DEVELOPING EFFECTIVE PRINCIPALS

IN INDONESIA

by

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Developing Effective Principals in Indonesia

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ABSTRACT

        In an attempt to contribute to the development of
effective principals in Indonesia, this project conducted a
literature review of the role of effective principals in
North America. Effectiveness is defined as making gains on
behalf of students. There are four dimensions of principal
behaviors considered most important to effective schools:
goals, factors, strategies, and decision making. Goals,
factors and strategies are the content upon which decisions
are made for actions.

        The findings of the literature review are compared to
the present development of principals in Indonesia.
Principals in Indonesia seem to be less effective than North
American principals in setting goals, and making strategies
and decisions for action.

        To develop their effectiveness, two planned training
programs are recommended, one for elementary principals and
another for general secondary principals. Prospective
principals should also participate in these training
programs and some aspects of teachers' and vice-principals'
experiences should be identified and examined as useful
preparation for future principals.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The Background

It has been noted that, quantitatively, the most outstanding social development in Indonesia is in education. The push for quantitative development was rooted in the principle of right and justice which came with national independence in 1945. Article No. 31 of the Constitution states that every citizen shall have the right to receive education; the government shall organize and carry out a national education system to be regulated by the Acts of the Parliament.

This provision provides the legal justification for compulsory education for all, at least those of elementary school age. For this reason, on May 2 ,1984, the government proclaimed compulsory education for children of 7 to 12 years of age. Indonesia started in the beginning of her independence in 1945 with less than 10 per cent literacy rate. Now the literacy rate of children under 12 years of age has reached almost 100 percent.

Another reason for rapid quantitative development is the strong conviction that education is a pre-condition of rapid modernization and a route to social and economic development of the individual.

This belief generated a tremendous private demand for education. Moreover, the belief that education is a necessary investment for economic development has led economic and educational planners alike to insist on formalized schooling for all school children in the community.

Although several efforts have been made, the push for quality development is not in balance with the push for quantitative development. Developing effective schools, for example, through organizational development, teacher training, curriculum development, and achievement testing, has not yielded important results.

Developing effective principals, one of the potential interdependent solutions of the problem in developing effective schools, is no different. Preparation and training programs for principals are frequently unplanned. Most training programs are mainly intended to introduce or maintain administrative order, or for the implementation of curriculum renewal, or of new policies from either the Representative Office of the Department of Education and

Culture in the provinces or the Central Office of Ministry of Education and Culture. If programs are to be devised that will better develop principals for their complex tasks, we then must determine what kinds of experience are extremely useful to principals.

The Purpose

The main purpose of this project is to:

a. study the development of effective principals in North America (Canada and USA), their roles and practices.   .

b. study the present development of principals in Indonesia, their role, pre-service and in-service training.

c. assess the applicability of North American practices, and use them to design training programs to help develop effective principals in Indonesia.

The Problems

To develop effective principals in Indonesia, four problems can be identified and stated in question form:

1. How can principal effectiveness be defined?

2. What dimensions of principal actions (behavior) have the most direct influence on school effectiveness?

3. Are the systems and strategies for principal training being used in North America feasible for Indonesia?

4. What kinds of training are considered necessary and appropriate for principals in Indonesia?

Methodology

The project is designed to develop a policy and program for developing effective principals in Indonesia. The method involves the analysis of the North American literature on principals and its application to the situation in Indonesia. This review will describe the development of effective principals in North America (Canada and USA), then the present development of school principals in Indonesia, their role, pre-service and in-service training. Also the applicability of North American practices to the development of principals in Indonesia will be assessed, and finally, training programs considered necessary for the development of school principals in Indonesia will be discussed, followed by conclusions and recommendations.

Data about school principals in Indonesia are available from records of the Ministry of Education and Culture. Regarding principals in North America, data are collected

from a review of research literature, that is, relevant journal articles, books and graduate theses. Information was found on such things as the meaning of principal effectiveness, characteristics and actions that are particularly useful in relation to school effectiveness, and the pre-service and in-service training necessary for principals.

Organization of the Project

The project is organized into six chapters. The first chapter introduces and states the purpose of the project, the problems it considers, the methodology and the organization of the project.

Chapter Two defines principal effectiveness. An overview of important literature and related research studies are also included.

Chapter Three discusses four categories of principal actions that have the most direct influence on school effectiveness.

Chapter Four presents a description of what Indonesia really needs from principals. This chapter describes principals in Indonesia at present and discusses how North American roles of principals can best be matched to Indonesia's needs.

Chapter Five presents training programs considered necessary for principals in Indonesia.

The last chapter presents a summary and recommendations.

CHAPTER 2

HOW CAN PRINCIPAL EFFECTIVENESS BE DEFINED?

There are many criticisms aimed towards schools that
cannot produce high standards of student academic
achievement. The criticisms mostly come from parents whose
sons and daughters cannot move on to the "prestigious
colleges or universities", as Lightfoot (1983, p. 8) calls
them, because of their low academic achievement. They
question whether school educators have done their best to
improve student academic achievement. Achievement is one
kind of school outcome parents are concerned about.

Schools have many things to accomplish. One dominant
function is to educate - to provide "worthwhile knowledge
and understanding" (Kazepides 1987, p. 16), or to "stimulate
intellectual growth and related attitudes and values"
(Leithwood and Montgomery 1986, p. 5) of the students. To
improve this function is, in a broader sense, to improve
school effectiveness. This may require improvement in
principal effectiveness.

It is generally assumed that principals are key factors
in developing school effectiveness. But principals have
complex and challenging tasks to perform. The complexity of

their tasks arises from the conflicting demands of various interest groups - the government, the community, parents and the need to fulfil the demands with limited resources. Educational experts have been trying to define principal effectiveness. Defining principal effectiveness is not an easy task. A lot of research gives many different interpretations of principal effectiveness. Judgments of effectiveness depend on which outcome is valued most. The characteristics which should provide a framework for evaluation of the principal effectiveness or school effectiveness are not so clear.

This circumstance is due to at least two reasons: Firstly, Hasenfeld and English (1974) state that the difficulty in accurately evaluating any service institution is largely because of a lack of:

> ... clear and operative definitions of the desired outcome and in adequate knowledge of about cause-effect relations. The first constraint results in the problem of defining what ought to be the criteria for effectiveness. The second constraint limits the ability of the organization to evaluate and measure the consequences of the actions it takes in altering the attributes, behavior or position of its client (p. 21).

Secondly, an adequate definition of the effective school has always been elusive. Schools are complex organizations with many inputs, process and outputs. Therefore, effective schooling researchers have sought to narrow criteria by which the school can be considered effective.

Purkey and Smith (1983), who have reviewed various research on school effectiveness, present the most widely accepted definition of an effective school, that is,

> one 'characterized by high evaluations of students, high expectations, high norms of achievement, with the appropriate pattern of reinforcement and instruction' in which students 'acquire a sense of control over their environment and overcome the feeling futility which ... characterize the students in many schools' (p. 435).

They conclude that effective schools not only have high student achievement, but also provide effective organizational structure and climate to support daily school activities.

Effective principals have been identified as those individuals practicing in effective schools. As the criteria for rating effective schools are based on standardized academic achievement scores in reading and in some cases in mathematics, the rating of the school principals as also bound by these restraints.

Bossert et al. (1982) believe that "effective principals create the conditions providing coherence toward schools' instructional programs, conceptualizing instructional goals, setting high academic standards, staying informed of policies and teachers' incentives for learning, and maintaining student discipline" (p. 35). This study interprets the research data as indicating that there are four major areas of leadership which must be considered: goals and production emphasis, power and decision making, organization and/co-ordination, and human relations. These require the attention of school principals whose responsibility is to ensure that effective leadership is occurring in all areas.

Brookover et al. (1982) in their study <u>Creating Effective Schools</u> identify three aspects of the school which combine to create the school learning environment: ideology, organizational structure and instructional practices.

Within the organizational structure of the school, Brookover
et al. (1982) state further that effective principal is
defined as an instructional leader who promotes effective
instruction and high achievement for all students.

Hallinger and Murphy (1982) proposes three dimensions
which constitute issues the effective principal must attend
to: defining the school mission, managing the instructional
program, and promoting a positive school learning climate.
These dimensions should be incorporated by listing the
components of dimensions in the form of job functions to
which the principal must attend.

Mackenzie (1983) identifies three dimensions of
effective schooling: leadership, efficacy and efficiency.
Although he concentrates on effective schooling research,
however, strong leadership, characterized by effective
instructional management behaviors of principals is critical
to the success of the effective school. He approaches
effective schooling from a total-systems view point, and
acknowledges these three dimensions of effective schooling
to be interacting. The effectiveness of one is largely
dependent upon the others.

In Fullan's (1982) chapter "The Principal", he portrays
the effective principal as an initiator or facilitator of
program change. Despite the fact that research on the

principal's role in relation to change is in its beginning, Fullan is optimistic that the current trends will reveal specific behaviors of principals who deal effectively with change. The principals who do respond to the challenge of being educational leaders are more influential and effective.

This short review shows that research about principal effectiveness gives different interpretations of principal effectiveness; it has not been very helpful on principal performance appraisal criteria.

Leithwood and Montgomery (1986) have examined 75 studies and a lot of the research allows many different interpretations of principal effectiveness. The authors say "that judgments of effectiveness seem to be highly outcome-dependent and judgments about such principal's 'effectiveness' would, as a consequence, depend on which outcome was valued most. This makes it difficult for anyone doing research on the principal's role" (p .5).

Leithwood and Montgomery propose that in defining principal effectiveness it is necessary to focus our attention on the features of schools other than the students (mediating variables) such as: the quality of teacher's work environments, organizational climate, the commitment of principals to their central tasks, physical facilities and

the like. According to the authors, effectiveness is defined by direct or indirect improvements in student growth. When effectiveness is defined in this way, the description of the effective principals is formed into behaviors capable of:

1. Reducing the costs of learning to students

    Improvement can be appreciated by manipulating costs, number of students benefiting from instruction or the novelty of outcome achieved. If curriculum objectives remain unchanged, students may achieve quicker improvement in instructional efficiency, a cost saving for students, creating the opportunity to proceed to other learning tasks which previously had been no time, and probably having favorable long term effects on student's motivation to learn. Schools that accomplished this increased efficiency would be judged as improved, particularly if the cost to the organization were also reduced. The alternative of reducing the cost of learning to students but increasing costs to the organization is conceptually viable, but would generally be regarded as unacceptable.

The same outcomes may be achieved with students at the same cost but with a saving of instructional resources. But this is not regarded as improvement of effectiveness in this context. The remaining alternatives suggested by manipulating costs to the student and to the school fail to qualify under improved school effectiveness.

2. Increasing the proportion of students mastering conventional school objectives (the basics).

Improved effectiveness occurs as more students achieve greater mastery learning program of these conventional objectives, especially if the achievement is gained at reduced or minimally increased costs to both students and the organization. Much research on principals found within the "effective schools" literature defines improvement in this way - "improved" levels of basic skills achievement.

3. Increasing overall student self-direction and problem solving capacity.

The type of improvement that perhaps comes to mind is one concerning student achievement of different or previously neglected curriculum objectives. In this situation the issue of costs cannot be dealt with so neatly: achieving new objectives may warrant some additional cost to organization, at least temporarily. It may also warrant increased student costs providing that they are offset by the benefits. An important context of principal effectiveness was a set of widely endorsed goals of education focusing on problem solving skills and student self-direction (p. 5-6).

Leithwood and Montgomery define principal effectiveness as making gains on behalf of students. They describe the effective principals incorporated behaviors capable of:

a) reducing the costs of learning to students;

b) increasing the proportion of students mastering conventional school objectives (the basics);

c) increasing overall student self-direction and problem solving capacity.

Considering the definition of principal effectiveness, Leithwood and Montgomery (1986) have given us a clearer picture, that is:

1. The term effectiveness is meant to be bound by narrow
   criteria. They have carefully defined three criteria
   that must be met in order for a principal to be
   considered effective.

2. It is true that a formula designed to describe how to
   measure the definition is not present, possibly because
   improving student achievement is extremely dependent on
   the and school situation.

3. While principal effectiveness research has presented some
   findings, it is evident that more research is needed.
   There are still many questions to be answered related to
   how to measure the behavior of the principals and what
   criteria should be used. Moreover, there is an obvious
   need to examine principal effectiveness in a variety of
   schools over a longer period of time.

CHAPTER 3

WHAT CATEGORIES OF PRINCIPAL ACTIONS HAVE THE MOST

DIRECT INFLUENCE ON SCHOOL EFFECTIVENESS?

Literature reviews on effective schooling uncover a list of characteristics typical of effective schools. Recurrent among these characteristics is the need for strong instructional leadership (Brookover and Lezotte, 1979; Edmonds, 1978; Miller, 1983; Purkey and Smith, 1983). The research shows that this leadership role becomes the responsibility of the principal who fulfils the role primarily as an instructional leader (Edmonds, 1979; Hallinger and Murphy, 1982; Bossert et al. 1982).

Organizational management and leadership research has been extensive but has focused mainly on organizational systems and traits of managers. Partly in response to the effective schooling movement, more research has been done with the objective of describing "in behavioral terms what principals do to manage curriculum and instruction in schools" (Hallinger and Murphy, 1982 p. 1).

Since providing strong leadership within the school is critical, if the principal is to be active in providing the leadership, then it follows that the principal must be aware of actions or behaviors which have the most direct influence

on school effectiveness and on "making gains on behalf of
students" (Leithwood and Montgomery, 1986 p. 7). Therefore,
this chapter will explore the research which deals with the
effective instructional management behavior of principals.
An attempt will also be made to report the behavioral
categories of the activities of the effective principal as
identified in the research.

Limitations of the Overview

This overview is not intended as an exhaustive survey
of the literature concerned with the instructional
management behavior of principals. Nor are the categories
of principal actions that have the most influence on school
effectiveness as presented in this project proposed to be
the only categories found in the study of instructional
management. As well, these behavioral categories of
administrators are not intended to be appropriate to all
schools. The findings are limited to several factors:

1. Most of the behavioral characteristics relating to
   instructional management of principals come from
   research studies which have been carried out at inner
   city schools, serving a largely poor, minority
   clientele.

2. The majority of studies have been done in elementary schools. It might be a mistake to attempt to apply the findings of these studies to the principals of secondary schools. Zikkel and Greenfield (1987) state that "ignoring the differences between elementary and secondary schools is at least as problematic for measurement of instructional leadership as it is for the measurement of academic achievement" (p. 262).

3. Generalization as to principal effectiveness as related to other valued school goals such as health and self-esteem would be inappropriate.

4. It would be difficult to relate a principal's behavior as having causal effect directly connected to an educational outcome. However, it is possible to identify effective schools and the instructional management behavior of principals operating in them. As this behavior tends to be relatively consistent between principals at schools deemed effective, exploring this avenue of research gains value.

A Brief Overview of the Literature

As it was stated earlier, research on the subject of instructional management behavior of principals is still growing and has not been particularly extensive. However,

it is closely related to the research on effective schooling
and has quite efficiently identified some of the
instructional management tasks that should be included in
the role of the principal.

This chapter will review the study of Leithwood and
Montgomery (1986) after the following considerations: (1)
Their study is based on a research review on principal's
role in school improvement (p. 203). (2) Their approach to
the improvement of principal effectiveness is developed
conceptually by linking all related variables to principal
behaviors. (3) It uses cognitive psychology and information
processing theory to better understand principal behaviors.
These authors provide a comprehensive overview of the
instructional management responsibilities that the principal
of an effective school should be aware of.

Knowing the indirect nature of much of the principal's
influence on student learning, Leithwood and Montgomery
(1986, p. 7) who focused their research studies on the
relationship between school and principal effectiveness,
conceptually approached the principal role by establishing a
series of causal links. External conditions that influence
principal behavior are linked to the principal behavior, and
the principal behavior is linked to classroom and school

variables, both of which have direct influence on student learning. Four logical consequences arise from this approach to student learning:

- Clarification of the types of outcomes valued for student improvement.

- Determination of the classroom and school variables that influence the achievement outcome.

- Determination of principal behaviors which influence the nature of those classroom and school variables.

- Determination of influences or external conditions which account for observed principal behaviors.

Leithwood and Montgomery (1986) further state that this approach provides a context for the principal role in improving school effectiveness and suggest four categories or dimensions of principal behaviors or actions that have the most direct influence. The four dimensions are goals, factors, strategies, and decision making. Based on these four dimensions the authors have classed growth in principal effectiveness in four distinct levels:

(1) Administrators. The goal of level 1 principals includes "personal survival and running a smooth ship" p. 17). They are nominally effective and focus only rules and regulations.

(2)   Humanitarians. Level 2 principals slowly shift from
       concerning from personal survival towards students'
       growth and improvement. Level 2 principals focus on
       climate and interpersonal relationships.

(3)   Program managers. Level 3 principals focus on program.

(4)   Problem solvers. Level 4 principals focus on students.

The authors describe how these dimensions of behaviors
are interdependent:

       Goals serve as a basis for helping them determine which
       factors to attempt to influence. Having decided which
       factors to influence, principals engage in an array of
       strategies (interventions) to influence. Principal's
       decisions about goals, factors and strategies are
       determined by their direct experiences with their
       understanding of those dimensions of behaviors. Their
       decisions are also dependent upon their perceptions of
       a relatively open-ended set of influence impinging on
       them, such as curriculum, and administrative policies,
       interventions by central boards, community expectations
       and the like (p. 117-118).

The following discussion describes the activities of the most effective principals (the problem solvers). Leithwood and Montgomery (1986) estimate that only five to ten percent of principals in North America belong to this category.

<u>Goals</u>

Goals, the long term aspirations, have a dominant role in determining principal development. Goals constitute the basis on which environmental inputs are selected. They become a central element in principals' stimulus for action and determine how principals define their jobs. According to Leithwood and Montgomery (1986) "the dimension 'goals' incorporates both the long and short term ends that principals strive to achieve in their schools and the procedures they use both to identify and gain support for both ends and to communicate them to others" (p. 16). The authors claim that "goals serve as criteria for decision making and a means of selecting factors in the school and classroom to attempt to influence" (p. 17). As principal effectiveness develops, principal attention gradually shifts from personal survival, "running a smooth ship" (Leithwood and Montgomery, 1986 p. 17), towards providing the best possible experiences for the students.

The authors divide the goals into three subcategories: nature, sources and uses of the goals. The nature of the goals is "the full set of goals of education held for students by the school system and other official bodies such as the Ministry of Education" (Leithwood and Montgomery, 1986 p. 84). This includes values, skills and knowledge goals. Goals come from the goals of official agencies e.g. the Ministry of Education goals, local School Board goals and the needs of the school community. Principals; based on these sources, establish goals for students and the goals are conveyed to teachers, students and parents to reach consensus and then adopted and used as the basis for developing subsidiary goals or priorities. Leithwood and Montgomery (1986) stress that goals are "the focus for all principals' decisions, planning, and evaluation" (p. 85).

In short, goals are taken from multiple public sources which are transformed into short term goals for planning, and used to increase consistency among staff in directions they seek for all students.

Factors

Leithwood and Montgomery (1986) define factors as "aspects of the classroom and classroom environment that impinge directly on students' experiences in school (e.g.,

the instructional strategies of the teacher); they account
for what students learn" (p. 16). The authors have
identified 17 factors a principal tries to influence. Ten
of these factors are found within the classroom and seven
are factors of the school outside the classroom. The
following is summarized from Leithwood and Montgomery's
"Improving Principal Effectiveness: The Principal Profile"
(1986, p. 20-22).

Factors Affecting the Classroom Experiences of Students

- The teacher. Which teacher teaches which students.
- Program objectives and emphasis of the teacher.
- Instructional behaviors of the teacher.
- Materials and resources.
- Assessment, recording and reporting procedures.
- Time/classroom management.
- Content. This includes themes, subject matter, or
  topics encountered by the students in their
  programs.
- Physical environment. The organization and
  appearance of physical environment of the classroom.
- Interpersonal relationships in the classroom.

- Integration. The nature and degree of integration between the objectives of programs within and across programs and grades.

Factors Affecting the School-Wide Experiences of Students

- Human resources. The functions, assignments and roles of people in the school and classroom.
- Materials and physical resources. Uses to be made of space and student products, for example, play ground, open/closed areas, display of student work.
- Relationships with community.
- Extra-curricular and intra-mural activities
- Relationships among staff
- Relationships with out-of-school staff
- Teacher relationships with students while out of classroom.

According to the authors, all factors should be systematically addressed by the principal, depending on the specific needs of the school. They comment that "the principal has specific expectations about the conditions that must prevail in order to make progress towards the goals held for the students" (p. 85) and "expectations are

based on available research results and professional
judgment about effective instruction, effective schools, and
other areas relevant to the school goals for students" (p.
86).

Strategies

Leithwood and Montgomery (1986) define strategies as
"clusters of related actions taken by principals to
influence factors chosen for attention" (p. 20). Strategies
also influence goals, progress towards expectation held for
factors and decision making within the school. The authors
divide strategies into two categories: general purpose
strategies and specific strategies. General purpose
strategies have a weak influence on many factors and
specific strategies have strong influence on a few factors.

A. General Purpose Strategies

According to Leithwood and Montgomery (1986), criteria
for choosing strategies are

> the goals being pursued; the factors to be influenced;
> characteristics of people involved (including such
> things as their capabilities, values and belief, level
> of knowledge, personality); other activities occurring

at that time in the school; norm in the school system; experiences with other strategies used in that or similar settings; and the nature of obstacles which need to be addressed (p. 86).

The authors suggest that "emphasis among strategies is recognized if the goals aspired to for students are to be achieved. One strategy may be used to influence several goals, factors, or decisions, and several strategies may be used to influence one goal, factor, or decision" (p. 86-87).

Based on their study, Leithwood and Montgomery (1986) describe in details characteristics of strategies of effective principals which are summarized as follows:

1. Building and maintaining interpersonal relationships with and motivating staff. This includes: involving staff; doing things with staff; being positive, cheerful, and encouraging with staff; being available to staff; being honest, direct and sincere with staff; getting staff to set personal goals; and acting as a role model for staff.

2. Providing staff with knowledge and skills. There are many ways of providing knowledge and skill to staff. For example, principals arrange for

assistance for staff and attempt to match the type
of assistance to individual needs and differences;
provide staff with relevant materials to read and
bring people into the school to speak about issues
where knowledge and skills are needed; advice staff
to go to a particular courses and conferences;
conduct in-service training with staff within the
school by arranging for staff to visit each other
and by getting resource staff to come to school to
help.

3. Using vested authority. Principals cautiously use
of vested authority, rationally determine when its
use is the best strategy, clearly define and explain
why vested authority should be used.

4. Facilitating in-school communication. This includes
meetings with staff as a means of communication for
principals particularly for moving toward their
goals; consider what information needs to be passed
on staff and what does not, so that teacher's time
is not wasted; delegate the responsibility for some
aspects of in-school communication to librarians,
vice principals and teachers; establish informal

social occasions and procedures to foster open
communication and information needed by all staff on
a regular basis.

5. Facilitating communication between school and the
community. To facilitate such communication and to
generate productive relationships between the school
and the community, principals ensure that their
staff, for example, know about the community, its
standards and economic background. They are aware
of the nature of parent-child relationships outside
the school context. More importantly, most matters
concerning the community are considered in the
context of school goals. Strategies for working
toward the kind of relationship they wanted with the
community:

- Being visible in the community.

- Using different communication strategies with
  different kinds of people.

- Providing frequent and varied opportunities for
  parents and members of the community to come to
  school.

- Including all members of the community in
  invitation.

- Taking school activities out into the community.

- Encouraging staff to develop a sense of 'community' with students.
- Riding the school bus with students occasionally.
- Accepting invitations to the homes of students and to community activities.
- Actively seeking community input into school decision-making when appropriate.
- Inviting parents into classrooms on a well-planned basis.
- Asking staff to encourage students to talk about school at home.
- Using two-way booklet which sends information back.
- Communicating to parents about good things, not just difficulties.
- Inviting parent representatives to sit in on relevant school committees.
- Making parents aware of the objectives of the programs in the school so that there is an appropriate context within which to discuss matters of mutual concern to the school or community.
- Promoting good relationships - Parents' Association and/or with the Home and School.

- Having a school newsletter.

- Being aware of and putting parents in touch with
  community services.

Finally, principals establish and maintain volunteer
programs in which members of community work in the
school.

6. <u>Finding Non-Teaching Time for Staff</u>

   Effective principals take a variety of actions to
   ensure that all staff have some non-teaching time.
   These may include:

   - Taking a class on a regular basis for a specific
     subject, for example, guidance once a cycle per
     class on a rotary time-table.

   - Covering classes on social occasions.

   - Staffing with specialist teachers so that the
     home teacher is not given a further teaching
     assignment when the class goes to art, music,
     drama, guidance, library, family studies and so
     on.

   - Developing a time-table to handle staffing with
     specialist teachers.

- Coordinating work experience situations in the classroom, for example, child care worker student, student teacher.
- Using parent volunteers in a specialist manner.
- Arranging for occasional special program, for example, artists in the classroom, using team teaching situations, doubling classes and so on.
- Deploying students among several classes to free teachers.
- Special use of assemblies.
- Occasional use of guidance and library instruction.
- Use of librarian and vice-principal as instructors on a regular basis.
- Providing teachers with opportunities to acquire time management skills.

The use of non-teaching time is considered in the context of the goals of the school, the school plans, and the goals and plans of the individual concerned.

7. <u>Establishing Procedures for Handling Routine Matters</u>

In this case, principals have an office management system which includes role descriptions for the secretary, vice principals and policies for the use of school equipment. Office management also involves planning, projecting, anticipating, and preparing for upcoming tasks and reports. Record keeping systems are maintained so that information can be located in the principal's absence. Principals can delegate tasks and responsibilities to staff and then monitor how well staff handle the delegated tasks and responsibilities, and make some adjustment if needed. Norms about how school should function are also established. Procedures to handle annual sets of decisions such as staffing, student placement and budget (p. 87-98).

B. <u>Factor-Specific Strategies</u>

As mentioned earlier, specific strategies have strong influence on a few factors. Leithwood and Montgomery (1986, describe specific strategies in goal setting, planning, program development, program implementation, program

monitoring, providing support resources, staff supervision, and establishing direct relationships with students. The summary of strategies is as follows:

1. Goal Setting, Planing, and Program Development

At least once a year, with staff participation, principals set and review school goals, and develop a plan for pursuing these goals. The goals, both short and long range goals, should reflect government or official goals, school system goals and the needs of the school community. There is a plan to achieve the goals that typically includes indicators of their achievement together with designation of who is responsible for each component of the plan, a realistic timeline and a process for evaluating progress.

Principals require teachers and school departments to set up program goals and develop plans for their own programs, including the structure or the framework for their plans and timelines for development. Teachers submit the plans and receive feedback from the principals. Principals encourage communication among departments about the program goals and program development.

2. Program Implementation

In program implementation, principals require departments in schools to develop and use procedures for facilitating the implementation of their program, after staff are given criteria their procedures should meet. Procedures for implementation are required to identify obstacles found during implementation and strategies are identified to help overcome those obstacles. Principals then review department plans for implementation and provide feedback to staff.

With the assistance of principals, departments are required to develop and use procedures for monitoring their programs. Monitoring procedures include, for example, the systematic collection of the programs chosen for monitoring, feedback to teachers, systematic use of program monitoring data in decision about program implementation and program goals, teacher's input to the development of plan, and instruments used in monitoring progress. Principals review the program and feedback is then given to ensure that criteria are being adhered to.

3. Program Monitoring

Principals then require departments to develop and use procedures for monitoring their own programs. This requirement is established as a school policy and staff are provided with criteria their procedures must meet, including a means of setting priorities among the programs staff have to monitor each year. Monitoring procedures must collect information about the nature of implementation of selected dimensions of the programs for monitoring, and feedback to teachers. When necessary, principals help staff develop procedures for program monitoring.

4. Providing Support Resources

Two kinds of support resources are made viable to staff: materials and equipment, and human support services. Principals establish procedures for: determining the materials and equipment needed by the users, their distribution, circulation, maintenance and replacement. They provide human support services, such as: system resources staff, custodial staff, a health nurse, psychometrist, audio visual aides. They have clear job descriptions as well as criteria and standards for assessing performance.

To gain understanding and support for a school program, principals systematically convey the purpose of the school program to the community, for example, by working with students and staff through educational displays, fund raising, and sport competition. Parents and other community members are invited to school and they can be involved in school activities.

5. Staff Supervision

In staff supervision, principals use procedures which involve extensive collaboration with those being supervised. Supervision is directly linked to the school goals and staff development. In staff evaluation, principals develop and implement criteria and standards for evaluation, establish procedures for evaluation, communicate evaluation procedures to staff, and give feedback or information resulting from the evaluation. Together with staff members, principals develop a plan to assist the staff members' growth in the areas through the evaluation. The plan can be specialized training programs, teacher intervisitations, selections from board-offered

in-service programs, professional readings, increased
administrative duties, and alternative teaching
assignments.

6. Direct Relationship with Students

Regarding direct relationships with students,
principals take part in the admission of the students,
and school orientation. Principals can take a visible
personal interest in a variety of activities - sporting
events, bands, club and etc. Informal spontaneous
contacts are also used to communicate, explain and
reinforce school image. School discipline is
established and maintained (p. 98-106).

Decision-making

The last category of principal actions considered to
have the most direct influence on school effectiveness is
decision-making. Decision making is a "superordinate
dimension of principal behavior" (Leithwood and Montgomery,
1986, p. 15) while "the other dimensions provide the content
and substance about which choices are made" (Leithwood and
Montgomery, 1986, p. 16). The authors describe several
aspects of decision-making categories: forms and procedures
for decision-making, attitude and stance toward

decision-making, monitoring decision making, defining
decisions and clarifying problems, criteria used in
decision-making, and use of information in decision-making.
The following description is the summary of Leithwood and
Montgomery's study (1986, pp. 106-113). Nos. 1 to 3
constitute the background of the decision process and nos. 4
to 6 describe the decision process.

1. <u>Forms and procedures for decision-making</u>

Effective principals choose the forms best suited
to the condition prevailing in their school setting,
given the particular decisions to be made. The forms
can be:

- Vested authority (i.e. making unilateral decision).

- Decentralized (assigning responsibility for decision
  to others).

- Participatory (involving as many of those as
  possible affected by the decision in its making).

- Consensus (work toward agreement).

- Majority (decision by vote).

The criteria used in selecting which form to use
at a given time are likely to include:

- The existing decision-making practices.

- Staff preference and capabilities.

- The nature of goals to be achieved and decisions to be made.

- Feedback resulting from previous forms of decision-making.

    Conditions are likely to include:

- Staff willingness to play larger role in school decision-making.

- Sufficient knowledge and skill among heads and teachers in group decision-making.

- Effective human relation (a climate in which the motives of those participating in the decision-making are trusted by all concerned).

    The procedures that principals develop are compatible with the different forms for decision-making used. Staff meetings, for example, may be chaired by someone other than the principal in order to encourage participation.

2. Attitude and Stance toward Decision-Making

    This sub-dimension describes the extent to which principals see decisions as "opportunities" and extent to which principals anticipate decisions to be made. They seek opportunities to make progress in the

achievement of the school and program goals. Increased

effectiveness can be generally described as becoming

more proactive, positive and systematic toward decision

making.

3.   Monitoring Decision-Making

Principals monitor the effectiveness of the forms

and procedures used for decision-making, for example,

information about satisfaction in decision making.

They also consider what resources are needed for

decision-making forms and procedures, and the effect

of the decision on the progress with school and program

goals.

In these first three sub-dimensions, principals

behaviors can be accounted for by the sophistication of

principal's procedural schema (forms), the motivational

strength associated with his or her goals (stance), and the

development of increased skills in response to feedback

about performance (monitoring). These decision behaviors of

principals' intervention depend on theories of leadership,

primarily on contingency theories. Gray and Starke (1988)

mention that "Contingency theories start from the assumption

that different situations demand different leadership styles

if the leader is going to be effective" (p. 254). Included
in situations are characteristics of the object of
intervention, tasks to be performed and the organization:
e.g. hierarchical relationships and the degree of frequency.

4. Defining Decisions and Clarifying Problems

Principals define decisions in the context of
goals that they can be realistically implemented.
Principals clarify problems so that they can be
resolved. Problems are not treated in isolation, but
as a part of the overall mission of the school.

5. Criteria Used in Decision-Making

Principals establish criteria used for making
decisions, based on what is necessary to facilitate
progress toward goals and specific priorities set by
the school. Criteria might include, for example, the
need for individualized programming, the need for
addressing all goals of education or students' stages
of development. Departments or divisions are expected
to use the same types of criteria.

6. Use of Information in Decision-Making

Principals collect information relevant to the decisions and ensure that such information is available when decisions are being made. There are two types of information principals attempt to provide: (a) general knowledge of curriculum and education, including recent research relevant to the decisions, information about alternatives generally available, and knowledge of curriculum development, implementation and evaluation process; (b) specific information relevant to characteristics of the school (the staff, the students, and school-wide and board-wide needs). This requires both and informal channels of communication with staff' e.g. over coffee, during lunch, and through classroom visits. Principals should also listen carefully to staff and be consistent in the information they provide to staff. Moreover, principals use procedures which ensure that data for well-informed decision-making are routinely collected and made available. They also provide staff with information to facilitate well-informed decision making.

In sum, goals, factors, strategies and decision-making
are four categories or dimensions of principal actions or
behaviors that can have direct influences on school
effectiveness. Goals are selected from multiple, public
sources. They are transformed into short range plans and
principals work with these plans to increase consistency
among staff. Factors impinge on students' experiences in
school, and they account for what students learn.
Strategies are sets of actions taken to influence factors
and to determine the degree and nature of influence on
factors. Decision-making is the superordinate category of
principal actions about which choices are made from goals,
factors and strategies.

CHAPTER 4

WHAT DOES INDONESIA NEED FROM PRINCIPALS?

As already mentioned in Chapter 2, principals, the key factors in developing effective schools, have very complex and challenging tasks to perform. To understand the complexity of education in Indonesia, this chapter briefly describes the system of education and the primary and secondary education enrolment explosion. Since principals are promoted teachers, discussions about pre-service and in-service training programs for teachers are also included (as background). Then the discussion is shifted to the main issues, principals and their pre-service and in-service training. These discussions comprise Part I of this chapter. Part 2 discusses the role of principals in Indonesia and how the role of principals in North America can best be fitted to Indonesia's needs.

Part 1: School Principals in Indonesia at Present

System of Education in Brief

Education in Indonesia is divided into formal and non-formal education. Formal education consists of general, vocational, professional, and religious education. The levels of education are: elementary, secondary, and higher

education. Figure 1 shows the structure of education in
Indonesia. Primary education consists of pre-school from
the age of 5 to the age of seven and elementary school
includes the ages of 7 to 12. Pre-school education is not
obligatory, due to costs and the diversity of social
environments. Education at this level is regarded as the
responsibility of the family.

Secondary education consists of junior secondary
education from the ages of 13 to 15 and senior secondary
education from the ages of 16 to 18. The first is the
Junior General Secondary Schools (SMPs) and vocational
schools, and the second is the Senior General Secondary
Schools (SMAs) and senior vocational schools, such as
technical and teacher training schools.

Higher education, where university graduates are
prepared to meet many diverse social needs, is divided into
various levels. There are two programs, degree and
non-degree programs. The degree program has several strata:
stratum 1 (sarjana or master), stratum 2 (magistrate) and
stratum 3 (doctorate). This degree program emphasizes the
academic or professional academic aspects. The non-degree
program has the following courses: diploma 1, diploma 2,
diploma 3, diploma 4, specialist 1 and specialist 2. The
program puts emphasis on professional and practical

aspects. Non-degree courses are usually terminal. Table 1 shows the number of schools and higher learning institutions, students/graduates, teachers by types, and levels of education for public and private institutions. Table 2 shows the number of schools and higher learning institution, student graduates, teachers by types, and levels of education for public institutions. Table 3 shows the number of schools and higher learning institutions, students, graduates, teachers by types, and levels of education for private institutions.

The Ministry of Education and Culture does not carry responsibility for all types of formal education. Some types of schools are under the auspices of other Ministries, e.g. the Ministry of Religion runs Islamic Schools which have similar structure as that of public schools under the Ministry of Education and Culture. Table 4 shows the number of schools, students and teachers of schools managed by the Ministry of Religion.

Non-formal education is sometimes not considered school education because it is conducted outside the formal school structure. It provides opportunities to participants for learning experiences to improve their living arrangements and to make community members better able to conduct educational and cultural activities in the

Figure 1: Structure of Education in Indonesia
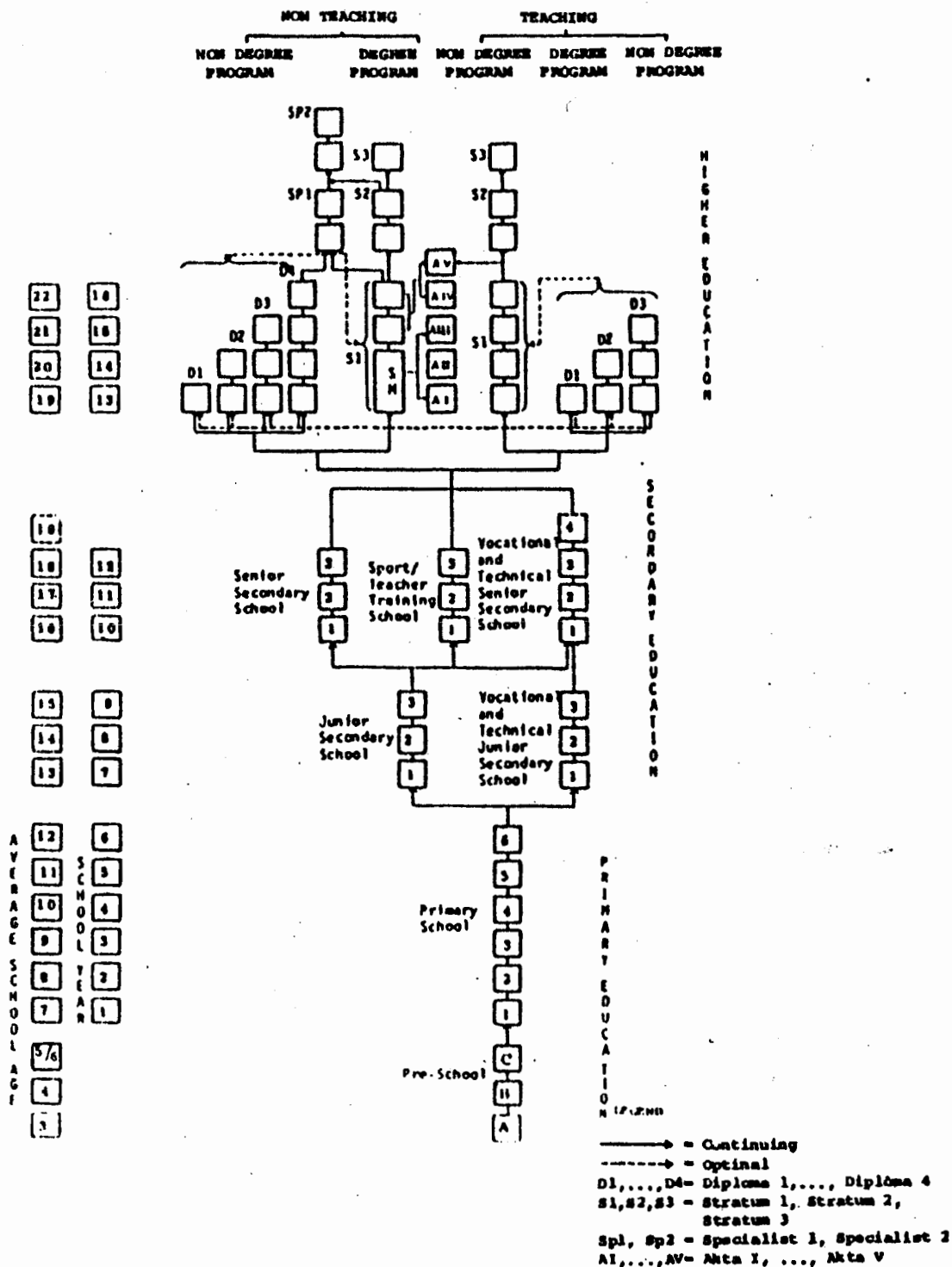
Table 1. Number of Schools, Students, New Entrants to Grade 1, Graduates, and Teachers, by Level and Type of Education (Public and Private) 1986/1987

LEVEL AND TYPE OF EDUCATION	SCHOOLS	STUDENTS	NEW ENTRANTS TO GRADE I	GRADUATES	TEACHERS
Pre-School *)	26,419	1,258,468	—	—	58,341
Special School *)	368	18,570	—	—	3,778
A Visually Handicapped	45	1,221	—	—	404
B Hearing Empaired	68	3,792	—	—	772
C Mentally Retarded	112	6,518	—	—	1,133
D Physically Handicapped	29	940	—	—	223
E Emotionally Disturbed	15	619	—	—	148
Mixed	99	5,480	—	—	1,098
Primary School	142,966	26,444,756	4,321,264	3,359,188	1,078,597
Junior Secondary School	18,575	6,132,057	2,181,000	1,597,620	376,612
General Junior S.S	18,209	6,025,435	2,140,974	1,573,646	368,345
Home Economics Junior S.S	102	16,760	6,353	3,529	1,642
Technical Junior S.S	264	89,862	33,673	20,445	6,625
Senior Secondary School	9,266	3,498,989	1,324,543	949,798	250,896
General Senior S.S	6,430	2,280,962	860,353	678,835	171,100
Economics Senior S.S	1,174	507,737	201,368	100,205	29,270
Home Economics Senior S.S	143	38,345	16,212	6,633	3,280
Technical Senior S.S	753	359,239	140,845	73,267	25,986
Teacher Training School	664	267,506	88,533	80,149	18,558
Sport Teacher Training	102	45,200	17,232	10,729	2,702
Higher Education	630	1,050,249	298,892	77,802	51,976

*) Data of 1985/1986

Source: The Ministry of Education and Culture (1987). <u>Education in Indonesia in Brief</u>. (p. 14).

Table 2: Number of Schools, Students, New Entrants to Grade 1, Graduates, and Teachers, by Level and Type of Education (Public) 1986/1987.

LEVEL AND TYPE OF EDUCATION	SCHOOLS	STUDENTS	NEW ENTRANTS TO GRADE I	GRADUATES	TEACHERS
Pre-School	52	6,217	—	—	9,677 **)
Special School	23	1,409	—	—	427
A Visually Handicapped	7	389	—	—	155
B Hearing Empaired	6	272	—	—	119
C Mentally Retarded	4	313	—	—	65
D Pysically Handicapped	2	97	—	—	15
E Emotionally Disturbed	1	46	—	—	14
Mixed	3	297	—	—	59
Primary School	133,012	24,508,515	3,997,966	3,090,146	1,002,959
Junior Secondary School	6,830	3,459,108	1,259,304	912,908	174,424
General Junior S.S	6,555	3,364,199	1,223,683	891,530	167,446
Home Economics Junior S.S	79	14,973	5,746	3,063	1,382
Technical Junior S.S	196	79,936	29,875	18,315	5,596
Senior Secondary School	2,217	1,456,220	535,632	404,220	82,755
General Senior S.S	1,408	918,338	341,541	272,279	52,437
Economics Senior S.S	302	217,760	78,827	48,240	9,617
Home Economics Senior S.S	84	31,222	13,131	5,170	2,372
Technical Senior S.S	149	126,417	47,529	28,179	8,893
Teacher Training School	217	130,407	42,834	42,420	7,784
Sport Teacher Training	57	32,076	11,770	7,932	1,652
Higher Education	49	462,106	138,065	51,980	42,419

**) Pre-School Teachers are all teachers who are Government servants, including those working in private schools

Source: The Ministry of Education and Culture (1987). Education in Indonesia in Brief. (p. 15).

Table 3. Number of Schools, Students, New Entrants to Grade 1, Graduates, and Teachers, by Level and Type of Education (Private) 1986/1987)

LEVEL AND TYPE OF EDUCATION	SCHOOLS	STUDENTS	NEW ENTRANTS TO GRADE I	GRADUATES	TEACHERS
Pre-School	26,367	1,252,251	—	—	48,664
Special School	345	17,161	—	—	3,351
A Visually Handicapped	38	832	—	—	249
B Hearing Empaired	62	3,520	—	—	653
C Mentally Retarded	108	6,205	—	—	1,068
D Physically Handicapped	27	848	—	—	208
E Emotionally Disturbed	14	573	—	—	134
Mixed	96	5,183	—	—	1,039
Primary School	9,954	1,936,241	323,298	269,042	75,638
Junior Secondary School	11,745	2,672,949	921,696	684,712	202,188
General Junior S.S	11,654	2,661,236	917,291	682,116	200,899
Home Economics Junior S.S	23	1,787	607	466	260
Technical Junior S.S	68	9,926	3,798	2,130	1,029
Senior Secondary School	7,049	2,042,769	788,911	545,578	168,141
General Senior S.S	5,022	1,362,624	518,812	406,556	118,663
Economics Senior S.S	872	289,977	122,541	51,965	19,653
Home Economics Senior S.S.	59	7,123	3,081	1,463	908
Technical Senior S.S	604	232,822	93,316	45,088	17,093
Teacher Training School	447	137,099	45,699	37,729	10,774
Sport Teacher Training	45	13,124	5,462	2,777	1,050
Higher Education	581	588,143	160,827	25,822	9,557

Source: The Ministry of Education and Culture (1987). Education in Indonesia in Brief. (p. 16).

Table 4: Number of Schools, Students, and Teachers by Level and Type of
Education (Under Other Ministries) 1984/1985

NO.	LEVEL OF EDUCATION	SCHOOLS	STUDENTS	TEACHERS
1.	Primary School	28,942	4,363,661	151,109
2.	Junior Secondary School	4,427	708,119	55,418
3.	Senior Secondary School	1,808	289,962	30,192

Source: The Ministry of Education and Culture (1987). Education in Indonesia
in Brief. (p. 17).

community. Participants are community members aged 7 to 44 years who may be school drop-outs or those who have never obtained educational opportunities. They may also be people who have already acquired some educational certification, but need additional skills to be able to improve their standard of living.

The Explosion in Primary and Secondary Education Enrollment

The most noticeable development in education is in the increase of both state and private enrollment at elementary school, secondary school and university levels. In the case of elementary and general secondary education, those increases were made possible due to the addition of 73,600 new elementary schools from the beginning of the Second Five-Year Development Plan (1973/1974) up to the end of the Third Five-Year Development Plan (1983/1984) which has accommodated 97.2% of school age children of 7 to 12 years of age. From the end of the Second Five Year Development Plan (1978/1979) to the end of the Third Five Year Development Plan (1983/1984), more than 1,000 junior secondary schools were built to accommodate elementary school graduates, and 300 senior secondary schools to accommodate junior secondary school graduates. By the end of the Third Five-Year Development Plan, 46% of elementary

school graduates could be accommodated at the Junior

Secondary Schools (SMPs) and 23% of Junior Secondary school

graduates could be accommodated at the Senior High Schools

(SMAs). This tremendous development, however, has many

consequences: a shortage of skilled teachers and

principals, a low quality of education and student academic

achievement, and in later years a shortage of funds. The

following discussion is limited only to pre-service and

in-service training and the role of principals. Because all

principals are selected from teachers, a discussion of

teachers' pre-service and in-service training is also

included.

Teacher Pre-Service Training

There has been strong criticism about the quality of

education in Indonesia. In discussing the deterioration of

the quality of education and government policy, Adiwoso

Suprapto (1983) claimed that

> In the early 1980's teacher training programs were in
>
> flux, owing to the constantly changing regulations and
>
> plans of the government. Quality remained poor and
>
> experimental teaching methods were used without a fully
>
> planned program. Most teachers were not sufficiently

trained in teaching but were given theoretical notes
about teaching methods. Only a small portion of time
was spent on practice teaching (p. 112).

The same issue, the quality of education, was discussed
by Lahur (1986) who stated that

One of the weaknesses that has been highlighted in
general is the problem of quality, starting as from the
level of primary education up to that of higher
education institutes. By and large there are two major
flaws: firstly, the graduates are not well prepared in
terms of their learning capability to attend a higher
level of learning; secondly, the graduates' quality is
not relevant in meeting the demands of the society.
The increasing number of drop-outs at all levels of
education and that of unemployed university graduates
are, as it were, a justification of the aforementioned
assessment. Mentioned flaws in educational world
should be eventually be connected to the professional
quality of teachers from primary education level up to
senior secondary level, whose numbers total 1,564,100
and lectures of all states and privates universities,
whose number totals approximately 60,062 (p. 306).

Pre-service training, as a preparation for elementary school teachers, has been supplied by 664 state and private teacher training schools (SPGs), equivalent to the Senior High Schools (Table 1). In discussing preparation of elementary school teachers, Beeby (1979) writes that "the bulk of the students in these schools in recent years are less capable than the students in the typical general high school (SMA) and display less initiative" (p. 84). Beeby further writes that "the officials in charge of SPGs have lowered the entrance requirements in order to fill the school rolls" (p. 85).

Pre-service training for secondary school teachers faces complicated problems. In a recorded interview with Benny Soeprapto Brotosiswojo, the former Director of General Secondary Education, during his visit to attend A Seminar on Technology in Education: An Economic Perspective (September 11 - September 17, 1988 in Vancouver, B.C.) he noted that the rapid expansion in education would certainly sacrifice school effectiveness. Brotosiswojo's (1988) statement is congruent with Fuller's (1987) statement that "qualities of Third World teachers are related to the achievement, years of tertiary and teacher training. The teacher's own social

class background and verbal proficiency also are associated with higher student performance" (p. 257). In regard to this, Beeby (1979) has written that

"Officially, the minimum qualifications for teaching in a junior secondary school is a sarjana muda (a three-year bachelor's degree) and in a senior secondary school a sarjana (a five-year degree equivalent to master's), but the qualifications of the teachers in schools fall far short of this, as they do indeed in many developed countries as a result of rapid expansion of secondary education" (p. 87).

These three-year and five-year degree programs have later been replaced by a four-year program with a sarjana or S1 qualification (Figure 2).

Brotosiswojo (1988) agrees with Beeby (1979). According to Brotosiswojo (1988), the way teachers were prepared before this rapid development was quite intensive. To be eligible to teach at a Junior or Senior Secondary School (SMP) one had to have a B.A. degree or S1 (Master) in teaching from the Institute for Teaching and Pedagogical Sciences (IKIP) or its equivalent. Due to the vast development of education and to meet the needs of the

increasing enrollment, the government had to look for different ways by which teachers could be supplied in a shorter period of time. One way was by establishing a "crash program", shortening the pre-service training from the usual 5 years into less than two years. Some teachers were even prepared in just one year. This was done by establishing more non-degree programs at IKIPs and universities, such as D1 and D2 programs for preparing Junior Secondary School teachers and a D3 program for Senior Secondary School teachers. Lahur (1986) quoted Antara National News Agency July 13, 1985 as reporting that "to overcome the shortage of Junior and Senior Secondary School teachers numbering 4,600, the Department of Education and Culture would recruit third year university students and over and retired teachers to teach mathematics, physics, chemistry, biology and English" (p. 308). There is no further information whether or not this action has been carried out by the government.

Teacher In-Service Training

Less is known about how the government improves the instructional skills of elementary teachers. A kind of training they might have is some orientation about curriculum implementation. The crash program for general

secondary school teacher preparation might have a low
quality product with regard to teachers' competency. A
government program (funded by the World Bank project),
founded an in-service training program in 1979 (Saleh, 1988)
to balance and to raise the quality of teachers. According
to Brotosiswojo (1988), who was also the first director of
the program, the program was designed so that teachers who
were participating in the training did not have to leave
their classes and were not absent from school. This program
was called in-service and on-service training program. In
the Indonesian context it is called "Pemantapan Kerja Guru"
(PKG) which means "strengthening the teaching profession".
This program has been conducted up to now for teachers of
mathematics, physics, chemistry, biology and English. There
are no recent research findings concerning training
effectiveness, but many reports conclude that PKG has had a
great impact on improving teachers' instructional skills and
effectiveness as well student academic achievement.

PKG is not the only in-service training program
conducted for teachers. Before PKG, there were several
other government funded training programs held for teachers.
All teachers probably attended some of them. These programs
often relates to curriculum or instructional materials. It

is difficult to measure training effectiveness, since there
has been no assessment of the impact of the training on
student outcomes, at least in this last decade.

One assessment of the quality of education conducted in
124 Senior Secondary Schools in Indonesia (Suprapto,
Sembiring and Livingstone, 1981) reported that "the
in-service training appears to have influenced student
achievement substantially" (p. 55). Since the research was
"conducted toward the end of 1977" (p. 1), this finding does
not correspond with the tremendous quantitative development
that has taken place in the last ten years. Nevertheless,
the research indicates that in-service teacher training to
upgrade the skill of current teaching will raise the quality
of instruction, leading to higher student achievement
(Suprapto, Sembiring and Livingstone, 1981; Fuller, 1987).

Pre-Service Training for Principals

There is no formal pre-service training program for
school principals in Indonesia, and there is no policy
dealing with the selection of principals. The selection of
elementary school principals seems to be done at the
district level (Kandepkab) mainly based on experience,
seniority, loyalty and good job performance as teachers.
For Junior and Senior Secondary School principals, the

selection is done at the provincial (Kanwil) level. In addition to those criteria used at the elementary school level, vice-principal experience is also needed, although this is not always required.

In discussing how school principals learn the necessary skills to be a principal, Suprapto, Sembiring and Livingstone have written that

> ... most of them had not received any formal training specifically for this task. In a system where such training is hard to come by, they had simply learned from advice and experience. Of the few who had received some preparation, more than half were self taught, presumably by reading, or their own initiative, books containing principles of administration, either in education or some other field (1981, pp. 57-58).

In commenting on the selection of principals and the rapid growth of schools, Brotosiswojo (1988) said that the government cannot afford to have principals that come fresh from their training. What the government has done is the "allocation of teachers". For example, if the government builds 3 or 4 schools in one area, then the government moves senior or experienced teachers to the new schools by

substituting for them new teachers. In this way the government expands the system. An orientation to the principalship is conducted in the capital of the province, or in Jakarta, shortly before or after the principal's appointment.

Another way of coping with the selection of secondary principals, according to Brotosiswojo (1988), is by preparing candidates for principalship by anticipating a number of teachers who are likely to be potential principals for new schools. The training program for potential principals held in Malang, East Java, in 1985 is an example. This training program, which lasted for 3 months, covered several courses such as educational management, educational supervision, educational leadership, evaluation and field work. The program was attended by 150 potential Senior School Principals from all parts of the country. According to the Pre-Service Training Guide for Prospective Senior School Principals (1985), every candidate had to possess/fulfil the following criteria:

(1) minimal B.A. degree or its equivalent

(2) level 3 in the government service ranking scale

(3) minimal 5 years teaching experience

(4) 35 - 45 years of age

(5) recommended by the Ministry of Education and
    Culture Regional Office (Kanwil)

(6) loyal to the job as judged by the Ministry of
    Education and Culture Regional Office (Kanwil)

(7) successful in a test and an interview conducted by
    the Directorate of General Secondary Education, the
    Center for Educational and Staff Training
    Development and the Research and Development Center
    (Balitbangdikbud) (p. 37).

When schools expand to more remote geographical areas,
many teachers are not willing to go to the new places, even
if they have been promoted to become principals. They
prefer to stay in their present employment or hometown for
economical, social, and educational reasons. In the new
places they have to rent the houses and to buy new
equipment, while at home they do not have to do so. Their
salaries are not sufficient. They are not separated from
their family and relatives. Moreover, the new places will
offer less possibility for their children to go to higher
education.

To attract them to work in the remote areas the
government has made several efforts. The government has
built houses for elementary school teachers and principals.

In addition, the government has made an appeal to almost every local community to provide new teachers or principals houses and other facilities.

In discussing the unwillingness of a new teacher or principal to be posted to a remote area, Lahur (1986) has claimed that "people are reluctant to become teachers or enter Teacher Training Schools because of the inadequate welfare condition and the heavy burden of the curriculum. Even those who graduated from Teacher Training Schools may not become teachers after all" (p. 308). Lahur might be right but he did not produce data to support his claim and there are no reports about schools without principals.

In-Service Training for Principals

In-service training was first conducted nation-wide in 1976, when a new curriculum was implemented. On this occasion principals were given an orientation on how to carry out the curriculum, which was completely different from the previous one. At the same time, teachers were asked to prepare teaching materials ahead of time with lesson plans, and it was the principals' responsibility to supervise how the teachers prepared lesson plans, as well as

how they implemented the new curriculum in their teaching.
On another occasion principals were given orientation in
school management, and community and parent relationships.

After the renewal of the General Senior Secondary
School curriculum in 1984, principals had another
orientation on the new curriculum. At the same time, they
also had several courses, for example, on leadership,
educational supervision, and career planning for students.

According to Brotosiswojo (1988), all principals have
had at least one training program albeit a very short one.
He further agreed that the short training program was not
sufficient, but at least it gave principals an opportunity
to share many things with their peers, rather than learning
only from the training itself. In those days it was quite
rewarding because they had a chance to visit the capital
city of their province or Jakarta, the capital city of the
country.

As an exploratory effort the government has recently
sent 80 senior principals to Australia and England for 3
months. They did not take any formal courses, instead, they
had to follow a tailor-made program in which they were
attached to several schools in those countries. They
watched, experienced things which happened during their
observation, and then compared them with their own

experience and with what they have done at home.

Brotosiswojo (1988) said he was surprised that these principals learned many things from their observations and findings instead of attending regular courses, and they should be able to choose from their findings to suit their own schools. Now they realize that they are able to do many things in which they have never realized they could have done before. He believes that this kind of overseas training is necessary, but the participants have to be selected geographically, so that a principal in a certain cluster of schools may share knowledge and experience with other principals. The government will continue to improve the training of principals ahead of time of the appointment. This, of course, needs more funds. Hopefully, the second slice of the World Bank Project for secondary education can be used for training principals.

Regarding elementary school enrolment, Brotosiswojo (1988) has the opinion that rapid growth started earlier than secondary schools and now the growth has levelled off at approximately 2% a year. Attention is now focussed mostly on in-service training programs for teachers as well as for principals and the training should be decentralized either in the province, or the district, due to the wide spread of schools.

Part 2:   The Role of Principals in Indonesia

Role Expectations

All schools in Indonesia practice a centralized

educational system and curriculum, but the quality of

school output varies. This is caused by many factors:

principals, teachers, school supports and facilities, school

organization and climate, and the social and economic status

of the students themselves and the community.

Principals hold a key position in this matter. They

have a very important role in bringing together all these

human and non-human factors at school and in the community

to improve student academic achievement. The Pre-Service

Training Guide for Prospective General Senior Secondary

School Principals (1985) states that "a principal is

expected to play his or her role as a facilitator, a

director, an innovator and so on; and this role can be

classified into three levels: a manager, a leader and a

supervisor" (p. 1). To be able to perform his or her

important task and responsibility successfully, a principal

"beside having a good personality and experience, is also

expected to have professional competence" (p. 2).

Principals have two educational functions: they deal

with curriculum and instruction, and they deal with

administrative support and facilities to maximize students'
learning.   In regard to these functions, according to the
Pre-Service Training Guide, a principal is required to have
basic competence in the following:

(1) government policy implementation

(2) curriculum management and implementation

(3) school personnel management and development

(4) directing and improving student competence

(5) school budgeting, school supports and resource
    administration   ·

(6) leadership based on human relationships

(7) keeping good school and parent relationships

(8) utilizing community resources

(9) adopting innovation and change

Brotosiswojo (1988) stressed that principals are not
only school managers, but they are also prominent leaders in
the community as well.

From the above discussion it is easy to conclude that
most principals in Indonesia are not professionally trained.
Consequently, most of them are unable to perform as
instructional leaders or supervisors.   They spend most of
their time carrying out school administrative work and

enforcing administrative rules that are decided by the
central office (Beeby, 1979). Thus, most principals assume
their role is to maintain "the status quo" rather than to be
pioneers of school innovation, or the agents of school
change (Fullan, 1982). Indeed until recently principals
were not encouraged to innovate.

North American Principal and Indonesia's Needs.

Chapter 3 has described the role of effective
principals in the U.S. and Canada. It stresses strong
instructional leadership to influence school effectiveness
in "making gains on behalf of the students" (Leithwood and
Montgomery, 1986 p. 7). The stated role of principals in
Indonesia is to bring up all human and non-human factors at
school and in the community to improve student academic
achievement.

The roles seem similar. The difference is in the
implementation. The way in which principals carry out their
role in Indonesia is less known while the principal's role
in the North America can be practised based on extensive
research. Fuller (1987) states that "Research on management
practices of headmasters is blossoming in industrial nations
...Unfortunately, very little is known about how headmasters
in the Third World act to improve the school instructional

program" (p. 285-386). What this section is trying to do is to make an assessment of the applicability of North American practices to the development of principals in Indonesia. However, the implementation of North American practices and the way principal effectiveness is improved there require careful modification if the approach is to be related to the existing Indonesian context such as school conditions, existing principal's standard and the needs for adopting new ideas and change.

Leithwood and Montgomery (1986) have described a conceptual model of the principal's role by establishing a series of casual links between principal behaviors with the external conditions on one side, and with school and classroom variables on another side, to influence student learning. This approach creates four logical consequences: (1) clarification of the types of outcomes valued for student improvement; (2) determination of the classroom and school variables that influence the outcome achievement; (3) determination of principal behaviors which influence the nature of those classroom and school variables; (4) determination of influences or external conditions which account for observed principal behaviors. This approach provides a context for the role and the authors suggest four

categories or dimensions of behaviors: goals, factors, strategies, and decision making that have the most direct influence on school effectiveness.

To assess the applicability of Leithwood and Montgomery's model of improving principal effectiveness, each of the four dimensions is revisited to match with the Indonesian context.

Goals

Goals are divided into three sub-categories: nature of goals, sources of goals and uses of goals. In the Indonesian context, the nature of goals are based on the values described in the Indonesian constitution and the Guideline of State Policy (GBHN). The 1983 - 1988 "GBHN" states that the goals of Indonesian education are as follows

- to improve devotion to One Supreme God
- to improve intelligence and skills
- to enhance good behaviors and personality
- to strengthen national consciousness and love of the country

- to produce development -oriented individuals who are
  able to develop themselves and be jointly
  responsible for nation building (Indonesian Ministry
  of Information, 1985).

The source of goals come from the goals of central
office of the Ministry of Education and Culture, the
Representative Office of the Department of Education and
Culture in the provinces and the community. Every school
curriculum describes these goals. They are called
curriculum objectives. Then each school subject has its own
general instructional objectives. Principals and teachers
are expected to use these instructional objectives to
develop operational instructional objectives for each school
subject for students. These objectives can be conveyed to
parents and students.

In North America "The goals of effective principals can
be described in terms of basic orientations; orientations
toward students, teachers, and the larger school system.
Effective principals place achievement and happiness of
students in the first priorities" (Leithwood and Montgomery,
1986, p. 201).

The goals of effective principals in North America can be applied by effective principals in Indonesia as long as the goals are consistent with the curriculum objectives. It is expected that principals not only carry out school administrative work, or maintain the status quo, but become pioneers of school innovations within the scope or area permitted by the curriculum objectives. They may, for example, set their short- or long- term goals focus on their student achievement.

Factors

Leithwood and Montgomery (1986) have identified ten classroom factors and seven school factors effective principals attempt to influence. The goals the principals have will determine what classroom and school factors principals try to influence. In the Indonesian context, of ten classroom factors that affect students' experiences, only the physical environment factor is one that some principals might not be able to influence, especially in elementary school level, due to minimal space or resources available. Of seven school factors five: (1) human resources, (2) relationships with the community, (3) relationship among staff, (4) relationships with-out-of-school staff, and (5) teacher relationships with

students while out of classroom, can be easily influenced by the principals because they are in line with the Indonesian tradition and culture where people are still community-bound, and respect their leaders, the elders, and the knowledgeable. The other two factors, materials and physical resources and extra and intra-mural activities, can to some extent be influenced by principals, especially if principals are also active in influencing parents and the community to provide enough support and supplies.

Influencing classroom and school factors can have great impact on student achievement in Indonesia. Fuller (1987) stresses that "much of this empirical work suggests that the school institution exerts a greater influence on achievement within developing countries compared to industrialized nations after accounting for the effect of pupil background" (p. 255-256). In another part of his article, Fuller (1987) says that

> Therefore a school of even modest quality may
> significantly influence academic achievement ... and
> given the low level of material resources available in
> Third World schools the influence of social practices

within the classrooms may play a greater role that do

materials inputs as appears to be the case in the

U.S... (p. 256).

Strategies

Strategies refer to the actions or interventions by the

principals to influence selected factors in the directions

they think most likely to facilitate goal attainment.

General Purpose Strategies: As previously mentioned, there

are seven sub-categories of general purpose strategies.

Each one will need some comments.

1. Building and Maintaining Interpersonal Relationship with

Staff and Motivating Staff.

For both elementary and secondary school principals,

building and maintaining interpersonal relationship with

staff is applicable in the Indonesian context, but the

success of staff motivation will much depend, at least for

the present moment, on non-economic factors such as

dedication, nationalism and the like. The view that money

is a motivator, although this may be recognized as an

oversimplification, is less than enough. On one hand, the

teacher salaries, are very low, and have never been

increased in the last three years while on the other hand,
prices have been doubled or even tripled. Many teachers
especially in big towns and cities have to teach in more
than one school just to get enough money for a living.
Others may be engaged in other activities, either before or
after school.

It is understandable that the majority of teachers are
not fully enthusiastic or motivated to teach and to reach
certain school goals set by the principals because their
time, mind and energy are divided. They sometimes regard
teaching as a routine activity which does not really need
much improvement. There is a possibility that principals,
in setting their goals, is greatly influenced by this
economic condition for, in terms of salary, there is not
much difference between teachers and principals.

2. Providing Staff with Knowledge and Skills

Presumably providing staff with knowledge and skills is
difficult for principals to comply with due to lack of
skills, knowledge, experience and resources. In
instructional management, elementary principals are likely
able to provide staff with experience and skills because
they were teachers who used to teach most school subjects
before they were principals.

Principals are not obliged to teach especially whenever teachers for all grades are available, and they may prefer being administrators to instructional leaders. What may happen to elementary school principals will most likely happen to secondary school principals because they might know and be able to teach one or two subjects. Since secondary schools are more complex than elementary schools, secondary school principals' attention is more concentrated on administrative functions than on instructional leadership.

The order of the nine basic competencies of senior secondary school principals in Indonesia mentioned earlier, shows us that their primary role is to implement government policy in curriculum management and its implementation. Leadership (not instructional leadership) is number 6 in the order. Teachers in secondary schools are supposed to be specialists in their subjects. Unlike elementary school principals, secondary school principals hardly ever become instructional leaders. They are not specialists in many subjects. They probably know one or two subjects they used to teach.

Vice principals cannot be very much expected to help principals in instructional supervision because they mostly deal with school administration and management for handling

routine matters as prescribed in the curriculum. To make matter worse, schools do not have any department heads ready to help principals. They are not provided by the government. So, if teachers, for instance, were obliged to make lesson plans and they were submitted to the principals for comments and suggestions before the plans were carried out, the most principals could do is to see whether the plans are already in accordance with the official format. The content, methods and the way the instructions were carried out would depend on the teachers.

One way of overcoming this problem is by delegating instructional supervision to vice-principals, senior teachers, and teachers who have successfully completed their "PKG" training program. This can be done by the influence principals have to persuade vice-principals, senior teachers, and "PKG graduates" to voluntarily help new or inexperienced teachers. PKG graduates are, after their training, expected to influence teachers of the same subjects to implement new methods of instruction.

For this purpose, the Representative Office of the Department of Education and Culture (Kanwil) in every province has conducted training programs for general secondary principals. They discuss the results of senior principals visits to Australia and England, and the

importance of PKG and the way principals help PKG graduates

influence other teachers (Saleh, 1988; Direktorat Pendidikan

Menengah Umum, 1988). Hopefully, with the influence of

principals, PKG graduates can become subject consultants in

their own areas of study.

3. <u>Using Vested Authority</u>

Unlike North America, principals' vested authority in

Indonesia is limited. They do not have any influence in

teacher recruitment, teacher or student termination, or new

teacher's salaries. Teacher recruitment and termination are

done by the central office of education for secondary school

teachers and the governor of each province for elementary

school teachers. There is only one salary system used

nation-wide for all government servants including teachers.

In practice maintaining discipline, order, and the peaceful

climate are principal's first priorities. Principals

usually avoid using their vested authority. Instead, they

use influence, persuasion, suggestion and other

interpersonal approaches.

4. Facilitating In-school Communication

Quite different from North American practices, many principals practice one-way communication, from principals to staff. School staff meetings, for instance, are usually held at the beginning of a new school year, at the end of every semester to convey school goals, proposals, rules and regulations, and so on. National celebrations and ceremonies where students and teachers gather together are good occasions where principals can convey their messages. Sometimes principals can pass information to teachers through vice-principals, or oral or written announcements. A principal can also hold an individual conference with a teacher without sacrificing his or her effective teaching period.

Perhaps this one-way communication is because many policies and decisions come from above, for example, curriculum, school and teacher uniform. Principals are only expected to implement them, or to pass them to teachers.

Principals in Indonesia can facilitate in-school communication by establishing and encouraging subject-teacher groups. Chaired by a senior teacher or a PKG graduate, each group discusses problems of instruction,

student achievement, and so forth. They then try to solve the problems. The support and the presence of principals will stimulate them to work toward the principals' goals.

5. Communication between School and the Community

The way this kind of communication is carried out shows much similarity between North American schools and Indonesian schools. For instance, every new school year or semester principals invite parents to come to schools to discuss student progress, school problems and school support. Then class heads give student report cards to parents and parents may discuss things concerning their children. So, the aims of parent-teacher meetings are two-fold: as a means of knowing student background and progress as well as a means to get financial support for schools. At secondary school levels able parents have to pay a kind of school fee called "educational development funds" (SPP). As its name implies the money is used to provide some school supplies and some incentive for staff's welfare. Although elementary school children are free from "SPP", in practice parents are still required to provide some support to schools. Whenever necessary individual meetings between principals and parents are also held.

6. Finding Non-Teaching Time for Staff

The purpose and ways of finding non-teaching time for staff in North America are not so different from Indonesia. The purpose is to convey school goals, plans and for individual benefit. At elementary schools, time occurs during arts, religion or physical exercise sessions, or by gathering students from all classes on social occasions. At secondary school levels, more non- teaching time is available since teachers are usually required to teach 24 periods out of 35 to 40 periods a week. One period consists of 40 to 45 minutes. Some teachers may, of course, teach more or less than 24 periods a week, depending on the number of teachers available for certain subjects.

7. Establishing Procedures for Handling Routine Matters

The 1975 or the 1984 curriculum briefly describes the hierarchical structure of school levels, and procedures for handling routine matters. For example, head school clerks at secondary schools deal with school personnel, school-community relations, budget, school supplies and equipment. The school organizational structure describes roles and functions of vice principals, counselors, head clerks and so on. Depending on the size of a secondary school, it may have one, two or even four vice principals.

Since elementary schools are not provided with other staff
except teachers and janitors, all administrative and
instructional matters are handled by principals.

Factors-Specific Strategies: The success of principals'
influence on factor-specific strategies in Indonesia will
much depend on principals' knowledge and skills, motivation,
push and support from their superiors, and funds. It cannot
be expected in Indonesia (as it might be in North America)
that principals can, every year, make and carry out very
well-conceived and specific strategies in areas such as
planning, goal setting, and program development;
implementation of the program; providing support resources;
staff supervision; and direct relationship with students.

One of the problems is the difficulty principals have
in providing materials and equipment and human support
services due to limited school budget and resources. In the
case of materials and equipment, principals are encouraged
to use those provided by the government or parents. During
the last ten years the government has provided 28,000
typewriters to 1,000 Junior Secondary Schools (SMPs) and 400
Senior Secondary Schools (SMAs); 500 sets of language
laboratories equipment including buildings to 500 Senior
Secondary Schools (SMAs) (of which each set can accommodate

40 students), physics, chemistry and biology laboratories, vocational teaching equipment to almost all SMPs and SMAs, and textbooks to all schools.

Ironically, many schools do not make use of the equipment for several reasons. New equipment means new responsibility for these principals. It will consume more of their time and efforts to find teachers or instructors and to organize students for new activities.

There are few principals who are enthusiastically welcome the new equipment and they soon discuss it with teachers and make plans for utilizing it. So far, details on how principals react to this irony, no data are available.

Concerning human support services, they are all provided by or managed by the Representative Office the Ministry of Education and Culture for SMPs and SMAs and by the Governor's Office of Education (Dinas P&P), under the auspices of the Department of Home Affairs for Elementary Schools.

Decision-Making

Decision-making is the superordinate dimension: principal behaviors, and goals, factors and strategies provide the content and substance about which decisions are

made. The six sub-dimensions of decision-making seem applicable to the Indonesian context. The major problem is that most principals have not had sufficient training in leadership and management, so they might not be able to or do not want to make decisions which, in their opinion, will affect their position. Instead, they just preserve the status quo, waiting for some suggestion from their superior. This case may also apply to the strategies discussed earlier.

In sum, the North American role of principals is likely to be generally applicable to the Indonesian context as long as Indonesian principals have sufficient skills and knowledge through training programs. That will be discussed in Chapter 5.

CHAPTER 5

WHAT KINDS OF TRAINING ARE CONSIDERED NECESSARY
FOR PRINCIPALS?

The discussion in Chapter 4 has revealed that
principals in Indonesia need some training if they are to be
expected to perform their complex tasks effectively.
Training is intended to "promote the professional
development of program participants" (Murphy and Hallinger
1987, p. 246). The weakness of the previous in-service
training programs was their questionable contribution to
principals' school improvement abilities because the
outcomes of the training have not been convincingly linked
to school improvement, are not addressing the principal's
role in the issue, and do not recognize the scope of the
principal's job as a whole.

This chapter is divided into two parts. Part 1
discusses in-service training considered necessary for the
development of principals in Indonesia. The discussion on
in-service training will include needs assessment, the
design of the in-service training programs and two models
for the implementation of the programs. Part 2 discusses

pre-service training. It discusses teaching and
vice-principalship experience considered necessary for
future principals in Indonesia.

Part 1: In-service Training

The problem of in-service training is more urgent than
pre-service training because they are already principals
without having sufficient pre-service training. They were
even promoted to the principalship without experiencing any
pre-service training programs for principals. For this
reason, in-service training is given the first priority.

Needs Assessment

Although the majority of school principals in Indonesia
need some training, a well-conceived plan should be made to
give priorities to those who are most in need. To provide a
framework for designing goals and objectives, content,
implementation strategies of the training programs, and
making decisions about how to help them in becoming more
effective principals, several measures must be taken based
on the decision-making process (Gray and Starke, 1988;
Leithwood and Montgomery, 1986). The process includes

problem identification, resolving the problem and decision implementation. Problems may arise from principals' goals, knowledge, skills, or combinations of these.

Goals

Goals are the long term educational aspirations which principals hold for schools (Leithwood and Montgomery 1986). The authors state further that principals' goals should be the initial concern of those trying to facilitate growth in principal effctiveness. If their goals are inconsistent with school improvement the principals may lack motivation.

To stimulate principals' growth the authors suggest three procedures:

(1) Diagnose the principal's internalized goals.

(2) When their goals are consistent with school improvement, demonstrate to them the relationship between these internalized goals and new information or practices that have been provided to them.

(3) When their goals are inconsistent with school inprovement, provide motivation to modify such goals in a direction more consistent with effective principal behavior.

Knowledge

If principals lack knowledge, for example, about how to influence school or classroom factors and how to create effective conditions within factors, successful training or intervention is likely to include procedures for:

(a) Diagnosing related information already possessed by principals, for example, what they already know about effective classroom management.

(b) Introducing additional information in easily accommodated amounts. For example, articles to be read on principles of classroom management, followed by a demonstration in an actual classroom. Training sessions may also be held depending on the complexity of information to be provided.

(c) Stimulating an active search for meaning in new information. For example, uncovering evidence that links effective management practices to areas of student achievement in which school principals are weak.

(d) Providing opportunities for principals to gather new information in a forum where principals feel free to ask questions and test out understandings.

Skills

According to Leithwood and Montgomery (1986) if principals lack skills in carrying out strategies and decision-making process, a successful intervention could include procedures for:

(a) Observing the skilled performance of others. For example, giving feedback to a teacher after observing his classroom instruction.

(b) Practicing the skills to develop in a low risk settings. For example, stimulating an evaluation feedback session with another principal.

(c) Providing feedback to principals about their performances in a low risk setting.

(d) Providing coaching for principals about how to perform in their school settings.

The Design of In-Service Training Programs

In designing in-service training programs, Leithwood and Montgomery (1986) propose five components of in-service training programs:

(1) Images of Effective Principals. The images of effective principals, for example, problem solvers, provide perfect models of training for principals. They comprise major premises from which principals can

derive a consistent integrated set of more detailed

objectives. Competing premises for program

rationalization, for example, principal's perception of

need, do not provide the same quarantees of coherence

and integration. These competing premises are often

based on implicit, sometimes unwarranted, and

conflicting images. The image also contains bases to

obtain an integrated set of more detailed objectives

and content of the training.

(2)   Classification of Behaviors. While doing their work,

principals are involved in many kinds of behaviors.

The description of these behaviors according to

Leithwood and Montgomery (1986) challenges any research

method currently available. The choice of categories

of principal behaviors shows the major components of

the image of effective principal considered to be worth

further programmatic attention. This choice provides

the starting points for developing more detailed

program objectives. To serve these purposes, the

categories chosen ought to be readily deducible from

the images of effective principals. They should also

provide an explicit link between the behaviors to be

trained for and school improvement.

(3) <u>Stages of Growth</u>. Principal effectiveness is a process
of continuous growth. The increase in principal
effectiveness is determined by the extent to which
training programs are able to provide conceptions of
stages of growth, procedures for diagnosing principals
for entering the programs, and opportunities for
beginning training at their diagnosed level. Depending
on their stages of growth, principals may need to be
trained several times.

(4) <u>Forms of Instruction</u>. Forms of instruction vary, and
include formal lectures, peer dialogue, simulation,
school visits, and observation.

(5) <u>Assessment</u>. Assessment of the programs' impact on
participants, are based on membership, attendance,
participants' comments at the end of the course, and
comprehensive assessment.

Implementation: Suggested Models

Before dealing with the implementation of in-service
training for principals in Indonesia, we must first examine
the complexity of the administrative structure and the
dualism in the control of elementary education in
Indonesia. The operation of elementary schools is done by
the Governor in each province who is then responsible to the

Ministry of Home Affairs, not to the Ministry of Education and Culture. Teachers and principals are appointed and their salaries are paid by the Governor's Office of Education (Dinas P&P). Buildings, equipment and finance are provided by the Governor. But on professional matters, such as standards and curriculum, principals are responsible to the Representative Office of the Ministry of Education and Culture (Kanwil) in the province.

The Kanwil has a branch in every district. It is called the District Office of the Department of Education and Culture (Kandepkab). The Kandepkab also has a branch in every sub-district. It is callled the Sub-District Office of the Department of Education and Culture (Kandepcam). Elementary school supervisors are in the Kandepcam, not in the Kandepkab.

The control of General Secondary Schools is directly under the Kanwil. Teachers and principals are appointed and their salaries are paid by the Kanwil. Buildings, equipment and finance are provided by the Kanwil and the Kanwil is responsible to the Ministry of Education and Culture in Jakarta. Secondary school principals are directly responsible to the Kanwil. Secondary school supervisors are in the Kanwil, not in the Sub-District (Kandepcam) or in the District (Kandepkab).

The Ministry of Education and Culture has several directorate generals. One of them is the The Directorate General of Primary and Secondary Education. This Directorate General is in charge of both elementary and secondary school policy. In practice, the policy related to elementary schools is delegated to the Directorate of Elementary Education and the policy related to general secondary schools is delegated to the Directorate of General Secondary Education respectively. Thus, at the national level, the policy for the implementation of elementary school principal training programs is the responsibility of the Directorate of Elementary Education, and the policy for the implementation of general secondary school principal training programs is the responsibility of the Directorate of General Secondary Education.

Based on the administrative structure of education and the intention of the Ministry of Education and Culture to provide training programs for school principals as stated in its national workshop beginning in 1988 (The Ministry of Education and Culture, 1987), two models for implementation of training programs are suggested, one for elementary and one for secondary school principals.

Suggested Models for Elementary and Secondary Training Programs

The proposed model for the implementation of Elementary School Principal Training Programs, (Figure 2), consists of six levels: national, provincial, district, sub-district, cluster and school levels. For General Secondary School Principal Training Programs, (Figure 3), the model consists of five levels: national, BPG regional, provincial, cluster and school levels.

At the national level, under the coordination of the Director General of Primary and Secondary Education, both the Directorates of Elementary and General Secondary Education can work together to assess the needs for training elementary as well general secondary school principals by conducting some research and obtaining some input from schools, parents and community. Both directorates assisted by educators, educational planners and consultants can then set the goals and the objectives of the training, form teams for teaching as trainers and facilitators, and prepare necessary training materials.

At the provincial level, the plan for training elementary school principals must meet the approval of the governor, especially for financial support and facilities. The participants can be the Kanwil, Dinas P&P and the

Figure 2: A Suggested Model for Elementary School Principal
Training Programs

Level	Activities	Facilitators
National	Needs assessment, setting goals for training programs	Educators, ministry officials and consultants
Provincial	Training for Kanwil, provincial and district officials	Educators, ministry officials and consultants
District	Training for supervisors and senior principals	Kanwil, provincial and district officials
Sub-District	Training for senior principals	Supervisors and senior principals
School Cluster	Training for principals	Supervisors and Senior principals
School	implementation	feedback

Figure 3: A Suggested Model for General Secondary School
Principal Training Programs

Level	Activities	Facilitators
National	Needs assessment, setting goals for training programs	Educators, ministry officials and consultants
BPG Regional	Training for Kanwil officials and supervisors	Ministry officials, consultants and consultants
Provincial	Training for officials, supervisors and senior principals	Kanwil officials consultants and supervisors
School Cluster	Training for principals	Supervisors and senior principals
School	implementation	feedback

district officials. From the provincial level the training will take place at the district and the training is attended by elementary school supervisors and senior principals. In practice, supervisors who used to be school heads have the responsibility in supervising the school programs. They are the right persons to become the trainers and facilitators in this level. Training in the sub-district level is attended by the senior principals and by other supervisors. Depend on the number of principals in the sub-district, all principals can take part in the training programs. In the cluster level the participants are active in the workshops, peer group discussions dealing with the content of the training, and the strategy that best suit their school conditions, to lead to student improvement. At school level, the principals then implement ideas from the training they have attended. The supervisors can also monitor the principals' progress. The feedback and monitoring outputs will become inputs for the next year of training programs.

The plan for training general secondary school principals takes place at the 12 "BPGs" (Balai Penataran Guru) or the Teacher Training Centers. The twelve Teacher Training Centers are in Medan, Padang, Palembang, Jakarta, Bandung, Semarang, Surabaya, Denpasar, Banjarmasin,

Ujungpandang, Manado and Ambon. At present, BPGs function
by providing accommodation and facilities to participants.
Hopefully in the long run, they will function as centers
that can provide qualified staff to carry on any training
programs. This organization around centers is done mainly
for economic reasons, so that participants do not have to
spend much money to travel from the province to Jakarta, and
nor do the trainers or officials from Jakarta to the
province. Instead, those who want to attend some training
or any activities from one province will go to the nearest
BPG in the nearest province. Training at the BPG is
attended by officials and supervisors from the neighboring
provinces.

At the provincial level, the training will be attended
by supervisors and senior principals. These supervisors and
senior principals will then conduct training programs for
principals at the cluster or district level. In this level
the participants are active in workshops with peer
discussion dealing with implementation of the programs that
best suit their school conditions and lead to student
improvement. At their school level, the principals
implement what they have got from the training. The

supervisors can also monitor the principals' development. The feedback and monitoring outputs can be used as inputs for the next programs.

The contents of the programs include educational leadership, motivation, supervision and evaluation, policy and decision making, problem solving, curriculum management and implementation, school and classroom management, communication and school administration.

Part 2: Pre-Service Training

Except for the pre-service training held for senior school principals in Malang in 1985, as discussed in Chapter 4, there is no information that Indonesia has ever conducted any pre-service training for principals. Pre-service training is mainly intended to prepare prospective principals to become principals.

Miklos (1988) states that the criteria for selecting principals cover a broad range of professional, personal and functional characteristics. Some general personal criteria are previous academic preparation, experience and competence. Human relations skills and the ability to elicit cooperation are also considered important in the assessment of the candidate for administrative positions. Personal

characteristics include: judgment, personality, character, open-mindedness, physical and mental health, poise, intelligence, sense of humor, and voice.

Gross and Herriot (1965) identified four factors that might have a predictive value in selecting principals: academic achievement, interpersonal skills, motive of service and readiness to commit off-duty time to the job.

Potential principals, right from the beginning, should be provided opportunities to develop their competencies. This part of this chapter will propose two important settings in the preparation of principals: teaching and vice principalship experience.

Teaching Experience

From studies that have been conducted, different opinions exist whether teaching experience is useful in a preparation for the principalship. Blumberg and Greenfield (1980) say that teaching experience may somehow be related to the later role in the principalship. They state that "Teachers, while active in the teaching role, for example, unwittingly accrue both useful and inappropriate conceptions of the principalship" (pp. 259-260).

McGregor (1978) believes special knowledge is needed for the principalship which may be acquired in large part as a teacher, and in part by post-graduate courses at universities or colleges. He states that "the first requirement for appointment should be successful teaching experience and a thorough knowledge of the school" (p. 16).

Brown, Rix and Covlat (1983) indirectly show that teachers have potential to become principals. Through the use of a projective technique, they have identified criteria used by administrators in making decisions about promoting teachers to vice principals, one step before entering the principalship. The criteria are individuality, cognitive skills, rapport with students, teachers, administrators and communities; leadership and personal qualities.

Estergaard (1982) believes that teaching appears to be enriched as a preparation experience when it offers opportunities to work beyond normal classroom conditions with student's behavior, staff leadership, instructional analysis, curriculum development, planning and organizing.

Thomson (1989) states that "The principal relies significantly upon his or her experience as teacher when performing tasks in five major areas of responsibility.

These include employing teachers, supervising instruction, leading and managing teachers, understanding and working with students, and conferring with parents" (p. 37).

It is expected that potential principals will come from teaching ranks and the Ministry of Education and Culture will systematically identify and examine some specific aspects of teacher's experience that may be essential to function as principal.

Vice-Principalship Experience

As also discussed earlier, one step before entering principalship is teaching experience. The next step is a vice-principalship for secondary school level and an assistant principalship for elementary school level. It is easy to understand why vice-principalship experience is an important training for prospective principals, because it provides more practical experience than university coursework, and a great number of secondary school principals have experience as vice-principals. A report by the Canadian Education Association (1971) found that 93.7 percent of urban secondary school principals were first vice principals. Although there is no similar report done in Indonesia, it can be assumed that a great majority of secondary principals in Indonesia were vice-principals.

It is expected that the Ministry of Education and Culture will have more interest in developing the vice-principalship competency. Estergaard's (1982) study concludes that the vice-principalship is considered the most useful preparation experience because it benefits one's understanding of school operations, as well as the task and role performance of principals. Valentive (1980) argues that the best training ground would be serving as an assistant in a true administrative team. He encourages vice-principals to experience a variety of principal responsibilities. Furthermore, the vice-principalship will be more useful experience when vice-principals work together with superior principals, and are given increased responsibility as their competence increases. Vice-principals will get more advantage if they can work with more than one principal in more than one school.

They may also participate in the in-service training programs designed for principals discussed earlier.

CHAPTER 6

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The purpose of this project was to help to develop effective principals in Indonesia. Developing principal effectiveness is very important when we consider the complexity and importance of their tasks.

Principal effectiveness is defined as "making gains on behalf of the students" (Leithwood and Montgomery, 1986 p. 7). That is, principal behaviors are capable of reducing the costs of students, increasing the proportion of students mastering school objectives and overall student self-direction and problem-solving capacity.

In an attempt to develop effective principals in Indonesia, this project has conducted a literature review of the role of effective principals in North America. Leithwood and Montgomery (1986) identified four dimensions of principal effectiveness: goals, strategies, factors and decision making. They were matched with the present practices of principals in Indonesia. These four dimensions are congruent with the Indonesian context.

Goals are based on the Constitution, the Guideline State Policy (GBHN) and the Ministry of Education and Culture goals. Principals in Indonesia have similar classroom and school factors to influence. However, the results show that they are less effective in setting goals, making strategies to influence classroom and school factors, and making decisions for actions.

These are due to the facts that (a) they lack motivation, knowledge and skills or combinations; (b) they lack training either as preparation before or after becoming principals; and (c) the training they used to participate did not have direct impact with their knowledge and skills needed as instructional leaders. Moreover, elementary school principals, who were SPG graduates, do not have sufficient knowledge compared with general secondary principals who are university graduates.

These deficiencies can be improved by providing them with sufficient training "to promote the professional development of program participants" (Murphy and Hallinger, 1987 p. 246). Training is aimed at assisting principals in the areas they need help. A feasibility study and needs assessment should be conducted to determine in what dimensions principals need assistance, either in setting goals, making strategies to influence factors, and making

decisions for actions or their combinations. It is also necessary to decide the images of effective principals to develop, classifications of behaviors, stages of growth, forms of instruction, and the assessment of the training. The length and the frequency of training will much depend on principals' needs for improvement.

Two models of training programs are proposed, one for elementary school principals and another one for general secondary school principals. These are due to:

(a) Elementary and secondary schools and principals at the ministry level are managed by two different directorates. The policies dealing with elementary schools, including principals, are managed by the Directorate of Elementary Education. The policies dealing with general secondary schools, including general secondary school principals, are managed by the Directorate of General Secondary Education.

(b) Elementary and secondary principals have different levels of education, knowledge and skills. They also have different complexity of school problems. Both training programs need different treatment by facilitators and trainers due to different educational levels between elementary and secondary school principals.

(c)   Dualism in elementary school management. The Ministry
      of Education and Culture controls educational and
      professional aspects, while the Ministry of Home
      Affairs controls school administration, including
      finance. Coordination between both ministry levels
      will take time. Training programs for secondary school
      principals can start without waiting for elementary
      principal training programs to start.

(d)   Elementary school principal training program is a new
      project while general secondary school principals
      training programs can be parts of PKG programs or will
      stand side by side with the PKG training programs. The
      Directorate of General Secondary Education and PKG have
      conducted an early effort to train general secondary
      school principals, for example, by sending a number of
      senior principals to Australia and England, and by
      assigning them to train other principals.

      Nevertheless, the most important of all, training for
principals in Indonesia is necessary and should be
continually carried out to develop effective principals, one
of potential solutions in improving effective schools and
making gains on behalf of students.

Recommendations

The reader should keep in mind that the recommendations
that follow are based upon a single study. In addition, the
researcher's assessment of principals' practice in Indonesia
was based on the available records at the Ministry of
Education and Culture, an interview with the former Director
of General Secondary Education, and the writer's knowledge
of the Indonesian scene. The researcher did not return to
Indonesia to conduct an extensive study. The additional
limitation rests with the difficulty of transferring
knowledge from one culture to another. In this case an
attempt is made to apply information gained in North America
having a long history and experience in practice and
research concerning the principalship to Indonesia where
education is still a new phenomenon. Thus, the
recommendations that follow should be viewed accordingly.

Despite these caveats the majority of principals in
Indonesia have much to learn from North American
experience. One way of improving their effectiveness is by
providing some training. To make their training more
effective this project recommends that policy makers and
educational planners should, prior to training, conduct a
feasibility study to diagnose, analyze, and determine costs
and number of participants and type of training needed by

participants. This project also recommends that the image of principal effectiveness, classification of behaviors, stages of growth, forms of instruction, and the assessment of training be clearly stated in the training design.

Due to the separation of policy and control between elementary and general secondary education, the different levels of principal education, and the management of elementary schools by two different ministries, this project recommends that training for elementary principals be separated from training for general secondary school principals by establishing two training projects.

Since the training will continually assist principals in their professional development, it is recommended that the training projects should be separated from routine activities and professionally managed by skilled staff.

Knowing that a great number of principals might participate in the training, the training projects will last for about ten years.

In the meantime, prospective principals will soon replace retiring principals. Thus, it will be much better if they can also participate in the training. In the long run, it is recommended that the training lead to the professional certification of principals.

In relation to elementary school principal training programs, it is recommended that there will be a coordination between the Ministry of Education and Culture and the Ministry of Home Affairs. They can establish, for instance, a joint-project for elementary school principals, so that improvement of their effectiveness will not experience a very long delay.

Ideally, elementary and secondary education should be managed by one management because professional, financial and material activities are interrelated. The dual management of the elementary school system, based on Government Regulation No. 65, 1951 (Beeby, 1979; Indriyati, Susanto and Sidharta, 1988), sometimes creates misunderstanding, conflicts, inefficiency and delay. Good coordination under good personal relationships is possible, "but any plan for major changes in the kind and quality of education that primary schools give must depend in the long run on more than good will" (Beeby, 1979 p. 234). Fuad Hasan, the Minister of Education and Culture has recently expressed that the management of elementary and secondary education is not necessarily under two ministries (Indriyati, Susanto and Sidharta, 1988). In this regard, this project recommends that the government reconsiders

Regulation No. 65, 1951 in order that elementary and secondary education can both be managed by the Ministry of Education and Culture.

It is a fact that the level of education and the range of salary between teachers and principals at elementary schools are lower than the level of education and salary range of secondary school teachers and principals. The Director General of Primary and Secondary Education has recently told principals in Solo, Central Java that elementary school teachers will be graduates of D3 program from universities (Basri et al., 1988), but did not specify when the plan would be carried out.

This project recommends that the Ministry of Education and Culture should soon make the plan into a reality. This effort will raise the pride, motivation, and salary of teachers and principals of elementary schools. At the same time it will improve the standard of education in Indonesia. Any efforts by the government to increase teachers' and principals' salaries will be highly appreciated.

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Appendix

Interview Questions

with B. S. Brotosiswojo, Former Director of General
Secondary Education (1975-1988), the Ministry of Education
and Culture about the Development of Effective Principals in
Indonesia during his visit to attend A Seminar on
Technology in Education: An Economic Perspective, 11 - 17
September 1988 in Vancouver, B.C. Each question will be
followed by questions related to the topic.

1. Could you tell me the development of school effectivess
    in Indonesia in the last ten years?

2. What efforts has the government done to improve
    principal effectiveness?

3. What kinds of pre-service and in-service training are
    considered necessary for begining and practicing
    principals?

4. How many percents of general secondary school principals
    have participated in the training?

5. Could you also give me a general picture of the
    development of elementary school principals?