

Decentralization and School-Based Management in Indonesia

Agustinus Bandur*

Centre for Research and Community Developments, St. Paul's College of Education

Abstract

The purpose of this article is to examine the recent developments in the decentralized education system in Indonesia with particular reference to the implementation of the school-based management (SBM) policy and programs. It was found that SBM is an effective way of enhancing participatory decision-making, budgetary transparency, and community participation. However, it was also found that the effective implementation of SBM requires time management expertise and assistance from the government, educational experts, and foreign aid agencies. These conclusions are based on the results of an empirical survey of 334 principals and teachers at 24 schools, supplemented by 22 follow-up interviews and an examination of school documents and student achievement reports.

Keywords: educational decentralization, school-based management, Indonesia

1 Introduction

One of the most widely debated issues in education over the last two decades has been how to find a balance between centralization and decentralization (Caldwell, 2008; Gamage, 1996a, 2006a, 2008; Gamage & Zajda, 2005a, 2005b). In the context of the public school system, decentralization of power and authority occurs at the school level for the purpose of empowering school stakeholders by giving the power to make decisions which were earlier made by the central, regional, or district government (Anderson, 2006; David, 1989; Gamage, 1996a, 2006a; Herman & Herman, 1993). It is widely believed that school leaders and teachers, the school's administrative staff, as well as parents and the local community are best placed to determine the strategies that best meet the needs of their particular students. For these reasons, school-based management (SBM) has been widely accepted as a major reform initiative in both developed and developing nations, including Australia, New Zealand, the UK, the USA, Indonesia, Hong Kong and Thailand.

Research findings in the last two decades demonstrate that the implementation of SBM empowers a school's

stakeholders and increases parental and community participation and partnership (Bandur, 2012; Briggs & Wohlstetter, 2003; Gamage, 1993, 2003, 2006b, 2008; Grauwe, 2005; Parker & Leithwood, 2000; Stevenson, 2001; Sturman, 1989). SBM can also help schools to increase the quality of education, provide a healthier teaching and learning environment, and improve student outcomes (Bandur, in press; Bandur & Gamage, 2009; Caldwell, 2005; Dimmock, 1993; Gamage, 1996b, 1998a, 2006b; Gamage & Sooksomchitra, 2004; Gamage & Zajda, 2005a; Leroy, 2002; Mejia, 2001).

Yet, all the past studies which have found positive results related to SBM implementation in Indonesia were carried out at schools which were receiving assistance from international donor agencies. For instance, research conducted in Eastern Java by Caldwell (2005) shows that the implementation of SBM resulted in increased student outcomes only after the intervention of international donors for twelve months. Similarly, studies which found that SBM implementation resulted in school improvement and enhanced student achievement (Bandur, 2011, 2012, in press; Bandur & Gamage, 2009) were conducted at schools in the Ngada district with SBM programs assisted by AusAID. No relevant studies have been made of ordinary schools not receiving foreign aid. Thus the purpose of the present research is to compare the results of SBM at both types of schools -- those receiving foreign aid and those not receiving foreign aid.

This paper presents educational decentralization with an emphasis on the historical development of SBM in Indonesia. This research was conducted in 2011 using both quantitative and qualitative methods. An empirical survey was administered to 334 principals and teachers at 24 primary schools in the towns of Ende and Ruteng on the island of Flores. The schools in Ende were selected to represent SBM schools which are assisted by international donor agencies, while those in Ruteng were selected to represent schools where SBM is being implemented without assistance from international donor agencies. In addition to the survey, more detailed information was obtained by conducting semi-structured interviews and focus group discussions (FGD) with 22 key informants, as well as making an examination of school progress reports and student achievement reports.

* Corresponding Author: Dr. Agustinus Bandur (durgus2000@yahoo.com)
Lecturer and Director, Centre for Research and Community Developments
St. Paul's College of Education

2 Decentralization versus Centralization

Striking the right balance between centralization and decentralization has become one of the most significant issues in education reform (Bangay, 2005; Caldwell, 1990, 1998; Gamage, 1993, 1996a, 2006a, 2008; Gamage & Zajda, 2005b; Hawkins, 2000; Ranson, 2008). Gamage (1996a) affirms that in modern, complex organizational settings, absolute centralization or absolute decentralization is impossible. He clarifies that if an organization is absolutely centralized, subordinates would not have any freedom of choice, as the top management would make every single decision. In contrast, if authority for decision-making in an organization is absolutely decentralized, it would result in anarchy, as each employee would take action as he or she thought best. Even if each employee carried out his or her individual tasks, achievement of organizational goals would be impossible without any central coordination.

Hanson (1998, p. 2) defines decentralization as “the transfer of decision-making authority, responsibility, and tasks from higher to lower organization levels or between organizations.” He categorizes decentralization into three basic types, namely, de-concentration, delegation, and devolution. De-concentration typically involves the transfer of tasks and work, but not authority, to other units in the organization. Delegation involves the transfer of decision-making authority from higher to lower level units in the hierarchy, but that authority can be withdrawn at the discretion of the delegating unit. Devolution refers to the transfer of authority to an autonomous unit that can act independently, or a unit that can act without first asking for permission.

However, it is also necessary to consider the terms “centralization” and “decentralization” as a continuum. Several experts state that, similar to the concept of democracy, there are no ideal or absolute models of decentralization (Gamage, 2006a; Gamage & Zajda, 2005b). Rather, it is a matter of degree. Any model of decentralization necessarily involves certain elements of centralization. Devolution or transfer of power and authority to the decentralized unit, enabling it to operate as an effective entity in performing certain duties and functions, can be considered as the next logical step in delegation of authority.

Furthermore, Gamage (1996a) affirms that decentralization and delegation need to be considered as related concepts. He clarifies that both terms primarily refer to the distribution of formal decision-making authority within an organization. Delegation occurs when a person in authority assigns certain duties and/or decision-making authority to a subordinate. For example, a principal delegates the imposition of minor disciplinary punishment to his or her deputy principal, who is still required to

obtain the principal’s approval for the imposition of major disciplinary actions. On the other hand, decentralization represents an organization-wide commitment to delegation. The movement to decentralization occurs when the delegation of authority takes place throughout the whole organization, especially when it expands to different locations requiring control from a distance. At the same time, the higher authority usually formulates a mechanism of control and is responsible for the actions of lower level officers or sub-units.

In the school context, Gamage (1994a, p. 114) points out that it is desirable for “devolution to have a legislative basis in order to provide a more permanent administrative structure.” He then points out that “devolution of power to schools has occurred concurrently with the establishment of school councils, and if SBM is to be effective, the devolution of adequate decision-making authority to the school level would be a prerequisite.” This process is aimed at increasing the power and influence of the school’s chief stakeholders and encouraging their participation and commitment, all of which lead to greater innovation, as well as higher morale, accountability and productivity.

It is clear, then, that improving educational outcomes for students can be achieved by increasing the range of decision-making and resource management at the school level. In this connection, Kuehn (1996) claims that devolution results in increased student achievement, which comes about through more flexible curriculum offerings tailored to the needs of students in a particular school.

Research has also shown how devolution can increase the level of responsiveness, sense of partnership, and sense of empowerment of a school’s stakeholders. This, in turn, improves student outcomes, encourages participation of parents and the local community, and contributes to the development of a sense of ownership, commitment, autonomy, and flexibility towards improving the quality of education (Bandur, in press; Gamage, 1993, 1996a, 1998a, 1998b, 2003, 2006a; Gamage & Zajda, 2005b; O’Neil, 1996; Whitty, 2008; Wohlstetter, 1995). Moreover, the principal and the school are more accountable to the local community. In particular, schools tend to be more open-minded, more responsive to parents, and more in touch with community concerns (Gamage, 1990; O’Neil, 1996). Principals then play more of a public role by interacting with people in the wider community, thus increasing efficiency, effectiveness, and productivity (Delaney, 1997; Gamage, 1996a, 1996b).

3 The Emergence of a Decentralized System of Education in Indonesia

Since it became independent in 1945 until the late 1990s, Indonesia was well known as a country with a

strong centralized authority. Bjork (2003, p. 193) notes that by the end of the twentieth century, Indonesia was among the most highly centralized nations in the world. He asserts that the centralization of authority in Indonesia could enforce the dependence of regional leaders on Jakarta (the capital of Indonesia) and even cause them to orient themselves away from their local constituents and toward the central authorities. Consequently, the Indonesian regional governments had little autonomy, which was one of the precipitating causes of Indonesia's financial crisis in the late 1990s.

Although the term "decentralization" was first used in Law 5/1974, the real transformation began in May 1998, when a radical political movement towards decentralization resulted in the enactment of Law 22/1999 on Regional Government, Law 25/1999 on Balanced Provisions of Finance between the Central and Regional Governments, Government Regulation Number 25/2000 on the Authority of the Central and Provincial Governments, as well as Law 25/2000 on National Development Programs (Aspinall & Fealy, 2003; Bjork, 2006; Departemen Pendidikan Nasional, 2001). These laws and regulations were formulated due to increasing recognition of the importance of democracy, community participation, equitable distribution of wealth, and justice, as well as out of consideration for regional diversity. Bjork (2006, p. 135) sees the decision to redistribute power and decision making to local government bodies as representing a significant departure from the previous centralized, top-down nature of government in Indonesia.

In terms of successful movements towards decentralization, Guess (2005, p. 220) claims that the Indonesian "big bang" devolution program was one of the fastest and most comprehensive decentralization initiatives ever attempted by any country in the region. The decentralization of government led to the implementation of educational decentralization, widely considered as a milestone in developing a better quality of national education (Departemen Pendidikan Nasional, 2001, 2002, 2004). Moreover, Guess (2005) asserts that decentralization has resulted in local assemblies operating in a more accountable and democratic fashion than ever before.

4 A Revised Theory of School-Based Management

Gamage (1996a) proposed a revised theory of SBM on the basis of his twenty years of experience in Australian SBM systems. In his revised theory he presents seven assumptions which are the basis of a more realistic application of SBM. The first assumption is that a school council should consist of all relevant stakeholders, including

the principal or the head teacher, as well as representatives of staff (both teaching and non-teaching), parents, the local community, and students (in the case of secondary schools). The representatives of the staff, parents, and students are expected to be elected by the relevant constituencies, whereas the community representatives are to be nominated by the other elected members and the school leader.

The second assumption is that the devolution or transfer of both authority and responsibility needs to be effected by a legislative enactment. This transforms what was formerly an advisory body into a democratic governing body. The third assumption is the great importance of the voluntary participation of parents, the community, and student representatives in policy formulation and school governance. It is believed that a genuine shift of authority and responsibility will motivate a school's stakeholders to become more actively involved in improving its quality.

The fourth assumption is that the lay councilors, with appropriate induction and training, will acquire sufficient knowledge to function as equal partners. The knowledge and experience of lay-members who come from fields other than education are relevant and useful to the educational enterprise and in meeting the needs of a contemporary school. The fifth assumption is that because of de-zoning schools need to find ways to improve their image and increase enrolment in ways similar to those used in business by both private and public enterprises.

The sixth assumption is that SBM is cost effective because the higher level of commitment leads to minimization of costs and better utilization of limited resources. Moreover, minimizing the size of the educational bureaucracy increases the amount of resources available for educational purposes, at the same time encouraging schools to draw on previously untapped community resources. The seventh assumption is that the centre needs to maintain strict control of the finances placed at the disposal of schools as a way of ensuring accountability in conformity with the ministerial and departmental guidelines relating to the operation of school councils. The principal is made accountable to the governing body and through it to the state's education authorities, as well as to the local community. Submissions of regular progress reports to the governing body and annual reports to other relevant authorities and the school community are required.

Gamage (1996a, 1996b) concludes that SBM is a pragmatic approach to transforming a bureaucratic and centralized model of school administration into a more democratic structure. It identifies the individual school as the primary unit to be improved by relying on the redistribution of decision-making authority. In this context, taking improvement in individual schools as the key to successful educational reform strategies has a good deal

of public appeal and research support (Bush & Gamage, 2001; Cheng, 1996; David, 1989; Edge, 2000; Gamage & Zajda, 2005a; Hanson, 1991; Hess, 1999; Raab, 2000; Wong, 1998). For example, scholars in the UK have reported that school governing bodies in England and Wales have been given greater powers to manage their own affairs within clearly defined national frameworks (Bush & Gamage, 2001; Raab, 2000). They clarify that power has been typically devolved to school-level governing bodies comprised of representatives of the relevant stakeholders, while operational management is devolved to the principal. They also claim that the transfer of power to governing bodies can be viewed as a willingness to empower parents and business interests.

In the USA, the success of the Chicago SBM model has led some researchers to assert that the decision-making authority devolved to the local school councils is significant, particularly in view of the fact that each council has the authority to rehire or dismiss the principal on the basis of a four-year performance contract (Gamage & Zajda, 2005a; Hanson, 1991). Other researchers report that such reforms have contributed to improvements in teaching and learning, financial and administrative management, professional recruitment standards, academic performance, and school management (Edge, 2000; Hanson, 1991; Hess, 1999; Wong, 1998).

5 SBM Policy in Indonesia

With the turn of 21st century, SBM has become a model for the decentralization of the education system in Indonesian by shifting authority and responsibility to school-level decision-makers known as *dewan (komite) sekolah* (school councils). In fact, *persatuan orang tua dan guru/POMG* (parent-teacher association) were established in the 1950s, but their main responsibility was limited to non-instructional matters such as school buildings and school finances, while authority over the curriculum remained vested in school staff (Education Act 4/1950, Chapter 78, article 4). The POMG was later replaced by the *badan pembantu penyelenggaraan pendidikan/BP3* (advisory body for school governance), but again, the BP3 was only responsible for providing additional school finances. Authority with regard to curriculum, textbooks, school facilities, and deployment and development of staff remained the responsibility of the central government, while responsibility for building maintenance and renovations was devolved to the district government (Law 2/1989 on the National Education System; Government Regulation Number 28/1990, article 9). On the basis of this regulation, the principal was given responsibility in terms of academics, school administration, staff training, and the maintenance of school facilities.

A truly democratic school system based on SBM only emerged under the democratic governments of Presidents Wahid and Soekarnoputri (1999-2004). On the basis of Law 25/2000 on National Development Programs, in February 2001 the Ministry of National Education established the Komisi Nasional Pendidikan (Commission on National Education) led by Professor Fuad Hassan. The Commission was active through December 2001 and was tasked with: (1) formulating policy recommendations for improving the quality of education; and (2) advising the government about the models and mechanisms available for decentralizing the education system. It was expected that the work of the Commission would become the basis for a comprehensive reform of the Indonesian education system. The major recommendation of the Commission was to develop education councils at the district level and school councils at the school level. The main purposes of these councils was envisioned as applying democratic principles in schools; increasing parental and community participation; promoting equity; and the accommodation of diverse local interests and needs (Departemen Pendidikan Nasional, 2001).

With these purposes in mind, the central government embarked on the formation of education and school councils in each district of Western Sumatra, Eastern Java, and Bali. Soon afterwards, in relation to the implementation of SBM, the Ministry of National Education published Guidelines Number 044/U/2002, and later revised Government Regulation Number 66/2010 on Educational Governance and Management. These regulations were in line with the Education Act 20/2003 on the National Education System intended to assist the formation of school councils. In accordance with the involvement of local communities in improving the quality of education, Article 56 of the Act provides that community members are required to participate in improving the quality of education. In this case, the education council and school council represent the community:

The community shall take part in improving the quality of educational services, which includes planning, monitoring, and evaluation of educational programs through the education council and school council. (The Ministry of National Education, Republic of Indonesia, 2003, Article 56)

On the basis of this Act, the central government regulates the power and authority vested in the school councils, as well as the formation, membership, structure, and characteristics of the school council. The Education Act 20/2003 defines a school council as an independent body established to provide school monitoring, advice, direction,

and support for personnel, facilities, and equipment (Article 56). The school council was thus seen as having four concurrent roles: (1) an advisory agency for determining and/or approving educational policies at the school level; (2) an agency supporting the school both in financial and non-financial matters; (3) a controlling agency for the purpose of transparency and accountability at the school level, and (4) a mediator between school, government, and community.

6 Recent Research on SBM Implementation

The primary objective of this research was to compare the results of SBM implementation at two types of schools: those receiving foreign aid, and those not receiving such aid. The former group was represented by schools in town of Ende, the capital of the Ende Regency. Between 2002 and 2008 schools in Ende were supported by the Australian Agency for International Development (AusAID) through the program known as Nusa Tenggara Timur Primary Education Partnership (NTT-PEP). The latter group was represented by schools in the town of Ruteng, the capital of the Manggarai Regency, for during the same period these schools were not receiving any support from international agencies. Both districts are located on the island of Flores in eastern Indonesia.

6.1 Research Methodology

Methodology refers to “the philosophical framework and the fundamental assumptions of research” (Creswell & Clark, 2007, p. 4). The philosophical framework of the researcher strongly influences which research procedures are selected, as well as how they are applied. The fundamental assumptions of researchers can be classified into four types: postpositivism; constructivism; advocacy/participatory and pragmatism. Post-positivism is associated with quantitative approaches to research. The researcher adopting this approach seeks knowledge on the basis of: (1) reductionism and focusing on selected variables; (2) determinism and cause-effect thinking; (3)

detailed observation and measurement of variables, and (4) the testing of theories and continuous refinement (Slife & Williams, 1995 as cited in Creswell & Clark, 2007). Constructivism is associated with qualitative approaches to research in which research is constructed “from the bottom up,” from the individual perspective to the formation of a theory. The advocacy/participatory worldview is also associated with qualitative research, but adds the stipulation that research must have some practical benefit to society. Accordingly, researchers adopting this worldview study topics such as empowerment, marginalization, and related issues which have some bearing on the well-being of society.

Pragmatism is associated with mixed-methods research. The main emphasis of pragmatism is on the research questions raised in the study. In this approach, multiple methods of data collection are used to understand the research problems.

The present research adopts the pragmatist perspective and utilizes both quantitative and qualitative methods of collecting data.

6.2 Research Design

Research design means “the plan of action that links the philosophical assumptions of research” (Creswell, 2005; Crotty, 1998 as cited in Creswell & Clark, 2007, p. 4). This study employs a mixed-method design. This design has the advantages of yielding more valid and reliable results, as well as providing specific techniques and strategies by which the researcher is guided in data collection procedures and data analysis. It has been pointed out that the mixed-method design selected depends on the purpose of the study (Creswell, 2005; Ogier, 1998; Wiersma & Jurs, 2005). In this study we employed the concurrent triangulation strategy, described by Creswell (2005) as Figure 1.

The chief strength of the concurrent triangulation strategy is that it uses separate quantitative and qualitative research procedures, using the strengths of one method to offset the weaknesses inherent within the other method. In this context, quantitative and qualitative data collection is concurrent; i.e., it is carried out in the same phase of the

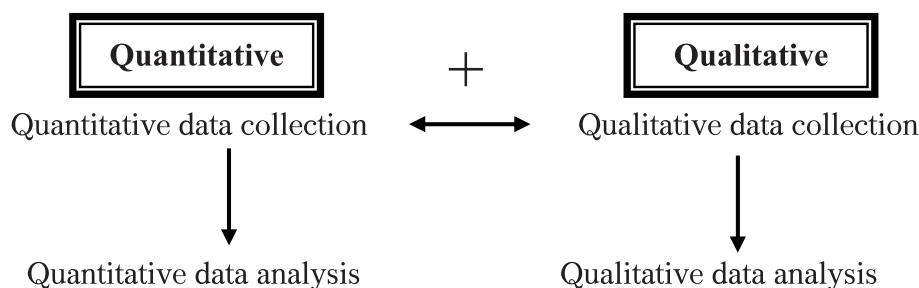


Figure 1 Concurrent Triangulation Strategy

study. The results of the two methods are integrated during the interpretation phase. In the data collection phase of this study, an empirical survey was conducted concurrently with interviews and document analysis. The primary goal of conducting interviews was to seek clarification and deeper understanding of the issues addressed in the empirical surveys.

For the quantitative data collection, we used a questionnaire consisting of both close items and scale items. The close items allowed the respondents to choose from two or more fixed alternatives. For example, the dichotomous items provided only two possible responses: yes or no. In the scale items the respondents were asked to indicate their degree of agreement or disagreement (Burns, 1994). The questionnaire used in this study was an adapted version of that used by Gamage (1996a) for a similar study conducted in Australia.

For the qualitative data collection, in-depth interviews and FGDs were used to obtain open-ended responses as a way of gaining more insight into the research problems. The qualitative data collection consisted of two main steps. In the first step we selected the key informants on the basis of recommendations made by the District Education Department, based on which we interviewed eleven key informants (principals and school council presidents) from Ruteng and seven key informants (principals, the school council president, and the head of basic education) from Ende. In addition, FGDs were conducted with seven groups of teachers in Ruteng and with five groups of teachers in Ende. All the interviews and FGDs were recorded to assist in checking validity and reliability.

6.3 Validity of the Scale Items

Several statisticians (Brace, Kemp, & Snelgar, 2006; Manning & Munro, 2006) recommend the use of principal component analysis (PCA) as a type of factor analysis suitable for exploring the factor structure underlying the variables. Manning and Munro (2006) regard PCA as a good way of measuring the validity of variables. In the context of quantitative research, validity is simply defined as “the degree to which it measures what it claims to measure” (Best & Kahn, 1998; Manning & Munro, 2006; Pallant, 2005; Wiersma & Jurs, 2005).

We thus used PCA to evaluate the validity of the results. The factor loadings ranged from .779 to .883. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) of sampling adequacy was .682, and Bartlett’s test of sphericity was $p = .000$, indicating a good factorability (Brace et al., 2006, p. 318).

6.4 Reliability of the Scales

Reliability in quantitative research refers to the consistency of the methods, conditions, and results (Best

& Kahn, 1998; Manning & Munro, 2006; Pallant, 2005; Wiersma & Jurs, 2005). There are three common ways of testing reliability in quantitative research, namely, test-retest reliability, split-half reliability, and coefficient (Manning & Munro, 2006; Pallant, 2005). The test-retest approach is applied by testing the same set of people on two different occasions, with the scores from the first test being correlated with the scores from the second test. In a split-half reliability test, the researcher administers the questionnaire only once, splits the items to create a composite variable with two equivalent halves, creates two composite variables from these two sets, and then correlates them.

The coefficient alpha (also known as Cronbach’s alpha) was employed in the present study. The coefficient alpha ranges in values from 0 (no reliability) to 1 (perfect reliability). Gregory claims:

Coefficient alpha is an index of the internal consistency of the items, that is, their tendency to correlate with one another. Insofar as a test or scale with high internal consistency will also tend to show stability of scores in a test-retest approach, coefficient alpha is therefore a useful estimate of reliability. (Manning & Munro, 2006, p. 25)

The values of coefficient alpha above .70 are considered to represent “acceptable” reliability; those above .80 “good reliability;” and those above .90 “excellent” reliability. However, Pallant (2005, p. 90) asserts that with short scales (e.g., scales with fewer than ten items) it is common to find quite low Cronbach values, for example, .50. The values of the coefficient alpha in the present research ranged from .75 to .84, indicating an acceptable and good reliability (Gregory, 2000 as cited in Manning & Munro, 2006).

6.5 Sampling Design

For the quantitative data analyses we employed the quota sampling technique so as to include all the core schools and 50% of the satellite schools in both towns. Thus a total of 22 core and satellite schools were included in the study. A total of 350 questionnaires were delivered to the same 22 schools, 95.42% of which were returned ($N = 334$). In addition to the empirical survey, we also conducted 22 interviews and FGDs with school principals and teachers. This was followed by the examination of such school documents as the minutes of school council meetings, documents relating to school development and planning, school curriculum documents, school attendance lists, and national examination results. Table 1 presents the distribution of the samples.

Table 1 Gender and Age of Respondents

School location	Gender			Age groups				
	Male	Female	Total	20-30	31-40	41-50	51-60	Total
Ruteng	70	114	184	20	35	74	55	184
	(48.3%)	(51.7%)	(55.1%)	(62.5%)	(51.5%)	(54.0%)	(56.7%)	(55.1%)
Ende	75	75	150	12	33	63	42	150
	(51.7%)	(39.7%)	(44.9%)	(37.5%)	(48.5%)	(46.0%)	(43.3%)	(44.9%)
Total	145	189	334	32	68	137	97	334
	(43.4%)	(56.6%)	(100%)	(9.6%)	(20.4%)	(41.0%)	(29.0%)	(100%)

7 Research Findings

7.1 Current Functioning of School Councils

We compared the results of the questionnaires administered in Ende and Ruteng to determine whether there was a statistically significant difference in terms of the opinions of respondents concerning the current functioning of their school councils. Table 2 presents the results.

Table 2 shows that there was a statistically significant difference ($\text{Chi-sq} = 151.34$, $p = .000$, $N = 334$), with 32.6% of the respondents in Ruteng stating that the current functioning of the school council was either poor (17.4%) or unsatisfactory (15.2%), while no respondents in Ende felt the same. Moreover, 67.4% of the respondents in Ruteng stated that the current functioning of the school council was either adequate (37%), good (26.1%) or very good (4.3%). By contrast, all of the respondents in Ende stated that the functioning of the school council was either adequate (8.0%), good (44%) or very good (48%). These findings clearly indicate the better functioning of the school council in Ende, the schools of which are assisted by foreign aid.

In addition to the quantitative data collection, interviews and FGDs were conducted to gain a better understanding of the functions of the school councils in both towns. The findings indicate that the school council in Ruteng lacks initiative and its members have little understanding of their core functions and roles. For instance, consider the following comments from the principle and teachers in Ruteng:

What we have seen is that the school council waits for the principal to take the initiative. It is very hard for them to initiate and set up programs (Principal).

We know that there is a school council in this school, but the problem is that they do not understand its

function, so it ends up depending on the principal all the time (Principal).

Honestly, there are no clear cut distinction between the functions of the principal and those of the school council (Principal).

Similar to other schools in Ruteng, we think there is a lack of understanding of the functions and roles of the school council; its participation in school improvement is still very low (Teachers' FGD).

These findings stand in sharp contrast to those for the school councils in Ende, which actively engage in helping to make improvements to the teaching and learning environments. This is demonstrated by the following comments made by principals and teachers during the FGDs held in Ende:

With the implementation of SBM, the participation of the school council is very good. Because of their active participation, as a principal I find it easier to manage the school and everything is transparent (Principal).

I found our school council to be my best partner; the school council is working in partnership with us (Principal).

The contribution of the school council is very good. It provides ideas for improving the school (Principal).

The parent representatives in the school council are very active. A couple of times they came in the afternoon to repair the classroom floor (Teacher).

Our school council functions very well and we think the school council members have understood their functions and roles well (Teacher).

Table 2 Current Functioning of School Councils

School location	Poor or unsatisfactory (%)	Adequate (%)	Good (%)	Very good (%)	p	Pearson Chi-Sq	N
Ende	.0	8.0	44.0	48.0	.000	151.349	334
Ruteng	32.6	37.0	26.1	4.3			

7.2 Degree of Authority Vested in School Councils

With respect to the respondents' views about the degree of authority vested in their school council, there was a statistically significant difference between the two towns (Chi-Sq = 232.86, $p = .000$, $N = 323$) (see Table 3). A total of 85% of the respondents from Ruteng stated that the power and authority vested in their school council is either inadequate or absolutely inadequate. By contrast, only 4.7% of the respondents in Ende expressed the same view. The findings show that even though the government has granted much authority to school councils, without strong support from international experts the councils don't know how to use it. As a consequence, the power and authority remain in the hands of district-level government authorities and school principals. This in turn hinders partnership and participatory decision-making in schools.

In addition, it was interesting to find that the district government in Ruteng does not allow the school councils to select school principals, as illustrated by the following comments:

Selection of principals is the absolute power and authority of the District Education Department (Principal).

School councils take no part in the selection of school principals. This is not their authority. It is up to the political will of the district government (Principal).

In regard to the school principal selection process, school councils are not involved at all (Principal).

We have found that school councils are never involved in the process of principal selection (Teacher).

By contrast, the interviews and FGDs in Ende revealed the strong participation of school councils in the principal selection process, as illustrated by the following comments:

The school council has a strong influence on the principal selection process. In my case, the District Education Department wanted to replace me. However, the council disagreed because there were still programs which needed my efforts. So they went to the Department and rejected the proposed replacement (Principal).

In view of the fact that school councils have a strong influence in school matters, the District Education Department of Ende gives much importance to the proposals of school councils. For instance, the District Education Department regularly requests information from the school councils and conduct interviews with its members. A senior official at the District Education Department of Ende District stated:

The school councils are very concerned about any replacement of school principals. As a result, we are very selective and conduct an investigation to check the information provided by the school councils. In the end, we agree with them when it is good for the schools.

7.3 Areas of Decision-Making and Authority in Schools

In the framework of national education reform, a decentralized education package was introduced in 1999 with the enactment of Law 22/1999 on regional autonomous government. Later, on the basis of Education Act 20/2003 and Government Regulation Number 66/2010, power and decision-making authority have been shifted to school councils. In this research, it was necessary to determine the nature of the decision-making actually exercised by the school councils in Ruteng and Ende.

Table 4 shows that respondents in both Ruteng and Ende believe that their school councils have some degree of decision-making authority. However, the respondents from Ende see their school councils as having a high degree of decision-making authority, while those from Ruteng see their school councils as having very little decision-making authority.

Of particular interest was that the majority of the respondents from Ende affirmed that their school councils have authority in the selection of school principals (60%), while only 6% of respondents in Ruteng felt the same.

7.4 Styles of Decision Making

Table 5 shows that there was a statistically significant difference (Chi-sq = 30.74, $p = .000$, $N = 334$) with respect to the decision-making styles of the school councils. In Ruteng, 77.2% of the respondents stated that consensus was the primary decision-making style, and 22.8% stated

Table 3 Degree of Authority Vested in School Councils

School location	Inadequate or absolutely inadequate (%)	Barely adequate (%)	Adequate (%)	More than adequate (%)	Chi-sq	p	N
Ende	4.7	17.3	56.7	21.3	232.86	.000	323
Ruteng	85.0	12.7	2.3	.0			

Table 4 Areas in which School Councils Have Authority to Make Decisions

Area of authority	School location	Yes (%)	<i>p</i>
School vision	Ende	100	.000
	Ruteng	46.2	
School mission	Ende	100	.000
	Ruteng	35.8	
School goals	Ende	100	.000
	Ruteng	40.8	
School annual budget	Ende	100	N/A
	Ruteng	46.2	
School discipline	Ende	100	N/A
	Ruteng	3.8	
New school buildings	Ende	86.0	.000
	Ruteng	47.3	
School building maintenance	Ende	100	.000
	Ruteng	3	
School renovation	Ende	100	.000
	Ruteng	3.8	
Selection of school principal	Ende	60	.000
	Ruteng	6	
Deployment/recruitment of teachers	Ende	43.3	.000
	Ruteng	8.9	
Deployment/recruitment of administrative staff	Ende	81.3	.000
	Ruteng	4.3	
Selection of school textbooks	Ende	100	N/A
	Ruteng	6	
Curriculum development	Ende	94.0	.000
	Ruteng	3	
Evaluation of the teaching-learning process	Ende	100	N/A
	Ruteng	3	
Fundraising	Ende	89.3	.000
	Ruteng	7.1	
Canteen	Ende	0	N/A
	Ruteng	0	

Table 5 Differences in Decision-Making Styles

School Location	Consensus (%)	Principal's recommendation (%)	<i>p</i>	Pearson Chi-Sq	<i>N</i>
Ende	98.0	2.0	.000	30.74	334
Ruteng	77.2	22.8			

decisions were mainly made based on the principal's recommendations. In contrast, the vast majority of respondents in Ende stated that consensus is the main decision-making style. This means that school principals in Ruteng have a considerably more important role in the decision-making process.

7.5 Quality of the Decision-Making Processes

Table 6 shows that there was a statistically significant difference in terms of the respondents' views of the quality of the decision-making processes of their school council. In Ende the vast majority (75%) of respondents considered the quality of the decision-making processes of their school council to be either good (60.7%) or very good (14%). By contrast, in Ruteng only 22.8% of the respondents selected good and almost none (1.6%) selected very good.

7.6 SBM as a Way of Increasing Community Participation

Table 7 shows that there was a statistically significant difference in terms of the opinions of about whether SBM has resulted in increased community participation ($\chi^2 = 169.88$, $p = .000$, $N = 334$). In particular, 43% of the respondents in Ruteng either disagreed (39.7%) or strongly disagreed (3.3%) that SBM has increased community participation. By contrast, only 2% of the respondents in Ende felt the same. Similarly, almost all respondents (98%) in Ende either agreed (23.3%) or strongly agreed (74.7%) that SBM has increased community participation, compared only with 7.6% in Ruteng.

7.7 SBM as a Way of Increasing Partnership in Schools

Table 8 shows that there was a statistically significant difference ($\chi^2 = 61.90$, $p = .000$, $N = 334$) in terms of whether SBM has led to an increased sense of partnership in schools. In particular, almost no (1.3%) respondents in

Ende disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement: "The implementation of SBM has increased the sense of partnership in the school decision-making process." By contrast, 19% of the respondents in Ruteng either disagreed or strongly disagreed.

The following extracts from the interviews conducted in Ruteng indicate the nature of the relationship between its school councils and principals:

There is a strong belief amongst parents that school matters are the responsibility of principals and teachers (Principal).

I dare not ask parents for financial support because I believe that they would strongly disagree (Principal).

It is very hard to conduct meetings with the school council due to time difficulties (Principal).

All decisions in school are made on the initiative of both the principal and teachers (Teachers).

Even though the school has expectations for its councils, the problem is that most of the parents are farmers who are economically not able to support school programs financially (Teachers).

7.8 SBM as a Way of Increasing Transparency in School Financial Management

Table 9 shows that there was no statistically significant difference ($\chi^2 = .293$, $p = .58$, $N = 334$) in relation to the participants' views on whether or not the implementation of SBM has increased the transparency of a school's financial management.

7.9 Academic Achievement in Bahasa Indonesia

The results in the national examination (*ujian nasional/UN*) were examined for schools in both towns. Table 10

Table 6 Quality of the Decision-Making Process of School Councils

School location	Unsatisfactory (%)	Barely okay (%)	Good (%)	Very good (%)	<i>p</i>	Pearson Chi-Sq	<i>N</i>
Ende	.0	25.3	60.7	14.0	.000	99.96	334
Ruteng	27.7	47.8	22.8	1.6			

Table 7 SBM as a Way of Increasing Community Participation

School Location	Disagree or strongly disagree (%)	Agree (%)	Strongly agree (%)	<i>p</i>	Pearson Chi-Sq	<i>N</i>
Ende	2.0	23.3	74.7	.000	169.88	334
Ruteng	43.0	49.5	7.6			

Table 8 SBM as a Way of Increasing Partnership in Schools

School Location	Disagree or strongly disagree (%)	Agree (%)	Strongly agree (%)	<i>p</i>	Pearson Chi-Sq	<i>N</i>
Ende	1.3	76.0	22.7	.000	61.90	334
Ruteng	19	67.1	14.1			

Table 9 SBM as a Way of Increasing Transparency in School Financial Management

School location	Agree (%)	Strongly agree (%)	<i>p</i>	Pearson Chi-Sq	<i>N</i>
Ende	60.0	40.0	.58	.293	334
Ruteng	57.1	42.9			

Table 10 Achievement Rankings in Bahasa Indonesia

Academic year	Districts	UN Bahasa Indonesia
2009/2010	Ende	7.14
	Ruteng	6.86
2010/2011	Ende	7.60
	Ruteng	7.20

shows that the students in Ende had higher scores than those in Ruteng in Bahasa Indonesia (the official language of Indonesia).

7.10 Academic Achievement in Science

Table 11 shows that in science, students in Ende had higher scores than those in Ruteng. Moreover, the FDGs and interviews revealed that school councils in Ruteng lack participation in improving student achievement, as illustrated by the following comments:

Table 11 Scores in Science

Academic year	Districts	Science
2009/2010	Ende	7.43
	Ruteng	6.87
2010/2011	Ende	7.07
	Ruteng	6.58

The school councils make no efforts for increasing the academic achievement of students (Principal).

The school councils and parents depend too much on teachers for increasing the academic achievement of students (Teacher).

By contrast, the FDGs and interviews revealed that school councils in Ende actively worked to improve student achievement, as illustrated by the following comments:

In this school, coordination between the school council and school principal is good. School decisions are always made on the basis of consensus between teachers, the principal, and school council members. This improved the academic performance of students. For example, our students have achieved the highest scores in this district in *Bahasa* and science (Teacher).

The school council is actively involved in school meetings, building school facilities, and school evaluation (Teacher).

Furthermore, we compared the results in the national examination of the top eight schools of both towns, as presented in the following sections.

7.11 National Examination Scores in Bahasa Indonesia

Table 12 shows the range scores (8.01-9.00) in the Bahasa Indonesia section of the national examination for students at the top eight primary schools in Ruteng and Ende. The examination results show that the majority of students in Ende had scores of between 8.01 and 9.00. By contrast, in Ruteng there were only three schools where the majority of students had scores between 8.01 and 9.00.

Table 12 Scores in Bahasa Indonesia

School location	School	National examination results	
		Range of score	% of students
Ende	School 1	8.01-9.00	72.37%
	School 2		69.44%
	School 3		64.71%
	School 4		64.41%
	School 5		58.82%
	School 6		50.98%
	School 7		48.39%
	School 8		39.13%
Ruteng	School 1	8.01-9.00	68.92%
	School 2		55.70%
	School 3		51.58%
	School 4		49.43%
	School 5		42.86%
	School 6		40.48%
	School 7		39.34%
	School 8		32.26%

7.12 National Examination Scores in Science

Table 13 shows the range scores (8.01-9.00) in the science section of the national examination for students at the top eight primary schools in Ende and Ruteng. The results show that in both towns only a minority of students had range scores between 8.01 and 9.0. However, the scores of the students in Ende were higher, with a total mean score of 31.25%, compared to a total mean score of 24.5% in Ruteng.

Table 13 Scores in Science

School location	Schools	National examination results	
		Range of score	% of students
Ende	School 1	8.01-9.00	48.53%
	School 2		43.06%
	School 3		35.59%
	School 4		32.26%
	School 5		31.58%
	School 6		20.29%
	School 7		19.61%
	School 8		17.65%
Ruteng	School 1	8.01-9.00	35.71%
	School 2		34.18%
	School 3		32.43%
	School 4		28.74%
	School 5		20.48%
	School 6		16.13%
	School 7		16.07%
	School 8		13.11%

7.13 The Significance of the AusAID/NTT-PEP Project in Ende

The NTT-PEP was a six-year project in the Ngada, Ende, and Sikka districts of Flores Island, with a total grant of AU\$25 million provided by AusAID. The project's main focus was promoting partnership between the local district government, teachers, principals, parents, and other community members. The following replies are representative of the views of teachers and principals in Ende concerning the significant contributions of the project:

We are lucky in this district because the NTT-PEP advisors conducted regular training on how to implement a school-based curriculum and joyful learning (Teacher).

My understanding, which is similar to that of other principals, is that we got good guidance from the advisors, such as Mr. Peter. They provided us with regular training and assisted in the formation of school councils for a genuine partnership between school principal, teachers, and society (Principal).

8 Discussion

The findings indicate that the implementation of SBM in Indonesia has resulted in a shift of power and authority from governments to school-level decision-makers. This supports the findings of previous research. For instance, several studies found that under SBM, principals have become partners of other decision-making groups, including teaching and non-teaching staff, parents, community,

government, and alumni representatives (Gamage, 1996a, 2003, 2006a; Gamage & Hansson, 2006; Lam, 2006; Lingard, Hayes, & Mills, 2002).

Several previous studies have also found that SBM has an impact on the devolution of power and authority at the school level, leading to an increase in participation and commitment on the part of parents and the local community. This in turn results in significant improvements in teaching-learning environments and student achievement (Blank, 2004; Brown & Cooper, 2000; Gamage, 1994b, 1998a, 2006b; Muijs, Harris, Chapman, Stoll, & Russ, 2004; O'Neil, 1996; Sheldon & Voorhis, 2004).

In the context of Indonesia, Caldwell (2005, p. 9) reports that the implementation of SBM in Eastern Java has led to improvements in student achievement. He found that dramatic improvements in student achievement were evident within twelve months after the implementation of SBM policies, including the provision of a small budget to each of the 79 schools for conducting professional development programs for teachers, and for engaging in community development to encourage parents to support local schools. Similarly, Bandur (2012) found a correlation between devolving power and authority to the school level and increased participation of school stakeholders, changes in school culture, and improvements in the teaching-learning environment.

In terms of meeting the challenges and problems related to the effective implementation of SBM, researchers consider the training and development of school principals to be a critical factor (Bandur, in press; Bandur & Gamage, 2009; Caldwell, 2004; Gamage, 2006a). Moreover, Gamage (2006a) points out that the foremost challenge that a school principal faces is understanding the changing situation and improving his or her interpersonal and communication skills to meet the changing environment.

9 Conclusion

It is clear that decentralization through School-Based Management has become crucial to improving the quality of education in Indonesia in such areas as teaching-learning environment, school culture, and student achievement. At the policy level, adequate decision-making power in key areas needs to be vested in school-level decision makers. This includes the formulation of school vision, mission and goals; budget; building renovation; new buildings; maintenance; discipline policies; curriculum development; and the selection of teachers, principals, administrative staff, and text books. In practice, the effective implementation of SBM can be highly challenging, depending on the readiness and willingness of the school's stakeholders. The results of this study clearly indicate that

schools in which international experts and donors provide assistance in empowering the stakeholders have better results than schools without such assistance. This means that further support from relevant international agencies is required for the effective implementation of SBM policies and programs.

Moreover, in coordination with academic specialists, government officials need to be responsible for the training of school principals in managerial practices, strategic planning, and school development planning, as well as in their changing roles as school leaders under the SBM policy.

In conclusion, the implementation of SBM in Indonesia is significantly effective in improving student achievement. Further attention should be addressed to how schools can further utilize the assistance provided by foreign aid agencies to improve their capacity to understand SBM concepts and practices, create a collaborative work and learning environment, and increase the level of participation of parents and the local community in school development.

References

- Anderson, W. (2006). Site-based management. In S. C. Smith & P. K. Piele (Eds.), *School leadership: Handbook for excellence in student learning* (pp. 223-244). London: Sage.
- Aspinall, E., & Fealy, G. (Eds.). (2003). *Local power and politics in Indonesia: Decentralisation and democratisation*. Pasir Panjang, Singapore: Institute of Southeast Asian Studies.
- Bandur, A. (2011). Challenges in globalising public education reform. *Global Journal of Human Social Sciences*, 11(3), 9-14.
- Bandur, A. (2012). School-based management developments and partnership. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 32, 316-328.
- Bandur, A. (in press). School-based management: Impacts and challenges. *Journal of Educational Administration*.
- Bandur, A., & Gamage, D. T. (2009). School-based management policies and programs: Improving teaching-learning environments and student achievements in Indonesia. *Education and Society*, 27, 51-75.
- Bangay, C. (2005). Private education: Relevant or redundant? Private education, decentralization and national provision in Indonesia. *Compare: A Journal of Comparative Education*, 35, 167-179.
- Best, J. W., & Kahn, J. V. (1998). *Research in education*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Bjork, C. (2003). Local responses to decentralization policy in Indonesia. *Comparative Education Review*, 47, 184-216.
- Bjork, C. (2006). Decentralization in education, institutional culture and teacher autonomy in Indonesia. In J. Zajda (Ed.), *Decentralization and privatisation in education* (pp. 133-150). Dordrecht, The Netherlands: Springer.
- Blank, M. J. (2004). How community schools make a difference. *Schools as Learning Communities*, 61, 62-65.
- Brace, N., Kemp, R., & Snelgar, R. (2006). *SPSS for psychologist: A guide to data analysis using SPSS for windows* (3rd ed.). New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Briggs, K. L., & Wohlstetter, P. (2003). Key elements of a successful school-based management strategy. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement*, 14, 351-372.
- Brown, B. R., & Cooper, G. R. (2000). School-based management: How effective is it? *NASSP Bulletin*, 84, 77-85.
- Burns, R. B. (1994). *Introduction to research methods* (2nd ed.). Melbourne, Australia: Longman Cheshire.
- Bush, T., & Gamage, D. T. (2001). Models of self-governance in schools: Australia and the United Kingdom. *The International Journal of Educational Management*, 15, 39-44.
- Caldwell, B. J. (1990). School-based decision-making and management: International developments. In D. J. Chapman (Ed.), *School-based decision-making and management* (pp. 3-28). London: The Falmer Press.
- Caldwell, B. J. (1998). Strategic leadership, resource management and effective school reform. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 36, 445-461.
- Caldwell, B. J. (2004, January). *School leadership development: How the UK experience compares across the world*. Paper presented at the 4th Thai-UK Education Festival on "Policies for Effective School Leadership," Bangkok, Thailand. Retrieved November 23, 2007, from http://www.educationaltransformations.com.au/files/presentations/2004/et_school_leadership_development.pdf
- Caldwell, B. J. (2005). *School-based management*. Retrieved October 12, 2007, from <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0014/001410/141025e.pdf>
- Caldwell, B. J. (2008). Reconceptualizing the self-managing school. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, 36, 235-252.
- Cheng, Y. C. (1996). *School effectiveness and school-based management: A mechanism for development*. London: The Falmer Press.
- Creswell, J. W. (2005). *Educational research: Planning,*

- conducting, and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Merrill.
- Creswell, J. W., & Clark, V. L. P. (2007). *Designing and conducting mixed-methods research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Crotty, M. (1998). *The foundations of social research: Meaning and perspective in the research process*. London: Sage.
- David, J. L. (1989). Synthesis of research on school-based management. *Educational Leadership*, 46, 45-53.
- Delaney, J. G. (1997). Principal leadership: A primary factor in school-based management and school improvement. *NASSP Bulletin*, 81, 107-111.
- Departemen Pendidikan Nasional. (2001). *Menuju pendidikan dasar bermutu dan merata: Laporan komisi nasional pendidikan* [Towards the quality and equality of basic education]. Jakarta, Indonesia: Author.
- Departemen Pendidikan Nasional. (2002). *Panduan umum dewan pendidikan dan komite sekolah* [General guidelines on educational council and school committee]. Jakarta, Indonesia: Author.
- Departemen Pendidikan Nasional. (2004). *Panduan umum dewan pendidikan dan komite sekolah* [General guidelines on educational council and school committee]. Jakarta, Indonesia: Author.
- Dimmock, C. (1993). *School-based management and school effectiveness*. London: Routledge.
- Edge, K. (2000). *Decentralization and school-based management*. Retrieved July 20, 2007, from <http://www.worldbank.org.edu>
- Gamage, D. T. (1990). Changing role of leadership of the Australian high school principals in a changing environment. *Perspective in Education*, 6(2), 95-108.
- Gamage, D. T. (1993). A review of community participation in school governance: An emerging culture in Australian education. *British Journal of Educational Studies*, 41, 134-149.
- Gamage, D. T. (1994a). School governance: Australian perspective. In A. Thody (Ed.), *School governance: Leaders or followers?* (pp. 114-127). Harlow, UK: Longman.
- Gamage, D. T. (1994b). Is community participation in school management becoming an international phenomenon? *Canadian and International Education*, 23(2), 73-83.
- Gamage, D. T. (1996a). *School-based management: Theory, research, and practice*. Colombo, Sri Lanka: Karunaratne and Sons.
- Gamage, D. T. (1996b). The impact of school-based management and new challenges to school leaders. *Perspective in Education*, 12(2), 63-74.
- Gamage, D. T. (1998a). How community participation promotes efficiency, effectiveness, and quality in education. *Journal of Educational Planning and Administration*, 12, 313-323.
- Gamage, D. T. (1998b). How did school and community partnership result in more effective schools in Australia. *Perspective in Education*, 14(1), 47-58.
- Gamage, D. T. (2003, March). *School-based management leads to shared responsibility and quality in education*. Paper presented at the Annual Conference of the CIES, New Orleans, LA.
- Gamage, D. T. (2006a). *Professional development for leaders and managers of self-governing schools*. Dordrecht, The Netherlands: Springer.
- Gamage, D. T. (2006b). School-based management: Shared responsibility and quality in education. *Education and Society*, 24, 27-43.
- Gamage, D. T. (2008). How did school-based governance lead to distributed leadership, partnership and improved student learning. *Journal of the Centre for Research in Secondary Schools*, 7, 27-41.
- Gamage, D. T., & Hansson, P. (2006). A comparative study of profiles and perspectives on professional development of school leaders in Australia and Sweden. *Education and Society*, 24, 61-81.
- Gamage, D. T., & Sooksomchitra, P. (2004). Decentralization and school-based management in Thailand. *International Review of Education*, 50, 289-305.
- Gamage, D. T., & Zajda, J. (2005a). Decentralization and school-based management: A comparative study of self-governing schools models. *Educational Practice and Theory*, 27(2), 35-58.
- Gamage, D. T., & Zajda, J. (2005b). Decentralization, delegation, and devolution: Towards self-governing schools. *Political Crossroads*, 12(3), 29-57.
- Grauwe, A. D. (2005). Improving the quality of education through school-based management: learning from international experience. *International Review of Education*, 51, 269-287.
- Guess, G. M. (2005). Comparative decentralization lessons from Pakistan, Indonesia, and the Philippines. *Public Education Review*, 65, 217-230.
- Hanson, E. M. (1991). *School-based management and educational reform: Cases in the USA and Spain*. Retrieved July 20, 2007, from <http://www.eric.ed.gov/PDFS/ED336832.pdf>
- Hanson, E. M. (1998). Strategies of educational decentralization: Key questions and core issues. *Educational Administration*, 36, 111-128.
- Hawkins, J. N. (2000). Centralization, decentralization, recentralization -- Education reform in China. *Journal*

- of *Educational Administration*, 38, 442-445.
- Herman, J. J., & Herman, J. L. (1993). *School-based management: Current thinking and practice*. Springfield, IL: Charles C. Thomas.
- Hess, G. A., Jr. (1999). Understanding achievement (and other) changes under Chicago school reform. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 21, 67-83.
- Kuehn, L. (1996). *School-based budgeting/site-based management*. Retrieved April 28, 2005, from <http://bctf.ca/publications/ResearchReports.aspx?id=5614>
- Lam, Y. Y. K. (2006). Local response to school-based management in Hong Kong. *Educational Studies*, 32, 171-185.
- Leroy, R. C. (2002). *School-based management in Haiti: Committee members' perceptions of benefits, disadvantages, constraints, and facilitators*. Retrieved March 11, 2005, from <http://wwlib.umi.com.library.newcastle.edu.au>
- Lingard, B., Hayes, D., & Mills, M. (2002). Developments in school-based management: The specific case of Queensland, Australia. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 40, 6-30.
- Manning, M. L., & Munro, D. (2006). *The survey researcher's SPSS cookbook*. New South Wales, Australia: Pearson Education.
- Mejia, M. M. C. (2001). *The role of the principal in high schools restructuring through SBM*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Southern California, Los Angeles.
- Muijs, D., Harris, A., Chapman, C., Stoll, L., & Russ, J. (2004). Improving schools in socioeconomically disadvantaged areas: A review of research evidence. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement*, 15, 149-175.
- O'Neil, J. (1996). On tapping the power of school-based management: A conversation with Michael Strembitsky. *Educational Leadership*, 53(4), 66-70.
- Ogier, M. E. (1998). *Reading research: How to make research more approachable*. London: Bailliere Tindall.
- Pallant, J. (2005). *SPSS survival manual: A step by step guide to data analysis using SPSS for windows* (2nd ed.). Crows Nest, Australia: Allen & Unwin.
- Parker, K., & Leithwood, K. (2000). School councils' influence on school and classroom practice. *Peabody Journal of Education*, 75, 37-65.
- Raab, C. D. (2000). The devolved management of schools and its implications for governance. In M. A. Arnott & C. D. Raab (Eds.), *The governance of schooling: Comparative studies of devolved management* (pp. 19-51). London: Routledge.
- Ranson, S. (2008). The changing governance of education. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, 36, 201-219.
- Sheldon, S. B., & Voorhis, F. L. V. (2004). Partnership programs in U.S. schools: Their development and relationship to family involvement outcomes. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement*, 15, 125-148.
- Slife, B. D., & Williams, R. N. (1995). *What's behind the research? Discovering hidden assumptions in the behavioral sciences*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Stevenson, R. B. (2001). Shared decision making and core school values: A case study of organizational learning. *International Journal of Educational Management*, 15, 103-121.
- Sturman, A. (1989). *Decentralization and the curriculum: Effects of the devolution of curriculum decision-making in Australia*. Victoria, Australia: The Australian Council for Educational Research.
- The Ministry of National Education, Republic of Indonesia. (2003). *Education act of the republic of Indonesia (number 20) on national education system*. Retrieved July 27, 2005, from http://www3.bkpm.go.id/file_uploaded/Indonesia_Education_Act.pdf
- Whitty, G. (2008). Twenty years of progress? English education policy 1988 to the present. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, 36, 165-184.
- Wiersma, W., & Jurs, S. G. (2005). *Research methods in education*. Boston: Pearson.
- Wohlstetter, P. (1995). Getting school-based management right: What works and what doesn't. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 77(1), 22-26.
- Wong, K. (1998). *Transforming urban school systems: Integrated governance in Chicago and Birmingham (UK)*. Retrieved July 23, 2007, from <http://www.temple.edu/lss/pdf/publications/pubs1998-20.pdf>