultural workshops were subject to "red baiting" Johnson, 2002). In the 1960s, the rise of the civil rights movement in the South, followed by the Black power movement in cities like New York, Chicago, and Oakland revived the demand for a school curriculum that accurately reflected African American history, values, and contributions.

During the late 1960s, ethnic studies programs sprang up in colleges and universities, and courses such as Black Literature and Chicano History were instituted in selected high schools across the country. Community and parent activists from Los Angeles to Brooklyn demanded more control over the content of the curriculum, more Black and Hispanic teachers and administrators, and more diverse representation and decision-making powers on local school boards.

With the passage of Title IX in the early 1970s, gender equity issues were included under multicultural umbrella. Advocates pressed for equal funding for girls' athletics, the formation of school district committees to analyze textbooks for gender bias, and the implementation single-sex classrooms to increase girls' participation and achievement in advanced math and science courses. By the late 1980s, some school districts, such as New York City, also included sexual orientation in their multiculturalism policy. The New York City office of Multicultural Education produced two *Children of the Rainbow* elementary curriculum guides, which encouraged teachers to recognize and support "all kinds of families," including same sex unions. The inclusion of picture books like *Heather and Her Two Mommies* and *Daddy's Roommate* on the teacher's bibliography of one of the curriculum guides proved controversial, and the New York City multiculturalism policy was rescinded in 1995 after a protracted political battle (Johnson, 2003). Throughout the historical development of education, community responses to curriculum and policies designed to encourage and promote diversity have been influenced by the shifting political and social contexts of individual schools, districts, and the larger society. In recent years

multiculturalists have developed and refined sophisticated models to explain how multicultural education might transform K-12 school systems.

### ***Models and Approaches to Multicultural Education***

Three of the most comprehensive and widely known models for multicultural education have been developed by theorists James A. Banks, Christine Sleeter, Carl Grant, and Sonia Nieto. Banks' conceptual model of multicultural education (Banks & Banks, 2006) includes five interrelated dimensions. Content integration is the extent to which teachers use examples and content from a variety of cultures and groups to illustrate key concepts in their subject area or discipline. Banks acknowledges that more opportunities may exist to incorporate ethnic and cultural content in some subject areas, such as social studies, language arts, and music, rather than others, such as science and math. The knowledge construction process examines how teachers help students understand and investigate the implicit cultural assumptions, perspectives, and biases within a discipline and how the knowledge created reflects the positionality and lived reality of those who construct it. For example, students might analyze the knowledgeconstruction process in science by studying how racism has been perpetuated by genetic theories of intelligence, Darwinism, and eugenics. Prejudice reduction describes the characteristics of student's racial and ethnic attitudes and presents strategies that can be used to reduce prejudice and develop democratic attitudes. Equal status contact that is cooperative, sanctioned by authorities, and helps students become acquainted with each other as individuals develop positive intergroup attitudes. An equity pedagogy examines how teachers modify their teaching to facilitate the academic achievement of students from diverse racial, cultural, and social-class groups. This includes teaching styles that are consistent with a wide range of learning styles within various cultural and ethnic groups. An empowering school culture and social structure examines grouping and labeling practices, participation in extracurricular activities, disproportionality in achievement, and the interaction of the staff and students across ethnic and racial lines to create a school culture that empowers students from diverse racial, ethnic, and cultural groups. Many of the school-based programs that promote diversity would fall under the content integration dimension, although curriculum materials and videotapes produced by national organizations like Teaching Tolerance (sponsored by the Southern Poverty Law Center in Montgomery, Alabama) also incorporate prejudice reduction.

Grant and Sleeter's (2003) model, which was developed through a review of the literature and observations of teachers, identifies five different approaches that address human diversity in the schools:

1. Teaching the exceptional and culturally different aims to assimilate students of color into the cultural mainstream and existing social structure, equipping people of color with the knowledge and skills to succeed in schools society.
2. A human relations approach helps students of different backgrounds appreciate each other's similarities and differences and improves intercultural relations.
3. Single group studies focus on the experiences, contributions, and concerns of distinct cultural, ethnic, gender, and social-class groups often left out of the curriculum, such as African Americans and women.
4. Multicultural education is a combination of the first three approaches that attempts to "change school practices to bring about greater cultural pluralism and equal opportunity in society at large" (Grant & Sleeter, 2003).

5. Education that is multicultural and social reconstructionist addresses social inequities in society "to prepare students ... to deal constructively with social problems and to take charge of their own futures" (Grant & Sleeter 2003).

This last approach deals with all forms of group oppression as a whole. Classroom approaches that are social reconstructionist might emphasize democratic decision making and social action at the classroom level and the dismantling of tracking and high-stakes testing at the school level.

Nieto (2004) defines multicultural education as "a process of comprehensive school reform that challenges and rejects racism and other forms of discrimination in schools and society and accepts and affirms the pluralism (ethnic, racial, linguistic, religious, economic, and gender among others) that "students, their communities, and teachers reflect" Nieto advocates for multicultural education that permeates the curriculum, instruction, and interactions among teachers, students, and families confronts issues of power and privilege in society; and challenges how racism and other biases are reflected in the structures, policies, and practices of schools. Her definition includes seven basic characteristics of multicultural education:

1. It is antiracist.
2. It provides a basic education.
3. It is important for all students.
4. It is pervasive
5. It establishes social justice in education.
6. It is a process.
7. It incorporates critical pedagogy.

In Nieto's model the characteristics of multicultural education are expressed at five different levels that exhibit increasing awareness and commitment by educators. At the first level, monocultural education, racism is unacknowledged and the educational program supports the status quo. At the next level, tolerance, ethnic and women's studies courses may be offered as isolated courses, and policies that challenge racism and discrimination are initiated. At the acceptance level, the curriculum is inclusive of the histories and perspectives of a broader range of people, and the role of schools in social change is acknowledged. At the fourth level, respect, curriculum is explicitly antiracist and honest, students take part in community activities that reflect their social concerns, and both students and teachers use critical dialogue to see and understand different perspectives. Nieto's fifth and highest level of multicultural education incorporates the affirmation, solidarity, and critique. At this level all students learn to speak a second language, everyone takes responsibility for challenging racism and discrimination, and the curriculum and instructional techniques are based on an understanding of social justice as central to education. Although multiculturalists have developed comprehensive theoretical models Gay (2001) notes that a gap continues to exist between the theory and practice of multicultural education in U.S. schools.

#### ***From Theory to Practice***

In practice, schools often adopt a contributions or heroes and holidays approach to multicultural education that add some cultural content but fails to challenge the underlying mainstream cultural assumptions of the curriculum or address systematic societal inequities. For instance, high school English teachers might include a novel by Toni Morrison or Amy Tan on their reading lists, or middle school teachers might add a unit on the civil rights

movement to their existing social studies curriculum. Elementary school teachers often incorporate multicultural picture books in their classroom library for independent reading. Conflict resolution programs are developed in school districts to reduce prejudice and improve human relations, particularly in response to ongoing incidents of racial or ethnic conflict.

As Nieto (2003) suggests, however, "multicultural education needs to be accompanied by a deep commitment to social justice and equal access to resources. Multicultural education needs, in short, to be about much more than ethnic tidbits and cultural sensitivity". The challenge in the 21st century is how to bridge the gap between the theory and practice of multicultural education to address the vast inequities that continue to exist in U.S. public schools. Teachers and administrators need professional development in designing multicultural curriculum and instructional strategies that will help them respond to different learning styles, worldviews, and the funds of knowledge that diverse groups of students bring to the schools. Multiculturalists advocate the implementation of pedagogy and leadership that is culturally relevant or culturally responsive" (Gay, 2000).

#### ***Culturally Responsive Pedagogy***

Ladson-Billings coined the term *culturally relevant pedagogy* in *The Dream keepers* (1994), her now classic study of eight exemplary teachers of African American students. This instructional approach arises from previous anthropological work that noted a cultural mismatch between students from culturally diverse backgrounds and their white middle-class teachers, particularly in language and verbal participation structures. As defined by Ladson-Billings (1995a; 1995b), culturally relevant pedagogy rests on three propositions: (a) students must experience academic success; (b) students must develop or maintain cultural competence; and (c) students must develop a critical consciousness through which they challenge the status quo of the social order. Building on Ladson-Billings study, Cooper (2003) investigated the practices of effective White teachers of African American students who had been nominated by the Black administrators and parents in their predominately African American schools. She found that they adopted many of the practices of effective African American teachers, including being "warm demanders" who held high expectations for academic achievement and becoming second mothers or "othermothers" to the children in their classroom.

In their model of culturally responsive teaching, Villegas and Lucas (2002) describe culturally responsive teachers as those who (a) have a sociopolitical consciousness; (b) affirm views of students from diverse backgrounds; (c) are both responsible for and capable of bringing about educational change; (d) embrace constructivist views of teaching and learning and (e) build on students' prior knowledge and beliefs while stretching them beyond the familiar (p. xiv). In sum, most approaches to culturally relevant or culturally responsive instruction described in the multicultural education literature use students' culture as a vehicle for learning, and also teach students how to develop a broader sociopolitical consciousness that enables them to "critique the cultural norms, values, mores, and institutions that produce and maintain social inequities" (Ladson-Billings, 1995b.).

Although much of the research on culturally responsive practices has been applied to classroom teaching, recent efforts have attempted to apply a culturally responsive framework to school leadership. These studies have identified culturally responsive principals as those who emphasize high expectations for student academic achievement, exhibit an ethic of care



or "empowerment through care," and maintain a commitment and connection to the larger community (e.g., Johnson, 2000; Reitzig and Patterson, 1998; Scheurich, 1998). Riehl (2000) also identifies three tasks that determine whether administrators are prepared to respond to diversity and demonstrate multicultural leadership. Such administrators foster new definitions of diversity; promote inclusive instructional practices within schools by supporting, facilitating, or being a catalyst for change; and build connections between schools and communities.

### ***What is School Culture ?***

The field of education lacks a clear and consistent definition of SCHOOL CULTURE. The term has been used synonymously with a variety of concepts, including "climate," "ethos," and "saga" (Deal 1993). The concept of culture came to education from the corporate workplace with the notion that it would provide direction for a more efficient and stable learning environment. Scholars have argued about the meaning of CULTURE for centuries. Noted anthropologist Clifford Geertz (1973) has made a large contribution to our current understanding of the term. For Geertz, culture represents a "historically transmitted pattern of meaning." Those patterns of meaning are expressed both (explicitly) through symbols and (implicitly) in our taken-for-granted beliefs.

A review of the literature on school culture reveals much of Geertz's perspective. Terrence E. Deal and Kent D. Peterson (1990) note that the definition of culture includes "deep patterns of values, beliefs, and traditions that have been formed over the course of [the school's] history." Paul E. Heckman (1993) reminds us that school culture lies in "the commonly held beliefs of teachers, students, and principals." These definitions go beyond the business of creating an efficient learning environment. They focus more on the core values necessary to teach and influence young minds. Thus, SCHOOL CULTURE can be defined as the historically transmitted patterns of meaning that include the norms, values, beliefs, ceremonies, rituals, traditions, and myths understood, maybe in varying degrees, by members of the school community (Stolp and Smith 1994). This system of meaning often shapes what people think and how they act.

### ***Why is School Culture Important ?***

Researchers have compiled some impressive evidence on school culture. Healthy and sound school cultures correlate strongly with increased student achievement and motivation, and with teacher productivity and satisfaction.

Consider several recent studies.

- Leslie J. Fyans, Jr. and Martin L. Maehr (1990) looked at the effects of five dimensions of school culture: academic challenges, comparative achievement, recognition for achievement, school community, and perception of school goals. In a survey of 16,310 fourth-, sixth-, eighth-, and tenth-grade students from 820 public schools in Illinois, they found support for the proposition that students are more motivated to learn in schools with strong cultures.

- In a project directed at improving elementary student test scores, Jerry L. Thacker and William D. McInerney (1992) looked at the effects of school culture on student achievement. The project they studied focused on creating a new mission statement, goals based on outcomes for students, curriculum alignment corresponding with those goals, staff development, and building level decision-making. The results were significant. The number of students who failed an annual statewide test dropped by as much as 10 percent. These results are consistent with other findings that suggest the implementation of a clear mission statement, shared vision, and schoolwide goals promote increased student achievement.

- School culture also correlates with teachers' attitudes toward their work. In a study that profiled effective and ineffective organizational cultures, Yin Cheong Cheng (1993) found stronger school cultures had better motivated teachers. In an environment with strong

organizational ideology, shared participation, charismatic leadership, and intimacy, teachers experienced higher job satisfaction and increased productivity.

#### ***How is it Best to Change a School's Culture ?***

Leaders who are interested in changing their school's culture should first try to understand the existing culture. Cultural change by definition alters a wide variety of relationships. These relationships are at the very core of institutional stability. Reforms should be approached with dialogue, concern for others, and some hesitation. One strategy was outlined by Willis J. Furtwengler and Anita Micich (1991). At a retreat, students, teachers, and administrators from five schools were encouraged to draw visible representations of how they felt about their school culture. The idea was to "make thought visible" and highlight positive and negative aspects of their respective school cultures. Teachers, parents, and administrators were able to identify several areas that would benefit from change. Likewise, school artifacts such as the routines, ceremonies, rituals, traditions, myths, or subtle difference in school language can provide clues for how to approach cultural change. School artifacts change over time. A principal may decide to shorten time between classes only later to find out that this time was important for teacher interaction and unity. Paying attention to such routines, before changing them, may provide valuable insights into how school cultures function. A formal and well-tested instrument for approaching cultural change is NASSP's Comprehensive Assessment of School Environments' Information Management System (CASE--IMS). This instrument focuses on leadership styles, organizational structure, beliefs and values, classroom satisfaction, and productivity. CASE--IMS offers a diagnostic assessment that focuses on the entire school environment (Keefe 1993).

## **6 FACTOR OF SCHOOL CULTURE**

There are 3 variables of hidden curriculum that be analyzed i.e organizational, social, and culture. The indicators of those variable are measured from some indicators, namely the implementation of team teaching, the policy for grade promotion, the students grouping, the curriculum focus, the school efforts for character development, and student affective.

*School Culture in scope of research consist 6 factors are team teaching, the policy for grade promotion, the students grouping, the curriculum focus, the school efforts for character development, and student affective.*

### **Team Teaching**

In many higher education institutions, including City U, the usual pattern of teaching is still largely based on an individual lecturer bearing responsibility for students in a module or unit, possibly supported by part-time staff tutors. At some levels of learning though, for example in postgraduate seminars, this model is replaced by a team teaching approach which involves a number of lecturers (usually between two and five) and possibly non-teaching professional support staff as well. To carry out effective team teaching requires a re-orientation on the part of individual staff members and departmental administrators.

***Team Teaching Mean.*** In team teaching a group of teachers, working together, plan, conduct, and evaluate the learning activities for the same group of students. In practice, team teaching has many different formats but in general it is a means of organising staff into groups to enhance teaching. Teams generally comprise staff members who may represent

different areas of subject expertise but who share the same group of students and a common planning period to prepare for the teaching. To facilitate this process a common teaching space is desirable. However, to be effective team teaching requires much more than just a common meeting time and space.

**Important of Team Teaching.** In view of the additional complexity which team teaching initiatives introduce into departmental organisation and in view of the time needed for staff to adapt to the new structures, it is relevant to ask what benefits accrue from team teaching. How, for instance, does team teaching benefit lecturers, part-time tutors, students, and departments as a whole?

- **For Lecturers**, who so often work alone, team teaching provides a supportive environment that overcomes the isolation of working in self-contained or departmentalized class-rooms. Being exposed to the subject expertise of colleagues, to open critique, to different styles of planning and organisation, as well as methods of class presentation, teachers can develop their approaches to teaching and acquire a greater depth of understanding of the subject matter of the unit or module.

- **Part-time staff** can be drawn more closely into the department as members of teams than is usually the case, with a resulting increase in integration of course objectives and approaches to teaching.

- **Team teaching can lead to better student performance** in terms of greater independence and assuming responsibility for learning. Exposure to views and skills of more than one teacher can develop a more mature understanding of knowledge often being problematic rather than right or wrong. Learning can become more active and involved. Students could eventually make an input into team planning.

- **Team teaching aids the professional and interpersonal dynamics of departments** leading to closer integration of staff.

In the following extract, the authors describe the instructional advantages of working in teams.

***"Team Teaching: An Alternative to Lecture Fatigue"***

Team teaching is an approach which involves true team work between two qualified instructors who, together, make presentations to an audience. The instructional advantages of team teaching include:

- (1) Lecture-style instruction is eliminated in favour of a dynamic interplay of two minds and personalities.

Lectures require students to act as passive receptors of communicated information, but team teaching involves the student in the physical and mental stimulation created by viewing two individuals at work. . . .

- (2) Teaching staff act as role models for discussion and disagreement.

Teaching staff members demonstrate modes of behaving in a disagreement as well as exposing students to the course content.

- (3) Team teaching makes effective use of existing human resources .Acquisition of additional expensive resources or equipment is not required to implement this method: only reorganisation is required to put the team into operation.

- (4) Team teaching has the potential for revitalizing instructional capabilities through a process of dialogue.

Team teaching begins with the recognition that the instructor/student link is critical and offers an approach that has been shown to stimulate and provoke, while expanding and enriching student understanding.

- (5) Interest in traditional courses can be stimulated as students share the enthusiasm and intellectual discourse that the lecturers communicate.

Team teaching is not boring. Students are drawn into the situation from the first moment.

(6) The effective use of facilities is possible.

The impersonal nature of large lecture halls can be brought to life by an interactive and dynamic situation.

(7) Team teaching provides opportunities for interaction with the audience.

### **Implementation**

Implementing a team teaching approach requires administrative encouragement, acceptance of an initial experimental quality, and willingness to take risks. Proof that team teaching works comes not only from the instructors' self-judgment, but from students' evaluations. Above all, team teaching cannot be accomplished by administrative fiat — but administrators need to encourage it.

**Way for Team Teaching** In its fullest sense, team teaching is where a group of lecturers works together to plan, conduct, and evaluate the learning activities of the same group of students. However, it would be a mistake to think that team teaching is always practised in the same way. Its format needs to be adapted to the requirements of the teaching situation. Some possible options are where:

- two or more teachers teach the same group at the same time;
- team members meet to share ideas and resources but generally function independently;
- teams of teachers share a common resource centre;
- a team shares a common group of students, shares planning for instruction but team members teach different sub-groups within the whole group;
- certain instructional activities may be planned for the whole team by one individual, for example planning and developing research seminars;
- planning is shared, but teachers each teach their own specialism or their own skills area to the whole group;
- teams plan and develop teaching resource materials for a large group of students but may or may not teach them in a classroom situation.

**Planning to Implement Team Teaching** Planning, conducting and evaluating team teaching are all important activities. Some of the most important aspects of planning which need to consider in advance of implementing teams are the concerns of staff; the selection of team members; and setting realistic goals for any teaching team in the first instance.

Like any other change or innovation in a department, team teaching will raise concerns among staff members. The full range of concerns will only become clear over time after initial worries are dealt with and team members become comfortable with the innovation. A basic premise of team teaching is that its adoption is not something that happens at one point in time — it extends over time. As users go through the adoption process there will be changes in their concerns.

From a team perspective, the ultimate aim will be to have individual team members reach a stage where they accept joint responsibility for the basic instruction of a group of students. There will be concerns, however, the relevant literature suggests that one way of dealing with these concerns is to recognise that they seem to follow a time cycle. Early concerns usually appear to be procedural e.g., determining roles, setting agendas, keeping records, setting procedures for communicating with outside people, and scheduling teamwork, etc. Next to appear are student-related concerns such as meeting students' needs, planning to deal with individual students, etc. These are followed by concern among team members for their own professional growth and finally there is concern for the collective well being of the team. This last level is reached when teams are seen as a means of professional self development, a forum at which ideas about instruction and coordinating curriculum can be shared, and when students are involved in decision making.

Here are some common concerns about team teaching along with suggestions of what to do to improve the likelihood of overcoming them. The first three of these concerns

are usually expressed before the team actually begins functioning while the last is usually expressed after it has functioned for a time.

**Team Teaching Management** Supplying information usually leads teachers to express personal concerns. Take these concerns seriously. If you do not they become potential barriers to effective implementation. Personal concerns usually expressed about team teaching include:

- not all team members will contribute equally;
- teachers do not understand how to make the team work;
- there will be personality conflicts to deal with in addition to the teaching itself;
- a preference for working alone;
- all the work will fall on the team leader/senior subject expert;
- it will be too difficult to cover all the course content;
- team meetings will be a waste of time.

All in all, concerns usually revolve about inter-personal problems — issues of self doubt, team management and group processes in addition to whether the teaching carried out by this method will be worthwhile.

Management questions are concerned with who will be on the team, who will lead it, what will be expected and in what timeframe, how meetings will be conducted, how teaching activities and events will actually be planned, and so on. These should be dealt with as early as possible and not in a casual manner, so that everyone is clear about what their roles and responsibilities will be. As well, once the team begins to function, more routine issues will surface: staff may be bothered by the amount of time involved, the difficulty of keeping track of students, coordinating materials and the work of other team members.

Concern may arise and have to be dealt with while the team is actually functioning or at the time of periodic course reviews. Rather than a single concern, it may be more useful to see it as a category of concerns that focus on **the consequences of team actions**. It would be most unusual for the team to find that everything has proceeded as they planned. More usually, they find that there are outcomes as a result of team teaching which they had not anticipated. These outcomes may be to do with student learning or with how the team is functioning. If there are differences between what was planned and what the students are achieving then the team will need to **refocus on what is important**. To do this the team will have to monitor continually how students are reacting to the team teaching experience. Conscious decisions will have to be taken to emphasise points that may have been missed or correct mistaken impressions. However, concerns may arise apart from those related to student learning. There may be a need for the team to **deal with issues of collaboration** among its own members. In the same way that the goals associated with student learning need to be monitored and reviewed where necessary, so too do aspects of team behaviour. In both these examples it is apparent that regular meetings of the team need to take place where constructive, professional reflection is encouraged which is itself a team teaching strength.

The composition of any teaching team is a matter which must be considered carefully if that particular team is going to function effectively. While it is possible that teams can be arbitrarily formed it is far more fruitful if they come together in response to needs and interests. Thought needs to be given to selecting team members and defining team roles and these decisions need to be evaluated periodically. The following questions are indicative of the sorts of issues which should be considered:

Team members should not be clones of each other. Why? Because differences in subject expertise, interests, perspectives, back-grounds, and qualification levels, can contribute to the collective strength of a team and the growth of individual team members. Furthermore, the 'mix' of personalities and characteristics add to the experience the students get from interacting with the team.

Basically the team leader will be concerned with (i) internal functioning — setting

agendas, keeping records, coordinating schedules ensuring the team ‘stays on task’ i.e. that it achieves what it sets out to achieve; and (ii) external functioning — communicating with department heads to ensure that the team is resourced, supported, and meeting departmental goals/expectations, etc.

Team members need to contribute to the team in ways other than simply turning up for classes and meetings. It is essential that all team members contribute to formulating and achieving team goals. To do this, each member must take responsibility for participating in team discussions and planning session and following through on decisions made by the team within the timeframes decided by the team. It is only in this way that a spirit of co-operation and collaboration can be maintained.

Teams need to have a sense of direction. One finding from the relevant literature of particular interest relates to the time required to develop an effective level of team teaching. When teams are formed from teachers with no previous team experience, it seems to take about three years for them to develop the team teaching process to an efficient and effective level. Hence in setting a time line for teams to achieve realistic goals it is important to ask what will be the aims of team teaching during the first year or semester and what are the longer term goals? The answers to such questions are important in determining priorities for the development of teams. It is unrealistic to expect that all goals and expectations will be met immediately. Rather it is better to consider what it is reasonable to undertake as teachers and to expect from students and at what stage?

### **The Team in Action**

#### **Planning for Teaching**

Assume that it has been decided that team teaching will go ahead in your department and that you have agreed and been selected to be a member of a team. Assume also that the issues surrounding teams discussed earlier have been attended to and the team is now ready to begin work. Decisions facing yourself and your teaching partners now will focus undoubtedly on planning teaching/learning activities.

You may ask, for instance, in what way will the team use small and large group contexts or independent study? Will it use a large group in an auditorium setting to introduce a topic or convey basic information and background material which all the students need to know? Will the team decide to use a single teacher to make the presentation or will several teachers be used? Will small group discussions relate to large group presentations, or demonstrate skills, or develop a seminar discussion group etc? What of independent study? It is not always taken into consideration but it provides a student or group of students with the opportunity to research or explore a topic of special interest in greater depth outside the formal teaching situation. How will the team use independent study?

This short list of questions underlines the decisions to be made in this area.

- What are the programme, unit, and lesson objectives?
- What lesson content is to be presented and in what order?
- Which content is to be presented by large group presentation?
- Which methods and resources are to be used to present the content?
- Who will make large group presentations?
- What will be discussed during small group meetings?
- How will small groups be organized?
- Who will be assigned to each small group?
- What types of independent study will be appropriate?
- What blocks of time will be assigned to large-group, small group and independent study activities?
- How will students be assessed?

All of these questions are to do with ongoing interaction with students. A little later the team will have to consider questions such as:

- How can the activities be improved?

- What specific problems have arisen with particular groups of students and how can they be solved?

Irrespective of who asks these questions, they are very realistic and they need to be answered, but the critical issue is who by and how.

### **Assigning Roles and Responsibilities**

Effective teams are systematic in their division of labour, not forgetting that roles may be rotated on a regular basis. In allocating roles, strengths and weaknesses of individual team members need to be taken into account. A brief questionnaire gathering an idea of these strengths and weaknesses might be a good idea before a draft list of responsibilities for the team is discussed.

### **Catering for Students**

While team teachers and their students are usually happy with the community spirit that teams can provide, teamwork also has a considerable effect on classroom management. For example, by planning together, team teachers can clarify teaching policies and behavioural expectations that are applied to students. Difficult management situations can be analyzed and resolved together resulting in richer discussions and sounder solutions. Teams of teachers can think of ways of improving student motivation, a sense of responsibility, and overall student performance.

### **Conducting Meetings**

Team teaching is group work and as such teams need to develop as functioning groups. In dealing with other team members teamwork is seldom without conflict — professional or personal points of view may clash. Blending differences constructively is a challenge to all team members. To do this it is important to acknowledge team members' strengths, interests, personal and professional goals both in assigning responsibilities and in the conduct of meetings.

### **Running meetings**

For a team to function effectively the team meetings need to run well. They need to clarify expectations for how the team will operate, i.e. clarify management issues and set ground rules for meetings such as:

- how will items get on the agenda?
- what should be recorded in the minutes?
- who will do the recording?
- how will decisions be reached?
- how should communication with other teams and members of the department be managed?
- how will a team calendar/schedule be compiled?

### **Making decisions**

The main problem encountered in meetings which prevents decisions from being made effectively and efficiently is the difficulty of keeping all team members on task. The team leader needs to ensure that:

- problems are defined clearly;
- there is time for brainstorming alternatives for action;
- each alternative is subject to critique
- a plan of action is selected, implemented and subsequently evaluated

### **Evaluating Progress**

In a small team, a formal evaluation of progress often seems inappropriate. However, all teams need to set aside some time to evaluate their progress in terms of both teaching the module and with their own development as an effective team. An outside facilitator could be called in to manage this where appropriate. Some questions which might be asked in the context of such an evaluation are:

- are the goals set for the team's work realistic?
- have the goals been achieved? to what extent?

- do all team members participate equally in team decisions?
- have decisions been carried out?
- are responsibilities shared among team members?
- do students benefit from the team's work?
- what areas need more attention?

#### **Maintaining Continuity From Year to Year**

In order to ensure the continuity of the module/course when it is presented a second and subsequent times the team needs to maintain clear documentation of the course including:

- the course outline or syllabus;
- weekly timetables;
- teachers' notes for each unit;
- students' notes;
- teaching materials/written bulletins;
- copies of tests and examinations;
- final course evaluations;
- student evaluations.

Carefully maintaining these course documents will ease the task of the course leaders, facilitate the induction of new teachers into the team, and simplify the task of revising the course/module in a rational manner.

### **Conclusion**

Teams take a variety of forms in different contexts, however, successful team teaching must go beyond sharing a group of students and scheduling a common meeting time if it is to make positive contributions to the quality of learning and staff development.

Effective team teaching takes time to develop to its fullest potential. Staff who are unfamiliar with it need time to work through the basic issues and routine matters before they can turn their attention fully to issues which affect students and to the impact which their teaching has on the department as a whole. This is time well spent because team teaching can be a valuable source of personal and professional development for those who engage in it. It can also be a source of considerable frustration if its goals are unrealistic, meetings are not productive and decision making is not well handled by team leaders.

### **The policy for grade promotion**

**Grade retention or grade repetition** is the process of having a student repeat a grade, because last year, the student was failed. Students who repeat a grade are referred to as "repeaters". Repeaters can be referred to as having been "held back".

Different schools have used different approaches throughout history. Grade retention or repetition was essentially meaningless in the one-room schoolhouses of more than a century ago, because access to outside standards were very limited, and the small scale of the school, with perhaps only a few students of each age, was conducive to individualized instruction. With the proliferation of larger, graded schools in the middle of the 19th century, retention became a common practice. In fact, a century ago, approximately half of all American students were retained at least once before the age of 13.

Social promotion began to spread in the 1930s with concerns about the psychosocial effects of retention. Social promotion is the promoting of underperforming students under the ideological principle that staying with their same-age peers is important to success. This trend reversed in the 1980s, as concern about slipping academic standards rose.

Opponents of "no social promotion" policies do not defend social promotion so much as say that retention is even worse. They argue that retention is not a cost-effective response to poor performance when compared to cheaper or more effective interventions, such as



additional tutoring and summer school. They point to a wide range of research findings that show no advantage to, or even harm from, retention, and the tendency for gains from retention to wash out.

Harm from retention cited by these critics include:

- May lower the self-esteem of the student and make them feel as if they were mentally inferior and in turn cause them to give up on their academics. It may also cause them to be the subject of ridicule and bullying by other students.
- Increased drop-out rates of retained students over time.
- No evidence of long-term academic benefit for retained students.
- Increased rates of dangerous behaviors such as drinking, drug abuse, crime, teenage pregnancy, depression, and suicide among retained students as compared with similarly performing promoted students.

Critics of retention also note that retention is expensive for school systems: requiring a student to repeat a grade is essentially to add one student for a year to the school system, assuming that the student does not drop out.

The possibility of grade retention has been shown to be a significant source of stress for students. In one study of childhood fears performed in the 1980s, the top three fears for US sixth graders were a parent's death, going blind, and being retained. After two decades of increasing retention practices, a repeat of the study in 2001 found that grade retention was the single greatest fear, higher than loss of a parent or going blind..This change likely reflects the students' correct perception that they were statistically far more likely to repeat the sixth grade than to suffer the death of a parent or the loss of their vision.

### **Arguments for grade retention**

Opponents of social promotion argue that passing a child who did not learn the necessary material cheats the child of an education. As a result, when the child gets older, the student will likely fail classes or be forced to attend summer school. Opponents of social promotion argue that it has the following negative impacts:

- Students who are promoted cannot do the work in the next grade, and so are being set up for further failure.
- Students will have many failures in the high school years, which will most likely lead to dropping out.
- It sends the message to all students that they can get by without working hard.
- It forces teachers to deal with under-prepared students while trying to teach the prepared.
- It gives parents a false sense of their children's progress.
- It will not get them the help they need.
- Florida, the first state to end social promotion in third grade, now has the highest reading scores in the nation for disadvantaged fourth-grade students according to the National Assessment of Educational Progress.

## **Conclusion**

**Grade promotion** forces teachers to deal with under-prepared students while trying to teach the prepared and gives parents a false sense of their children's progress. This change likely reflects the students' correct perception that they were statistically far more likely to repeat the last grade than to suffer the death of a parent or the loss of their vision.

## **The Student Grouping**

The value of ability grouping in schools is a subject of much debate. Supporters of ability grouping argue that there are efficiency effects to be gained for all students by putting

similar students into classes that can be tailored to their abilities. However, opponents of ability grouping argue that there are also peer group effects so that the achievement of a given student depends not only on his or her initial ability, but also on the average ability of the class. Thus, having high-achieving and motivated students in the class raises everyone's level of achievement, and by grouping, schools essentially harm the lower ability students by separating them from the high ability students. The peer group effect includes potential harm done to test scores of low ability students due to lowered expectations and self-esteem.

Previous research using large data sets can be classified into three types (for a review of the ethnographic research. The first type of study compares students in the academic track to those in the same school who are in the general and/or the vocational track. The second type compares students in schools that group to students in non-grouped schools. A third and more recent approach compares students in high, middle, and low ability groups to ungrouped or heterogeneously grouped students (ungrouped and heterogeneously grouped are used interchangeably).

Studies that compare high to low groups overwhelmingly find that those in high groups have higher math achievement uses the vocational track as the omitted category and finds much within-school variation. Even studies that conclude that ability grouping has no effect on a variety of student outcomes find effects of ability grouping on math achievement growth. Although many studies of this type control for initial ability by including lagged test scores, types of courses taken, socioeconomic status, and other background variables, it is likely that there are other factors such as motivation and effort that affect both group placement and math achievement. Ability grouping is a widespread practice in American schools. For well over a decade, researchers have investigated how the grouping of students into classrooms by achievement levels (ability grouping) has affected the average level and the dispersion of achievement. The purpose of this paper is to enumerate some of the major difficulties in distinguishing the impact of ability grouping on student achievement and presents new evidence that omitted ability bias has likely led to an overstatement of the differential effects of grouping in the previous literature. We conclude that based on the existing evidence it is difficult to make a clear policy prescription as to whether "detracking" America's schools will lead to gains or losses for all, some, or even any students.

We readily concede that one possible interpretation of our results is that we are testing the effects of "formal ability grouping," in which schools admit to grouping, to the effects of "informal ability grouping". In these latter schools, perhaps schools claim not to group but actually do, or students effectively group themselves based on the level of classes that they choose. We make this point repeatedly throughout the abstract and text.

But a second possibility is that the finding of many previous researchers that tracking aggravates the gap in achievement between top and bottom students is overstated, due to omitted ability bias in the test score equation. Our technique of comparing "apples to apples" may greatly reduce this type of bias because it avoids comparing "apples to oranges".

We compare students in schools that track (according to the principal) to students at schools that do not. We control for "environmental" factors that could affect student achievement, such as family background. In addition, by comparing students in tracked schools who are in math classes of ability "*n*" to students in untracked schools who are in classes of ability "*n*", we compare apples to apples. For each type of class, we derive the effect of tracking by comparing the "treatment" group (that was in a school with tracking) to the control group.

Some earlier literature on ability grouping runs the risk of comparing apples to oranges. For instance, Argys, Rees and Brewer (1996) compare students in "above average" classes to students in "heterogeneous" classes. Hoffer (1992) uses LSAY data to compare students in high, middle and low grouped classes to a control group of *all* students in schools that, according to his metric, do not use ability grouping. This can create omitted ability bias when this highly heterogeneous control group is really of a quite different level of initial

achievement than students in the various grouped classes. This approach is likely to lead to a systematic upward bias in the estimated effects of placing students in above average classes, and a downward bias in the case of below average classes. As we argue in the introduction to Betts and Shkolnik (1999), because test scores measure achievement with error, a lagged test score in the test score equation will not adequately control for initial achievement. Therefore the ability level of the class, when included as a regressor, will be biased upward because it is positively correlated with the student's own imperfectly observed initial level of achievement. This leads to an overstatement of the *differential* effects of ability grouping on student learning in papers that use the “apples versus oranges” approach. (See equation (2a) in our companion paper.)

Both Argys, Rees and Brewer (1996) and Hoffer (1992) run separate regressions for various ability groups. Technically, this changes the problem from one of omitted ability bias in a full-sample regression to one of selectivity bias in the regressions on subsamples. That is, the expected value of the error term in each test score model is unlikely to be zero, if there is any correlation between the error term in that equation and the error term in the equation that determines how each student was assigned to an ability group. The authors attempt to control for this problem using corrections for selectivity bias, but their corrections will be imperfect unless they can perfectly capture the actual class assignments of each student.

Which of these two problems, confusing non-grouped schools for schools that group informally, or upward bias due to comparing apples to oranges, is a greater problem in the literature? We can provide three indirect pieces of evidence that the latter is a greater source of bias.

## Conclusion

The different of ability grouping in schools is a subject. Supporters of ability grouping argue that there are efficiency effects to be gained for all students by putting similar students into classes that can be tailored to their abilities.

## The Curriculum Focus

When the terms *curriculum* or *curricula* are used in educational contexts without qualification, specific examples, or additional explanation, it may be difficult to determine precisely what the terms are referring to mainly because they could be applied to either all or only some of the component parts of a school's academic program or courses.

In many cases, teachers develop their own curricula, often refining and improving them over years, although it is also common for teachers to adapt lessons and syllabi created by other teachers, use curriculum templates and guides to structure their lessons and courses, or purchase prepackaged curricula from individuals and companies. In some cases, schools purchase comprehensive, multi grade curriculum packages often in a particular subject area, such as mathematics—that teachers are required to use or follow. Curriculum may also encompass a school's academic requirements for graduation, such as the courses students have to take and pass, the number of credits students must complete, and other requirements, such as completing a capstone project or a certain number of community-service hours. Generally speaking, curriculum takes many different forms in schools—too many to comprehensively catalog here.

It is important to note that while curriculum encompasses a wide variety of potential educational and instructional practices, educators often have a very precise, technical meaning in mind when they use the term. Most teachers spend a lot of time thinking about, studying, discussing, and analyzing curriculum, and many educators have acquired a specialist's expertise in curriculum development—i.e., they know how to structure, organize, and deliver lessons in ways that facilitate or accelerate student learning. To none educators, some curriculum materials may seem simple or straightforward (such as a list of required reading,

for example), but they may reflect a deep and sophisticated understanding of an academic discipline and of the most effective strategies for learning acquisition and classroom management.

A **hidden curriculum** is a side effect of an education, " which are learned but not openly intended" (Martin, Jane. 1983:122). such as the transmission of norms, values, and beliefs conveyed in the classroom and the social environment. (Giroux, Henry and Anthony Penna. 1983 : 101)

Any learning experience may teach unintended lessons. (Martin, Jane. 1983 : 122). Hidden curriculum often refers to knowledge gained in primary and secondary school settings, usually with a negative connotation where the school strives for equal intellectual development (as a positive aim). (Cornbleth, Catherine. 1984: 29) In this sense, a hidden curriculum reinforces existing social inequalities by educating students according to their class and social status. The unequal distribution of cultural capital in a society mirrors a corresponding distribution of knowledge among its students.(Apple, Michael and Nancy King. 1983: 82).

**Hidden curriculum** refers to the unwritten, unofficial, and often unintended lessons, values, and perspectives that students learn in school. While the "formal" curriculum consists of the courses, lessons, and learning activities students participate in, as well as the knowledge and skills educators intentionally teach to students, the hidden curriculum consists of the unspoken or implicit academic, social, and cultural messages that are communicated to students while they are in school.

The hidden-curriculum concept is based on the recognition that students absorb lessons in school that may or may not be part of the formal course of study for example, how they should interact with peers, teachers, and other adults; how they should perceive different races, groups, or classes of people; or what ideas and behaviors are considered acceptable or unacceptable. The hidden curriculum is described as "hidden" because it is usually unacknowledged or unexamined by students, educators, and the wider community. And because the values and lessons reinforced by the hidden curriculum are often the accepted status quo, it may be assumed that these "hidden" practices and messages don't need to change even if they are contributing to undesirable behaviors and results, whether it's bullying, conflicts, or low graduation and college-enrollment rates, for example.

It should be noted that a hidden curriculum can reinforce the lessons of the formal curriculum, or it can contradict the formal curriculum, revealing hypocrisies or inconsistencies between a school's stated mission, values, and convictions and what students actually experience and learn while they are in school. For example, a school may publicly claim in its mission or vision statement that it's committed to ensuring that all students succeed academically, but a review of its performance data may reveal significant racial or socioeconomic discrepancies when it comes to test scores, graduation rates, and other measures of success. And because what is not taught in school can sometimes be as influential or formative as what *is* taught, the hidden curriculum also extends to subject areas, values, and messages that are omitted from the formal curriculum and ignored, overlooked, or disparaged by educators.

Since curriculum is one of the foundational elements of effective schooling and teaching, it is often the object of reforms, most of which are broadly intended to either mandate or encourage greater curricular standardization and consistency across states, schools, grade levels, subject areas, and courses. The following are a few representative examples of the ways in which curriculum is targeted for improvement or used to leverage school improvement and increase teacher effectiveness:

**Standards requirements:** When new learning standards are adopted at the state, district, or school levels, teachers typically modify what they teach and bring their curriculum into "alignment" with the learning expectations outlined in the new standards. While the technical alignment of curriculum with standards does not necessarily mean that teachers are

teaching in accordance with the standards—or, more to the point, that students are actually achieving those learning expectations—learning standards remain a mechanism by which policy makers and school leaders attempt to improve curriculum and teaching quality. The Common Core State Standards Initiative, for example, is a national effort to influence curriculum design and teaching quality in schools through the adoption of new learning standards by states. **Assessment requirements:** Another reform strategy that indirectly influences curriculum is assessment, since the methods used to measure student learning compel teachers to teach the content and skills that will eventually be evaluated. The most commonly discussed examples are standardized testing and high-stakes testing, which can give rise to a phenomenon informally called “teaching to the test.” Because federal and state policies require students to take standardized tests at certain grade levels, and because regulatory penalties or negative publicity may result from poor student performance (in the case of high-stakes tests), teachers are consequently under pressure to teach in ways that are likely to improve student performance on standardized tests, by teaching the content likely to be tested or by coaching students on specific test-taking techniques. While standardized tests are one way in which assessment is used to leverage curriculum reform, schools may also use rubrics and many other strategies to improve teaching quality through the modification of assessment strategies, requirements, and expectations.

**Curriculum alignment:** Schools may try to improve curriculum quality by bringing teaching activities and course expectations into “alignment” with learning standards and other school courses a practice sometimes called “curriculum mapping.” The basic idea is to create a more consistent and coherent academic program by making sure that teachers teach the most important content and eliminate learning gaps that may exist between sequential courses and grade levels. For example, teachers may review their mathematics program to ensure that what students are actually being taught in every Algebra I course offered in the school not only reflects expected learning standards for that subject area and grade level, but that it also prepares students for Algebra II and geometry. When the curriculum is not aligned, students might be taught significantly different content in each Algebra I course, for example, and students taking different Algebra I courses may complete the courses unevenly prepared for Algebra II. For a more detailed discussion, see coherent curriculum.

**Curriculum philosophy:** The design and goals of any curriculum reflect the educational philosophy whether intentionally or unintentionally—of the educators who developed it. Consequently, curriculum reform may occur through the adoption of a different philosophy or model of teaching by a school or educator. Schools that follow the Expeditionary Learning model, for example, embrace a variety of approaches to teaching generally known as project-based learning, which encompasses related strategies such as community-based learning and authentic learning. In Expeditionary Learning schools, students complete multifaceted projects called “expeditions” that require teachers to develop and structure curriculum in ways that are quite different from the more traditional approaches commonly used in schools.

**Curriculum packages:** In some cases, schools decide to purchase or adopt a curriculum package that has been developed by an outside organization. One well-known and commonly used option for American public schools is International Baccalaureate, which offers curriculum programs for elementary schools, middle schools, and high schools. Districts may purchase all three programs or an individual school may purchase only one, and the programs may be offered to all or only some of the students in a school. When schools adopt a curriculum package, teachers often receive specialized training to ensure that the curriculum is effectively implemented and taught. In many cases, curriculum packages are purchased or adopted because they are perceived to be of a higher quality or more prestigious than the existing curriculum options offered by a school or independently developed by teachers.

**Curriculum resources:** The resources that schools provide to teachers can also have a significant affect on curriculum. For example, if a district or school purchases a certain set of

textbooks and requires teachers to use them, those textbooks will inevitably influence what gets taught and how teachers teach. Technology purchases are another example of resources that have the potential to influence curriculum. If all students are given laptops and all classrooms are outfitted with interactive whiteboards, for example, teachers can make significant changes in what they teach and how they teach to take advantage of these new technologies (for a more detailed discussion of this example, see one-to-one). In most cases, however, new curriculum resources require schools to invest in professional development that helps teachers use the new resources effectively, given that simply providing new resources without investing in teacher education and training may fail to bring about desired improvements. In addition, the type of professional development provided to teachers can also have a major influence on curriculum development and design.

**Curriculum standardization:** States, districts, and schools may also try to improve teaching quality and effectiveness by requiring, or simply encouraging, teachers to use either a standardized curriculum or common processes for developing curriculum. While the strategies used to promote more standardized curricula can vary widely from state to state or school to school, the general goal is to increase teaching quality through greater curricular consistency. School performance will likely improve, the reasoning goes, if teaching methods and learning expectations are based on sound principles and consistently applied throughout a state, district, or school. Curriculum standards may also be created or proposed by influential educational organizations—such as the National Science Teachers Association or the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, for example—with the purpose of guiding learning expectations and teaching within particular academic disciplines.

**Curriculum scripting :** Often called “scripted curriculum,” the scripting of curriculum is the most prescriptive form of standardized, prepackaged curriculum, since it typically requires teachers to not only follow a particular sequence of prepared lessons, but to actually read aloud from a teaching script in class. While the professional autonomy and creativity of individual teachers may be significantly limited when such a curriculum system is used, the general rationale is that teaching quality can be assured or improved, or at least maintained, across a school or *educational system* if teachers follow a precise instructional script. While not every teacher will be a naturally excellent teacher, the reasoning goes, all teachers can at least be given a high-quality curriculum script to follow. Scripted curricula tend to be most common in districts and schools that face significant challenges attracting and retaining experienced or qualified teachers, such as larger urban schools in high-poverty communities.

#### *Aspects of the hidden curriculum*

Various aspects of learning contribute to the success of the hidden curriculum, including practices, procedures, rules, relationships, and structures. (Martin, Jane. 1983:122–139). Many school-specific sources, some of which may be included in these aspects of learning, give rise to important elements of the hidden curriculum. These sources may include, but are not limited to, the social structures of the classroom, the teacher’s exercise of authority, rules governing the relationship between teachers and students, standard learning activities, the teacher’s use of language, textbooks, audio-visual aids, furnishings, architecture, disciplinary measures, timetables, tracking systems, and curricular priorities. (Martin, Jane. 1983:122–139). Variations among these sources promote the disparities found when comparing **the hidden curricula** corresponding to various class and social statuses. “Every school is both an expression of a political situation and a teacher of politics.” (*Great Atlantic and Pacific School Conspiracy* (1972).

While the actual material that students absorb through the hidden curriculum is of utmost importance, the personnel who convey it elicit special investigation. This particularly applies to the social and moral lessons conveyed by the hidden curriculum, for the moral characteristics and ideologies of teachers and other authority figures are translated into their

lessons, albeit not necessarily with intention. (Kohlberg, Lawrence. , 1983: 61). Yet these unintended learning experiences can result from interactions with not only instructors, but also with peers. Like interactions with authority figures, interactions amongst peers can promote moral and social ideals but also foster the exchange of information and are thus important sources of knowledge contributing to the success of the hidden curriculum.

## Conclusion

The term curriculum refers to the lessons and academic content taught in a school or in a specific course or program. In dictionaries, *curriculum* is often defined as the courses offered by a school, but it is rarely used in such a general sense in schools. Depending on how broadly educators define or employ the term, curriculum typically refers to the knowledge and skills students are expected to learn, which includes the learning standards or learning objectives they are expected to meet; the units and lessons that teachers teach; the assignments and projects given to students; the books, materials, videos, presentations, and readings used in a course; and the tests, assessments, and other methods used to evaluate student learning. An individual teacher's curriculum, for example, would be the specific learning standards, lessons, assignments, and materials used to organize and teach a particular course.

### The school efforts for character development(School Culture)

The term **school culture** generally refers to the beliefs, perceptions, relationships, attitudes, and written and unwritten rules that shape and influence every aspect of how a school functions, but the term also encompasses more concrete issues such as the physical and emotional safety of students, the orderliness of classrooms and public spaces, or the degree to which a school embraces and celebrates racial, ethnic, linguistic, or cultural diversity.

Like the larger social culture, a school culture results from both conscious and unconscious perspectives, values, interactions, and practices, and it is heavily shaped by a school's particular institutional history. Students, parents, teachers, administrators, and other staff members all contribute to their school's culture, as do other influences such as the community in which the school is located, the policies that govern how it operates, or the principles upon which the school was founded.

Generally speaking, school cultures can be divided into two basic forms: *positive cultures* and *negative cultures*. Numerous researchers, educators, and writers have attempted to define the major features of positive and negative school cultures, and an abundance of studies, articles, and books are available on the topic. In addition, many educational organizations, such as the National School Climate Center, have produced detailed descriptions of positive school cultures and developed strategies for improving them (given the complexity of the topic, however, it is not possible to describe all the distinctions here).

Broadly defined, positive school cultures are conducive to professional satisfaction, morale, and effectiveness, as well as to student learning, fulfillment, and well-being. The following list is a representative selection of a few characteristics commonly associated with positive school cultures:

- The individual successes of teachers and students are recognized and celebrated.

- Relationships and interactions are characterized by openness, trust, respect, and appreciation.
- Staff relationships are collegial, collaborative, and productive, and all staff members are held to high professional standards.
- Students and staff members feel emotionally and physical safe, and the school's policies and facilities promote student safety.
- School leaders, teachers, and staff members model positive, healthy behaviors for students.
- Mistakes not punished as failures, but they are seen as opportunities to learn and grow for both students and educators.
- Students are consistently held to high academic expectations, and a majority of students meet or exceed those expectations.
- Important leadership decisions are made collaboratively with input from staff members, students, and parents.
- Criticism, when voiced, is constructive and well-intentioned, not antagonistic or self-serving.
- Educational resources and learning opportunities are equitably distributed, and all students, including minorities and students with disabilities.
- All students have access to the academic support and services they may need to succeed.

School culture has become a central concept in many efforts to change how schools operate and improve educational results. While a school culture is heavily influenced by its institutional history, culture also shapes social patterns, habits, and dynamics that influence future behaviors, which could become an obstacle to reform and improvement. For example, if a faculty culture is generally dysfunctional—i.e., if interpersonal tensions and distrust are common, problems are rarely addressed or resolved, or staff members tend to argue more than they collaborate or engage in productive professional discussions—it is likely that these cultural factors will significantly complicate or hinder any attempt to change how the school operates. This simple example illustrates why school culture has become the object of so many research studies and reform efforts—without a school culture that is conducive to improvement, reform becomes exponentially more difficult. The following describe a few representative examples of common ways that schools may attempt to improve their culture:

- Establishing professional learning communities that encourages teachers to communicate, share expertise, and work together more collegially and productively.
- Providing presentations, seminars, and learning experiences designed to educate staff and students about bullying and reduce instances of bullying.
- Creating events and educational experiences that honor and celebrate the racial, ethnic, and linguistic diversity of the student body, such as hosting cultural events and festivals, exhibiting culturally relevant materials throughout the school, inviting local cultural leaders to present to students, or making explicit connections between the diverse cultural backgrounds of students and what is being taught in history, social studies, and literature courses. For related discussions, see multicultural education and voice.
- Establishing an advisory program that pairs groups of students with adult advisor to strengthen adult-student relationships and ensure that students are well known and supported by at least one adult in the school.
- Surveying students, parents, and teachers about their experiences in the school, and hosting community forums that invite participants to share their opinions about and recommendations for the school and its programs.



- Creating a leadership team comprising a representative cross-section of school administrators, teachers, students, parents, and community members that oversees and leads a school-improvement initiative.

Since most members of a school community will benefit from a more positive culture, and cultural factors tend to contribute significantly to emotional states such as happiness and unhappiness or fulfillment and dissatisfaction, the concept of a more positive school culture is rarely, in itself, controversial. For this reason, debates tend to arise (if they arise at all) in response to specific reform proposals, rather than to the general goal of improving a school culture. Yet given that organizational dysfunction is, by nature, an entrenched pattern of often unconscious behaviors, attitudes, and beliefs that tend to obstruct organizational change and improvement and because human beings can become deeply attached to emotions and behaviors that may make them less happy, fulfilled, productive, or successful attempts to reform school cultures may be more likely encounter resistance, criticism, or controversy in schools that are most in need of cultural reforms. In recent years, problems related to school culture are being cited as reasons for why schools should be closed or why a significant percentage of the teaching faculty should be fired. In these cases, "school culture" may become a flashpoint in larger debates about specific school-reform policies and strategies. Because all school cultures are unique, it is important to investigate and develop an understanding of the underlying causes of any debates, including the preexisting cultural conditions that may be contributing to the debates. To adapt Tolstoy's famous opening line in *Anna Karenina*: All positive school cultures share common features, but each negative school culture is negative in its own way.

Too often, educators interpret the effective schools research to mean that the school's climate should be safe and orderly and only safe and orderly. Few would argue that those attributes are unimportant. Beyond the ethical responsibility to provide children with safe surroundings, such conditions help protect instructional time from needless interruptions and distractions. But discussions of school climate that begin and end with classroom management and student discipline miss an important part of the puzzle. A truly positive school climate is not characterized simply by the absence of gangs, violence, or discipline problems, but also by the presence of a set of norms and values that focus everyone's attention on what is most important and motivate them to work hard toward a common purpose.

Analyzing an extensive body of research on organizational culture, leadership and change experts Terrance Deal and Kent Peterson contend that "the culture of an enterprise plays the dominant role in exemplary performance." They define school culture as an "underground flow of feelings and folkways [wending] its way within schools" in the form of vision and values, beliefs and assumptions, rituals and ceremonies, history and stories, and physical symbols.

According to Deal and Peterson, research suggests that a strong, positive culture serves several beneficial functions, including the following:

- Fostering effort and productivity.
- Improving collegial and collaborative activities that in turn promote better communication and problem solving.
- Supporting successful change and improvement efforts.
- Building commitment and helping students and teachers identify with the school.
- Amplifying energy and motivation of staff members and students.
- Focusing attention and daily behavior on what is important and valued.

Russell Hobby of Britain's Hay Group suggests, "Viewed more positively, culture can also be the ultimate form of 'capacity'— a reservoir of energy and wisdom to sustain

motivation and co-operation, shape relationships and aspirations, and guide effective choices at every level of the school."

One useful concept for understanding how culture performs those functions comes from sociology. W.I. Thomas, a pioneer in the field, observed that individuals consider something he called "the definition of the situation" before they act. To take a very simple example, many people answer the telephone differently depending on whether they are in a professional or casual setting. Very young children impose their own self-centered definitions on most situations, but society gradually suggests or imposes other definitions.

Some schools allow individuals to decide their "definition of the situation" — ; what the organization is about and how individuals should act in it. Effective schools, however, suggest a clear, common "definition of the situation" for all individuals, sending a constant stream of unambiguous signals to students and teachers about what their roles and responsibilities are. The school does that through its organizational culture.

In some high schools, for example, the organizational culture defines athletic success as paramount. In others, especially where peer cultures predominate, norms and values push social popularity as sacred. And in others, academic effort and excellence are revered or at least valued highly enough to compete for students' attention amid many other claims on it.

The instructive role of school culture is not lost on effective leaders. John Capozzi, the principal of Elmont Memorial Junior-Senior High School near Queens, New York, explains, "In addition to [a] close emphasis on classroom instruction, we have what we call our 'hidden curriculum,' which develops personal relationships between faculty and students and deliberately works at developing character." By identifying school culture as his "hidden curriculum," Capozzi acknowledges that like the academic curriculum, the elements of school culture can be identified and taught. Elmont's 2,000 students, most of whom are African American and Latino, produce impressive outcomes. Ninety-seven percent of entering ninth graders graduate on time with a regular diploma, and 88% of its 2005 graduates earned a prestigious Regents Diploma.

At University Park Campus School in Worcester, Massachusetts, students begin learning the "culture curriculum" even before the first day of school. Entering seventh graders are required to attend a three-week August Academy. "It allows students a chance to meet their teachers, meet their peers, and experience school a full three weeks before the school year starts [and] provides them with a comfort level," says Principal June Eressy. "But the most important thing is they get to understand the culture of the school. They get to understand that we are serious about education and that we are serious about them going to college. They need to start thinking about it now to get where they need to be."

Teachers at University Park's August Academy accomplish that goal through a combination of overt messages and subtle lessons that emphasize not only academics but also the values and behaviors the school expects of students. "We work on interdisciplinary units during that time," Eressy explains. "I wanted the kids to be reading a book they could finish in three weeks, because in my experience a lot of urban kids don't finish what they start, so I want them to learn right from the get go: 'You start it, you finish it.'"

University Park establishes a "definition of the situation" that tells students they are capable young people who will work hard and go to college. The results are impressive. Although three quarters of University Park's students are low income, compared with only about 30% statewide, 90% of the school's 10th graders scored proficient or advanced on the Massachusetts mathematics assessment in 2005, beating a statewide 29% by a huge margin. And all of its students get accepted to college, with most going on to four-year institutions. Still, although many effective schools couple an ambitious academic ethos with warm, caring, and supportive relationships, Eressy warns that schools too often focus on nurturing alone. "There are too many schools that have succeeded in building warm and caring and nurturing places for kids but have failed to translate that into a culture of high expectations," she says. "That doesn't do the kids any good." Research bears out her assertion.

A large study of middle school climate involving 30,000 students in Chicago Public Schools found that social support has a positive effect on academic achievement but only when coupled with a climate of strong "academic press."

A school's culture sends signals not only to students but also to staff. Teachers and school leaders also must work to build positive norms related to their own work. According to Robert Marzano, this part of a school's culture has to do with professionalism and collegiality — whether teachers believe and act as if they can achieve positive outcomes for students and whether they support each other, working collaboratively to achieve common goals. In a study of social relations in Chicago elementary schools in the 1990s, Anthony Bryk and Barbara Schneider found that one powerful factor affecting school improvement was whether staff in the school trusted each other. Marzano advises schools to take a proactive approach to establishing a professional culture defining norms and expectations clearly, creating governance procedures that give teachers an active role in decision making, and ensuring that teachers can engage in meaningful professional development focused on improving classroom instruction in the subjects they teach.

Building a strong culture is not an overnight task. According to Bryk and Schneider, "Relational trust is not something that can be achieved simply through some workshop, retreat, or form of sensitivity training, although all of these can be helpful. Rather, relational trust is forged in daily social exchanges. Trust grows over time through exchanges where the expectations held for others are validated in action." Creating and maintaining a strong culture for students and teachers alike also depends on their understanding of "the definition of the situation" defined earlier. "For relational trust to develop and be sustained," say Bryk and Schneider, both staff and students "must be able to make sense of their work together in terms of what they understand as the primary purpose of the school: Why are we really here?"

A school's culture — positive or negative — stems from its vision and its established values. But whether the culture is strong or weak depends on the actions, traditions, symbols, ceremonies, and rituals that are closely aligned with that vision. In their study of visionary companies, Collins and Porras found that "Many executives thrash about with mission statements and vision statements [...] that evoke the response 'True, but who cares?' Building a visionary company requires 1% vision and 99% alignment."

Some schools have a generally "positive" culture that is focused on student achievement and success but too weak to motivate students and teachers. For example, school leaders might talk about values and beliefs, but no follow-up actions, traditions, ceremonies, or rituals reinforce those messages. Similarly, a teacher might be told that improving professional practice is a value but find that the school budget provides few resources for professional development or be asked to embrace a more collegial culture only to find that no time is designated for teachers to meet and plan together. In such situations, individuals are likely to arrive at their own definitions of the situation, which makes work toward common goals difficult. Even if the climate is pleasant and orderly, it is likely that teachers quietly disagree on what their primary responsibilities are and what the main purpose of the institution is, making improvement planning and instructional collaboration nonproductive. Students receive little guidance and are left to come up with their own answers to the question, "What am I here for?" Although most follow the rules, academic effort is considered voluntary.

In contrast, effective schools make sure that even the smallest aspects of daily life align with the core ideology and envisioned future. No symbol or ceremony is too minor to be co-opted into serving the larger vision. For example, fifth graders who enter Washington, D.C.'s, Key Academy middle school this fall will be asked to identify themselves as members of the "Class of 2018" the year their teachers expect them to graduate from college. Visitors to the school are encouraged to ask students what class they are in, and students invariably provide their intended college graduation date. Teachers talk frequently about what college

they attended and their diplomas hang on the walls of the school. Identification cards outside teachers' classrooms list their alma maters along with their names.

To be sure, many middle schools encourage students to begin thinking about college. But Key Academy envelops students in a ubiquitous and infectious set of symbols, ceremonies, and traditions that foster ambition and effort focused on the unifying vision — preparing every single student to go to college. Not surprisingly, the school's mostly low-income African-American students consistently garner the highest middle school assessment results in the city, and many of its graduates win admission (and sometimes substantial scholarships) to competitive public and private high schools. Staff members in effective schools also see concrete signs that reinforce the school's professed culture. If the school values raising student achievement, then the most proficient teachers are assigned to the hardest-to-reach students. If family involvement is valued, all staff learn how to engage in partnerships with parents. The core ideology is monitored, reinforced, and supported.

Hobby of the Hay Group lists five kinds of "reinforcing behaviors" as follows that send strong signals about vision and values:

- Rituals: *celebrations and ceremonies, rites of passage, and shared quirks and mannerisms.*
- Hero Making: *role models, hierarchies, public rewards, and mentors.*
- Storytelling: *shared humor, common anecdotes, foundation myths, and both oral and written history.*
- Symbolic Display: *decoration, artwork, trophies, and architecture.*
- Rules: *etiquette, formal rules, taboos, and tacit permissions.*

At Dayton's Bluff Elementary School in St. Paul, Minnesota, for example, teachers post the state academic standards and student writing that meets them on bulletin boards. Many schools do something similar, but Dayton's Bluff teachers take one extra step — translating the standards from educator language into "kid language" in order to ensure that the bulletin boards send signals to students and not just to teachers or parents in the school. Thus, the standards that reads, "By the end of the year, we expect fourth-grade students to be able to produce a narrative account that engages the reader by establishing a context, creating a point of view, and otherwise developing reader interest" bears the translation, "The beginning makes the reader want to keep reading your memoir." In schools that simply post the standards as they are written, the standards are a symbolic display targeting teachers and other staff. At Dayton's Bluff, they are a symbolic display targeting students.

When alignment is tight and the culture is strong, new students and staff members pick up on an organization's true vision and values almost immediately, whether the culture is negative or positive. According to Peterson and Deal, students "know things are different in a positive or negative way something more than just rules or procedures." Teachers are quick to get the message too. "Within the first hour of a new assignment, teachers begin to sift through the deep silt of expectations, norms, and rituals to learn what it means to become an accepted member of the school."

## Conclusion

As educators come under greater pressure to achieve much better and more equitable student outcomes, they will need to leverage every tool available to them, including organizational culture. Of course, no one suggests that changing culture is simple, easy, or quick. As Michael Fullan puts it, "Reculturing is a contact sport that involves hard, labor-intensive work." But it is a sport that must be played more aggressively if our schools are to achieve the kinds of results we now expect of them. The first step is to help educators recognize that having a strong, positive culture means much more than just safety and order.

## **Student Affective**

Schools can best support students' moral development by helping teachers manage the stresses of their profession and by increasing teachers' capacity for reflection and empathy.

Once again, the public frets about whether children are becoming good people. Both conservative commentators, such as William Bennett (2000), and researchers, such as William Damon (2001), decry a steady rise in greed, delinquency, and disrespect. And once again, the public holds schools largely responsible for remedying these troubles.

"Solutions" abound. Many character education efforts in schools now focus on everything from community service to teaching students virtues, building good habits, rewarding positive behavior, and developing students' capacity for moral reasoning (Schaps, Schaeffer, & McDonnell, 2001).

There is value in these solutions. Students surely benefit from performing community service, being reminded of important virtues, and practicing good habits. But we have been wringing our hands and trying these solutions for decades, in some cases for two centuries, without fundamentally changing students' moral prospects. The moral development of students does not depend primarily on explicit character education efforts but on the maturity and ethical capacities of the adults with whom they interact—especially parents, but also teachers, coaches, and other community adults.

Educators influence students' moral development not simply by being good role models important as that is but also by what they bring to their relationships with students day to day: their ability to appreciate students' perspectives and to disentangle them from their own, their ability to admit and learn from moral error, their moral energy and idealism, their generosity, and their ability to help students develop moral thinking without shying away from their own moral authority. That level of influence makes being an adult in a school a profound moral challenge. And it means that we will never greatly improve students' moral development in schools without taking on the complex task of developing adults' maturity and ethical capacities. We need to rethink the nature of moral development itself.

### ***Guiding Students' Moral and Emotional Growth***

During the past decade, I have spent much time in schools and talked to many students. I have observed again and again students' exquisite sensitivity to the qualities of their teachers both their fierce loyalty to the teachers they trust and their keen alertness to hypocrisy, injustice, and indifference. Research shows that even when schools are massively restructured, students often remain strangely oblivious to new structures and practices. When asked about the strengths and weaknesses of their schools after these reforms, students focus on the strengths and weaknesses of individual teachers (Warren Little, 1998).

In these relationships, moral qualities are shaped. Adults do not simply transmit moral qualities and beliefs to children. These qualities and beliefs emerge and continually evolve in the wide array of relationships that every child has with both adults and peers starting nearly at birth, and in children's felt knowledge of what is harmful, true, or right. In these relationships, children continually sort out, for example, what they owe others, what they should stand for, what traditions are worth keeping, whether to follow rules, how to contribute to their family, classroom, and community in other words, how to be a decent human being.

Should I tell my teacher when I know another student is lying to her? Do I have to say yes to the girl who invited me over and who doesn't have friends, when I would rather play with another girl I like more? Should I speak my mind about an issue that's important to me, even though I may lose friends?

Fair, generous, caring, and empathetic educators model these qualities and can effectively guide students in sorting out these questions. Often adults are also effective when they express how their own moral questions are related to children's moral questions and when they model how to think through moral issues and dilemmas.

Teacher-student relationships shape students' moral development in another sense—through their influence on students' emotional development. Most of the talk about moral development in school assumes that we can teach students to behave morally by instilling in them virtues and standards, a clear sense of right and wrong. This assumption ignores the fact that emotions are often the horse, values and virtues the rider trying to hang on. Harvard child psychologist Jerome Kagan (1995) observes that violence prevention programs that explain to students the harmful consequences of violence often don't help because “children know violence is wrong—what they can't control is the shame and destructive impulses that fuel violence.”

People do not usually lie, cheat, or abuse others because they don't value honesty and respect; more likely, they suffer from feelings of inferiority, cynicism, or egocentrism that blind them to others' feelings. Research suggests that such emotions as shame, anger, and cynicism in particular eat away at caring, a sense of responsibility, and other important moral qualities (Gilligan, 1996; Rozin et al., 1999). When people's moral beliefs conflict with their immoral actions, many will change their beliefs to accommodate their actions, not vice versa. They will justify stealing, for example, because “society is corrupt” or because “all people are basically self-interested.”

### *Complex Interactions*

What makes matters more complicated is that the influence of teachers and other adults on students' emotional and moral lives goes both ways, in complex reverberations and interactions that are often positive but sometimes clearly destructive. For example, Randall, a 7th grader who gets under everyone's skin, finds himself in a common kind of escalating war with adults. His constant antagonism makes it hard for teachers to see his perspective—one teacher calls him “a jerk,” and the principal refers to him in even harsher terms—which makes him step up his provocations, further angering his teachers and the principal. Randall is spinning out of his school community. When I ask him whom he trusts, he holds up a piece of paper that is totally blank.

Often a chain of complex interactions among home, school, and peers shapes students' moral qualities and behavior. Consider Sally, a 10-year-old with Attention Deficit Disorder. Sally has a highly anxious mother and a father prone to spikes of anger. According to her psychologist, Sally is furious with them and isolates herself at home. At school, she has become increasingly disruptive and rude: She wrote on the chalkboard that her teacher is a bitch. Her teacher has little empathy for her, not only because of these attacks but also because she feels harassed and criticized by Sally's mother. At war with both her parents and her teacher, Sally looks to her peers for support. Other students, however, find her needy and rude. Sally becomes more provocative with her teacher, and the spiral continues downward.

### *Teachers Who Make a Difference*

Many teachers, of course, are effective at identifying and turning around these downward spirals and at promoting key emotional and ethical qualities. Many teachers communicate high moral expectations and provide steady listening and opportunities for accomplishment that reduce students' shame and distrust. Many teachers learn from their own moral errors and continually develop their capacity to see the perspective of every student in their classrooms. I recently talked to a 4th grade teacher who told me that she thinks that a 10-year-old boy in her classroom has a more refined and complex sense of justice than she does—that he is more effective at working out conflicts in the classroom than she is. She said that she tries to learn from him.

I know teachers who work hard to enter the particular moral worlds of students. A high school teacher recently told me about his efforts not to condone but to understand why a student he admired had brought a gun to school. It turned out that this student went straight from school to work and returned home late at night. On his way home from the bus, he had to walk past a gang that had threatened him several times. Bringing the gun was not an act of

provocation but an act of self-defense. This same teacher told me about his struggles to understand the religious orientations that underlie some students' moral thinking. He recalled how vexed a girl in his class became when he related that he did not believe in God. How can I respect your judgment and guidance, the student asked openly, if it is not rooted in a belief in God? The teacher realized the depth of his student's religious feelings. I have observed that other teachers consciously try to take the perspective of the children whom they find most frustrating.

Many teachers and administrators, however, clearly don't possess these qualities—or don't express them in their interactions with students day to day. These teachers and administrators don't reach out to struggling students, don't attempt to see students' perspectives, and have lost their idealism. What gets in the way of adults developing or expressing these qualities? And what can we do about it?

### ***Depression and Disillusionment***

Exact data are difficult to obtain, but I think that disillusionment and depression undermine large numbers of teachers in urban schools. I refer here less to the serious, acute depression that afflicts about 20 percent of U.S. adults (Beardslee, 2002) than to the steady drizzle of helplessness and hopelessness that can wear teachers down.

The litany of stresses that these teachers bear has become well known. They can't get textbooks and other materials; they feel stranded, marooned in their classrooms; they don't get adequate support from administrators; they don't believe that they have the skills to deal with problems that they confront every day. Even those teachers who develop the skills and knowledge to work effectively with individual students often become overwhelmed when they realize what it would take to work effectively with every struggling student in their classroom. "As a human, I may never be up to this," one told me.

A colleague who recently directed an institute for new teachers in Boston believes that new teachers suffer a kind of *learned helplessness*—a term coined by Martin Seligman at the University of Pennsylvania—a gradual sense of losing control (Peterson, Maier, & Seligman, 1993). You can hardly set foot in an urban school these days without also hearing about the burden of managing students with behavior troubles. Some teachers feel physically at risk. One of my former graduate students was hurt while physically restraining a 2nd grade student; another 7-year-old told her that he was going to kill her. She came into my office in a kind of moral shock, a disbelief that this state of affairs existed. Most teachers have brought to this work their hearts and souls, and many have lost the belief that they can make a real difference in students' lives.

Research documenting what happens to adults when they get depressed may shed light on what happens to teachers who feel this chronic sense of helplessness and become burned out. Depressed adults often become unilateral and commanding in their interactions with other people. Their behavior tends to be governed by their own moods and needs rather than by an awareness of others. They tend to take the path of least resistance and do what requires the least effort. Often they become withdrawn, irritable, critical, or sometimes outright hostile (McLoyd, 1990). What's hard for them are exactly the qualities—empathy, patience, persistence, consistency, idealism—that are crucial for teachers to shepherd students' moral growth.

### ***Misconceptions About Adults' Moral Development***

Yet there may be a bigger obstacle to adults developing important moral qualities, and that obstacle is a fundamental cultural misconception about the nature of adults' moral lives. Most adults, including most teachers, don't view themselves as engaged in their own moral growth. We have the peculiar notion that our moral natures are established by late childhood—and that as adults, we simply live out the die that is cast.

Yet new models of adult development suggest that adults' ethical qualities do not remain static at all—they zigzag depending on many factors (Noam, 1995). Some adults

become more generous and compassionate over time; others become more selfish. Some adults become wiser, more able to distill important moral truths; others' notions of fairness become more formulaic or coarse. Many people lose their moral enthusiasms. Every stage of adulthood brings both new moral weaknesses and new moral strengths.

This capacity for change means that the typical adult has not reached his or her moral potential. King Lear does not develop compassion or a mature sense of justice until he nears death. Schools face the challenge of creating cultures in which teachers come to view appreciating and being generous to others, acting with fairness and integrity, and formulating mature and resilient ideals as evolving and subtle capacities. "There is nothing noble in being superior to somebody else," civil rights leader Whitney Young says. "The only real nobility is in being superior to your former self."

Much of what passes for character education in schools simply has no influence on adults' emotional or moral qualities. The constant exhortations that teachers receive to become better role models generate by themselves neither the internal commitments nor the external guidance and support that teachers need to develop these qualities. Minimally, an effective moral education effort would include specific strategies for helping adults deal with disillusionment and helplessness and would focus on creating a culture that supports teachers in their emotional and moral growth.

### *Toward Effective Moral Education*

Schools clearly can't respond to all the troubles that lead to helplessness and hopelessness in teachers. But they can focus on two prime causes: the strain of dealing with students with behavior troubles; and isolation.

Many schools now put a priority on helping teachers work with students with behavior problems, not only because these problems are so fraying to teachers but also because the problems undercut the learning of all students in the classroom. Happily, programs exist to help teachers deal effectively with these students. The best give teachers specific strategies and break down teachers' isolation, creating stronger, more caring school communities. An example is the Child Development Project, an elementary school program designed, implemented, and evaluated by the Developmental Studies Center in Oakland, California (Battistich et al., 1991). Among the many supports provided, teachers learn effective discipline strategies and receive help in developing students' intrinsic motives to act constructively and cooperatively, including engaging students in rule setting, decision making, and problem solving. Over the past four years, I have worked in two Boston elementary schools with Robert Selman, Bethany Montgomery, and Alison Auderieth on a similar project, which trains a diverse cadre of graduate students to work with schools on these goals.

Schools might also assist in getting the small number of teachers suffering from serious depression into treatment. Such treatment has dramatically improved in the past 25 years (Beardslee, 2002). I am certainly not suggesting that school administrators identify depressed teachers and pressure them into getting therapy. But schools could play a much bigger role by participating in the National Institute of Mental Health's ongoing public education campaign on depression awareness and screening, including using posters and other materials to inform both parents and teachers about the symptoms of depression and about treatment resources.

Although a mountainous literature exists on depression, psychologists have remarkably little understanding of disillusionment. They don't even have a vocabulary for talking about it. But disillusionment—especially the loss of a belief that they can make a difference in students' lives—is one of the biggest reasons that nearly one-half of teachers in the United States leave the profession within their first five years (*Education Week*, 2001). Disillusionment is not necessarily bad. Strictly speaking, disillusionment is freedom from illusion. It is the ability to face and absorb a greater portion of reality—a foundation for



wisdom and maturity. But disillusionment turns pernicious when it slides into helplessness and passivity—when teachers don't have the confidence, support, or opportunities for the creativity needed to master these realities.

There is a great deal of talk these days about stronger, more coherent mentoring programs for new teachers, and these new programs are vital for helping teachers work through disillusionment. Mentors can assist teachers in developing their competence and talents, but they can also be responsive to teachers at precisely those moments when new teachers' images and expectations about teaching collide with difficult realities. Mentors can help new teachers be realistic and take pride in seemingly small accomplishments.

Mentors can also help new teachers think about creative, diverse career paths within the teaching profession that might enable them to use their talents and have a larger impact on students' lives. Research suggests that using their talents and growing professionally are significantly more important than status or salary in boosting teachers' morale (Heath, 1994). A growing chorus of educators and researchers now call for revamping teachers' career opportunities to allow teachers to become innovative and entrepreneurial—for example, enabling them to start their own programs, conduct research, take sabbaticals in the private sector, or assume leadership roles.

Such changes as these should be one piece of a broad effort to support both teachers' ethical growth and their ability to guide students' ethical growth. New modes of professional development focused on improving instruction can teach us much in this regard. District 2 in New York, for example, has attracted attention for revamping professional development so that teachers regularly observe and reflect on one another's practice. Veteran professionals with expertise in such important content areas as literacy also coach teachers.

School districts need to do much more to promote professional cultures that focus on both academic instruction and developing adults' ethical awareness and skills. Teachers, guided by coaches, could provide feedback to one another on such topics as earning respect and trust, creating a caring community, dealing with challenging students, and identifying and reversing the downward spirals in which students and adults get caught.

None of this, of course, will be easy. But it doesn't have to be yet another task for schools already burdened with the hard work of improving instruction. Much of the work can be done in the context of what schools should be doing anyway to support new teachers and to promote good instruction, and much of it—creating strong communities, helping teachers manage students with behavior problems, increasing adults' capacity for reflection—will certainly serve academic goals. Best of all, this approach, unlike so many current character education efforts, stands a real chance of nurturing in children the qualities that they need to become caring and responsible adults.

## **Conclusion**

Teachers need opportunities to reflect on why they have difficulty empathizing with particular students, on their successes and failures in cultivating students' moral thinking, and on the state of their own ideals. Teachers need emotional support from their colleagues in dealing with chronic stress. And administrators need to learn the art of creating opportunities for this emotional support without turning schools into the kinds of therapeutic cultures that would estrange many teachers.

## **RESEARCH RELATION**

There is substantial evidence in the literature to suggest that a school principal must first understand the school's culture before implementing change (Leithwood *et al.* 2001). Bulach (1999) stated that a leader must identify a school's existing culture before attempting

to change it. Leonard (1999) studied the dynamics and complexities of a school culture when teacher values were compatible or in conflict with school culture, with predictable results. Mortimore (2001) warned us that we should concentrate on establishing more knowledge about the complex interactions between culture and schooling. Lakomski (2001) studied the claim that it is necessary to change an organization's culture in order to bring about organizational change and concluded that there is a causal relationship between the role of the leader and organizational learning. Taylor and Williams (2001) argued that as accountability through tests has become a threat, school principals need to work on long-term cultural goals in order to strengthen the learning environment. Fullan (2001) contended that the concept of instructional leader is too limited to sustain school improvement. He promoted the idea that school principals serve as change agents to transform the teaching and learning culture of the school.

Testimony from successful school principals suggests that focusing on development of the school's culture as a learning environment is fundamental to improved teacher morale and student achievement. Nomura (1999) advised that school principals' understand their school's culture. Reavis *et al.* (1999) explored how a new school principal at a historically low performing high school brought about changes in the school culture and how it positively affected student achievement. Kytle and Bogotch (2000) examined school reform efforts through a 'reculturing', rather than a 'restructuring', model. They found that real and sustained change is more readily achieved by first changing the culture of the school, rather than by simply changing the structures of the way the school operates and functions. School principals who choose to lead rather than just manage must first understand the school's culture. It is important to realize that culture is complex because it has very unique and idiosyncratic ways of working. When an organization has a clear understanding of its purpose, why it exists and what it must do and who it should serve the culture will ensure that things work well. When the complex patterns of beliefs, values, attitudes, expectations, ideas and behaviours in an organization are inappropriate or incongruent the culture will ensure that things work badly. Successful school principals comprehend the critical role that the organizational culture plays in developing a successful school.

#### *Relationship between culture and climate*

Organizational culture and climate have been described as overlapping concepts by theorists (Miner 1995). Hoy *et al.* (1991) offered a distinction between climate and culture, with school or organizational climate being viewed from a psychological perspective and school culture viewed from an anthropological perspective. Differences between school climate and culture are highlighted in organizational studies. Often the climate is viewed as behaviour, while culture is seen as comprising the values and norms of the school or organization (Hoy 1990, Heck and Marcoulides 1996). Lunenburg and Ornstein (2004) described organizational climate as the total environmental quality within an organization and believe that the recent attention to the effectiveness of public schools and their cultures has shed more interest on the importance of climate. The relationship between culture and climate was supported by Schein (1985, 1996) when he stated that norms, values, rituals and climate are all manifestations of culture. In addition, the relationship of culture and climate is further supported by McDougall and Beattie (1998), as well as by the early studies of Schneider and Reichers (1983). Even though the conceptual distance between culture (shared norms) and climate (shared perceptions) is small, it is nonetheless real (Hoy and Feldman 1999). Hoy and Feldman believed that this difference is meaningful and crucial because shared perceptions of behaviour are more readily measured than shared values. They described climate as having fewer abstractions than culture (more descriptive and less symbolic) and concluded that climate presents fewer problems in terms of empirical measurements. Climate is the preferred construct when measuring the organizational health of a school.

#### *Climate*

Freiberg and Stein (1999) described school climate as the heart and soul of the school and the essence of the school that draws teachers and students to love the school and to want to be a part of it. This renewed emphasis on the importance of school climate was further reinforced by a meta-analysis study performed by Wang *et al.* (1997), which found that school culture and climate were among the top influences in affecting improved student achievement. Their study also found that state and local policies, school organization and student demographics exerted the least influence on student learning.

According to Hoy and Tarter (1997), unhealthy schools are deterred in their mission and goals by parental and public demands. Unhealthy schools lack an effective leader and the teachers are generally unhappy with their jobs and colleagues. In addition, neither teachers nor students are academically motivated in poor schools and academic achievement is not highly valued. Healthy schools that promote high academic standards, appropriate leadership and collegiality provide a climate more conducive to student success and achievement (Hoy *et al.* 1990). The overwhelming majority of studies on school climate in the past have focused on teachers and leader– teacher relations and subsequent issues of job satisfaction. Miller stated 14 years ago that school climate has rarely been studied in relation to its effect on student achievement (Miller 1993). In recent years the emphasis on climate has shifted from a management orientation to a focus on student learning (Sergiovanni 2001). The reform efforts of the last 30 years have failed to improve student achievement in schools because they failed to adequately address the importance of the culture and climate of schools (DuFour and Eaker 1998). The first major purpose of a school is to create and provide a culture that is hospitable to human learning (Barth 2001). Structural changes made to improve schools without addressing the culture and organizational health of schools have predictably not been successful (Sarason 1996).

Since the culture and climate of the school affects student achievement (Maslowski 2001, Hoy *et al.* 1990, 2006) and the school principal directly influences the culture and climate (Hallinger and Heck 1998, Leithwood *et al.* 2004), the question should be asked: what characteristics of school climate should the principal address in order to most effectively encourage and increase student achievement?

#### *Importance of the school principal*

There is substantial evidence concerning the importance of leadership in creating good schools (Freiberg 1999, Blase and Kirby 2000, Donaldson 2001, Sergiovanni 2001, Snowden and Gorton 2002). Ultimately, the relationships that shape the culture and climate of the school are strongly influenced by the school principal. ‘In schools where achievement was high and where there was a clear sense of community, we found invariably that the principal made the difference’ (Boyer 1983: 219). Hallinger and Heck (1998) proposed that the principal does not directly effect student achievement, but rather indirectly effects learning by impacting on the climate of the school.

This perspective on indirect effects also occurs in more recent and more complex models for research into principal leadership. Leadership is no longer proposed as having a direct influence on learning outcomes but as having an indirect influence through the way it has an impact on school organization and school culture. (Witziers *et al.* 2003)

Current research has additionally suggested that the principal’s influence has an indirect effect on learning and is mediated by their interactions with others, situational events and the organizational and cultural factors of the school (Hallinger and Heck 1998, Hoy *et al.* 2006, Leithwood *et al.* 2004). Leithwood (1992) referred to principals as ‘change agents’ and suggested that they impact on the school through transformation of the school culture. Maslowki (2001) further stated that an association exists between leadership values and behaviours and school culture and that different school cultures can be identified with different consequences for student outcomes. Furthermore, research studies exploring the indirect effect of principal leadership on student outcomes have suggested that educational

leadership is related to the organization and culture of the school, which is related in turn to student achievement (Witziers *et al.* 2003).

Fairman and McLean (1988), in their work with dimensions of organizational health, believed that diagnosing the climate or health of schools in order to capitalize on existing leadership strengths and to identify improvement priorities should be the goal of every school principal. Deal and Peterson (1999) defined symbolic leadership as the ability to understand and shape the culture of the school. A school principal that creates a culture that promotes and encourages learning is absolutely essential in order to improve student achievement in schools (Freiberg 1999, Sergiovanni 2001). Successful leaders have learned to view their organizations' environment in a holistic way. This wide-angle view is what the concept of school culture offers school principals. It gives them a broader framework for understanding difficult problems and complex relationships within the school. By deepening their understanding of school culture, these leaders will be better equipped to shape the values, beliefs and attitudes necessary to promote a stable and nurturing learning environment which impacts student performance (Bossert *et al.* 1982). The connection between effective school cultures and leadership is supported by educational research (Leithwood and Jantzi 1990, Leithwood 1992, Hallinger and Heck 1998, Freiberg 1999, Sergiovanni 2001, Leithwood *et al.* 2004).

#### *Focus on climate*

School principals who care and focus on the specific aspects of the dimensions of school climate that affect the culture of the school promote student achievement (Pellicer 2003). As stated by Fairman and Clark (1982) in more precise and descriptive language, healthy schools are schools that exhibit the following types of cultures, also known as dimensions of organizational health: goal focus, communication, optimal power equalization, resource utilization, cohesiveness, morale, innovativeness, autonomy, adaptation and problem-solving adequacy. In addition, there are specific aspects or dimensions of the climate that significantly influence student achievement in schools (Busch 2003, McLean *et al.* 2005). Comparisons between school climate and student achievement can help school principals' focus their efforts to improve student achievement. Saranson (1996) stated that if we want to change and improve the outcomes of schooling for both students and teachers, there are features of the school culture that must be changed. The efforts of policy-makers and school principals to improve student learning in American schools have had less than the expected results education leaders need to reframe and refocus their leadership efforts. Simply altering the structure and expectations of schools has failed over the last 50 years. Schlechty (1997) suggested that structural change that is not supported by cultural change will fail because it is in the culture that any organization finds meaning and stability. Educational studies of school change have isolated the organizational culture of schools as a critical factor to the successful improvement of teaching and learning (Fullan 2001). Deal and Peterson (1999) stated that study after study has confirmed that the culture of the school and its resulting climate must support reform or improvement will not occur. Improvements in student achievement will happen in schools with positive and professional cultures that reflect a positive school climate.

### **Summary**

Strong school cultures have better motivated teachers. Highly motivated teachers have greater success in terms of student performance and student outcomes. School principals seeking to improve student performance should focus on improving the school's culture by getting the relationships right between themselves, their teachers, students and parents. Measuring school climate and using these assessments to focus the school's goals on learning is important for the process of improving the school's academic performance.

## **PART 3**

### **METHODS**

This research is qualitative using comparative descriptive method. Through this research, the overview of the hidden curriculum implementation in Indonesia and Thailand can be figured out. Next, the factors that cause the certain phenomena, for example, there are similarities or differences in implementation can be analyzed. This method is an ex post factor research.

The sampling technique in this study using purposive sampling technique. The sample schools are 3 from Indonesia (Yogyakarta Special Province) and 3 from Thailand (Songkhla and Krabi Provinces). All schools are elementary school level. Schools from Indonesia are SD Muhammadiyah Bodon, SD Muhammadiyah Kadisoka, and SD Muhammadiyah Karangturi. While schools from Thailand are Anuban Muslim Krabi School, Songserm Sasana Vitaya School (SSVS), and Sangkhomislam Wittaya School (SWS).

There are 3 variables of hidden curriculum that be analyzed i.e organizational, social, and culture. The indicators of those variable are measured from some indicators, namely the implementation of team teaching, the policy for grade promotion, the students grouping, the curriculum focus, the school efforts for character development, and student affective. To collect the data, the instrument is a depth-interview and observation technique. The collected data is then processed, reduced, analyzed to get a conclusion.

## **PART 4**

### **DATA ANALYSIS**

In this part researcher present about data analysis, Comparative Study on Hidden Curriculum in Accordance to the School Culture Development Indicator between Thailand and Indonesia. There are 3 variables of hidden curriculum that be analyzed i.e organizational, social, and culture. The indicators of those variable are measured from some indicators, namely the implementation of team teaching, the policy for grade promotion, the students grouping, the curriculum focus, the school efforts for character development, and student affective. To collect the data, the instrument is a depth-interview and observation technique. The collected data is then processed, reduced, analyzed to get a conclusion.

#### **Team teaching**

##### **Interviewee1**

The lesson plan is based on National Curriculum. It must be done before the school start. Teacher can modify the lesson plan according to the need but must refer to the National curriculum.

##### **Interviewee2**

Work together on lesson plan preparation, we hold it once a year before the school start. Teacher has their own authority to decide how to archive the goal in the curriculum. There will be teacher community to decide the lesson plan and the way to achieve the curriculum.

##### **Interviewee 3**

Team teaching in Indonesia has two teachers when teachers in classroom, they use the same lesson plan, and the goal of teaching but not all the school in Indonesia do this way in teaching usually only one teacher in the class.

##### **Interviewee 4**

The teachers usually work together to arrange the lesson plan depending on the subjects.

##### **Interviewee 5**

They work together in making lesson plan but teachers can modify the material by themselves.

##### **Interviewee 6**

In Indonesia, the teacher teaches English in the class individually. They teachers Themselves. Sometimes, they discuss about material in the same level in school

##### **Interviewee 7**

We are greeting lesson plan together before the teaching get started. Teacher should prepare lesson plan one by one. The curriculum is always improved and probably be changed regarding to the focus of education. It could change for 3 or 4 years. We are using many kinds of media for teaching, for example slide show, cards, pictures.

Interviewee 8

In our school, we work as a team. We always discuss and talk in weekly meeting. In the meeting we will talk about what we teach and problems that we will face in classes. We also have workshops yearly to improve the teacher skill, such as speaking skills, reading and writing skills. According to the materials and teaching aids, we will discuss about then with our plans to see if they are suitable to the learning teaching objectives. Because each course will be different in its content and context. Therefore, if any teacher in the group has any difficulties about it, we will talk to each other.

### **Grade promotion**

Interviewee 1

If a student failed the exam, one must stay at the same level for the next year. Each school has their own standard. The favorite school has higher standard than average school. There is no remedial for national exam.

Interviewee2

Students have to stay in the same level if they cannot pass the test. Some school has their own standard to pass the student to the next level. There are remedial program but depends on the teacher and what kind of test. The final examination from government for primary 6, junior high school 3, senior high school 6 there will not be remedial program.

Interviewee3

Grade promotion in Indonesia depend on the student test result in Indonesia we have two kinds of student evaluation first daily test that is given by the teacher and second midterm final test that is given by the nation education department. If student do not pass the test, they will not be able to continue the next grade they have to wait in a year.

Interviewee4

There is no grade promotion in Indonesia. The grade promotion is only for university students. But the school has the standard for the students so they can see whether the students fail or not in learning process.

Interviewee5

Each subject has different minimum point/score. Students don't pass the test, then they will take the remedial test to reach the minimum point. If they don't pass again, they should stay in their level.

Interviewee6

Indonesia does not have 0-4 grades. They only have 0-100. For M.1-2 M.4-5 they have to pass 75 point. For M.3&6 they have to pass about 50 point, It is lower

Interviewee7

The students who can pass the minimum standards can't sustain to the next level. It means that the students have to stay in the same class for a year. This matter encourages the students to have better score to avoid staying at the same level.

Interviewee8

We have the same criteria and standard of evaluation and grading students' performance. For the new teachers, they have to learn about these criteria of evaluation. The grading system of our school is 0-4. And the marking system will be according to the course outline and course description. Throu roughly. If they have any question about the information or how to grade, they need to ask in the meeting or ask friends in the team who can help.

### **Student grouping**

Interviewee1

There is no separation for student according to their ability. Student grouping is only when they are at secondary 5 to choose science, social, or language concentration.

Interviewee 2

Student were divide randomly each class, not by certain skills. In senior high school there will be a focusing subject class like science class, social class, and language class. Some teachers will give more treatment to some students that were the teacher's think they need to be give some treatment.

Interviewee 3

This based on the school policy in Indonesia school we also have specific/ program for example English program (another linguistic class) that all the student has skill or ability to choose their own class program. For regular class in Indonesia school do mixing all of student competency in learning so there is no profit.

Interviewee 4

The classes aren't divided by the student skill. In Senior High school, the classes are divided by the students' interest: Science, Social and Language class. This helps them to what Major they want to choose in university.

Interviewee 5

The students are mixed in each level, Elementary, junior, and senior High school. But in senior High School, the Students are grouped into several group such as Language Major, Social Major, and Science Major.

Interviewee 6

There is no special student grouping. Teacher helps the teacher who lower to be able understand in English by divided group. Separated Mix. Smart and low to be one. The student are allowed to help each other English. In M. 4-6, there is 3 classes Sains, Social Language.

Interviewee 7

The students are grouped into several stages like a, b, c usually the fast learners are placed in 19 and followed by the next ones. We use different treatment for different levels of students (Fast and low learners treated differently) and the methods applied are also different.

Interviewee 8



Indonesian teachers will dine students by games or activities such as numbering students. Sometimes they will ask students to work in pairs and individually.

## **Curriculum Focus**

### **Interviewee 1**

There is National curriculum as a reference for teachers to make their lesson plan. The curriculum set by minister of education.

### **Interviewee 2**

There will be standard in national curriculum for all school level but only for national examination in primary 6 secondary 3 and 6. There are a lot of book that has content that fulfill the national standard. There are standard of each school to pass the student to the next level.

### **Interviewee 3**

Difference policy in every minister of education. Indonesia use national curriculum. The teacher makes his own syllabus for every subjects. The teacher has to make lesson plan. They have to make yearly report before the school begins.

### **Interviewee 4**

For example: English. In Indonesia, English is taught for 4 skills only. They are listening, speaking, reading and writing. If the teachers want to teach about grammar or culture, they put them in those skills.

### **Interviewee 5**

It focuses on the competent standard, the curriculum is also focusing on how to make the students are able to learn or study.

### **Interviewee 6**

Curriculum which is used in Indonesia called Curriculum National. English teacher is not allowed to teach whole day. But they have to be Facilitator. Students learn English by themselves. Teacher only help the students.

### **Interviewee 7**

The curriculum focused mainly at improving students comprehensive having good attitude and also social awareness. The government support the students school fee from the students don't have to pay a lot, but in some cases, many school which change the students for paying several of activities.

### **Interviewee 8**

Indonesian teachers have to adjust themselves from the beginning because they have to learn Thai students' culture. So they came to talk to Thai teachers about how to manage the students. If teachers can tell in the meeting or discuss with the Thai teachers at the first stage.

## **School Culture Development**

Interviewee 1

Indonesia doesn't have special event to celebrate the teacher's day. The school day is from Monday to Saturday.

Interviewee 2

There is celebration in teacher's day but not for all school and the teacher from civil servant has to celebrate it. A lot of extra curriculum activities that the student should join but for secondary 3 and 6 they should not join because they have to prepare for the national examination.

Interviewee 3

We have teacher day. Different uniform. We have to wear the national uniform. (civil convent only) Students in national school use batik (Thursday) Student in private school (mooslem school) use veil and long skirt, shirt (girl) boy uses syaricloth. On Monday we do flag ceremony.

Interviewee 4

In Indonesia, the students and teachers usually celebrate the certain day like Education's Day, Hero's Day etc. by holding the ceremony. But the school will hold an event to celebrate its birthday like holding a concert, fun bike, many competitions, etc.

Interviewee 5

Schools in the village and the city are quite different from the environment and the building. In the village, there are still many mountains and trees. Besides, the building only has two floors. In the city, there are less such mountains and trees. Besides, the building is also high such 4 floors with lift too.

Interviewee 6

There is no teacher's day. There are many extracurricular activities: basketball, volleyball, music, art, etc. They have competition with another school; 1 competition 1 province 1 time per year.

Interviewee 7

The students are emphasized to respect the older ones by activities, shaking hands and smiling. The students like joining many kinds of school activities, English, math, social, sport.

Interviewee 8

Our school is Islamic school. So the school culture is according to the Islamic practices. There are some activities that all students and teachers need to do such as prays, fasting and so on. All teachers and students have to have dress code related to Islamic practices both males and females. In class, teachers will aware of this culture and they will teach each subject with adding Islamic values.

## **Student Affective**

Interviewee 1

The student are encouraged to involve in learning process by question and answer with the teacher. Giving presentation in group in front of the class.

Interviewee 2

Student prepared to involve with the education process. Highly appreciation to extra curriculum activities.

Interviewee 3

Student must be active. Student must prepare their self seriously before the examination. Student must do all the tasks before they leave the school. Student may choose their own extra civiler

Interviewee 4

It actually depends on the students same as Thailand, the students are sometimes interested to certain. Subjects but they are sometimes not interested at all. The students prefer to study outside the class. That's why they have good appreciation to extracurricular activities.

Interviewee 5

Each school has different extracurricular. Students are really interested in many activities. Even, they can join in two activities for example Joining volleyball and also music. The students have the group or community to handle the activities.

Interviewee 6

Students are able to help each other in every subject. More enthusiastic in answering questions and accept challenges of teachers. Good appreciation to extracurricular activities. Students have the good liveliness of group.

Interviewee 7

Technique for improving IQ: playing puzzle, drawing, calculating, writing story outdoor activity public speaking.

Interviewee 8

The activities that the teachers have in class will develop students' knowledge and characteristics such as confident and skills. Each class the students have to perform and practice their skills such as speaking and listening, reading and writing, and so on. As a result, students will be more confident and more skillful. The kids in the primary level can speak will the teachers confidently.

## Summarize

After data analysis, researcher will be synthesis and summarize, grouping the implementation of team teaching, the policy for grade promotion, the students grouping, the curriculum focus, the school efforts for character development, and student affective.

No Aspect	Summarize
<b>Team teaching</b>	Team Teaching The lesson plan is based of National Curriculum. It must be done before the school start. And the teacher can modify the lesson plan. It is planned to teach once a year and this depends on each course, many materials can help to teach or take the conversation to teach. The teacher can decide to way lesson plan to the achieve the curriculum. And each the week to have a discuss about teaching, each issue of class. Each the year to have the workshop. And every 3- 4 years must be improve the curriculum.
<b>Grade promotion</b>	Grade Promotion In Indonesia, grade promotion is depends on the students' test result. If the students fail the exam, they must stay at the same level for learning again next year. There have two kinds of student evaluation first daily test that is given by the teacher and second midterm final test that is given by the nation education department. And Indonesia doesn't have 0 - 4 grades as same as Thailand but they have only 0 - 100 points.
<b>Student grouping</b>	Student grouping In the classroom, there's not separation the students according to their ability. The students are mixed in each level. The teachers will divided students by games or activities such as numbering students. The lower and higher students will help each other to learning. And the students will give more treatment to some students who don't understand the lesson.(The lower and higher students treated differently.)
<b>Curriculum Focus</b>	Curriculum focus In Indonesia, there is National curriculum as a reference for teachers to make their lesson plan and it depend on a minister of education. The teachers have to make their own syllabus for every subject and they must make a yearly report before the school begin. The curriculum is comprehensive education standard and it focus on integrating or child center on the students' learning.
<b>School Culture Development</b>	School culture development Most of school in Indonesia is Islamic school. It opens on Monday to Saturday. There are celebration in Teacher's day. They have to wear a national uniform. For example, they wear Batik uniform on Thursday. They have many extracurricular activities. There is competition with another school; 1 competition of 1 province for 1 time per year.
<b>Student Affective</b>	The techniques used in build emotion quality such as the activity, s group, drawing or speaking in public. The build confidence and proficiency in listening, speaking, reading and writing. Each schools have to curricular different which each students will have different interest.

**Table 1**data analysis

## **Conclusion**

The implementation of team teaching, the policy for grade promotion, the students grouping, the curriculum focus, the school efforts for character development, and student affective.

### **Team teaching**

#### **Thailand**

In our school, we work as a team. We always discuss and talk in weekly meeting. In the meeting we will talk about what we teach and problems that we will face in classes. We also have workshops yearly to improve the teacher skill, such as speaking skills, reading and writing skills. According to the materials and teaching aids, we will discuss about then with our plans to see if they are suitable to the learning teaching objectives. Because each course will be different in its content and context. Therefore, if any teacher in the group has any difficulties about it, we will talk to each other.

#### **Indonesia**

We are greeting lesson plan together before the leaching get started. Teacher should prepare lesson plan one by one. The curriculum is always improved and probably be changed regarding to the focus of education. It could change for 3 or 4 years. We are using many kinds of media for teaching, for example slide show, cards, pictures.

### **The policy for grade promotion**

#### **Thailand**

We have the same criteria and standard of evaluation and grading students' performance. For the new teachers, they have to learn about these criteria of evaluation. The grading system of our school is 0-4. And the marking system will be according to the course outline and course description. Throu roughly. If they have any question about the information or how to grade, they need to ask in the meeting or ask friends in the team who can help.

#### **Indonesia**

The students who can pass the minimum standards can't sustain to the next level. It means that the students have to stay in the same class for a year. This matter encourages the students to have better score to avoid staying at the same level

### **The student grouping**

#### **Thailand**

The students are grouped into several stages like a, b, c usually the fast learners are placed in 19 and followed by the next ones. We use different treatment for different levels of students (Fast and low learners treated differently) and the methods applied are also different.

#### **Indonesia**

Indonesian teachers will dined students by games or activities such as numbering students. Sometimes they will ask students to work in pairs and individually.

## **The Curriculum Focus**

### **Thailand**

Indonesian teachers have to adjust themselves from the beginning because they have to learn Thai students' culture. So they came to talk to Thai teachers about how to manage the students. If teachers can tell in the meeting or discuss with the Thai teachers at the first stage.

### **Indonesia**

The curriculum focused mainly at improving students comprehensive having good attitude and also social awareness. The government support the students school fee from the students don't have to pay a lot, but in some cases, many school which change the students for paying several of activities.

## **The school efforts for character development (School Culture)**

### **Thailand**

Our school is Islamic school. So the school culture is according to the Islamic practices. There are some activities that all students and teachers need to do such as prays, fasting and so on. All teachers and students have to have dress code related to Islamic practices both males and females. In class, teachers will aware of this culture and they will teach each subject with adding Islamic values.

### **Indonesia**

The students are emphasized to respect the older ones by activities, shaking hands and smiling. The students like joining many kinds of school activities, English, math, social, sport.

## **Student Affective**

### **Thailand**

The activities that the teachers have in class will develop students' knowledge and characteristics such as confident and skills. Each class the students have to perform and practice their skills such as speaking and listening, reading and writing, and so on. As a result, students will be more confident and more skillful. The kids in the primary level can speak will the teachers confidently.

### **Indonesia**

Technique for improving IQ : playing puzzle, drawing, calculating, writing story outdoor activity public speaking.

## PART 5

### RESULT AND DISCUSSION

In this part the researcher will present result of research and discussion.

#### **Team teaching implementation**

The main objective of the team teaching policy is to serve student with the suitable teachers by their relevant disciplines and competences. Data of this implementation are collected using in-depth interviews. From the interview, 20% teachers from three elementary schools of Thailand shared roles and responsibilities on team teaching implementation. This data were collected from grade IV and VI of student of Muslim Anuban Krabi School, Songserm Sasana Vitaya School (SSVS), and Sangkhomislam Wittaya School (SWS). The implementation of team teaching at these three schools is not routinely every teaching and learning activity but only on certain subjects e.g English and Malay Languages. The consideration on choosing this strategy is the availability of teacher who can speak those language. The shortage of foreign teachers to teach both language become the reason to use team teaching strategy.

On the team teaching implementation, all teacher entered the classroom together at the same time but they have different subjects to teach. Planning, implementation, and evaluation of the teaching and learning activity was conducted together. The team teaching steps are follow:

1. Preparation. Team develop the lesson plan and select the learning strategies. The agreement on this plan will make them to support each other during teaching and learning process.
2. Implementation. Every team member has a turn to teach and to deliver learning materials. While one teacher deliver the material, another one encourage students to motivate on learning.
3. Evaluation. All teachers evaluate the learning process together using agreed method and make the student learning result. The purpose of this technique is to make sure that the student learning result is objective.

Data of the team teaching implementation in Indonesian schools were collected from SD Muhammadiyah Kadisoka, SD Muhammadiyah Bodon, and SD Muhammadiyah Karangturi. The result is slightly different from schools in Thailand. At those school, the implementation one was not fully team teaching. For example on subject of reading Quran, teachers divided student to small group. Each group will be assisted by one teacher. In the beginning, all teacher would make a lesson plan; but each teacher had own authority to implement and to evaluate the teaching and learning process independently. Another example found at SD Muhammadiyah Bodon, as a team, teachers made a lesson plan together and next each teacher would teach at different parallel class independently. It means that two teachers or more who has the same subjects will plan and develop the evaluation system before teaching. Then, they will distribute the parallel class according to the agreement.

#### **Grade Promotion Policy**

There are some different between Indonesia and Thailand school one the grade promotion policy. Almost all schools in Thailand requires teachers to promote students to a higher grade every year. There is no minimum qualification on controlling the specific competencies as requirement for grade promotion. One hundred percent of the students had to go up to the next grade despite of unable to read and to write yet. Based on data obtained

from teacher interviews, only about 25% of fourth grade students were able to write and to read the alphabet. The rest can only understand the language and write Thai. There is no specific treatment for students who need guidance to meet the expected competencies. All students receive the same treatment during their learning.

In contrast to the policy in Thailand, schools in Indonesia have specific requirements on grade promotion. Students will get their next grade if they master at certain competencies as required in the curriculum. Teacher will assist student who does not reach a certain competence; and the better student could learn further learning material for enrichment. There is remedial activity to support student achievement. More than 50% of primary school students of grade one in Indonesia has been able to read and write.

### **Student Grouping**

Indonesia education system see the grouping based on certain skills is important; but in Thailand. Based on the results of depth interviews, students in Thailand were not grouped by a particular capability. All students are considered equal and receive the same treatment on their learning process. Differently at school in Indonesia, especially in Yogyakarta, some schools have policy to group students into some categories based on their ability. This is as a consideration related to the proper treatment to students. Students with high ability will be given the opportunity to continue to the next competence. While students with lower abilities specifically guided to master the competency.

### **The Curriculum Focus**

The focus of curriculum is important on education. It will contribute the successful of teaching and learning activities. Based on The Ministry of Education of Thailand, core competencies of students, consist of:

(1) Communication Capacity. The indicators of this ability are capacity to receive and transmit information; linguistic abilities and skills in expressing one's thoughts; knowledge and understanding, feelings and opinions to exchange information and experiences; negotiations to solve or to reduce the problem; the ability to distinguish and choose information in proper reasoning and good judgment; and the ability to choose an efficient communication method, considering the negative impact in society.

(2) Thinking Capacity. This capability includes: the ability of analysis, synthesis, construct, critical and systematic led to concept discovery in order to make wise decisions.

(3) Problem-Solving Capacity. It is ability to solve the problem including the ability: to eliminate obstacles precisely, to use information accurately, to find and to apply the knowledge to prevent and solve problems; and to make decisions wisely, to sensitive to the possibility of negative impact of a problem.

(4) Capacity for Applying Life Skills. It includes ability to implement various processes in everyday life; to learn independently; to have life long learning habit; and to harmonize social life by strengthening interpersonal relationships; to eliminate conflicts in proper way; to selfadjustment to follow social and environmental change; and to avoid unwanted negative behavior.

(5) Capacity for Technological Application. It includes the ability to select and implement technologies; have skills on the application of technology to the self development and community learning, and ability to solve problems constructively, appropriately, and meaningfully.

The characters are internalized in the Thailand consist of love of the homeland, religion and king; honest and has integrity; self-discipline; great desire to learn; observance of



the principle of sufficiency economy philosophy of how a person's life; dedication and commitment to work; the properties appreciate the Thailand; and open thinking.

In Indonesia, the current curriculum is the competence based curriculum called KTSP (*Kurikulum Tingkat Satuan Pendidikan*). In this scheme, the implementation of the curriculum based on the needs and conditions of learners to master certain competencies to be useful for them. To ensure this achievement, students must be served with good quality education, as well as an opportunity to express themselves freely, dynamic and fun. KBK includes:

- (3) Professing religion considering the child development phases
- (4) Understanding positive and negative own character.
- (5) Complying to the applied rules in the social environment.
- (6) Respecting diversity of religion, culture, ethnics, races, and socioeconomic groups in the surrounding environment.
- (7) Using information logically, critically, and creatively about the environment.
- (8) Demonstrating ability to think logically, critically, and creatively with the guidance of a teacher/ educator.
- (9) Showing a high curiosity and realize its potential.
- (10) Demonstrating the ability to solve simple problems in everyday life.
- (11) Demonstrating ability to recognize the natural and social phenomena in the surrounding environment.
- (12) Showing love and concern for the environment.
- (13) Showing love and pride to the nation, the state and the homeland of Indonesia.
- (14) Demonstrating ability to perform activities of local arts and culture.
- (15) Showing clean living habits, healthy, fit, safe, and enjoy free time.
- (16) Communicating clearly and politely.
- (17) Working together in a group, mutual help, and keep yourself in a family environment and peers.
- (18) Showing indulgence to read and write.
- (19) Demonstrating listening, speaking, reading, writing, and arithmetic skills.

Comparing both competencies from Indonesia dan Thailand, it can be said that there is no significant differences only on how to group it. In the detail analysis, it should be checked the hidden curriculum affecting the student characters and abilities.

### **The school efforts for character development(School Culture Development)**

The culture development of primary school (Prathom I-VI) in Thailand has similar characteristics with one in Indonesia in term physical, living values, and positive habits embedded on students. Every schools in Thailand still has strong original native culture. Probably it is affected by the history that Thailand was never colonized by other country. There are also private schools that usually based on religion (Islam, Catholics) and owned by certain social foundation. For example, one of the sample schools i.e Songserm Sasana Vitaya School Foundation has Islamic schools network in several provinces. This school is relatively growing rapidly in Southern Thailand. Total students at pre-school, primary school (Prathom), junior and senior high schools (Mathayom) is relatively many with parallel classes in each level. The infrastructure of both public and private schools are adequate for teaching and learning process. In some schools, the principal or other managers usually has home stay at the location of the school for instant at Sangkhomislam Wittaya School (SWS) in Hat Yai.

At the southern part of Thailand, Government requires to use Yawi language in the teaching and learning process. Therefore, students would have nationalism and respect for the King. In Thailand, the king is regarded as a representative of God; He has strong position and is always in the hearts of people. This culture is one of the living values that exist among Thailand students. The othes cultural values are to maintain clean environment, discipline,

and persistent to the ideology. For example, discipline culture can be seen on the using school uniforms, scouting all schools for every week as an extra-curricular activities.

Teacher is a highly respected profession in Thailand. There is a culture called *Wai Khru* or honoring the teacher. *Wai khru* is usually held at the beginning of the academic year on Thursday of June. The celebration of *Wai Khru* carried out by students with solemn respect to their teachers. They thank their teachers for having taught them over the years. Celebrations in *Wai Khru*, every student comes to school bringing flowers for teachers. This celebration is carried out by all students in Thailand from kindergarten to high school. *Wai Khru* is conducted in the yard of school opened by the principal, the students line up and bring flower. Then, the celebration would continued with a praying together led by a monk.

The key of successful education in Thailand is the curriculum which based on science and technology. It can be seen from all the research based products. The result is a superior and qualified agricultural products, such as guava, rice, mango, etc. This orientatin is taught from early education.

Similar to Thailand education, elementary school culture development in Indonesia refers to the three categories i.e physical artifacts, values, and assumptions. Its implementation concerning the school physical condition, the believed values at every school, teacher-student interaction, as well as hidden curriculum development. In some Islamic elementary school in Indonesia, at the sample school, the information and communication technologies skill is more highlighted then other skills. This requires the integration of ICT in every aspect. But on the other school, for example SD Muhammadiyah Sape, it has vision and mission focused on students' character building. Students are trained to respect each others, respect to the other opinion, discipline, independent learner, working together, and to be honest. Green school development has also become the focus in SD Muh Bodon and SD Negeri Giwangan based on the Adiwiyata standards issued by the Ministry of Environment.

Muhammadiyah schools implement the culture development through student organizations activities such as martial arts activities, scouting, Muhammadiyah Youth Association, and others. Other forms of development carried out in primary schools in Indonesia are reading habit, honest, clean, disciplined and efficient, collaboration, trust, and high achievement. These all activities affect the increasing performance of the management, teachers, and students.

## Student Affective

From the observation data, the profile of primary school students in Indonesia and Thailand as a result of the implementation of the hidden curriculum is compared. Indicators were referred to Bloom's Taxonomy which the aspect consist of receiving, responding, valuing, organization, and characterization. The result showed that Indonesian students are more enthusiastic in answering questions and accept challenges of teachers than students Thailand. Response of Indonesian students to other students in solving problems was better than students from Thailand. On the valuing aspects represent the attitude and appreciation of school activities, attitudes toward teachers. On this aspect, Indonesian and Thailand students have similar appreciation of the extracurricular activities in school. On the indicator of attitudes toward teachers, Thailand students have a better profile than student from Indonesia. Thailand teachers are regarded as second parents during the school day. Teachers provide services and guidance better than teacher from Indonesia. Thailand teacher does not have special rooms at school. Classrooms are teachers room where they always interact with students during at school. But in Indonesia, teachers have specific room. They would be in the classroom for teaching process only.

Aspects of the organization include the attitudes of students on managing time and activities. Indonesian students have the ability to schedule a better organization than in Thailand. But, on the ability to consider opinion of themselves and other students; Thailand

students have strong convictions against his opinion and greatly value students. Indonesian students have the liveliness of a good group.

## Discussion

As mentioned before, there are 3 variables of hidden curriculum that be analyzed i.e organizational, social, and culture. The indicators of those variable are measured from the implementation of team teaching, the policy for grade promotion, the students grouping, the curriculum focus, the school efforts for character development, and student affective. From the research finding, in general table 1 below shows the summary of hidden curriculum implementation comparing Indonesai and Thailand schools.

No	Aspects	Indonesia	Thailand
1	Team teaching	Work together on lesson plan preparation	Work together during all learning process
		Each teacher has authority independently	All teachers are member of team, shared role and responsibility
2	Grade promotion	Student possible to stay in the same grade based on the student exam	Almost all children get grade promotion
		There is a remedial program	There is no remedial program
3	Student grouping	Students are grouped based on certain skills	No explicit student grouping
		Giving specific treatment for lower skilled student	All students have the same treatment during learning
4	Curriculum Focus	There is national standard of competences for all school level	There is national standard of competences for all school level
		There is a standard learning book for student	There is no standard learning book for student
		There is comprehensive education standard	There is comprehensive education standard
		More focus on integrating ICT on learning	More focus on integrating technology based product on learning
5	School Culture Development	No special celebration for teacher day	There is WaiKhru for celebrating teacher day
		There are many extracurricular activities	There are many extracurricular activities
		Student give good respect to teacher and other student	Student give better respect to teacher and other student
		Teacher rooms are available at school	No special teacher room. The classroom is teacher room
		Student serve themselves for their lunch	Teacher serve student lunch and have lunch together
		There is no national policy on student skill focused for every school	There is national policy on student skill focused for every school
6	Student Affective	More enthusiastic in answering questions and accept challenges of teachers	Higher respect and appreciate to teacher
		Good appreciation to extracurricular activities	Good appreciation to extracurricular activities
		Students have the good liveliness of group	Students have strong convictions against his opinion

**Table 2** Comparison of Hidden Curriculum Implementation

A difference in the implementation of team teaching gives a different picture also on the learning process. Team teaching provides many advantages, especially for pedagogical and intellectual executors. Team teaching can create a learning environment that is more dynamic and interactive (Little & Hoel, 2011). This strategy requires the ability to think higher because teachers with different skills should jointly deliver a certain material collaboratively (Leavitt, 2006). The positive impact of the use of team teaching studied which states that the use of strategy, team teaching and traditional teaching showed a significant difference in learning achievement (Jang, 2006; Little & Hoel, 2011). Teaching in Thailand held a full team interdisciplinary so that a positive impact on increasing teacher collaborative, encouraging the discovery of new learning strategies, allowing the observation between peers that occur naturally, as well as give an opportunity for mutual learning. According to its positive impact is a full team teaching interdisciplinary can improve the professional competence of teachers who carry it out. So from this side, Thailand seeks to enhance the professional competence of teachers through team teaching full policy while Indonesia is merely semi team teaching.

Differences occur in the learning process of the two countries is about the readiness of teachers. Teachers in Thailand less optimize the use of media; lesson planning is not well prepared. Thailand teachers focus more on how to serve the needs of students during the school day, such as serving lunch, assisting students in work on the problems, and helping students' learning difficulties. Instead of teachers in Indonesia are preparing instructional media including ICT-based media at the beginning of learning. This impact probably appears on the level of interaction of teachers and students during the school day. Teachers in Thailand are considered as second parents for students and vice versa in Indonesia are also similar but there is a presumption that there is a higher level of formality.

In the schooling management, Indonesia is still superior in some aspects, such as the administration of learning, division of tasks and responsibilities of teachers and education staff, use of instructional media, and evaluation of learning. In Indonesia, there are clear rules on the duties and responsibilities of teachers and education staff. It is somewhat different with in Thailand. Teachers tend to do things in school. The impact is although the organization of schools in Indonesia is better, but no impact on the results of student performance. At least if the PISA rank is used as a reference. The absence of standards of competence in school achievement Thailand makes more creative teachers to develop learning. Instead of teachers in Indonesia has provided standardized teacher handbook. This tends to make teachers in Indonesia has a high dependence on existing books. In terms of the grouping of students, schools in Indonesia carry out a system of grouping students based on academic ability. The teacher groups implicitly for the purposes of the suitable treatment the student needs. Students with high ability are given the opportunity to continue to the next competence. Students with lower abilities specifically guided to master competencies. This policy is tailored to the demands of the existing curriculum. This policy does support the achievement of national education, but not on giving the same treatment to students. There is a possibility that the low ability students would feel inferior because it is explicitly being in different groups. This will not happen at school explicitly Thailand who always put students together even implicitly gives a different concern in assisting in the classroom daily. Thailand teacher's actions can be done because the teacher is always in a class all school activities. The teacher-student interaction is very important to enhance learning environment; it positively affect the higher student learning performance (Liberante, 2012; Beutel, 2010).

The tight school recruitment in Indonesia makes the appearance of favoritism school and brings competition among students. Instead, the selection at school in Thailand is not too tight. It raises the level of variation more diverse capabilities. Interaction of teachers and students in good schools Thailand became the driving spirit of student learning. The positive thing is the evaluation of learning is used to describe the ability of the students, not as a guideline for making a decision on the increase of the classroom. Student grouping system is

not recommended in this country because it was feared would harm the students who were classified in the lower group. This is in accordance with the opinion which states that grouping students can impact non-academic competencies and learning opportunities of students. Misplacement of students in the low group may limit the need for students to learn on further competence. Most teachers do not like to teach in lower group because it considers that the lower group is slower in understanding the learning material. This will have an effect on students' motivation of the lower group. Student grouping in Indonesia use assumption that the homogenous group would improve learning performance; as mention on some research too (Adodo & Agbayewa, 2011). But, Thailand education decision maker has another asummpion i.e heterogenous grouping would improve the student soft skills aspect. School cultures are unique and distinctive; they are created and re-created by people considered members of a context; i.e., teachers, students, parents, and communities, among many others(Hongboontri & Keawkhong, 2014; Macneil, Prater, & Busch, 2009).Based on the school culture development, Thailand and Indonesia have similar activities. There was no significance difference on artifacts, values, and assumptions aspects. Various soft skill activities in both countries were implemented and appreciated by student similar. It can be said that this aspect gave relatively different effect on student performance. Soft skills in school activities of these two countries support the effective abilities of students as well. Cohesive school culture development is very important for student (Gün & Çağlayan, 2013; Hongboontri & Keawkhong, 2014). Nowadays, school can improve student performance if it shouldfocus on improving the school's culture by getting the relationships rightbetween themselves, their teachers, students and parents(Macneil, Prater, & Busch, 2009). As a result, reconstructing or reshaping school culture is also regarded as significant fortransforming school administration and promoting educationcurriculum reform and educational innovation(Zhu, Devos, & Li, 2011).

## Conclusion

This research studied on three variables of hidden curriculum that be analyzed i.e organizational, social, and culture. The indicators of those variable are measured from the implementation of team teaching, the policy for grade promotion, the students grouping, the curriculum focus, the school efforts for character development, and student affective. For some reason, every country has own policy on education. The decision will effect the result of its implementation. Hidden curriculum as unwritten curriculum give student performance differently between schools in Indonesia and Thailand. Each school of both countries has specific positive and negative benefit on the hidden curriculum implementation indicators. From the finding, the most factor which affect the student learning performance as the outcome of both formal and hidden curriculum is the teacher and student interaction. More intensive positive interaction will give better student learning performance on many aspects.

## Discussion

As mentioned before, there are 3 variables of hidden curriculum that be analyzed i.e organizational, social, and culture. The indicators of those variable are measured from the implementation of team teaching, the policy for grade promotion, the students grouping, the curriculum focus, the school efforts for character development, and student affective. From the research finding, in general table 1 below shows the summary of hidden curriculum implementation comparing Indonesai and Thailand schools.

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## APPENDIX





Thaksin University

Karnchanawanit Rd., Khaorupchang. Muang District, Songkhla 90000, THAILAND

[www.tsu.ac.th](http://www.tsu.ac.th) Email : vahachart@gmail.com

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March 4, 2016

Dear Director

Sangkhomislam Wittaya School (SWS)

The Department of Educational Administration, Faculty of Education, Thaksin University will be collect data for research. "Comparative Study of Hidden Curriculum in Accordance to the School Culture Development Indicator Between Indonesia and Thailand" We will visit you for seeing your school culture in March 2016 (you set a day which you can)

We would like to thank you in advance for your cooperation and look forward to hosting you and the delegation at our campus.

Your sincerely,

*R. Vehachart.*

Assist. Dr. Rungchatdaporn Vehachart

Head of Educational Administration Department

Faculty of Education

Thaksin University



Thaksin University

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February 2, 2016

Dear Director

Skolah Kebangsaan Seri Indra

The Department of Educational Administration, Faculty of Education, Thaksin University will be collect data for research. "School management Multicultural society Thai-Malaysia " . We will visit you for seeing your administrative affairs at Skolah Kebangsaan Seri Indra in March 2016 (you set a day which you can)

We would like to thank you in advance for your cooperation and look forward to hosting you and the delegation at our campus.

Your sincerely,

Assist. Dr. Rungchatdaporn Vehachart

Head of Educational Administration Department

Faculty of Education

Thaksin University



Thaksin University

Karnchanawanit Rd., Khaorupchang. Muang District, Songkhla 90000, THAILAND

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March 4, 2016

Dear Director

Anuban Muslim Krabi School

The Department of Educational Administration, Faculty of Education, Thaksin University will be collect data for research. "Comparative Study of Hidden Curriculum in Accordance to the School Culture Development Indicator Between Indonesia and Thailand" We will visit you for seeing your school culture in March 2016 (you set a day which you can)

We would like to thank you in advance for your cooperation and look forward to hosting you and the delegation at our campus.

Your sincerely,

Assist. Dr. Rungchatdaporn Vehachart

Head of Educational Administration Department

Faculty of Education

Thaksin University

## Letter of Intent (LoI) for Joint Research

### Purpose:

The purpose of this Agreement is to promote research activities through cooperation between all universities member in accordance with framework agreement and any treaties pertinent to this Agreement, if any, and thereby creating new and useful research results that can be disseminated from Indonesia, and Thailand and eventually widely contributing to education society.

### Joint Research Identity

The research specification is hereto

1. Research Commencement Date: February 1, 2016
2. Research Theme: Education
3. Research Title: Comparative Study of Hidden Curriculum in Accordance to The School Culture Development Indicator Between Indonesia and Thailand
4. Assumption of Roles of Research:
  - Ahmad Dahlan University, Indonesia: collect the data, analyze the data, interpret the result, write an journal paper with other partners.
  - Thaksin University, Thailand: collect the data, analyze the data, interpret the result, write an journal paper with other partners.
5. Research Expenses. Each party hereto shall in principle bear any and all expenses necessary to fulfill its respective role.
6. Lead researchers from both sides shall be as follows:
  - a. Ahmad Dahlan University
    - Dr. Dwi Sulisworo
    - Email: [sulisworo@gmail.com](mailto:sulisworo@gmail.com)
  - b. Thaksin University
    - Dr. Rungchatchadaporn
    - Email: [vhachart@gmail.com](mailto:vhachart@gmail.com)
7. This Joint Research period shall be one year from the Research Commencement Date.

Date: February 9, 2016



Asist.Prof. Dr.Rungchatchadaporn Vehachart  
Educational Administration Department  
Faculty of Education Thaksin University



## CURRICULUM VITAE

### A. PERSONAL INFORMATION

Name : Asst. Prof. Dr. Rungchatchadaporn Vehachart

Gender : Female

Race : Thai

Religion : Buddhism

Date of Birth : 21 September 1969

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### B. HIGHER EDUCATION

Name of institution	Year	PhD/Master/ Degree/ Diploma	Major field
Burapha University	1991-1993	Degree	Elementary Education
Burapha University	1996-1998	Master	Educational Administration
Burapha University	2003-2005	Doctor	Educational Administration

- RungchatchadapornVehachart. (2010). "A model of development for academic administration decentralization of lab schools in the lower southern area". Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences Volume 9, 2010, Pages 991–995 World Conference on Learning, Teaching and Administration Papers.
- RungchatchadapornVehachart. (2010). "The development of supervision for total quality management in basic education institutions in the three southern border provinces" Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences Volume 9, 2010, Pages 954–957 World Conference on Learning, Teaching and Administration Papers
- RungchatchadapornVehachart. (2012). "Operation in Educational Administration Development of Values about the Sufficiency Project Presented by E-Book". Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences Volume 46, Pages 1-5940 (2012) 4th World Conference on Educational Sciences (WCES-2012) 02-05 February 2012 Barcelona, Spain.
- RungchatchadapornVehachart. (2013). "Learning management Using Laptop Computers Songkhla Primary Educational Area Office1". Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences (2013) 5<sup>th</sup> World Conference on Educational Sciences (WCES-2013) 05-08 February 2013 Sapienza University of Rome , Italy.
- RungchatchadapornVehachart.(2014). "Educational Management of Thai Language School in Malaysia : Case Study in Kedah State". 7<sup>th</sup> Annual International Conference on Mediterranean Studies, Thaksin University, Thailand. 14-17 April 2014, Athens, Greece : Abstract Book 54, (p.54)
- RungchatchadapornVehachart.(2015). "Desirable Characteristics of School Administrators in the Context of Multicultural Society in the Three Southern Border Province". International Business&Education Conferences Proceedings June 7-11 ,2015. London, United Kingdom.
- RungchatchadapornVehachart. (2016) "School Culture as a Foundation for Education Quality Enhancement" Proceeding of international Joint Seminar the Contribution of Education Institution to ASEAN Economic Community. February 1 2016. Johor Bahru, Johor, Malaysia.
- RungchatchadapornVehachart and Others.(2016). School Administration in a Multicultural Society : A Case Study of Thailand and Malaysia. Educational Administration Department, Thaksin University
- RungchatchadapornVehachart and CharasAtiwithayaporn. (2016). "Professional Teacher" Proceeding of International Joint Seminar. The Contribution of Education Institution to ASEAN Economic Community. Published by Graduate Program Universitas Ahmad Dahlan Indonesia.
- RungchatchadapornVehachart.(2016). "Education in Thailand". Proceeding of International Joint Seminar. Human Resource improvement in the Current ASEAN Economic Community (AEC) Through a Psychological Perspective August 8<sup>th</sup> Muang, Songkhla ,Thailand

## Letter of Intent (LoI) for Joint Research

### Purpose:

The purpose of this Agreement is to promote research activities through cooperation between all universities member in accordance with framework agreement and any treaties pertinent to this Agreement, if any, and thereby creating new and useful research results that can be disseminated from Indonesia, and Thailand and eventually widely contributing to education society.

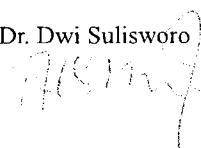
### Joint Research Identity

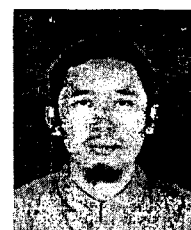
The reserach specification is hereto

1. Research Commencement Date: February 1, 2016
2. Research Theme: Education
3. Research Title: Comparative Study of Hidden Curriculum in Accordance to The School Culture Development Indicator Between Indonesia and Thailand
4. Assumption of Roles of Research:  
Ahmad Dahlan University, Indonesia: collect the data, analyze the data, interpret the result, write an journal paper with other partners.  
Thaksin University, Thailand: collect the data, analyze the data, interpret the result, write an journal paper with other partners.
5. Research Expenses. Each party hereto shall in principle bear any and all expenses necessary to fulfill its respective role.
6. Lead researchers from both sides shall be as follows:
  - a. Ahmad Dahlan University  
Dr. Dwi Sulisworo  
Email: sulisworo@gmail.com
  - b. Thaksin University  
Dr. Rungchatcadapon  
Email: vhachart@gmail.com
7. This Joint Research period shall be one year from the Research Commencement Date.

Date: January 15, 2016

Dr. Dwi Sulisworo





## CURRICULUM VITAE

### A. PERSONAL INFORMATION

Name : Assoc. Prof. Dr. Dwi Sulisworo

Gender : Male

Race : Javanese

Religion : Islam

Date of Birth : 14 May 1967

Place of birth : Yogyakarta, Indonesia

Marital Status : Married

Mailing address : Suryowijayan MJ I/ 292, RT 15, RW 02, Yogyakarta,  
Indonesia, 55142

Phone : +6281328387777

Email : dsw\_uad@yahoo.com; sulisworo@gmail.com;  
dwi.sulisworo@uad.ac.id

Citizenship : Indonesia

Passport number : A 1562972

Name of institution	Year	PhD/Master/ Degree/ Diploma	Major field
Institut Teknologi Bandung	1986-1992	Degree	Aeronautics Engineering
Institut Teknologi Bandung	1994-1996	Master	Management and Industrial Engineering
Universitas Negeri Malang	2000-2004	Doctor	Educational Technology



### C. PUBLICATION last 5 years

#### Journal

- [1] Dwi Sulisworo and Darmawati, D. (2011) "Balance Scorecard And Objective Matrix Integration For Performance Targeting Method of Infocom Business". Indian Journal of Commerce and Management , Studies, Vol II Issue-4, India, pp. 55-65, ISSN 2229-5674
- [2] Dwi Sulisworo, Ahdiani, U., Basilio, F. (2011) "Integrating RAISE Model and Objective Matrix as Performance Measurement Approach for HEIs". The Upland Farm Journal, Vol 20 No. 1, pp 121-133, Philippine,ISSN 1655-5287
- [3] Dwi Sulisworo and Nurmaningsih, S. (2011)"Pembobotan Sasaran Strategis Perspektif BSC Pada Perusahaan Air Minum" Jurnal Ilmiah Teknik Industri, Vol. 10 No. 1, pp.22-28, ISSN 1412-6869
- [4] Dwi Sulisworo (2012)"Model Kepemimpinan Modern di Program Pascasarjana Universitas Ahmad Dahlan". Journal of Education and Learning, Vol 6 No 1, pp. 43-50, ISSN 2089-9823
- [5] Dwi Sulisworo (2012) "Designing the Online Collaborative Learning Using the Wikispaces". International Journal of Emerging Technologies in Learning (iJET), Vol 7, No 1, pp. 58-61, ISSN: 1863-0383
- [6] Dwi Sulisworo (2012) "Enabling ICT and Knowledge Management to Enhance Competitiveness of Higher Education Institutions". International Journal of Education, ISSN 1948-5476, pp. 112-121, Vol. IV, No. 1
- [7] Dwi Sulisworo, Tawar, and Ahdiani, U. (2012) "ICT Based Information Flows and Supply Chain Management in Integrating Academic Business Process". International Journal on Advanced Science Engineering Information Technology, Vol 2 No 6, pp. 44-48, ISSN 2088-5334
- [8] Dwi Sulisworo (2012) "Effect of Gender and Learning Strategy to Student Learning Motivation". International Journal of Learning and Development, ISSN 2164-4063, Vol II no 6, p.49-61
- [9] Dwi Sulisworo (2013) "Meningkatkan Motivasi Mahasiswa untuk Berani Berpendapat di Depan Publik". Jurnal Wahana Aplikasi Pendidikan & Informasi yang Baik (WAPIK), ISSN:2303-3061.

- [10] Dwi Sulisworo (2013). "The Paradox on IT Literacy and Science's Learning Achievement in Secondary School". *International Journal of Evaluation and Research on Education*, Vol II no. 4
- [11] Dwi Sulisworo dan Fadiyah Suryani (2014) "The Effect of Cooperative Learning, Motivation and Information Technology Literacy to Achievement". *International Journal of Learning & Development*, Vol. 4, No. 2 , 58-64.
- [12] Dwi Sulisworo, Ishafit Jauhari, dan Kartika Firdausy (2014) "Pengembangan Sistem Manajemen Pembelajaran Kooperatif Secara Mobile Berbasis Sistem Operasi Android". *Indonesian Journal of Curriculum and Educational Technology Studies*, Vol 3 No 1
- [13] Dwi Sulisworo (2015) "The Role of M-Learning on The Learning Environment Shifting at High School In Indonesia". *Malaysian Journal of Learning and Instruction (MJLI)*. Under reviewed
- [14] Dwi Sulisworodan Novitasari Sutadi (2015) "The Effect of Science Learning Cycle Method To Enhance Physics Conceptual Understanding and Student Learning Independence". *Contemporary Educational Research Quarterly*. Under reviewed
- [15] Dwi Sulisworo, Ishafit dan Kartika Firdausy (2015) "Jigsaw Cooperative Mobile Learning Application for Improving Student Achievement". *International Journal of Interactive Mobile Technologies*. Under reviewed
- [16] Sofin Azizah, Dwi Sulisworo, Yudhiakto Pramudya (2015) "Dialogical Interactive Learning Media Development Using Puppet Figure on Solar System Subject". *Jurnal Pendidikan Fisika Indonesia*. Under reviewed