CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

A. Introduction

This introductory chapter generally discusses both countries Primary Education System, Background of the Research; it states the Purpose of the Study and Research Questions. It further describes the significance of the study. Finally, it outlines the structure of the thesis as a whole.

B. Background of the Research

The paper entitled “Comparative study on teaching and learning process in primary schools in Indonesia and Uzbekistan” was aimed to investigate and uncover the teaching and learning strategies, primary education system and policies, curriculum, future prospective of primary education of two developing countries named Indonesia and Uzbekistan.

Over the few decades Soviet Union Empire, colonized Uzbekistan in that period not only government but also education system, teaching and learning methods, official language, and books have been changed. Uzbekistan got its independence in 1991, and after that newborn government started to work on development of the country, took everything in consideration, including education system in Uzbekistan.

Indonesia has experienced this kind of colonization twice; first, the Dutch people landed to Indonesian island in 16 century and took control almost everything for about 350 years. After that, Japanese colonized the county for more than 3 years. They run their policies from 1943 until 1945.

Uzbekistan has reached an ancient history, including in the field of education. Its ancestors had left to Uzbek people thousands of excellent specimens of human works, masterpieces of art, science, and literature. From the time immemorial in Uzbekistan, the major goal of education was the upbringing of new generation. Public education was crafted for centuries, developing and improving fundamental principles of training and education. Youth education in the spirit of humanity and respect is one of the main directions of public pedagogy and include politeness and respect. Now the policy of the state in the field of education is based on its own model. It is aimed at training of highly qualified specialists, competitive cadre for work in the market economy, supporting of educational establishments of
various types. Special attention is paid to the conformity of education institutions to the state curricular, to provide social protection for students and teachers as well as to upgrade technical and methodical base of educational institutions (Curtis, 1996).

Speaking of Education System of Uzbekistan, country has experienced two different educational systems, one in the period of Soviet Union, and second one was that which was gained after independence.

According to official sources, about 60 percent of Uzbekistan's population is covered under the system of education. The earlier educational system required 11 years of compulsory schooling for both men and women. In 1992, the policy decision was made to change from 11 to 9 years of compulsory education. After nine years of compulsory schooling, students can prepare for higher education in tenth or eleventh grade or turn to vocational training. After graduating from any type of secondary education, an individual can enter to a higher education institution to obtain a bachelor's degree and continue study toward a master's after that doctoral degree. Budget constraints and other transition problems following the collapse of the Soviet Union, have made it difficult to maintain and update educational buildings, equipment, texts, supplies, teaching methods, and curricula. Foreign aid for education was desperately needed, but had not been sufficient to compensate for the loss of central funding (Uzbekistan country profile, 2007).

When viewed in general, the Uzbekistan educational system includes:
1. Preschool training (preprimary-from three to six years old)
2. General secondary education (from 6 to 15 years old)
3. Secondary vocational education (from 15 to 18 years old)
4. Higher education (undergraduate and graduate from 18 years old).

Girls and boys are legally considered equal and study in the same classes and schools. Schools are open to all ethnic groups, and minorities in schools are rarely an issue.

The academic year begins on 2 September (September 1 is the Independence Day) or the first working day of September. The academic year ends in June for secondary schools and in July for higher education. Russian was a common language for over 100 nationalities living in the Soviet Union and played the same role as English for the United States. Without Russian as a common language, Uzbeks (and other ethnic groups) would have to learn Ukrainian, Belorussian, Moldovan, Armenian, and many other languages to communicate with the
multinational population of the Soviet Union. Therefore, until 1991, Uzbeks preferred schools with instruction in Russian for their children. Not to do so would have put them at a great disadvantage socially. After Uzbekistan gained its independence, Uzbek (not Russian) became the official language of instruction. In 1998-1999, approximately 76.8 percent of pupils at day schools were educated in Uzbek (Uzbekistan country profile, 2007).

Examinations in the educational system of Uzbekistan are primarily oral. Universities, institutes, and some colleges still have entrance exams. Course exams occur only at the end of the course (semester or term). State exams are taken at higher education institutions at the completion of all coursework. The grading system of Uzbekistan is numerical. The highest grade is 5 (excellent = A), then follows 4 (good = B), 3 (satisfactory = C), and 2 (unsatisfactory = F). One is never used. Test scores, papers, attendance, determine final grades and class participation as compulsory education is freely provided to all children of Uzbekistan, private schools had had a difficult time justifying their existence. In fact, they were banned in 1993.

In addition, since Uzbekistan Law declared the separation of education from religion, there are no religious schools. However, in 1999, the establishment of the Tashkent Islamic University was allowed. Computer technology, thanks to international assistance, was being introduced to educational institutions and training centers. In 1994, the Central Asian Telecommunications Training Center (CATTC) was established in Uzbekistan under the Tacis Program of the European Commission. Training at the CATTC was provided using modern teaching aids, active methods, and individual and group methods by specialists and experts in different fields.

Because of decline in funding, the printing of books, textbooks, and other publications face numerous difficulties. Nevertheless, despite obvious difficulties, according to UNESCO, Uzbekistan schools supplied about 60 percent of textbooks as a whole and for some selected subjects up to 100 percent. Publishing houses produced about 149 million copies of over 1700 various titles. From 1992 to 1997, some 174 textbooks with over 53,000 copies were published, including 138 original, 19 translated, 8 parallel in 2 languages, and 9 experimental textbooks. About 170 various tutorials and educational literature in 7 languages are published. Teachers usually manually prepare audiovisual materials.
The expansion of curricula, including the addition of courses in French, Arabic, and English, has placed new stress on a limited supply of teachers and materials. In the mid-1990s, a major curriculum reform was begun. Western experts advised:

1. a more commercial approach to the mathematics curriculum
2. more emphasis in economics courses on the relationship of capital to labor
3. more emphasis in social science courses on individual responsibility for the environment
4. the addition of entirely new subjects, such as business management.

Because such changes involved new materials and a new pedagogical approach by staff, the reform period was estimated at 10 to 15 years. The current transformation of the educational system was performed along educational models in developed countries. According to Gulyamov, "During the process of developing the National Program the experience of reforming education in more than 30 leading countries in the world has been studied" (Gulyamov, 1999).

Uzbekistan became a member of the Convention on the Rights of the Child in 1992 and the International Covenant on Economic, Social, and Cultural Rights in 1995. Hence, the country was committed to ensure the rights stipulated in the conventions are respected and protected—especially the right to education. Uzbekistan has achieved almost complete literacy in its citizens.

In 1997, Uzbekistan started to implement major education reform. The Government is committed to raising the quality of education, as the Interim Welfare Improvement Strategy Indicates. In, 1997, the Government launched the National Program for Personnel Training, which aimed to extend compulsory education from nine to twelve years by 2009.

The new National Program for School Education Development targets:

1. Strengthening and Development of the infrastructure of basic education schools;
2. Furnishing schools with up-to-date teaching and laboratory equipment, computers, textbooks and teaching materials.
3. Improvement of teaching methodology and curriculum;
4. Improvement of the qualifications of teaching staff, development of training and re-training systems, and improvement of teacher’s motivation system.

The Government has also initiated a number of pro-poor policies in the education sector. From 2002, Government programs were aimed to provide free textbooks to all students from
low-income families. Orphans and children left with no guardianship were on full Government support. Since 1997, a set of winter clothing was also being provided to children from low-income families. Uzbekistan invests heavily in the education system, a tribute to the Government's emphasis on quality human resources for the future. Universal access to secondary education in Uzbekistan was already achieved by 1990; the baseline year for global MDGs. Uzbekistan has achieved almost complete literacy in its citizens. Due to the emphasis on socio-economic reforms since independence, the literacy level of the population increased from 97.7% in 1991 to 99.3% in 2003. The share of the adult population with specialized secondary, vocational or higher education exceeded 75%. On the levels of primary and secondary education, there was virtually no difference between the number of girls and boys (90.0% of boys to 90.5% of girls). According to the Social Monitoring Report, basic education enrollment was 97.5% in 2002.

Unfortunately, high enrollment rates do not always translate into continuous school attendance. There was some evidence of non-attendance by children who were officially enrolled in schools. Recent data suggested that the proportion of the 7-11 age groups who actually attend school is 74% for boys and 73% for girls.

Regional disparities also have their role in school attendance rates at all levels of education. According to the Family Budget Survey, school attendance is lower in northern and southern parts of the country. Despite many challenges that were confronting the education system, it was important to note that nearly all primary school students moved to the 5th grade of basic secondary level, according to official statistics. Although the decline in the quality of education, high costs to families and geographical discrepancies of quality schooling unfavorably influenced the literacy levels and the future labor market, education was still considered a vital option to escape falling into poverty.

Although the universal access to primary education has been achieved, it remains problematic for children with special needs. Many children with special needs did not attend schools and there was a serious concern about their future wellbeing. In order to make sure that they are not left out of the schooling system, a special program “Inclusive Education” was developed in 2001 under the Ministry of Public Education, supported by UNICEF and UNESCO. Commissions were set up to help identify whether a child is able to attend a regular
school or needs to be redirected to special boarding schools or sanatoriums. Currently, there are 40,000 children with special needs who receive state-supported education (UNESCO, 2007).

Adopted in 1997 the National model became a basis and core of the National program on personnel training which has defined conceptual mechanisms of fundamental overhauling of the education system and professional training. The program is a normative and scientific base for reforms, it lays a way to fundamental changes in the structure and contents of the education system, with the inclusion of the nine-year common secondary education, completely new independent kind of middle special, professional education, two-level system of higher education. The essence and distinctive feature of the National model of the professional education is the system’s integrity that encompasses following basic components: individual, the state and the society, continuous education, science and manufacturing.

Role, functions, and objectives of continuous education in the implementation of National model have been clearly formulated in the followings:

1. First phase (1997-2001) - creating legal, regulatory, scientific methodical, financial basis for its overhauling and developing on the basis of the preservation of positive potentials of the existing system in professional training.

2. Second phase (2001-2005) – full-scale implementation of the National program, its adjustment by using accumulated experience, development of labor market and real social-economic conditions.

3. Third phase (2005-to present) - accomplishment and further development of a system of professional training on the basis of analyzing and synthesizing of cumulative experience according to perspectives of social-economic development of the country.

The proclamation (1997) by the Government of the Republic of Uzbekistan that education is priority sphere of social-economic development, democratization, humanization all spheres of public life as well as the adoption of the National program on specialist preparation gave new impetus to developing the educational system and for the creation of new types of educational institutes. The main priority of the National program on specialists’ training is to form a free and independent person, which has ability to participate actively in social political life. It allows to accelerate an promote democratic principles in country’s social-economic life. The Program includes democratization of the educational governing system through broadening
independence of educational institutes. The educational governing system has also been
overhauled based on principles of democracy, decentralization, and humanization. In particular,
it designed to provide extension of rights and independence of educational institutes in financial-
economic activity and organization of educational process, developing effective system of public
governing over educational institutes through a formation of trustee and observation councils.
The educational system of Uzbekistan is in a transitional period of development. Moreover, the
success of reforms will mostly depend on the changes of main core of these system education
institutions in a short and long run. (Ministry of Public Education of Republic of Uzbekistan,
“National program on reforming education system” 1997).

The implementation of the National program on professional training allows Uzbekistan to:

1. form perfect system of specialists’ training;
2. develop human’s talent and to satisfy his/her different educational needs;
3. form a freely and independently thinking person, patriot of the country devoted to ideas of
   independence and democracy;
4. maintain national security;
5. implant the democratic principles in social-political life of country, to build really civic
   society and lawful state;
6. occupy its own reputed place in the world community.

In Indonesia, the Dutch introduced elementary education during the colonial era. Initially,
it was reserved for the Dutch (and other Europeans) only. In 1870, with the growth of Dutch
Ethical Policy formulated by Conrad Theodor van Deventer, some of these Dutch-founded
schools opened the doors for bumiputera (lit. native Indonesians). They were called Sekolah
Rakjat (lit. folk school), the embryo of what is called Sekolah Dasar (lit. elementary school)
today ("Nicht verfügbart", 2012).

The Dutch introduced a system of formal education for the local population of Indonesia,
although this was restricted to certain privileged children. The system they introduced was
roughly similar to the current structure, with the following levels:

1. ELS (Dutch: Europeesche Lagere School) - Primary School for Europeans
2. HIS (Dutch: Hollandsch-Inlandsche School) - Primary School for Natives
3. MULO (Dutch: Meer Uitgebreid Lager Onderwijs) - Middle School
4. AMS (Dutch: Algeme(e)ne Middelbare School) - High School or College
5. HBS (Dutch:Hogere Burger School) - Pre-University

The segregation between Dutch and Indonesian in education pushed several Indonesian figures to start educational institutions for local people. Ahmad Dahlan founded Muhammadiyah in November 1912, and Ki Hajar Dewantara founded Taman Siswa in July 1922. Pesantrens were also mushrooming rapidly during this time period ("Sedikit Uraian Sejarah Pendidikan Indonesia", 2012).

The Dutch colonial government also established a number of universities for native Indonesian on the island of Java, such as:
1. School tot Opleiding van Inlandsche Artsen or STOVIA, a medical school in Jakarta
2. Nederland-Indische Artsen School or NIAS, a medical school in Surabaja
3. Rechts Hoge School, a law school in Jakarta
4. De Technische Hoges School, or THS, a technic school in Bandoeng

By the 1930s, the Dutch had introduced limited formal education to nearly every province of the Dutch East Indies ("SEKOLAH MENENGAH", 2012).

Great progress has been made toward the goal of universal education since 1973, when nearly 20 percent of youth were illiterate. At that time, then-President Suharto issued an order to set aside portions of oil revenues for the construction of new primary schools. This act resulted in the construction or repair of nearly 40,000 primary-school facilities by the late 1980s, and literacy rates improved significantly nationwide. During 1997–98, the financial crisis affected the poorest families the most, resulting in their selectively cutting back on their education expenditures. Government funding struggled to keep up with rising costs during this period, but by 2002, according to the World Bank, only 2 percent of those between the ages of 15 and 24 could not read, and by 2009, the adult literacy rate was 90.4 percent (Joel C, 2011).

From the age of 2, some children in Indonesia attend pre-school playgroup, known as PAUD (Pendidikan Anak Usia Dini). From the age of 4, they attend kindergarten (Taman Kanak-Kanak). This education is not compulsory for Indonesian citizens, as it is aimed to prepare them for Primary Schooling. Of the 49,000 kindergartens in Indonesia, 99.35% of them are privately
operated schools. The kindergarten years are usually divided into "Class A" and "Class B" students spending a year in each class (Depdiknas, 2004-2005).

Indonesians are required to attend nine years of school. They can choose between state-run, nonsectarian public schools supervised by the Ministry of National Education (Mendiknas) or private or semiprivate religious (usually Islamic) schools supervised and financed by the Ministry of Religious Affairs however, although 86.1 percent of the Indonesian population was registered as Muslim, according to the 2000 census only 15 percent of school-age individuals attended religious schools. Overall enrollment figures were slightly higher for girls than boys were and much higher in Java than the rest of Indonesia.

A central goal of the national education system is not merely to impart secular wisdom about the world but also to instruct children in the principles of participation in the modern nation-state, its bureaucracies, and its moral and ideological foundations. Beginning under Guided Democracy (1959–65) and strengthened in the New Order after 1966, a key feature of the national curriculum—as was the case for other national institutions has been instruction in the Pancasila. Children age six and older learned by rote its five principles—belief in one God, humanitarianism, national unity, democracy, and social justice—and were instructed daily to apply the meanings of this key national symbol to their lives. But with the end of the New Order in 1998 and the beginning of the campaign to decentralize the national government, provincial and district-level administrators obtained increasing autonomy in determining the content of schooling (Joel C. 2011).

Children aged 6–11 attend primary school, called Sekolah Dasar (SD). Most elementary schools are government-operated public schools, accounting for nearly 93% of all elementary schools in Indonesia (Depdiknas, 2004-2005).

Students spend six years in primary school, though some schools offer an accelerated learning program in which students who perform well can complete the level in five years.

Three years of middle school (Sekolah Menengah Pertama, or SMP) follows elementary school. After completion of the six-year primary-school program, three years of junior secondary school (Sekolah Menengah Pertama, or SMP), and then may be followed by three years of senior secondary school (Sekolah Menengah Atas or SMA.). Besides that, students can choose between a variety of vocational and pre-professional senior secondary schools (Sekolah Menengah
Kejuruan or SMK), each level of which requires three years of study. There are academic and vocational high schools that lead to senior-level diplomas. There are also "domestic science" high schools for girls. At the senior high school level, three-year agricultural, veterinary, and forestry schools are open to students who have graduated from an academic junior high school.

Students with disabilities/special needs may alternately opt to be enrolled in a separate school from the mainstream called Sekolah Luar Biasa, school for children with special needs (lit. Special Education School).

The completion rate for Indonesian primary schools is high. Indeed, 100 percent of the relevant age group had completed primary education as of 2003. The gross enrollment rate for primary schools was 100 percent, but it decreased to 62 percent for secondary schools and 16 percent for postsecondary schools. There were nearly equal numbers of girls and boys in primary and secondary schools; in the late 2000s, the ratio was 96.7 girls to 100 boys. Depdiknas reported that in school year 2007–8 there were 63,444 kindergartens, with a total enrollment of 2.8 million pupils and 176,061 teachers. Later statistics are available for primary and secondary levels for school year 2008–9. They indicate that there were 144,228 primary schools, with a total enrollment of 26.9 million students and 1.5 million teachers; 28,777 junior secondary schools, with a total enrollment of 8.9 million students and 629,036 teachers; 10,762 general senior secondary schools, with a total enrollment of 3.8 million students and 314,389 teachers; and 7,592 vocational senior secondary schools, with a total enrollment of 3 million students and 246,018 teachers. Additionally, there were 1,686 special education schools from kindergarten to senior secondary levels, with a total enrollment of 73,322 and 18,047 teachers. (Joel C. 2011)

Teacher-training programs are varied and gradually being upgraded. For example, in the 1950s anyone completing a teacher-training program at the junior high school level could obtain a teacher’s certificate. Since the 1970s, however, primary-school teachers have been required to graduate from a senior high school for teachers, and teachers of higher grades have been required to complete a university-level education course. Remuneration for primary - and secondary – schoolteachers is low, compares favorably with that in other Asian countries such as Malaysia, India, and Thailand. Student–teacher ratios also compare satisfactorily with those in many Asian nations: They were 23.4 to 1 and 18.8 to 1, respectively, for primary and secondary schools in
2004; that same year, the overall averages for Asia-Pacific countries were 22 to 1 and 18 to 1, respectively.

By 2008, the staff shortage in Indonesia's schools was no longer as acute as in the 1980s, but serious difficulties remain, particularly in the areas of teacher salaries, teacher certification, and finding qualified personnel. In many remote areas of the Outer Islands, in particular, there is a severe shortage of qualified teachers, and some villages have school buildings but no teachers, books, or supplies. Providing textbooks and other school equipment to Indonesia’s 37 million schoolchildren throughout the far-flung archipelago continues to be a significant problem as well, especially in more remote areas.

The character of Indonesia's educational system reflects its diverse religious heritage, its struggle for a national identity, and the challenge of resource allocation in a poor but developing archipelagic nation with a young and rapidly growing population. Although a draft constitution stated in 1950 that a key government goal was to provide every Indonesian with at least six years of primary schooling, the aim of universal education had not been reached by the late 1980s, particularly among females although great improvements had been made. Obstacles to meeting the government's goal included a high birth rate, a decline in infant mortality, and a shortage of schools and qualified teachers. In 1973, Suharto (second President Republic of Indonesia) issued an order to set aside portions of oil revenues for the construction of new primary schools. Following kindergarten, Indonesians of between seven and twelve years of age were required to attend six years of primary school in the 1990s.

A style of pedagogy prevails inside public-school classrooms that emphasize rote learning and deference to the authority of the teacher. Although the youngest children are sometimes allowed to use their local language, by the third year of primary school nearly all instruction is conducted in Indonesian. Teachers customarily do not ask questions of individual students; rather, a standard teaching technique is to narrate a historical event or to describe a mathematical problem, pausing at key junctures to allow the students to call out responses that "fill in the blanks". By not identifying individual problems of students and retaining an emotionally distanced demeanor, teachers are said to show themselves to be patient, which is considered admirable behavior.
This paper considered all about primary education in both countries, start from history until nowadays all available information by analyzing documents, journals, small surveys to some Indonesian primary schools in order to find out the truth about local education. Below the researcher discovered and explained widely current problems and policies of two different primary education systems in two Asian countries named Indonesia and Uzbekistan. Analyzing similarities and differences in teaching-learning processes in elementary school of the two different educational systems, deeper academically look at primary education. At the end, the researcher suggested and gave some solutions for available problems, which can be taken in, consider improving and enhancing the elementary education for bright future in both countries.

C. Problem Identification and Research Problems

1. General research question

The central question that was addressed by this study is: “What are the similarities and differences of teaching and learning process in primary schools in Indonesia and Uzbekistan.”

2. Specific research questions

Four guiding questions shaped the study. The study attempted to answer these guiding research questions:

a. What kind of policies in relation to teaching-learning process do Indonesia and Uzbekistan run in their primary education?

b. What are the current teaching-learning problems in primary education in both countries?

c. What kind of teaching methods do primary school teachers use in both countries?

d. How is the classroom arrangement and management in both countries’ primary schools?

These questions were addressed through qualitative analysis of the educational policy documents such as law acts on education, proclamations, and other available files of the two countries under study.

D. Statement of Purpose
The aim of this study is to compare two different educational systems in Indonesia and Uzbekistan, analyze, and reach a deeper understanding of their teaching and learning processes.

Based on the research problems above, the study had sought to investigate the primary educational systems in Indonesia and Uzbekistan.

The specific objectives were to:
1. Identify the current condition and problems of educational system in Indonesia and Uzbekistan;
2. Analyze the challenges and problems hampering the implementation of Ministry of Education in two different countries and seek remedial strategies in teaching and learning process.

E. Significance of Research

Since this study was intended to examine the process of teaching and learning in primary schools of two developing countries of Asia named Indonesia and Uzbekistan, it was hoped that this study would be useful in improving the education policymaking process in both countries studied and point out better ways of modifying imported educational planning techniques to make them suitable to the realities in Indonesia and in Uzbekistan. Secondly, this study of the applicability of contemporary education planning and policy formulation models to the both countries arena was the first step toward carrying out the much-needed reforms in curriculum.

The findings of the research are expected to be able to enrich the educational system, especially in teaching and learning in primary school. These were also expected to provide teachers with information particularly about teaching strategies that could be used in elementary school. Moreover, the results were expected to give contributions to the decision makers in elementary schools of Indonesia and Uzbekistan.

This study, humble, could be mutual beneficial as in this research the researcher considered two different countries primary educational systems, teaching and learning processes, problems and their solutions, suggestions which were hoped that can lead to a better educational system. This study was expected to be education exchanger somehow as researcher explained widely advantages and disadvantages of two different primary education system, so each country named above can profit from this research. They can learn from each other new teaching...
methods, curriculum, learning strategies, educational policies, in other words, this study became a new discovery for both sides.