

Chapter 2

The Context

2.1 Introduction

This chapter is concerned with the context within which the policy analysis study on the introduction of the International Baccalaureate (the IB) at three international schools in remote communities in Indonesia, was located. Specifically, it focuses on three contexts: the International Baccalaureate (IB), the Indonesian context, and remote schooling. Section 2.2 provides the background to the IB and positions it within the field of international education. It details its history, key features, structure, mission and global growth, including the educational ideologies that influenced the emergence of the International Baccalaureate Primary Years Programme (IBPYP). Section 2.3 provides an outline of education in the Indonesian context, including its history and structure, as well as relevant government department policies related to international schools. Section 2.4 introduces the field of remote schooling and issues related to living and working in remote locations.

2.2 The International Baccalaureate

The IB, including the IBPYP, can be viewed as being positioned within the field of international education (Dolby and Rahman 2008). However, the term ‘international education’ is ambiguous, difficult to define, and misleading, particularly in a borderless world that, in the view of Bonk (2009), has opened up educational opportunities for anyone to learn anything from anyone at anytime. It has been constructed from a multitude of “conceptual anomalies, exuberant expectations and philosophical perspectives and perceptions” (Bunnell 2007, p. 349). Along with related constructs of

‘international schools’, ‘international curriculum’ and ‘international-mindedness’, however, it continues to be in search of an agreed identity. The approach adopted here is not one that attempts to find agreed definitions of these terms. Rather, it is an attempt to unravel the layers of each, particularly in regard to the IBPYP.

The burgeoning market commodity that is ‘international education’ caters for the ever-increasing number of internationally mobile workers and their families. The changing face of these workers, in turn, is having an impact on international schools. One example of this impact is the emergence of a new breed of schools aligned with large multi-national companies in areas such as mining, industry and finance (Hayden and Thompson 2011).

Choice in the international educational market has also grown (Bagnall 2008). The inclusion of the International Primary Curriculum (International Primary Curriculum 2010) and International Middle Years Curriculum (International Middle Years Curriculum 2010) has added to the list of recognized international curricula providers that include the European Council of International Schools, the Cambridge International, the Yew Chung International School Curriculum, the Council of International Schools, the Round Square Schools, the International Bureau of Education, and Global Education Management Systems. Hayden and Thompson (2011) present a comprehensive list of these and other organizations, and illustrate their influences on the growing number of international, national, religious and commercially-based international schools that represent the diverse ‘international education’ marketplace.

The emergence of international education as a multi-million dollar industry also needs to be considered (Bunnell 2011). It is made up of “a burgeoning peripheral industry of service providers for the increasing number of international schools and their associated school communities” (Ellwood 2004, p. 5). These include publishing companies, professional development providers and human resource organizations. The publishers produce curriculum texts directly linked to each curriculum or assessment tool for international schools; the professional development provision relates to values education, global issues and technological competencies; and the large human resource organizations manage the recruitment of those teachers on the ‘international school circuit’.

Technological advances have played a key role in enabling core features of international curriculum design, curriculum texts and professional development offerings to circulate around the globe at a phenomenal speed. The global social network and operational processes provided by international organizations such as the IBPYP help to facilitate the transference of knowledge and understanding of their particular curriculum policy. At the same time, it is vital to keep in mind that no matter what technologies, resources or support are provided, curriculum policy only becomes a reality when teachers enact it (Ornstein and Hunkins 2004).

2.2.1 History and Philosophy of the International Baccalaureate

The body of international organizations and curriculum providers that exist today within the field of international education is diverse. One of the oldest of the organizations involved is the IBO, which started out with a single programme for internationally mobile students preparing for university. Now it offers four programmes for students aged from 3 to 19 years. The original International Baccalaureate Diploma Programme (IBDP) for high school-aged students matriculating after completing their final 2 years of school provided, as it still does, an internationally recognized university entrance qualification. The Middle Years Programme (IBMYP) was introduced in 1994 for students in grades 6–10. The IBPYP, followed in 1997 and was designed for students aged from 3 to 12 years. Finally, the International Baccalaureate Career-related certificate (IBCC) was introduced in 2012 for students 16–19 years of age. The four IB programmes (the IBPYP, the IBMYP, the IBDP and the IBCC) are presented as an ‘IB International Continuum’ (IBO 2009). All share a common mission to develop ‘internationally minded’ students (IBO 2012).

Looking at matters more broadly, international schools for much of the period since World War II, have primarily accommodated children of foreign diplomats and the mobile middle classes. More recently, however, with the increased ease of travel and the emergence of transnational workplaces, the international schooling sector has developed into a conglomerate of schools with a multiplicity of definitions and contexts. Regarding the IB, Bunnell (2011) presents an overview of its evolution historically. Its birth and infancy period (1969–1983) was one of exploration, trial and expansion. During this time, the programme grew from being offered in one IB school to being offered in 130 schools. The ‘youthful’ period (1984–1999) was a time of expansion for the IB as it grew from 130 to 800 programmes and moved into a consolidation mode. This was the era when it shifted from having an international schools approach to involvement with national schooling and to being adopted by a wider variety of schools, many of them being non-elite. Within its adulthood period (since 1999) the IB grew exponentially; between 2000 and 2013 the number of IB schools went from 1,000 to 3,600.

The IBDP is the oldest programme in the IB curriculum suite. Bagnall (2010) provides a comprehensive history of its evolution from 1970 to 2010. In the early years it was a pre-university curriculum with a common set of external examinations for students in schools throughout the world seeking to return to their home countries with a recognized curriculum. An elitist perception of the programme developed during this time because of the socio-economic background of the students involved in it. Although the first IB schools were predominantly

private international schools they included a small number of private national institutions and schools belonging to state education departments. However, over time this changed, such that over half of all authorized IB World Schools in 2012 were state-run schools (IBO 2012).

The IBPYP is an outcome of the International Schools Curriculum Project. Since its inception in 1997, until 2006, it grew “between 10 and 25 % each year” (Hayden 2006, p. 135) in particular regions. Also, between 2005 and 2010 the number of IBPYP schools trebled from just over 200 to 600 (IBO 2012). By 2012, it had increased to 945 schools in over 140 countries. At a regional level, the number of Asia Pacific IBPYP schools grew from 52 in 2005, to 270 in 2012.

The large uptake of IB programmes in schools throughout the world, including in South East Asia, has generated much debate. There is concern that international ideologies minimize national perspectives and transnational conflicts (Brown and Lauder 2011). Some interpret the uniformity of the IB ideology, curriculum and governance as a normative exercise that promotes homogeneity (Quist 2005), while others consider the IBPYP to be a unifying force for curriculum reform (Hill 2007). Nonetheless, the IB has emerged as a globally recognized educational brand in the world of international education.

In 2006, in what Bunnell (2011) labels the adulthood phase of the IB, substantial changes to its organizational infrastructure were made in preparation for anticipated expansion. The appointment of a leading businessman, Jeffrey Beard, as Director, was seen as a strategic policy decision for the organization. It resulted in the adoption of a corporate style of management and the development of systemic changes to the organization in order to cater for predicted growth.

2.2.2 The IBO’s Organizational Structures and Processes

The IBO is a non-profit organization that receives funding in the form of annual fees from its schools. Additional income is drawn from such fee-based services as professional development, publications and student assessment. Donors offer additional financial support to the IBO and at times governments provide funding to support special projects and initiatives. An overview of the IBO’s financial figures based on its annual report of 2010 showed an annual income of 105 million US dollars, representing an increase of nearly 40 million dollars since 2006. The IBO’s operational costs were separated into five areas: staff costs of 54 million dollars, examination fees of 24 million dollars, workshops and conferences at 8.8 million dollars, authorization and evaluation fees at 2.2 million dollars, publications at 400,000 dollars and an ‘other’ category worth 10 million dollars.

In 2011, the IBO launched its 2020 vision for the organization. It simplified legal and tax structures, created a new council advisory role and changed its governance structure. The organization is led by a Board of Governors and an ombudsman role has been appointed to support the organization’s commitment

to being service-oriented (IBO 2011b). Each department within the IBO develops goals and financial forecasts for 3 years at a time. The forecasts address the aims embedded in the organization's strategic plan. The corporate approach to the IBO's management structures reflects the global push toward the commodification of education. This is a situation where organizations, including international schools, are required to balance the demands and tensions of a 'double bottom line' involving education and economics.

The IBO's Board of Governors (15–25 elected members) is drawn from a list of people nominated by the Heads Council and Regional Councils (IBO 2011a). There are only three ex-officio positions in the organization, which are filled by the Director General, the Chair of the Examining Board, and the Chair of the Heads Council. The IBO's organizational structure described in the 2011 strategic plan encourages diversity of gender, culture and geography.

The IBO Board has six permanent committees. They deal with access and advancement, audit, compensation, education, finance, and governance. Three of these represent compliance and governance (audit, compensation and governance), two deal with policy (education and finance) and the sixth one relates to creating a vision and direction for the other committees. This macro level structure is where global policies are produced and enacted. The regional offices and schools are where the policies are interpreted and enacted.

The IBO has a range of offices around the world that serve different purposes. They cater for 140 countries where IB schools are operating. The Director General is based in Geneva (Switzerland) and the Curriculum and Assessment Centre is in Cardiff (UK). The research unit was based at the University of Bath in the (UK) but following the renewed focus on research highlighted at the IB Asia Pacific Conference in Singapore in 2012, the head of research was relocated to the USA. The IBO has regional offices, or representatives, in Beijing, Buenos Aires, Cardiff, Geneva, Mumbai, New York, Singapore, Sydney, Tokyo and Vancouver. In 2010, the organization established three 'global IB centres' in the regions. The first opened in Bethesda (Maryland, USA) in 2010 as the Americas Global IB Centre and the second opened in The Hague (Netherlands) in 2011 as the 'Europe, Africa and Middle East Global Centre'. The 'Asia-Pacific Global Centre' in Singapore caters for the Asia Pacific and the South-East Asian region. It has been operating for over 10 years. The positioning of these global centres in the USA, Europe and Singapore reflect its areas of growth.

The IBO is an organization that values its reputation for quality, high standards and pedagogical leadership. The original mission statement, developed in 1969, still states:

The International Baccalaureate aims to develop inquiring, knowledgeable and caring young people who help to create a better and more peaceful world through intercultural understanding and respect. To this end the organisation works with schools, governments and international organisations to develop challenging programmes of international education and rigorous assessment. These programmes encourage students across the world to become active, compassionate and lifelong learners who understand that other people with their differences can also be right. (IBO 2012)

This is supported by a set of core values, outlined as follows:

- IB is motivated by a mission to create a better world through education
- IB values partnerships to achieve its goals by working together
- IB values quality and its reputation for high standards
- IB values participation that actively involves its stakeholders
- IB values international-mindedness by embracing diversity
- IB values paedagogical leadership by innovating in educational practice. (IBO 2009)

The mission statement and the statement of core values have triggered continual debate and discussion regarding the IBO's perceived 'altruistic' and 'western view-point' on social reform in education. The IBPYP aims to promote 'international-mindedness' in students and educators through what is called the IB Learner Profile (IBO 2003b). This consists of a set of ten attributes, or ideals, that the IBO believes will inspire, motivate and focus the work of schools and teachers, and unite them in a common purpose (IBO 2011c). The conceptualization of the 'Learner Profile' emerged during the original policy production phase of the IBPYP in 1997, and was known initially as the 'Student Profile'. The change of name to 'Learner Profile' in the early 2000s saw it embedded as the central core of all IBO programs. The ten attributes of the profile suggest that students should be inquirers, be knowledgeable, be thinkers, be communicators, be principled, be open-minded, be caring, be risk-takers, be balanced, and be reflective. These attributes are embedded in the IB mission statement and are considered central to the development of internationally-minded students and teachers, although much debate has surrounded their meaning.

2.2.3 *The Authorization Process*

IB schools are required to work successfully through a sequence of events if they are to become IB authorized. First, they register interest with the IBO's regional centre and conduct a feasibility study. This involves analysing philosophy, curriculum, organization and resources at the school level in order to see if it has the capacity to address the IB *Programme Standards and Practices* (IBO 2003a, 2011c). Once accepted as a candidate school, the authorization process commences with the support of the regional IB officers. Schools work through this 'candidature phase' over a few years. It involves a 'training period', in which schools enact the *Programme Standards and Practices*. School policies, processes, organization and resources are designed and delivered to reflect the mandated practices. The school is expected to appoint an IB coordinator, commit to professional development training and provide time for collaborative planning with staff during the candidature. An on-site visit by an IB pre-authorization team takes place, involving an intensive reflective regime. The *Programme Standards and Practices* (IBO 2011c) are non-negotiable and must be adhered to if the school is to be successful in gaining its authorization. At the same time, as long as a school can justify that it is moving towards addressing the IB Standards, some flexibility is available.

At the end of the candidature stage, the ‘authorization team’ evaluates the school’s capacity to deliver the programme. The IBO’s regional office reviews both the report from the authorization team and documentation produced by the school. If the school successfully addresses the requirements it attains the status of an IB authorized school. From that point onwards, it is required to be re-authorized every 3 years. This includes completing a self-study questionnaire and evaluation report, coupled with a school community report that sets future goals.

Throughout the authorization process the IBO offers a range of support to schools, principals, IB coordinators and staff. It provides access to a website known as the ‘Online Curriculum Centre’ and provides a variety of publications, along with opportunities for involvement in the curriculum review processes. The IBO’s regional office provides workshops and organizes conferences, and also offers support. Recent technological initiatives that are used include the ‘Digital Space Initiative’ (now referred to as the ‘Virtual Learning Community’), the ‘IB Blogasphere’, which is a new web portal for the online professional learning service, ‘Epals Online Learning Community’, and the ‘Opening Classroom Doors’ initiative which provides video clips of schools ‘enacting’ such components of the IBPYP as collaborative planning sessions. Independent regional networks have also been developed to link IBPYP teachers to colleagues in other IBPYP schools in their region. While these networks differ in their provision of support, they provide access to district professional development and collegial support, and provide a voice for the region. Also, while they are not fully endorsed by the IBO in that they are not hosted on the IB website, they are recognized as a valuable support.

The authorization process is well documented and supported by the IBO. Key IB documents guide the process for all programmes and specific texts support the authorization process for each programme. Key players offer support during the candidature stage of authorization. These are the officers at the regional level, the authorization team at the national level, and the IB coordinator at the local school level.

2.2.4 International Baccalaureate Primary Years Programme (IBPYP)

The IBPYP caters for children from 3 to 12 years of age. It is a trans-disciplinary programme designed to foster the development of the whole child. Its curriculum framework is structured in a trans-disciplinary way around a written curriculum, taught curriculum and assessed curriculum. Paedagogically it embraces constructivism through a concept-based, inquiry approach to learning. The curriculum framework consists of five essential elements: concepts, knowledge, skills, attitudes and action. The knowledge component is developed through students engaging in inquiry into the following six trans-disciplinary themes of global significance: who we are, where we are in place and time, how we express ourselves, how the world

works, how we organise ourselves, and sharing the planet. The structure of the IB trans-disciplinary themes reflects Boyer's (1994, p. 18) construction of curriculum as "core commonalities", rather than as a "subject areas" approach.

The IB *Continuum of International Education* (IBO 2009) was developed to promote cohesion across all IB programmes. It highlights the 'Mission Statement', the 'Learner Profile' and the 'Standards and Practices' as core elements in each of them. It also highlights the key features of the programmes by presenting them as seven continua: the structural continuum, the learning to learn continuum, the special education needs continuum, the academic honesty continuum, the assessment continuum, the consolidation of learning continuum, and the action continuum. Each continuum articulates the scope and sequence of IB policy.

The IBPYP continua represent the pedagogy and ideology behind the IBPYP. For example, the 'learning to learn continuum' is about constructing meaning. It is aimed at developing meta-cognitive knowledge about learners and how they learn best for self-improvement. The 'language-learning continuum' highlights the importance of mother tongue development for students and promotes the learning of an additional language from the age of 7. The 'special education needs continuum' encourages the development of inclusive programmes and engagement in early intervention in pupils' learning. The 'academic honesty continuum' was designed to facilitate the development of the academic capacities of students through the IB Learner Profile and of essential elements of the PYP. The 'assessment continuum' is focused on internal assessment, feedback and goal setting. It features a 'consolidation of learning' element identified as a presentation by each student at the culmination of his or her learning in each programme; PYP students complete an 'exhibition', MYP students develop a 'personal project', and DP students write an 'extended essay'. Finally, the 'action continuum' outlines the scope of how children can enact their learning, moving from voluntary demonstration to community service. The action cycle of 'reflect, choose and act' is introduced and encouraged throughout the PYP.

The IBPYP provides scope and sequences for all subject areas within the five trans-disciplinary themes. It outlines the specific content for Language, Mathematics, Social Studies, Science and Technology, Personal and Social Education (PSE), Physical Education, Visual Arts, Music, and Drama. The associated scope and sequence documents are structured in the same way for each subject area. The overall expectations are provided at the beginning of each section and content is outlined. The remaining sections are divided into four parts. Part One 'What do you want students to learn?' includes specific expectations, or central ideas, where sample questions are provided. Part Two, 'How best will students learn?' includes good-practice teaching activities. Part Three, 'How will we know what students have learned?' includes a range of assessment activities, both formative and summative. Part Four outlines the subject link to the 'programme of inquiry'. This is where the document explains how the curricular expectations for social studies, science, technology and PSE are to be expressed using the content of a 'unit of inquiry'.

2.3 Education in Indonesia

This section provides an overview of education in Indonesia, including its history, its structure, government policy, the emergence of international schools, and the adoption by schools of the IBPYP. With over 50 million students and 2.6 million teachers in more than 250,000 schools, Indonesia has the third largest education system in the South East Asian region and the fourth largest in the world, behind China, India and the USA. The country has many different indigenous cultures and language groups. Of the 214 million people who live in the country, 76 million are school-aged children. Many live in remote areas that have high incidences of poverty, high costs of schooling and limited access to high quality education. In 2011, over 110,000 expatriates held working visas in Indonesia and many of their children attended international schools.

Two ministries are responsible for managing the education system in Indonesia. The pattern is that 84 % of schools are managed under the Ministry of National Education and the remaining 16 % are under the Ministry of Religious Affairs. International schools and private schools fall under the jurisdiction of one or other of these departments, depending on whether the school is a state school, or a religious school. Twenty-seven schools in Indonesia offer the IBPYP. Over half of these are private schools, including four that are religion-based.

2.3.1 *History of Education in Indonesia*

Public education was virtually non-existent in Indonesia until the colonial government established a system of village schools in 1906 (Kristiansen and Pratikno 2006). By 1913, with an estimated population of 40 million, public schools numbered approximately 3,500, while there was a similar number of private and religious schools. Only a very few locals from Javanese elite groups were permitted to study in the schools of the Dutch colonialists. By 1930, the Dutch had introduced formal education to nearly every province of the Dutch East Indies. Nevertheless, less than 6 % of the population was literate in 1945.

After Independence in 1949, Indonesia developed a national education plan to support the 1945 constitution. This policy stipulated that every citizen had the right to obtain an education and that the government had the responsibility to provide one national educational system. Financial constraints limited government efforts at the time. Many schools that arose during this era were predominantly private and run by religious groups.

The expansion of public primary schooling emerged when increasing national oil revenues started to feed into government budgets from 1973 (Kristiansen and Pratikno 2006). Large amounts of money channelled through a Presidential Instruction Grant, were used to construct thousands of schools throughout the country. The number of primary schools increased from 65,000 in 1973 to 130,000 in 1984 and

the number of enrolled children doubled to 26 million. Following a government decree in 1974, school boards known as 'BP3s', were established in most schools. These were used extensively to legitimize the imposing of levies charged on parents (Moegiadi and Jiyono 1991). In 1989, the government committed to providing 9 years of schooling, rather than 6. Nine-year compulsory education was officially introduced in 1994, with the target of providing for 95 % of the nation's students by 2004. However, only 90 out of 440 districts reached the official target. During this time 3.2 million children aged between 13 and 15 were not enrolled in compulsory education.

Private schools have maintained a dominant role in the educational system in Indonesia. Before the 2005 decentralization reform, 17 % of students at elementary school level were enrolled in private schools, while in junior and senior high schools the figures were 40 % and 50 % respectively (EdStats 2006). Private schools at the elementary school level are normally characterized by their lower operational costs and lower academic quality (Van Schaik 2009), even though the government provides substantial subsidies. Also, private school graduates generally gain much lower scores in public examinations than do those in public schools.

Finally, while the number of private elite schools in Indonesia traditionally has been small, the indications by 2006 were that the numbers were increasing (Kristianssen and Pratikno 2006). The majority of schools adopting the IBPYP curriculum are part of an elite private school movement. In 2012 there were 27 authorized IBPYP schools in Indonesia and 15 candidate schools (IBO 2011a).

2.3.2 The Structure of the School System in Indonesia

With the exception of structures for early childhood education, the Indonesian system still mirrors the three-tiered elementary, primary and high school model put in place by the Dutch and common in many other countries. Indonesian children do not generally have access to formal education before the age of 5, kindergarten is not compulsory, and of the 49,000 kindergartens in the nation, 99.35 % are privately operated. In contrast, 93 % of all elementary schools in Indonesia are government operated. Although primary school fees in the public sector were officially abolished in 1977, as were secondary school fees in 1994, most schools in Indonesia still do charge fees.

Six years at elementary school is compulsory, except in the case of those at some schools that offer an accelerated learning programme. Here students who perform well can finish in 5 years rather than 6. Middle schooling is also compulsory and is considered part of elementary education. Students attend middle school for 3 years from the age of 13 to 15. After graduation, students may move on to high school, or cease formal education.

High school is not compulsory and is offered to students who are 15 years of age, or older. They can attend one of two streams: general high school where students are prepared for tertiary education, or vocational high school where they are prepared

for the workforce. The number of high schools within the country is significantly less than the number of elementary and middle schools. Also, fees are charged. At the higher education level Indonesia has 145 state universities and 450 private universities (AusAid 2011).

2.3.3 Government Education Policy in Indonesia

The Indonesian national philosophy is that of 'Pancasila'. It embodies five principles: the belief in one God; a just and civilized humanity; Indonesian unity; democracy; and social justice for all the peoples of Indonesia. The nationalist leader, Sukarno, first presented Pancasila in 1945. It is still embedded in all Indonesian government policies, including those related to education.

Education has become central to the Indonesian Government's development agenda. Total government spending on the sector is increasing, but the percentage of such spending relative to what is spent on other areas is falling. In the mid-1980s, 17–18 % of central government expenditure was on education. In 1997, this was reduced to 14 %, and by 2003 it was down to 5 %. By now, the National Education Law (No. 20/2003) and the Constitution Amendment III had been passed. They emphasized that all Indonesian citizens had the right to education and the Government had an obligation to finance basic education without charging fees. It was mandated that the Government should allocate 20 % of its expenditure to education. As a result, spending on education doubled between 2004 and 2006 (Kristianssen and Pratikno 2006). By 2007, it was more than for any other sector, reaching an equivalent of US\$14 billion, or more than 16 % of total government expenditure. As a share of gross domestic product (3.4 %) expenditure is now comparable to that in countries at a similar stage of development.

The Indonesian Ministry of Education's strategic plan for 2005–2009 aimed to increase access to education, improve education quality, and provide better governance of the education sector. A large investment of funds in education targeted the goals in the strategic plan. During this time the Teacher Law (No. 14/2005) was passed. This law introduced important changes to the employment conditions and requirements for the certification of teachers. The main aim was to improve the quality of education and raise the profile of teacher preparation. What is noticeable is that there is no strategic approach for targeting rural and remote schooling in Indonesia, while the corpus of research into rural and remote education in the nation is limited (Wahyudi 2004).

2.3.4 International Schools in Indonesia, Including Those Offering the IBPYP

In the early 1900s, only a few wealthy Javanese groups were allowed access to the Dutch schools in Indonesia, where the Dutch curriculum was taught.

Following Independence, and especially during the boom era of the 1970s to the 1980s, international schools flourished in the country. The rise of English-speaking international schools with links to US curricula, the British General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE), and the IB programmes, constituted the first wave of international schooling in the country. These international schools and their curricular options provided elite Indonesians with access to an English-speaking education without having to go abroad.

All schools in Indonesia, including international schools, are required to comply with the demands of the Ministry of National Education, or the Ministry of Religious Affairs, as well as those of government legislation related to immigration. In 2006, over 40 international schools were spread throughout the country, of which eight were IB schools. In 2011, the number of international schools in the country stood at 67, of which 27 were IBPYP schools (IBO 2011a).

The largest category of international schools in Indonesia, which makes up 30 % of the group, consists of schools that offer an overseas curriculum specifically for a foreign cohort. They cater for students from Australia, Netherlands, France, Pakistan, Korea, Taipei, Japan, India, Britain, Singapore, Canada and the USA. Each of these schools has to meet requirements laid down by Indonesian government legislation, as well as meet local educational demands. Nearly 13 % of them are religious-based. Christian schools are found largely in the east of the country. Islamic schools are generally found in Java and in regions to the north and west.

‘Company schools’ sponsored by large mining organizations also make up a small cohort of international schools emerging throughout Indonesia. These schools are often located in remote regional areas close to mine sites. Caltex, Texmaco, Freeport-McMoran, Phelps Dodge and Newmont are key mining companies found within the nation and each operates company-owned schools on site. The smallest group of international schools are those small private schools based on non-state alternative curriculum methods. These include Montessori and Reggio Emilia schools, as well as such schools as the Green School Bali which supports ‘sustainable education’ and the Technology International School in Jakarta, with its individualized ICT programme.

The first IB international school in Indonesia (IBDP) was authorized in 1978. In 2011, the number of international schools offering fully authorized IBPYP programmes was 27, and there were 15 candidate schools (IBO 2011a). Many of the IBPYP schools are located in large cities, or regional centres, but some are springing up in more remote locations aligned with large multi-national mining companies. Three remote international schools are presented in the case studies detailed later in this book. Two of them are small company-based mining schools and the other is a small independent international school. Geographically they are all located in rural areas that are also considered remote due to difficulty of access and isolation. Indeed, one of the schools is only accessible by helicopter, or by bus convoy, when there is civil unrest in the region, even though it is located only 30 km from an airport.

2.4 Rural and Remote Education

It is unhelpful to work with the assumption that rural, remote, or isolated schools can be understood through using a singular, simplistic term, or definition. Rather, the complexity of each term and definition needs to be clearly articulated. Rural in Indonesia is quite different from rural in Australia, or rural in China. Rural centres in Indonesia can be found less than 2 km from city fringes and some remote centres are so isolated that the only way of gaining access is by foot, or helicopter. Therefore, before labelling areas as being rural, remote or isolated, it is important to look at the context in which the area is located globally, nationally and locally (Sharplin 2009).

Green (2009) is one authority who warns of the problem of over-generalizing about rural contexts. Nevertheless, for the purpose of this discussion, remote and rural are interpreted in geographical terms as being isolated from a major centre. In light of this, the first sub-section below presents an overview of rural and remote schooling. Two more sub-sections, one that considers life and work in remote school communities, and the other that considers life and work in remote international school communities, follow.

2.4.1 *Overview of Rural and Remote Schooling*

Rural and remote communities are faced with issues of diversity and difference caused by forces of globalization and internationalization involving a large mobile workforce (Tonts 2011). Relating to this context, literature in the field of rural and remote schooling highlights several themes. These include attraction and retention of teachers, pre-service preparation, quality of teachers, leadership, educational continuity, access to ICT, and professional development (Halsey 2012; Miles et al. 2004; Reid et al. 2009; Trinidad et al. 2010; White et al. 2008).

Various scholars have attempted to define rurality and remoteness (Cloke and Little 1997; Wakerman 2004) and a range of categorizations, typologies and indexes have been offered to help guide policy. These, however, are often contested, a matter that adds ambiguity to the task. In social terms, rurality can mean being isolated from family, friends, colleagues and, at times, the local community. It can also embrace the geography, demography and economic landscape that can have an impact on the local context. Such interconnectivity is referred to by Reid et al. (2009) as ‘rural social place’. On this, Green (2008) suggests that contextual considerations should be taken into account in all aspects and instances of policy and pedagogy, particularly with regard to remote schooling.

The local community and surrounding environment are key factors that influence the enactment of policy in rural and remote schools (Halsey 2006, 2012; Green 2008; Sharplin 2009). Hayden (2006, p. 147) identified three external influences on schools as being the “local community, the global community and quality assurance methods”. Recognition of these influences, in addition to Green’s call for them to be

included in policy studies, has opened up discussion about what constitutes a local community and how a school staff connects, or disconnects, with it. On this, Halsey (2012) highlights the importance of schools linking with the local community in rural and remote settings. But these links can range between strong and tenuous, and they can have an impact on schools in a range of ways. The links also occur, and are significant, in international school settings, as the next two sub-sections indicate.

2.4.2 Life and Work in Remote School Communities

Many issues surround living and working in rural, or remote, settings including the importance of developing relationships between a school and its local community (Halsey 2012). Other relevant issues relate to a sense of belonging and place, isolation and how to connect to the ‘outside’ world, managing people, and attracting and retaining staff. Each of these issues is explored below.

The first issue relates to developing relationships within the community as such relations can strongly influence how schools construct and actualize policy. Making connections between a school and the local community – whether it be an international, metropolitan or remote school – can be fraught with complexities and, at times, conflict. However, what remains constant for people living in rural and remote centres is the notion that schools are central meeting places for the community. In fact, in many cases, schools are often the largest organization in a town, or area. Therefore, respect on the part of the school and local community for each other, and the involvement of both with each other, need to be forthcoming.

The second major issue involved in living and working in remote settings relates to a sense of belonging and a sense of place. Green (2008) alerts us to the significance of a school as a ‘place’ and its relationships to ‘other places’ and social practices that surround it. A major role of schools in rural and remote areas is to provide safe places for all stakeholders, particularly if the area is one of civil unrest, upheaval, or conflict. At the same time, the reality for many transient teachers venturing into remote schools is that their place of teaching does not equate to home, or act as a safe place. On the contrary, living in a remote, or rural, community can represent a type of ‘un-homing’, particularly for those who grew up in cities (McConaghy and Bloomfield 2004).

It is also the case that many placements, remote or international, are usually considered a temporary interlude for ‘nomadic subjects’ (Deleuze and Guattari 1987) such as international teachers. For them, the notion of ‘place’ has emerged as a form of identification. Thus, an individual’s personal theory of ‘place and belonging’ may be a significant influence on how he, or she, enacts the policy. Therefore, the crucial impact of ‘place’ and ‘community’ needs to be better understood, although Green (2008) reminds us that there is little understanding of place and space with regard to either policy, or pedagogy. It is, however, becoming an issue of great interest in sociology and other disciplines.

The third major issue relating to living in rural and remote locations concerns connections with the ‘outside world’. Such globalization forces as the increasing ease of communication and travel have played a significant role in removing the ‘tyranny of distance and isolation’ often associated with rural and remote living. One associated paradox is that students can be in close contact with communities thousands of miles away, yet be isolated from the community to which they are geographically close (Bunnell 2006a, b). Global technological advances that have the capacity to connect, and yet also disconnect, students, teachers and schools from their local community have played a major part in creating the situation.

The consequence of increased globalization is two-fold for remote communities. On a positive note, the ease of communication and technological access can connect the remote centre to the global community. On the other hand, there is the possibility of a disconnection with the local community taking place. In other words, technological advances can contribute to creating the double-edged sword of globalization forces that have the capacity to connect and disconnect individuals, systems and nations. In the words of Porter and Vidovich (2000, p. 449), globalization is a concept that is “both a sought after dream and a dreaded devil”.

A fourth issue regarding teaching and schooling in remote locations relates to managing people. A certain type of teacher is attracted to remote school settings. He, or she, often share common experiences. Also, they often share similar attributes and similar reasons for wanting to teach in such locations (Reid et al. 2009). The way teachers of this type relate to each other can have an impact on school operations and culture. In small schools, anonymity can be lost and some people can find it hard to delineate between personal and professional issues (Caffyn 2011). For those in leadership roles in such schools, the situation can result in fractionalization, debate and discord.

2.4.3 Life and Work in Remote International School Communities

The development of international schools in remote locations is a recent phenomenon. It has accompanied the emergence of a mobile workforce related to resource and economic development. Furthermore, such forces of globalization as technology have spread international education opportunities to remote settings around the globe (Glass 2010). Thus, international schools in remote locations are a special category within the international school grouping.

The particular field of research on remote international schools intersects with other fields of study, especially that field on relationships within a school, between a school and community, and between a school and the ‘outside’ world (global, national, regional, and local). On this, the key players in each context can determine how relationships develop. In addressing the matter, Berting (2010) argues that identifying traits of families and teachers can enable schools to set up structures

to take account of differences and promote harmony between them. Also, Allen (2002b) holds that promoting the idea of difference rather than community can result in a sense of isolation.

International schools often operate as elite enclaves, or what Pearce (1994) labels ‘cultural bubbles’. Allen (2002a) imagines the scenario to be like atolls in a coral sea. These atolls are particularly evident within the context of developing countries, or rural and remote areas. The economic and cultural differences between those within these enclaves and the ‘others’ outside can be extreme. At times people hide behind “security or language issues for their lack of connection” with local host communities (Hayden 2006, p. 148). This brings to mind the ‘enclave’ construct identified by Cambridge and Thompson (2004, p. 165). This relates to a situation where families are “isolating their children’s educational environment from exposure to local culture”. A contrasting view suggests that the external community fear that its own culture may be contaminated by the Anglo-American culture which the international school is perceived to bring with it. Such isolation of both communities is likely found where there is a perceived ‘culture clash’ between the school and the local community (Hayden 2006).

The superficiality of how some local and school communities interact was highlighted by McKenzie (1998, p. 250), who found that many teachers had little or “any genuine or sustained contact with their ambient society”. More recently, Hayden (2006) has suggested that international schools need to raise the awareness, and develop a much deeper understanding of, the similarities between the local context and culture and their own situation, rather than persist with the more traditional ‘us and them’ perception of difference and superficial contact. Overall, the debate is moving from one centred on differences and similarities between school and local communities, to a focus on acceptance and a more symbiotic relationship between the two.

While developing a profile of international schools, Berting (2010) designed a quadrant model to help identify an international school population. Each quadrant (Q) is based on recognizing traits of international teachers and families:

- Q1: Local families unilingual and have little international experience who choose to go to international schools to gain English experience and reflect their social status;
- Q2: International families from English speaking countries on their first international posting often unilingual and never embrace the local language or culture;
- Q3: Cosmopolitan and local families with extensive international experience and who may be multi-lingual and are often bridge builders between communities; and
- Q4: The cosmopolitan international family that have adapted to local community, are often multilingual, active participants in the school and local community and understand the intrinsic value of international education. (Berting 2010, pp. 32–33)

Recognizing the composition of the family and teachers involved in international school communities outlined in Berting’s (2010) quadrants provides schools with important information that can help to promote and develop relationships between community and schools, whether they are located in rural, remote or urban settings.

Rural, remote and international school communities are part of a global educational community strongly connected by networks of educational organizations and

social networking facilities. Globalization forces such as technological advances have facilitated these connections. Some international educational organizations offer rural and remote teachers access to online support, newsletters, online professional development and informal social networks. These large organizations include the European Council of Schools, the United World Colleges, the International Schools Services, Global Education Management Systems and International Baccalaureate schools. Other associations that offer similar online support as well as professional and social networks for international schools include the Association of American Schools in Central America, The Federation of British International Schools in South and East Asia, the Swiss Group of International Schools, the Association of International Schools in Africa, the Association for the Advancement of International Education and the Academy for International School Heads.

To summarise, the issues surrounding rural and remote education and schools in a diversity of settings are complex. They relate to a sense of belonging and place, isolation and connecting with the 'outside' world, leadership and managing people, and concerns about attracting and retaining teachers. There are clearly advantages and disadvantages for teachers living and working in remote settings. Also, teachers in these localized contexts are increasingly influenced by global and social factors surrounding them. At the local level the micro-politics within teaching cohorts can reflect the biases and self-interests of individuals and groups. Social, economic and cultural factors can be magnified, and micro-politics can be very personalized and powerful (Caffyn 2011). The associated strategy offered by Zhao (2010) is that there should be an emphasis on developing knowledge 'about' others, perspectives 'on' others, attitudes 'towards' others and ability to interact 'with' others to help enhance interpersonal relationships. The global competencies which would be developed as a result, he holds, have the capacity to benefit teaching cohorts in remote and remote international schools.

2.5 Conclusion

This chapter has detailed the context of the study at the core of later chapters in this book, by explaining the three contexts in which it is located, namely, the IB and the IBPYP, the Indonesian educational context, and issues surrounding rural and remote education. The exponential growth of IBPYP schools, coupled with the changing face of the teacher and student populations in international schools, has brought about much discussion and debate. This chapter has revealed the many anomalies and contradictions that exist in regard to international and rural and remote education, as well as commonalities between them.

Within Indonesia, the IBPYP is growing alongside other emerging international curricula. The Ministry of Education in Indonesia recognizes this development, and is responding by changing policies related to international schools as well as internationalizing its national schooling.

With predictions of future growth trends, the IB can expect to have 10,000 authorized schools across the world by 2020. In 2011, 3,400 IB schools located in 143 countries catered for over one million students (IBO 2011a). The 27 IBPYP-authorized international schools in Indonesia constitute a small proportion of this global phenomenon. However, with the increase in mining and economic activity, and the increasing number of mobile middle class families expected to be living in Indonesia in the near future, these numbers seem destined to increase.

The next chapter, Chap. 3, now locates the exposition to date within the context of the relevant academic literature. In particular, it explores the phenomena of globalization and internationalization, the conceptualization of the policy process, and the conceptualization of international education and schools. The complex and contested nature of these constructs is examined through the lens of global change.

References

- Allen, K. (2002a). Atolls, seas of culture and global nets. In M. C. Hayden, J. J. Thompson, & G. Walker (Eds.), *International education in practice: Dimensions for national and international schools* (pp. 112–135). London: Kogan Page.
- Allen, M. (2002b). Cultural borderlands: Cultural dissonance in the international school. *International Schools Journal*, 20(2), 42–53.
- AusAID. (2011). *Australian aid*. <http://www.aisaid.gov.au/Pages/home.aspx>. Accessed 1 Dec 2012.
- Bagnall, N. F. (2008). *International schools as agents for change*. New York: Nova Science Publishers, Inc.
- Bagnall, N. F. (2010). *Education without borders: Forty years of the International Baccalaureate, 1970–2010*. Berlin: VDM Publishing House Ltd.
- Berting, R. (2010). From local or international to colloquial or cosmopolitan – Refining how we look at the populations of international schools. *International Schools Journal*, 29(2), 30–40.
- Bonk, C. J. (2009). *The world is open: How web technology is revolutionizing education*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Boyer, E. L. (1994, March). Creating the new American college. *Chronicle of Higher Education*, 8–48.
- Brown, C., & Lauder, H. (2011). The political economy of international schools and social class formation. In R. Bates (Ed.), *Schooling internationally: Globalisation, internationalisation and the future for international schools* (pp. 39–58). Abingdon: Routledge.
- Bunnell, T. (2006a). Managing the role stress of public relations practitioners in international schools. *Educational Management Administration and Leadership*, 34(3), 385–409.
- Bunnell, T. (2006b). The growing momentum and legitimacy behind an alliance for international education. *Journal of Research in International Education*, 5(2), 155–176.
- Bunnell, T. (2007). The international education industry: An introductory framework for conceptualizing the potential scale of an ‘alliance’. *Journal of Research in International Education*, 6(3), 349–367.
- Bunnell, T. (2011). The International Baccalaureate and ‘growth scepticism’: A ‘social limits’ framework. *International Studies in Sociology of Education*, 21(2), 161–176.
- Caffyn, R. (2011). International schools and micropolitics: Fear, vulnerability and identity in fragmented space. In R. Bates (Ed.), *Schooling internationally: Globalisation, internationalisation and the future for international schools* (pp. 59–82). Abingdon: Routledge.

- Cambridge, J., & Thompson, J. (2004). Internationalism and globalization as contexts for international education. *Compare: A Journal of Comparative Education*, 34(2), 161–175.
- Cloke, P., & Little, J. (Eds.). (1997). *Contested countryside cultures: Rurality and socio-cultural marginalisation*. London: Routledge.
- Deleuze, G., & Guattari, F. (1987). *A thousand plateaus: Capitalism and schizophrenia*. Bath: Bookcraft.
- Dolby, N., & Rahman, A. (2008). Research in international education. *Review of Educational Research*, 78(3), 676–726.
- EdStats. (2006). *World Bank education statistics*. www.worldbank.org/education/edstats. Accessed 13 Jan 2008.
- Ellwood, C. A. (2004). *Sociology and modern social problems*. Whitefish: Kessinger Publishing.
- Glass, G. V. (2010). Potholes in the road to virtual schooling. *School Administrator*, 67(4), 32–35.
- Green, B. (2008). *Spaces and places: The NSW rural (teacher) education project*. Wagga Wagga: Charles Sturt University, Centre for Information Studies.
- Green, B. (Ed.). (2009). *Understanding and researching professional practice*. Rotterdam: Sense Publishers.
- Halsey, J. R. (2006). Towards a spatial ‘self-help’ map for teaching and living in a rural context. *International Education Journal*, 7(4), 490–498.
- Halsey, R. J. (2012, March). Rural reflections on Gonski. *Education Review*, np.
- Hayden, M. (2006). *Introduction to international education*. London: Sage Publications Ltd.
- Hayden, M. C., & Thompson, J. (2011). Teachers for the international school of the future. In R. Bates (Ed.), *Schooling internationally: Globalisation, internationalisation and the future for international schools* (pp. 83–100). Abingdon: Routledge.
- Hill, I. (2007). International education as developed by the International Baccalaureate Organization. In J. Thompson, M. Hayden, & J. Levy (Eds.), *The SAGE handbook of research in international education* (pp. 25–38). London: Sage.
- International Middle Years Curriculum. (2010). *International Middle Years Curriculum*. Retrieved April 18, 2010, from <http://www.internationalmiddleyearscurriculum.com/>
- International Primary Curriculum. (2010). *International Primary Curriculum*. Retrieved April 18, 2010, from <http://www.internationalprimarycurriculum.com/>
- IBO. (2003a). *Programme standards and practices*. Cardiff: IBO. www.ibo.org/documentlibrary/programmestandards. Accessed 30 Mar 2006.
- IBO. (2003b). *IB learner profile booklet*. Cardiff: IBO. www.ibo.org/ibla/conference/.../TheLearnerProfileinActionFabian.ppt. Accessed 30 Mar 2006.
- IBO. (2009). *A continuum of international education*. IBO. www.ibo.org/communications/powerpoint/.../Continuumppt22.12.08Eng.pp. Accessed 20 Oct 2010.
- IBO. (2011a). *IB fast facts. One page of key information about the IB*. Retrieved from www.ibo.org/facts/fastfacts/
- IBO. (2011b). *International Baccalaureate Organisation*. Retrieved from www.ibo.org
- IBO. (2011c). *Programme standards and practices*. Cardiff: IBO. Retrieved from www.ibo.org/documentlibrary/programmestandards/
- IBO. (2012). *Mission and strategy*. www.ibo.org/mission. Accessed 1 Jan 2013.
- Kristiansen, S., & Pratikno. (2006). Decentralising education in Indonesia. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 26(5), 513–531.
- McConaghy, C., & Bloomfield, D. (2004). Beyond the line, beyond the self. *Journal of Curriculum Theorising*, (Fall), 93–112.
- McKenzie, M. (1998). Going, going, gone... global! In M. Hayden & J. Thompson (Eds.), *International education: Principles and practice* (pp. 242–252). London: Kogan Page.
- Miles, R., Marshall, C., Rolf, J., & Noonan, S. (2004, May 13). *The attraction and retention of professionals in regional areas*. National Rural Health Alliance Inc., Fact Sheet. http://www.bowenbasin.cqu.edu.au/pdfs/dotars_colloq. Accessed 11 Feb 2006.
- Moegiadi, A., & Jiyono, C. (1991). *Research report on community participation in education at the primary level in Indonesia*. Office of Educational and Cultural Research and Development.

- Ornstein, A. C., & Hunkins, F. P. (2004). *Curriculum foundations, principles, and issues* (4th ed.). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Pearce, R. (1994, November 27–29). Globalization: Learning from international schools. *Mobility*.
- Porter, P., & Vidovich, L. (2000). Globalization and higher education policy. *Educational Theory*, 50(4), 449–465.
- Quist, I. (2005). The language of international education: A critique. *IB Research Notes*, 5(1), 2–6.
- Reid, J., Green, B., White, S., Cooper, M., Lock, G., & Hastings, W. (2009, May). *Understanding complex ecologies in a changing world*. Paper presented at the AERA annual conference. Denver: American Educational Research Association.
- Sharplin, E. (2009, February). *Getting them out there: A rural education field trip*. Presented at the International Symposium for Innovation in Rural Education, Armidale, Australia.
- Tonts, M. (2011, September). *Sustainability and globalization – Partners or protagonists?* Paper presented at the Rural National Summit, Flinders University, Adelaide.
- Trinidad, S., Sharplin, E., Lock, G., Ledger, S., Boyd, D., & Terry, E. (2010, August). *Developing strategies at the pre-service level to address critical teacher attraction and retention issues in Australian rural, regional and remote schools*. Paper presented at the National Rural Education Conference, Mooloolaba, QLD, Australia.
- Van Schaik, B. (2009). *Indonesia's education policy: Enabling innovation and growth*. Unpublished M.Sc. thesis, Delft University of Technology, Delft, The Netherlands.
- Wahyudi, I. (2004). *Symbolism, rationality and myth in organizational control systems: An ethnographic case study of PBS Jakarta Indonesia*. Unpublished Ph.D. thesis, The University of Wollongong, Australia.
- Wakerman, J. (2004). Defining remote health. *Australian Journal of Rural Health*, 12(5), 210–214.
- White, S., Green, B., Reid, J. A., Lock, G., Hastings, W., & Cooper, M. (2008, July). *Teacher education for rural communities: A focus on incentives*. Paper presented at the Australian Teacher Education conference, Sunshine Coast, QLD, Australia.
- Zhao, Y. (2010). Preparing globally competent teachers: A new imperative for teacher education. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 61(5), 422–431.

Global to Local Curriculum Policy Processes
The Enactment of the International Baccalaureate in
Remote International Schools

Ledger, S.; Vidovich, L.; O'Donoghue, T.

2014, VIII, 217 p., Hardcover

ISBN: 978-3-319-08761-0