IN THE SHADOW OF THE TSUNAMI: A CASE STUDY OF A TSUNAMI-AFFECTED SCHOOL IN BANDA ACEH

FADLIADI

Master of Education
School of Education
(Flinders University, South Australia)

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School of Education
Faculty of Education, Humanities and Law
Flinders University

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ABSTRACT

The 2004 tsunami in Aceh devastated the province in all sectors. In the education sector, the tragedy destroyed about 2,000 schools and killed approximately 2,500 teachers and 40,000 students (Ananta & Onn, 2007a). While much has been written about the tsunami in Aceh, little has been documented about the impact of the tragedy on schools and the teachers and students.

Using case study as the method of inquiry, this cross-sectional qualitative study, from an educational perspective, focused on one tsunami-affected school in Banda Aceh to understand the impact of the tragedy six years after the event. Of particular interest was to understand how the tragedy affected the lives of teachers and students attending the school. Data were collected between April and October 2010 using semi-structured interviews with 11 teachers, 10 students, and eight community members who were purposively selected. Observations and students' photos and drawings were also gathered. The collected data were analysed qualitatively using NVivo software.

From the findings of the study, it was evident that some teachers and young people at the study school were still living in the shadow of their tsunami experience. Multiple sources of evidence showed that some teachers and students in the school were facing personal and school-related challenges that affected the educational processes that underpin quality teaching and learning in the school. This included long-term economic difficulties, living with the memory of the event, loss of loved ones, and a difficult life as a result of their experience of the tsunami. At the school, many teachers viewed their roles as more challenging after the tsunami. Sources of teachers' challenges included a lack of teaching and learning resources, their own personal issues as well as the issues and family circumstances of their students, a lack of collegiality, ineffective leadership, and unequal opportunity for professional development. With regard to students, in addition to personal factors, students at the study school also faced learning challenges due to a lack of teaching and learning resources, poor teacher pedagogy, and difficult teacher-student relationships.

Without the recognition by government and education sector leaders of these challenges and without provision of necessary support, both the teachers and students were pessimistic that they could perform their roles optimally.

Findings from this study can serve as guidelines that may assist policy and practice particularly in Aceh regarding better educational support and services during the rebuilding of the province. In addition, it is expected that the findings may be applicable to other contexts, especially contexts similar to the subject of this study.

DECLARATION

Candidate's declaration

I certify that this thesis does not incorporate without acknowledgment any material previously submitted for a degree or diploma in any university; and to the best of my knowledge and belief it does not contain any material previously published or written by another person except where due reference is made in the text.

Fadliadi

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CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

Background of the study

At 7.58 a.m. on December 26, 2004, on the bottom of the Indian Ocean a deep-sea earthquake measuring 9.0 on the Richter Scale resulted in a tsunami that produced waves of up to 100 feet and hit 11 Indian Ocean countries: Indonesia, Sri Lanka, India, Thailand, Somalia, Myanmar, Maldives, Malaysia, Tanzania, Bangladesh, and the Seychelles (Jordan, 2006). "[I]t is the world's first truly global disaster" (Athukorala & Resosudarmo, 2005, p. 2). Of its kind, it is recorded as the worst natural disaster in human history due to the extreme number of casualties, displacement of people, and massive destruction of facilities and infrastructure (Athukorala & Resosudarmo, 2005; Thienkrua et al., 2006). The death toll across the countries in two continents was estimated to be about 350,000 people (Athukorala & Resosudarmo, 2005).

Aceh is almost surrounded by the sea: the Indian Ocean on the west and southwest, and the Malacca Strait on the north and northeast. Aceh was the closest to the earthquake epicentre and suffered more than any other region from the loss of lives and the destruction of private and public facilities including houses, schools, health centres and businesses (Ananta, 2007; Redwood-Campbell & Riddez, 2006). The province, had previously been isolated under a state of emergency martial law imposed by President Megawati in 2003, which strictly controlled access to the region especially for international aid groups and journalists. After the tsunami Aceh suddenly became the centre attention and an open region for assistance and ingress of people from all over the world (Ananta & Onn, 2007b; Drexler, 2008; Vatikiotis, 2007). In addition to multi nation/government aid commitments (Athukorala & Resosudarmo, 2005), there were 124 international Non-Government Organisations (NGOs) and 430 local NGOs working in the region to address the catastrophe (Mathiaparanam, 2007, p. 62).

In Aceh, at least 1,400 villages were swept off the face of the earth (United Nations Office of the Secretary-General's Special Envoy for Tsunami Recovery, 2006). The tsunami also destroyed around 800 kilometres of Aceh's coastline with 127,000 houses totally or partly damaged, leaving over 500,000 people homeless (Ananta & Onn, 2007a) including 35,000 children who were separated from their families (Dawson et al., 2014). Fisheries, agriculture, and small enterprises, which are Aceh's most important economic sectors, were severely disrupted. The fisheries sector suffered a loss of approximately US$511 million from the destruction and loss of two-thirds of all boats as well as large areas of land and fish farms. The agriculture sector lost US$225 million from serious seawater inundation and damage of over 28,000 hectares of plantations. Small enterprises lost US$218 million (Ananta & Onn, 2007a). The destruction caused by the tsunami was estimated at 22% of the province's infrastructure (Schulze, 2005), which included the massive damage of 80% of health centres on the west coast and 35% of health centres on the east coast of Aceh, (Redwood-Campbell & Riddez, 2006), the destruction of more than 3,000 miles of roads (United Nations Office of the Secretary-General's Special Envoy for Tsunami Recovery, 2006) and 260 bridges (Kawilarang, 2008), 1,110 religious buildings (IOM, 2005), seaports, airports, ferry terminals, and inter-island boat stations, and water and sanitation facilities.

In the education sector, the tsunami destroyed approximately 2,000 schools and their textbooks and learning materials (Ananta & Onn, 2007a). In the Banda Aceh municipality itself, where this study was conducted, 130 schools were categorised as totally or badly destroyed, 17 at the junior secondary level (Departement Pendidikan Nasional RI Direktorat Pendidikan Dasar dan Menengah, n.d.), which was the school level selected as the case for this study. Of the approximately 230,000 people killed by the tsunami in Aceh (Kawilarang, 2008; United Nations Office of the Secretary-General's Special Envoy for Tsunami Recovery, 2006), 2,640 were teachers (S. M. Syah et al., 2011) and about 40,000 were students (Ananta & Onn, 2007a). At least 8,316 children lost one or both of their parents (Carballo, Heal, & Hernandez, 2005).

Research provides evidence that in addition to casualties and damage of property, disasters often result in significant post disaster problems (Freedy, Shaw, Jarrel, & Master, 1992; Leon, 2004; Lindell, 2011) that are far beyond the loss of possessions and infrastructure destruction, especially for young people (Silove & Zwi, 2005).

Severe traumatic events such as the tsunami in Aceh can have a lasting negative psychosocial impact (Agustini, Asniar, & Matsuo, 2011). For example, in addition to psychological problems due to the actual loss of parents and the lack of quality parenting, death of parents can create social devastation in communities since relatives or other people who may have been in a position to adopt the orphans might also have died. Even if they are available, their own socio-economic conditions are often too precarious to provide adequate care (Carballo et al., 2005) or they themselves may be so distressed and overwhelmed by the experience that they are not capable of looking after the children (Rosenfeld, Caye, Ayalon, & Lahad, 2005).

Further, children who are exposed to a disaster can experience disruption in their daily life such as negative cognitive effects on memory, learning and school performance as well as a greater risk of later development of psychopathology (Wolmer, Laor, Dedeoglu, Siev, & Yazgan, 2005, p. 1161). Most studies in the field of children's psychological well-being after traumatic events reveal that these events can have a profound negative impact on children many years later (Wolmer et al., 2005). More specifically, the performance in class of students who have been exposed to traumatic events may be impeded (Cole et al., 2005). In this case, students with behaviour issues due to stress, trauma or problems at home as a result of the experience of a traumatic event like the tsunami may experience rejection by teachers and peers and even their caregivers because of their difficult behaviour, reducing the opportunities for positive social engagement, classroom participation and supportive instruction and feedback (Harris, Putnam, & Fairbank, 2004).

Teachers occupy important roles in the lives and development of many young children (Fullan & Hargreaves, 1996; Wolmer et al., 2005). Due to the significant amount of time children spend with their teachers at school and their perceived role in the community, it is possible for teachers to have a strong influence in children's lives (Russo & Boman, 2007). Although only a minority of studies has explored the role of teachers as 'protective buffers' in the lives of children who face great adversity, the role of teachers in helping children cope and develop resilience is critical (Benard, 1991). In the lives of children affected by traumatic events, a teacher's role is even more vital. Teachers may help students understand situations that are beyond their comprehension and control (G. L. Bowen, Richman, Brewster, & Bowen, 1998). They can promote resilience among children through providing

protective factors as they learn and develop (Folkman & Moskowitz, 2000). This includes providing students with supportive school and classroom environments including promoting positive classroom interactions and having positive and high expectations of students' achievement (Benard, 1991; G. L. Bowen et al., 1998)

As children may not recognise their own problems and seek help for themselves, recognition of problems by adults in their social networks is critical (De Anstiss, Ziain, Procter, Warland, & Baghurst, 2009, p. 590). As adults, it is necessary that teachers understand children's emotional reactions and respond to them in appropriate ways (Fasler, n.d.; Mandel, Mullett, Brown, & Cloitre, 2006) in order to facilitate children's successful coping, adaptation, functioning, and normal development (Wolmer et al., 2005). This does not mean that teachers should turn into therapists or mental health professionals, but they should be enabled to create a stable, supportive environment in which children can be full participants in their school communities (Cole et al., 2005). Thus, as part of their role, teachers serve as professionals who help the children cope and develop resilience.

However, many teachers in Aceh are the survivors or the witnesses of the tsunami themselves and may also have lost much including loved ones and property. Teachers' experience of the tragedy is also likely to have had an impact on their lives and role as educators. As a result, teachers in Aceh may have limitations in performing their job at school and in providing support for those in need such as students affected by the tsunami. Moreover, working with students who experience difficulties in their learning and study due to their exposure to the tsunami could be challenging for teachers. This study, therefore, aimed to understand the possible challenges for tsunami-affected schools, and particularly the challenges for teachers and students in the achievement of better education at affected schools in Aceh. The specific aim of this case study, which was conducted in one public school in Aceh, is presented in the following section.

The aim and the research questions of the study

This case study investigated the potential challenges faced by tsunami-devastated schools in Aceh especially for the teachers and students attending the schools. It focused on the situation in one tsunami devastated school in Banda Aceh, six years

after the tragedy hit the Aceh province in 2004 and devastated the school community including its infrastructure and resources. Of particular interest was to gain an in-depth understanding and to provide a 'thick description' from an educational perspective of how, at the time of the study, the shadow of the tsunami affected educational processes in the school including teaching and learning.

To achieve these aims, this study was designed to answer the following research questions:

1. What is happening at the study school six years after the tsunami?
2. What are the challenges for students at the school six years after the tsunami?
3. What are the challenges for teachers at the school six years after the tsunami?

The significance of the study

Part of the Aceh government's initiatives to hasten the rebuilding of Aceh is to allocate a large budget to send people to study at leading universities in Indonesia and overseas including in Malaysia, Taiwan, Egypt, Germany, and Australia. This program is intended to replace the skilled and educated people killed in the 30-year domestic armed conflict between the Aceh Movement for Freedom (GAM) and the Indonesian government and in the tsunami in order to enhance the quality of human resources in the province in general. I am one of those chosen to study overseas. I undertook this study to contribute to the Aceh government's rebuilding program as well as for personal reasons as an Acehnese who experienced the tsunami and as a teacher. The findings of this study will benefit the Aceh province, particularly in the effort to improve the education sector, as policy makers will be guided to a better understanding of the challenges and needs of tsunami affected schools, the teachers and the students so that better support can be provided. The findings and recommendations can also serve as advice to the authorities as they seek to create and implement guidelines for local schools, particularly tsunami affected schools, to promote effective teaching and learning.

In addition, many people including teachers in Aceh may have lacked natural disaster related knowledge and may have been unaware of the possible vulnerability hazards caused by the disaster (Khairuddin, Zubir, & Kismullah, 2009). This study endeavours to increase people's, particularly teachers' and education administrators'

understanding and awareness of the impact of disasters (i.e., the tsunami) on the school community. This in turn will promote the quality of educational services at affected schools including teachers' and students' academic and social lives.

While much has been written about the tsunami in Aceh, little has been found in the literature about its impact on schools, particularly on the lives of teachers and students at schools within the affected community. Much previous research on disasters worldwide whether quantitative or qualitative, including studies on the tsunami in Aceh, even when done in school setting, has focused more on the psychological impact. Among these are a study on post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) among students survivors in Aceh (Agustini et al., 2011), research identifying resilience among Aceh tsunami affected children (Hestyanti, 2006) and a study examining the effect of exposure and post-disaster changes in life circumstances on psychopathology (Irmansyah, Dharmono, Maramis, & Minas, 2010). This present study, then, will fill the gap in the literature regarding the effect on the lives of teachers and students from the educational perspective.

The researcher

I take the opportunity here to acknowledge that this study may not be entirely objective. To some degree, I am part of the researched, albeit indirectly, and therefore my role as an indirect insider might have influenced the process of this research including the data collection, analysis, and writing up. The reader may need to bear this in mind as they read this thesis. In the following paragraphs I introduce myself and my role in this research.

I was born in Bireuen, a small town in Aceh province, in a low socio-economic but very caring family. I am the fifth of nine brothers and sisters. From elementary school age, my older brothers and I went to help my father and learned how to sew in his tailor shop for two to three hours in the afternoon every day especially on Sundays before we attended the religious community centre called 'Meunasah' in our village to learn how to read the Quran and receive Islamic education until evening. That was the typical activity for children in Aceh and in fact it is still the practice nowadays.

In my last year of elementary school, my father was forced to sell his shop. He then sewed at the sidewalk of the local market. Two of my older sisters were already at the university at that time and my father worked very hard to be able to support my sisters and the other children's education. To support the family finances, my mother made dresses for the neighbours and friends and made cakes to sell. I was in charge of taking the cakes to some local shops early in the morning before school and collecting the money in the afternoon. It was not easy to keep up with school tasks and other commitments including helping the family. This memory came back to me when I found later in the research site that many students had to work either before and/or after school to support themselves. I believe the situation was even more difficult for those students since many of them had lost one or both of their parents who are obviously the most important persons in their lives, physically and psychologically.

After finishing senior high school in 1991, I went to Banda Aceh to pursue my university study and graduated in 1996. I stayed there until 1999 and then returned to Bireuen to begin my professional career as a teacher at a junior high school in the Pidie Jaya district. On the day of the tsunami, 26 December 2004, I was in Banda Aceh for a teacher-training program. I experienced and witnessed the tragedy. Many of my relatives, friends, teachers, and acquaintances were killed or are survivors.

As an Acehnese living in Aceh, a teacher of junior high school level, and as a person who experienced the tsunami, and with my emotional connection to the tragedy, I classify myself as an insider of this study, particularly from the emotional perspective. Although I am not a direct member of the school community which is the subject of this study (Kanuha, 2000), to some degree I am part of the researched culture and have my own understandings, convictions, and conceptual orientations toward the phenomenon under investigation (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 8).

One important point to highlight here is the way I presented myself to the participants. I was as a listener and part of the community to which the participants belong, not as an expert (outsider) studying the life of a particular group of people. I believe that the way the participants respond to a researcher is based on who he/she is in relation to the life of the participants (Miller & Glassner, 1997). The

characteristics of the researcher has a profound impression on the participants and greatly affects the success of the study (Fontana & Frey, 2000).

In the literature many have noted the advantages and disadvantages of being an insider researcher. Among the advantages is the knowledge and experience of the research context and access to the research site (Rooney, 2005). Being an insider also means having a better understanding of the group culture that enables natural interaction with the school and its members and establishes a greater relational intimacy with the community (Breen, 2007). Hodkinson (2005) noted that having possessed 'cultural competence', the insider researcher is able to participate in activities in the research site in a more authentic, relaxed, and confident manner. However, I understand that I have to "shake off self-consciousness, suppress personal opinion and avoid stereotyping respondents" (Holstein & Gubrium, 1997, p. 146).

The social background and family context which I and the researched had in common, along with the experience of the tsunami and my professional role as a teacher in Aceh played an important role in facilitating a better understanding of the phenomenon under study including issues around school and schooling in Aceh. Also, my professional background and similar ethnicity were a resource for me in understanding the internal jargon, the legitimate and taboo subjects and internal politics and helped me portray the close-up reality and produce a thick description of participants' lived experiences (Rooney, 2005). Mercer (2007, p. 6) noted:

> The [insider] researcher knows his/her environment well, knows by instinct what can be done and how far old friendship and favours can be pressed, just when and where to meet up for interviews, what the power structures and the moral mazes and subtext of the company are and so what taboos to avoid, what shibboleths to mumble and bureaucrats to placate. They are familiar with the organisational culture, the routines and the scripts of the workplace.

The commonality between me and the participants helped me gain "a more in-depth understanding of subjects' descriptions and feelings" (Rooney, 2005, p. 7) which

might be difficult, if not impossible, for an outsider to achieve (Smetherham, 1978). Hodkinson (2005, p. 141) argued, "no matter what methods they use, non-insiders may be unable to fully access and understand the values, meanings and worldviews of those they study".

On the other hand, my tacit knowledge and experience about the topic investigated and my greater familiarity with the research context may also have been a disadvantage for the study. I needed to be aware of the danger of over self-reflection on commonalities that can distract the research process including the data collection and analysis (Kanuha, 2000). In this sense, I could have made false assumptions and become too subjective, leading to interpretations of participants' information that follow my convictions or expectations. This would lead to the failure to address or probe important issues within the topic investigated (Breen, 2007; Rooney, 2005). Not surprisingly, as an insider researcher I could find that collecting or asking information from the participants is complicated as they might become aggravated by my question because they assumed that I already know the answer (DeLyser, 2000).

In terms of data analysis, there was the danger of over-reliance upon my insider knowledge or of the excessive imposition of my viewpoints and experiences. This could have resulted in failure to recognise or to sufficiently 'unpick' elements of culture that the insider tends to take for granted in the course of verifying and interpreting data (Hodkinson, 2005). Moreover, there are also ethical considerations that one needs to be aware of which address the nature of the relationship between the insider researcher and the researched that might affect the level of informed consent and freedom not to participate in the study (Galea, 2009). Being familiar to the people, or being recognised as an Acehnese or as a teacher could have influenced people's availability to participate in the study.

To conclude, alongside with the disadvantages, being an insider had clearly added significant value for me in carrying out this study. My experience, knowledge, feelings, and affiliations, which were at least comparable with those of the respondents, were invaluable material for comparing and contrasting what I saw and heard in the research site during the data collection. A complete outsider may not have such advantages, no matter how skilled or adaptive they are, as they would be heavily reliant upon the information they get from the participants, particularly the

key participants (Hodkinson, 2005). In addition, a combination of the researcher's personal experience and knowledge and his/her academic background may be valuable and even essential to arrive at a thick description of the phenomenon under the study (Hodkinson, 2005).

The structure of the thesis

This thesis is divided into nine chapters. This first chapter introduced the study and includes background information, the aims and research questions, the significance of the study, and my role as the researcher of this study. The second chapter introduces the literature. Rather than comprehensively reviewing the literature in the field of study, the second chapter is introductory, looking at the broad themes in the literature regarding the topic of this study. The issues discussed are related to disasters more specifically the nature of natural disasters. This includes issues related to the impact of disasters, post disaster recovery and interventions, determinants of postdisaster adjustment, a snapshot of the Bronfenbrenner ecological system theory parental role, loss of resources, coping, and knowledge on postdisaster-reactions. Theories related to teaching and learning including teacher pedagogical knowledge and skills and teacher professional development are also covered. A more detailed and deeper review of relevant and specific theories is recorded in the later chapters on the findings and the discussion of the findings. The third chapter deals with the research methodology and methods used for this study. This chapter includes the research design, research site and participants, sources of data, procedures for data analysis, criteria for attaining the quality for the study, and ethical issues associated with the research and confidentiality. The fourth chapter provides the context of the study along with findings related to contextual conditions of the study school at the time of the study. The fifth, sixth, and seventh chapters present the analyses, followed by the discussion of the key findings in Chapter Eight. Chapter Nine includes the summary of findings, the limitations of the study, the implications of the study, and recommendations for further research.

CHAPTER TWO
BACKGROUND LITERATURE

Introduction

Yin (2003) noted that one way of developing sharper and more insightful understandings about what is known on a topic under study is to review the literature on the topic. This study involves the complex and interrelated issues around teachers' and students' lives inside and outside school in the tsunami context within a specific time and place. While there is extensive literature on natural disasters, there is little research that focuses on the impact of natural disasters on life in affected schools especially on the lives of teachers and students including the teaching and learning process in the schools.

This chapter presents background literature about the broad themes relevant to the study (Creswell, 2003). The chapter contains a discussion of theories and concepts that underpin the study (Ridley, 2008, p. 16). This includes a review of the disaster literature considering the specific context of this study. Literature around teaching and learning is also considered since teachers and students alongside the process of teaching and learning are the focus of this study. Other literature reviewed includes literature from the fields of education, psychology, sociology, and developmental studies as each of these fields provides different perspectives that inform the study.

The review of literature in this chapter is introductory. Additional literature is reviewed in the later chapters about the analysis and discussion. The analytical discovery and interpretation that arose from the data analysis directed my attention to specific literature that provided the best supporting theories around emerging issues (Goulding, 2002; Punch, 2000).

This chapter consists of two main sections. The first section discusses issues around natural disasters. The section that follows presents a review of theories and concepts related to teaching and learning at schools including a review of literature on teacher

professional development, which is an important issue when discussing effective teaching and learning at schools including in Aceh.

The nature of natural disasters

Natural disasters often affect large numbers of people and involve high numbers of casualties, destruction, and loss of possessions. They create a broad range of psychosocial problems such as PTSD and poverty (Freedy, Shaw, Jarrel, & Master, 1992). Understanding the potential impact of natural disasters is important. This section, therefore, looks at disaster literature focusing on the impact of disasters, loss of resources, knowledge about post-disaster reactions, post-disaster recovery and interventions, determinants of post-disaster adjustment, and coping. A better understanding of disasters would minimise the potentially negative effects, including on school communities, their teachers and students.

The impact of disasters

Natural disasters (e.g., the tsunami) are extreme events which cannot always be predicted and controlled but can nevertheless have powerful adverse impacts in the aftermath (Ursano, Fullerton, & McCaughey, 2001). That is, disasters are both overwhelming and traumatic, distressing individuals and the community physically, psychologically, and socially, and also threatening people's ability to cope (Ursano et al., 2001, p. 6). Adverse impacts on individual functioning are psychological distress, loss of possessions and social support. Impacts on community functioning include loss of basic services, while impacts on social functioning affect availability of instrumental and emotional support (Ursano et al., 2001).Therefore, it is important to recognise the systemic 'ripple' effects since it is likely that there will be challenges for students and teachers at schools that flow on from the impact of disasters within the wider community such as occurred after the tsunami in Aceh.

Understanding the impact of a disaster including natural disasters is challenging since social units such as communities, individuals or households within the communities are not homogenous and their vulnerability to the impacts of disaster vary (Lindell, 2011, p. 2). In addition, since a community functions as a whole or a system (Gordon, 2004), even when only a few people are directly affected, disasters often have a devastating impact on the whole community (Gordon, 2004; Ursano et

al., 2001, pp. 3-5) and even beyond their geographical borders (Lindell, 2011; Ursano et al., 2001). "The human chaos of disaster is not random" (Ursano et al., 2001, p. 3). A "unique characteristic of disasters is that they damage the community fabric" (Gordon, 2004, p. 76). Consequently, people in the community tend to feel negative about their surroundings (Norris, 2005).

Further, Lindell (2011, p. 4) noted that disasters also result in long-term negative psychological consequences. These include 'change in risk perception' (i.e. change in people's beliefs about the likelihood of the occurrences of a disaster and its impacts) and 'increased hazard intrusiveness' (i.e. an increased level of frequency of thoughts and discussion about the negative consequences of disasters). A broad range of long-term problems can persist following disaster experiences (Freedy et al., 1992). These include psychological consequences such as depression, feelings of shock, anxiety, and post traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) (Leon, 2004). Freedy et al. (1992, pp. 442-443) noted that research provides evidence of an increased prevalence of generalised anxiety, major depression, and PTSD was evident up to 24 months following the Washington Mt. St. Helens volcanic eruption; elevated distress levels up to five years following the Pennsylvania Three Mile Island nuclear accident; and persistent distress 14 years after the dam collapse at Buffalo Creek, Darwin, Australia. A 20-year longitudinal follow-up study (McFarlane & Van Hooff, 2009) of the Ash Wednesday Fire on 16 February 1983 in South Australia, also found that 75% of the bushfire-exposed group still reported some degree of distress in relation to the bushfires 20 years on, including substantial rates of intrusive and hyperarousal symptoms. The study originally included 806 children recruited in one school in South Australia two years following the disaster in which the school was physically threatened by the bushfire. The control sample consisted of 725 children from a school in a region in the state that was not directly devastated by the fire. The bushfire-exposed individuals frequently nominated a natural disaster-related event as their worst lifetime event while individuals among the control group mentioned another traumatic life event such as an accident as their worst lifetime event.

A study conducted 15 to 18 months following the tsunami in Sri Lanka also revealed that children and adolescents were continuing to experience tsunami related distress and its subsequent impacts on their lives (Nastasi, Jayasena, Summerville, & Borja, 2011). A study was conducted in Ishinomaki City eight months after the 2011 Japan

earthquake and tsunami to look at the relationships between traumatic symptoms and environmental damage conditions experienced by children, such as house damage, evacuation conditions, and bereavement conditions (i.e. loss of family members and changes in family composition) (Usami et al., 2012). The study, which involved 11,692 students (5,959 males and 5,737 females from kindergarten to junior high school level) and used the Posttraumatic Stress Symptoms for Children (PTSSC-15 items) questionnaire, found that the PTSSC-15 score was significantly high. Similarly, a study conducted in the second and ninth months after the tsunami in Thailand (Thienkrua et al., 2006) reported the prevalence of symptoms of PTSD among children who directly experienced the tsunami. These children had seen tsunami waves, or dead or injured people, or had heard screams, or experienced a delayed evacuation. Some of the children had felt their own or a family member's life to be in danger with close-to-death experiences during the tsunami, or had felt unable to escape, or experienced extreme panic or fear, having lost a close family member or friend, or having lost their home or important belongings. Some children had suffered an injury (p. 553). Thienkrua and colleagues (2006, p. 556) reminded us that experiences of disaster-related events for children can be traumatic and have lasting effects. An important message is that disasters can result in substantial mental health difficulties, and in some instances the psychological effects can last for a very long time (Norris, Perilla, Riad, Kaniasty, & Lavizzo, 1999).

One of the common long-term psychological effects of severe traumatic events is PTSD or post-traumatic stress disorder (Broussard, Myers, & Meaux, 2008; Freedy et al., 1992; La Greca, Vernberg, Silverman, & Prinstein, 1996). PTSD is a diagnostic classification applied to individuals who manifest anxiety-related symptoms following exposure to an extreme traumatic stressor (Nickerson, Reeves, Brock, & Jimerson, 2009, p. 2). Based on DSM IV, a person is diagnosed with PTSD if they have been exposed to a traumatic event and they suffer from intense fear, horror, and helplessness in response to the event, persistent re-experiencing of the traumatic event, persistent avoidance of stimuli associated with the trauma, and/or persistent symptoms of increased arousal (Flouri, 2005; Nickerson et al., 2009). La Greca (1996) noted that symptoms of PTSD include intrusive thoughts or dreams of the disaster (re-experiencing symptoms), feelings of detachment or avoidance of

disaster related activities (avoidance symptoms), and difficulties sleeping or concentrating (hyper arousal symptoms).

There are multiple and complex factors that influence individuals' post disaster reactions linked to PTSD (La Greca et al., 1996, p. 713). These include the characteristic of the stressors, such as frightening and life threatening events, and loss, such as the loss of property and possessions and the death of loved ones; the individual characteristics including age and gender and the post disaster environment such as access to social support. In regards to social support, Flouri (2005) argued that those who have strong social support are less at risk of PTSD. More specifically, La Greca et al. (1996) noted that children who have access to social support from a variety of sources such as parents, teachers, and peers have less severe symptoms of post disaster distress or PTSD.

Research shows that the sudden and unexpected death of loved ones (i.e. family members) is the most severe risk factor associated with PTSD (Shaw, 2000; Vernberg, Silverman, La Greca, & Prinstein, 1996) and significant psychological problems (Shaw, 2000; Wadsworth, 2010). In the literature it is noted that in the Asian countries affected by the tsunami, more women and children were killed, some with multiple death in the same family (Somasundaram, 2014, p. 155). When the tsunami hit Aceh, the number of females killed in the tragedy was significantly high (Oxfam International, 2005). In some villages in North Aceh (e.g., Kuala Cangkoy, Matang Baroh) and the Aceh Besar districts (e.g., Dayah Mamplam, Meunasah Masjid, Gampong Baro) the number of females who died in the tragedy was approximately three times higher than that of males (Oxfam International, 2005, p. 4). Bilfuco, Brown, and Harris (1987) argued that loss of one's mother causes a lack of quality parental care that increases the risk of depression for affected children. The study by Agustini and colleagues (2011) conducted 4.5 years after the tsunami in Aceh revealed that of 482 students from four junior and senior high schools in Banda Aceh and Aceh Besar who participated in the study, 63.1% experienced symptoms of moderate to severe post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD). In addition, the findings of their study suggested that the severity of PTSD symptoms was increased by factors related to the horrific experiences of the event including memory of the tragedy (i.e. witnessing the death of family members, seeing mutilated corpses, and hearing screams of anguish), displacement, actual death of immediate family members and

relatives, destruction of homes and other properties, and living in shelters for a long time, exacerbated by poor economic conditions, inadequate infrastructure and the slow reconstruction and recovery process (Agustini et al., 2011, p. 547). Unfortunately, the impact, especially the psychological impact of mass catastrophes that may cause PTSD in developing countries such as Indonesia, is rarely evaluated systematically (Souza, Beratsky, Reyes, & Jong, 2007) although these regions have accounted for the majority of victims of natural disasters worldwide during the last ten years (Neuner, Schauer, Catani, Ruf, & Elbert, 2006). It is therefore important for people in Aceh, including parents and caring adults, teachers, and even the children themselves, to be aware of the potential long term psychological effects of the tsunami including the PTSD.

Disasters can also contribute to major social problems including disorganisation in the family and community due to evacuations of entire communities and disruption of social support systems within the family and community, and economic difficulties that can occur as a result of loss of property and sources of income (Leon, 2004). The difficulties may lead to a range of other issues such as increased poverty and crime (Leon, 2004). In addition, disasters can have demographic impacts that affect a community and its social structure. This includes the emigration of people who lose their homes and sources of income, and the immigration of new people for reconstruction and establishing a new life (Lindell, 2011). In addition, social activism during the disaster recovery period can result in political disruption that creates many opportunities for community conflicts such as might arise in attempts to change prevailing patterns of civil governance about the handling of the recovery process (Lindell, 2011, p. 5). During the recovery process, disasters can provoke, for various reasons, a state of anger and frustration in communities arising from people's belief that the 'others' are 'doing better' (Galante & Foa, 1986).

At an individual level, natural disasters can have a profound impact on individuals, extending beyond the loss of possessions and infrastructure destruction (Silove & Zwi, 2005). The survivors may lose a sense of the value of life, plans, ambitions, and relationships (Gordon, 2004). Disasters can destroy children's social life supports by devastating their homes, schools, and communities, destroying their sense of safety with the death of parents, siblings, and friends, and overwhelming the adults caring for them (Kostelny & Wessells, 2006). Further, children who are separated from their

families and homes following a disaster may be deprived of education which is essential to their well-being and development (Save the Children, 2007).

Although it is clear that traumatic events like natural disasters can have a profound negative impact both physically and psychologically on those exposed, a body of literature also suggests that the victims, to some extent, may have at least some positive changes emerging from their struggle with the stressors (Calhoun, Cann, Tedeschi, & McMillan, 2000; Calhoun & Tedeschi, 2004; Tedeschi & Calhoun, 1996). For some, all the sufferings, although unavoidable, are actually opportunities for growth (Wadsworth, 2010, p. 551). These stressors boost individuals to a higher level of functioning than existed prior to their exposure to the traumatic events and the suffering (Linley & Joseph, 2004).

Tedeschi and Calhoun (1996, pp. 458-459) identified at least three broad categories of perceived benefits in people's attempts to cope with a traumatic event and its aftermath. First, people can experience positive changes in the perception of the self such as feeling stronger and self-assured. Second, there will be a changed sense of relationships with others that results in a deepening of relationships, becoming better able to establish and handle more positive and intimate relationships with others including family members and realising how important the relationships are. The third is a changed philosophy of life such as a better perspective on life and its priorities, and strengthened religious beliefs. In regards to spiritual change, Muslims for example believe that all difficulties in life are a trial from God for them to grow, especially spiritually. Tedeschi and Calhoun (1996) commented that some people who are religious and continue to use or rely on religion as a coping strategy and strengthen themselves in this area, may experience an increased sense of self control and develop a positive approach to the traumatic events as their religious belief is strengthened through their struggle with trauma. For example, the teaching in Islam that encourages Muslims to believe that every situation must have something good comforts people even when they are facing difficult situations (Linley & Joseph, 2004; Tedeschi & Calhoun, 1996). The role of religion in facing adversities will be further discussed later in this chapter.

Post-disaster interventions and recovery

According to Dass-Brailsford (2010), there are four phases in every disaster, and because of the uniqueness of each disaster, each phase may be more or less prominent than others. The first phase is the threat and warning phase. This is the phase where authorities provide relevant information to all parties in potentially affected areas in clear and simple language. The second phase is the impact phase when the disaster actually occurs with the emergence of a range of physical and emotional effects, including injuries, death, damage and destruction of private and public facilities and property. The next phase is the rescue phase, which begins in the immediate aftermath of a disaster through the provision shelters, supplies and other basic goods, medical assistance, debris removal, and family reunion. The last phase is reconstruction, when rebuilding and recovery are initiated and planned. This is the phase when survivors accept change, and begin to move on and rebuild their lives or they become disappointed and distressed with their changed situations, especially when all the promises made during the rescue phase are not fulfilled (Dass-Brailsford, 2010, pp. 51-52). Lindell (2011) argued that effective disaster recovery should pay attention to the stabilisation of the community and the re-establishment of normal social, economic and political routines.

Dass-Brailsford (2010) proposed three basic steps for crisis interventions: pre-intervention, assessment, and disposition. In the pre-intervention step, responders are warned of the importance of having as much information as possible about the individuals or the community they are going to work with. The assessment step consists of the work to identify the needs of affected individuals or communities regarding appropriate emotional support, services, and other resources (Dass-Brailsford, 2010). The disposition step requires responders to provide opportunities for people affected by the crisis to talk about their experience and concerns and provide them with psychoeducation (Dass-Brailsford, 2010). Psychoeducation provides survivors with knowledge important to prepare them to understand about the disaster and their reactions, and to anticipate the process of recovery (Dawson et al., 2014; Sahin, Yilmaz, & Batigun, 2011; Somasundaram, 2014). Psychoeducation will be further discussed later in this chapter.

In addition, it is critical for an intervention to have a unifying principle (Omer & Alon, 1994), which should be simple and practical and not require complex inferences in its application; it should be consistent with knowledge on disaster and trauma; and it should be acceptable to all people from diverse backgrounds (p. 274). Following their reviews of literature in the field, Omer and Alon (1994) proposed the continuity principle that consists of functional continuity, historical continuity, and interpersonal continuity. Functional continuity is the ability to go on coping and functioning despite disturbances. Historical continuity relates to a feeling of coherence and sameness in self, family, and community through time, and interpersonal continuity is about maintaining quality relationships with significant others. All these elements need to be applied at all stages of the disaster, that is, the periods of preparation, warning, impact, and aftermath that might be discrete or overlapping (p. 274). With regards to the early to mid-term disaster period, Hobfoll and colleagues (2007) highlighted the importance of promoting a sense of safety, calming, a sense of self and community efficacy, connectedness, and hope among the survivors to prevent them from post-disaster negative reactions.

Specific to intervention within the school setting, Klingman and Cohen (2004, pp. 88-89) proposed a school-based generic intervention that comprises the principles of immediacy, proximity, sense of community, expectancy, simplicity, and purposeful action. Therefore, school-based interventions should take place as soon as possible after the disaster with the provision of immediate practical needs (e.g., food and shelter) as well of information regarding the traumatic events and their possible impacts and survivors' reactions (psychoeducation). Delays in immediate intervention can result in long-term impact of the adversity (immediacy principle). Intervention also needs to occur as close as possible to the natural setting and familiar routine. It is therefore important that children remain in their family, community, and school and return to school soon after a disaster (proximity principle). In addition, it is suggested that everyone affected, including children, teachers, family members, counsellors, and community members should be involved in intervention programs in order to promote a sense of belongingness and social support (sense of community principle). In particular, the school can communicate with students and their family that they are expected to and can recover from difficulties and problems they are facing and function again (expectancy principle)

through simple intervention methods with clear goals (simplicity principle). At the end, being involved in clear, simple, and meaningful activities enhances children's strengths, commitment, and positive expectations that they can make a change and recover (purposeful action).

Since a large scale natural disaster often results in long-term consequences, the post-disaster response should focus on a recovery perspective that includes psychosocial aspects rather than merely on immediate crisis intervention and stabilisation (Nastasi et al., 2011, p. 513). More specifically, Nastasi and colleagues (Nastasi et al., 2011) argued that one of the most important elements for post-disaster recovery and intervention is the need to pay attention to the contextual and socio-cultural stressors and resources where the intervention is due to be implemented, such as norms, religious beliefs, and the nature of supports/helpers. In addition, an intervention should consider the type of trauma and should be applied in a detailed design, which is carefully tested, refined, retested, and examined before implementation (Hobfoll et al., 2007).

Determinants of post-disaster adjustment

Although it is beyond of the scope of this study to explore factors contributing to the impact of disasters and post-disaster adjustment, it is nevertheless important to understand these issues in order to fully understand the challenges of teachers and students following their exposure to the tsunami. Not everyone has the same experiences or suffers the same impacts even when they are exposed to the same traumatic event. It is important to understand that:

> Everyone has their own unique circumstance, challenges and problems to contend with in the aftermath of adverse life events. No two people have identical social lives, resources, experiences, or circumstances and each has his or her unique set of risk and protective factors...and the negative life events are not the sole causes of subsequent events (Welch, 2011, p. 203).

The literature noted a number of contributing determinants of post-disaster adjustment. The greater the traumatic stressors, the more likely children are to develop persistent mental health problems. In some cases, the impact of the traumatic

events on children is obvious and demands immediate attention and help, while in some others it goes unnoticed (Carballo, Heal, & Hernandez, 2005). For many, it is transitory and children manage to cope, while for others the impact is long term, and may be recalled in memory (Carballo et al., 2005; Ursano et al., 2001).

The first determinant of post-disaster adjustment is personal characteristics (Freedy et al., 1992). Research has found heightened stress reactions among children following disaster experiences (Freedy et al., 1992, p. 445). The younger an individual is, the more severe the impact of the traumatic events can be (Cole et al., 2005; Goodman, Brown, Courney, & Gurian, 2002; Rosenfeld, Caye, Ayalon, & Lahad, 2005). For example, Cole (2005) noted that children who are younger than 13 years old when they experience a disaster are three times more likely to have serious emotional and behavioural problems than those who experience traumatic events later in their lives.

Research also suggested that females demonstrate higher rates of distress following their traumatic experience (Freedy et al., 1992, p. 445). Similarly, Klingman and Cohen (2004) observed that regardless of their age, girls experience higher levels of anxiety, fear, emotionality and symptoms of PTSD than do boys. They suspected that girls are more sensitive, react openly, and report more freely about their negative reactions to their traumatic experiences than do boys (Klingman & Cohen, 2004).

Education and income also contribute to people's psychological adjustment following traumatic events (Freedy et al., 1992). People with higher education and income levels are found to have lower level of post-disaster psychological distress (Freedy et al., 1992). This may be because they have access to greater social and personal resources to meet the demands created by the disaster (Freedy et al., 1992, p. 445).

Another factor that determines post-disaster adjustment is belief about the cause and experience of the events (Garbarino, 2008; Kaplan, 1999; Power, 2004; Rosenfeld et al., 2005). Research emphasised the importance of the meaning one gives to an experience (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Qouta, Punamaki, & Sarraj, 1995; Thoits, 1995). For example, children can take traumatic events such as disasters and conflicts personally (Rosenfeld et al., 2005). Some children perceive the events as a punishment while to others they are meaningless (Perry, 2004; Rosenfeld et al.,

2005). Some children may make false assumptions about the events (Perry, 2002) and even blame themselves and feel guilty for what happened (Power, 2004; Welch, 2011). For example, children may believe that their mother or father died because they tried to save them from the tsunami. A study on predictors of chronic post-traumatic response among Muslim children in Aceh following the 2004 tsunami (Dawson et al., 2014) highlighted the importance of beliefs and judgments (especially related to their cultural and religious beliefs) the children hold about the disaster as the predictors for their post-disaster reactions, including PTSD, prolonged grief, and depression.

Proximity (physical and emotional) to the events is another factor influencing post-disaster adjustment (Goldstein & Brooks, 2006; Goodman et al., 2002; Perry, 2002; Rosenfeld et al., 2005; Wickrama & Kaspar, 2006). Physical proximity is the physical distance from the events. People who experience traumatic events directly will experience a stronger impact on their psychological health than people who experience them indirectly. Emotional proximity, on the other hand, is the emotional response toward the events such as the feelings resulting from witnessing the injury, or death of a loved person.

Parental support is seen as one of the most important factors that influence how children respond to stressful events (Power, 2004). This is due to parents' important role in the family as adults responsible for the care of children, especially when children are exposed to stressful events (Power, 2004). Power (2004) noted that parental quality is a predictor of children's responses and adjustment to stress. Prinstein et al. (1996) noted that children who have access to support including quality parental support are more likely to cope than those who do not. The parental role will be discussed later in this chapter.

Bronfenbrenner's ecological system theory

Of interest to my research, conducted six years after the tsunami, is that the lives of teachers and students may change over time and are influenced by many factors in addition to the impact of traumatic events. Bronfenbrenner's ecological systems theory provides a useful framework for understanding factors affecting a person's life including their development and adjustment. More broadly, it also helps to understand the complexity and interconnectedness of challenges facing the study

school and its teachers and students at the time of study. From the perspective of Bronfenbrenner's ecological systems theory, the life of a person develops within a complex system of relationships affected by multiple levels of factors, between the person and the surrounding environments with which that person interacts (Bronfenbrenner, 1977). In this sense, people do not live in isolation but in relation to the environments in which they are living (Leu, 2008, p. 18). The environment, in the Bronfenbrenner's ecological system theory, is a series of successive nested structures, which are made up of the microsystem, the mesosystem, the exosystem, the macrosystem, and the chronosystem.

The microsystem is the direct relationship between a person and his or her immediate environments or settings. Settings refer to places with particular physical features (e.g. school, home, workplace) in which the person engages in particular activities in particular roles (e.g. teachers and students in schools, parents and children at home, and employees at workplaces) (Bronfenbrenner, 1977). At this level, the relationships between the person and his or her immediate environment are bi-directional influences: both away and toward the person, and are the strongest with the greatest impact (Paquette & Ryan, 2001). A child's struggles in school for example is not merely about his or her own difficulties but also because of the environment and the others with whom he/she has direct contact, such as the school and home environments, teachers, peers, parents and other family members (Bronfenbrenner, 1977).

The mesosystem is the interrelations within the microsystem settings in which a person lives. Research provides evidence that human development is critically dependent on the presence and interrelation of the third party; whether they play supportive or detrimental roles has an impact on the developmental process of a person (Leu, 2008). For example, the relations between school and home can affect children's behaviour and development both in school and at home. What happens at home can also affect a child's life in school, and vice versa (Bronfenbrenner, 1977). A strong network between home and school is expected to have positive effects on children (Leu, 2008).

The exosystem refers to the larger social structures in which a person does not interact or function directly but which indirectly affect the life of the person. The

development of a child, including their adjustment to life events, is affected not only by what happens in their immediate environments but also by what occurs in their parents' life setting such as workplace and social networks comprising the parents' support system (Bronfenbrenner, 1977). For example, parents who have access to greater social support in their social network and support systems, such as relatives, friends and acquaintances, could have lower levels of stress, anxiety, depression and have more positive attitudes when confronted with difficulties. This, in turn, affects the lives of those around them such as their children (Bronfenbrenner, 1986, p. 730). In schools, teacher professional development which is originally initiated to improve teachers' teaching quality, for instance, indirectly influences students' social and academic life in school as well as their learning (Leu, 2008).

The macrosystem is the overarching layer in a person's environment comprising the formal and informal social, educational, economic, legal and political systems. The macrosystem exists in explicit forms such as written or recorded laws, regulations and rules or is implicit, held in the mind-set of the society's members as ideology through custom and practice in everyday life (Bronfenbrenner, 1977, p. 515). This system is the "blueprint" for the ecology of human development, reflecting people's shared beliefs and assumptions about how things should be done (Bronfenbrenner, 1977, p. 515; Leu, 2008, p. 22). For example, if it is the culture in the society that the responsibility to raise or educate a child lies solely on the child's parents, the ability of parents to carry out that responsibility is affected and the child's life and education are likely to be disrupted as it is unlikely that they will receive support from the society (Paquette & Ryan, 2001). The disruptive effects are exacerbated when parents themselves, for whatever reasons, are unavailable or unable to provide a quality parenting for the child (Bronfenbrenner, 1986).

The chronosystem encompasses time and events, taking into account changes in life that occur throughout a life-span in which personal and historical life events serve as the direct impetus for an individual's development (Bronfenbrenner, 1986, p. 724). This includes normative life events such as entering school, puberty, entry into the workforce, and marriage, and non-normative events such as deaths of family members, illness in the family, moving or displacement (Bronfenbrenner, 1986). For example, the death of parents could affect a child's behaviour and achievement in school, not only because of the actual loss of parents as the important persons in the

child's life physically and psychologically but also according to the effectiveness of the caregiver/s in carrying out the parental responsibility toward the child, especially when they receive little support from others such as relatives, friends, and people in the community (Bronfenbrenner, 1986).

In sum, Bronfenbrenner (1986, p. 724) stressed the importance of paying attention to the environments in which a person lives: "what the environment is like, what people are living there, what they are doing, or how the activities taking place", as all these affect the person's life directly and/or indirectly. The environments or settings are important not only for their physical nature (objective properties) but also in the way they are perceived by those living within them, as both can affect the relations between and within the environments (Bronfenbrenner, 1977). The environmental structures and the processes taking place within and between each of the successive environment levels are interdependent (Bronfenbrenner, 1977, 1986).

Parental role

Family is central in facing adversity (Wolin et al., 2009). When children are facing adverse situations, it is their family who is expected to provide support, protection, and guidance to help them overcome their difficulties (Wolin et al., 2009). The most important people in the family, parents or others in the position to care for the children, play a critical role in helping them cope with stressful experiences, such as of traumatic and distressing events that are beyond children's ability to manage themselves (Kalantari & Vostanis, 2010; Power, 2004; Wolin et al., 2009). It is noted in the literature that children are more likely to positively adjust to stressful situations if their parents are caring, warm, responsive, consistent, and with an authoritative parenting style, than of parents who reject, ignore, punish, or are inconsistent (Noble & McGrath, 2012; Power, 2004, p. 272; Wadsworth, 2010, p. 548). An important message for parents is that they need to recognise the kinds of stressful events that their children are able to manage and those they cannot manage and need to be sensitive to their children's developmental level in order to avoid becoming overprotective (Power, 2004).

It is important that parents show positive behaviours especially when their children are in stressful situations. This includes showing empathy and providing explanations and reassurance regarding the events (Power, 2004). Parents must model positive

behaviours of being calm, confident, and employing effective problem solving strategies when facing adversities (Wadsworth, 2010). In addition, strong positive relationships between child and parents or guardians at home promote children's resilience in the face of adversities (Benard, 1991; Black & Lobo, 2008; Howard, Dryden, & Johnson, 1999; Mandel, Mullett, Brown, & Cloitre, 2006; Punamaki, Quota, & El-Sarraj, 2001; Rosenfeld et al., 2005; Walsh, 1996; Wickrama & Kaspar, 2006).

Parents also play critical educative roles in their children's lives (Welch, 2011). They are responsible for teaching their children skills that are important for their development, personal and social life, and wellbeing (Welch, 2011). These skills include problem solving, managing emotions and conflicts, relationships, goal setting, and values of life (Welch, 2011, p. 206). Welch (2011, p. 206) warned that where such learning is dysfunctional, children's development and life skills are likely to be disrupted.

Unfortunately, many parents are also victims and may not be well placed to provide care and support for their children, physically and emotionally. Following mass traumatic events like natural disasters, which almost always result in disruption and hardship, parents may find themselves in extremely difficult situations that affect their ability and availability to function effectively (Wadsworth, 2010; Welch, 2011). Certainly, parents have limitations and not all parents are available or equally able to help their children adjust to stressful events. These limitations are influenced by numerous factors often beyond their control (Power, 2004).

Research provides evidence that the socioeconomic conditions of the family and the safety and stability of the neighbourhood determine a parent's role in their children's adjustment (Power, 2004). Power (2004) argued that parents with higher levels of education and who are financially secure, living in a safe and stable neighbourhood, are expected to have greater control when their children are exposed to stress and be better able to help them cope than parents with a lack of such resources. More specifically, higher family socioeconomic status is associated with better outcomes in children's psychopathology following their experience of adversities (Kalantari & Vostanis, 2010).

In addition, the parental role is also influenced by the parents' own emotional and psychological state following their exposure to stressful events. For example, due to their own anxiety, bereavement, and difficulties, parents may not be well placed to maintain their parental role in helping their children understand the stressful situation (Kalantari & Vostanis, 2010). Studies of children under stress provide evidence that symptoms of children's psychological problems are more intense when parents' own wellbeing is compromised (Wadsworth, 2010). Parents who are occupied with worries for instance have greater difficulties in recognising and responding to their children's emotional needs (Wadsworth, 2010, p. 548). Moreover, Wadsworth (2010) noted that children who experience symptoms of psychological problems are more likely to have parents who are experiencing these symptoms themselves. Parents who are struggling to manage their own stress are not likely to adequately provide care for their children and are often unable or available to help them cope with adversity (Kalantari & Vostanis, 2010).

Loss of resources

Hobfoll's (1989) Conservation of Resources (COR) theory provides a useful framework for understanding stress and the individual's adjustment following experiences with adversity (Arata, Picou, Johnson, & McNally, 2005; Freedy et al., 1992). This is particularly important in this study since the 2004 tsunami in Aceh resulted in extreme loss that involved high numbers of casualties and destruction or damage of facilities, infrastructure, property, and possessions. Research provides evidence that loss of valued resources is positively correlated with psychological distress (Arata et al., 2005; Benight et al., 1998; Freedy et al., 1992; Klingman & Cohen, 2004). Freedy et al. (1992) found that resource loss was the most significant of the predictors including demographic factors such as gender, coping behaviours, and household income in determining psychological distress eight weeks after the 1989 Hurricane Hugo in Charleston, South Carolina.

Resources in the Conservation of Resource theory refer to "anything that people value or that enable them to obtain or protect that which they value" (Arata et al., 2005, p. 24). Hobfoll (1989) categorised them into objects, personal characteristics, conditions, and energies. Object resources are valued for their physical nature or status (e.g. home and mansion). Personal characteristic resources are personal traits,

skills, and orientation towards the world and the self such as a positive sense of self, a sense of optimism, and a sense of meaning and purpose. Condition resources refer to support mechanisms or roles in which people interact subject to certain conditions such as employment, relationship networks and interpersonal relations or community cohesion. Energy resources include money, time, and knowledge, which are important for the acquisition of the other three resources (Arata et al., 2005; Freedy et al., 1992; Hobfoll, 1989; Wells, Hobfoll, & Lavin, 1998). Social support is another resource, but, according to Hobfoll (1989), it is limited to situational needs where social interaction is possible and is only beneficial if it does not add to already existing stress, otherwise it can be harmful. Nevertheless, social support is considered important in the present study since other research provides evidence that it plays a critical role in helping people cope with their experiences of adverse events (Wolmer et al. , 2005; Walsh, 1996).

The COR theory is based on a primary assumption that people strive to obtain, retain, and protect the resources they value (Hobfoll, 1991, p. 187; Wells et al., 1998, p. 1173). Individuals will experience psychological distress when they are confronted with the loss of resources, the actual loss of resources, the threatened loss of resources or a failure of resources gains, which is beyond their capacity to cope with (Hobfoll, 1989, 1991; Wells et al., 1998). Often, the impact is widespread, substantial and long lasting, affecting not only the individuals but the entire community in which they interact (Wadsworth, 2010, p. 547). Loss of resources is critical. Hobfoll (1991) observed:

> resource loss is related to the fact that traumatic stressors (1) often attack people's basic values, (2) often occur unexpectedly, (3) make excessive demands, (4) are outside of the realm for which resources utilization strategies have been developed, and (5) leave a powerful mental image that is easily evoked by cues associated with the event (p. 187)

When facing an adversity, differences in individuals regarding their resource availability and loss, along with their personal characteristics and coping behaviour, determine the outcomes of their adjustment (Freedy et al., 1992). Individuals with greater resource loss are likely to face greater psychological stress than those who

experience less loss (Hobfoll, 1991). In this sense, people are more likely to be stable when confronted with stressful events if they have greater personal resources such as possessions and self-esteem, and social resources including work, roles and relationships compared to those with less those resources (Wells et al., 1998). In other words, personal resources as well as social resources are important for stress resistance (Holahan, Moss, Holahan, & Cornkite, 1999).

In regards to coping with resource losses, individuals may conserve resources by shifting the focus of attention on what they might gain rather than on what they have lost or by re-evaluating the value of resources they lost (Hobfoll, 1989) and reappraising the interpretation and consequences of the events (Benight et al., 1998; Hobfoll, 1989; Wells et al., 1998). The attempt to recover diminished resources enhances coping and reduces psychological distress (Benight et al., 1998; Freedy et al., 1992). Coping is discussed further in the next section, including the role of religion and social support in coping.

Coping

Coping is not explored in depth in this study. It is nevertheless an important aspect in understanding teachers' and students' lives and their challenges after the tsunami. In addition, coping is important for understanding issues related to the long-term consequences, recovery and adaptation in the face of adversity since this study was conducted six years after the traumatic event.

In general, theorists define coping as efforts aimed at meeting the environmental demands in order to prevent negative consequences (Thoits, 1986). For the last twenty years, researchers have almost exclusively considered coping based on the concept proposed by Lazarus and Folkman (1984) who viewed coping as "the constantly changing cognitive and behavioural efforts to manage specific external and/or internal demands that are appraised as taxing or exceeding the resources of the person" (cited in Skinner & Zimmer-Gembeck, 2007, p. 121). Most studies and literature on the coping process have extensively and primarily focused on coping from the individual's perspective and the personal capacity to address the difficulties confronting him/her (Lyons, Mickleson, Sullivan, & Coyne, 1998).

In regards to coping with a mass traumatic event like the tsunami in Aceh, the concept of coping should go beyond focusing only on individuals (Lyons et al., 1998). This is not to disregard the importance of the self which is central to most mainstream models of stress and coping theories including the notions of self-esteem, self-actualisation, self-efficacy, and self-determination (Fischer, Ai, Aydin, Frey, & Haslam, 2010, p. 366). As almost everybody in the tsunami-affected areas was confronted by the same stressors, coping in this case may be viewed as a collective process where people work collectively to address their problems (Lyons et al., 1998).

Individuals, such as teachers, students, and members of the community must hold the belief that working collectively to address the problems is necessary and beneficial, must communicate with each other about the problems in terms of their impact on their relationships, and must collaboratively construct strategies to manage the issues (Lyons et al., 1998). In other words, stressful situations should be perceived as 'our problems' (social appraisal), not 'my' or 'your' problems (individualistic appraisal) and people should act collaboratively to cope with the same problems confronting them (Lyons et al., 1998, p. 583). This collaboration is likely to result in more effective ways of coping with the problems (Lyons et al., 1998, p. 588). Collective coping may be in the forms of communal interactions at schools among school personnel and parents, such as in meetings and with rituals such as communal prayer in the school's prayer hall or in the community religious centre (religious coping). This kind of social support for coping will be discussed further in the following section.

Coping may differ in relation to types of traumatic events and at different points (Klingman & Cohen, 2004). Individuals may use cognitive efforts in coping by positive thinking that alters the meaning of situational difficulties so they can be perceived as less threatening (Thoits, 1986). Furthermore, positive cognitive appraisal is central when one does not perceive a difficult situation as a threat or harmful but as a challenge (Frydenberg, 2004). Similarly, the Conservation of Resources (COR) theory suggests that one may conserve resources loss, which is the primary determinant of psychological distress following an adverse event, by re-interpreting the loss as a challenge and focusing on what can be done to obtain gains instead of focusing on what has been lost (Hobfoll, 1989). In other words, the

individual reframes the difficult circumstances in a more positive way (Folkman & Moskowitz, 2000) by evaluating whether, to what extent, and how they can manage the situation (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). This is similar to the concepts of 'Husnuz dzan' in Islam, which encourages people to always think positively; no matter how difficult a situation and event may be, there will always be a way out and something good behind it.

In addition, coping may comprise direct efforts aimed at doing something to alter the sources of the stress (problem-focused coping or primary coping) or direct efforts aimed at reducing or managing emotional distress associated with the adverse situations (emotion-focused coping or secondary coping) (Benight et al., 1998; Bridges, 2003; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Lyons et al., 1998; Thoits, 1986). However, as the impacts and the ways individuals react towards them vary, coping strategies employed should be appropriate to situational demands (Bridges, 2003). For example, problem-based coping can lead to positive developmental outcomes when individuals appraise as manageable and have control over the distressing situation while emotion-focused coping is seen as more effective when individuals are in stressful events that are appraised as uncontrollable (Bridges, 2003; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). In sum, coping involves both appraisal, determination of the stressors and action, and instrumental and cognitive activities to overcome, manage, and/or eliminate the stressors (Lyons et al., 1998, p. 581).

Religion as a means for coping

Research provides evidence that religion plays an important role in coping with adversity (Emmons & Paloutzian, 2003; Moffatt, 2010; Pargament, Ano, & Wachholtz, 2005; Park, 2005). Moffat (2010, p. 142) asserted that "for most victims of trauma...religion was indispensable". It is of interest in the present study to understand how people in Aceh who are known for their religious identity make use of religion in dealing with the challenges confronting them in life (Pargament, Koenig, & Perez, 2000). It is to some extent expected that the participants in this study will make some reference to the use of religious coping as their coping strategy.

In the literature, it is noted that "religion has always been a source of profound emotional experience" (Emmons & Paloutzian, 2003, p. 384). Religion becomes an important aspect of the process of understanding and dealing with life crises and difficulties (Emmons, 2005; Pargament et al., 2005; Park, 2005). Researchers have identified a variety of functions of religion, such as for meaning making, in the search for control and comfort, as a means of intimacy with others including with God, and for making major life transformations (Pargament et al., 2000).

In times of crisis, religious people may cope with trauma and tragedy through prayer and faith in God (Pargament et al., 2005). Cited in Emmons and Paloutzian (2003, p. 385), Silberman (2003) suggests three ways in which religion as a meaning system affects emotions. First, religion prescribes appropriate emotions and their level of intensity. Second, beliefs about the nature and attributes of God may affect emotional wellbeing, and third, religion offers the opportunity to experience a uniquely powerful emotional experience of closeness to the sacred.

Although not always, religion has commonly played an important role in facilitating a more positive reappraisal of a crisis or stressful situation (Pargament, 1997; Park, 2005). This orientation is consistent with the perspective that a crisis such as the tsunami in Aceh, that has caused much pain for many people in the province, may be viewed as a valuable lesson from God and an opportunity for personal and spiritual growth (Pargament, 1997; Pargament et al., 2005; Park, 2005).

Muslims believe in good fate and bad fate, that is, everything that happens in life, either positive or negative, is from God and God is looking after them. In this way, religious people can redefine the stressors as God's benevolent plan (Pargament, 1997). This enables Muslims, including in Aceh, to accept whatever happens to them and reject the feelings of anger, blame or revenge in facing life difficulties such as after the tsunami (Wolin et al., 2009). Such belief in fatalism (destiny) does not mean passivity; on the contrary, Muslims are strongly encouraged to make every effort to address the adversity confronting them (Wolin et al., 2009).

In facing the adversity, Muslims turn to the Prophet Muhammad as a role model. Despite all the hardships of a life of poverty and the loss of parents as a child, the prophet with his patience was able to overcome adversity and become one of the greatest leaders in history (Wolin et al., 2009). Patience, which involves acceptance,

tolerance, and avoidance of anger, is an important aspect of coping for Muslims (Wolin et al., 2009). Through patience people are better able to regulate their emotional reactions, which is a critical element of coping (Wolin et al., 2009). Park (2005) argues that through suffering, people develop character, such as being closer to God, valuing their daily life more, feeling more compassionate, being closer to their loved ones, seeing their own identities more clearly, and developing better skills in handling stressful situations. This in the end will increase their coping skills, social support and relationships, and deepen or renew their perspectives and philosophies of life (p. 309).

Social support as coping assistance

Social support in this study refers to social interactions that provide distressed people with assistance through social network relationships in which they perceive themselves as being loved and cared for (Norris, Stevens, Pfefferbaum, Wyehe, & Pfefferbaum, 2007). This can be one of the most important factors in coping in a time of crisis and adversity (Walsh, 1996; Wolmer et al., 2005). This concept is in line with the central teaching in Islam which is to promote "cooperativeness, selflessness, contributions, and participation in the community" (Fischer et al., 2010, p. 369). However, in the wake of mass traumatic events like natural disasters, providing or accessing social support can be challenging (La Greca et al., 1996) as the majority of people in the community (parents, relatives, and friends) are also affected by the tragedy.

Traumatic events create a sense of profound powerlessness in the entire community as almost everybody is affected. Thus, "[c]oping with adversity is not a solitary journey, but is interwoven with the lives, coping and adaptation of others" (Welch, 2011, p. 203). In this sense, responses to the mass traumatic event will not succeed unless members of the community recognise the 'community capacity' where everyone views the welfare of the community as a shared responsibility and are confident about solving the community problems (Wadsworth, 2010, p. 551). It is important that individual members of a community can recover together by identifying their own vulnerabilities, enhancing their own capacities to solve problems, and providing assistance through social network relationships that involve peer group, family, and schools (Thoits, 1986).

For long term recovery, it is important to address the functioning not only of individuals but of families and communities (Wadsworth, 2010). This function includes instrumental, socio-emotional, and informational aid (Thoits, 1986), also known as tangible support, emotional support, and informational support (Folkman & Lazarus, 1985; 1984). Instrumental aid or tangible support refers to the provision of direct assistance in terms of actions or material goods. Socio-emotional aid or emotional support is associated with demonstrations of the feelings of love, care, and sympathy, and belonging. Informational aid or support refers to information or advice that might help the distressed person more easily manage his/her attempts to cope.

Although it may be difficult, strong social support is critical, particularly in times of crisis (Wolin et al., 2009). Significant people such as teachers, parents or family members or even others experiencing similar conditions can directly or indirectly help the distressed person (Thoits, 1986). Thoits (1986) asserted that significant people may suggest techniques of stress management: to change the situation, to change the meaning of the situation, or/and to change the emotional reaction to the situations. For example, at schools teachers who are responsible for looking after students (Black & Lobo, 2008) can provide support, protection, and guidance to help their students overcome their difficulties (Wolin et al., 2009). La Greca et al. (1996) noted that individuals who receive higher levels of social support cope more effectively with life stressors. However, Hobfoll (1989) warned that individuals who are required to provide support when they need support themselves are likely to develop psychological distress. This reminds us of the importance of recognising the challenges of people affected by the tsunami such as teachers in the affected schools who are expected to help children cope with difficulties confronting them while they are themselves in need of support.

Knowledge on post-disaster-reactions

In the aftermath of disasters, most survivors may demonstrate psychological reactions to the traumatic events (Freedy et al., 1992; Sahin et al., 2011). People's psychological problems such as fear and anxiety may be due to a lack of information or false assumptions about their reactions to the event (Sahin et al., 2011). To help people understand what happened, 'psychoeducation' is, therefore, paramount (Sahin

et al., 2011). People need to be provided with "[b]asic information about what has happened, what to do and not to do and where help can be obtained ... to create awareness and educate the public about simple practice" (Somasundaram, 2014, p. 292) and "about normal psychological reactions, with an emphasis on the expectation of natural recovery" (Somasundaram, 2014, p. 157). This can be done in many ways such as through media (television and radio), lectures and discusion (small target group), pamphlets (dos and don'ts), and plays (Somasundaram, 2014, p. 156).

Psychoeducation or education about common psychological reactions to a disaster helps people to feel less fearful and to handle things more easily (Sahin et al., 2011). Sahin et al. (2011, p. 41) argued that survivors who have such education can gain a sense of control and view their post-trauma reactions as something to be expected. They also recognise the difficulties, and know where and how to get help, so they use more social support and other adaptive ways of coping, which increases their ability to help others to cope (Sahin et al., 2011). Conversely, not having the correct information regarding their traumatic experiences can lead to further psychological problems. For example, caregivers, such as parents and teachers who do not understand the normality of young people's emotional reactions following a traumatic event, such as 'continuing grief over lost loved-ones', will experience anxiety, depression or anger while the children themselves might feel guilty and ashamed over their reactions towards the events (Sahin et al., 2011, p. 48).

Since symptoms of psychological problems including behavioural problems among children can emerge in the school setting, school can be an ideal place for post-disaster interventions, minimising possible negative impacts on their development (Thienkrua et al., 2006; Wolmer et al., 2005). In addition, the availability of constant supervision during lessons at school each day allows immediate feedback (Wolmer et al., 2005). For example in Sri Lanka, as part of long-term efforts to address the psychosocial needs of children and adolescents after the 2004 tsunami, a school-based intervention that was culturally and contextually appropriate and that targeted young people's primary support networks was developed. Teachers were recruited as program implementers, utilising school-based peer supports and providing related parent education sessions. This intervention was found to be beneficial for both long-term tsunami specific and non-tsunami related stressors (Nastasi et al., 2011, p. 582).

Further, school can help students cope and function in the face of adversity by establishing programs and structures that focus on protective environmental components, which ensure that students feel connected to school. Such programs can give students a feeling of being accepted, supported, and valued as full participants and contributors in the school, with positive relationships with teachers. The core component of the curriculum of such programs is the student's personal skills component such as problem solving and planning skills, positive self perception and self-efficacy, and stress management (McGrath, 2000, p. 2). McGrath (2000) argued that "Schools must build the personal and environmental attributes that serve as the key to healthy development" (p. 2). More specifically, as noted by Noble and McGrath (2007), schools should teach students 'social-emotional skills' to foster students' sense of mastery and competence which enhance students' wellbeing, including attitudes toward school, and performance and behaviour at school. These skills include social skills which comprise skills for building positive relationships, resilience skills to cope, adapt and function when confronting difficulties, 'skills that lead to mastery and a sense of success (i.e. study skills)', and 'goal-achievement' skills such as planning and setting a timeline (Noble & McGrath, 2007).

Research has found positive results of social support for other child survivors in coping with disaster experiences. School interventions may provide opportunities for peer interactions in which children talk to other children especially children who had similar experiences (Wolmer et al., 2005, p. 1162). Interpersonal relationships among survivors such as between peers and teachers which promote social support, enhance a sense of communality, increase a feeling of solidarity and faith in others, may be beneficial for recovery (Klingman & Cohen, 2004, p. 90). In recovery work, it is important that people receive support to reconstruct their identity, feel relatedness to adapt to their changed conditions, and gain a sense of normality (Walsh, 2007, p. 211). Although survivors respond differently in their ways of normalising their reactions to abnormal events (Greene & Greene, 2009), research also provides evidence that psychoeducation programs at school through activities such as play therapy interventions are also beneficial especially for young people as the programs help them give meaning to the event, regain a sense of control, and normalise their reactions (Sahin et al., 2011). Sahin et al. (2011) noted that psychoeducation provides information about what is normal in abnormal situations, opportunities to

show and share the normality of such reactions, and establish an environment in which the reactions of the children are normalised so that their learning and development are enhanced.

Indeed, in their roles as parents, teachers, and caregivers, adults are vested with the responsibility to help others around them, particularly young people to understand and cope with their traumatic experiences (Sahin et al., 2011, p. 47). Teachers, in particular, due to the significant amount of time they spend with young people at school and their perceived role in the community, can have a greater influence on the children's lives, than any other persons (Russo & Boman, 2007). Although only a minority of studies has explored the role of teachers as 'protective buffers' in the lives of children who face great adversity, their role in helping children cope is evident (Benard, 1991).

In the life of children affected by traumatic events, the roles of teachers are vital (Cole et al., 2005) because children and parents view them as trustworthy persons who provide a sense of physical and emotional security (Wolmer et al., 2005). They can promote resilience among children by providing protective factors such as supportive educational settings, positive and high expectations, and positive school environments (Benard, 1991; Bowen, Richman, Brewster, & Bowen, 1998) that strengthen the students' resilience as they learn and develop (Folkman & Moskowitz, 2000). Therefore, it is necessary that teachers understand children's emotional reactions and respond to them in appropriate ways (Fasler, n.d.; Mandel et al., 2006) in order to facilitate children's successful coping, adaptation and functioning, and their normal development (Wolmer et al., 2005). Appropriate sensitivity training for teachers and other school-based staff in schools affected by traumatic events including natural disasters is paramount to better understand children's mental health-related problems and therefore provide better support for affected children (Thienkrua et al., 2006).

Through their participation in psychoeducation programs, teachers who are trained and supervised by professionals in disaster relief, can be efficient mediators to help children understand and cope with disasters (Wolmer et al., 2005, p. 1162). As mediators, their role is enhanced from merely teachers to educators through facilitating the development and implementation of critical daily behaviours in the

areas of caring and individualised consideration, transmission of positive expectations, cognitive stimulation and exposure of children to appropriate challenges (Wolmer et al., 2005). These programs, however, are not meant to turn teachers into therapists or mental health professionals, but are meant to enable them to create a stable, supportive environment in which children can be full participants in their school communities (Cole et al., 2005). Thus, as part of their role, teachers serve as professionals who help the children cope and develop resilience (Cole et al., 2005). This, however, could be challenging since teachers may also experience and be overwhelmed by the same stressors, so it is paramount that teachers are provided with support (Wolmer et al., 2005). Indeed, in addition to investigating teachers' challenges, it is part of the concerns of this study to discover the needs of teachers in the study school including their views about the provision of education to equip them with the knowledge and skills necessary to work at a tsunami-affected school and with its students.

Aspects of teaching and learning

Earlier in the chapter, attention was given to teacher knowledge and understanding of their students' lives including their problems. In this section, teachers' pedagogical knowledge and skills are highlighted as well as the importance of further developing their knowledge and skills by providing opportunities for ongoing professional development (PD). PD is likely to offer an effective solution for improving the quality of teaching and learning in schools such as in Aceh province. However, there were very few opportunities for teachers in the area to access professional development programs such as training or workshops that equip them for better teaching (Syah, 2010). In this section, issues around teacher pedagogical knowledge and skills and teacher professional development in general are outlined.

Teacher pedagogical knowledge and skills

Teaching has long been seen as increasingly complex work that requires high standards of professional practice (Sachs, 2003). Barry and King (1997, p. 306) asserted that "teaching involves specialized knowledge, competent teaching strategies and behaviours, and appropriate professional attitudes". More specifically, according to Shulman (2006), teaching begins with teachers' understanding of what

needs to be learned and how it is going to be taught and proceeds through a series of activities in which learners are provided with opportunities and specific instructions for the activities. Shulman (2006) continued, "effective teaching deals with creating classrooms as places with a minimum of disruption and distraction where learners can attend to instructional tasks, orient themselves toward learning and receive a fair and adequate opportunity to learn" (p. 65).

Effective teaching involves teachers' ability to create classroom environments that encourage an effective learning atmosphere (Stoll, 1992). Learning becomes more enjoyable when students perceive their classroom and its environment as encouraging their participation in the process of that learning (Ames & Archer, 1988). Research shows a strong positive correlation between the perceived learning environment and students' social, emotional, and academic achievement (Frenzel, Pekrun, & Gnetz, 2007). Frenzel, Pekrun and Gnetz (2007, p. 478) noted that the classroom learning environment is not only about the physical objects or space, such as school buildings or classrooms and materials needed for learning, but includes the teaching and learning processes such as instructional and interactional processes between and among students and teachers. Similarly, Glaser-Zikuda, Fuβ, Laukenmann, Metz, and Randle (2005) believed that teachers' instructional quality, students' achievement and enjoyment, and social interaction are positively related to their wellbeing in school. In light of this, Frenzel and colleagues (2007) argued that teachers' clear and structured instruction and their behaviours reduce learners' anxiety, anger, and boredom and thus enhance enjoyment, which in turn enhances their achievement. Glaser-Zikuda et al. (2005) suggested that emotions including anxiety, anger, hopelessness, boredom, interest or enjoyment in learning are correlated to learning and achievement as they are related to learners' attention, self-regulation and motivation that attract or distract them from their learning. In this sense, positive emotions mediated by attention, self-regulation, and motivation, promote quality learning and achievement (Glaser-Zikuda et al., 2005, p. 482). In regards to teachers' instruction, research shows that teacher-centred instruction promotes academic-related achievement but can impede learners' emotional development including motivation while student-centred instruction gives opportunities for students' autonomous learning that is beneficial for a positive class climate (Glaser-Zikuda et al., 2005, p. 483).

Research suggests that how students learn very much depends on their teachers (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009). Meanwhile, what teachers do in classrooms depends upon their knowledge of pedagogy, acquired primarily through their practical experience in the classroom (Bassey, 1999). Jennings and Greenberg (2009) claim:

> competent teachers set the tone of the classroom by developing supportive and encouraging relationships with their students, designing lessons that build on student strengths and abilities, establishing and implementing behavioral guidelines in ways that promote intrinsic motivation, coaching students through conflict situations, encouraging cooperation among students, and acting as a role model for respectful and appropriate communication and exhibitions of prosocial behavior (p. 492).

Jennings and Greenberg (2009, p. 492) continued to say that teachers who have skills and resources to effectively manage their classrooms' social and emotional challenges promote an optimal classroom climate. This is indicated by low levels of conflict and disruptive behaviour, smooth transitions between classroom activities, appropriate expressions of emotions, respectful communication and problem solving, strong interest and focus on tasks, and supportiveness and responsiveness to individual differences and students' needs. These in turn result in higher levels of students' on-task behaviour and performance (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009, p. 492).

Teachers who know their students' emotions and their emotion-related behaviours are more likely to respond to their students effectively (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009). Rather than using punishment or coercion to resolve students' misbehaviour for instance, effective teachers would show greater empathy and concern and help the students with their problems especially if the teachers understand the causes of the misbehaviour or difficulties (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009). Jennings and Greenberg (2009) argued that this approach results in students' better commitment to school, academic engagement and achievement. Conversely, teachers who lack such skills and resources tend to be 'emotionally exhausted', putting them at risk of becoming cynical, callous, and apathetic. They believe there is not much they can do or achieve and eventually withdraw from their role including teaching tasks, or they continue to work but are unhappy (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009, p. 492).

In order to be able to construct and manage their classrooms activities efficiently, teachers need to continually learn, and refine their skills and knowledge, (Darling-Hammond, 2006). This is because teachers are responsible for enhancing learning of students and therefore they themselves need to be engaged in learning in order to provide better support for their students' learning and to better understand the process of learning itself (Bissaker & Heath, 2005). Surprisingly, despite high expectations put on the teachers' role in creating a positive classroom environment and improving students' achievement, there has been a lack of training, particularly of specific programs about students' social and emotional development and how to manage social and emotional issues in classrooms (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009). To achieve this, teachers need support and guidance (Borko, 2004). One way to achieve this is through teachers' access to professional development that links with their perceived and current needs (Bissaker & Heath, 2005). Indeed, reflecting on my personal experiences as a teacher in Aceh and the importance of teacher professional development for better teaching and learning, it is likely that teacher professional development remains one of the important issues to be addressed in post-tsunami Aceh. Although professional development was not the focus of this study, it was relevant to explore this issue with the participant teachers, in order to fully understand their challenges and needs in performing their role at the school. Literature around teacher professional development is reviewed in the next section.

Teacher professional development

Professional development is defined as a process of continuing learning throughout a career, deepening knowledge, skills, and judgment, staying abreast of important developments in the field, and experimenting with innovations that promise improvement in practice (Grundy & Robinson, 2004, p. 149). Specifically, Day (1999) defined teacher professional development as:

> the process by which, alone and with others, teachers review, renew and extend their commitment as change agents to the moral purposes of teaching; and by which they acquire and develop critically the knowledge, skills and emotional intelligence essential to good professional thinking, planning and

practice with children, young people and colleagues through each

phase of their teaching lives (p. 4).

Teachers' professional development involves life-long learning through a sum total of formal and informal learning experiences (Fullan & Stiegelbauer, 1991), generally aimed at enhancing teachers' knowledge, skills, and practices, and especially at deepening teachers' content and pedagogical knowledge (Guskey, 2003; Vrasidas & Glass, 2004). Meanwhile, providing teachers, whether novice or veteran, with access to professional learning opportunities to improve their teaching practice with greater knowledge and skills can directly and indirectly have impact on students' learning including students' attitudes to learning and achievement, which are essential to successful school improvement (Grundy & Robinson, 2004; Muijs, Day, Harris, & Lindsay, 2004; Sandholtz, 2000). Further, becoming true learners again during the professional learning program will also prime teachers' empathy for their students and will affect their planning and support for the students (Bissaker & Heath, 2005). Successful professional development is manifest in the teaching of teachers who have a better understanding of their own teaching and students' learning (Guskey, 2003; Vrasidas & Glass, 2004).

An important message is that teacher professional development is not simply about transferring knowledge and skills to teachers but should enable teachers to develop the reflective skills needed to obtain new insights into their pedagogical approaches and teaching practices; they should also be enabled to develop a clear view of the connection between what they learn during their participation in the program and the reality in practice (Vrasidas & Glass, 2004). The provision of professional development should match teachers' developmental needs (Muijs et al., 2004). Interestingly, while professional development programs for teachers should be mainly based on teachers' needs, Gusky (2003) comments that teachers are rarely able to articulate their own needs. Therefore, "A well-planned, carefully organized collaboration between district-level personnel who have a broader perspective on problems and site-based educators who are keenly aware of critical contextual characteristics seems essential to optimize the effectiveness of professional development" (Guskey, 2003, p. 13).

For professional development programs to be effective, they must be continuous, coherent and consider the complexity of teachers' practices (Vrasidas & Glass, 2004). More specifically, Birman, Desimone, Porter, and Garet (2000) argued that longer hours of professional development will give more opportunities for teachers to engage in more active learning and connect with their daily practice more coherently than shorter ones. "[S]uch time must be well organized, carefully structured, and purposefully directed" (Guskey, 2003, p. 12). In other words, effective professional development programs consider what teachers learn in the programs, and the circumstances in which it will be applied. They deepen teachers' knowledge of the methods and contents they are teaching, and involve teachers in active and collective participation, with the programs sustained over a period of time (William, 2006, p. 287).

However, many teacher professional development programs in reality are not sustained but are merely single short face-to-face sessions which have little impact on teacher practice and on student learning (Henderson, 2007). Borko (2004) argued that many current professional development programs, whether training, seminars or other forms are 'intellectually superficial' and do not consider how teachers can best learn from the activities. Moreover, many are not what teachers need or want; rather, very often, they are just imposed on teachers, with the decision about which programs and how they will be delivered made bureaucratically by the local office of Department of Education (Vrasidas & Glass, 2004). Fullan and Hargreaves argued:

> Many staff development initiatives take the form of something
> that is done to teachers rather than with them, still less by them...
> ignore different needs among teachers related to years of
> experience, gender and stage of career and life. (1996, p. 17)

Moreover, teacher professional development should be more than simply a traditional 'sit, listen and discuss' seminar (Bissaker & Heath, 2005, p. 180). Vrasidas and Glass (2004) suggested that professional development should give teachers opportunities to share expertise, learn from each other, and collaborate in particular activities. This is a powerful process of acquiring knowledge and developing practice since "teachers learn best by studying, doing and reflecting, by collaborating with other teachers, by looking closely at students and their work, and

by sharing what they see" (Bissaker & Heath, 2005, p. 180). Similarly, Birman et al. (2000) noted that through their collective participation in professional development programs with teachers from similar backgrounds (i.e. teaching the same subject), teachers will have the opportunity to engage in meaningful discussions, planning and practice around issues they have faced or are facing during their professional development program activities or in their day-to-day work. In other words, professional development programs promote 'collegiality' and 'collaborative exchange' as they allow teachers to work together, exchange ideas, expertise and strategies, and reflect on their practices (Guskey, 2003, p. 12). However, while it is believed that collaboration is important for the improvement of teachers' teaching, there have been limited opportunities in many schools for teachers to collaborate with their colleagues (Sandholtz, 2000).

Summary of the chapter

The review of literature in this chapter has involved an in-depth exploration of the literature across several disparate fields of research that cover issues related to natural disasters and aspects of teaching and learning. Although the review of the literature in this chapter is introductory consisting of broad themes of the topic under study, it has provided insights into how disasters have multi-level effects that impact on entire school communities in complex ways to affect the work and lives of teachers and students within disaster-affected schools.

In the next chapter, I will present the methodology and method of this study. This includes the procedure of how the study was conducted and data collection process, sources and analysis of data, and ethical issue associated with the study.

CHAPTER THREE
METHODOLOGY AND METHODS

Introduction

This study is built on the assumption that people have different perceptions, interpretations, and languages about the nature of reality, and that rationality may not be the same for every individual. The social world of human action is understood through shared meanings with others in their social intercourse (Bassey, 1999). In terms of the methodology, this study is qualitative. As a qualitative study, the focus is on the 'social world' (Liamputtong, 2009) which, in this case, are the challenges of the study school and its teachers and students six years after the tsunami in Aceh.

The method of inquiry is a case study using semi-structured interviews, observations, and students' photos and drawings. Details of the research methodology and methods along with details of how the study was conducted, the research site and participants, sources of data, data analysis procedures, criteria for attaining research quality and ethical considerations are presented in this chapter. Figure 3.1 illustrates the research process of this study.

Preparing the study

Producing the research proposal including initial review of relevant literature, obtaining ethics approval, and selecting the research site.

Commencing the fieldwork

Introducing the study to potential participants, meeting and discussion with participants and/or key persons regarding the procedure for data collection, participant recruitment and consenting to participate in the study.

Collecting data

Various methods and groups of participants involved in data collection.

Observations

Used as supported data for interviews. General observations in the school including in the schoolyard and teachers/staff rooms were recorded throughout the data collection in the site. Observations in classrooms took place in the second month of data collection. Observational data include informal conversations with teachers and students.

Interviews

Served as the main method of data collection in this study.

Photos and drawings

Obtained primarily to get insights into students' lives at school as well as issues students might have or were facing at school as part of preparations for conducting interviews with students.

Were collected in the fourth month of data collection only from students.

Interviews with teachers

First interviews took place in the first and second month of data collection while the second interviews were conducted within the fourth and fifth month of data collection

One interview with three additional teachers for the purpose of data saturation was held in the last month of data collection in the site.

Interviews with students

Interviews with two students took place at the beginning of the second month of data collection.

Repeat interviews with the two students as well as with the rest of consented students were conducted within the fifth month of data collection in the site.

Two additional students for data saturation purpose were interviewed in the last month of data collection period.

Interviews with community members

Interviews with this group took place within the last month of data collection time.

No additional participants were included for data saturation purposes due to the different roles of people in the community

Analysis and thesis writing

Collected data were analysed using NVivo software. Data analysis and writing were interwoven, moving back and forward as needed throughout the analysis and writing phase. In addition, further review of relevant literature helped the analysis and the writing process. Literature review was ongoing throughout the research process.

Figure 3.1. The research process of this study

Methodological approach

This study is a cross-sectional study with a qualitative approach. This approach enables the researcher to observe directly the natural phenomenon that occurs in the research site (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 40). Furthermore, according to Creswell (2003), qualitative study is exploratory. In light of this, this study deals with 'the subjective experience of human beings' which is based on words or stories of people involved (Liamputtong, 2009, p. x) as stories both describe and shape people's lives (Smith, 2005). In other words, the focus is on stories told by individuals, with the aim of understanding their lived experiences (Ary, Jacobs, & Sorensen, 2010).

Given the nature of the study and the questions being asked, case study was chosen as the research design. As the researcher I am interested in the process, discovery and interpretation of the phenomenon, aiming at gaining an in-depth understanding of the situation and the meaning for those involved by uncovering the interaction of significant factors characteristic of the phenomenon (Merriam, 1998). This can be identified as being 'particularistic' (focus on one tsunami affected school in Aceh at a particular time which is six years after the tragedy, in order to investigate the challenges and needs for teachers and students at the school), 'descriptive' (the end product is a rich description and in-depth understanding of the phenomenon investigated), and 'heuristic' (the findings will illuminate readers' understanding and extend their experience of the phenomenon from the discovery of new meanings or to confirm of what is known) (Merriam, 1998).

Liamputtong (2009, p. 190), based on the work of several prominent case study researchers, defined case study research as a study of a particular phenomenon within a system that is bounded by time, place, event or activity. "A case can be simple or complex...it is one among others. In any given study, we will concentrate on the one" (Stake, 2000, p. 436). The case itself can be particular individuals, processes, organisations, locations, events, and periods (Liamputtong, 2009, p. 190). For this study, the case is one school community that has been affected by the tsunami, taken as the example to explore and interrogate the complexity of the lives of the teachers and students in the tsunami affected schools in Aceh particularly six years after the event.

In addition, this qualitative case study is interpretive. Bassey (1999, p. 44) argued that:

> The exploration of a particular case is essentially interpretive, in trying to elicit what different actors seem to be doing and think is happening, in trying to analyse and interpret the data collected (which may seem a lot, but are inevitably only a fraction of what could be collected) and in trying to make a coherent report which is long enough to be meaningful and short enough to be readable.

Within the interpretive paradigm, knowledge is seen as subjective reality, as culturally derived and historically situated interpretations of the social world (Crotty, 2003, p. 67). Therefore, the findings are subjective descriptions and interpretations of participants' everyday social world (Titchen & Hobson, 2007). However, participants' attitudes towards and experiences of their everyday social lives are still the heart of the 'thick description' of the phenomenon under study (G. A. Bowen, 2008, p. 194).

Preparation for conducting the study

Several tasks had to be undertaken before the actual data collection could take place. One of the major tasks was to produce the research proposal for the study. This involved the specification and refinement of the focus of the study, the review of relevant literature, and the selection of appropriate methods. In this phase, instruments for data collection such as lists of interview questions were also produced. The completed proposal was then presented to the research higher degrees panel of the School of Education, Flinders University for approval. Since this study involved human subjects, the next step was to apply for ethics approval, which was obtained from the Social and Behavioural Research Ethics Committee (SBREC) of the Flinders University (the approval letter appears in Appendix 1).

The research site

From my general knowledge of schools in Aceh and other sources of information, such as recommendations from contacts and information available from the Internet, I identified several schools as potential research sites, from which I chose one school.

With the help of a teacher in Aceh, I gained approval from the local office of the Department of Education and permission from the chosen school to conduct my fieldwork. The approval letters appear in Appendix 2.

The selected school is a public junior high school that was affected by the tsunami in Banda Aceh. Although there are a large number of schools in Aceh affected by the tsunami, I chose this particular school as the research site based on the following considerations:

1. Schools in Indonesia, in general, are divided into three levels: elementary, junior and senior high schools. For this study, a junior high school was chosen. Since the tsunami in Aceh took place six years prior to this study, selecting an elementary school level was not appropriate because the students would have been too young when they experienced the tsunami to recall details of the event. I considered this would impede the data collection process as interviews with young people were to be used as one of the main sources of information. The senior high school level was excluded because in the Aceh society, senior high school students are no longer seen as children but as 'young adults'. Therefore, the decision to take a school at junior level was considered as the most appropriate.

2. The school had the typical profile of tsunami-affected schools in Aceh. For example, it was located close to the beach, a large number of the school buildings were destroyed and many people (students, teachers and staff, and people in the community) were killed by the tsunami. Therefore, I believed it would not be atypical of tsunami-affected schools in Aceh.

3. The school was perceived as 'not doing very well' after the tsunami. This perception was based on a very low student enrolment after the tsunami, even compared to some other tsunami affected schools in neighbouring areas. A low enrolment in the school can be an initial indicator of the challenges faced by the school after the tsunami. This became the main consideration of the selection of the school as the research site, which is in line with the purpose this study.

4. The school was located in an area that was conveniently accessible to me (Liamputtong, 2009), being not too far away from my temporary residential place during data collection. This was an important consideration due to the

significant amount of time I would need to spend to visit the site during the six months of my fieldwork.

The participants

The participants for this study were purposively selected (Liamputtong, 2009) from three groups. They were comprised of teachers at the school who, to some degree, had been affected by the tsunami or had experienced teaching at the tsunami affected school; students who had been affected by the tsunami; and, community members who were perceived as having knowledge about the phenomenon investigated and to some degree were connected to the study school. Initially, eight teachers, eight students, and eight community members were selected to participate. Later, for the purpose of data saturation, three more teachers including the principal, and two more students were added as research participants.

Different methods were used in the recruitment of participants for this study. The recruitment criteria were based on the participants' experience of the tsunami and/or knowledge about schools affected by the tsunami including the study school. Among the student participants, the degree of experience/impact of the tsunami was among the considerations in the selection process. With teacher participants, gender, educational background, the role in the school, and the degree of the experience/impact of the tsunami were considered. The criteria for selecting the community member participants were their status/role in the community and towards the school such as students' parents, community leader, and school committee. There were no cultural background considerations in the recruitment as the majority of the school personnel and community members were Acehnese. Among the participants in this study, only one student was identified as of non-Acehnese background. Details of the selection process of each participant group are presented in the following section.

The recruitment of teacher and student participants

In the recruitment of teachers and students, I was helped by a senior teacher in the study school. On my first day in the school, prior to recruiting the participants, I was introduced by the school principal to the senior teacher who also served as the vice-principal dealing with student affairs. As a senior teacher and the one who dealt with

students, she provided me with information about potential participants for my study from the two groups. The following week this senior teacher invited me to attend the 'Upacara Bendera' (a kind of school assembly), where she introduced me to the whole school community, explaining who I was and the reason for my presence at the school. This teacher not only helped me to identify potential teacher and student participants, she also helped me explain my purpose, and distributed to all potential participants the envelopes containing the letter of introduction, the invitation to participate in the research, and the consent forms. Later, she collected all the completed consent forms of the students and teachers who decided to participate in the study.

At the beginning, only three male teachers and five female teachers indicated their willingness to participate in the study. Seven of these had been directly affected by the tsunami either as survivors or because they lost one or more of their family members or their homes. After I had spent some time at the research site and had built a good relationship with the school including the teachers/staff, they indicated that they had gained a better understanding of the study's merit, and all teachers and staff indicated verbally that they were happy to voluntarily participate in the research if I needed them. However, I decided not to add more participants at first, considering the restrictions of time and resources for this study (Patton, 1990). Moreover, as there is no fixed rule about the size of the sample in a qualitative inquiry (Patton, 1990, p. 184) and there is considerable variation among the participants (Lindlof & Taylor, 2002; Punch, 2005), I was happy with the eight participants.

In the literature, it is noted that a variety of participants is important if a study is to gain an in-depth, rich description of the case studied (Patton, 1990) since such participants are likely to provide the researcher with a wide range of views and perspectives (Kuzel, 1992). Later, for the purpose of data saturation as previously mentioned, I purposively included three more teachers considering their additional roles in the school: a teacher who was also the school counsellor, a teacher who also served as the vice-principal dealing with the curriculum, and the school principal who was also teaching in class. Profiles of teacher participants are presented in Chapter Six of this thesis.

In the recruitment of the student participants, I observed that the senior teacher discussed with other teachers the students with the potential to participate in the study. Although many students in the study school had experience of the tsunami, according to the teachers, most of them were not competent to participate in the study. Part of their reasoning was that many students in the school did not have good verbal communication skills and were shy, probably because they had never been exposed to formal communications with other people especially in interviews. The senior teacher then suggested thirteen students whom teachers perceived as confident in interviews and would have the information I needed for my study. Based on the information the teacher provided and other teachers' suggestions, I could see there was a considerable variation in the students' profiles, and that my intention to gain maximum variation in my sample was achievable.

During the first week of my presence at the school the senior teacher distributed to the students the envelopes containing the documents related to the study (i.e. the letter of introduction to the study, the consent form, and the invitation to participate). Of the thirteen students, nine (two females and seven males) returned the consent forms to the teacher two weeks after the envelopes were distributed. When the interview times with the participating students had been mutually agreed, one student had not turned up even by the time I had finished all my fieldwork at the school. According to the teachers, that particular student was often absent from school. Therefore, although I wanted to include all the nine students in this study, only eight were interviewed. Later, in the last month of my fieldwork, for the purpose of the saturation, I invited two more male students to participate in the study and both of them agreed and gained consent of their parents and/or guardian. One female student, who was recommended by some students as affected by the tsunami, rejected my invitation to be interviewed for unknown reasons. In the end, ten students participated in the study: two females and eight males. The profiles of student participants are summarised in Table 5.1 in Chapter Five of the thesis. In addition, during the data collection, I talked to many students and to nearly all the teachers and staff regarding the phenomenon under investigation even though they did not formally participate in the study. Their information added richness to the data collected as part of my field notes.

The recruitment of community member participants

In the recruitment of participants from the community member group, the 'word of mouth' or the snowball sampling method (Liamputtong, 2009) proved to be useful, maximum variation of sampling being the defining factor (Lindlof & Taylor, 2002; Punch, 2005). In this sense, the community participants were not randomly but purposively selected.

I firstly discussed with the teachers and staff in the study school my intention to recruit eight potential participants for the purpose of this study. A teacher who lives in the village and plays a significant role as the religious leader in the community suggested that I contact the community leader to ask if he was willing to participate in the study. The teacher gave me the community leader's phone number and gave me some basic information about him including the preferred name I should use when addressing him in order to smooth my approach. During my meeting with this leader, he introduced me to another potential participant who was the youth leader of the community. Another recommendation from teachers and staff in the study school was to consider including particular people such as the officer from the local office of the Department of Education as well as students' parents. Before interviews were conducted, I approached each of eight potential participants, explaining the research and asking for their consent to participate. They were all happy to participate in the study. The eight community member participants were two parents of students, one officer of the local office of the Department of Education, the community leader and the youth leader where the school is located, a community member who did not have a particular role in the community, a leader of a teacher organisation in Aceh, and the head of the study school committee. Their profiles are summarised in Table 7.1 in Chapter Seven of the thesis.

Because the participants from the community member group were diverse and would provide me with different perspectives, I believed that it was not necessary to add more participants for the purpose of saturation. Therefore, I did not add more participants from the community members group.

Sources of data

"Human beings are complex, and their lives are ever changing; the more methods we use to study them, the better our chances to gain some understandings of how they construct their lives and the stories they tell us about them" (Fontana & Frey, 2000, p. 668). With this understanding, this study used various methods for data collection for better understanding of the case investigated (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000) and to achieve a 'rich description' of the phenomenon under study (Stark & Torrance, 2007). The methods included interviews and observations, supplemented by students' photo taking and drawing activities.

My insider knowledge, understanding, and convictions about the phenomenon being investigated supported the process of data gathering during the fieldwork. In other words, the process of data gathering was a 'collaborative act' between the researcher and the participants in the research sites (Miles & Huberman, 1994). However, participants' attitudes and experiences were still the heart of the 'thick description' of the phenomenon being studied (G. A. Bowen, 2008, p. 149). Methods of collecting data are presented next.

Observations

Distilled from the literature, the researcher employing a case study methodology needs to get to the object of interest as closely as they possibly can, "partly by means of direct observation in natural settings, partly by their access to subjective factors (thoughts, feelings, and desires)" (Merriam, 1998, pp. 32-33). In most qualitative studies, the presence of the researcher 'in the life of the participants' is important (V. J. Smith, 2009). Through observations, the researcher will have an opportunity to directly observe the participants in their real activities in order to gain a better understanding of what the real world of the participants looks like (Delamont, 2004).

Observation in this study served as the foundation for the primary method of data collection, which was interviews (Eder & Fingerson, 2002). Eder and Fingerson (2002) argued that observation before conducting interviews is critical as it helps increase the researcher's understanding of participants' communicative norms, patterns, and social structure which in turn helps the researcher assess how to conduct the interviews with the participants in more natural manner. They also noted

that there are things that might be difficult to put into words or are hidden by the participants that could be captured through observations. I therefore spent about six months at the research site to observe what was actually happening there. This involved both listening and looking (Punch, 2005) where I attempted, whenever possible, to document people, things, and activities as they happened during my time at the school (Creswell, 2003; Lindlof & Taylor, 2002). I watched what teachers and students were doing, thought about and interpreted carefully what I saw, and occasionally participated in and helped with what they were doing (Delamont, 2004).

The observations in this study took many forms. I came to the study school two to three days a week in the first three months of data collection and nearly every day during the last three months. This included during the public holidays when the school organised special events such as a three-week 'pasentren kilat program' (the program to enhance students' understanding and knowledge of Islam) and 'buka puasa bersama' (breaking the fast together) during Ramadan, in which I was directly involved in organising and participating. I went to the village's mosque a couple times to perform communal prayer with the villagers or simply walked around the school neighbourhood to get a sense of what sort of life people there were living.

At the study school, I took every opportunity to observe what the students and teachers were doing in the classrooms, outside the classrooms, and in the teacher and staff rooms. I also talked to students and teachers as much as possible. I was fortunate that some teachers participating in my study allowed me to be in the classroom while they were teaching. That gave me opportunities to directly see what was happening in classrooms. However, other teacher participants were reluctant when I requested permission to observe their class teaching. The main reason they gave was they did not feel comfortable if someone was watching their teaching. I did not attempt persuade them to allow me in their class.

During the observations in the classroom, I sat at the back of the room (Jones & Somekh, 2007) to observe teachers teaching and students learning, and teacher-student and student-student interaction including their behaviours in the classroom during the lesson time. From my informal conversations with teachers and students before the classroom observations, students talked about teachers' attitudes and pedagogical issues while teachers talked about students' behaviour and academic

issues. The observations in the classroom provided great opportunities for me to directly see what was happening in the class.

I also had the opportunity to be in the classroom with students on my own without the presence of teachers. It happened many times. Twice, when the teachers were absent from school, I was asked by the 'piket' (the particular teachers on duty to monitor the school on particular days) to attend the class of the absent the teacher. Other opportunities for meeting the students without their teachers occurred when I was allowed to take two hours of art lesson times for students to do drawings for me. On these occasions, I had the opportunity to experience what it means to be a teacher working at the school, interacting with the students in the classrooms. All data captured from the observations were recorded in the form of field notes. A sample of field notes from a classroom observation appears in Appendix 3.

Interviews

Interviews were the main method of data gathering in this study with the purpose of obtaining in-depth and rich information about the experience of an event or episode in the life of the participants (Fontana & Frey, 2000; Miller & Glassner, 1997) by specifically encouraging them with questions and other verbal and non-verbal methods to produce elaborate and detailed answers (Rapley, 2004). "The primary issue is to generate data which gives an authentic insight into people's experience" (Miller & Glassner, 1997, p. 100).

Using Indonesian and/or the Acehnese language depending on the situation, I used semi-structured interviews with broad opening questions, in order to gain greater depth of data about the complex issues under study (Fontana & Frey, 2000; Punch, 2005; Rapley, 2004; Silverman, 2000). Since little was known about my research topic and considering its complexity, as Rapley (2004) suggested, I relied on the participants' responses to the initial broad questions for the follow-up questions and the direction of the rest of the discussion rather than strictly delimiting the interviews to predetermined questions. Semi-structured interviews seemed to me to be more suitable in this study than structured or unstructured interviews. To help me maintain the focus and the interaction during the interview, I initially prepared a list of questions to ask (see Appendix 4).

Because this study involved sensitive issues such as the personal memories of participants' experience regarding the tsunami, after each interview, I approached each participant to discuss how they felt about the interview they had just done. I wanted to make sure that there would be no problems resulting from the interview they had just attended such as sadness or distress. I also made myself available to all participants for further discussion if they had any concerns or to refer them to somebody identified as having capacity to deal with any issues they might have. With the approval of the interviewees, all interviews were audiotape-recorded and then transcribed in Indonesian and/or the Acehnese language. English translations were made of one teacher, two students, and one community member transcripts (see Appendix 5 for the example of interview with a participant from each group) for discussion and analysis protocols with supervisors.

Interviews with the teachers

I invited teachers to be interviewed twice as I expected this would be needed to gain in-depth information, and they agreed. My primary assumption was that teachers would have more knowledge and information about the school since they would have had longer and more detailed experiences working in the school than the other two groups of participants. In addition, having more than one interview would give opportunities for teachers to reflect upon the questions asked and their responses, to recall their experiences, and provide afterthoughts. This strategy also aimed to help teachers to develop trust and rapport with me, which in turn would influence the value and quality of interviews.

The two interviews with the teachers at the study school took approximately 30 minutes each. The first interviews, which took place after I had spent one month or so in the research site (observation), focused on the issues around the challenges teachers had faced or were facing including challenges in teaching and working with the students at the school. The second interviews, which were conducted within the fourth and fifth months of the data collection period, enabled clarification, follow up or confirmation of information. They also allowed time for further discussions as well as for raising issues not covered in the first interviews, such as the needs for the teachers to be better able to perform their duties as teachers. The first teacher interviews were all conducted at the school while the second interviews were

conducted at the teachers' preferred location: the school, their homes, or the place of their side job. This was because the second interviews mainly took place during the long school holiday.

Interviews with the students

In the interviews with students, I wanted to hear the young people's interpretations and thoughts about the topic being investigated (Eder & Fingerson, 2002). With this in mind, I attempted to treat the young people in such a way that would make them to feel comfortable to participate, comment, initiate questions, and show their concerns about the topic discussed during the interview (Eder & Fingerson, 2002).

To gather data from the students, I either interviewed them individually or with a companion or a friend depending on each individual's preference. Before the interview commenced, I asked the students about how they preferred to be interviewed. In other words, the students were given the choice to either participate in private in the absence of others, in a group interview or with a companion.

When the first interviews were conducted with one male and one female student separately, both students looked shy and quiet. I guessed it was because they were not familiar with me since the interviews were conducted only about a month after I came to the school. Also, from a short chat after the interview, I understood that they had never been interviewed before. From this experience, I decided to conduct interviews with the other students after I had been in the school for a longer time. I believed this would give students more time to get to know me and be comfortable in the interviews. Therefore, later interviews with the students were conducted in the second last month of my presence in the study school.

Prior to the interviews and with approval from the school, I invited students to voluntarily take photos about things they perceived as important at school and do drawings on a specific theme: 'My ideal school'. Both these activities, which will be further explained in the next section, were supported by the initial observational information I obtained in the site as well as by my own experience as a teacher at a junior high school in Aceh working with generally the same aged children as in this study. These activities proved to be helpful to me in gaining a better understanding of the issues faced by students in the school including their views about their school and

their lives at the school, which in turn helped me in my interviews with the students including in forming the interview questions.

The two students I had interviewed at the beginning were happy to be interviewed again. This time, the female student chose to be interviewed with a female friend while the male student preferred to be interviewed alone. In general, interviews with student took around 20-30 minutes. Another female student and one male student wanted to be interviewed with a close friend and two male students preferred to be interviewed together, while the rest chose to have an individual interview. All student interviews were conducted in the school laboratory, which most of the time was unoccupied, at their preferred time and with the school's approval.

After each interview, I asked the students what they thought about the interview they had just had. I also made sure that I was available for them to discuss any issues resulting from the interviews. They all said that they did not have any problems with the interviews. Some of them even told me that they were happy to have someone they could talk to about their problems.

Interviews with the community members

The eight community members were interviewed individually once for approximately 30-45 minutes at their preferred time and place: at home, at the office or at a café, in the morning, afternoon or in the evening. The interviews were conducted in the last month of the data collection period with the purpose of gaining the community members' perspectives on the challenges tsunami affected schools in general had faced and were facing after the tsunami. The questions were slightly different between the community members depending on their role in the community, such as from the perspective of parents, community or youth leaders, school committee and so forth. However, all the questions were still under the general guideline of the interview questions that had been initially prepared for the community members.

Photos and drawings

Photographs are not just images that capture things, people, places or events. They carry visual information that may defy written expression, particularly when dealing

with feelings and emotions (Lysaght, Brown, & Westbrook, 2009) or when the research subjects may find it difficult to express themselves in verbal forms (Banks, 2007). In this study, photographs, as well as drawings, were used primarily to help me with my interviews with the students. Therefore, only students were involved in the photograph taking and drawing activities. Although the initial intention of the use of photographs and drawings was to serve as the baseline or overview prior to the interviews with the students, they also served as sources of data in that they supported my understandings of the phenomenon under investigation (Harper, 2003). Although some researchers argue that "photographs...are subjective statements, rather than objective documents" (Harper, 2004, p. 232), others regard them as a powerful means by which to provide a richer set of data (Holm, 2008).

In this study, students were invited to voluntarily take some photos and were free to take any places, activities, events, or people, anything within the school they perceived as important for them. They could be photographs of something they liked or disliked. There were no predetermined or specific themes to focus on. The activity, which took place in the fourth month of data collection period, provided opportunities for the young people to identify the things that they believed to be important in their everyday lives (Epstein, Stevens, McKeever, & Baruchel, 2006; Flick, 2009) particularly at school, that might be beyond adults' conceptions.

I observed that some students were brave enough to take the digital camera I offered them. Some needed a little bit of persuasion while others declined to take photos because they lacked the confidence to use the camera although I tried to convince them that it is OK even if they broke the camera. At last, five boys and three girls individually and three groups of 4-5 students took photographs for this study. The groups were not formally structured; rather they just happened spontaneously where one student took the camera and persuaded a few friends to go with him/her to take photos.

Some researchers argue that images may stand alone to convey information without being accompanied by text or speech (Lysaght, et al., 2009). However, I believe it might be difficult to understand the meaning of particular photographs for particular students or groups without talking with the students who took the photographs. As argued by Christmann (2008), "photographs are polysemic; thus recipients may see

and understand them in different ways" (n.p.) "beyond that contained in the photographs themselves" (Kanstrup, 2002). In order to fully understand them, photographs need verbal explanations (Holm, 2008). In other words, "images by themselves do not communicate fully" (Harper, 2004, p. 232). Therefore, to avoid ambiguity and misperception of the possibility of meaning, after each student or group finished taking the photographs, I always asked the students for the reasons behind any photos they had taken. Burgin (1982), as cited in (Lysaght, et al., 2009), noted:

> The photograph, as it stands alone, presents merely the possibility of meaning. Only by its embeddedness in a concrete discourse situation can the photograph yield a clear 'semantic outcome.' (p. 91)

In regards to the drawing activity, with approval from the school principal, I visited every class in the school to invite students to voluntarily participate in the activity on the theme 'My ideal school'. All students in each class voluntarily participated in the drawing activity except those who were absent on the day the activity took place in their classes. I conducted this activity in the two-hour art lesson in each class within a week in the fourth month of my fieldwork.

I fully explained to students the purpose of the activity, which was to inform my understanding of students' perceptions about their ideal school. I supplied all materials needed for the drawing activity including pencils, sharpeners, papers, rules, erasers, and colouring pens. For the first four classes, the art teacher accompanied me while for the rest of the classes, she asked me to be on my own during the drawing activity. As I understood that some students might not be confident in drawing, I said it was fine if they wanted to write words or sentences on their drawings or on the reverse page of the drawing paper to express what was in their minds. In fact, the words written in an adjunct to their drawings were helpful to understand what particular objects meant in the drawings as I had less time to ask each student about their drawings than I did with the photos.

The procedure of data analysis

Data analysis is an ongoing process and iterative (Creswell, 2008; Miles & Huberman, 1984). Liamputtong (2009, p. 277) contends that data analysis in a qualitative study is a process of turning raw data (all material obtained during data collection) into evidence-based interpretations that are clear, understandable, insightful, and trustworthy. There were no predetermined themes to focus on in this study; rather they emerged from my insider's sense of issues that were likely to occur in real life (Marshall & Rossman, 2006) but still data was driven by the interpretation of collected data.

As I regarded myself an insider, my interpretations might be subjective, influenced by my prior understandings, convictions and experience of the phenomenon (Ryan & Bernard, 2003). Therefore, I take this opportunity to acknowledge that this study may not be objective. However, all possible attempts were made to ensure the quality of this study, which will be further discussed in the following section of this chapter.

Coding played a major part of data analysis (Liamputtong, 2009). According to Charmaz (2006, p. 43), coding is "the process of defining what the data are about". It is putting tags, names, or labels against pieces of collected data (Bryman, 2004; Punch, 2005; Richards, 2005; Ryan & Bernard, 2000) that are "simultaneously categorised, summarised, and accounted" in order to identify specific issues (Liamputtong, 2009, p. 278).

My analysis began through the process of transcribing interviews, and reading and rereading the interview transcripts and field notes as well as looking very carefully at photos and drawings. I immersed myself in the data in order to become familiar with it and develop a deeper understanding of what I obtained in the field (Creswell, 2008; Liamputtong, 2009). As suggested by Martin and Ross (2010, p. 374), three questions (1) what do they say about...? (2) Why might they say that? (3) What might they mean by...? guided me since the beginning of my analysis process, including the coding process and thesis writing. I found that the data analysis and writing were interwoven, moving back and forward as needed throughout the analysis and writing phases (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

I used NVivo software as it provided a systematic and efficient procedure for managing and analysing my large data set (Bezeley, 2007; Richards, 2005). Figure 3.2 illustrates an analysis generated by NVivo taking the issue of parents and their roles as an example. I applied the coding process to break down my data, and conceptualise and organise it in the form of issues to report (Douglas, 2003). As suggested by Ryan and Bernard (2003), during my analysis of the interview transcripts, I looked very carefully for words and phrases that might signal a specific meaning such as time, causal or conditional relations, while for photos and drawings I looked for repetitions, similarities and differences. I used a constant comparison method in which newly and previously coded ideas are continually compared within and across each source of data (G. A. Bowen, 2008; Lindlof, 1995) in the search for commonalities and differences on the central issue (Dye, Schatz, Rosenberg, & Coleman, 2000).

I felt that if I merely looked for commonalities across the data I would have lost important and unique features and individuality of participants' accounts as there were stories from participants that were unique and could not be ignored for the phenomenon under study to be fully understood (Bailey & Jackson, 2003). I therefore reported any responses that seemed relevant to the research questions even if the information came from only one person, and I use extensive quotes from participants to fully represent their perceptions (Bailey & Jackson, 2003). I have to acknowledge that the reflexivity of my personal experience and background might have affected the analysis process of the data as I often connected participants' response to my own experience, knowledge, and background.

Above all, as an insider, I found analysing the data, especially during the process of coding, as very challenging and confronting. This study involved a lot of sad and distressing stories and memories about the tsunami tragedy and it seems that I suffered from compassion fatigue. Reading and rereading the data was a very uncomfortable part of my coding process. My personal memories of the tsunami, what participants had told me, what people in the site had talked about to me, and what I had seen in the fieldwork were all brought back vividly. Many times during the analysis, I had to walk away from my data and leave it for quite a long time due to my emotional discomfort. This affected the process of data analysis in this study especially in terms of time spent for the analysis.
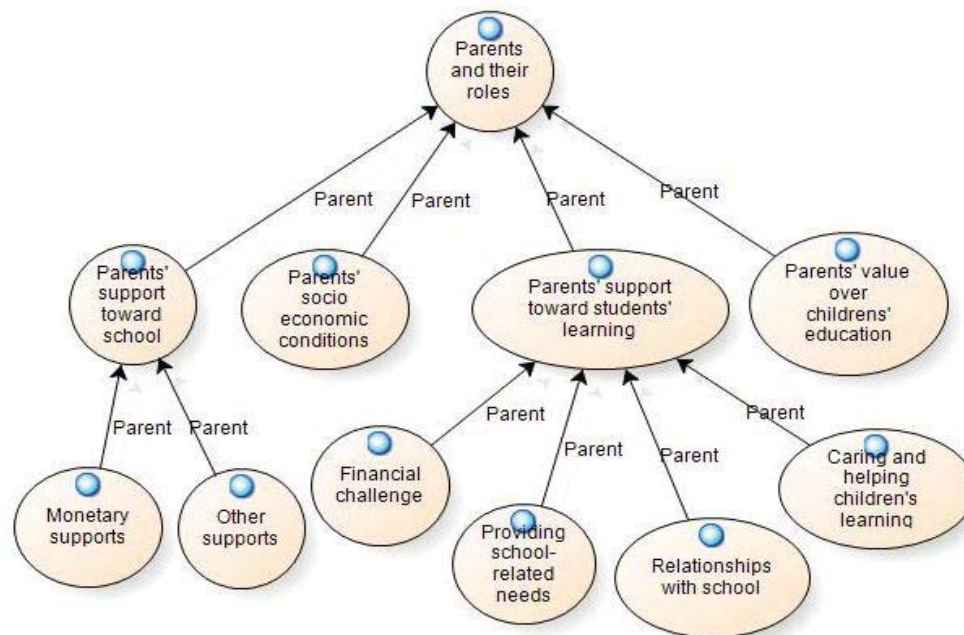
Figure 3.2: Sample of analysis generated by NVivo

Ensuring the quality of the study

The issue of validity is subject to debate in qualitative inquiry and the criteria for attaining validity vary among scholars because of their different philosophical assumptions (Whittermore, Chase, & Mandle, 2001). One broadly agreed concept of validity among all investigations, be they quantitative, qualitative or mixed inquiry is "the state or quality of being sound, just, and well-founded" (Whittermore et al., 2001, p. 527) and "the goal of finding plausible and credible outcome explanations is central to all research" (Morse, Barrett, Mayan, Olson, & Spiers, 2002, p. 14).

The issue of validity is even more salient if the researcher of a study is an insider (Rooney, 2005). The researcher's prior knowledge and beliefs about the phenomenon may be biased across the data collection, data analysis and data interpretation phases (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2006; Whittermore et al., 2001). Interestingly, despite the possible biases of the researcher, Rooney (2005, p. 7) argued that "insider research has the potential to increase validity due to the added richness, honesty, fidelity and authenticity of the information acquired". She went on to say that the commonality between the researcher and the researched and the emotional connection between the

researcher and the participants of the study can lead the participants to be more open and at the same time become a resource for the researcher to arrive at a more comprehensive understanding of the participants' descriptions and feelings about the phenomenon investigated resulting in the enhancement of the validity of the research (Rooney, 2005). Therefore, validity within this study can be viewed as the ability of the study to fully represent the subjective reality of the participants (Rooney, 2005).

I have used the eight criteria for excellence of qualitative research proposed by Tracy (2010, p. 840) as presented in Table 3.1 to ensure the quality of this qualitative study.

Table 3.1. Criteria for the quality of this qualitative study.

No	Criteria for quality	Description
1	Worthy topic	This study is of a little known phenomenon, conducted in a timely manner and relevant to the societal event.
2	Rich rigor	The selection of research participants and site was purposive for the goals of the study. Data collection was given sufficient time using various methods and sources.
3	Sincerity	As an insider researcher, I was fully aware of potential biases. My knowledge and connections with the study were used to illuminate readers' understanding of the phenomenon.
4	Credibility	This study provides a 'thick description' of the phenomenon from an in-depth understanding of social situations mainly based on participants' points of view, with enough details for the readers to understand what is being described.
		I used member checking in my effort to clarify, check, and validate my interpretation of data. For example, I used the opportunities provided through multiple interviews with teachers to clarify and check that I had understood accurately what I heard at the earlier interview. Also, I gave teachers a written summary of the issues they had raised and sought their feedback on the accuracy and validity of the summary. I also discussed some of the transcribed interviews with my supervisors.
5	Resonance	Report of the study has been presented in ways that aim to engage the reader as they read it.
		Knowledge generated in the study is hoped to be transferable or generalisable to readers or other populations and settings.
6	Significant contribution	This study is theoretically significant as it bridges the gaps in the field about the phenomenon under study of which little is known. It is also heuristically and practically significant as it provides guidelines and recommendations that assist policy and practices for the participants, as well as for future research in

No	Criteria for quality	Description
		the field.
7	Ethical	Ethical considerations, which are based on Tracy (2010), are as described in the next section of this chapter,.
8	Meaningful coherence	The research design, data collection, and analysis are interconnected and meaningfully coherent with the philosophical stance, theoretical framework, research questions, and research aims.

Source: adapted from Tracy (2010)

Ethical issues

This study received ethics approval from the Flinders University Social and Behavioural Research Ethics Committee (SBREC) and permission from the local office of the Department of Education where the study school is located and the study school itself. Prior to their recruitment, all the potential participants were provided with a letter of introduction, an invitation to participate in the research and a consent form. The letter of introduction briefly introduced the study and the researcher and explained the expected roles of the participants along with their rights, such as to answer only the questions they wished to answer and to withdraw at anytime during their participation. The invitation served as a formal way to invite people to participate in the study while the consent form was to obtain the participants' informed consent for participation in the study as well as to guarantee confidentiality. The school and all the participants were assured of anonymity in this study.

During data collection in the research site, I placed high priority on ethical considerations that may be of concern for the participants regarding specific circumstances and situations. Mutual respect and dignity were of the utmost importance to me. For example, as it is not common and can be regarded as illegal in Aceh for a female to be alone in the presence of a male other than their family, interviews with female participants including teachers, students or community members always took place in a place where someone else could see exactly what we were doing. For example, in the interviews with teachers and students at the school, I kept the laboratory's door open and we sat right in front of it. I made sure one of the family members was at home when the interviews with female teachers were

conducted in their homes. Also, in the interviews, I tried to not ask questions about participants' personal lives and reminded them that they were free not to respond to particular questions and to withdraw at any time during the interviews if they did not feel comfortable with the interviews or for any other reason. Moreover, I asked each participant about his/her feelings and made sure there were no problems resulting from the interviews.

Finally, I considered how to best present the findings in ways that I believed would not harm the participants and their community, such as using pseudonyms of participants and places, and focusing on the issues that emerged rather than the persons who provided the information.

Summary of the chapter

In this chapter, I have presented the methodology and methods of this study, the preparatory procedures and the actual fieldwork in the research site including the processes of recruitment of participants, and of data collection.

This study is qualitative and exploratory, applying a case study design as the method of inquiry. To collect data in the research site from the perspective of an insider researcher, semi-structured interviews with three groups of participants, namely teachers, students, and the community members were employed. The collected data were analysed using NVivo software. The design and conduct of this qualitative study considered the eight criteria for excellent qualitative research proposed by Tracy (2010). Finally, ethical issues were a high consideration in this study due to its nature and context.

The next chapter is the first of four chapters pertaining to the findings of the research. The chapter concerns the context of the study school at the time of the study and sets the scene for the three analytical chapters and discussion of key findings of this study.

CHAPTER FOUR
CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

Introduction

This chapter, which is divided into two main sections, provides information related to the context of the study. The first section presents an overview of the Aceh province and its attributes. It includes the geographic and demographic aspects of the province, the education system, and an overview of teachers in Aceh. This information aims to help the reader better understand the findings related to the contextual condition of the study school at the time of the study. The condition of the school is described in the second section of this chapter. The information in the second section is drawn from my observations in the study school and interviews with participants and informal conversations, supplemented by students' photos and drawings. The features of the study school and its neighbourhood at the time of the study are detailed and profiles of the school, teachers, and students are provided. The objective is to help the reader contextualise the findings presented in the three chapters that follow as well as the discussion in the final chapters of this thesis.

An overview of the Aceh province

To fully understand the challenges for schools in Aceh including for schools affected by the tsunami such as the study school, it is important that the reader is provided with background information about the Aceh province and its attributes.

Geographic and demographic aspects

Aceh was described as rich in natural resources including spices and mining products (H. S. Smith, 1997). Because of its abundant variety of goods and prime location, Aceh was once an important trading site in South East Asia. In fact it was seen as the gateway to the world (Reid, 2005), attracting merchants from many countries (Departemen Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan, 1997/1998; Hadi, 2004). H. S. Smith (1997, p. 3) noted:

> Settled strategically at the gateway of the Straits of Malacca, Aceh holds a position at the helm of the major crossing-point between trade routes from both East and West. Merchants from Africa, India, Europe, and Arabic passed by in quest of the silks and gold of the Far East, while Chinese traders travelled southwest in search of spices and gems from Central Asia

Among the traders were the Middle East merchants who travelled along South-East Asia from the ninth to the thirteenth centuries and spread their religion as they made contact with the local people (H. S. Smith, 1997). As Aceh was the first stop in Indonesia for these traders, it was the natural starting point for the spread of Islam in the archipelago.

Aceh soon gained a reputation as the strongest economy and the centre of Islam in South-East Asia as its trading power increased and its religious influence grew under the rule of Sultan Ali Mughayat Shah (r. 1514-30) (H. S. Smith, 1997). Aceh was also the centre for education in South-East Asia and reached its 'Golden Age' under the rule of Sultan Iskandar Muda Meukuta Alam (1581-1636) (Departemen Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan, 1997/1998; H. S. Smith, 1997). In fact, Aceh continues to be considered the foundation of Islam in Indonesia, also known as Serambi Mekkah (the Verandah or Gate of Mecca) because of its religious renown (H. S. Smith, 1997).

The Aceh province, occupying the northern tip of the Sumatra island of Indonesia's archipelago as illustrated in the Figure 4.1, has a land area of 5,677,081 hectares with 119 islands, 35 mountains, and 73 rivers. Aceh is bordered by the Indian Ocean in the west and southwest, the Malacca Strait in the north and northeast, and the North Sumatra province in the south. Of the total land area, 2,290,874 hectares are forest. There are 18 districts and five municipalities including 289 sub-districts, 778 'mukim',[1] and 6,493 villages. The government bureaucracy is hierarchical from the provincial government, to district level, then the sub-district, followed by the mukim, and at the bottom, the village.

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[1] Derived from Arabic, a 'mukim' is under a sub-district and consists of several villages (at least four villages) with one mosque for Friday prayer.

Figure 4.1: Map of Aceh. Source: http://www.docstoc.com/docs/44749453/Map-of-Aceh-Indonesia

In 2010, the year when this study was conducted, based on the data from the Centre of Statistic Aceh, the total population of the province was 4,494,410 (2.248.952 males and 2.245.458 females) and accounted for 1.89% of the total population of Indonesia (237,641,326 people). In the Banda Aceh municipality itself, the population in 2010 was 223,446 and it was the most densely populated area in the province with 3,978 people/km2 (Badan Pusat Statistik Aceh, 2013a). Of the total population of Aceh, 28.12% lived in urban areas and the remainder was settled in rural areas. Based on the 2011 census, the majority of people in the province were Muslim, accounting for up to nearly 99% of total population (Badan Pusat Statistik Aceh, 2013b)

Aceh is a multicultural province. Its people are from different ethnic and cultural groups, and therefore different cultures and traditions could be expected across districts/municipalities (Schröter, 2010). The largest ethnic group is the Acehnese while minorities include the Gayo, Alas, Tamiang, Aneuk Jame, and Kluet. However, Islamic piety is still very important and shapes the culture and all parts of life in Aceh even though the practice and discourse of Islam vary depending on the cultural background of people (Schröter, 2010). Generally, the Acehnese live in the lowlands while the ethnic minorities inhabit the less populated mountain areas (Schröter, 2010).

As noted by Schröter (2010), in its early history, Aceh's intercourse with traders such as from Arab countries, Europe, India, China, South and East Asia as well as the influx of migrants from within Indonesia including from Batak, Nias, and Minagkabau are believed to have shaped the different physical features and culture of the Acehnese. For example, the Acehnese physical appearance, to some degree, shows Arab, Indian and Portuguese heritage. The Portuguese influence in particular is often called the 'Awak mata biru' (the blue-eyed Acehnese). The language people use for communication also varies. Bahasa Indonesia is used for written and spoken communication at formal places and events, including at educational institutions and government offices. In daily communication, in addition to Bahasa Indonesia, different languages are used across the province by different ethnic groups.

Education system

Like other provinces in Indonesia, the education system in Aceh follows the general pattern of the national education system of Indonesia. According to the Law on National Education System No. 20/2003, the education system is divided into three levels: basic education consists of six years of elementary and three years of junior secondary schooling; secondary education consists of three years of senior general or vocational education; the third level is higher education (UNESCO, 2011). Based on Law No.2/1989 on the National Education System, the basic education of nine year schooling is compulsory for all Indonesian citizens, and the Indonesian government has the obligation to finance the basic education of all Indonesian citizens without charging fees (UNESCO, 2011). Higher education, which is an extension of secondary education, consists of academic and professional education offering two

types of courses: non-degree or diploma programs (known in Indonesia as D1, D2, D3, and D4[2]) and degree programs (S1[3]: a bachelor's degree, S2: a master's degree, S3: specialist 1 program of professional education to develop practical skills, and S3: doctoral and specialist 2 program which is an extension of the specialist 1 program). There is also an educational unit in Indonesia known as pre-school including kindergartens based on the Law No. 2/1989, Article 12 verse 2. However, this educational level is not compulsory or a requirement for entry into the compulsory-nine-year basic education (Embassy of the Republic of Indonesia, n.d.).

As illustrated in Figure 1.2, in general, education in Indonesia, including Aceh, is provided in two types of schools: secular and Islamic or religious schools. Both can be public or private. Private schools account for only 7% at the primary level, 56% at the junior secondary level, and 67% of senior secondary schools (World Bank, 2012). In Aceh, less than 10% of students go to private schools, specifically those who can afford expensive fees. It is believed that private schools provide better quality education since they can hire quality teachers and provide good books and facilities (World Bank, n.d.). The Ministry of National Education (MoNE) manages the secular schools, which account for 84% of schools in the country while the remaining 16% Islamic schools are under the Ministry of Religious Affairs (MoRA). The management of secular schools has been decentralised to district governments since 2001 while that of Islamic/religious schools is still centralised (Weston, 2008).

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[2] D1, D2, D3, and D4 are one year, two year, three year and four year diploma programs respectively.
[3] S1 is a four-year degree or full qualification for a specific field of study at university.

Figure 4.2: System of education Indonesia based on the Law on National Education System No. 20/2003. Source: UNESCO-International Bureau of Education (2006).

Both secular and religious schools have the same curriculum in general but additional religious courses are taught in religious schools (World Bank, n.d.). Based on Article 37 of National Education System Law, 2003, the basic and secondary education should include the following subjects in their curriculum: religious education, civic education, language, mathematics, natural science, social science, art and culture, physical education and sport, and local content (the lesson appropriate for the local characteristics of school, i.e. local language or art). A personal development component has also been included in the current curriculum This component comprises extracurricular options which are intended to give opportunities for students to choose activities suited to their needs, talents, and their future career, usually conducted in groups outside of regular lesson hours (Sanjaya, 2008).

Since 1975, the school curriculum in Indonesia has had several major revisions in order to make it more relevant to schools' needs including the implementation of Kurikulum Tingkat Satuan Pendidikan (KTSP) or the Educational Unit Level Curriculum. This is a school based curriculum that gives more freedom and responsibility to schools to develop their own lesson plans based on their schools'

and students' conditions (Weston, 2008). However, this change has not had a significant impact on the practice of teaching and learning in classrooms (Weston, 2008). This is probably due to a lack of involvement of teachers who understand the real needs and capabilities of students in the process of creating the curriculum. In addition, there might have been little training provided for teachers to understand this particular curriculum and implement it in the classroom (Weston, 2008). Moreover, the student assessment system has essentially remained knowledge-based. As a result, teaching and learning remains traditional in most classrooms, focusing primarily on knowledge-based objectives such as memorising facts (Weston, 2008).

Since 1986, the Indonesia government has made great efforts to achieve universal basic education for its citizens including waiving school fees and providing scholarships to poor students (UNICEF, 2006). Since 2005, the government has provided 'Biaya Operasional Sekolah' (BOS) or block grants to cover elementary and junior secondary school operational costs for both public and private religious and secular schools across the country including Aceh. The funding is directly injected into schools and in accordance with student enrolment numbers each year. For elementary schools, it is Rp.580,000 per student while for junior secondary school, this is Rp.710,000 per student. The funding is used for the school operational needs including the purchase of books and other learning materials, building maintenance, teacher professional development programs, and to support poor students' needs at school such as for transportation, uniforms, or learning materials (Kementerian Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan Republik Indonesia, 2012b). Despite this, the enrolment rates across the country are still low. Primary education net enrolment rates particularly in poor districts are 60% compared to universal enrolment in well-off districts. Net enrolment rates in junior secondary and senior secondary education are 66% and 45% respectively (World Bank, 2012). In Aceh net enrolment rates as of 2010 were moderately higher than the average for the country, 78.58% for junior secondary schools and 62.4% for senior secondary schools (Badan Pusat Statistik, 2011). The purpose of schooling in Indonesia is stipulated in Article 3 of the National Education System Law/2003 where it is stated:

> [T]he national education functions to develop the capability, character, and civilization of the nation for enhancing its intellectual capacity, and aimed at developing learners' potentials

so that they become persons imbued with human values who are faithful and pious to one and only God; who possess morals and noble character; who are healthy, knowledgeable, competent, creative, independent; and as citizens, are democratic and responsible (UNESCO, 2011).

In line with the purpose of national education of Indonesia, in Aceh the purpose of education is declared in the 'Qanun Provinsi Nanggroe Aceh Darussalam' No. 23/2002, Article 3 Chapter II on Foundation, Function, Purpose, and Principles of Education. It aims to foster Islam in accordance with nature, namely personal faith and piety towards God, pious, democratic, uphold human values and rights, knowledgeable, skilled, healthy physically and mentally, possess steady and independent personality, able to face global challenge, and has responsibility to God, community, and country (Departemen Dalam Negeri, n.d.).

The implementation of education in Aceh is based on the following principles: (1) It is a process that continues through life; (2) it is carried on in Islamic education, democratic, fair and pays attention to human rights; and (3) it is implemented as comprehensive, integrated, open, and focused on the personal development of participant students as much as possible according to their interests, talents and ability (Departemen Dalam Negeri, n.d.).

Teachers in Aceh

Teachers in Aceh are mostly local people who have graduated from local universities in Aceh. They are either employed by the government or hired by the schools. Teachers who are employed by the government are civil servants and need to pass a series of tests while part-time teachers are hired directly by schools, mainly because of a lack of particular subject-teachers, without any specific tests. To improve the quality of teachers the Indonesian government introduced a teacher certification process based on the Teacher Law UU/14 of 2005. A series of professional and location incentives are intended to encourage teachers to upgrade their qualification (World Bank, 2012).

Many teachers in Aceh only have the diploma level qualification which is equivalent to fourteen years of education (UNICEF, 2006). Although it is required for teachers

to obtain a minimum of a bachelors degree according to the new Education Law No. 19/2005, only 37% of total teachers in Aceh have fulfilled this requirement (World Bank, n.d.). A survey conducted by a non-government organisation (NGO) from Germany in 2007 found that many teachers in Aceh are not qualified to be a teacher (B. Syah, 2010). More specifically, as in other areas in Indonesia (Weston, 2008), many teachers in Aceh teach subjects for which they are not qualified. In West Aceh for instance, there was a saying: 'daripada kosong mendingan ditutupi' (it is better to ask unqualified teachers to attend the lessons than to let the classroom or lessons be unattended) (Alfaizin, 2008). This situation can be related to the fact that teacher deployment across schools in the province is uneven with the result that some schools have more teachers for particular subjects than needed while others are understaffed (Alfaizin, 2008; B. Syah, 2010). This is a common phenomenon across Indonesia in general (Weston, 2008).

Apart from their qualifications, teachers are among the most important people in the Aceh society. They are listened to and respected, especially in rural places where few people are well educated. Many of them are not just schoolteachers but very often play key roles in the community such as in the religious and administrative bodies in their villages. People perceive them as knowledgeable persons for advice and help.

In the life of children, teachers in Aceh may have the same status and function as parents. They are respected and regarded in the same way a child respects and looks up to their parents. In Aceh society, a child is warned with the saying 'Ayah ngon po ma, seureuta guree. Ureung nyan ban lhee beu ta peu mulia. Han ek takali jasa rayeuk that, guree hai sahbat yang that meujasa' which means 'your mum, dad, and teacher are the three persons you should always look after and respect...teachers, their services you will never be able to repay'. This notion is part of the lullaby with which mothers in Aceh put their children to sleep. This shows how important teachers are in the Aceh society.

However, despite the fact that their jobs are important and respected, many teachers seem to have difficulties functioning optimally as teachers. Teachers in Aceh do other work in addition to their teaching profession. For various reasons, mostly financial, many of them are doing something else as side jobs such as working as farmers, small business traders, or teaching or working part time at other institutions.

Often, they put greater emphasis on their secondary work over their primary role at school. In addition, teachers have heavy workloads in schools. Teachers who have obtained teacher certification are required to perform at least twenty hours class teaching in a week, plus other responsibilities for students and classes, such assessing students' work, and as 'guru piket' or stand-by teachers. These duties make it more difficult for teachers to perform well or to provide adequate support to students' learning. Profiles of teachers, of the study school, and of students are presented in the next section.

The study school at the time of the study

This section presents a profile of the study school community at the time of the study. It outlines general features of the school and its neighbourhood, and of the teachers, students and their family backgrounds to serve as contextual information and set the scene for the three analytical chapters and the discussion chapter that follow. This information is considered critical not only because the characteristics of the school, teachers, students and neighbourhood are associated with the teaching and learning process in the school. It will also help the reader contextualise the findings of this study. Unfortunately, because I have little information about the school community before the tsunami it is not possible to provide a comprehensive picture of the school community or to compare and contrast the school community before and after the school was devastated by the tragedy.

From my communications with participants, particularly teachers and community members, I learned that prior to the tsunami the school was more highly regarded. The school had many students, and was seen as disciplined, involved and successful in extra-curricular activities such as in sport competitions among schools in the area. The school's positive reputation before the tsunami was also clear from the comments of one teacher who said that a week before the tsunami the school was about to perform on the local TV, suggesting that the school's achievements were notable. Unfortunately, the 2004 tsunami devastated the school and changed it dramatically in many ways as well as significantly changing the lives of individuals, families, and the community, changes that were still evident six years after the tragedy. Data presented in this section are from observations recorded as part of my data collection in the school and interviews with teachers, students, the school

principal and community members, as well as my informal conversations with teachers and students outside the classrooms, in the teacher's office or in the school canteen. The data were also supported by students' photos and drawings.

The school's environment and neighbourhood

As mentioned earlier, the study school was a public junior high school run by the local office of the Department of Education under the Ministry of Education of Indonesia. About three months after being devastated by the tsunami the school was temporarily reopened in another school in an area in Banda Aceh that was not physically affected by the tsunami. A year later, the school moved temporarily to another school in Banda Aceh before its own school buildings were finally rebuilt by the Indonesian government through the local office of the Department of Education in the third year after the tsunami, in exactly the same location as before the tsunami.

At the time of the study, the school was located in one of the nine sub-districts of Banda Aceh municipality. That sub-district was about 537.7 hectares in area and had six villages. The village where the school was located was only about 0.5 to 5 metres above the sea level. The school itself was close to the sea, only about 1.8 km from the shore and less than 0.5 km from the seaway.

The area in which the school was located was impoverished and socially disadvantaged. The poverty rate in the area had escalated from only 28.8% of the total population before the tsunami to 95% after the disaster (Pemerintah Kota Banda Aceh & GTZ-SLGSR, 2007). In physical appearance, nearly all the houses in the village were typically small houses rebuilt for the tsunami victims. The majority of people were regarded as low income and low status families such as fishermen, pedicab drivers, or sellers in the local market. I also saw people in the area collecting recycling goods as their livelihood. Some students told me that they worked to support their lives by collecting recycling goods. Not very far from the school, there were piles of rubbish including recycling goods such as plastics and people were digging and looking for things to sell as recycling materials. In fact, the school was located close to the garbage disposal centre for the entire city of Banda Aceh.

The population in the sub-district after the tsunami (2006) was 8,033 (4,787 males and 324.6 females) compared to 21,035 (12,319 males and 8,716 females) before the

tsunami. More specifically, in the village in which this study school is located, the population in 2010 was 1,205 (625 males and 580 females) compared to that of 3,380 (2,050 males and 1,330 females) before the tsunami. Of the 625 males (including male children), 354 were fishermen while only 26 females were working either in the public or private sectors including as nurses, civil servants, or small businesswomen. In terms of educational attainment, 77 people in the village had graduated from university, while 361 had completed or were still attending senior high school and 402, including children, had completed or were still attending junior high school or elementary school.

Before the tsunami, in the sub-district there were four kindergartens, twelve elementary schools (one was a private school), three junior high schools (two private and one the study school), and one private senior high school. All of these schools were badly damaged or destroyed by the tsunami. After the tsunami, only three kindergartens, six elementary schools, and two junior high schools (one public and one private) were rebuilt. The public school was the only public junior high school in the area and became the study school. Instead of rebuilding the destroyed private senior high school, a new public senior high school was built in the village, next to the study school (Pemerintah Kota Banda Aceh & GTZ-SLGSR, 2007). Unlike all the other schools in the area, which were rebuilt by either national or international non-government organisations (NGOs), the study school was rebuilt by the local Department of Education. In terms of the school buildings, 100 percent were new. A tsunami pole of 7.0 m in height whose purpose was to educate people about the tsunami was also built in the school by an NGO from Japan. It is one of 85 poles built across Banda Aceh and the Aceh Besar district.

The school's resources

At the time of the study, the school was clearly under-resourced. The school principal and the vice-principal both indicated in their interviews that the fact that their school was rebuilt by the government which has a limited budget had affected the quality of facilities and other infrastructure and resources compared to some other schools in the neighbouring suburbs which were rebuilt by international NGOs. I visited two public junior schools in other sub-districts in Banda Aceh that had been rebuilt by international NGOs. These schools' representatives informed me that not

only had the NGOs replaced their schools with brand new buildings but also had provided adequate facilities to support teaching and learning, such as computer facilities and a library. In one of the schools, the NGO that rebuilt the school also provided a school bus to pick up and take students home especially for those who lived in the dormitory. That NGO still communicated with the school to monitor the school's progress and provide support when needed.

On this note, the vice principal was disappointed that the principal at the time, who had the right to choose who would rebuild the study school after the tsunami, had made the wrong decision by choosing the government to rebuild the school instead of an international NGO. The vice principal maintained that the school might now have had better facilities and resources if it had been rebuilt by an international NGO like other schools. Although the 2010 principal said he did not want to blame others, he indicated in his interview that the school could have had better facilities if the school leadership right after the tsunami had been active in seeking funding from donors. He believed there were many very generous aid agencies right after the tsunami. But the opportunity for receiving funding from donors had become very limited by the time he became the principal at the school.

My observations and communications with the study school personnel provided evidence that the school's facilities and resources, particularly to support teaching and learning, were poor. The laboratory room and the library, which were actually unused classrooms for example, had very poor facilities. There were very few instruments to support the teaching of biology or other science-related subjects in the laboratory which was very disorganised and seemed to have been unused for a long time as was evident from the dust that covered the floor, the equipment and the chairs and desks. Meanwhile, as I observed, the library looked tidy but had very few books, most of which were old.

Many students included the library as the subject of their drawing. The library was also one of the popular subjects in the students' photos. From the students' explanations in their interviews, photos, or drawings and writings in the drawings or when I asked them what the library meant in their photos/drawings, they indicated that they perceived the library as important for them to be able to learn well. Unfortunately, according to them, their library had very limited books.

In addition, there were only two computers in the school; one was in the administrative office and the other one was in the principal's office. There were no computers for the purpose of teaching and learning the computer science subject. The canteen, which was actually an unused classroom due to the low number of students, sold a limited variety of foods, mostly instant foods such as chips, candies or soft drinks. The sports facilities were insufficient. Many students, especially male students, mentioned in their interviews and expressed in their photos and drawings as well as the writings in their drawings their wish to see more sport facilities at the school. The prayer room, which was located next to the tsunami pole, was locked most of the time. I observed that it was only opened on Saturday morning when some students, supervised by one or two teachers, recited the Quran or learned about Islam as part of their two-hour weekly free activity. The prayer room was also used when there were special occasions or activities such as the 'pesantren kilat', a program held during the fasting month once a year to enhance students' knowledge of Islam. In addition, there were some unused, abandoned classrooms in the school due to limited number of students.

The condition of the used classrooms was also poor. The walls, which were painted white, were dull and with almost nothing, just one or two pictures, on display. These were often the picture of the Indonesian president and vice president, which seemed to be obligatory. The tiled floor, most of the time, was dirty from soil or sand that the students carried on their shoes, as well as small scraps of paper. The furniture in the classrooms consisted only of the students' and teachers' chairs and tables with a blackboard. I did not see students' work or art being kept or displayed in the classrooms. The classrooms were hot, especially during the day when the temperature was high, and there was a strong bad smell from the nearby garbage disposal centre. Teachers and students had to fan themselves with books during lessons to help cool themselves as well as to get rid of the bad smell, which disturbed their concentration. Some female students also used their scarves to cover their noses with one hand while the other hand was writing or doing the lesson tasks.

The schoolyard, especially the front yard near the school's office, the principal's office, and the teachers' room, was green with lots of trees and flowers planted after the tsunami, but rubbish such as plastic from food wraps and paper was common in some areas including under the stairs or near and inside the canteen. In the yard,

there was not a single bench for students to sit on during the lesson breaks or outdoor activities including PE lessons. Therefore, students could be seen standing or sitting on the ground or under the trees during the lesson breaks, after PE lessons, before school or even while eating their food during breaks. There were no parking areas in the school. Teachers' and students' motorbikes, the principal's and teachers' cars or students' bikes were parked chaotically. This added to the unattractiveness to the school.

Moreover, although the school was very close (approximately 3 km) to the city of Banda Aceh, there was no public transport access to the school such as buses or mini buses except 'becak' (pedicabs) and 'ojek' (motorbikes functioning like a 'taxi'). The closest bus stop to the school was about 3 km away. Therefore, some students were taken to and collected from school by their parents or other family members and some took mini buses to the closest bus stop and then walked to and from the school. I saw that three or four students rode their motorbikes and some rode their bicycles while those who lived close to the school simply walked to and from the school. The unattractiveness of the school as well as the transport issue, to some extent, affected the enrolment, as I will discuss in the following section.

Student enrolment

Six years after the tsunami, at the time of this study, which was conducted between April and October 2010, the number of students enrolled in the study school was considered very small with only 153 students across three grades compared to about 500 students before the school was destroyed by the tsunami. In 2012, according to data from the Indonesian National Department of Education (Kementerian Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan Republik Indonesia, 2012a), the number of students in the school decreased further to only 134 students across three grades. In 2010, of 12 classrooms, only nine were occupied with 15-18 students in each class. This number was extremely low compared to the common number of 40 students in a class at most schools in Aceh.

There is no doubt that the tsunami killed many people in the affected areas in Aceh province including teachers and students. I was informed that the study school lost nearly all students in the tragedy. According to some teachers, when the school was reopened three months following the traumatic event, only seven students returned.

There were actually no data on whether most students were killed in the tsunami or whether they had moved to other areas afterwards. However, most teachers and people in the community believed that many of them were killed by the tsunami. Furthermore, the population of the community as a whole, as well as the number of school age children, has decreased significantly since the tsunami. This was seen by many participants as the main cause for the low number of students in the school, as illustrated in the school principal's comment below:

> *The main factor is there are no longer families with school age children who live here. Only 10% of our students are from the local community while the rest are the outsiders. So the school age children whom we hoped to come to our school might have been killed in the tsunami.*

Many people also believed that, as indicated earlier, the lack of public access was another cause for the failure to attract students from the surrounding areas. Although teachers mentioned that they tried to increase enrolments by inviting and even trying to persuade parents to send children who were rejected by other schools to the study school, parents seemed reluctant because of the transport issue.

> *The distance between the school and home is far. So transport has become important here in attracting students. During the new student enrolment season, we went to a few other schools which had high enrolment rates causing them to reject many students and tried to persuade parents to enrol their children at our school but many of them were reluctant to send their children to our school because of transport issues. It is far, isn't it?…That is the most obvious feature that we can see. I do not see any other reasons. If our school were located in 'Simpang Keumala[4]', I am sure we would have an explosion of student enrolments, more than we would need. But since we are a bit far away plus there is no public transport access, people would think twice about going to our school. So the main issue is the transport.* (Ibu Tika[5])

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[4] Pseudonym, a place where public transport like mini buses came to and from nearly every direction of Banda Aceh and Aceh Besar district

[5] All the names of people in the thesis are pseudonyms. 'Ibu' refers Mrs or Ms and 'Pak' refers to Mr.

Look at the SMP (Junior High School) A and SMP B that are both located in strategic places. People from everywhere, villages and the countryside come there because there are mini buses to that area...Last time, I went to SMP C on the enrolment day in case there were some students who were not accepted there that I could persuade to come to our school. Their parents' answer was let us try to find other schools that are closer. (Ibu Nurul)

It is true that we lack students...Most students coming here were not accepted in other schools...The reasons they chose the other school at first were not because of the condition of the school, not because of the educational process inside the school but the transportation issue... If students have no motor bikes or bikes they have to walk or take a pedicab to come here...That is one of the factors. (Pak Mahmud)

From the above comments, it can be understood that many students in the study school came from areas outside the community who were not accepted at other schools. It was common practice in Aceh that schools including public schools, especially those perceived as 'good schools', selected the best possible students in terms of academic competence leaving those who did not meet their standards to find other schools. Some students, with whom I spoke in informal conversations, also acknowledged that they had unsuccessfully tried to enrol at their desired school before they finally went to the study school.

The teachers in the study school, including the principal, argued that the school's poor facilities and resources had also affected enrolment as students or families in the community and nearby may not see the school as a good school.

Parents look for schools which have good facilities. But we are having lots of challenges including a lack of resources including the facilities and infrastructure that support teaching and learning process. (The principal)

When I asked Ibu Tika about this in her interview, she commented, "There were students from the primary school next door who went to another school to continue their studies". In his interview the school principal also acknowledged the fact that most students enrolled in the study school, even the students from the local

community, had been rejected by other schools, as illustrated in the following interview excerpts:

> Fadliadi: *Let us go back to the issue about students. There is a rumour that students in this school were not accepted in other schools. They have tried somewhere else first and if they are not accepted then they will come here. Is that true?*
>
> The principal: *That is true. That is true.*
>
> Fadliadi: *There are even students from the local community who tried to enrol somewhere else first?*
>
> The principal: *Yes, there are. Yes, there are.*

The fact that most students had been rejected by other schools due to their low academic competence led to the teachers' poor views of their students. Some teachers referred to the students as "left overs" from the selection at other schools. In the next section, I present a profile of students attending the school at the time of the study.

Profiles of the students

As mentioned earlier, the school seemed to be forced to accept whoever came to enrol. The school did not have the option to select students. This was illustrated in the following comments:

> *Those who were not accepted over there are whom we have here...They are the ones we are putting our efforts in and are educating. The ones we are helping here have lots of problems. You yourself* [pointing at me] *have been here for a very long time so you know that situation. What I mean is it is not something I just made up*. (The principal)
>
> *We do not have a choice other than to accept whoever comes here to enrol regardless of their background including their academic performance otherwise we have to close this school.* (Personal communication with an administrative staff in the study school, 20 July 2010)

It was also rumoured that the school accepted troubled students who had been expelled from other schools due to behavioural problems. I confirmed this with some teachers in the study school in casual conversations in the school corridor or in the cafe. Most teachers said, "We hope we can help the troubled students to be better persons here". But many teachers seemed to be unsure when I questioned them about how they can help the troubled students when their former schools had failed to do so. "Or is it because the school is so desperate for more students that they would accept everybody including students expelled by other schools even though they know that they are the troubled ones?" I asked a male administrative staff. He did not answer my question but his body language seemed to agree.

Apart from the issue regarding rejected or expelled students from other schools, although there were no precise data available in the school, according to one teacher "75% of the students here can be classified as having tsunami backgrounds". In light of this, teachers had noticed significant changes in young people particularly in terms of their attitudes and behaviour. A sense of frustration was prominent as teachers talked about current students attending the school after the tsunami. Although unsure, teachers referred to home-related issues including death of parents and changes in the family as the main causes for problems including behavioural issues young people in the school were facing. The following comments from teachers illustrate possible causes for the problems faced by young people at the school:

> *Most of the students who were victims of the tsunami have a little shock in their mental state. Their mental state becomes not stable...Their mental state is a bit down. It is different from before the tsunami where we saw children were happy and joyful.* (Ibu Lia)

> *One more thing that is very obvious here is students' mental state in terms of their behaviour and attitude, which is very different between before the tsunami and after the tsunami. We really need to understand them and learn about them. If not, we will be upset and angry with them.* (Pak Mahmud)

> *The impact of the tsunami on children is on their attitude. It is so different from attitudes in the previous school I was teaching at. At my previous school, students were also naughty but at least they listened to what we said. But here they are very naughty plus ill-mannered.* (Pak Mahdi)

From what I have observed, there is a big difference in students before and after the tsunami…Before the tsunami, students' attitude was good. Their morale was good. And their personality was good. But if we compare with that of today, the difference is so huge either in terms of their personality, attitude, behaviour and so forth. Probably it is because our current students have 'broken homes'[6] or something like that. Or is it because they no longer have parents? I do not know. (Ibu Maryam)

Most students who come to this school have problems. There are those with divorced parents, those whose parents were killed in the tsunami, those who do not have fathers and their mothers are remarried or vice versa. At first I was angry with them when they did not behave or when they were lazy. But after I asked and interviewed them, I understood that most children here have problems in their family such as the death of father or a mother who is remarried. So, most children here are in trauma due to their broken homes that may be as a result of the tsunami. That makes me feel so sorry for them. (Ibu Tika)

In fact, 'naughty' was a common term many teachers used to describe students' behaviour. When I asked teachers in the school what they meant by students being naughty, they referred to students who did not follow the school regulations including tucking their shirts into their trousers or not having long hair for boys or not sitting near the stairs. They also referred to students who did not pay attention to teachers and made noise or disturbed others during the lessons. A female teacher commented:

Looking at their behaviour, sometimes the troubled students behaved by disturbing their peers or sometimes throwing books. There were lots of their behaviours that might make us upset. (Ibu Zuhra)

When I spoke with students about teachers' perceptions, common responses confirmed that there were peers who disturbed their learning in class including being noisy during the lesson and not obeying the school's regulations.

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[6] The teacher used the term 'broken home'.

Some students were also described as very sensitive, meaning that they became very easily upset and withdrew from the class activities if their teachers did not seem to care about them. A pre-service female teacher once complained to me about some of her students in the school that she saw as overly sensitive. She told me that those students seemed to demand a lot of her attention such as to stand beside them and teach them how to do the lesson tasks and seemed to be upset and reluctant to continue the tasks when she left them for a while for other students who needed her. She believed that the students were upset because they thought she did not care about them.

During my time in the school, I took notes of what the teachers and students told me about students. For example in one class observation, I saw some students in the class not paying attention or moving from place to place while the teacher was explaining the lesson. There were some students not following the teacher's instructions during the lesson. The teacher seemed to be frustrated and then ignored those students. However, in other classroom observations, students seemed to be quiet during the lesson even though I noticed that there were students who were not fully engaged in the classroom activities. This phenomenon raised the question of why some classes seemed to be quiet while other classes were noisy during the lesson time. What was happening in classes where students were engaged or at least quiet in class and what made them disengage or misbehave in other classrooms? Is it a pedagogical matter related to teacher skills such as classroom management skills? These questions will be addressed in the next chapters covering the teaching and learning practices in the school including issues related to teacher pedagogy and classroom interaction.

In addition, as expected from the school's location in a poor area, most students were from low socioeconomic background families. As mentioned by the school principal "Those who come to study here have very poor economic conditions". One teacher noted:

> *The impact of the tsunami is obvious especially in terms of financial matters because mainly many students in (this school) are orphans, Sir. Long ago, there were students who worked to earn money as thatch palm trees or mangrove trees planters* (Pak Mahmud).

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I was also informed in my communication with teachers and students that some of students in the school worked outside the school hours either to support their families or to fulfil their own daily needs. I will discuss this issue in the next chapter.

Profiles of the teachers

When this study was conducted, there were 27 teachers in the study school teaching various subjects. Of these, three were young non-permanent teachers on teaching experience prior to becoming permanently employed by the government. The permanent teachers were mostly senior teachers who had many years of teaching experience. The non-permanent teachers acknowledged that they received some incentive for their teaching or work at the school but very little. Although the teachers were reluctant to talk about their payment, I knew that the amount of payment a non-permanent teacher received was very little compared to that of the permanent teachers, as I was a non-permanent teacher a long time ago before I began my teaching career as a permanent teacher in a public school in Aceh.

A further issue that emerged was that the proportion of teachers and subjects was unequal. There were teachers who had to teach subjects or who held a role in the school they were not qualified for, in other words without having formal education. For example, there was an Indonesian language teacher who had to teach the Acehnese language subject and a math teacher who held the position as the school counsellor since there were no teachers or staff who had the qualifications in those fields. Some teachers also had extra duties in addition to teaching subjects. Two teachers served as the vice principals dealing with the curriculum and with student affairs. The teacher who served as the vice principal dealing with student affairs, also dealt with the school's finance in terms of managing the scholarship[7] money for students in the school. There were also teachers who worked extra hours - as the organiser of student extracurricular activities, school canteen keeper and manager, the outside school social-related event coordinator, or the coordinator of some other intra-school activities.

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[7] The school used the term 'scholarship'. The government provided special but limited funds to support students from low-income families. Since the number of poor students was high, not all poor students received the money at the same time. Those who received the money in the first semester might not receive it in the following semester or the following year, for instance.

Of the 27 teachers, only one identified as from a non-Acehnese ethnic background. All the teachers were affected by the tsunami to some degree and many of them experienced the tsunami directly. In other words they were survivors or victims of the tragedy. All teachers at the school lived in the surrounding suburbs and only came to school during their lesson time except two of the five male teachers who were from and lived in the village where the school was located. The two local teachers had important positions in the local community structure and their roles, according to them, demanded a lot of their time and energy. One was the community religious leader and the other served as the secretary of the village administration.

In addition to their job or duties in the school, some teachers also had side jobs. There were teachers who ran a small business or were entrepreneurs, who taught at other educational institutions or were involved in running an organisation. According to the teachers, having a side job was mainly to earn extra income to support their financial condition.

All the teachers had graduated from local universities in Aceh with at least a three-year teaching diploma. Most of them, however, had obtained a four-year teaching diploma or bachelor degree either before they started their teaching career or later after they had been teaching for several years in the school. The teachers who obtained the teaching degree later in their teaching career were older or senior teachers mainly to fulfil the four-year teaching qualification requirement set by the government through the Department of Education. All teachers in the school argued it was important that teachers have additional education in the form of training or professional development to improve their skills such as teaching skills, many of them mentioned that they had received few opportunities for such education during their in-service teaching profession. Professional development for teachers in the school will be discussed in Chapter Six when I present the teachers' data.

The school, teachers, and students

As indicated in previous sections of this chapter, many of the comments about the school and students were in deficit terms. Teachers were not happy about students' academic ability, which was seen as incompetent and about students' families in that parents for various reasons were perceived as not supportive towards their children's

education. Parents' support will be further discussed in Chapter Six. The terms 'leftovers' which refers to students as rejects from selection in other schools or 'naughty' for students who misbehaved and disobeyed school regulations were commonly used by teachers as they talked about their students. In this thesis, I have used these terms even though they are questionable in order to preserve the accuracy of participants' expressions as they talked about particular issues.

Teachers also talked in negative ways about their colleagues, particularly in terms of commitment toward their work, mutual support and collegiality, as I will discuss further in Chapter Six. Some teachers clearly expressed negative views about the school's current condition in relation to facilities, resources, and infrastructure. Even when I challenged participant teachers with questions that I expected would generate positive comments about the school, they seemed unable to articulate positive comments but continued to focus on problems and difficulties and commented in deficit terms. For example, towards the end of my fieldwork in the school, I said to teachers who were in the teachers' room in which most teachers spend their time for tea or coffee during the lesson breaks that I had heard much about the school in deficit terms. I challenged them to mention at least one thing that made them proud of being part of the school or being a teacher there. In response, all teachers in the room were cynical and seemed to agree with teachers who commented that there was nothing good about the school after the tsunami that could make them proud of it. Again, all the comments were in deficit terms about the school including about the poor school resources and poor students' academic competence.

Like teachers, students also expressed deficit views about the school, teachers, and peers, as I will discuss in Chapter Five. Similarly, a sense of negativity was also evident from the comments of people in the community about the school, teachers, and students as discussed later in Chapter Seven. In short, a sense of frustration, powerlessness and despair was prominent among participants, especially among teachers as they commented about the current school condition, teachers, students and their families.

Summary of the chapter

In this chapter, I have provided an overview of the Aceh province and general features of the study school as well as profiles of the teachers and students at the time of the study six years after the tsunami. A snapshot of the kind of discourse among school personnel about the school, teachers, and students including their families has also been presented. This information provides a critical backdrop and context for the analytical chapters and discussion that follow.

In the next three chapters, I will present findings from students' data, teachers' data, and community members' data respectively followed by a chapter containing the discussion of the findings.

CHAPTER FIVE
FOCUS ON STUDENTS' DATA

Introduction

This chapter presents findings from the analysis of interviews with ten third grade students in the study school, whose profiles are summarised in Table 5.1, supported by observations, and students' photos and drawings. As mentioned in the methodology chapter, prior to the interviews, students, including those not participating in the interviews, were invited to participate voluntarily in a photo taking and drawing activities. The students' photographs and drawings were important in this study in at least three ways. First, they reflected the social world of the students including issues they were facing at school. Secondly, they provided opportunities for students who were not interviewed to express their views about their expectations of the school and issues that affect them and their fellow students. These drawings, writings and photos could be taken as the common views of students in the school. Thirdly, since both activities were conducted prior to the student interviews, they provided me with an understanding of important issues to cover later in the interviews.

Table 5.1: Profiles of student participants

Students' pseudonym	Gender	Age	Personal background information
Adnan	Male	15	He survived the tsunami but lost both parents and a brother. He lived with his uncle who also lost his wife in the tsunami. He still had a sister who lived in another province.
Meutia	Female	14	She survived the tsunami and lived close to the school. Both her parents also survived the tsunami.
Mulyadi	Male	14	He survived the tsunami but lost his father and a sibling. He lived with his mother and a younger brother.
Qamariah	Female	13	She and both her parents survived the tsunami.
Rahmat	Male	15	He survived the tsunami but lost his mother. He lived with his father and stepmother after the tsunami. His father was a fisherman and his stepmother operated a kiosk at home selling foods and daily needs.
Razali	Male	15	He lost all his family members including both his parents. After the tsunami, he lived with his uncle who operated a kiosk selling daily needs to earn income.
Ridwan	Male	13	He lost his mother in the tsunami. After the tsunami, he lived with his father, stepmother, his brother and a stepbrother. His father was a fish seller in the local market, a low-income job in Aceh.
Rifqi	Male	17	He survived the tsunami but lost a younger sibling. His father passed away when he was little. His mother remarried but lived in poverty in a village of the Aceh Besar district. He lived with eight other young people in a house provided by a family in Banda Aceh.
Wahid	Male	14	He was not in Aceh when the tsunami hit the province. However, both his parents were killed in the tragedy. After the tsunami he lived with his aunt and her family.
Zainal	Male	14	He survived the tsunami but lost his father. He lived with his mother and an older sister and a brother, all survivors of the tsunami.

Of the 326 photographs produced by students either individually or in groups, people, especially friends, seemed to be the predominant images of importance in the students' lives, though activities (i.e. sport activities) and buildings or school facilities such as the library were also among popular subjects. All individual students and students in groups took at least one photo of their friend(s) or classmate(s). Some students took photos of their teachers, either those they liked or disliked. I observed that some photographs could have been taken in natural settings while others seemed to be constructed (Loizos, 2000). In the case of the constructed photographs, as noted by Loizos (2000), the subjects positioned themselves nicely as if they were aware that a photo was to be taken. On the other hand, the photographers might have directed the subjects or negotiated with the subjects for the pose that they wanted or considered appropriate. As I examined the collected photos, three subjects emerged as the focus about what was important to the students at school. They were people that included students and teachers, objects including buildings and facilities, and activities inside and outside classrooms that involved teachers and students.

The drawing activity, whose theme was 'my ideal school', produced 127 drawings collected from all students across nine classes from year one to year three who attended school on the day the activity took place. In general, students participated enthusiastically in the activity, which was held during their 90-minute art lesson. The only issue was that some students indicated that they were not confident that they could do a good drawing that represented their messages about their ideal school. In response, I invited students to feel free to write words or sentences on the drawings or the back of the drawings to convey the messages they wanted to convey by the actual objects in their drawings. As a result, all students' drawings were accompanied by words or/and sentences about their expectation of an ideal school. This in fact helped me understand the messages behind their drawings, as without the written explanations I would have had some difficulty understanding them. I did not have the time to ask each student about the meaning of their drawing in the way that I had time to ask about the photos.

Because drawings were about the specific theme of the 'ideal school', plus some written information about what they wanted or did not want to see in their school, I did not attempt to group the drawings when I analysed them. Moreover, some

students included people, objects and activities in the one drawing. As in the photos, school buildings including facilities such the library and sport facilities, the prayer room, canteen, and schoolyard were the main subjects of the students' drawings. Many students also drew people including teachers and students in their drawings. More specifically, many students included their expectation of what they wanted teachers to be doing or not doing in their drawings about an ideal school. Figures 5.1, 5.2, 5.3, and 5.4, are examples of the students' drawings and the writing at the back of student' drawings. The drawings and notes were not from the same students.
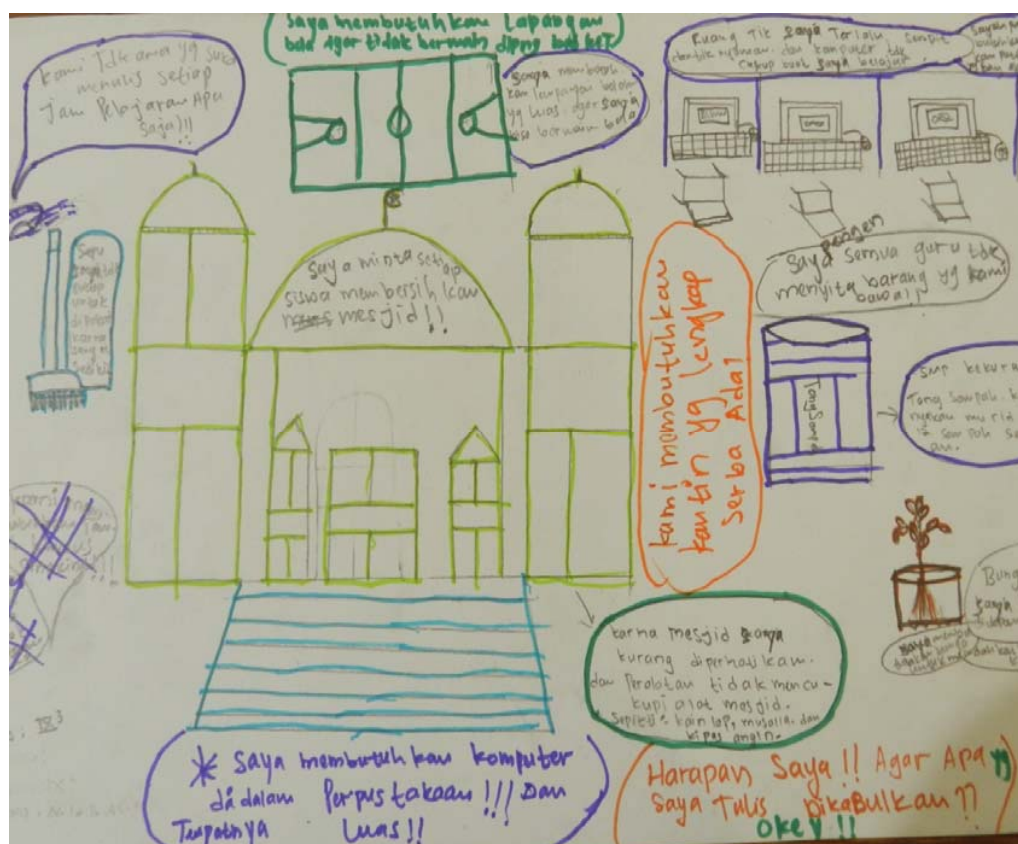
Figure 5.1: A student's drawing, depicting the school facilities and environment the student wanted to have in his/her ideal school and expectation of teachers.
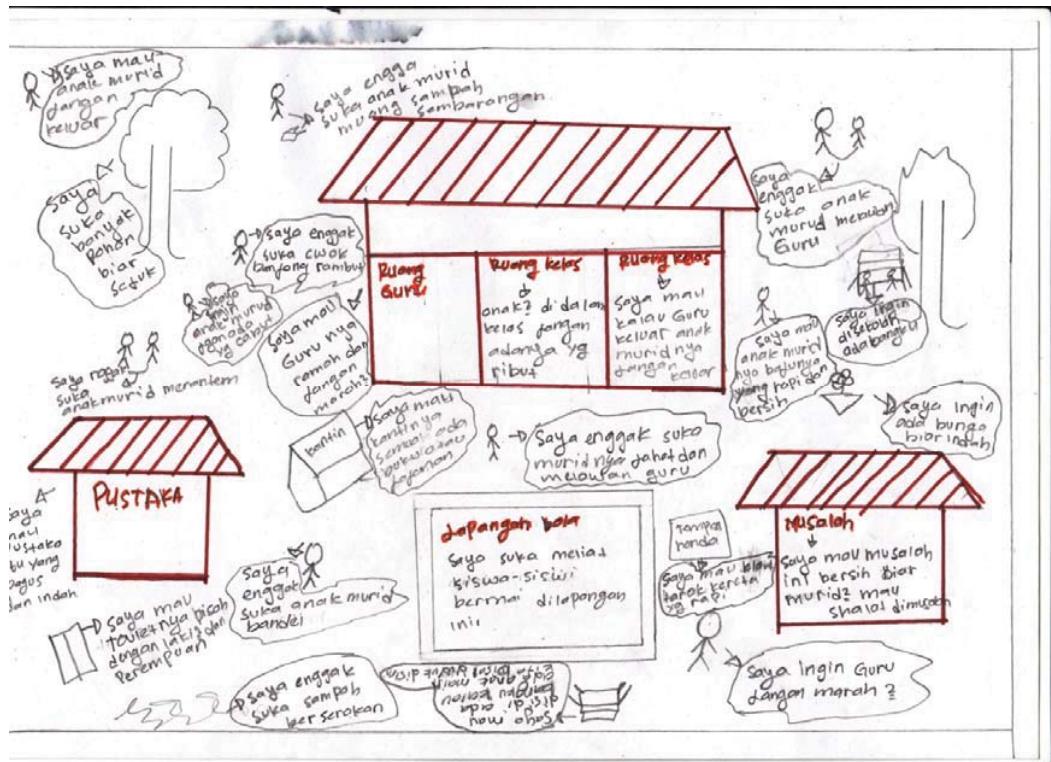
Figure 5.2: A student drawing depicting his/her expectations of the school, teachers and peers in addition to the facilities he/she wanted to see in his/her ideal school.
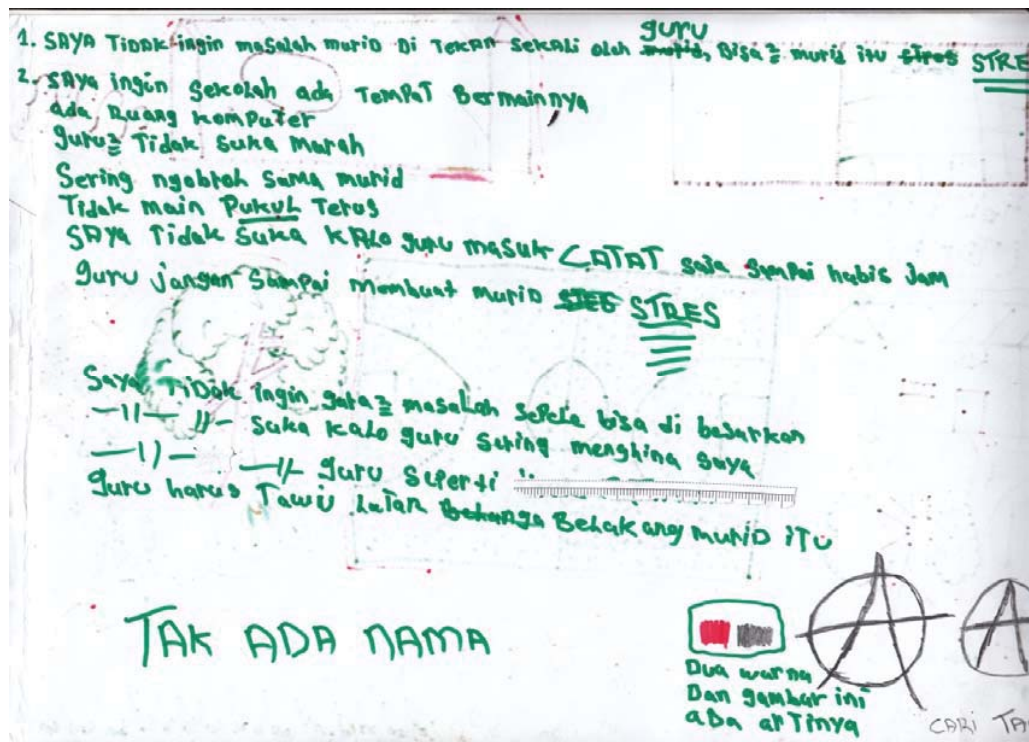
Figure 5.3: Notes a student wrote at the back of a drawing

The translation of the notes in Figure 5.3 is:

- I do not want teachers to heavily discipline students and make them stressed.
- I want this school to have a playground and computer rooms.
- I want teachers to be nice and talk to students. They do not beat students without finding out first about what actually happened.
- I do not want teachers to just write the lesson on the blackboard for us to copy until the lesson time ends.
- Teachers should not make students stressed.
- I do not want teachers to exaggerate students' mistakes.
- I do not like teachers to always insult me.
- I do not want teachers like Mrs...[8]
- Teachers should know students' background.
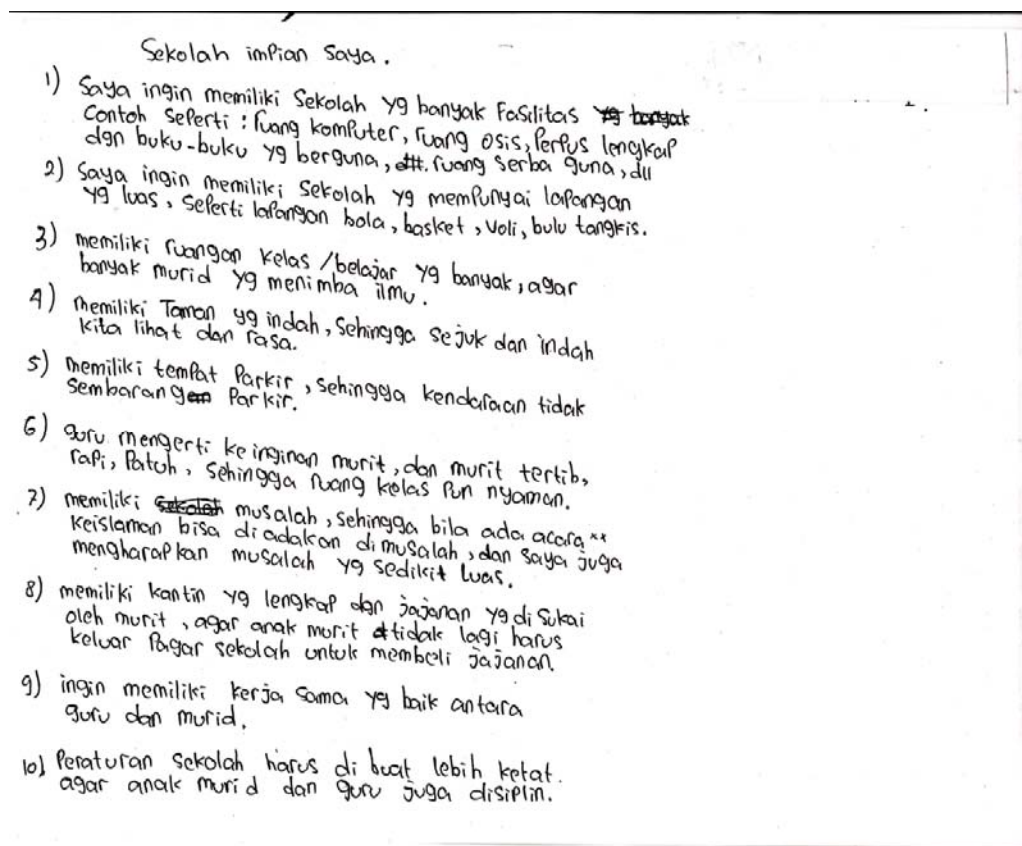
Figure 5.4: Notes students wrote at the back of a drawing

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[8] The teacher's name is removed for ethical reasons

The translation of the notes in Figure 5.4 is:

My ideal school:

1. I want a school that has good facilities such as a computer room, students' activities room, library with useful books, multi-purpose room, etc.
2. I want a school that has sport facilities such as a soccer field, basketball court, volleyball court, and badminton court.
3. The school has lots of classrooms for students to learn.
4. Shady and beautiful school yard so we feel comfortable in it.
5. The school has a good parking place so that all the vehicles can be parked tidily.
6. Teachers understand students' needs and students themselves obey the school regulations so everybody can be comfortable in class.
7. The school has a better room for religious activities.
8. The school has a good canteen with delicious foods so that students do not need to sneakily go outside the school to buy food.
9. I want to see a good relationship between teachers and students.
10. The school regulations should be stricter so that both teachers and students will be disciplined.

Students' photos and drawings were indeed helpful, particularly to investigate issues faced by students at the school. For example, as a few students took photos of teachers and also wrote quite a lot about teachers in their drawings either in positive and negative ways, I intended to explore issues related to teachers in interviews with the students. In each interview I asked them about their relationship with teachers, their perception of 'good teachers' and their expectation of their teachers in relation to their life in the school. More specifically, when there were photos of particular teachers and when the names of particular teachers were mentioned in the drawings in negative ways, for example, I felt I needed to investigate those issues in the interviews with those particular students. I wanted to have a better understanding of what was going on in the school between students and their teachers including what makes a good or a bad teacher in the eyes of the young students in the school. Because many students included school facilities such as a library, canteen, computers, and sport facilities in their drawings and photos, I asked them what they expected from the school or what they expected the school to have in order for them to learn better. These are examples of how I framed my interview questions based on information in students' photos and drawings in addition to questions I had initially prepared that covered certain topics such as their challenges after the tsunami

including learning related matters. I found that a follow up in interviews based on initial information obtained from photos and drawings was particularly salient for a better understanding of the phenomenon investigated.

It is important to note that it was challenging to collect data from young people in the study school. During my first few days at the school, students seemed reluctant to talk to me. They gave short answers and would not continue to talk. I did not give up but kept greeting every student I met, either when they were in a group or on their own, at school or outside the school, if I happened to meet them. And it worked! As the time passed, I felt that they accepted me in their lives at school and they seemed to be happy when I approached them for conversations. Sometimes they approached me when they saw me around and talked to me. At a special farewell gathering held for me with all students and teachers who were present on the day, when I had completed my data collection, a teacher in his speech said, "Pak Fadliadi, you have won our students' hearts. I am sure you will always be remembered by our students". I realised how important it is for participants, particularly young people, to get to know the researcher and for the researcher to build a good relationship with their participants. The way the researcher presents himself or herself in the lives of the participants affects the success of data collection. This suggests that when young people know and trust the researcher, they are more likely to share their experiences and views about the phenomenon under study.

As I sought to analyse the data from students, which I focused on young people in the study school at the time of the study, six years after the tsunami, it was evident that students faced a number of challenges that affect the quality of their lives, both at school and outside school. I focused on the ways they were affected by the tsunami both inside and outside school. I focus on their personal lives and challenges, their lives at school and school-related challenges, the way they were coping with the challenges confronting them, and their future life aspirations. These are outlined in the sections that follow.

Life of the school students after the tsunami

From my communications with students in the study school particularly with students who had directly experienced the tsunami, I understood that their lives

including their routines had significantly changed after the tsunami. Although in different ways, the 2004 tsunami was still affecting their lives and they were living in the shadow of their experience. In general, life after the tsunami was depicted by many students in the school as no longer as happy as before the tsunami.

The memory of the tsunami and loved ones

From talking with the students, I understood that it was hard for most of those who had directly experienced the tsunami to simply forget their experience. They were still scared of a possible future tsunami and any stimuli that could trigger their memory, such as earthquakes, being close to the sea, or bad weather. Their proximity to the tsunami both physical (the physical distance from the events) and emotional (the emotional response toward the event) (Goldstein & Brooks, 2006; Goodman et al., 2002; Perry, 2002; Rosenfeld et al., 2005; Wickrama & Kaspar, 2006) seemed to influence how these students reacted to their tsunami experience especially in terms of their memory of the event.

For example, in a conversation with a group of male students who were in charge of gate monitoring, I asked whether they had forgotten the tsunami. One student, who survived the tsunami water, said to me in a loud voice, "Do you think I will forget the tsunami? No. You are wrong. You are wrong. I will never forget the tsunami. How can I forget it?" The boy did not seem to be happy with my question, thinking that I might be considering the tsunami a small thing. I could understand why he was unhappy. The tsunami was of course a major tragedy, especially for those who were the victims or survivors, such as the boy who said that he was nearly killed in the tsunami water. He continued to say, "I will always remember the tsunami. And talk about it to my future generations, even until the seventh generation" (Field note, June 2, 2010).

On another occasion, a teacher told me that there was a student in the school who was always scared when there was thunder and heavy rain. The teacher said that the student once went home without asking permission from the school. When his mother brought him back to school later she explained that since the tsunami her son was always scared of heavy rain and thunder. I met the student a couple days later when he was having a rest after a PE lesson and had a conversation with him. There was no indication that he was badly affected by his experience of the tsunami. When

I mentioned what I heard from the teacher, he acknowledged that he was still scared of thunder and heavy rain.

Another example was the story of Rifqi who wanted to be a navy captain. I first met Rifqi when I was walking around the school during the lesson break to see what students were doing. I saw him standing alone in front of his classroom and greeted him. He looked quite big for a third grade student and later in my interview with him I discovered that he had missed school for three years after the tsunami because of financial difficulties. From my conversation with him on that day, (Field note, June 14, 2010), he said that since the tsunami, he often saw black giant waves whenever he went to a beach. Once when he was on a beach he screamed that he was seeing the tsunami waves again and his friends told him he was insane. In the interview later, he said that the tsunami memory often occupied his mind, especially when he was alone and there was no one around to talk to, or when there were earthquakes, heavy rain and thunder.

Unlike the majority of the students, who told me that they were scared of earthquakes and the danger of future tsunami, Wahid, who did not experience the tsunami, indicated that the tsunami was rarely on his mind. "Even when there is an earthquake, I am not frightened. If my time to die comes, then I will die, no matter what", Wahid assured me. When I asked him what came into his mind when looking at the tsunami pole in the school, he seemed uncertain and said, "I am not sure if the tsunami water was that high. If it is true, that means that the tsunami water was as high as that roof", pointing to a two-storey building in the school. When asked in the interview whether the tsunami came to his mind when he was telling me about his experience of almost drowning in the sea while swimming with friends, he said, "No, it did not".

The tsunami pole was among the objects photographed by some students as important for them in the school. The presence of the tsunami pole, which was one of the 85 poles built in Banda Aceh and Aceh Besar as 'The project for supporting education of tsunami disaster prevention in Nanggroe Aceh Darussalam', funded by Grassroots Grant Assistance for Human Security of the Japanese government (Sugimoto, Iemura, & Shaw, 2010, p. 531), had to some degree affected the students'

memories of the tsunami at the school. According to Sugimoto, Iemura, and Shaw (2010, p. 534), the objectives of the project were to:

1. Encourage people to be prepared for the next disaster.
2. Keep alive the memory of the tsunami attack.
3. Educate the next generation with important lessons from the tsunami.
4. Mourn the people who passed away, and restore and reconstruct Banda Aceh after the disaster.
5. Keep accurate data of the tsunami-height for future planning.
6. An escape sign giving the tsunami height.
7. Encourage people to live with hope and composure under the risk of a tsunami.
8. Become a symbol of Banda Aceh as the tsunami-attacked city.

A female student who took a photo of the tsunami pole was in tears as she explained to me what the photo meant to her. She took the photo because looking at the pole often brought back the memory of her aunt who had raised her since she was still very little but was killed in the tragedy.

Indeed, this study suggests that students who lost one or both parents in the tsunami were continuing to re-live their memories of their parents. Life was depicted as no longer the same as when their parents were still alive, referring to their unhappy life after the tsunami. On this note, in response to my question about his life now compared to before the tsunami, Rahmat commented:

> *Before the tsunami hit, my life was comfortable, living with my mother and father. On Sunday, we went to the beach together. Now, it's not comfortable anymore. My father goes by himself, my brother is on his own, and I am by myself. It is not comfortable anymore.*

When I asked him about the death of his mother, he noted:

> *It does affect me. I no longer have a person who looks after me. Before the tsunami, in the morning, I just put my clothes on, had breakfast, and then went to school. Now, I have to wash my clothes by myself, I cook myself.*

> *Sometimes, I go to school without breakfast. Sometimes, I buy 'somay'[9] just*
> *to ease my hunger. That's my life now... Sometimes, it makes me cry.*

Razali who lost both parents and all siblings in the tsunami added to Rahmat's comments, "It affects me in just the same ways as Rahmat described. I also remember my parents, my memory of them taking me to school..." Both Rahmat and Razali who were interviewed together looked sad and their voices faltered as they recalled their memories of their parents. They seemed to be pondering, which I interpreted as sadness thinking about their parents who were killed in the tsunami.

Some students also perceived their lives to be lonely and incomplete due to the loss of family members including parents. For example, in response to my question about the difference between his life before and after the tsunami, Adnan who had lost both his parents commented, "Before the tsunami, my life was happy. There were many people in our house...Now after the tsunami, there are only two people at home, me and my uncle". Similarly, Rahmat commented:

> *I sometimes do not know where to go. I just sit down in front of my house*
> *imagining the situations before the tsunami. It used to be very crowded over*
> *here, not like the current situation. Now my father goes to work and my*
> *brother goes about his own business. I am alone. I do not even have anyone*
> *to talk to. Before the tsunami, there were my brother and sister, I had*
> *everyone.*

As expected, my communication with the students who had lost their parents suggested that the memory of the tsunami, especially of their parents, came to their minds at certain times and occasions. For example, Razali pointed out that the memory of his parents usually came when he was alone or when he was about to go to bed making it difficult for him to sleep at night. In addition, Razali and some other students I spoke with in a conversation in the school's corridor during the lesson break talked about the days of 'Hari Raya' or 'Eid', special days in the Islamic calendar, which children in Aceh celebrate with their parents, families, and relatives with special foods, new clothes, and extra pocket money from parents and relatives. These days were particularly sad for them.

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[9] A kind of traditional street food.

Change in the family structure and living with others

Death of their parents sometimes forced some students to live with other people. Some students had to accept new people into their family, for example when a surviving parent remarried, as Rahmat experienced when his father remarried after the tsunami. Others had to stay with relatives or other families like Wahid, Razali, Adnan, and Rifqi. This change in family life after the tsunami seriously affected the lives of these students.

The remarriage of a surviving parent, for instance, often caused issues in the interaction between family members, leading to an unhappy life for the students and possibly leading to their behavioural problems. As an Acehnese, I have often seen changes in the family structure, such as when a father remarried, that created problems for young people. No matter how good a step mother actually is, society typically portrays as bad, cruel, not caring, and neglectful of step children. This kind of stereotype prevails in the society. Therefore, very often the relationship between a stepmother and stepchild/children is poor, leading to an unhappy life for both children and stepmothers. As Rahmat said to me when I asked about his life at home, "You yourself know how life is with a stepmother". Another student in our conversation during a lesson break said, "I never talk to my stepmother". Comments from both students showed that there were issues due to change in their family structure.

After the tsunami, Rifqi, who was originally from Aceh Besar district, had to live with eight other children in a house provided by a family in Banda Aceh. Rifqi described himself as poor and from a poor family. His father had passed away before the tsunami when he was just a young boy. After the tsunami he lived with his mother who remarried but lived in poverty in a suburb in Aceh Besar. At that time he did not go to school for about three years after the tsunami due to financial constraints. Referring to life with his mother, he said, "We do not have anything. One day we have something to eat but another day we do not". Rifqi then decided to go to Banda Aceh to find a job. But his older brother who had already been in Banda Aceh persuaded him to come back to school instead. His brother introduced him to Mr. Guntur whom his brother had known for couple of years since he was a street boy himself living on the streets of the city of Banda Aceh. Since then, Rifqi stayed

in a house provided by Mr. Guntur that he shared with eight other young people who also no longer had anyone to look after them or were from poor families. In the interview, Rifqi indicated that if his mother were not so poor he would prefer to live with her instead. This suggests that the life of a young person would be happier if they could be with their own family.

Wahid also indicated that his life was not happy living his aunt since his both parents had passed away in the tsunami. Not only because he was tired from all things he had to do since living with his aunt, such as helping her with her work in the market, and doing house chores, but also because he was often blamed for things that went wrong at home as illustrated in the following excerpt from his interview:

> *That is because I am told that I am wrong but I do not know what. I am always blamed for things that went wrong. I am very distressed...I do not understand why everything I do is considered bad.*

Wahid even cited home as the source of the problems he was facing including at school. One day at school I observed him being physically punished by his teacher when he had misbehaved. Acknowledging that he sometimes misbehaved at school, Wahid asserted:

> *That is sometimes because I am distressed from home problems. I have problems at home...But when the distressed feelings have gone, I asked myself why I misbehaved. I told myself not to do it again. But in fact, I do it again and again.*

Working

In my communications with teachers at the school, I had heard about students who had to work to help the people they were living with after the tsunami such as their family or caregivers and/or to earn money for their daily needs and school needs such as books. It was confirmed in student interviews that four of the participants were working students. From my communications with these young people, I understood that life for them was complex. They had to juggle between different worlds. They had to fulfil their work duties outside school as well as school work at school and at home in the form of homework (Stokes & Wyn, 2007). Patently,

working affected these students' quality of life and learning. In this section, I offer the stories of the working students and how working affected their lives and learning.

The first is Wahid's story. At the beginning of the interview when I asked him how he compared his life before and after the tsunami, he pointed out, "My life is more difficult now compared to before the tsunami...It is because of working...I mean I have to work". I realized how complex and difficult life was for this student. Since he lived with his aunt, who was a vegetable seller in the local market, he had to get up very early in the morning everyday to help her prepare her vegetables to sell at one of the early morning markets in Banda Aceh. This type of market in Aceh was usually called 'pasar pagi' where people selling daily items, mostly foods such as fruits, vegetables, and spices in small stalls or on the ground. Specifically, vegetable seller or 'penjual sayur' was a low-income job and perceived as of low status in Aceh. In fact, many vegetable sellers in 'pasar pagi' in Aceh whether in Banda Aceh or in other places whom I have seen are women from low socioeconomic families.

When asked whether work to help his aunt at the market was interfering with his schooling, Wahid said, "I often feel sleepy at school because I have to get up very early in the morning, at four o'clock." In my conversation after the interview, Wahid said that he had to walk to and from the market in the morning, which was about two kilometres from his aunt's house before he then got ready for school. Moreover, he indicated that he also had to do household chores including washing dishes, cleaning the house, and doing the laundry.

> *Even when I'm tired I am again asked to do things at home. I still do it even though I grumble in my heart. My aunt asks me to do work and she does not notice that I am tired already*

In response to my question about anything that could affect his study, Wahid claimed that working affected his school because it limited his time for learning. As Wahid said, "It is a matter of time. I have very little time. I have to do homework but I still have to work to earn money." He added that sometimes he did not do his homework due to lack of time. Instead, he asked his friends if he could copy theirs.

In addition to helping his aunt, Wahid told me that he had to work to provide for his school needs and for his pocket money since he did not receive any pocket money for

his needs including cigarettes. He said that smoking was one of his ways of coping with his problems. In the next part of the interview, Wahid said:

> *I sometimes am worried when I do not have books or LKS[10] but usually the problem is solved. I work here and there to earn money. Or sometimes there are people who give me alms or other kinds of donation and I will use that money only for the school needs.*

Here Wahid assured me that he would not use the money from people's alms or donations for buying cigarettes. He said,

> *I buy cigarettes only with the money I earn from working...but sometimes I do not have a job, or money, or cigarettes. And that makes me really distressed. Luckily sometimes a friend of mine whose name is Armia[11] asks me to go to collect 'atom'.[12]*

Armia, who was also a student at the study school and survived the tsunami, was Wahid's best friend with whom he shared joy and sadness. He went on to say:

> *We sometimes competed against each other to collect more 'atom'…But we always share equally whatever money we get from selling the collected plastics. Like right now, I am thinking what I can do to earn money after school today. I always tried to find a job when I did not have one.*

The second story is about Rifqi who was also forced by his circumstances to work outside school hours. In fact, he said in the interview that he had worked since before the tsunami to support his life and his schooling. During the school holidays, Rifqi used to work to help the family who paid for his school through their small business. However, when, some time ago, Rifqi contracted malaria due to the very dirty workplace, he stopped working there. He indicated in the interview that he was thankful that he did not have to worry about the school costs anymore as the family paid them for him including for books and uniforms. But he said he still had to work for his daily needs including for pocket money to buy food at school.

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[10] Exercise booklets

[11] Pseudonym. He was also a tsunami survivor and a student at the study school but he did not participate in the interviews.

[12] The term Wahid used for dumped recyclable plastic goods.

Rifqi worked at the local market helping people carry things. Sometimes he went to the beach helping the fishermen fix their fishing nets. Sometimes he gave some of the money he earned to other kids with whom he shared the house, as he was also sometimes given some money by someone living there when he did not have any. Rifqi noted:

> *Working was sometimes tiring. But if I do not work, I am afraid I will not have money for food. In addition, even though there is someone who pays for my needs now, I do not want to be dependent on other people all the time...I do not want Mr. Guntur to think that I am always dependent on him for everything. Moreover, what if he is not around and available anymore?*

Rahmat and Razali also had to work every day including weekends to look after their family stall after school. Razali said, "I have lots of work to do at home. Sometimes, I get up late and then it makes me less motivated to go to school". Rahmat sometimes also worked extra, such as on the Eid day, cleaning the cemetery to earn money to buy his school needs such as books and uniforms. Both students indicated that they tried their best to complete their school tasks such as finishing homework while they were looking after their families' stall.

Students' lives at school

In this section, I present findings related to the complexity of factors that contribute to students' life at school. Of particular concern are factors contributing to the challenges the students were facing in their learning. I examine students' learning difficulties in relation to home and personal factors, school context, peers, and teachers.

Personal factors

In addition to working, students' personal and home-based problems also affected the quality of students learning. These included their unwillingness to study at home, the unavailability of anyone to help with their learning due to a range of factors such as parents' time constraints, level of education, income, and the home environment.

Home issues and self-commitment

The condition of the students' homes also affected their learning. For example Rifqi found it difficult to study at home. He said:

> *I cannot study at home because the other kids are noisy. When I am studying, they just make noise...there are many people at home and that disturbs my learning. When I am studying, some play guitar...Some sing songs.*

In addition to working as part of their duty to help their family, some students such as Wahid, Rahmat, and Meutia, reported that they also had the responsibilities to do the household chores such as looking after younger siblings, although generally students did not directly or clearly articulate this in the interviews. Overall, the time and energy these students had for learning, especially at home, was limited due to the work they were required to do at home.

Students seemed to understand that the success of their learning was partly influenced by their own commitment towards their learning. However, some acknowledged, without giving any reasons, that they rarely studied at home. To some, learning at home was just a matter of doing their homework, as Razali acknowledged. "If I do not have any homework, I will not study my lessons at home."

Unavailability of anyone to help with learning

The fact that some of the young people had lost important people in their lives such as parents and other family members including siblings could have also affected their learning. They missed these important people who used to and were able to help them with their learning. As Rahmat, who lost his mother and older siblings, said:

> *It is difficult because I no longer have anyone to help me in learning. Before the tsunami, I had an older sister and brother. If I did not know how to do my homework, I asked them. Now, if I have homework, I try to do it myself. I have no one to ask.*

While he still had his father and brother, Rahmat noted that they could not help him with his learning because they did not understand his lessons due to their low level of education:

> *There is no one to teach me. There is no one who is able to help with my lessons. My father had only graduated from senior high school and my brother from junior high school. So, no one is able to help me.*

Adnan who lived with his uncle understood that his uncle was busy with work so that he seemed to have no time to help him with his homework. He believed that it was not because the uncle did not care about his learning. Luckily for Adnan, his neighbour is a university student who sometimes helped him with his homework.

Family socio-economic condition

Many students indicated that they were also unable to take private lessons after school, like the more economically privileged students did in Aceh. Rahmat, in particular, mentioned that he had to put aside his wish to take up extra learning out of school hours, as he understood his family's financial situation:

> *Actually, I really want to go to a private course after school but I do not have money. I know my father does not have money either. And I do not want to be a burden. I have not told my father that I want to have a private course.*

The school

The school's resources

From my observations in the study school and from interviews with students, it was clear that the lack of resources for students' learning in the school including poor library, laboratory equipment, and computer affected the young people's learning. In fact, a better library with more textbooks and computer facilities were among students' answers when I asked them in their interview to name three things that they wished to see at the school to help them learn better. Library and computers were also among the most common objects in students' drawings. Interestingly, while teachers perceived their students as having low motivation to study, especially in reading and making use of the school library, many students took photos of the

school library as the place they perceived as important for their lives at school. They perceived a good library and computer facilities were indications of a good or ideal school. Figure 5.5. is a photo of the school's library taken by a student[13].

Figure 5.5: A student's photo of the school library.

Sport facilities were also important for students, particularly male students. Many students drew a soccer field in their drawings, took photos of students playing sport or simply of students who kicked balls in the schoolyard. In their interviews students also expressed their wish that the school would have better sport facilities. On Saturdays, as I often observed, most students chose sport as their preference for free activities in the morning. However, according to some students, the school did not have good sport facilities. When asked about what they did not like about the school, some students also mentioned the poor sport facilities, as illustrated in the following excerpt of the interview with Rahmat and Razali:

> Rahmat: *The sport field. This school has no good sport field.*
> Fadliadi: *Do you mean places for sport?*
> Rahmat: *Let's say a soccer field*
> Razali: *And there is no soccer ball, either.*
> Rahmat: *When we play soccer, it hurts our feet. And when we play badminton, there is no net. Nothing is available. I do not like it.*

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[13] The faces in the photo has been blurred for ethical reasons

Razali: *When we play soccer, we might fall into that well. There is a little unused well in there. How can we play soccer with the well there?*

Rahmat: *We might fall into that well.*

The school's location and environment

The school's lack of public transport access was a challenge for some students, as indicated by Razali and Rahmat in their interviews. Rahmat wished for a school bus so that they could save time and energy going to and from school. I saw that many students had to walk to the nearest bus stop where they caught the bus to and from school. More specifically, with regards to the unavailability of public transport, Razali commented that, "Sometimes I am late. Then I would not enter the classroom".

In addition, the location of the school close to the centre of a garbage disposal area seemed to affect students' learning at the school. During my classroom observations, I noticed the very bad smell coming from the garbage disposal area and that students were affected by it. Moreover, the classrooms were hot, affecting the concentration of those in the rooms. I could see teachers' and students' discomfort during the lessons, using their books to fan themselves (Field note, 26 April, 14 May, 18 May, and 3 June, 2010).

The school's regulations

Some students also complained about the school regulations, which, according to them, were not properly enforced in the school. For example Qamariah and Meutia, the two female students seemed to be unhappy about the cleaning duties as most of the time they had to do it alone while other students in their group simply ignored their responsibility. When I asked them about punishments and rewards regarding the cleaning duties, they said that they were not rewarded and the other students were not punished. Ridwan commented, "Actually, there was a punishment for that but it was only an empty threat". I did not see any regulations posted in the classroom about classroom behaviour' for example, what students can or cannot do in class or in the school. The school actually passed a new regulation when I was there in which students were given penalty points for their misbehaviour. If a student accumulated a

certain number of points, a certain punishment would then be applied to the student. Students said that they just heard the penalty points read out to them by their classroom teacher but they never really saw a written version of the regulation. Most students I asked said that they did not fully understand or remember about the points.

Peers

During my presence in the study school, I often heard teachers relate that many students in the school were "naughty". When I queried this with students in the interviews, all students seemed to agree that there were many students in the school who were naughty. "The naughty ones like to do whatever they want", said Qamariah. She said that they "used dirty language", "rebelled against teachers, and "did not do their classroom cleaning duties". In term of discipline, Rahmat commented that, "Students are not very disciplined…Some students do not wear the school badge. Some do not wear a school hat."

Some students in their interviews complained that misbehaving fellow students made them talk during the lessons or making noise in class. For example, Razali said, "I do have problems. My problems come from other students…They ask me about things and make me talk while I am trying to focus on the lesson. They disturb me." Rifqi also felt unhappy about some of his classmates. He said, "There are some classmates next to me who laugh at me because I am not good at lessons. They should not be like that."

Teachers

Students' comments about their teachers either in their drawings, photos, or interviews were generally in negative terms. These included students' views of their teachers' teaching practice and commitment and interaction with students affecting the students' learning.

Teacher teaching practice

In interviews with students, I asked their opinions about the cause of students' lack of engagement with the lessons in classrooms. The common responses included that the teaching was not interesting and engaging as teachers generally only wrote the lesson on the blackboard for them to copy or simply gave a lecture on the lesson and

the way they taught was difficult to understand. When I challenged Qamariah in the interview as to whether teachers in the school put every effort into teaching well so students could learn well, she indicated, "Teachers' efforts in teaching were yet to be maximal". In addition, some students seemed to be unhappy that some teachers left their class unattended during the lesson, allowing students to engage in off-task activities including misbehaving which in the end got them into trouble. Rahmat critically commented:

> *They asked students to write from the textbooks and then they left the class. They just sit over there...How can we not make noise when there is no teacher in the class? If they are in the class, it is impossible to be noisy or go in and out of the classroom.*

In the interviews I also intended to find out what students expect from their teacher in terms of teaching so that they could learn better. Although students found it difficult to articulate, in general they expected teachers to deliver their lessons in a way that was easy for students to understand, teach in a fun way with some humour so students would not be bored and explain the lesson until the students understood it, repeating if students did not understand. Indeed, students mentioned that they liked some teachers because their teaching was interesting and easy to understand. Zainal, in particular, mentioned group work or discussion as useful and helpful. He noted that, "Group work gives me the opportunity to discuss the lesson that I do not understand with other students who understand it". He also took a photo of a group at work in his class, as shown in Figure 5.6[14].

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[14] The faces and objects in the photo has been blurred for ethical reasons

Figure 5.6: Group work or discussion

Teachers' attitude towards students

In general, students' views of teachers' interaction with students were also in negative terms. Some students perceived their teachers as not caring and not understanding of their problems. Rahmat and Razali were particularly critical about the teachers' attitude towards students. They commented that teachers tended to reprimand students if they happened to make mistakes and exaggerated the problems including calling parents to come to school without considering that parents might not be available at that particular time. This situation affected these students' participation and engagement with school and learning. Razali commented:

> *If we made a little mistake, they would taunt us with vile language, for example when we arrived late to school. Then it is not comfortable anymore. They would say nasty things. So we lost our morale and were unmotivated after that.*

About a particular teacher, Rahmat said:

> *Like when I was in the first and second year. There was one particular teacher that I did not like. I did not attend the class if the teacher was there. I waited until the teacher finished the lesson, then I would enter the classroom.*

In addition, some students in the interviews expressed their disappointment that teachers seemed to give priority to clever students over the not clever ones. When I asked Mulyadi what he did not like about school, he said, "The teachers…because they do not care about students…They only care about students who are clever. Those who are not clever are ignored". Rifqi who sat in the back row in his class commented:

> *That (subject) teacher never asks me whether I have understood the lesson or not. But she asks other students…other teachers are also the same. They do not ask me…They only ask those who sit in the front row.*

This student expected that teachers should not just sit at their desk during the lesson but control the class to make sure that all students were doing the set tasks. He said,

> *Teachers should not just sit at their desk. They should come to the back rows of the class to monitor whether or not students in the back rows are doing the tasks…If they do not do that, students in the back rows simply do not do their task…For example I do not feel like learning today because I know teachers will not even bother to come to the back row. Why should I bother to learn?*

When asked about their perception of a 'good teacher', understanding and care were the two most common attributes that students associated with a good teacher. A female student who did not participate in interviews but voluntarily participated in the photo activity particularly expected teachers to talk to their students and get to know them. In fact, she quietly took a photo of me when I was talking to a student in the schoolyard during the lesson break. When I asked her why she photographed me, she said, "I want teachers to be like you who come to students and talk to them". According to her, teachers rarely approached students for a conversation outside the classroom (Field note, 20 July, 2010). This was confirmed by another student in the interview, "I just feel hesitant towards teachers. If they do not begin a conversation then I would not start. If they ask me something then I would talk to them. But teachers rarely begin a conversation."

Students' coping strategies and future aspirations

From my observations, the students at the study school and certainly those directly involved in this study, were 'wonderful children' and in their own ways coped with challenges confronting them both inside and outside school. Despite the difficulties, they had high expectations of their future. The ways the students coped with the challenges confronting them in daily life are identified in this section. Their future aspirations are also presented.

Coping strategies

During and /or after each interview, I always made sure that the students did not have problems with me asking them questions about their life and they all said that they had no problem with my interview. In fact, when I asked Wahid whether it was important for him to have someone to talk to like I was doing in the interview, he said, "It is important so they understand me." Interestingly, none of the student interviewees had received professional support or had been interviewed by professional adults such as psychologists about their difficulties resulting from the tsunami except Rifqi who was interviewed by a person from Medan. However, he said he was scared at the time because he was asked about the tsunami and his mother. He said, "All the tsunami children there were interviewed. We were asked to go with him to Medan but my brother said no to me, worrying about child trafficking."

I was given little information from the young people directly about how they coped with their problems in daily life. Many students only gave short answers. Some students said they played with friends, played games or read books to overcome their problems. Other students chose to escape from or avoid their problems, such as Adnan who would go away when he was sad remembering his parents, or Rifqi who would take his bike to play with friends or play soccer to avoid being alone and trapped in the memory of the tsunami. Work could also be regarded as a coping strategy for some of the students. For example Wahid, Rahmat, and Rifqi would look for a job to earn money to cope with their financial difficulties including fulfilling their daily needs and school needs. For example, in response to my question about

his coping strategies, Wahid directly said, "Work. For example I collect the recyclable plastic bottles to have money".

Some students engaged in anti-social behaviour to cope with their problems such as smoking. Wahid, for example, said in the interview, "I used some of the money I earn for playing games and some for buying cigarettes...I would be stressed at home if I did not have cigarettes". When asked why it had to be smoking to cope with his problems, Wahid replied, "Because it has sensational feelings...There is a feeling of dizziness, especially if we suck the smoke in very deeply, we hold it in and release it slowly. I just cannot explain the sensation." From the photos that he took to show things important to him in the school, the school toilet and a friend who was smoking at the school during the school hours were among the subjects in his photos. In fact, he took four photos of the school toilet. When I asked him what the school toilet meant to him and why it was important, he said it was because the toilet was his favourite place at the school where he could secretly smoke. He also said that he was not the only student who smoked at school but that many students did it. Wahid had also taken drugs to overcome his problems, which he claimed mainly came from home:

> *Sometimes, like the other day, I was persuaded by friends to get drunk. Not drinking alcohol but taking drugs such as cough tablets. The dose was one but I was given overdoses to get drunk...My head was so sick that day...And I was unconscious.*

Wahid also told me in the interview about his brother who used to smoke and take marijuana.

> *At the time he was stopping taking the marijuana, his body temperature was very high and at the same time his body was very cold, too. He covered his body even his face with a thick jacket plus layers of clothes until he sweated all over his body. The next day he slept from afternoon until the next morning. Then he felt better.*

With regards to people to turn to when they had problems, friends seemed to be important persons in the life of the young people. Most student interviewees preferred to talk to friends when they had problems or issues. Many indicated that

they talked only to certain friend(s). Razali said, "I feel it is easier and more comfortable to talk with friends. With adults, it is hard. They might misunderstand what I am trying to say. We and adults see thing differently." Some students also did not seem to trust teachers to talk to about their problems. Adnan, for example said, "I am scared to tell my problems to teachers...I do not believe that they will not disclose it to other teachers". Two students in particular felt more comfortable talking to their parents when they had problems instead of telling anybody else including friends or teachers.

When I asked about their coping strategies, I expected that students would mention religion considering that Aceh is known as the religious society. However, none of the students directly mentioned religion or religious activities as means of coping. However, religion still seemed to be an important aspect of the lives of many students in the school. In their drawings, 46 out of the 127 students who participated in the drawing activity included 'Mushalla' or the prayer room as important in their ideal school. Four of eight students who individually took photos of important things in the school included the school's prayer room. The prayer room was also in the photos taken by students in groups. In addition, one female student in particular took a photo of the sky, as she believed that God lives in the sky. The girl told me that she always prayed that God would take care of her aunt who passed away in the tsunami and that God would not send another tsunami.

I asked the students whether they were scared of the tsunami and the earthquakes that often occurred in Aceh especially since the tsunami, including the earthquake that occurred just prior to the interview. Razali and Wahid said that they personally were not scared anymore and if their time comes they will just die. This indicated that they had fully submitted to God about their fate, believing whatever happened was God's will. In fact, Islam teaches that whatever happens in life, either positive or negative, is from God and that people have to maintain their connectedness with God when they are tested with difficulties or adversities (Wolin et al., 2009). Such fatalism enables Muslims to accept whatever happens to them and cope with the difficulties confronting them (Wolin et al., 2009).

Future aspirations

In each interview, I asked the young people about their future aspirations; what they were going to do after completing the junior high school or the future in terms of their future occupation. This question was important to me because the teachers said that students in the school had low levels of motivation and I wanted to hear the young people's views about the value of education for their future.

Some students had very precise ideas about what they wanted to be in the future. For example Qamariah confidently said that she wanted to be a film director and Wahid wanted to be a doctor. Meutia wanted to be a teacher, as she loved teaching young people and Adnan wanted to be a soldier because he wanted to be in the front line to defend the country.

While some students had a clear idea about what they wanted to do in the future, they seemed to find it difficult to say why they chose certain types career options. Among this group were Zainal and Ridwan who wanted to be policemen or Mulyadi who wanted to be a businessman. Interestingly, for some students, like Rahmat and Razali, who repeatedly mentioned that they wanted to be successful, achieving their future aspirations was more than a personal goal or achievement. It was actually for their family, to help the family or make them proud and repay them for the family's sacrifice. For example when asked why it was important for them to be successful, Rahmat said, "To make proud the people who feed us and those who are close to us. Basically, I want to make it worth for them raising us". Razali added, "So the money they have spent for us is not useless". Similarly, Rifqi, who was from a poor family, wanted to be successful in order to be able to look after his mother and little sister by providing them with financial support.

All the students seemed to have the sense that they could achieve their goal. As Wahid said, "I am sure that I can be a doctor. I have a strong will and if I am determined, I am sure I can. Nothing is impossible." Rahmat commented, "I know that my father as well as my brother only graduated from high school. I should be at least the one in the family who can be a successful person. I will put all my effort into being a successful person." Some students seemed to understand what they needed to do to prepare while they were still at school to achieve their career aspirations. Wahid said that he liked science subjects such as biology, chemistry, and

physics as he believed that "They are related to medicine". Rahmat who wanted to be a soldier joined the Boy Scout program in the school as preparation. Table 5.2 summarizes the ten students' future aspirations.

Table 5.2: Students' future aspirations

Students' pseudonym	Career aspiration
Adnan	Soldier
Meutia	Teacher
Mulyadi	Businessman
Rahmat	Successful person; Businessman or soldier
Razali	Successful person; Businessman
Ridwan	Policeman
Qamariah	Film director
Rifqi	Navy captain
Wahid	Doctor
Zainal	Policeman

Summary of the chapter

In this chapter, the analysis of students' data provides insights into the lives of the young people from the study school after the tsunami. The findings provide evidence that young people in the study school were facing a number of challenges both in their personal and school related life that could be the direct or indirect impact of the tsunami. Personal challenges included the difficulties in erasing the memory of the tsunami and their experiences, grieving and the impact of the loss of significant people in their life such as parents. Having to work to support their life also affected their learning at school and at home.

School-related challenges included the lack of facilities available at school to support their learning. The school environment and regulations, issues dealing with peers and teachers, and personal and home factors affected the students' learning both at school and home. In this chapter, I have also identified the students' coping strategies and discussed their future aspirations. In the next chapter, I present findings from

teachers' data to look at the teachers' challenges in the school at the time of the study.

CHAPTER SIX
FOCUS ON TEACHERS' DATA

Introduction

Findings presented in this chapter were from interviews with the eleven teachers and supported by observational data including classroom observations and informal conversations with teachers at the school. In addition, as part of the process of analysis, it was necessary to access additional literature to that reviewed in Chapter Two in order to fully understand and interpret the emerging issues from the teachers' data. The observations and interviews with the eleven teachers, whose profiles are presented in Table 6.1, could be regarded as representing the common views of many of the teachers in the school. This deduction is based on my long presence in the school and interactions, including informal conversations, with all the teachers during the data collection period.

Table 6.1: Profiles of teacher participants.

Teachers' pseudonyms	Age	Sex	Education	General information
Ibu Aini	57	Female	S1[15]	She was a senior teacher with the additional role as a counsellor mainly dealing with troubled students.
Pak Armia	52	Male	S1	He was a teacher in the study school before the tsunami. Later he became the principal of the school after spending a few years teaching at another school in Banda Aceh. He also taught for couple hours a week.
Ibu Lia	28	Female	S1	She was a young teacher who had just started her teaching career in 2009. Her status at the school was as a non-permanent teacher. In addition to teaching a subject, she organised the school scout activity. At home, she helped her husband with his furniture business. She lost two sisters in the tsunami and her house.
Pak Mahdi	47	Male	D3[16]	He started teaching at the study school in 2007, having transferred from a school in a neighbouring suburb after teaching there for a year. In addition to teaching his own main subject, he taught another subject because there was no teacher for that subject in the school. He also had a side job fixing the tires of cars and motorbikes and selling petrol.
Pak Mahmud	51	Male	S1	He was a senior teacher in the school having begun teaching in 1986. He was also a community religious leader in the community. He was a tsunami survivor.
Ibu Maryam	51	Female	S1	She had been teaching since 1983 but began teaching at the study school in 1985. She had the additional role of coordinator of school extra-curricular activities. She also ran a home-based business to earn extra income that she said she was saving for her retirement.
Pak Nazar	51	Male	S1	He began teaching at the study school in 1991. He was also the vice principal.

[15] A four year full teaching qualification
[16] A three year teaching qualification

Teachers' pseudonyms	Age	Sex	Education	General information
Ibu Nurul	49	Female	S1	She, her husband and a daughter survived the tsunami water but lost their home. She began teaching in 1984. At the school she taught three different subjects due to unavailability of the teachers in those subject areas.
Pak Surya	52	Male	D2[17]	This teacher had been teaching since 1982. He survived the tsunami but lost everything including wife, three children, and his house. In addition to teaching at the school, he was secretary of the village administration.
Ibu Tika	49	Female	D3	She survived the tsunami, but lost one child and her home that she had just moved into a week before the tsunami. She had been teaching since 1981 and had moved to the study school in 2004 to follow her husband, also a teacher, who had moved to a school in Banda Aceh. She had the role of vice principal dealing with students' affairs in addition to teaching her main subject.
Ibu Zuhra	50	Female	S1	She was a senior teacher who began teaching in 1985. She survived the tsunami but lost her home, her husband and one son. In addition to teaching in all nine classes from grade one to grade three she also looked after the school canteen.

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[17] A two year teaching qualification

Collecting data from teachers was intended to obtain teachers' view about challenges they were facing in teaching at a tsunami-affected school, particularly at the time of the study. The questions asked were generally the same for all the participant teachers regardless of the subject they were teaching and their role in the school, based on the interview guides initially prepared. In the interviews with teachers, some of the questions were, "What do you see as the difference between teaching before and after the tsunami?" "Do you see that students are still affected by the tsunami?" "What do you need to be provided in order to enable you to improve your teaching?"

I have to admit that it was impossible to omit the word 'tsunami' from my interview questions given the topic under investigation. Mention of the tsunami, however, could unintentionally cause the participants to re-live their experience of the tragedy. I made sure prior to and during the interviews that teachers knew they did not have to answer any questions they did not wish to and could stop the interview at any point if they felt uncomfortable. Although some teachers were sad during the interviews, they assured me that they were fine and happy that they could share their stories with me.

Each interview or conversation with teachers gave me the impression that they had tried their best to fulfil their assigned duties. Whatever attitudes teachers had towards their profession including their thoughts about the school and its personnel, one common theme was that teaching was not only about transferring knowledge to students but was also about helping and educating young people to be better and successful people. Therefore, the teachers stressed that they would perform their teaching duties wholeheartedly and totally responsibly. For example, many teachers said that teaching was their ideal or life's aspiration. As Ibu Tika, who had been teaching since 1981 said, "Becoming a teacher is my life aspiration. It is not something that I do just for fun".

However, to perform at their best did not seem to be an easy task for many teachers. The current situation at the school had affected their teaching, leading them to view their role in negative ways. Some teachers even perceived their work at the school as more stressful and challenging after the tsunami. Teachers mentioned a number of factors that contributed to their work difficulties. These factors, which are similar to

the factors Wilhelm and colleagues (2000) identified, included a lack of supportive teaching facilities and resources at school, poor collegiality among teachers, students' difficult circumstances, lack of parental support, and problematic school leadership. Teachers perceived that support and resources must be provided for them to be able to perform their work well, but complained that such support including opportunities for professional development was lacking. In fact, there was a lot of negative 'talk' among the teachers about how the school was after the tsunami. From the negative 'talk', it was possible to extract a range of challenges that remained for teachers individually and collectively and for the school more generally.

Although I did not specifically ask teachers about their personal lives including their experience with the tsunami, some teachers, at various points in their interviews, related their experiences of the tragedy including their personal life stories. These stories emerged as important data to better understand the context of these teachers at this tsunami-affected school. They could not be ignored as it became clear through the interviews that their personal lives affected their professional lives at school. Therefore, in this chapter, I include these stories as part of the findings although originally I had not considered them an important source for the present study.

Teachers' experience of the tsunami

To some degree, nearly all teachers in the study school experienced the tsunami as they were in Banda Aceh when the tragedy hit in December 26, 2004. Of all current teachers and staff, many lost family members, relatives, and property as indicated in the teacher profile in Table 6.1. From my communication with teachers in the school, I realised that some of them seemed to be still living in the shadow of their tsunami experience. In this section, I relate stories of some teachers to illustrate their experience of the tsunami and how the experience affected their personal and professional lives. Their stories were only a few of many other possible stories that teachers in the school could have told. What became clear from their personal stories was that the tsunami created life difficulties, especially for the teachers who were directly affected.

For example, although I did not specifically ask about her tsunami experience and made sure that she knew she did not have to tell me anything that would make her

sad in the interview and that she could stop the interview anytime she wanted to, Ibu Tika was in tears as she was telling me about her experience of the tsunami. She noted that her life was shattered and hopeless, particularly in the early months after the tsunami.

> *On 15 December 2004, I moved in to our new home... But God had a different plan. The tsunami hit Aceh on 26 December 2004 and I lost everything that I had. At that time I prayed to God with all my heart and soul that I accepted his will if I had to die on that day. I thought it was the Judgment day that God promises. "If there was any good deed I have done in my life that You accept, please save me", I said in my prayer to God. God answered my prayer and He saved me from the water that I believe was about 15 meters in height. I keep praying and praying and asking God to reunite me with my children and husband whoever is alive. Again, my prayer was answered. I saw my husband in the debris of a destroyed house. I called out to him and he came to me crawling on his hands and knees. Then I met my son. I said to him, "I cannot stand anymore and I am likely to die any minute. You be good to your father". Having heard that, he lay down at my feet and said, "Mom, please look after us. Please be strong. If you are not strong how can we be strong?"[18] At that time, I just submitted to my fate. I said to my son, "Don't cry. I need some water". He and my husband then went to find some water. I drank to clean my stomach as I had swallowed lots of tsunami water. That night, I slept on the street with many dead bodies around me. The next day, I asked my husband to go along to look for my youngest child who had been swept from my arms…Another earthquake happened and people yelled that the seawater was rising again. We quickly went back to meet our two children that we left. In short, we arrived (at a hill area in Banda Aceh) and stayed overnight there. We then went to a relative of my husband in (a suburb in Banda Aceh) and stayed there for 6 months. Life during those six months was not easy for us. In June 2005, I moved to a tsunami refugee barrack in (a suburb in Great Aceh district) and I began to manage my life again with a broken heart while I kept looking for help here and there. At last, we got a little 6 x 6m house from an NGO in 2007.*

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[18] with a voice full of sorrow, Ibu Tika cried very quietly and then continued the interview

Ibu Tika was thankful that the NGO provided her and her family with the small house. But the one bedroom house was simply too small to accommodate her, her husband, and two surviving children. It had no room for her two different sex children who were reaching adolescence at that time. Therefore, she took another loan from a bank to expand her house. As a consequence, all her salary from teaching at the study school, which, according to her, was not much compared to other teachers in the school who had obtained teacher certification, was directly debited by the bank to pay her mortgage. To that reality, she commented, "It was so sad looking at other colleagues when they signed the pay slip and took the money with them while I only signed the slip but took no money with me".

To deal with her financial difficulties after the tsunami, Ibu Tika worked at other jobs by teaching at other institutions as well. In the second interview, she acknowledged that although she was doing the best she could in her main task as a teacher, she had limited time to be available at the study school for extra work because of her work outside the school including the side jobs to earn extra income to meet her financial commitments. She regretfully said, "I could have done more but I have much work to do".

Moreover, Ibu Tika seemed to be living in the shadow of her tsunami experience and this was confirmed by one of her colleagues. The teacher mentioned that Ibu Tika, who denied in her own interview that she was still in trauma because of the tsunami, panicked when she was supervising students in a 'Malam Pramuka' (a boy scout night) at the school and an earthquake suddenly struck the area. According to the teacher, Ibu Tika was scared and panicked, thinking of her own children at home. At 3 a.m. she just wanted to go home to be with her children while the distance between the school and her house was more than ten kilometres. That teacher's description of how she felt sorry for Ibu Tika and had to calm her down at the time indicated that Ibu Tika was still affected by her tsunami experience. A similar comment from another teacher, although it was not specifically about Ibu Tika, supports this view.

> *I believe the memory of the tsunami experience is still in teachers' minds. And they are scared of the tsunami even though they might literally say they are not. I believe teachers still have those scared thoughts about the tsunami...Even when I am at home and it is raining and I see the dark sky over the village where the school is located, I am scared.* (Ibu Maryam)

Like Ibu Tika, Pak Surya, who lost his house and all his family members, was also living under the shadow of his tsunami experience. He told me that one day he went to a nearby suburb and saw a girl who looked very much like his late daughter. He could not forget the girl's face and that brought back the memory of his own daughter for days and days. He promised himself that he would never go back to that area, as he was scared that he might see the girl again. What made life even more difficult for him was he was told by one of his neighbours that he saw his oldest son alive a day after the tsunami in Banda Aceh in an injured condition. Pak Surya was still in great hope that he would one day meet his oldest son. He even often had a dream of that son asking him for help. "Maybe it is true that my son is still alive somewhere now. Every day I pray that I will meet him again one day", said Pak Surya to me with a sort of wondering look in his eyes and an unsure expression (Field notes, June 11, 2010).

When I asked Pak Surya about other people who said that the trauma of the tsunami no longer existed, he said that it would probably be easy for them to say that. He referred to himself as an example of someone who lived with the memory of his family destroyed in the tsunami even though he had remarried. "It is not the same. It does not mean that I do not like my present family. But it is simply not the same. The memory of my first wife and all the children never leaves my mind", he said. He strongly believed that it would be very difficult to simply escape from the memory of the tsunami for people who were directly affected. He indicated that it was even hard for him to work at school as looking at the students' faces sometimes reminded him of all his children who were lost in the tsunami, especially in the early years after the tsunami. This teacher continued to say that many people did not seem to understand what sort of life he had been through since the tsunami. According to him, instead of being sensitive and showing empathy and sympathy to his situation, colleagues in the school were judgmental (Jarzabkowski, 2002) labelling him as a sickly and lazy teacher who often did not attend his classes (Field notes, June 11, 2010). Although research suggests that it is important for teachers not to isolate themselves from others (Jarzabkowski, 2002; McWilliam & Singh, 2004), Pak Surya said he preferred to be on his own at school.

For Pak Surya, teaching seemed to be a matter of having no other choice about what to do for a living (Bastick, 2000). As he became physically unwell after the tragedy, Pak Surya no longer did his best at teaching and other tasks at school. He openly admitted that he did what was assigned to him as a matter of getting the job done and to avoid being reprimanded by his superiors, referring to the principal or people from the office of

the Department of Education. Pak Surya revealed that he was pessimistic now compared to before the tsunami. He mentioned that the school had won a number of sport competitions before the tsunami under his active role as a PE teacher but now:

> *It is much different in terms of the achievement I have between before and after the tsunami...After the tsunami, my teaching is not efficient and I do not achieve the target. It is only to get my tasks done as a teacher who works for the government but not for an achievement anymore. I no longer think of making an achievement since I am physically ill, have problems with economy, and everything else. It is only as long as I am not reprimanded by the superiors and related parties. I have given up achieving something.*

Furthermore, because of his illness after the tsunami, Pak Surya was also unable to make extra income as he used to. He said that before the tsunami he used to go fishing or crabbing with his oldest son after school for extra income but he could no longer do that and was having financial difficulties to support his life and his present family (Field notes, June 3, 2010).

Another teacher, Ibu Zuhra, who lost a son in the tsunami, also found that it was sometimes difficult to work at school. She often remembered her son when she was teaching, especially when she saw students who were not behaving. She became sad even while teaching in class. She always remembered the son that she described as a very good and obedient boy, comparing him to the students in the school whom many teachers described as 'naughty' (Personal communication with Ibu Zuhra, May 14, 2010). When I asked her opinion about whether the impact of the tsunami on teachers and students was diminishing now, Ibu Zuhra said, "It might be small for those who did not directly experience it...But for me who experienced it, it is..." Ibu Zuhra did not finish her statement but seemed to suggest that the impact of the tsunami on her persisted. The school principal also expressed a similar view:

> *For the outsiders, they might say "uh that is nonsense!" But for those who directly experienced it themselves, a little shock of an earthquake or a strong wind will make them panicky. Why? Because they experienced how bad the tsunami was. For us who did not directly experience it, ...we might not really care about it because we did not have that sort of experience. Or some people might think it is funny when those with the tsunami experience are running*

for their lives anytime something that scares them happens...We can ask Karim[19] here who lost his wife, swept from his arms by the tsunami. He is still very scared and his alertness to the tsunami stimuli is high. Students are also the same. They panic and just run away from their classes even when there is a small earthquake.

My own experience indicates that the memory of tsunami experience persists, and this is illustrated in the following research note:

This afternoon, I went to the beach (near the study school). This was the first time I had gone to a beach since I came back to Aceh for my data collection a couple of months ago. Actually, a friend of mine from my hometown in Bireuen came to Banda Aceh for a holiday and stayed with me during his short holiday in the city. We decided to go out for some fresh air and we agreed to go to a beach. I suggested we go to the beach near my study school, thinking to dig two holes at once: accompanying a friend for his holiday and also get to know more the area of my research site.

I passed by the school and showed him the surrounding area. The area was quiet as usual. Most houses were closed. Only a few people were around. On the way to the beach, again I saw many houses, although I was not even sure if they even were houses, with piles of recycling goods, mostly plastics, in front. Some people there were busy sorting things from the rubbish. I believed they were the villagers who were looking for recycling goods for their living.

Before we reached the beach, I had to pass the garbage disposal centre which many students and teachers had told me about. What they had told me was true. It was so smelly that I could hardly breathe and nearly vomited. My friend was the same. We both grumbled as we passed the centre and I sped up my motorbike hoping it could fly past the area as quickly as possible.

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[19] An administrative staff at the study school

We finally arrived at the beach. A few people were sitting near the beach and some were swimming. My friend and I were walking along the rock wall, which was actually built after the tsunami to protect the land from the big waves. A strange feeling suddenly hit me. The memory of the tsunami came back again. It was probably because I was at the tsunami beach and was influenced by stories I heard from people in the school. I do not know. I was imagining big waves and that the tsunami would come suddenly, killing me. Dead bodies, panicking people, collapsed buildings, just as I had seen in the last tsunami, were clearly pictured right in front of my eyes. I was scared. I did not feel comfortable at all to be at the beach but I did not want to tell my friend. I was afraid that he would laugh or tease me. I was silent hoping we could just go away from the beach. The memory of the tsunami was, in fact, still raw. (Field notes, Sunday, 1 August, 2010)

Thus, I came to the conclusion that it is not easy to simply forget the tsunami, especially for the people who experienced it themselves. When people are stimulated by things that can bring back the memory of the disaster, they continue to re-live their experience of it. It was also clear that teachers, particularly those who had directly experienced the tsunami, were in life difficulties, including psychological and financial difficulties, and these to some degree affected their professional role as teachers at school.

The interviews conducted with the teachers revealed the need for recognition of the complexity of the inter-connections between the personal and professional effects of disasters, including the potential flow-on 'teacher with student' effects within a school context. Although the teachers did not actually articulate this in their interviews, it was clear that they were in need of psychological and financial support, in order to enable them to cope with the personal challenges confronting them.

Teaching resources and teacher pedagogy

Data provided evidence that the teachers struggled with their teaching due to limited resources supporting their teaching and students' learning. The teachers tended to

compare their school to other schools in the neighbouring suburbs. Some referred to the fact that because their school was rebuilt by the government which had a limited budget, the quality of facilities and other infrastructure and resources in the school was poorer than some of the other schools in the neighbouring suburbs which were rebuilt by international NGOs. In this case, most teachers in the study school seemed pessimistic about their capacity to improve their teaching and students' learning in the school.

One of the most common comments from teachers with regard to their challenges in teaching was a lack of textbooks. Two teachers, for example, commented:

> *We do not have a [good] library. There is no good book at all... Most books are out of date...The books provided by the local office of Department of Education were not relevant with current teaching. I cannot use those books. I have to buy books myself that I can use for teaching.* (Ibu Nurul)

> *It is only this semester that the textbooks that I need for my subject are available in this school. It has been six years since the tsunami now. It means the textbooks for the subject are only now available six years after the tsunami. Before, I had to work very hard to write the lessons on the blackboard like the old fashioned-teaching method. I always wrote on the blackboard and that sort of thing.* (Pak Mahmud)

Most teachers were relying on old traditional teacher-centred 'chalk-and-talk' and lecturing methods in their classroom teaching practices (Thair & Treagust, 2003). Teachers wrote lessons on the blackboard for students to copy. As a result, students were passive recipients who copied and memorised the lessons (Thair & Treagust, 2003). Ibu Maryam, who was critical about teachers' teaching methods in the study school, said, "If we are only busy with writing lessons on the blackboard for students to copy, students will not engage in the lessons". Similarly, Pak Surya commented, "the ways we were teaching is probably not interesting, failing to attract students' interest. For example, we talk too much and are boring".

In addition to a lack of textbooks, teachers who taught technology including computer skills and science related subjects such as biology were frustrated because there was no media or equipment at all at the school for those subjects. When I

observed a biology class, in which part of the lesson on that day was about cells, the teacher said to the class that it would be much more interesting to learn about cells if they had a microscope so that students could directly observe a cell themselves. The teacher who taught computer skills conveyed his frustration and cynically said, "It is like teaching people how to fish but they do not even have a fishing rod. It is impossible". The teacher grumbled that he could only talk in front of the class about computers but could not show students what he was talking about. Both the biology and technology teachers recalled that their teaching was best when the school was receiving support from an NGO immediately right after the tsunami. At that time a small van equipped with about ten computers and laboratory equipment came to the school regularly twice a week, and teachers and students were enthusiastic about teaching and learning. While they were frustrated, some teachers in the school seemed to understand that they might not have done enough to achieve effective teaching and learning. Pak Surya said, "It was not only the students' fault when they did not make good progress because the teachers' teaching itself was not optimal".

While many teachers believed that it was the principal as the head of the school who had the responsibility to ensure the provision of materials for quality teaching and learning, in his interview the principal insisted that he had done what he could to improve the quality of the school's facilities and infrastructure including the teaching and learning resources but it was difficult. The principal pointed out that the funding allocated by the government was based on the number of student enrolments and therefore they received limited funding because of their low student numbers. Some proposals he had lodged for funding were also unsuccessful. The principal asserted that the opportunity for receiving funding from donors had become very limited since he became principal. Moreover, agreeing with teachers' comments, the principal noted that it was unlikely to expect financial support from parents whose economic condition was poor. They were unable to provide textbooks for their children, which in turn would help teachers with teaching. The principal noted:

> *It is problematic to expect the support of parents whose own economic conditions were so precarious. They probably only have just enough money for food. I know it is not because they do not want to give when we ask.*

Without the needed support, teachers had become reluctant to do what they were required. This had very much affected the commitment of teachers to provide high quality of teaching in the school. This is indicated in the following interview excerpts:

> *I have not prepared anything so far. Why haven't I? Like I said before, the problem is with money. Anytime we need something we have to get it using money from our own pockets...Because of that, I become annoyed.* (Ibu Maryam)

> *I used to prepare teaching materials so that I can show students what I am going to teach for specific lessons...Since I no longer receive any financial support for my teaching, I give up!* (Ibu Aini)

> *We are always asked to write what sort of books we need. But it goes nowhere after that, only a matter of writing what books we need. The realisation was nil. Therefore, I just do what I can for my teaching.* (Ibu Nurul)

Teachers' expectation and attitude towards students and their families

Research has suggested that teachers' beliefs about and attitudes towards their students affect their pedagogical practice, including the ways they interact with students and manage the class (Bartholomaeus, 2000). This phenomenon was evident in the study school in which many teachers perceived students as academically incompetent and with behaviour issues. Thus, teachers in general had a low expectation of their student's learning and achievement and of their own teaching and capacity to make a change.

> *Students, whose academic competence is low, affect the way we teach. They find it difficult to keep up with school tasks. It does not matter how hard we try or how clever their teachers are, students are still not going to make much progress in learning because their ability is so limited. Not much we can do about it because of the level of their competence.* (Ibu Tika)

Teachers' lower expectations of students seemed to restrict their teaching practice and students' learning. For example, some teachers thought students' group learning or discussions were inappropriate because they believed students did not have the ability to study independently.

> *People might see that I never set group learning activities. I do not let students sit in groups. That is my principle. There are more students who are unable than who are able in classes. Thus, students will take that opportunity for not doing tasks. Only four students who are able in a class do the tasks while the rest do not. It will be different if group learning is conducted in privileged schools. Those schools can do that.* (Ibu Nurul)

Moreover, teachers kept comparing the current students to the students before the tsunami especially in terms of their behaviour. They referred to the current students as misbehaving, such as not paying attention in class. The teachers stressed that most of the students' problems were actually home-based, caused by family circumstances that might or might not be the result of the tsunami, such as the death of parents affecting the quality of parental care. The teachers believed that unless they really tried to understand students and got to know their problems and family background, it was likely that they become upset at the misbehaviour. This is noted in the following interview excerpts with some teachers:

> *Most students here have problems. There are students whose parents are divorced, students whose parents were killed in the tsunami, students who have no father and the mother has remarried or vice versa. I used to be upset when they misbehaved or were lazy. But after I asked them, I know most of them have home-based problems including the death of a father and the remarriage of their mother. So, most students are traumatised due to their dysfunctional family that might not be as a result of the tsunami. That is why I am so concerned about them.* (Ibu Tika)

> *During the teaching and learning process in classroom, there is a huge difference in students...between before and after the tsunami...Students before the tsunami had good attitudes and good behaviour. Their personality was also good. But if we compare them with the students of today, it is very different in terms of their personality, attitudes, behaviour and everything*

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else. It is because current students might have problems which are due to their 'broken home' and that sort of thing including death of parents. (Ibu Maryam)

One more thing that is very obvious now is students' behaviour, which is very different between before and after the tsunami. We have to really understand them otherwise we will be upset by them. After I got to know them, I realised that it was because they no longer have anyone in their lives. (Pak Mahmud)

Although the teachers understood that their role was to provide the young people with opportunities to thrive through their learning experience in the school (Murray-Harvey & Slee, 2010), they argued that there was not much they could do to help make a change for the troubled students especially when their families were dysfunctional (McEvoy & Welker, 2000). The teachers were aware that many students no longer had their own parents and lived with other people including with relatives, or had changes in their family structure such as the one surviving parent having remarried. As a consequence, many might not be receiving adequate care and attention at home or from the guardians or surviving parents. The teachers gave an example of how they found out in their visit to a troubled student's home that the family in fact had given in to the young person's extreme misbehaviour.

In light of that, teachers might have been focusing on students' behaviour issues rather than on their teaching and students' learning. Ibu Tika asserted, "I do not expect them to be clever. As long as they behave, that is fine". Ibu Maryam took the first ten minutes of her lesson to make sure students were ready for learning by particularly talking about expected behaviour. In my classroom observations, I noticed that some teachers continually warned students to behave during the lesson when they saw one or more students were not exhibiting expected behaviour in class. This could certainly have disturbed the teaching and learning during the lesson (McEvoy & Welker, 2000). More specifically, disruption caused by misbehaving students and teachers' warnings, in addition to the time taken up, disturbed the teachers' teaching and the other students' learning in class (McEvoy & Welker, 2000).

Some teachers also argued that the implementation of Child Protection regulations in which corporal punishment for students was prohibited had made it difficult to deal

with students' behaviour. The teachers said that the regulations not only restricted their ability to enforce discipline on the students but the students themselves could take the opportunity to disobey the school regulations because they knew teachers would not be able to 'touch' them. The teachers believed the regulations should not be implemented universally especially at the study school in which students' conditions were different from other places.

The implementation of the Child Protection regulations seemed to make the teachers apathetic. Rather than to get into trouble, teachers chose just to ignore students. The teachers seemed to be frustrated and did not know what to do about managing students' behaviour. One teacher acknowledged that he chose to ignore students who misbehaved during his lesson because he thought that if he was tough on students, they would become more aggressive. He was afraid that he would end up physically punishing the students. He saw himself losing his temper when dealing with students. So, he sometimes just let it go to avoid more problems. For example, when students left the classroom during his teaching he would just let them go. He understood that what he did was wrong but that there was not much he could do about it. He believed it might also be the case for other teachers whose students were outside the classroom while the teachers themselves were inside the classroom. This was also the case in one of my classroom observations in which the teacher just ignored students who were not paying attention and were making noise during the lesson. The teacher confirmed then when I spoke with him after the classroom observation. Arnold, McWilliams, and Arnold (1998) noted that teachers who are frustrated tend to ignore students' coercive behaviours, which they referred to as teacher "laxness", letting regulations go un-enforced and giving in to young people's misbehaviours. In addition, according to them, "teachers who do not set and enforce clear, firm, consistent, and appropriate classroom rules are likely to face higher levels of misbehaviour, which may trigger coercive cycles" (p. 284).

In his interview the principal indicated that teachers in the school had limited knowledge about how to interact and manage students' behaviour. He reported:

> *The first thing that I see as the challenge for teachers is they fail to gain students' sympathy. What I mean is they do not have creativity, methods, and*

ideas about how to deal with different students...They should also know how to deal with different issues. But they lack the knowledge.

He seemed to be frustrated as he continued to say:

They do not have the ability to do such a simple job as managing students. I can't stand thinking about it...There are senior teachers who have been teaching for 30 years and how can they not know how to manage students?...But what can I do?...Don't you see that?... That gives me a headache. You may not know what is happening. It is so complex.

The teachers were in need of support to be able to perform as teachers. In this school, teachers needed support to improve their skills and knowledge, including how to manage students' behaviour and interact with them effectively. This issue of professional development will be taken up later in this chapter and in the Discussion chapter.

Parents' involvement in their children's education

Children's education involves shared tasks and responsibilities between parents and school (Driessen, Smit, & Sleegers, 2005). It is a process in which parents and the school mutually support and contribute to the objective to promote better learning, motivation and the development of the students (Driessen et al., 2005). Waanders et al. (2007) noted that parents who had better education would put greater value on education, did not see education as solely the job of teachers, and would be more involved in their children's education. In addition, parents with higher social economic status including a higher level of education or were living in communities with lower levels of social disruption would have higher involvement in their children's education compared to parents with fewer years in education and living in lower-income neighbourhoods (Waanders et al., 2007).

Several barriers that may impede parents' involvement have been identified in the research literature. These include personal barriers such as a parent's time and energy constraints due to work, a lack of interest and knowledge of how to help their children's education; demographic factors such as single parenthood, parents' low level education, and poverty; socio-cultural barriers between parents and the school

such as the school's negative attitudes and assumptions about a parent or a parent's negative attitude towards the school, and the school's lack of knowledge of how to involve parents (Ingram, Wolfe, & Lieberman, 2007).

Research in the field suggests that the more parents are involved, the more successful the children will be, especially academically (Ingram et al., 2007). At the study school, many teachers seemed pessimistic that they could optimally fulfil their role as teachers in educating the young people in the school, as there was little support from students' parents towards their children's schooling. It was evident from interviews with teachers that they thought parents' support for their children's learning affected teachers' work at school.

Many teachers thought that parents had less knowledge and appreciation of the importance of education due to their own low level of experience with education, given that many parents worked in low status, low income jobs such fishermen, pedicab drivers, vegetable sellers or sidewalk traders, which were usually jobs held by people with low level education. Some teachers suspected that a reason why some students did not do their homework, for instance, was probably that their parents never told them to do it or never helped them with learning at home. One teacher argued that students from families whose parents had good education and good economic conditions did better in their education while students whose parents were not educated, were in fact in trouble with their own education (Waanders et al., 2007).

In addition, according to some teachers, parents in general seemed to be reluctant to come to school when they were called to see teachers to discuss issues about their children. Pak Mahmud used an Acehnese phrase for parents who were apathetic about participating in discussion of their children's problems at school. He said, "some parents are just *'Lagee aneuk budee. Kalheuh ditembak ka lheuh ih'*". This saying portrays people who do something but do not care at all about what happens after that. Pak Mahmud indicated that there were parents who just sent their children to school but did not care about anything that happened to their children after that. It may be that these parents considered that what happens at school is solely a teacher's responsibility.

Teachers would appreciate if parents would set aside a little time for their children, such as when they were invited to school to talk about their children, no matter how busy they were.

> *It is not every single month that we call parents to come school to discuss children issues. It does not matter how busy they are, they should allocate some time for their children. We only need them to be at school for fifteen minutes. But many do not come.* (Pak Mahmud)

However, coming to school was problematic for some parents, as many parents had a low income and were busy. Further, the type of jobs they had, such as night sidewalk traders or fishermen limited their time with the family. On this note, the principal commented:

> *Those parents who did not come were probably fishermen who were working in the middle of the sea. They might only be on land for a while and then back to the sea for a week. Therefore they might not be home when they are needed to come to school. Or parents who are vegetable sellers, or who work at night at the local market selling 'satays' or other kinds of sidewalk trading...I know they did not intentionally ignore our calls. But it is their precarious economic condition that puts them in that situation.*

The principal believed that a lack of parental involvement at school, particularly their absence when they were called to school, was more likely because they were forced by their economic situation including their struggle with time spent working.

Collegiality and mutual support

It is well documented that teachers' work is not individual work in isolation of others. Teachers need to develop collegial relationships if they are to survive adverse conditions and improve the quality of educational services at a school (Jarzabkowski, 2002). Research provides evidence that collegiality is beneficial for teachers (Jarzabkowski, 2002, 2003) in at least two ways. First, it promotes better working relationships, which can improve the quality of teaching and learning. Second, positive relationships reduce emotional stress among teachers (Jarzabkowski, 2002, p. 1). Jarzabkowski (2002, p. 2) described teacher collegiality as "teachers'

involvement with their peers, be it intellectual, moral, political, social and/or emotional". In the study school, although all teachers believed that cooperation and good relationships among teachers and staff were important to provide a high quality of education service, teacher collegiality and mutual support seemed to be problematic. The teachers at the study school did not mention any positive relationships, such as Jarzabkowski (2002, 2003) described, in which teachers got to know each other better personally and professionally, promoting mutual openness based on trust as well as encouraging the exchange of ideas.

A lack of 'community' and mutual support was confirmed by teachers in interviews and informal conversations. For example, some teachers complained that few were willing to engage in extra school activities and work. As a consequence, some teachers reported that school programs that required teachers' collective participation did not run effectively since only certain teachers cared about the programs while others seemed to be apathetic. Some teachers also grumbled that their colleagues were not only unsupportive and but also suspicious when they did extra work or when they were successful or achieved in ways that those teachers could not or did not have the opportunity. Instead of being supportive, some colleagues believed that teachers did extra work because they were after something such as a career promotion. In this regard, a teacher said, "As long as I can perform my job it is fine. That is what matters. I do not really care if there are people here who support or disregard what I do". Another teacher was also very critical when asked about teacher collegiality and mutual support at the school, saying, "There is no cooperation at all among teachers…The sense of mutual support among teachers was nil". The teacher reasoned that this was why he did not spend much time at school or take time to talk to other teachers. He came to school only for his classroom teaching and left the school as soon as he finished his teaching tasks.

The school leadership

"The principal sets the tone for the school. The principal's behaviour has a significant influence on the culture of the school" (Tschannen-Moran, 2007, p. 101) and the successful principal fosters "a culture of collegiality, collaboration, support and trust." (Mulford, 2007, p. 23). Teachers in the study school mentioned some of the leadership practices of principals who had been in charge of the school either

before or after the tsunami. They also revealed what they believed as working and not working for the school regardless of the different personality and leadership style of those principals. From 2004, the year of the tsunami, to 2010, when this research was conducted, the school had been led by three principals.

The teachers seemed to appreciate the principals whom they perceived as demonstrating honesty and openness in their leadership practices, showing commitment to their role, and providing support to and recognition of teachers' contribution at school (Mulford, 2007). They also seemed to expect the principal to demonstrate what Tschannen-Moran (2007) called 'trustworthy leadership'. Tschannen-Moran (2007) pointed out that trustworthy school principals lift the vision and model the behaviours, showing consistency between their expectations and actions. Such principals also coach the school personnel to move toward the set goals through active and constructive supervision of teachers' work, and manage the school environment by cultivating 'a culture of discipline' in which the norms and expectations within the school support people to productively accomplish designated tasks. Further, such principals confront misbehaviour and take necessary actions to address issues, and are able to serve as a mediator when conflicts occurred in the school.

One of the common themes among teachers in regard to school leadership was the principals' commitment towards their leadership role in the school. Teachers in the school showed their appreciation of principals whom they perceived as demonstrating commitment to their leadership such as modelling expected behaviours in the school. One of the practices of a particular principal, Ibu Tika noted, was that he expected other people to be on time for their work and "he himself was already in front of the school gate, before the teachers came...Therefore teachers would be ashamed if they did not do what he required". She pointed out that this particular principal had successfully gained the trust and respect of the teachers as he himself modelled what he expected others to do, which resulted in the better commitment of the teachers towards their work. According Ibu Tika, the case was different with another principal who "just said this and that, like this and like that, but his own implementation was nil". As a consequence, teachers became apathetic as that principal did not put his words into action.

The teachers also showed appreciation of principals who enforced discipline at school. Teachers expected a principal to take responsibility to make sure that the norms within the school were followed (Sergiovanni, 2007; Tschannen-Moran, 2007). Teachers believed that a principal's failure to be firm with those who disrespected the school's norms might also result in a lack of teachers' commitment to their work at the school. For example, when asked about sanctions in enforcing discipline on teachers in the school, Pak Mahmud commented:

> *Those who did not attend the 'Flag Ceremony' on Monday were only told off by the principal but there is no sanction...When we do not attend the class teaching, there is no sanction...That there is no sanction is exactly one of the causes for teachers' lack of commitment.*

While teachers in the study school expected some tough sanctions on those who flouted the school norms, a principal was still expected to address the issue in a caring manner. Ibu Tika gave the example of one principal's behaviour: "that principal had a good approach towards his subordinates. When teachers made mistakes, he handled it in a way that did not hurt the teachers' feelings".

Teachers also expected the principal to treat them equally and fairly. They wanted the school regulations or norms to be applied equally to everybody regardless of their position at the school. For example in the implementation of one of the school policies in which teachers' incentive was cut if they failed to attend their classroom teaching, teachers expected their principal to apply the policy equally to all teachers. The principal's failure to do that broke the teachers' trust towards him. Instead of being appreciated for his vision to enhance teachers' commitment towards their work through the implementation of the policy, that particular principal was regarded as being unfair towards the teachers (Tschannen-Moran, 2007).

Transparency was another point some teachers referred to as an essential attribute of the leadership practices of principals, including in relation to monetary matters and other information, especially affecting teachers' work at school. For example, the principal was believed to hold all the information from the local office of the Department of Education including the information for teacher professional development. Unless the principal disseminated the information, teachers were

unlikely to know and could miss out on important professional development programs including ones held by the local Department of Education.

Support from the principal was also one of the many things that teachers in the school perceived as important for them to be able to perform their work well and increase their commitment towards their work. Provision of support to teachers was seen as a characteristic of a good school principal (Mulford, 2007). According to many of the teachers, this support should be in the form of the provision of materials or resources to support teaching and learning at the school, such as a good library, textbooks, laboratories, and computers. Extra payment for individuals who undertake extra duties at school outside their main duty was another type of support teachers in the school expected from their principal. Personal or professional support from the principal either when particular issues or problems occurred or on an on-going basis such as recognition and appreciation of teachers' contributions to the school and provision of opportunities for teacher professional development was also mentioned (Mulford, 2007). Teachers in the study school considered professional development as particularly important for the improvement of the quality of their teaching.

Teacher professional development

Research has suggested that teachers can learn and improve their knowledge, skills, and teaching practices through a number of experiences embedded in their teaching work, from day to day activities at school such as informal talks with other teachers to formal structured activities such as teacher training programs and seminars and teacher group study (Desimone, 2009). What matters most, according to Desimone's research (2009), is not the type of activities in which the teachers are involved in their professional learning. Rather it is the characteristics of the activities that determine whether or not they are effective. In order to examine teacher professional development in the study school, I focussed on the five "critical criteria" for effective professional development proposed by Desimone (2009) that are drawn from her extensive review of the literature. They are content focus, active learning, coherence, duration, and collective participation.

Content focus

Desimone (2009, p. 184) noted the link between effective teacher professional development programs that focus on subject matter content as well as methods by which the content can be effectively delivered to students and an increase in teachers' knowledge and skills and their teaching practices together with some increase in students' achievement. From the interviews, it was evident that the teachers believed that the provision of quality education in the school could be improved if their quality as a teacher was improved. Although they seemed to find it difficult to articulate their needs (Guskey, 2003), the teachers indicated that they needed opportunities to improve their knowledge and skills in the area of subject content knowledge and teaching methods directly related to the subject they were teaching. (Thair & Treagust, 2003). One teacher said, "there should be more professional programs that focus directly on the subjects we are teaching…when I participated in the teacher certification training program, I learnt lots of new models for teaching and learning and that increased my knowledge in the area". Conversely, the teacher did not value another teacher professional development program that he had attended because "there were no new teaching methodologies and how students can learn the content subject effectively was not taught in the activities".

Coherence

The provision of professional development for teachers should be based mainly on teachers' needs (Guskey, 2003). What is taught in the professional development program should also be consistent with the school and local context (Desimone, 2009; Thair & Treagust, 2003; William, 2006). Professional development programs should have a clear view of the connection between what teachers learn during their participation in the program and the reality of their teaching practices (Vrasidas & Glass, 2004; William, 2006). Teachers attending a professional development program will find it very difficult to implement what they have learnt from the program if the new skills and knowledge are inappropriate to their school context (Thair & Treagust, 2003). For example, a teacher in the study school commented that she could not incorporate what she had learnt in professional development programs about using new teaching methods and instructional media such as technology in the school because the school simply did not have those facilities. In reality teachers in

the study school still continued to use old fashioned teacher-centred methods by which teachers lectured and wrote lessons on the blackboard for students to copy and memorise (Thair & Treagust, 2003).

When asked about the need to have professional development related to psychological knowledge, many teachers in the school indicated that such programs, especially about the psychology of young people, are important. They believed it was even more important since they worked in a tsunami-affected school with students showing signs of behavioural problems related to their experience of the tsunami. Although the officer from the local office of the Department of Education indicated that all teachers from the school in the area had been provided with training on how to address post-tsunami psychological issues such as stress and trauma, many teachers in the study school said that they had not attended any kind of professional development program that helped them work in the school affected by the tsunami, including how they could best work with and support affected students. The conflicting reports between the local officer (as recorded in the next chapter) and some teachers in the study school suggested that training was available but not accessed by the teachers for some reason. Even the few teachers who had been involved in that kind of training reported that the program was ineffective due to its limited and short-term scope (McEvoy & Welker, 2000). Moreover, the school counsellor, whose main role in the school was to deal with troubled students, did not have formal education or training in the field. Her appointment as counsellor was only because there was no one with expertise and because of people's perception that she cared about the troubled students in the school.

Active learning

Active learning is a characteristic of effective professional development that involves more than simply sitting and listening to a seminar or a lecturer (Bissaker & Heath, 2005; Desimone, 2009). Based on my observations and my interviews and conversations with teachers, they were generally passive or not keen to improve their own knowledge and skills. What I observed was that they did not learn on their own, or with colleagues, or seek knowledge such as through reading. For example, I rarely saw teachers read or discuss topics related to their profession in the teacher office during lesson breaks or on other occasions such as when they were sitting together

outside the office. This was confirmed by Ibu Tika in her interview, "I saw in other schools that teachers sit together discussing school issues such as how to make lesson plans. But here, teachers are only gossiping. None discuss lesson plans". Another teacher's comments also confirmed my observation:

> Fadliadi: *There is a theory called lifelong learning such as teachers keeping on learning. Is there anything like that here at this school?*
>
> Ibu Nurul: *There is not. There is not at all. There is not.*
>
> Fadliadi: *What about discussions with colleagues?*
>
> Ibu Nurul: *There is not. Even when I asked them to talk about something, about a particular thing related to education, they would tease me.*

Active learning can also include "observing expert teachers or being observed, followed by interactive feedback and discussion" (Desimone, 2009, p. 184). During my fieldwork, some teachers in the study school were happy and welcomed me to their classrooms to do some observations about what was actually happening during the classroom teaching and learning. The teachers and I then had the opportunity for discussion. Both the teachers and I appreciated the classroom observations as mutual learning opportunities.

However, there were teachers in the school who were reluctant to let me conduct such observations. In fact, some teachers from the school also commented that it was hard to encourage teachers in the school to share knowledge and skills in teaching practices through classroom teaching observations. For example, Ibu Tika, who had been to a number of professional development programs both in and outside Aceh was disappointed that she had not yet had the opportunity to observe her colleagues' teaching practices as many teachers seemed to be reluctant. Although she wanted to share what she had learnt from her professional development program such as new teaching methods, some of her colleagues were reluctant to be involved. Moreover, no one took the opportunity to observe her teaching when she offered so that they could discuss issues around better teaching practices. Some teachers cynically said to her "Oh come on, why are you so keen about that?" Pak Nazar also had the same experience as Ibu Tika. He said that many teachers were averse to new ideas, skills or knowledge about teaching. He had been to some professional development

programs and would have liked to share what he had learned with other teachers in the school. Unfortunately, the responses from his colleagues were not very positive, so he was hesitant to share his new teaching ideas.

Another factor affecting the teachers' motivation to participate in professional development programs was their physical condition, such as illness. For example, Pak Surya, who had been sick since the tsunami, said that he did not want to attend any teacher professional development programs anymore. He even said that he would reject the opportunity to attend a program due to his physical condition that had deteriorated since the tragedy.

Duration

Effective teacher professional development requires sufficient duration both in terms of the span of time for the program and the number of hours spent in the programs (Desimone, 2009). Birman, Desimone, Porter, and Garet (2000) argued that extended professional development programs will give more opportunities for teachers to engage in active learning, to focus on subject-area content, and to connect what they have learned with their daily practice more coherently than shorter ones. Essentially, highly effective teacher professional development programs are those which are sustained (Desimone, 2009)

In the study school, teachers commented that most of the professional programs they had attended were one off and not sustained. For example, programs related to managing psychological aspects after the tsunami, which were mainly provided by NGOs, were mostly held only once or twice in the early months after the tsunami. Teachers had not received invitations for such training since that time. Henderson (2007) noted that professional programs that were not sustained and were held as short, single sessions, would have little impact on teachers' practices.

While many teachers valued the importance of participation in professional development programs to increase their knowledge, skills, and teaching practice, they noted that opportunities for any kind of teacher professional development programs were rare. Data revealed that there were some teachers who had attended several training workshops or seminars but one teacher had attended only one workshop during his entire in-service teaching career.

Moreover, the opportunities to attend professional development programs were unequal. The programs were mostly for subjects perceived as important (e.g. natural sciences) and only certain teachers in the school were invited. A teacher who taught a social science subject commented:

> *It is already six years after the tsunami but the type of teacher professional development program provided either by the Department of Education or by other related parties remains the same. It was only for those subjects, again and again. And the same people go to the programs, too. It was for subjects like natural science subjects and maths. For us who teach social science and other subjects, rarely do we get the opportunity for professional development. Maybe they think our subjects are easy. Since the tsunami, I have not seen any kind of training for our subject and I myself have never been to any kind of professional development program. On one hand we are expected to enhance the quality of education but our own quality as teachers has never been enhanced. What I mean is there are no professional development programs for us.* (Pak Mahmud)

The teacher went on to say that there seemed to be unequal support for teachers for attending professional activities such as the Musyawarah Guru Mata Pelajaran (MGMP or discussion among the same subject teachers). He pointed out:

> *There was funding from the Department of Education or the government for teachers teaching subjects like maths to participate in MGMP while there was no financial support for teachers who are teaching subjects like mine. Maybe they think that our subjects are not important?*

Collective participation

Collective participation is a powerful form of teacher learning in which teachers from similar backgrounds or from the same school, department or grade get together for learning activities (Birman et al., 2000; Butler, Lauscher, Jarvis-Selinger, & Beckingham, 2004; Desimone, 2009). Through such participation, teachers (e.g. teachers teaching the same subject) will have the opportunity to engage in meaningful discussion, planning and practice around issues they may have faced or are facing during their professional development program activities or in their day-

to-day work (Birman et al., 2000; Vrasidas & Glass, 2004). In addition, through collaborative participation, teachers construct knowledge and develop language in common within the group when talking about teaching (Butler et al., 2004).

Teachers in the study school, like other teachers in Aceh, as well as more widely in Indonesia, had opportunities to attend MGMP, which were facilitated by the local Department of Education. The aim of the program was to enhance teachers' knowledge and skills in the subject content area and teaching methods. Teachers who taught the same subjects from a cluster of schools in one area could have a day off to get together to discuss issues related to teaching their subject. In his interview the officer from the Department of Education of Banda Aceh believed that MGMP was an effective program to help teachers enhance their knowledge and skills in teaching their subjects. The activity would give teachers opportunities to learn from each other, share expertise and collaborate in particular activities in the subject they were teaching (Birman et al., 2000; Vrasidas & Glass, 2004). However, according to one teacher from the study school, this activity was not effective since teachers only met and discussed how to construct lesson plans. After a lesson plan was produced, each teacher then submitted the document to a person who acted as the instructor, and teachers did not know what happened to the document after that. In addition, very often there were no experts present at the MGMP. It took place just among teachers who actually had the same level of knowledge and skills in the area. Therefore the teacher argued that he had not learnt anything new from the activity that could improve his knowledge and teaching skills.

Moreover, teachers who attended the MGMP had to pay for all their expenses such as transport costs and photo-copying. For that reason and a lack of effectiveness in the MGMP activity as mentioned earlier, the teacher seemed to be reluctant to participate in that program even though that program was compulsory.

In summary, while some teachers in the study school appreciated the opportunities for teacher professional development programs as their participation in those programs had improved their personal knowledge and skills in teaching, they seemed to be pessimistic that what they had learnt actually had any positive impact on their teaching practices. Teachers found it difficult to implement in their teaching practices what they had learnt in professional development programs because of a

lack of facilities and resources, including the unavailability of media for instruction and technology. Teachers were also concerned about other teachers' lack of appreciation of or interest in sharing the new ideas they had learnt in the programs. As a result, teachers in the school had probably missed opportunities, not only to enhance their teaching practices in classrooms, but also to improve the quality of students' learning at the school.

Summary of the chapter

In this chapter, I presented issues around teachers and teaching in the study school. From the teachers' data, it is evident that these issues are complex. Teachers in the study school faced a number of challenges, some direct and some indirect results of the tsunami. These challenges included a lack of support and resources available for their professional role at school. Added to the complexity were teachers' personal challenges that could not be separated from their role as teachers at school. Teachers' personal lives affected their professional lives at school.

In the next chapter, I focus on the community members' data. I present views of the community members who were directly or indirectly involved in the school about what they saw as the challenges, particularly after the tsunami, for the study school and its teachers and students.

CHAPTER SEVEN
FOCUS ON COMMUNITY MEMBERS' DATA

Introduction

This chapter presents findings from the interviews with eight community members whose profiles are summarised in Table 7.1. In the interviews, rather than merely focusing on the study school, I asked participants their views about school education in Aceh within the tsunami context in general, focusing on teachers and teaching, students and learning, and schools. My intention was to better understand the broader educational issues in schools in Aceh including tsunami-affected schools, which in turn would help me better understand issues in the study school. For example, I asked participants,

> *In general, what would you see as the difference in tsunami-affected schools between before and after the tragedy?*

> *Do you see that the tsunami still has an impact on schools in Aceh including on teachers and students after six years?*

> *What would you consider as the challenges faced by teachers in Aceh now?*

> *Could you please describe some general features of teachers in schools affected by the tsunami six years after the tragedy?*

The information that I obtained added richness to the data and provided me with some understanding of broader educational issues that included policy, practice, and resources that affected quality of education at schools in Aceh including at the study school particularly six years after the tragedy.

Table 7.1: Profiles of community member participants

Pseudonym	Age	Sex	Education	Role in the community	Relationships to the study school
Pak Abi	58	Male	Unknown	He was the leader of the village where the study school was located.	Although he did not have a specific role in the study school, a school usually consults with the community leader if the school has a program or activity may involve the community or take place in the village.
Pak Amara	62	Male	Unknown	He was a community member of the village where this study was conducted. He did not have a specific role in the community.	He lived very close to the study school. Students and teachers from the study school often dropped in at his food stall to buy food and refreshment. He often had conversations with teachers and students.
Pak Bakir	52	Male	Bachelors degree	He was the leader of a teacher association in Aceh whose members were teachers from districts across Aceh province.	He was a teacher at the study school. In this study, he was interviewed for his role as a leader of a teacher association in Aceh
Pak Doen	40	Male	Senior High School	He was a community member of the village where this study was conducted. In the community, he had no specific position or role.	He was the parent of a student attending the study school. He worked part time at the study school, mainly preparing morning tea for teachers and staff and dealing with the school maintenance.
Pak Mukmin	38	Male	Senior High School	He had a role in the village as leader of young residents in the community.	He used to be one of the students in the study school. Currently, he had no specific connection with the study school. However, as with the community leader, the school usually consults with the leader of youth in the community if the school runs a program that involves or is held in the village.
Pak Rahim	53	Male	Postgraduate/	He was a lecturer at a university	He was the parent of a student attending the study school. He was not in

Pseudonym	Age	Sex	Education	Role in the community	Relationships to the study school
			Doctoral degree	in Aceh	Aceh when the tsunami happened but lost his home.
Pak Razali	45	Male	Bachelors degree	He had no specific role in the village. He was a businessman running an English private course.	He was the head of the study school committee and lived near the study school. His son used to attend the study school, graduating a year before this study was conducted.
Ibu Yuni	50	Female	Postgraduate/ Master's degree	She was an officer in the local office of the Department of Education.	Part of her role in the office of the Department of Education was to deal with issues of education at schools at junior high level including the study school.

Generally, questions I asked the participants in this group fell into three broad categories: current school contextual conditions, issues associated with teachers, and issues related to students. In addition to initial interview questions I had prepared, I also developed questions based on what I had obtained from my interviews with teachers and students and my observational data during my presence at the research site. I was therefore able to confirm some of what I had heard or seen during the data collection process. For example, I checked issues related to professional development with the officer of the local Department of Education. I confirmed issues related to students and their family circumstances with the parents, the school committee and the community leaders, while issues related to teachers were confirmed by the leader of the teacher organisation and the officer of the local office of Department of Education. An example of a question which aimed to check or confirm previously obtained data was addressed to the officer of the local office of Department of Education: "From my conversations with a number of teachers and based on my own experience as a teacher in Aceh, I understand that teachers actually have limited and unequal opportunities for professional development. Do you see that as the case here?"

Interviews with the eight participants focused on their specific roles in the community, although this was unintentional. For example, the interviews with parents and the head of the school committee emphasised the parents' role in children's education and in the study school. Issues about teachers and teaching in a wider context in Aceh were the focus of discussions with the leader of a teacher association in Aceh. Despite their different roles and the different focuses in the interviews, each participant provided important information that added richness to the data for this study.

Overall, the community group participants expressed concerns in their interviews about the quality of education after the tsunami in Aceh in general and in the study school in particular, including issues related to policy, practice, and resources. However, to some degree data obtained from interviews with the participants showed discrepancies in views about particular issues. I suspected that the participants' comments were influenced by their role and status in the community. For example, the officer of the local office of the Department of Education made positive

comments about the quality of teacher professional development programs run by the office and other issues associated with teacher quality. On the other hand, the leader of the teacher organisation was very critical about professional development for teachers and issues related to teacher quality in Aceh and schools affected by the tsunami. Another example was the leader of the community who believed that the school and the community had a close and positive relationship while another person in the community who had no specific role expressed a negative point of view about this.

The divergence of opinion and attitudes of the participants on particular issues invited consideration for further analytical thinking, considering 'what', who', and 'why' or in what situation any information was given. In other words, it raised the question: What are the rationales behind any ideas expressed by particular respondents? Data from this group were analysed using the same methods used to analyse the data from teachers and students, as explained in the methodology chapter. More specifically, since each interview was unique, analysing data from this group went beyond the intention to look for commonalities or themes to report as findings.

Findings from community members' data are presented in this chapter under the three categories I initially framed when interviewing the participants, namely issues related to school contextual conditions, to teachers, and to students. In the first section, I present general features of schools affected by the tsunami including the study school. The second section looks at teacher quality in Aceh in general and at the study school. This section includes issues related to teachers' commitment towards their work, supervision of teachers' work, and issues of teacher professional development. In the last section of this chapter, I present findings about students and their families such as issues related to parents' support towards the school. I begin by presenting school contextual conditions after the tsunami.

The school after the tsunami

In response to my interview query about the low student enrolment after the tsunami, community members believed that the main reason for a low enrolment at schools in the tsunami-affected areas was the fact that many people were killed in the tsunami.

This was consistent with the views of the teachers in the study school. According to one community member, for example, the number of people living in the village in which the study school was located decreased from approximately 5000 people before the tsunami to only 1000 people when this study was conducted in 2010. The majority of people currently living in these areas were young families who moved here after the tsunami while most of the local people had died in the tragedy. At the time of my fieldwork, there were only a small number of school-aged children in the areas affected by the tsunami. From the data I obtained from the administrative office of the village where this study was conducted only 182 young people including under-school-aged children among the 1025 inhabitants were currently living in the village. "We need to wait for a few more years until the new-born children are old enough to go to school. Then the schools in those areas will be crowded again", Ibu Yuni commented.

I also wondered about the possibility that low enrolments in schools within tsunami-affected areas was because people might have gone to other schools they perceived as better schools. However, the responses of the community members suggested that it was unlikely that this was the case, considering that most residents within the community in the tsunami-affected areas are low-income families who could not afford to pay for their children to go to other, more costly schools.

Such views were consistent with the fact that in the sub-district where the study was located, the number of poor families escalated to 95% after the tsunami from only 28.8% in 2002 (Pemerintah Kota Banda Aceh & GTZ-SLGSR, 2007). However, there were no precise data about the number of poor families in 2010 when this study was conducted. Looking at the type of jobs people were engaged in based on data obtained from the office of the village where the study school was located, in which the majority of residents were fishermen, it was suggested that the number of poor families was high since fishing was considered a low status and income job.

Interviews with parents suggested that a school's location and the unavailability of public transport contributed to the difficulty, especially for the study school, of attracting students from nearby suburbs. This view was consistent with comments from teachers at the study school. Parents who enrolled their children in the study school had to be available to deliver and pick their children up from school or the

children had to walk to school. The interviews suggested that parents would have to consider that they might not have the time to take their children to school, and therefore they would prefer to send their children to schools that were easily accessible by public transport. For example, two schools in the nearby suburbs which were also devastated by the tsunami were able to grow very quickly with a large number of students because of the 'labi-labi' or mini buses which came from every direction of Banda Aceh and suburbs. Access to transport is thus an important factor in the decision about which school to enrol the children, regardless of the educational condition of the school.

In addition, the proximity of the study school to the sea and its location in the tsunami area could also be a challenge in the effort to attract students. As the head of the school committee said:

> *From their experience of the tsunami, people would think twice about going to schools in tsunami-affected areas. Even if they were not affected, it is still difficult to convince them to enrol in the schools. If they do enrol there, that is because they do not have other choices. I myself had to persuade my own son before he finally agreed to go to that school.*[20]

Another concern posted by community members regarding the study school's condition after the tsunami was a lack of resources such as textbooks, computers, laboratory, and canteen. As a result, some participants were pessimistic about the quality of the school in comparison with other schools in the neighbouring areas. Pak Mukmin said, "It has been six years now...but the school still does not even have a canteen. Other schools have very good canteens. We still use the classroom". Community members considered the availability of computers important for the study school students to be able to learn and achieve as much as students from other schools. The availability of computers was even more important considering students attending the study school were from poor families who could not afford to provide such facilities themselves. This view supported students' statements. As with teachers in the study school, the school committee indicated that the learning of computer skills at the school was effective immediately after the tsunami because an NGO regularly supplied sufficient mobile computers at that time.

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[20] Referring to he study school

With regard to the difference in facilities among schools in tsunami-affected areas, Ibu Yuni indicated that it depended on which NGO rebuilt the school. Although a proposed plan was sent to the NGOs, it was, in the end, the NGOs' decision how they would rebuild the school and people could not complain but be thankful for what they provided. From interviews with the officer, I understood that the local Department of Education was actually keen to improve the school facilities. The problem was that the budget was limited. In addition, consistent with comments from teachers, funding from the government for the school such as the amount of Bantuan Operasional Sekolah (BOS) or school operational funds was limited as it was based on the number of students enrolled in a school. Because the study school had a low number of students, the school received less money from the government. Therefore, it was obvious that some schools would have better facilities than schools like the study school.

Furthermore, consistent with teachers' views, Pak Razali, the head of the school committee, in his interview complained about the lack of parental support for the school, generally in terms of financial support. The main duty of the head of the school committee was to make sure that parents supported the improvement of the school, particularly of the school facilities and programs related to school extra-curricular activities. According to Pak Razali, parents might have the wrong impression about the government's educational campaign regarding free basic education, believing that everything should be free and available at the school. In 2005, the government introduced the policy of free basic education from six years of elementary school to three years of junior high school or up to year 9. The school does not require students to pay enrolment fees and other monthly or annual fees during their nine years of basic education (Paqueo & Sparrow, 2006). However, there are other education expenses such as school supplies, uniforms, travel expenses and other personal that have to be paid but that parents might not be aware of. Pak Razali commented, "Parents just take the campaign for granted. They do not critically think about the campaign...They thought they would not have to worry about anything for their children's educational costs". Pak Razali's view was supported by Pak Mukmin, another community member, who was concerned about the costs he had to cover for his child's school needs. Pak Mukmin said,

After the tsunami, there are many children who are unable to go to school because school is expensive. We are told that school is free, but it is nonsense. At junior high school for example, we have to buy uniforms and books ourselves. Everything has to be paid for. We even have to pay the enrolment fee if we want our children to go to SMP B.[21]

Pak Mukmin looked unhappy in the interview when he mentioned that he was unable to enrol his daughter in one highly regarded primary school in Banda Aceh. He believed that school should be free, as announced by the government, but in reality parents had to spend a lot of money for their children's schooling.

The head of the school committee was pessimistic that the study school would be able to improve the quality of its educational facilities and services because of the current conditions of the parents. He indicated that it would be different if parents of students attending the study school were like parents in other schools whom he perceived as having good education and income. They were able to support their schools financially and had lots of ideas for the improvement of their school. Therefore, according to the school committee, it was obvious that educational services were better in those schools because parents provided what was needed for quality education.

With regards to parents' values about education, Pak Abi, the community leader, strongly believed that all parents wanted their children to have better education, be successful and have better lives. He acknowledged that it was difficult for parents whose income was low to provide their children with school needs such as uniforms, books and other materials. Certainly, for the majority of parents, who were fishermen, pedicab drivers, or recycling goods collectors, whose income was low, it was difficult to keep up with their children's basic schooling costs, much less to provide financial support or donations to school.

As indicated in findings from interviews with teachers in the previous chapter, the consequence of the low student enrolment in schools in the tsunami-affected areas, particularly the study school, was that these schools accepted whoever came to enrol regardless of their background. Obviously, the study school was not in the position to

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[21] Pseudonym of a popular public junior high school in Banda Aceh

select the best possible students, unlike many more preferred schools. In fact, many public schools in Aceh set a high standard of academic grades for entry, based on students' achievement at their previous school level. In public schools, enrolment at junior high school, for example, was determined by academic achievement in elementary school. Because of the high demand for student enrolments and limited space available, some schools were in the position to select only students with high academic achievement and reject those who did not meet their academic requirements. The rejected students then had to find other schools. As the head of the study school committee said:

> *Students' acceptance in one school is now based on their academic grades. And parents know their children's academic grades and which school is suitable for their children. They have no option except to enrol their children in a particular school even if they think the school is not a very good school.*

As mentioned in some teachers' interviews, many of the current students attending the study school had been rejected by other schools due to their low academic grades. One of the community members, who lived very closed to the study school and had many students coming to his food stall to buy food, questioned some students from the study school. They told him that they had enrolled there because they had been rejected by their local schools or schools closer to their home due to their academic grades. He noted that there were students who were from villages more than 30 kilometres away even though there were many other schools closer to their homes. Clearly, the problems of the system disadvantage many schools including the study school and are beyond the scope of such schools to address. As a result, some schools continue to be able to select students while other schools are left to accept those rejected by their preferred schools.

Life of young people after the tsunami

When I asked about the current lives of young people, in general, participants expressed their concerns about their behaviour, education, and financial challenges after the tragedy. With regards to behaviour, many young people, including students in the study school, were seen as misbehaving and engaging in anti-social behaviour such as smoking at school, wandering around outside the school area during school

hours, or speeding with their vehicles including bikes and motorbikes to and from school. According to some participants, such behaviour was not prevalent among young people before the tsunami.

Two participants mentioned that people in the community seemed to be apathetic when dealing with misbehaving students. Pak Mukmin who was the youth leader in the community seemed to be pessimistic about dealing with misbehaving students because of the community apathy. He indicated that previously, people in the community used to punish students or report them to school when they found students who were misbehaving outside the school.

> *People in the community used to question and warn those students and even gave them a slap when they saw them playing near that river during school hours. Once, there were people in the community who were in trouble for doing that. So they now become apathetic if they see students around not attending their school. Teachers themselves will not be brave enough to take action against those students, much less the people in the community.* (Pak Mukmin)

The comment from the head of the school committee reminded me of the comments of teachers in the study school who felt that the new regulations about child protection in which physical punishment is prohibited had made it difficult for teachers to enforce discipline. As the head of the youth leader had said in the above quote, teachers also became apathetic, not wanting to be in trouble for giving physical punishment to misbehaving students. As indicated in the findings from teachers' data, the situation was problematic because teachers felt they had less power to discipline misbehaving students than they used to have. As a consequence, students' aggressive behaviour became worse and the teachers themselves became frustrated, which in turn affected teaching and learning at the school (McEvoy & Welker, 2000).

Pak Doen, who worked part-time at the study school, said, "Students after the tsunami are different. They are extremely naughty…Teachers in the school sometimes lost their temper". This view was supported by comments in some of the teacher interviews that indicated that they were frustrated and tended to be upset

when dealing with misbehaving students. By contrast, the community leader believed that the number of misbehaving students in the school was small.

Pak Doen also considered that students' motivation for learning at the study school was low after the tsunami, but he was unsure about the cause. From the interviews with teachers and students, I discovered that the causes of students' misbehaviour in general were problems at home. Students might have no parents to look after them, or surviving parents might have remarried, or parents were too busy to provide adequate care. Some children were living with relatives or guardians and the way they were cared for might not be the same as if they were still with their parents. The community leader pointed out that some parents in the local village were fishermen who had little time at home, which might have affected the quality of parental care for the children. Many parents' conditions put them in a difficult situation between working to earn a living for the family and caring for the family including for their children's education.

Comments from the head of the school committee indicated that the parents' education and low commitment towards their children's education also contributed to problems at the study school. Parents were regarded as sceptical, thinking, "It must be about money", anytime they were invited to school, noted Pak Razali. Therefore, very often parents did not come to school even when they were called for other matters. Pak Razali mentioned an example of when a student's parent was called by the principal because the student had not attended school for a couple of months but the parent still did not come. He went on to say, "It is very difficult to talk about education here. In this tsunami-affected area, most students' parents have a very low level of education". According to Pak Razali, their children's education did not seem to be a priority for many parents indicating that rarely did parents pay attention to what was happening in school or what the school needed to improve its educational service.

> *As long as their children came to school it was enough for them. Parents in the school had no concern at all over their children's education. They just wait until the school calls them to collect their children's academic report at the end of the semester or when their children are graduating.* (Pak Razali)

According to the school committee, it seemed that some parents showed little interest when the school wanted to organise extra lessons after school hours, as they needed their children to help them with their work. As indicated earlier, there were students who helped their parents fishing or crabbing after school. The findings from teachers' and students' data revealed similar family situations.

In addition, the head of the school committee indicated that parents whose education was limited had limited ideas and responses about what could be done to improve the school, making it difficult to communicate with parents about such matters. As Pak Razali said, "Nobody would say anything in the meeting. We threw open issues to discuss, for example, how to improve the quality of our school. No one gave responses". Moreover, Pak Razali seemed to be unhappy because very often it was the mothers who represented the students' parents in the meeting as the fathers were probably busy with working. Pak Razali indicated that the meeting was not effective, as the mothers were not in the position to make decisions about what was discussed. Although it was not clear in the interview what Pak Razali referred to, I assumed that the mothers were unable to make decisions since the meeting between school and parents were often about money related matters such as financial support for improving school facilities or creating programs for students' learning. First, I could understand that the mothers would need to discuss it with their husbands who were mostly the income providers in the family before they could take any decision. Second, the mothers themselves understood that their family did not have much money to give to the school due to their own poor economic conditions. Therefore, they chose to not to say anything at the meeting. As Pak Razali said, "They just kept silent". According to the head of the school committee, "The only way to make a change is to wait until this tsunami generation has left the study school. It will take ten years for that to happen". He went on to say, "We hope that the new generation who comes to the school will have parents with good economic and educational backgrounds. Then the school will be fine".

On the other hand, interviews with parents and other community members provided different insights into parents' involvement and the value they placed on education. According to them, the school did not involve the parents. For example, parents were not usually informed about or invited to school programs and activities. They were only invited to school when the school wanted to talk about monetary matters, such

as donations to improve school facilities or to pick up their children's academic reports at the end of the semester. However, during my presence at the school I saw some parents come to the school because their children were having problems such as behavioural issues. I also saw parents coming to obtain the money provided by the government for poor students. But I did not observe meetings with students' parents to discuss ways to provide better educational services at the school during my presence in the school.

Moreover, from interviews with parents and the community and youth leaders, I understood that although parents might have a low level of education and financial difficulties, this did not seem to limit their expectations of their children's educational success. These participants expressed high expectations of their children's education and future success. Pak Doen, who worked in a low status and low income job and did not have a high level of education, said that he wanted his daughter to achieve her future aspirations and would support her to the best of his ability, including monitoring her learning at home. However, he acknowledged that financially he was not able to send his daughter to courses after school, as was the trend for children from families with good incomes. Pak Mukmin, whose child was still at primary school, also said that he cared about his child's education. He said that he talked to teachers about his child's learning at school and talked to his own child about his school. He expected his child to succeed. This suggested that, although parents were educationally and economically disadvantaged, they cared about their children's education and wanted them to be successful and have better lives than they themselves had.

Pak Rahim, whose income and education were considered high, also had high expectations of his daughter who attended the study school. Although he understood that the quality of education in the study school was low and teachers might have limited textbooks for teaching particular subjects, he believed that his daughter could still achieve. He provided her with various textbooks and encouraged her to learn all the topics in particular subjects and not to wait only for teachers because they might not cover all the important topics that would be in the national examination. He also said that he was available to help his daughter and the other children with their learning when needed. He said that he always took some time in the evening to talk to his children about the importance of education to their future success.

Participants from the community group held different perceptions about whether or not people including young people were still psychologically affected by the tsunami. Some believed that people were still in trauma while others did not, but they all agreed that everyone, both children and adults, were still very scared of earthquakes. Many participants said that people would panic and "run for their lives" anytime earthquakes struck the area. Pak Mukmin, who lost his whole family and all his relatives in the tsunami, referred to his own experience of losing hope for months after the tsunami. He believed that it would not be easy to simply recover from the trauma of the tsunami, especially for people including young people who experienced the tragedy directly. He said, "It does not matter what people say, I believe the trauma still exists. They are screaming if there is an earthquake".

Many young people were seen as also having financial issues after the tsunami, which affected their education:

> *In addition to the trauma, young people affected by the tsunami were having problems financially because of the precarious conditions of their families' economy after the tsunami...The financial problems are even worse for children who lost parents and relatives.* (Pak Razali)

Although Pak Razali did not comment further about the students' financial difficulties, it could be assumed that young people with no parents had to work extra hard to fulfil their daily and school-related needs.

> *Sometimes I see some students working at night and going home in the morning. They start work at the local market right after they finish their school at 2pm.* (Pak Razali)

This is evident as well from findings from students' and teachers' data that some students had to work hard to support themselves, which in turn affected their learning. Issues faced by young people after the tsunami including misbehaviour and psychological issues, motivation in learning, and daily life difficulties will be discussed further in the discussion chapter of this thesis.

Focus on teachers

Participants in the community group mostly commented about teachers in Aceh in general, rather than focussing on the study school. They provided me with some insights into the broader educational issues such as policy and practice that affected teachers and teaching in Aceh, including in the study school. In general, they had negative views about teachers and their teaching.

Teacher quality

The problems of teacher quality in Aceh begin when students choose to study at universities to be a teacher. Consistent with findings about choosing teaching as career in developing countries reported by Bastic (2000), Pak Bakir remarked, "People who want to be teachers should have talent, passion, and commitment. It is not because they do not have anything else to do or because they just want to be a CPNS".[22] In addition, the tests for entry into university were set universally for all potential university students regardless of their chosen fields of study. Students entering the teacher courses were not selected using specific tests related to teachers and teaching. Moreover, the recruitment of teachers itself was problematic. The test for teachers in the recruitment process was the universal test for all job applicants in the government sector, focusing on general knowledge rather than on teachers' mastery of their subject content and teaching methods.

Teacher performance in Indonesia was evaluated using a single universal standardised performance evaluation form for all civil servants regardless of their sector or types of work or positions (Bjork, (2003). In the evaluation form, based on Law No. 43 about changes in Law No. 8 on principles of civil servants, all civil servants (including teachers) were evaluated and rated under the following areas: kesetian (loyalty), prestasi kerja (work performance), tanggung jawab (responsibility), ketaatan (obedience), kejujuran (honesty), kerjasama (cooperation), prakarsa (initiative), and kepemimpinan (leadership) (Bjork, 2003; Wiranata, 2013). Consequently, there were no criteria directly related to teachers' instructional competence or their skills as educators.

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[22] Abbreviation of Calon Pegawai Negeri Sipli or civil public servant.

Despite this, a kind of evaluation of teachers' work that was directly tied to teachers' instructional competence occurred within schools and at the local Department of Education level. This was in the form of supervision of teachers' work performance conducted by a '*pengawas*' (officer/s from the local office of Department of Education). Often, they were senior teachers employed by the office to monitor and supervise the teachers' work and other school-related issues, such as school management, in particular schools.

Ideally, a *pengawas* would regularly visit schools under his or her supervisory responsibilities. Each pengawas might supervise up to ten schools within a particular area, observing teachers in classrooms and providing them with comments and feedback. In this sense, *pengawas* were expected to understand issues faced by teachers particularly in their teaching and help them improve. *Pengawas* would then report their findings about particular schools to the local office of the Department of Education for further action.

Two respondents from the community member participants group, Ibu Yuni and Pak Bakir, who brought up issues regarding the role of the *pengawas*, had different views about their effectiveness. Ibu Yuni, who worked for the Department of Education, suggested that *pengawas* were effective as they were the "right hand" of the Department of Education. They provided understanding of the issues faced by teachers and schools, which the local office of the Department of Education was then keen to address. In this case, whatever action the office would undertake for teachers or schools was very much dependent on reports from *pengawas*.

However, Pak Bakir was critical of the work of pengawas and viewed their role as ineffective. In his view, *pengawas*, who were actually teachers before becoming supervisors, should be have similar curriculum backgrounds to the teachers they were supervising. Therefore, a *pengawas* whose background was maths should not supervise religious subject teachers nor should maths teachers be supervised by a *pengawas* who used to be an English teacher, because the *pengawas* might not understand the issues faced by teachers they were supervising.

In addition, *pengawas* should not be given the task of monitoring school management, as was commonly current practice. "They were like supermen who could do everything", commented Pak Bakir, who argued that the job to deal with

supervision of school management should be conducted by other people, allowing *pengawas* to focus on supervising teachers and helping them improve their teaching.

Above all, as often happened, *pengawas* should not come to school only to meet with the principal and simply accept the principal's report on issues faced by the school. This view is consistent with the findings from teachers' data that supervision of schools including the study school was conducted more as a formality rather than done properly. Therefore, *pengawas* might not discover the actual issues faced by teachers, such as issues related to teachers' teaching methods because they did not observe teachers' teaching in class but relied on information from the school principal. It was common, according to Pak Bakir, for principals to complain to *pengawas* about teachers who were under-performing. But there was no complaint about teachers who seemed to be diligent but still used conventional teaching methods or whose students were not making academic progress. There was little concern about actual teaching in class including teachers' teaching and students' learning. What mattered to principals was that teachers had their lesson plan documents and were able to show it to their *pengawas*. Good teachers were then determined by good lesson plans even if they failed to deliver good teaching. Hence, as long as teachers came to school and attended their classroom and had good lesson plan documents, it was enough. This, according to Pak Bakir, had in some ways affected the commitment of teachers at schools.

Pak Bakir and two other community members, Pak Razali and Pak Rahim, were also critical of teachers' teaching methods and their mastery of subject content. They suggested that teachers in Aceh, including at the study school, were not keen to improve their knowledge about subject content or knowledge and skills in teaching. They still taught using old teaching methods and that affected the quality of teaching and learning at school. It was common in Aceh for teachers to "dictate the lessons, explain, and ask students to copy the lesson from the blackboard", according to Pak Razali. He suggested, "Teachers should teach with some games so that students will not be bored". Pak Rahim commented, "I did not see teachers who are keen to find ways to improve their teaching so that students can learn better...If they have one textbook for their subject teaching, they will always only use that book". He continued, "I myself have bought various books for my children so that they can learn better". Similarly, Pak Razali, commenting on his friend who used the same

book ever since he became a teacher, said, "My friend…has been teaching for twenty years. He can even recite from memory the content of each page of the textbook. People think that he is a very clever teacher". From their comments, it is suggested that teachers should have various teaching materials in addition to the textbooks they used so that they could improve their teaching, be more knowledgeable and deliver their lessons better, which in turn would help students in their learning.

In addition, teachers seemed to have low expectations of students. Pak Rahim said, "I heard one teacher in the study school say that as long as students want to come to school that is enough...Teachers tended to say that students in this school are not the same". They referred to students in the study school as academically incompetent in comparison with students at other schools, believing there was not much they could do for their students. This view supports the perception obtained from interviews with teachers presented in the previous chapter.

With regards to teachers' commitment, Pak Bakir and Ibu Yuni also had different views. Pak Bakir based his views on his observations of and conversations with teachers during his visits to schools in nearly all areas of Aceh as part of his role as leader of a teacher association whose members were teachers from all over Aceh. He indicated that teachers in Aceh in general did not seem to be committed to their work. Ibu Yuni, on the other hand, believed that there were only a small number of such teachers in Aceh. She indicated that the office was keen to address issues related to teachers' commitment, saying that teachers who did not perform their work well at school due to their low commitment for example, would firstly be personally approached by the local office up to three times to discuss their issues. If those approaches failed the teachers would be given a written warning. If the problems remained unsolved the teachers would be given administrative sanctions including transfer to other schools with the hope that their commitment would improve in a new school environment.

In the next section I present findings regarding teachers' professional development.

Teacher professional development

Only two of eight respondents from community member group participants talked about teacher professional development. They were Ibu Yuni and Pak Bakir, both of

whom were in the position of dealing with teachers in their roles as an officer in the local office of the Department of Education and the leader of a teacher organisation in Aceh respectively. Their views were different, although not necessarily contradictory.

Ibu Yuni commented that the local Department of Education had provided and continued to provide teachers with professional programs, such as training and workshops that focused on the teachers' teaching subjects. The office also sent experts to schools to help teachers with their teaching practices so better quality of teaching and learning at schools was achieved. However, it was not clear in the interview about the frequency of and criteria for such visits. To the best of my knowledge and based on my observations during my six months of data collection, I was not aware of anyone, let alone experts from the local office coming to the study school to help teachers improve their teaching practices. Experts from the office might, in fact, have come to the school after I left. On the other hand, they might have omitted visits to the school during the period I was there, in which case teachers would have missed out on important opportunities to improve their teaching quality.

According to the officer, the Department of Education also facilitated MGMP or discussion among teachers who teach the same subject in one area. As noted in the previous chapter, certain teachers teaching the same subjects were given a day off at certain times to have regular meetings to discuss issues related to their subject. The officer asserted:

> *That program is very effective because teachers can discuss issues they were facing...Through that program teachers are helping each other to be better...we used it as a medium to improve teachers' knowledge, skills, and experience in teaching.*

Moreover, the office would support teachers who wanted to participate in or create programs other than the ones held by the Department of Education, as long as those programs were in line with regulations. According to her, support from the office was not limited to approval for participating or creating particular programs but might cover financial support too.

However, Pak Bakir strongly argued that MGMP was ineffective. He said, "The program is like a tree which grows in the jungle. It grows by itself. No one cares for it", referring to the lack of supervision over the program either by the Department of Education through the *pengawas* or by the school principal. As a result, particular teachers who were given days off to attend the program might not attend and no one would care about it. In addition, there was no expert present at the session. He regretted that such a good program was ineffective because of those factors.

In his interview, Pak Bakir expressed low expectations of teacher professional development programs, especially those run by the Department of Education. First, he believed that the Department of Education might not have good data about teachers attending any professional programs. There were teachers who had been to a number of professional programs while other teachers had not attended any. Or the school itself sometimes sent the same teachers to a program, believing it to be a follow up program because they had misunderstood the information from the Department of Education. Therefore, the same person attended the same program again and again while other teachers missed opportunities. Such views were consistent with teachers' views that they had limited and unequal opportunity for professional development. As a consequence, teachers who had attended one program but were sent to the same program again, in Pak Bakir's view, would find it boring and be less engaged in the activities.

Secondly, according to Pak Bakir, there was no follow up or evaluation of the effectiveness of a teacher professional program run by the Department of Education. Teachers were not monitored or supervised as to whether they implemented what they had learnt in programs. Therefore, teachers continued to teach in the ways they used to, regardless of the new knowledge and skills they had obtained in their professional programs.

Pak Bakir also commented that it was concerning that many teachers attended professional development programs because of the promised incentive teachers would receive at the end. It was common practice for teachers to be given money to attend professional development programs such as for transport, accommodation, and for personal costs. Therefore, "The first question teachers would ask was how much incentive they would receive including for transport expenses when they were invited

to a teacher training program", stressed Pak Bakir. He critically asserted, "Ideally teachers should pay for participating in training...But they have already got used to that kind of practice". On this matter, Bjork (2003), in his three year ethnographic study in East Java between 1996 and 1998, also found a similar phenomenon: "The incentive most likely to motivate educators to carry out their professional responsibilities is the promise of financial compensation" (p. 206).

When I asked about professional development to help teachers in tsunami-affected schools in Aceh deal with impact of the tsunami, particularly the psychological impact, Ibu Yuni stated that the local Department of Education had provided teachers in the area with such workshops or training and that these programs had reached nearly all teachers in the area. Moreover, she believed that such programs were only needed for a few months or up to a year following the tsunami because, as a religious community, people, including teachers, were able to cope with the event. Therefore, programs to help teachers cope with psychological issues were no longer needed. She believed schools, teacher and students in Aceh had returned to normality. So far, she had not received any reports from *pengawas* that teachers or students in the area were still facing psychological issues or that they were having difficulties in performing their role at school as a result of the tsunami. She noted that the office relied heavily on reports from *pengawas* to understand any issues faced by particular schools and teachers so that necessary actions could be taken to address the issues. This comment revealed the importance of the role of *pengawas* in understanding the real challenges and needs for schools and their teachers and students. Unless the *pengawas* were effective, it was unlikely that the office of Department of Education would understand issues in any one school or offer to help the schools.

Interestingly, in his interview Pak Bakir expressed concern about the fact that he had seen teachers in the study school who did not seem to understand their students and who acted inappropriately, especially when students were misbehaving. Pak Bakir argued that ideally teachers who were teaching at tsunami-affected schools such as the study school should have some sort of understanding about students' circumstances, such as being from poor families, or orphans, or having psychological issues that might or might not be a result of the tsunami. Other community members including Pak Mukmin, Pak Amara, and Pak Doen expressed similar views. They expected teachers to understand young people and their problems after the tsunami.

This seemed to suggest that teachers at a tsunami-affected school, such as the study school, were still in need of professional development that would help them work effectively with troubled students.

Summary of the chapter

In this chapter, I presented the findings obtained from interviews with eight people who in some way had a connection with the study school. These findings draw attention to the challenges associated with the socio-economic issues, educational policy and practice and system that impacted schools in Aceh, especially the study school. In addition, through the interview process it became clear that the issues faced by the tsunami-affected schools may not have been a direct result of the tsunami but the tsunami could have exacerbated external challenges already faced by school.

From the findings, it is clear that schools affected by the tsunami such as the study school were disadvantaged in a number of ways. The low student enrolment after the tsunami led to a number of other problems, including being forced to accept students rejected by other schools, which in turn affected the quality of teaching and learning.

Moreover, due to low student enrolment, the school received less funding from the government. Further, as most students were from low-income families, it was very unlikely that the study school could expect financial-related support from parents to improve the quality of education within the school.

The findings from this group also seemed to suggest that supervision in the school including supervision over teachers' work and teacher professional development was ineffective. From these findings, it is evident that the issues faced by the study school were complex. This complexity is considered in the Discussion chapter.

CHAPTER EIGHT
DISCUSSION

Introduction

The findings of this study regarding the challenges faced by the study school in Aceh, particularly by the teachers and students six years after the 2004 tsunami were presented in the previous four chapters in the form of the viewpoints of the participants: teachers, students, and the community members, and supported by observational data. This chapter provides a synthesis of the findings and considers them in light of the research literature and reflection of my own personal experience as a student, a teacher, and a person from Aceh.

The discussion may serve as the basis for recommendations for rebuilding schools such as the study school in an area devastated by a disaster. Schools in devastated communities face multiple complex challenges as a result of the loss of resources and shattered relationships. The rebuilding of schools and people's lives takes years after the disaster. It takes more than simply replacing destroyed school buildings. Part of the process involves a better understanding of the impact of a disaster and related issues, and provision of the needed support and adequate resources to meet the social, emotional, and educational needs of teachers and students, including rebuilding positive relationships within and among the schools' communities.

The study school six years after the tsunami

The aftermath of the tsunami continued to have a significant impact on the lives of the study school, and its teachers and students, particularly those directly affected by the event. My overall impression from interviewing the participants was that life for them was significantly changed as individuals, as families, and as a community, six years after their exposure to the tragedy. However, since I had little information about the pre-tsunami community and school, it is not possible to provide a clear picture of the school at that time nor to comprehensively compare and contrast the

school pre- and post-tsunami. "Certainly, no one goes through profound life events unchanged" (Ursano, Fullerton, & McCaughey, 2001).

Some of the challenges currently faced by school personnel including the teachers and students were directly related to the tsunami experience while some may not have been but could have been exacerbated by the event. In light of this, it is important not to see the tsunami as the sole or primary explanation for what was happening at the study school at the time of this study, especially when considering that people' lives including their behaviour evolve and unfold over time. I had a sense that participants found it difficult to describe how their lives had evolved over the last six years and to understand and distinguish how their experience of the tsunami had impacted on their current lives. There was no clear-cut separation between pre-tsunami circumstances and what happened in the aftermath of the tsunami because secondary adversities such as social circumstances and support, resources-related issues, and coping strategies people employed might have also contributed to the current conditions in their lives. This is consistent with Bronfenbrenner's ecological systems theory that what happens in an individual's life is affected by a series of relations between and within the environments within which the individual exists and interacts, evolving over the span of a lifetime (Bronfenbrenner, 1977).

Through my time at the school, I understood and began to appreciate how the disaster differentially impacted on individual, families, schools, and communities. The disaster impacted much more on some than on others. In the affected areas, many individuals, families, and schools had to start over from scratch, but not everyone. Some schools were totally destroyed while many others were only minimally affected, if at all. For example, many people's lives were shattered, especially in the areas along coast where the devastation was huge, causing ruinous economic, social and psychological damage. Grieving the loss of family members or loved ones, loss of sources of income, and having to re-establish lives and families were problems that many had, while many others did not. Some teachers, such as Ibu Tika and Pak Surya, lost everything they had in the tsunami including loved ones and property and still seemed to be struggling emotionally and/or financially to rebuild their lives. Other teachers, although they also experienced the tragedy directly, were minimally affected, especially in terms of loss of property or family members.

Like the teachers, I found that many students were also facing extreme difficulties after the tsunami including their struggle with everyday life such as having to work to survive, problems with living with other people or having problems in learning. For some this was due to the inability or unavailability of their family to support their learning needs such as having no one to help with learning at home or simply because their families were poor and unable to provide their learning materials such as books. On the other hand, some students were less affected, including the two girls who participated in this study. Teachers reported that these two students performed well at school academically, emotionally, and socially. As one of the girls said in the interview, this was probably because both her parents survived the tsunami while many other children's parents died. In the same way, the lives of some of the participants from the community member group seemed to be much better than others. For example the physical appearance of their homes was much better from what I had observed in my visit to their place of residence, or the type of jobs they were engaging in was better, with some having relatively higher income jobs such as businessmen or high position-civil servants. In a similar way, some schools in the neighbouring suburbs were less affected by the tsunami than the study school. This was obvious in terms of the damage to the infrastructure, facilities and resources of the school and its community.

The Conservation of Resources (COR) theory provides a perspective for understanding that a lack of resources exacerbates people's vulnerability to further resource losses, while those with adequate resources are more likely to better cope with difficulties and attain gains which beget further gains (Hobfoll, 1989, 1991; Wells, Hobfoll, & Lavin, 1998). For example, as the findings indicated, the study school, which was totally destroyed and had to start from nothing, was clearly disadvantaged by the policy regarding the formula for annual school funding which was based solely on the number of students enrolled. In light of this, one could argue that the application of a formula that disregarded the impact of the tsunami to provide resources for rebuilding schools in tsunami-affected areas was inappropriate. Moreover, being located in a poor area where many students were from low-income families, obtaining financial support from students' families was unlikely. Meanwhile, other schools nearby, which had adequate facilities and resources along

with a higher student enrolment, received more funding and continued to be successful.

Both teachers and students in this study indicated that the lack of resources and the failure to replace or obtain the resources they needed for teaching and learning were challenges. Loss of resources (Hobfoll, 1989) here referred to the destruction by the tsunami of the school's textbooks, laboratory equipment, library and other teaching and learning materials as well as the school's inability to obtain or replace these resources after the tsunami. As a result, teachers perceived their role in negative ways, revealed by their negative views about the conditions of the school after the tsunami, especially in terms of the school's facilities. Moreover, teachers felt that the school was better before the tsunami. They also believed that other schools in surrounding suburbs had better facilities and were doing far better. This was reflected in the teachers' attitudes towards their teaching at school. As a consequence, teachers in general felt disgruntled and resentful.

According to Jennings and Greenberg (2009), the sentiments and attitudes of the study school participants are typical of teachers who are emotionally stressed or exhausted. They become cynical, pessimistic, and apathetic. In the present study, the strong sense that a lack of resources in the school was a source of stress affecting teachers' beliefs and attitudes toward their teaching practices was reflected in teachers' interviews where they grumbled about poor teaching and learning resources and other resources necessary for them to perform their roles at the school. It was also evident from students' data that they wanted more teaching and learning resources especially textbooks, computers, and sports equipment. Many students viewed the teaching in the school as boring and mentioned teachers who just talked in front of the classroom or wrote lessons on the blackboard for them to copy.

At the time of the study, the prevailing teaching practice at school was teacher-centred, which to some extent was excused by a lack of teaching and learning resources. Consistent with Jennings and Greenberg's (2009) work, the findings of this study provide evidence that this teacher-centred instruction affected students' attitude and interest, lowering students' enjoyment in and motivation for learning. As a consequence, teachers became stressed, unhappy and less committed to their teaching. For example, the IT teacher found teaching computer skills very stressful

given the lack of computers in the school. He could only lecture to the class about the use of the computer and he could understand that his students did not engage in the lesson.

The school's lack of resources also resulted in teachers' loss of self-belief and orientation towards their work, which accounted for their low commitment. My own findings are supported by other research that indicates that teachers' classroom behaviour and practice are closely linked to their beliefs, attitudes, and priorities (Rimm-Kaufman & Sawyer, 2004, p. 322). All teachers participating in this study were pessimistic about their roles at the school when considering the poor resources. In this sense, teachers conveyed that there was not much they could do to help raise the students' achievement. This lack of investment in their work (less energy resources) (Hobfoll, 1989) including less time and effort to perform their work well, in the end affects the quality of teaching and student outcomes. Overall, this condition creates what people in Indonesia call a '*lingkaran setan*' (satanic cycle) meaning one thing contributed to another thing and perpetuated the cycle, which actually has no beginning and no end, and people lose sight of cause and effect.

Research shows a strong positive correlation between perceived learning environment, which partly includes physical objects or spaces such as school buildings or classrooms and materials needed for teaching and learning, and students' social, emotional, and academic achievement (Frenzel, Pekrun, & Gnetz, 2007). In this sense, students' learning will become more enjoyable when their classroom and its environment become more encouraging (Ames & Archer, 1988). Moreover, better resources not only will improve the quality of teaching and learning and students' achievement, but could also improve a whole range of educational services at the school. For example teachers' commitment towards their work would be strengthened, the quality of interactions among the school personnel would be enhanced, more students would enrol and the school would therefore receive more funding. Such resourcing may provide at least some of the impetus needed to break the 'satanic cycle'.

Clearly, provision of adequate resources such as classrooms that encourage an effective learning atmosphere (i.e. clean, cool, and appropriately furnished), good library and laboratory, and other teaching-learning materials, sport facilities and

adequate funding are among the most important things that need to be taken into consideration in the rebuilding of the school.

A need for special measures

Overall, future research should focus on identifying special measures for schools in areas devastated by disasters such as the tsunami in Aceh that include resourcing, curriculum, programs, staffing and leadership. Devastated schools such as the study school, which had to be totally rebuilt after the tsunami, require a range of special measures, giving consideration to the schools' current conditions. For example, in addition to a special resourcing formula, the study school needed special considerations in the implementation of the curriculum and staffing formula. The curriculum should be responsive to the current contextual conditions of the school including teachers' and students' needs.

Teachers at schools in disaster-affected areas such as the study school need special skills and knowledge. The school leader also has to possess special skills and knowledge that might be different from those working in 'normal schools'. Effective leadership in the process of rebuilding the school after the tsunami is essential. Unfortunately, understanding of what a principal should do to make a change for better educational services at such schools remains limited (E. Lai, 2014). Further research that explores effective leadership for schools devastated by natural disasters is crucial.

From the literature, research provides evidence that school principals with capabilities to foster conditions that support effective teaching and learning practices are at the core of the implementation and success of educational change in schools. It is the principal who builds staff's capacities in terms of their knowledge, skills and dispositions, and establishes organisational conditions which allow staff to develop and make the most of their capacities (E. Lai, 2014, p. 2). In this sense, effective school leadership has the purpose of maximising different kinds of school resources including human, social, economic, technical and organisational structure, to enable a school to respond to new demands arising from change (E. Lai, 2014). Consistent with teachers' expectations in this study, the leadership needs to be trustworthy (Tschannen-Moran, 2007), to lift up the vision, to model the behaviours, to coach the

school personnel, to manage the school environment, to confront misbehaviour, and to be able to serve as a mediator when conflicts occurred in the school. In addition, teachers also expected the school principal to be collaborative and supportive and to recognise teachers' contributions at school (Mulford, 2007).

An important message for teachers, principals and other people involved in schools is that although the principal in the hierarchy is the top person, leadership should not be viewed as one person's job, holding all the leadership and managerial roles of the school. Leadership should be a collective practice which is shared and distributed among the school staff especially between teachers and principal, with specific clear tasks and responsibilities and at different levels (E. Lai, 2014). This will not only be powerful for driving change and bringing about improvement in schools (E. Lai, 2014) but will also be beneficial for collaboration, mutual support and collegiality among the school personnel. What seemed to be missing at the study school was an environment in which people were able to work together in implementing school programs without blaming each other when things went wrong and being able to celebrate successes and achievements.

With regards to curriculum, rather than merely focusing on academic performance and achievement related content, the school should consider providing students with opportunities that enrich their non-academic learning experiences, although this may sound provocative. The school may occasionally include fun activities such as drama and games in subject teaching and learning, for instance, as indicated by students who said that teaching should be fun, not boring. In addition, the school should consider providing students with more hours of physical exercise (PE curriculum) and other forms of physical activities. Providing schools with better sport facilities and play spaces is important to meet the needs of students and foster their engagement in physical activities. This may be an afterthought in the stressful recovery period of the school in which there were so many other things that needed to be done. However, research provides evidence that play and physical activities are important interventions that help young people in disaster affected areas to return to normal roles and routines more quickly (B. S. Lai, 2011; B. S. Lai, Greca, & Llabre, 2014).

Furthermore, symptoms of post traumatic stress are common among children after disasters and are associated with higher levels of sedentary activities that lead to health problems including obesity, poor self-esteem, decreased academic achievement, and lower commitment to physical activity (B. S. Lai et al., 2014). Physical activity, on the other hand, is positively correlated to reduced levels of sedentary activities and therefore promotes positive physical and mental health outcomes in children (B. S. Lai et al., 2014). B. S. Lai et al. (2014) argued that although current research on post-disaster interventions rarely considers children's activity levels, reducing children's sedentary activity and increasing their physical activity should be considered. B. S. Lai et al. (2014) further stated that such intervention is a promising model that has been successfully implemented in schools by school personnel and requires little training, could be broadly implemented by adults, and reduces costs associated with post-disaster care such as costs for highly trained psychologists or mental health personnel. In fact, many students in the study school chose sport as their two-hour free activities on every Saturday. Further, in the interviews they indicated that they wanted to see more sport facilities at the school and included sport and/or its related activities as important objects in their drawings and photos. Voices of students in this study provide evidence that physical activity is important for these young people.

Loss of loved ones

The findings of the present study suggest that loss of parents as a result of the tsunami was a major issue that disrupted the present lives for many young people in the study school. Some students in this study clearly portrayed their lives as no longer happy, as incomplete, lonely, and uncomfortable after the tsunami as a result of the loss of their parents. One might expect that the lives of young people would never be the same after they lose their parents who were the most important people in their lives. It was evident from the findings that the young people were still living with the memory of their parents. Worden (1996) noted that grief is more intense when a child suffers the loss of a family member, particularly a primary caregiver such as parents.

Moreover, findings from the study implied that the remarriage of a surviving parent might have caused issues in the interactions among members in the families leading

to an unhappy life for the young people and to their behavioural issues. As a person from the Aceh society, I have seen on many occasions that a change in the family structure such as when a father remarries can create problems for young people. In this society, no matter how good a stepmother actually is, she is always portrayed as bad, cruel, not caring, and neglectful of children who are not her own. Therefore, very often the relationship between a stepmother and stepchild/children is poor, leading to an unhappy life for both children and stepmothers. As one student said to me when I asked about his life at home "You yourself know how life is with a stepmother". Another student, who did not participate in the interview, said in our conversation during a lesson break, "I never talk to my step mother".

More specifically, loss of their mother seemed to have a significant impact on the lives of young people in the study school. Like in most traditional families in Aceh, mothers are usually at home, taking care of their children and doing the household chores for the family. When a child needs something at home, it goes to the mother. This creates a very strong bond between mothers and children. Although studies about the impact of loss of mother in childhood show inconsistency in their findings across community settings (Bifulco, Brown, & Harris, 1987), loss of a parent, especially a mother, reduces the quality of parental care (Bifulco et al., 1987). This was the case for one student, Rahmat, who said that he had to do all the household chores such as cleaning, washing, and cooking after the tsunami, things that he never did when his mother was still alive. His distress can be understood, since, in a traditional family, boys are often exempted from household chores. For surviving girls, loss of their mother can place a heavy domestic burden on their lives since females usually perform the bulk of domestic duties in Aceh, including looking after younger siblings. Aneshensel and Pearlin (1987, p. 80) noted that many social roles are differentially allocated by gender and the constellation of social roles an individual occupies differentially exposes them to specific types of stressors while shielding them from others. In light of this, Bolin and Stanford (1999) suggested that females are particularly vulnerable to the effects of disaster because of their caregiving role. They are also at least twice as likely to develop PTSD as men and boys (Norris et al., 2002, p. 229). In the present study, I did not address gender related issues but I realise that they must be considered in future research.

Further, Paquette and Ryan (2001) argued that critical for young people's development is constant interaction with important adults who can provide quality care. The tsunami might have also killed children's extended family members such uncles, aunts, grandmothers or grandfathers who were usually in the position to look after children when their immediate family especially parents were absent. Based on Bronfenbrenner's ecological system theory, Paquette and Ryan (2001) remind us that children's interaction with their immediate environment (such as family and important caring adults) is critical since the breakdown of interaction within this environment will diminish their ability to explore the other parts of their larger environment. This, in turn, will have a detrimental effect on children' development and produce anti-social behaviour, lack of self-discipline, and inability for self-regulation. With this in mind it is possible to understand the alarming problems for the surviving children in terms of care and support critical for their development created by the death of important adults including immediate family members. Even when family members such as a parent or a substitute parent and caregivers survived, they might have been rendered unable to look after and provide quality care for the young people due to their own overwhelming problems caused by the tsunami (Bifulco et al., 1987; Rosenfeld, Caye, Ayalon, & Lahad, 2005).

The findings also suggest that loss of family members created problems for young people's learning. This could be because the people they lost used to help them with their learning at home such as with homework. This situation affected teachers' teaching practices at school, as proposed by one teacher, who was reluctant to set homework for students as she was sure that they would not do it. Teachers suspected that students did not perform well because they did not learn and prepare their lessons at home. Some students themselves acknowledged that they did not really learn, partly due to the unavailability of anyone to help with their learning at home. Moreover, family or caregivers' financial pressures affected their time to provide quality care for their children including helping them with learning at home.

It was also evident from the findings that young people without parents experienced financial difficulties, forcing them to work to earn money for their school needs and daily life, which in turn affected the quality of their learning as well as their lives. Findings further indicated that, in any case, the socio-economic conditions of relatives or caregivers were often too precarious to provide adequate care and

support for the young people (Carballo, Heal, & Hernandez, 2005), leaving them to cope with their problems alone. Klingman and Cohen (2004, p. 26) warned us that long-term economic losses that affect families' resources can indirectly affect children's psychological wellbeing, which may contribute to children's PTSD symptoms in the aftermath of disasters. It was evident from the present study that having to working for their school and daily needs disrupted some students' ability to focus on their education as they had less time and energy for learning. This situation threatened their achievement and future aspirations.

The students who lost parents, unsurprisingly, faced many educational, social, and psychological problems (Dowdney, 2000). Interestingly, two student respondents whose parents survived the tsunami reported that they hardly thought about the tsunami or life's difficulties. In fact, they were considered by teachers at the study school as good students both in terms of their academic performance and behaviour. This is in line with the COR theory that suggests that individuals with greater loss are more likely to face greater psychological stress than those who experience less loss (Hobfoll, 1991). Power (2004) noted that young people who do not experience stressful life events including the death of loved ones are at lower risk of adjustment problems than those who are exposed to such events. This suggests that the presence of parents in the lives of young people is an important protective factor that helps young people cope with the stressors and develop resilience (Prinstein, La Greca, Vernberg, & Silverman, 1996).

The literature considers that the vulnerability of survivors to the psychological consequences of a disaster and the post-disaster adjustment vary, influenced by many factors, such as age, gender, social class, education, and income (Cole et al., 2005; Freedy, Shaw, Jarrel, & Master, 1992; Goodman, Brown, Courney, & Gurian, 2002; Klingman & Cohen, 2004; Rosenfeld et al., 2005). Other contributing factors are the individual's belief about the event and causes (Garbarino, 2008; Kaplan, 1999; Perry, 2004; Rosenfeld et al., 2005; Ursano et al., 2001) and the proximity to the event (Goldstein & Brooks, 2006; Goodman et al., 2002; Perry, 2002; Rosenfeld et al., 2005; Wickrama & Kaspar, 2006). The extent to which these factors contributed to the impact of the tsunami on people and their post disaster adjustment was beyond the scope of the present study. However, the findings suggest that proximity to the tsunami has particularly severe consequences. It was evident in the findings that

those who were directly affected by the tsunami reported greater socio-psychological impacts than those who were not. Symptoms of long-term psychological problems included difficulties sleeping at night, recurring images related to the stressor such as seeing giant waves when going to beach, feelings of loneliness, and a feeling that life is difficult. By contrast, a student who did not directly experience the tsunami reported that when he felt stressed, it was not the tsunami that was on his mind. Rather, other problems at home were the causes for his psychological distress.

Like the students who had lost their parents, the teachers' loss of loved ones particularly children, affected their professional role at school. For example, two teachers at the study school sometimes found it difficult to perform their roles as teachers since they had to interact with students who reminded them of their own child/children who were lost in the tsunami. One of the teachers, Pak Surya, who lost everything in the tsunami including all his family members, exhibited severe psychological distress in his daily life, manifested by intrusive thoughts and dreams of his lost family and feelings of detachment or avoidance of disaster-related activities or stimuli, which are some of common symptoms of PTSD (La Greca, Vernberg, Silverman, & Prinstein, 1996).

The findings from this study support evidence that loss of loved ones in the tsunami is positively correlated to psychological distress. According to the Conservation of Resources' (COR) theory, the loss of a loved one, which is one of the most severe psychological stressors (Hobfoll, 1991, p. 188), goes beyond the physical loss and extends to the loss of status, social loss, and loss of way of life (Hobfoll, 1989, p. 518). Research in the field suggests that loss of loved ones, especially a sudden loss such as death in a natural disaster, is one of the most common stressors that can lead to the development of post-traumatic stress disorder among the survivors (Shaw, 2000). The extent to which people in the study school developed symptoms of post-traumatic stress disorder is beyond the scope of this study. It warrants further investigation, especially since there was no evidence from the teachers' stories that they had ever received or were currently receiving support.

Provision of support for teachers

Teachers are respected persons in the society in Aceh for their role as educators who help young people be better people and achieve their aspirations. A teacher's role could be even more critical to young people exposed to a severe traumatic event like the 2004 tsunami, in helping them adapt and function (Benard, 1991). As educated people in the society, especially in the community where the majority of people have a low level of education like the study school community, teachers need to be in the front line to help young people and families understand and cope with the psychological distress of a disaster. Teachers need to help them adapt and function in the negative aftermath (Benard, 1991; Sahin, Yilmaz, & Batigun, 2011; Wolmer, Laor, Dedeoglu, Siev, & Yazgan, 2005) that might be beyond their comprehension and control (Bowen, Richman, Brewster, & Bowen, 1998) .

However, many teachers in the study school were tsunami victims themselves. They were in need of support to overcome their own challenges and difficulties (Wolmer et al., 2005). Unless teachers receive the support they require, they are unlikely to be able to help themselves and provide support for others such as students. Moreover, they could experience greater psychological stress. Hobfoll (1989) suggested that when people are in the position of needing support while being required to provide support to others, they are likely to experience increased psychological stress.

Despite the demands of their role, findings of this study suggest that very little support had been provided for teachers in the study school. They lacked access to professional development programs to enhance their teaching practices. Moreover, the opportunities available for professional development programs among teachers were unequal for a variety of reasons, such as the particular subjects they were teaching. More specifically, there were very few opportunities for teachers in the school for specific training to enhance their knowledge and skills about students' social and emotional development and how to manage these issues in relation to students. Even the school counsellor, who was in charge of dealing with students' behavioural issues at the school, had neither experience nor formal education and training in the area.

It is interesting that the authority in the office of the local Department of Education argued that social and emotional training for dealing with traumatised students had been provided to teachers in the early years following the tsunami and that it was no longer needed. Part of the officer's argument was based on the fact that no reports were received by the office from schools in the area, including the study school, about any on-going psychological issues six years after the tsunami. It was concerning that the authority took for granted reports from a *pengawas* or a school supervisor about what was happening at schools including the study school while many teachers in this study reported that the work of *pengawas* was ineffective. This suggests that the authority should work more closely with the school in order to identify the challenges and needs for teachers, and that better support and resources for teachers would consequently benefit students in particular and the school as a whole.

The on-going impact after the tsunami on teachers and students is evident from the data of this study, as is the fact that teachers in the study school were, in fact, still in need of sustained, long-term training or programs in order to enhance their knowledge and skills especially in disaster-related matters. Research provides evidence that one-off or professional development programs that are not sustained over a long period of time are found to be ineffective (Birman et al., 2000; Vrasidas & Glass, 2004; William, 2006). More specifically, Birman, Desimone, Porter, and Garet (2000) argued that longer hours of professional development will give more opportunities for teachers to engage in more active learning and connect with their daily practice more coherently than shorter ones.

The authority, which in this case was an officer of the local Department of Education in Aceh, and site-based educators need to consider providing teachers with on-going training or professional development programs that are well-planned and carefully take into consideration the problems and critical contextual characteristics of the school and teachers' needs (Guskey, 2003). The provision of training or professional programs that enhance teachers' subject teaching related skills and knowledge is one important way of empowering teachers. Equally important is the provision of on-going support in terms of training and professional development programs that help teachers become more competent in managing socio-psychological issues at the tsunami-affected school its (Sahin et al., 2011; Wolmer et al., 2005). The teachers

would thus be empowered to participate effectively as mediators and educators in the process of rebuilding schools and lives, especially of young people after the tsunami (Wolmer et al., 2005).

Enhance teachers' knowledge about disaster-related matters

Six years after the tsunami, it was evident in the findings that teachers and students, particularly those who had directly experienced it, were still affected by their tsunami experiences, although they might have verbally denied it and the symptoms of psychological distress might not have been obvious in their day-to-day lives or in the frontline of their thinking. Consistent with the literature (Freedy et al., 1992; Lindell, 2011; Nastasi, Jayasena, Summerville, & Borja, 2011), the findings of the present study are suggestive of potential on-going long-term psychological problems especially for teachers and students. For example, the findings indicate that teachers and students were still scared of earthquakes and panicked at the possibility of another tsunami since the last tsunami was triggered by an earthquake. Living in an area of frequent earthquakes, it is understandable that it was not easy for people in Aceh to erase the memory of the tsunami, since earthquakes are connected with the tsunami for many people in the province.

Sahin et al. (2011) argued that most people's fear and anxiety are due to a lack of information and false assumptions about disasters and human reactions. It is important to educate people about natural disasters and their consequences as part of the rebuilding of schools after disasters. In the context of the study school, such education is even more vital considering the severe experiences of the tsunami of many of the teachers and students and the location of the school very close to the sea. Providing correct information about disasters such as through psychoeducation (Sahin et al., 2011) will help survivors understand what is happening, which in turn may help them reduce their anxiety and fear and enable them to respond to the events in more appropriate ways. Schools can be well placed to educate teachers and student about disasters (Nastasi et al., 2011; Sahin et al., 2011; Wolmer et al., 2005).

Findings of this research also suggest that part of teachers' psychological stress was related to students' behavioural issues, which made their roles more difficult after the

tsunami, especially in enforcing school discipline. It is therefore important to provide teachers working at the school with skills and knowledge related to socio-psychological issues including those related to disasters. A better understanding of children's psychological problems including disaster-related issues such as their reactions to the tsunami can reduce psychological distress and conflicts among the school personnel especially between teachers and students. In this sense, teachers who are trained and have knowledge and understanding about children's psychological issues including common reactions to disaster experience might have greater empathy and willingness to help them address their problems (Sahin et al., 2011). "Empathy helps teachers know children and perceive their relational needs, and structure helps teachers provide guidelines and limits for student behaviour" (Rimm-Kaufman & Sawyer, 2004, p. 324). Such training could reduce the stress, anger, and frustration that teachers experience in dealing with troubled students. Overall, if teachers understand the causes of misbehaviour or difficulties faced by their students, they are more likely to show sympathy and concern and therefore help the students (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009).

Moreover, teachers who are confident in their approach to discipline and dealing with difficulties in classrooms in particular and at school in general are more likely to respond to issues they are facing in a way that reflects an overarching, consistent, and effective approach (Rimm-Kaufman & Sawyer, 2004). Conversely, a lack of confidence that may be due to a lack of understanding and knowledge in the area could put teachers at risk, as they are less efficacious. Teachers could feel inadequate or even take students' misbehaviour personally, believing they misbehave intentionally (Rimm-Kaufman & Sawyer, 2004). As teachers respond to students' misbehaviour in inappropriate ways, such as becoming upset, angry, reprimanding, or using physical punishment or coercion or even ignoring the students and their problems, students perceive their teachers as not caring and understanding of their circumstance leading to poor teacher-student relationships at school.

Research suggests that students with high levels of behavioural problems are actually in the greatest need of positive relationships with their teachers (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009, p. 501). However, teachers who are emotionally stressed when dealing with misbehaving students are less likely to develop positive relationships with them and tend to be less involved, less tolerant, and less caring (Jennings &

Greenberg, 2009, p. 501). On the other hand, when students experience 'conflictual' relationships with their teachers, they are more likely to exhibit antisocial behaviour at school (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009, p. 502) and experience negative outcomes such as school avoidance, classroom disengagement, and poor academic performance (Birch & Ladd, 1998, p. 935). This phenomenon was evident in the findings of this study. The interactions between students and teachers is what Bronfenbrenner calls a "bi-directional influence" (Paquette & Ryan, 2001) in which students affect the beliefs and behaviour of teachers while teachers influence the behaviour and beliefs of their students. Similarly, "teachers feel more efficacious when their students do well, and students do well when teachers feel more efficacious" (Rimm-Kaufman & Sawyer, 2004, p. 322).

Promote positive relationships among school personnel

The 'principle of linked lives' means that "lives are lived interdependently and socio-historic influences are expressed through this network of shared relationships" (Elder Jr, Johnson, & Crosnoe, 2003). People are 'social creatures' who constantly interact with others in their daily lives and because their lives are interconnected, their successes, problems and difficulties are also interconnected. Therefore, ideally, people should hand-in-hand help each other through social support and see the difficulties they are facing as 'our problems, not my or their problems' (Lyons, Mickleson, Sullivan, & Coyne, 1998) if they are to achieve success and survive the difficult times (Wolin et al., 2009).

However, the findings of this study clearly show that relationships and support among the school personnel were unsatisfactory. The teachers, students, families and community members in an under-resourced school in a poor neighbourhood, like the study school, tend to become disillusioned, discouraged, and demoralised and are prone to blame each other for their difficulties and problems. For example, teachers in the school blamed the students and their families for the students' lack of motivation, poor achievement, and negative behaviours while students perceived their teachers as not caring and not teaching well. It is also clear in the findings that teachers perceived colleagues as not supportive and suspicious of their achievement.

The findings are also suggestive of division among teachers such as between senior and junior teachers, part-time and fulltime teachers, and tsunami and non-tsunami affected teachers. Teachers were also not happy with the leadership practices at the school, while the principal viewed teachers as incompetent and unreliable. Unfortunately, this creates the culture of blame that sees others as responsible for what goes wrong, undermining positive relationships, communication, trust, collaboration, and joint problem solving.

Research has time and again shown that positive relationships among school personnel are important criteria for an effective school (Cohen, McCabe, Michelli, & Pickeral, 2009). With regard to teacher-colleague relationships, it is well documented that teachers' work is not individual work in isolation of others, particularly in isolation of their colleagues (Jarzabkowski, 2002). Research provides evidence that positive teacher-colleague relationships, in which teachers mutually support each other in their work, improve teaching and learning and reduce stress among teachers (Jarzabkowski, 2002, 2003). Unfortunately, these positive aspects of teacher-colleague relationship were generally missing in the study school.

Research also emphasises the importance of teacher-student relationships for a successful educational experience. In this sense, teaching and learning which involve instructional and interactional processes between and among students and teachers are among important factors for students' social, emotional, and academic achievement (Frenzel et al., 2007, p. 478). On this note, Rimm-Kaufman and Sawyer (2004) asserted:

> Teaching is an intensely psychological process and teachers' ability
> to maintain productive classroom environments, motivate students,
> and make decisions depends on personal qualities and the ability to
> create personal relationships with students. (p. 322)

Research provides evidence that teacher-student relationships affect students-learning outcomes (Noble & McGrath, 2012, p. 25). Baker (2006, p. 212) argued that a positive teacher-child relationship is associated with a range of positive school outcomes as it provides children with the emotional security necessary to fully engage in their learning activities and scaffolds the development of key social, behavioural, and self-regulatory competencies needed in the school environment and

for school success. In contrast, negative relationships involving conflict between teachers and students, with a low degree of warmth and trust are directly associated with poor academic and social behaviour (Baker, 2006). Birch and Ladd (1997, 1998) listed three aspects of teacher-student relationships: (1) 'closeness' refers to the degree of warmth and open communication that can function as a support for young people's involvement and engagement in school, (2) 'dependency', which has negative connotations, refers to students' overreliance on teachers which makes students tentative in their explorations of school environment and social relationships, and (3) 'conflict', which, as a stressor, can impair students' successful adjustment, academic performance and achievement because conflict between teacher and student can foster in students feelings of anger, anxiety, alienation, and consequent withdrawal from the school arena.

It is important to keep in mind that any issue that arises in the school as well as its solutions is never merely about an individual student (Murray-Harvey, 2010, p. 112). An important message for schools and teachers is not to be ready to blame students alone or their families as the sole source of problems in school. Rather, schools and teachers should view students' problems such as difficulties in adjustment and achievement as a systemic and inter-relationship issue that involves teachers, peers, and families (Murray-Harvey, 2010, p. 112). Focusing on relationships that build social-emotional competence is beneficial for both the lives and academic outcomes of students since teachers' 'explicit and tacit judgments' of students affect students' feelings about their school, academic motivation and achievement (Murray-Harvey, 2010, p. 105). It is important, therefore, that teachers pay attention to their relationships with students, particularly their 'instructional' relationship. This is because their relationships with their students affect the ways teachers manage their classrooms and interact with students such as modelling behaviours, providing feedback, and fostering effective learning (Murray-Harvey, 2010). Data from students in the present study clearly showed that positive student-teacher relationships were important for better teaching and learning at the school. The students believed that teachers should be caring while the teachers expected young people to show them respect. Good relationships between students and teachers can reduce conflict and promote trust between them.

Meanwhile, McGrath and Noble (2010) reminded us that teacher-student relationships are not merely about teacher-student relations but also influence peer relationships at school. An important message for teachers was that how teachers perceive and interact with particular students will influence the views of young people's peers, leading to their acceptance or rejection of classmates, in turn affecting the quality of peer relationships (McGrath & Noble, 2010). McGrath and Noble (2010, p. 79) noted that research provides evidences that positive and high quality peer relationships at school are linked with a range of positive and desirable outcomes for young people at school including optimal levels of wellbeing, improved academic performance, higher levels of school attendance and engagement in learning, and successful adult mental health and relationships. Conversely, students who are socially rejected or isolated at school are more likely to experience a range of significant negative impacts on the quality of their school and lives including being less engaged in school, a low attendance rate, poor academic achievement, behaviour problems, and these affect their overall adjustment and wellbeing including long-term adult negative outcomes such as criminality and poor social relationships. These views are consistent with Birch and Ladd (1998) who observed that rejection by peers or group is linked to young people's later adjustment problems that include 'externalizing' such as antisocial and conduct problems and 'internalizing' such as asocial and shy-anxious behaviours (p. 934).

In schools affected by traumatic events such as in the study school, positive peer relationships especially among those affected and undergoing similar experiences and circumstances are important. This is evident in this study as nearly all students mentioned that friends are the first and most important people to talk to when they were having problems or difficulties especially friends in similar circumstances (Wolmer et al., 2005). Positive peer relationships will promote social support that enhances a sense of communality and a feeling of solidarity and faith in others which is beneficial for young people's recovery and adjustment (Klingman & Cohen, 2004, p. 90). Noble and McGrath (2012) argued that positive peer relationships provide a buffer for students when confronting difficulties and provide opportunities for young people to practice their social skills.

Parents' roles

The role of parents as a buffer the impact of adverse events such as natural disasters is critical. The wellbeing and adjustment of children is dependent on the wellbeing and functioning of their families, and the wellbeing and functioning of parents is dependent on how well they overcome the challenges confronting them in rebuilding their lives after disasters such as the tsunami. Luthar (1999, p. 41) argued, "[t]he wellbeing of every child is intricately tied in with the functioning of his or her parents". Somasundaram (2014, p. 149) reminds us that "[t]he impact of trauma depended on what happened to the family, going beyond the individual level, to affect the relationships and the family dynamic". However, this study did not explore the link between the family's perspectives and experiences in adapting to the impact of the tsunami and their children's learning and behaviour at school. This is certainly an area that warrants further research in the future.

From the teachers' and community members' data, findings indicated that most students in the study school were from families who were affected by the tsunami or with low socio-economic conditions, in which parents or caregivers were in fact struggling to rebuild their lives. It is reasonable that parents or caregivers who were preoccupied with their own survival and struggling with life's challenges were unlikely to be emotionally able to buffer their children from the impact of adverse life events and provide their children with quality parenting (Wadsworth, 2010). However, because of this, their children's development, education, and wellbeing were compromised.

As reflected in teachers' interviews, many problems faced by young people in the school were perceived by the teachers to be mainly home-based problem, more specifically, due to a lack of quality parenting (Power, 2004). The teachers considered this to be the result of changes in their family structure including death of parents in the tsunami, surviving parents who remarried, and/or a blend with new family members. This phenomenon was also reported in the students' interviews in which some students perceived their lives as unhappy after the tsunami for lack of care and support at home, as reported by one student who lost both parents in the tsunami and currently lived with his aunt. This student believed that most of his troubles including at school were home-based related problems.

In addition, my communications with teachers revealed their criticism of the lack of parental involvement in the school. Parents were seen by many teachers to be paying little attention to what was happening at school, especially in relation their children's learning. Teachers were unhappy that many parents failed to turn up when they were called to discuss their children's issues at school. While teachers seemed to understand that parents, who were engaged in low income and low status jobs such as fishermen, pedicab drivers or sidewalk traders, might have limited time to come to school when they were called to discuss their students' learning, teachers expected greater parental involvement at school and in their children's education. Interestingly, interviews with some community members including parents, and my own observations and experience as a teacher in Aceh, found that parents were usually called to school only when their students were in trouble or for monetary related matters such as when funds were needed to improve school facilities and to run special school programs.

Much of the research in the field indicated that the more parents are involved in their children's education, the more successful their children will be, especially academically (Ingram et al., 2007). Pomerantz, Moorman, and Litwack (2007, p. 376) identified a number of reasons that parents' involvement in their children education is beneficial for the children's academic lives. First, it enhances children's achievement through "skill development". When parents are involved, they will obtain useful and accurate information about what and how their children are learning and succeeding at school. This will help them assist their children's learning. Even when parents do not have high knowledge and skills in the area of their children's learning, their involvement may still help their children through motivating and encouraging them. Moreover, Pomerantz, Moorman, and Litwack (2007, p. 376) argued that teachers tend to give more attention to children whose parents are more involved in their education, which in turn fosters the children's skill development. Further, parents' involvement in their children's education enhances children's emotional development through modelling strategies in dealing with schooling and its challenges, which in turn promote children' sense of competence and control over their own learning. Finally, children who recognize that their parents' involvement in their education improves their teachers' attitude are more engaged (Pomerantz et al., 2007).

Several personal and practical barriers also impede parents' involvement in their children's education. These, according to Ingram et al. (2007), include personal barriers such as parent's time and energy constraints due to work, a lack of interest and knowledge of how and what to do to help their children's education, as well as demographic factors such as single parenthood, parents' low level education, and poverty. There are also socio-cultural barriers between parents and the school, such as the school's negative attitudes and assumptions about parents or parents' negative attitude about the school, and the school's lack of knowledge on how to involve parents. In addition, Waanders, Mendez and Downer (2007) asserted that parents with low SES including low level education or who are living in a community with a high level of social disruption tend to be viewed as having lower involvement in their children's education compared to parents with more years in education and living in higher-income neighbourhoods. Research indicates that parents from the latter group seem to put greater value on education and do not see education as solely the job of teachers, and therefore they will get involved more in their children's education (Waanders et al., 2007).

In addition, it is important that the school should communicate with parents about school programs and that parents are open and responsive to such communication. Meanwhile, parents should be involved in schools such as through volunteering in the school programs and activities. They should be involved in the school's policy and management such as through parent representatives (Driessen et al., 2005). Moreover, as Leu (2008) observed, a positive relationship between parents and school will have an impact on the quality of services offered by the school. Through positive and regular communication, parents can provide teachers or schools with valuable information regarding their children which the school can use to better understand the children's challenges and needs, and also to enhance the quality of teachers' interaction with students (Leu, 2008). However, these aspects of parents' involvement reported in the literature seemed to be missing in the study school as well as in many other schools in Aceh, as I have observed. For example, parents' volunteering at school is not part of the school culture. Even when the study school had a parent representative body that was intended to facilitate communication between school and parents, data from the teachers, supported by data from community members, especially my interview with the head of the school

committee, suggested that it was ineffective and parents' involvement at school was perceived as lacking due to parents' time and energy constraints and limited knowledge, affected by their socio-economic conditions.

Facing adversity

As the findings provide evidence that the study school faced both communal and systemic challenges, employing collective efforts to address the problems is critical. To achieve this, individuals including teachers, students and members of the community must hold the belief that working collectively to address the problems is necessary and beneficial (Lyons et al., 1998). Instead of looking for the 'black sheep' or blaming others for what goes wrong in the school, using 'social appraisal' in which everyone perceives the difficulties confronting them as "our problems" (Lyons et al., 1998) is likely to result in a more effective way of coping.

People in the school are more likely to collaboratively construct strategies to manage the issues through communication about the problems, including in terms of their impact, (Lyons et al., 1998). Meanwhile, this collaboration will enhance the relationships among them and encourage mutual supportiveness in performing their roles. For example, more experienced teachers could mentor novice teachers in their classroom teaching-learning process or simply conduct cross-teaching mentoring and provide feedback to improve each other's teaching practice. This can also be a powerful professional development process for teachers in the school, considering the lack of formal professional training or development programs from the local authority (i.e. Department of Education).

In coping with the loss of resources and the current lack of resources, as noted by E. Lai (2014), the study school should strive to explore resource possibilities and turn them into opportunities rather than focusing their attention on their resource constraints. The school's principal along with other school personnel, including teachers and the school committee, could initiate building networks with other schools including the well-resourced and equipped schools in neighbouring suburbs. This would provide the study school with opportunities to take advantage of the resources available in other schools, for example, through collaboration with teachers and learning across the schools. The school may want to invite experienced teachers

from other schools for peer lesson observations, teacher mentoring and training or send its teachers to other schools to learn, through student exchange and in the form of cross-school programs/projects.

In this way, learning at school could be viewed as 'community-centred', viewing in-school and out-of-school contexts as vital sources of experience in learning in which the school together with the community explores and exploits any resources in the school and in the community and wider areas for the purpose of strengthening students' learning (E. Lai, 2014). As E. Lai (2014) noted, this can be achieved through using the services of external providers such as volunteers and/or sending students out to visit schools on study tours to see what others are doing and have achieved and learn from them. Encouraging students and teachers to do community service and learn from those experiences is a further option. This, in the end, will not only enhance students' learning but also create a bond between the school and the community and a sense of ownership of the school by the community.

In addition, the school may strengthen the use of religion as a coping strategy, including "group-norm based coping" (Fischer, Ai, Aydin, Frey, & Haslam, 2010) to create social cohesion among the school community, promoting sharing and providing emotional and practical support (Wolin et al., 2009). This includes performing communal prayers more often and intensifying the recitation of the Quran and 'dzikir' together (repetitive recitation of praising God or meditation) at the school's prayer room during the school free activity on Saturday for example or at the community religious centre and mosque. Tedeschi and Calhoun (1996) commented that for religious people, reliance on religion as a coping strategy will give them an increased sense of self control and understanding of the traumatic events.

Participants in this study made reference to the use of religion as a means of coping especially with the psychological stress related to their tsunami experience, albeit indirectly, as the findings suggest. A positive approach can be crucial especially when coping with the problems outside their control, such the impact of the tsunami. Having a positive approach is known in Islamic teaching as 'Husnuz dzan', the concept that encourages people to always think positively; no matter how difficult a situation and event is, there will always be a way out and something good behind it.

This Islamic teaching is comforting in difficult situations (Linley & Joseph, 2004; Tedeschi & Calhoun, 1996). Misfortune is inevitable and a test from God, but in the long term, may turn out to be positive if people hold a strong belief in God and maintain their connectedness with God (Wolin et al., 2009). Muslims are reminded of what God says in the Quran, "Do people think that they will be left alone because they say: 'we believe', and that they will not be tested?" (Al-Ankabut: 2). "Be sure, We shall test you with something of fear and hunger, some loss of wealth, life or the fruits (of your toil), but give glad tidings to those who patiently persevere. Nay, seek (Allah's) help with patient perseverance and prayer. It is indeed hard, except to those who bring a lowly spirit" (Al-Baqarah: 45 and 155).

The problems that are currently faced should be viewed as a challenge (Folkman & Moskowitz, 2000; Hobfoll, 1989; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). The focus should be on what can be done to address the issue and how to manage the situation rather than being apathetic and thinking that nothing can be done, as is currently the attitude of many school personnel, especially the teachers. Although Muslims believe that everything that happens in life, either positive or negative, is from God, they are strongly encouraged to make every possible effort to address the adversity confronting them in life (Wolin et al., 2009). God says in the Quran (Ar-Ra'd: 11): "Truly, Allah (God) will not change the condition of a people unless they change what is in themselves". It means that people themselves have to do something to address their difficulties. Accepting this religious teaching, the religious community of the school should be encouraged to cherish their survivor-hood, stay strong against hardships, and put every effort into rebuilding their school. A more in depth study of the role of religion in shaping coping strategies and adaptation after a natural disaster including the tsunami in Aceh is highly recommended.

Summary of the chapter

In this chapter, I have highlighted important issues found in the study school as a tsunami-affected school. This chapter has referred to findings from collected data regarding the challenges and needs of the study school including teachers and students six years after the tsunami. I have also discussed significant issues associated with the process of rebuilding the school. It is clear that the rebuilding of the school requires a lot more effort and takes long years to achieve.

The next chapter concludes this thesis with a brief overview of key findings and addresses implications and limitations of the study. Recommendations for future research are also outlined.

CHAPTER NINE
CONCLUSION

Introduction

This study specifically focused on the impact of the 2004 tsunami at a devastated school community in Banda Aceh. The study was undertaken from an educational perspective, seeking to understand issues as they related to the teaching and learning challenges in the particular school. The data were collected over six months of fieldwork at the school and included semi-structured interviews with three different participant groups who were purposively selected: eleven teachers including the principal, ten students, and eight community members. Observations and students' photos and drawings provided supporting evidence. Findings of this qualitative case study revealed that six years after the tsunami, the school, particularly the teachers and students, continued to face challenges that impeded their lives inside and outside the school.

Overall, there was a significant change in the school and teachers' and students' lives after the tsunami, as evident at the time of study. While each disaster is unique, there are common issues and challenges that influence the recovery and adaptation processes. It is likely that the findings of this study will be applicable to many other schools and their communities that have been devastated by natural disasters in similar contexts. However, the degree of applicability of the findings in this study to other contexts will vary and requires further research. In this concluding chapter, I present a brief overview of key findings and address implications and limitations of the study. Recommendations for future research are also outlined.

Key findings

There was a significant change in the school community after the tsunami

The study school and its community had undergone a major and radical physical and social transformation since the tsunami and the people were still in the process of rebuilding their lives. After the tsunami, the community structure was destroyed not only due to the extremely high number of deaths but also to the inflow of new inhabitants who were generally young families looking for inexpensive accommodation. Like other devastated coastal areas, the target area was located on the fringes and outskirts of the wealthier, more popular areas where there were better human services and facilities. The poverty rate in the area was much higher than before the tsunami.

When the tsunami hit, the study school lost almost all its students. As indicated by some teachers, only seven of nearly 500 students returned when the school was reopened after the tragedy. The current (2010) enrolment numbers at the school were very low compared to before the tsunami, comprising of students with tsunami experience and/or from families with low socio-economic background. Parents had minimal education and were engaged in low status and low paid jobs such as pedicab drivers, sidewalk traders, recycling goods collectors and fishermen. Teachers perceived current students as exhibiting high levels of misbehaviour, which they believed had not been the case before the tsunami and many students were reported to have been rejected by other schools due to their poor academic achievement.

Teachers generally perceived their roles after the tsunami as more demanding and challenging. Most of all, they felt alienated, disgruntled, powerless, unsupported, and resentful and were chronically stressed and disengaged with their roles at school. Teachers' negativity was most evident when they talked about the poor teaching and learning resources at the school, the students' and their families' circumstances, the lack of collegiality and the poor school leadership. Some teachers found it frustrating to teach certain subjects because the school simply did not have the resources for those subjects, such as textbooks, computers, and laboratory equipment. The current students' attributes including their low academic competence and achievement,

behaviour issues and families' low socioeconomic background were also reported by teachers to have impacted on the teaching and learning process at the school, lowering teachers' expectations of the students. Similarly, many teachers reported that collegiality was problematic in the school including ineffective leadership. This undermined teachers' motivation and they believed that there was not much they could do to improve their teaching and students' learning and achievement and make a change in the school for the better.

Above all, much of the discourse in the school among its constituents was in negative terms. Participants in general described and attributed problems and challenges they faced to actions or inactions of individuals rather than to underlying social and organisational factors. They felt powerless to influence their circumstances and did not seem to recognise the active role they played or could play in shaping their circumstances. This contributed to negatively focused self-reports. A culture of blame predominated, where everyone considered themselves victims and others responsible for what was wrong in the school. This culture undermined positive relationships among the school personnel including between teachers and their colleagues, between the principal, teachers and students, and between the school and the students' families. For example, it was easy for teachers to blame students alone or together with their families as the sole source of problems students faced at school, such as behavioural issues and poor academic achievement, rather than to consider the problems as systemic and relational that involved a range of other factors including the school, teachers, and peers as well as students' families (Murray-Harvey, 2010). Developing more positive, collaborative, and supportive teacher/ school-parent/family relationships, therefore, should be an important priority in promoting and facilitating the school's improvement in general and teachers' and children's wellbeing in particular.

A lack of teaching and learning resources and a need of support for teachers and students

This study conveyed the strong message that teaching and learning resources are important. This is supported by my observations, students' photos and drawings, and interviews with teachers, students and some community members. Many participants referred to the lack of textbooks and computers for teachers and students to perform

better. At the time of this study, I observed that teaching and learning was a traditional pedagogy in which teachers lectured in front of the classrooms or wrote the lessons on the blackboard for students to copy. In such lessons it was the teachers who were active while students were passive recipients, simply listening or following teachers' instructions, typical of a pedagogy that gives room for students to be detached and uninvolved in their learning (Bartholomaeus, 2000). Notably, many teachers and students did not enjoy the process of teaching and learning, causing issues of interaction between teachers and students during the lessons.

Teachers and students in the study school needed support to be able to perform their roles well. In addition to the availability of adequate resources for their teaching, teachers are in need of effective training or professional development programs that not only enhance their teaching practices but more importantly improve their knowledge and skills to work at disaster-affected schools and with students affected by the events, such as in the study school. Other research has shown that this will help teachers work more effectively with such students, including addressing their special needs and improving the teachers' management practices of classroom behaviour.

Teachers also need support in the form of encouragement, mentoring, and access to information and decisions, in order to enable involvement or input that will increase their sense of agency and ownership in plans to address issues concerning them and to improve the functioning of the school. Meanwhile, although they found it difficult to articulate, students in general expected more exciting teaching methodologies from teachers including group work/discussion. They also indicated in their interviews, drawings and photos that they needed care and more importantly recognition by teachers and other adults of their challenges and willingness to collaboratively work toward solving their problems. Without the needed support, both teachers and students believed it was unlikely they could perform well at school.

The challenges were complex and interrelated

Findings of this study highlight that the challenges faced by the school and the teachers and students were not merely related to educational but involved social, economic, and psychological factors. The issues were complex and interrelated, and

because of this, people might have lost sight of causes and effects. The Indonesian proverb put it succinctly: 'lingkaran setan' (satanic cycle), which refers to the situation in which people do not know the causes and effects of what is happening but there seem to be no beginning and no ending. For example the issues related to low student enrolment numbers, poor resources, and funding, were complex and interrelated. The school was located in the tsunami area with no access to public transport and was clearly very under-resourced after the tsunami. People seemed to view the school as unattractive which also affected the school's enrolment rate. Furthermore, since the funding allocated by the government was on the basis of student enrolments, the low funds the school received made it difficult for the school to improve it facilities and other teaching and learning resources. Moreover, being located in a poor area with most students from low-income families, the school was unlikely to receive financial support from students' families. With such limited resources and facilities, it was hard for the school to attract students with high academic achievement and from families of high socio-economic background such as students from neighbouring suburbs.

The local area, unfortunately for the school, had only a limited number of school-aged children due to the high death rate from the tsunami. Although every school should enrol students regardless their background, some schools, because of space limitations, rejected students whose academic achievement was low, forcing them to find other schools. And due to its low enrolment, the study school was left to accept those rejected students, which to some degree, according to teachers in the school, affected the quality of teaching and learning process at the school and school achievement in general. The school remained in a continuing, self-defeating cycle.

Given these factors, some challenges the school faced might be directly related to the tsunami while others might not but could have been exacerbated by the tsunami and relevant factors, such as current educational policy and practices, poverty, family conditions, and change in the community structure. Moreover, since this study was conducted six years after the tsunami, participants might find it difficult to describe how their lives had evolved over the last six years and to distinguish how the tsunami specifically might have impacted on their current lives.

It is clear that the personal challenges people faced in their everyday lives including challenges related to their experiences with the tsunami affected their professional roles. For example some teachers found that looking at students would remind them of their own children who were killed in the tsunami. Meanwhile, since the tsunami resulted in the death of many parents, many surviving young people had to live with other people such as uncles, aunts, step-parents or other people outside their families and the relationships within the newly blended families could be fraught with difficulties. Therefore, many of the current students' struggles at school including behavioural issues were perceived by many teachers and some community members to be home-based issues such as quality of parenting and child-care.

Since most students were from low socio-economic families, the families' financial struggles affected their involvement in their children's education. Parents were not well placed or motivated to donate money to improve the school's facilities or support the school's programs and engage with the school personnel. As well, they had limited knowledge, skills, and resources to support their children's education. Families' financial struggles also put pressure on many young people in the school, such as having to work either before or after school to earn money for the family or simply to survive, which in turn affected their learning at school and home. Similarly, two teachers in particular reported that they had financial problems after the tsunami and one of them had to take up extra work outside the school, affecting her commitment at the school, while the other teacher was simply unable to earn extra income due to sickness related to the tsunami.

The different impact of the disaster and a need for special measures

This study revealed that not every school, individual, family, and community within the affected areas was equally affected by the 2004 tsunami. The different impacts of the disaster created and exacerbated the socio-economic and educational inequalities in its wake. This legacy continued to impact on the school and people's lives six years after the tragedy.

Recognition of different impacts of disasters on schools and individuals, including teachers and students and communities, is therefore paramount. This means that the schools affected by natural disasters may have different, specific needs and require special measures to address the issues they were facing. For example, generic

resourcing and staffing formulas that did not take into account the different impact of the disaster and the specific needs of individuals and schools was inappropriate. This can create social and educational inequalities that affect teachers' teaching and students' learning, undermining their aspirations, engagement, attitudes and behaviour, achievement, and wellbeing.

Schools affected by disasters need to be provided with adequate teaching and learning resources and opportunities to apply for special funding to improve the quality of education in the school. Teachers working in the school need to be experienced and innovative and possess more knowledge and skills than might be required to work in unaffected schools. Most of all, they need to be provided with more opportunities for professional development programs that not only improve their teaching practices but also enhance their disaster-related skills and knowledge including classroom management practices. Research shows that teachers who are confident and skilful are more likely to respond to issues they are facing in a way that reflects an overarching, consistent, and effective approach (Rimm-Kaufman & Sawyer, 2004).

Leadership emerged in this study as important. Teachers reported that leadership plays an important role in determining the quality of teaching and learning at the school and the school's functioning in general. They expected the school leadership to be trustworthy (Tschannen-Moran, 2007), empowering, encouraging, supportive and collaborative and to recognise teachers' contributions to school (Mulford, 2007). In light of this, the principal needs to possess the capabilities to foster conditions that support effective teaching and learning practices in the school including focusing on changing the school's culture and developing its capacity to innovate and bring about school improvement (E. Lai, 2014). Unfortunately, as indicated in teachers' interviews, effective school leadership seemed to be missing in the study school, particularly at the time of the study. This calls for future research to investigate aspects related to effective leaderships for schools affected by disasters including exploring what principals could do to make a change for the better in such schools.

The possible long-term psychological impact of the tsunami on those affected

Findings from the present study revealed that the tsunami still had a significant impact on the lives of teachers and students. Although it may not be obvious to the casual observer, this research has revealed that teachers and students, especially those directly affected by the disaster, were still living under its shadow and still feared stimuli that reminded them of their tsunami experience, such as earthquakes. More specifically, some teachers and students, who had lost loved ones, were still living with their memory and continuing to mourn their loss. As the findings of this study show, loss of parents was a major issue for many young people in the study school that disrupted their present lives. This loss was a permanent change in their lives, creating alarming educational, social, economic, and psychological problems. Some students, in particular, expressed a sense of loneliness due to loss of parents and family members and people in the neighbourhood. Research in the field suggests that the loss of loved ones especially sudden loss (such as death in the tsunami) is the most common stressor for long-term psychological problems including post-traumatic stress disorder among the survivors (Shaw, 2000). It is beyond the capacity of this study to interpret psychological symptoms and consequences of the impact of the tsunami on the study school personnel. Therefore, this on-going distress warrants further in-depth research.

Parents' roles

At the time of the study, parents were not seen by many teachers as playing an active or important role as co-educators of their children. Although teachers understood that parents, mainly due to their socio-economic conditions, might have limitations in participating in their children's education, teachers expected greater parents' participation. Interestingly, as is common in many schools in Aceh, parents were usually invited to school only when students were in trouble, such as when they misbehaved at school or did not perform well academically. The only other time parents were invited to school was when the school wanted to discuss monetary matters such as donations for facility improvement or school program implementation.

It has been substantially noted in the literature that parents play critical roles in their children's education and future success. However, parents/caregivers such as in the study school have limitations due to their own struggles with life challenges including financial survival and having to rebuild their lives after the tsunami. It is reasonable to expect that such parents/caregivers are unlikely to be able to buffer their children from adversity and provide quality parenting. Family experience and perspectives were not within the scope of this study but should be studied in future research in order to fully understand the issues within the school/educational context.

Facing adversity

Although teachers in general perceived their role as more challenging after the tsunami and came across as despondent, downhearted, and pessimistic, they strongly believed that they were doing the best they could in performing their roles at the school. The teachers understood that teaching was more than simply the transfer of knowledge to students but meant educating young people to be better persons and achieve a better future. For many teachers, becoming a teacher was their life aspiration, not merely a matter of getting a job. Some teachers felt that the challenges they faced especially in working with troubled students after the tsunami were actually opportunities to help those young people be better and they were proud to participate in the achievement of success by their students. According to these teachers, it was an opportunity that teachers in other unaffected schools might not have and might not be able to be involved in. Teachers, in fact, were aware and not insensitive to the challenges faced by their students and families. They were also aware of the sources of the personal and professional difficulties they themselves faced and tried to find ways to address these.

Students, also, despite the challenges confronting them, continued to attend school and cope in their own way with the challenges they faced. They had high expectations of their future and had clear ideas of what they wanted to be. Moreover, through their drawings and photos, they expressed their vision about how school could be a better place. In the same way, despite their socio-economic limitations, parents had high expectations of their children and hoped that their children would have a better education and future than they themselves had, as interviews with some community members including students' parents revealed.

Implications of this case study

This study has significant implications in at least two ways: bridging the gap in the literature in relation to the impact of disaster, particularly the tsunami in Aceh, and enhancing people's awareness of the long-term and on-going impact of the disaster on schools, teachers, and students within affected communities.

Firstly, the casualties and physical destruction of the 2004 tsunami in Aceh are well documented in the literature. However, little is known about lives of teachers and students after disasters, particularly the tsunami in Aceh. This study offers a starting point for further and more specific research in the field and bridges the gap in the literature for better understanding the issues faced by disaster-affected schools, teachers and students. More specifically, to the best of my knowledge, no research on the tsunami has been conducted in schools in Aceh that looks at teaching and learning and has included children as sources of data. The students' voices through their interviews, photos and drawings offered rich data about the lives and circumstances of school children and the community in which they lived and learned. This extends the current literature that focuses on adults' perceptions and understandings and should result in better assistance and support for children to achieve success in life and at school.

Secondly, this study will enhance people's understanding of the impact of disaster. In particular, this study highlights the fact that rebuilding lives and schools within the affected community involves more than simply replacing destroyed buildings. It takes years and requires serious commitment and investment. This calls for the local and national authorities and international agencies to review their activities and invest a lot more in order to help affected schools, teachers and students in Aceh to rebuild their lives for a better future.

Strengths and limitations of the study

This study has produced important and promising findings. Nevertheless, there are limitations that need to be acknowledged.

Firstly, I am an Acehnese with knowledge and experience as a teacher in Aceh and of the tsunami. To some degree, I am part of the local culture. These identities helped

me to connect with participants and to quickly establish rapport and trust (Breen, 2007). For example, when talking to teachers in the research site about school related issues, the teachers seemed to be more open to sharing information as they acknowledged me as equally and personally involved in their situations (Rooney, 2005; Smetherham, 1978). Moreover, the shared or common characteristics and experience between myself and the researched enriched my understanding of the phenomenon and facilitated the process of data collection of the study (Rooney, 2005). However, sometimes during the interviews, I was overwhelmed by my own memories, making it difficult to distance myself from what the participants were saying. Although I recognised the danger of over self-reflection on similar experiences that can distract the research process including the data collection and analysis (Kanuha, 2000), I experienced significant compassion fatigue and sadness during and after interviewing participants. Unfortunately, I had not predicted compassion fatigue, even though, on reflection, I should have considered the possibility and prepared a plan to address this if it occurred.

Moreover, because of my familiarity with the research context, I did not realise until I read the interview transcripts that my insider knowledge may have affected my questioning as well as the responses of the participants. Many times when the interviewees were asked leading questions based on my own convictions, they agreed through a shared common understanding and left much implied (Breen, 2007; DeLyser, 2000). On reflection, further probing may have resulted in more insightful views from participants about particular issues. Also, being an insider and at the same time an outsider, I was perceived to be, indirectly, part of their lives, so participants might have seen the interviews as an opportunity to express all their frustration and anger with current school conditions. The many negative terms in their discourse about the school, themselves, students, others, and their role at school and in the school and community could be the outcome of my insider/outsider status. As a novice researcher, I have to acknowledge that although I asked questions expecting positive views, I did not realise that I had not shifted or been able to shift the tone of the interviews when participants talked or expressed deficit views on a particular topic, resulting in the almost exclusive negativity in our interviews.

Secondly, this study focused on one particular school looking at educational issues within a specific time, six years after the tsunami. It was conducted over a

considerable amount of time and included nearly half of the teachers in the school. This can be a justification of the representativeness of teachers' voices about the phenomenon under the study. However, since this cross-sectional case study was conducted in only one school, the applicability and generalisability of the findings to other schools in Aceh in particular, and other places in general will be dependent upon the degree of similarity between the phenomena and contexts (Gomm, Hammersley, & Foster, 2000; Schofield, 2000). Therefore, further research that includes the experiences of schools and communities being rebuilt in other devastated areas is needed. More in-depth longitudinal qualitative studies are needed to adequately explore the processes shaping change, adaptation, and rebuilding after a disaster, including the initial physical rebuilding phases as well as the longer term development and rebuilding of human and social capital.

Lastly, it is important to note that this study did not explore gender differences while it was evident from the literature that the tsunami resulted in a much higher rate of death among women than men. Further, there was a gender imbalance among the participants in that males far outnumbered the females, especially with respect to student participants and the community member participant group. This is something that needs to be taken into account in future research as gender is an important consideration in the Aceh society, affecting people's views on particular issues. Gender affects people's roles and responsibilities in the family and society, such as the highly gender based parental roles, particularly in traditional families and rural communities.

Recommendations for future research

As stated earlier, this study offers a starting point that provides opportunities for further research in the field. As noted in the Discussion chapter, there is a need for further research into effective leadership for schools affected by natural disasters. Other areas that need to be further researched are gender related issues associated with the impact of and adjustment following natural disasters, PTSD, and family perspectives and experiences including parents' role as co-educators and caregivers of their children following a natural disaster.

The present study explored challenges for a tsunami-devastated school including for teachers and students six years after the tragedy. Future research is needed to specifically explore further the coping strategies; how schools in disaster affected communities including teachers and students cope with the teaching and learning challenges confronting them. This includes research on how culture might have influenced the experiences, coping, and adaptation of those affected especially when considering that religion is seen to be an extremely important part of people's lives in Aceh.

Again, the findings of this study revealed that the impact of the tsunami differed among those exposed to the event and had a long-term ongoing impact that was continuing to affect lives of people in Aceh especially in the school community, and particularly those who directly experienced the event. Future research may focus on exploring the adaptation of those affected to social, economic, and educational inequalities that occur in the aftermath of natural disasters and how these issues could be addressed.

Last but not least, the findings of this study presented challenges, and perhaps highlighted more of the concerns, frustrations, and negative sides of people's experience with the tsunami than positive adaptations and achievements. Future research may look at best practices for the provision of education following natural disaster such as psychoeducation. In addition, research that focuses on positive aspects of the tsunami experience including aspects related to post-traumatic growth could provide useful insights into the circumstances of schools, teachers, and students affected by disaster especially the tsunami in Aceh. Thus, better assistance and support may be provided to improve the work of teachers and students and schools affected by natural disasters in general, and the tsunami in Aceh in particular.

Concluding remarks

This case study highlights that natural disasters such as the 2004 Aceh tsunami can create ongoing, multiple and complex challenges for affected schools that persist for years. The process of rebuilding takes years and requires much investment over a long period of time. Without recognition of the challenges, without investment and

the provision of appropriate support, the tsunami will continue to cast a dark shadow over individuals, schools, communities, and neighbourhoods for many years to come.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Ethics approval, Letter of Introduction, Invitation to Participate in Research, and Consent Forms.

Flinders University and Southern Adelaide Health Service

SOCIAL AND BEHAVIOURAL RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE

Research Services Office, Union Building, Flinders University
GPO Box 2100, ADELAIDE SA 5001
Phone: (08) 8201 3116
Email: human.researchethics@flinders.edu.au

FINAL APPROVAL NOTICE

Principal Researcher:	Mr Fadliadi Fadliadi
Email:	fadl0001@flinders.edu.au
Address:	2/4 Shepherds Hill Road, Bedford Park SA 5042
Project Title:	What are the challenges and needs for teachers working in the Aceh province, Indonesia to effectively work with students within their school communities after the armed conflict and the tsunami?

Project No.:	4760	Final Approval Date:	25 March 2010	Approval Expiry Date:	30 March 2013

The above proposed project has been approved on the basis of the information contained in the application, its attachments and the information subsequently provided.

Please ensure that any outstanding permission letters (item D8) that may have been previously requested by the Committee are forwarded as soon as possible. Additionally, for projects where approval has also been sought from another Human Research Ethics Committee (item G1), please be reminded that a copy of the ethics approval notice will need to be sent to the Committee on receipt.

In accordance with the undertaking you provided in your application for ethics approval for the project, please inform the Social and Behavioural Research Ethics Committee, giving reasons, if the research project is discontinued before the expected date of completion.

You are also required to report anything which might warrant review of ethical approval of the protocol. Such matters include:

- serious or unexpected adverse effects on participants;
- proposed changes in the protocol (modifications); and
- unforeseen events that might affect continued ethical acceptability of the project.

In order to comply with monitoring requirements of the *National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (March 2007)* an annual progress and/or final report must be submitted. A copy of the pro forma is available from http://www.flinders.edu.au/research/ info-for-researchers/ethics/committees/social-behavioural.cfm. Your first report is due on **25 March 2011** or on completion of the project, whichever is the earliest. *Please retain this notice for reference when completing annual progress or final reports.* If an extension of time is required, please email a request for an extension of time, to a date you specify, to human.researchethics@flinders.edu.au before the expiry date.

Andrea Jacobs
Executive Officer
Social and Behavioural Research Ethics Committee
25 March 2010

c.c   Prof Rosalind Murray-Harvey, rosalind.murray-harvey@flinders.edu.au
       Dr Pam Bartholomaeus, pam.bartholomaeus@flinders.edu.au
       Dr Neil Welch, neil.welch@flinders.edu.au

Dear Fadliadi,

The Chairperson of the Social and Behavioural Research Ethics Committee (SBREC) at Flinders University has reviewed and approved the modification request that was submitted for project 4760. A modification ethics approval notice can be found below.

MODIFICATION (No.2) APPROVAL NOTICE

Project No.:	4760

Project Title:	In the shadow of the tsunami: A case study of a tsunami affected school in Banda Aceh

Principal Researcher:	Mr Fadliadi Fadliadi

Email:	fadl0001@flinders.edu.au

Modification Approval Date:	28 October 2014	Ethics Approval Expiry Date:	31 January 2016

I am pleased to inform you that the modification request submitted for project 4760 on the 12 October 2014 has been reviewed and approved by the SBREC Chairperson. A summary of the approved modifications are listed below. Any additional information that may be required from you will be listed in the second table shown below called 'Additional Information Required'.

Approved Modification(s)	Details of approved modification(s)		
Extension of Time:	From:	30 November 2013	To:	31 January 2016
Change of Project Title	From:	What are the challenges and needs for teachers working in the Aceh province, Indonesia to effectively work with students within their school communities after the armed conflict and the tsunami?
	To:	In the shadow of the tsunami: A case study of a tsunami affected school in Banda Aceh
Modified research protocol:	1. Focus of Thesis Approval to change the focus of the thesis to about the tsunami. 2. Research Method Approval for student participants to be interviewed and take part in other activities (e.g., taking photos, drawing activity) as outlined in the modification request. For future reference, please always ensure that approval for a change in the research protocol is approved by the SBREC prior to undertaking any changes involving participants.		
Documentation Amendments and/or Additions	Amended Documents	None.	
	New Documents	1. Samples of Student Drawings and Photos	

	Additional Information Required
1.	None.

Rosalind Murray-Harvey
Professor in Education
School of Education

GPO Box 2100
Adelaide SA 5001
AUSTRALIA

Tel: +61 8 8201 3349
Fax: +61 8 8201 3184

rosalind.murray-harvey@flinders.edu.au
www.flinders.edu.au/education
CRICOS Provider No. 00114A

Letter of Introduction

Dear ...,

This letter is to introduce Fadliadi, a teacher from the Aceh province who is currently studying in a PhD program at Flinders University in South Australia. His research aims to find out how teachers in the Aceh province work with students in communities that have experienced the tsunami. The title of the research is *"The challenges and needs for teachers working with students in communities affected by the tsunami in the Aceh province"*. The study has been approved by the Flinders University Social and Behavioural Research Ethics Committee and is supervised by me, Dr. Pam Bartholomaeus, and Dr. Neil Welch from the School of Education. It will lead to the production of a Ph.D. thesis and/or other academic publications on the above-mentioned subject.

Fadliadi would like to join some schools in Aceh for about three months, commencing in July 2010. During that time he would like to talk with a number of teachers, students, and community members about their views on the above-mentioned topic. I hope, as a teacher, you can assist by agreeing to participate in two or three 30 minute individual interviews on the abovementioned topic with him over the time he is at your school. If you agree, Fadliadi would also like to visit your classroom once to observe student-student and student-teacher interactions. In addition, you will be invited to write notes about your experiences working with students affected by the armed conflict and the tsunami in Aceh if you wish to. You are free to write anything you would like to share with Fadliadi that help address the research questions of this study.

Fadliadi would like to audio-record the interviews. At any time during the interviews you are free to stop the discussion and can choose not to answer any questions if you do not wish to. You will be given a summary of the interview for confirmation about the accuracy of the information you provided. Please be assured that all the information provided will be kept strictly confidential. Fadliadi will be the only person to listen to the audio-recordings or to read the interview transcripts. None of the information in the report of Fadliadi's thesis or other publications will reveal your identity or that of your school. Participation in this study is voluntary. A small amount of money will be offered to compensate for the time given. Of course, it is still possible for you to withdraw from the study at any time and without any consequences.

Finally, if you have any questions or concerns about this study, please do not hesitate to contact me on (+61 8) 82013349 or email Rosalind.murray-harvey@flinders.edu.au, or Dr. Pam Batholomaeus on (+61 8) 82012105 email pam.bartholomaeus@flinders.edu.au or Dr. Neil Welch email neil.welch@bigpond.com. Fadliadi can be contacted locally at this number: +6285222929665 email fadl0001@flinders.edu.au. And thank you for considering our request.

Yours faithfully,

Professor Rosalind Murray-Harvey
School of Education

This research project has been approved by the Flinders University Social and Behavioural Research Ethics Committee (Project Number: 4760)

Rosalind Murray-Harvey
Professor in Education
School of Education

GPO Box 2100
Adelaide SA 5001
AUSTRALIA

Tel: +61 8 8201 3349
Fax: +61 8 8201 3184

rosalind.murray-harvey@flinders.edu.au
www.flinders.edu.au/education
CRICOS Provider No. 00114A

INVITATION FOR PARTICIPATION IN RESEARCH

Dear......

My Ph.D. student, Fadliadi who is a teacher from Aceh, would like to invite you to participate in his research about identifying the challenges and needs for teachers working with students from communities affected by traumatic events such as the tsunami in Aceh. Information regarding his research can be found in the Letter of Introduction attached to this invitation.

A small payment will be offered to compensate for your time and efforts, and your participation is highly appreciated.

Yours faithfully,

Professor Rosalind Murray-Harvey
School of Education, Flinders University

and
Kind regards,

Fadliadi
Ph.D. student
School of Education, Flinders University
Adelaide, South Australia
Phone: +6285222929665
Email: fadliaceh@yahoo.com

CONSENT FORM FOR PARTICIPATION IN RESEARCH
(by interview)

I …...

being over the age of 18 years hereby consent to participate as requested in the interview for the research project on "*The challenges and needs for teachers working with students in communities affected by the armed conflict and the tsunami in the Aceh province*"

1.   I have read the information provided.

2.   Details of procedures and any risks have been explained to my satisfaction.

3.   I agree to audio/video recording of my information and participation.

4.   I am aware that I should retain a copy of the Consent Form for future reference.

5.   I understand that:

   - I may not directly benefit from taking part in this research.
   - I am free to withdraw from the project at any time and am free to decline to answer particular questions.
   - While the information gained in this study will be published as explained, I will not be identified, and individual information will remain confidential.
   - Whether I participate or not, or withdraw after participating, will have no effect on any treatment or service that is being provided to me.
   - I may ask that the recording be stopped at any time, and that I may withdraw at any time from the session or the research without disadvantage.

6.   I agree/do not agree* to the tape/transcript* being made available to other researchers who are not members of this research team, but who are judged by the research team to be doing related research, on condition that my identity is not revealed.   * *delete as appropriate*

7.   I have had the opportunity to discuss taking part in this research with a family member or friend.

Participant's signature…………………………………Date…………………...

I certify that I have explained the study to the volunteer and consider that she/he understands what is involved and freely consents to participation.

Researcher's name………………………….…………………….................

Researcher's signature…………………………………..Date……………………

NB: *Two signed copies should be obtained. The copy retained by the researcher may then be used for authorisation of Items 8 and 9, as appropriate.*

8.   I, the participant whose signature appears below, have read a transcript of my participation and agree to its use by the researcher as explained.

Participant's signature……………………………………Date…………………...

PARENTAL CONSENT FORM FOR CHILD PARTICIPATION IN RESEARCH

CONSENT FORM FOR PARTICIPATION IN RESEARCH

(by interview)

I …..

being over the age of 18 years hereby consent to my child ....

participating, as requested, in the interview for the research project on "*The challenges and needs for teachers working with students in communities affected by the armed conflict and the tsunami in the Aceh province*"

1.   I have read the information provided.

2.   Details of procedures and any risks have been explained to my satisfaction.

3.   I agree to audio recording of my child's information and participation.

4.   I am aware that I should retain a copy of the Consent Form for future reference.

5.   I understand that:

- My child may not directly benefit from taking part in this research.
- My child is free to withdraw from the project at any time and is free to decline to answer particular questions.
- While the information gained in this study will be published as explained, my child will not be identified, and individual information will remain confidential.
- Whether my child participates or not, or withdraws after participating, will have no effect on his/her progress in his/her course of study, or results gained.
- My child may ask that the recording be stopped at any time, and he/she may withdraw at any time from the session or the research without disadvantage.

6.   I agree/do not agree* to the tape/transcript* being made available to other researchers who are not members of this research team, but who are judged by the research team to be doing related research, on condition that my child's identity is not revealed.   * *delete as appropriate*

Participant's signature………………………………….Date…………………...

7.   I certify that I have explained the study to the volunteer and consider that she/he   understands what is involved and freely consents to participation.

Researcher's name……………………………………………….................

Researcher's signature…………………………………..Date…………………….

*NB: Two signed copies should be obtained. The copy retained by the researcher may
        then be used for authorisation of Items 8 and 9, as appropriate.*

8.   I, the parent whose signature appears below, have read a transcript of my
        child's participation and agree to its use by the researcher as explained.

Participant's signature……………………………………Date…………………...

Appendix 2: Approval letters from the local office of Dept of Education and the study school.

PEMERINTAH KOTA BANDA ACEH
DINAS PENDIDIKAN PEMUDA DAN OLAHRAGA
Jln. Panglima Nyak Makam No. 23 Kel. Kota Baro Telp (0651) 7552937
BANDA ACEH 23125

Banda Aceh, 19 Maret 2010
3 Rabiul Akhir 1430H

Kepada

Nomor	: _____ /2010
Sifat	: Biasa
Lamp	: -
Hal	: Izin Penelitian

Yth, Kepala SMP Negeri ●
Banda Aceh
Di-

     BANDA ACEH

Assalammu'alaikum Wr. Wb

Sehubungan dengan surat dari Flinders University Adelaide Australia, hal seperti yang tersebut pada Pokok surat, maka dengan ini kami mohon bantuan saudara memberikan bantuan/izin untuk melakukan penelitian dan pengumpulan data-data.
Kepada:

Nama	:	**FADLIADI**
Jenjang Pend	:	Ph.D

Dengan ketentuan adalah sebagai berikut :
1. Tidak menganggu proses belajar mengajar di sekolah.
2. Berpakaian sopan dan rapi.
3. Surat ini berlaku sejak tanggal 1 April s.d 30 April 2010.

Demikian surat ini dibuat untuk dapat dipergunakan seperlunya.

An. KEPALA DINAS PENDIDIKAN PEMUDA
DAN OLAHRAGA KOTA BANDA ACEH
Kabid Pendidikan Pra Sekolah, Dasar
dan Lanjutan

DRS. T. ANGKASA
NIP 19590922 197903 1 001

TEMBUSAN :
1. Flinders University
2. Mahasiswa/i yang bersangkutan
3. Pertinggal ....

Note: Some parts of the letter have been covered for ethical reasons

PEMERINTAH KOTA BANDA ACEH
DINAS PENDIDIKAN PEMUDA DAN OLAHRAGA
SMP NEGERI ⸗ BANDA ACEH

Jalan ⸗ No. ⸗ (0651)⸗ – Banda Aceh ⸗

SURAT KETERANGAN
NO : ⸗ / ⸗ / 2010

Kepala Sekolah Menengah Pertama (SMP) Negeri ⸗ Banda Aceh menerangkan bahwa :

Nama	:	FADLIADI
NIM	:	2051603
Jurusan	:	Program Doktor (S3) Bidang Pendidikan
Jenjang Pend	:	PH. D

Yang namanya tersebut diatas benar sedang melakukan penelitian pengumpulan data di SMP Negeri ⸗ Banda Aceh rangka penyusunan Thesis dengan Judul :
" TANTANGAN DAN KEBUTUHAN GURU YANG MENGAJAR DISEKOLAH YANG TERKENA BENCANA ALAM STUNAMI DI ACEH "
Sesuai dengan Surat izin Kepala Dinas Pendidikan Pemuda dan Olahraga kota Banda Aceh Nomor : ⸗ / 2010 tanggal ⸗ Maret 2010.

Demikian Surat Keterangan ini kami keluarkan untuk dapat dipergunakan seperlunya.

Banda Aceh, ⸗ April 2010
Kepala Sekolah,

⸗ S.Pd
NIP ⸗

Note: Some parts of the letter have been covered for ethical reasons

Appendix 3: Field notes of a classroom observation

Observation at a Biology subject, 26/04/10 at 10am

- The teacher greets students and students reply
- The lesson begins with prayer
- Males and females sit in separate row
- Only 13 students in the class, 4 were absent. Students mention names of those who were absent on the day when teachers ask. There are lots of empty desks and chairs.
- Students seem to obey their teacher.
- Teacher checks students' attributes (hairs, uniforms etc.).
- Lesson begins. Teacher asks student where they are up to make sure that students know what they have learnt.
- The teacher keeps moving from place to place.
- Students seem to engage in classroom activities.
- Students laugh at those who make mistakes or do not answer teacher's question correctly.
- The lesson is bout cell but the teacher mentions that she cannot show students cell because there is no microscope.
- The teacher lectures in front of the classroom about the topic. So far no other activities except teacher's lecture and students' listening or follow teachers' instruction about what to do in related to the lesson being taught.
- Some students seem to be wondering about.
- Some students seem to begin to disengage
- The teacher points at one student to answer a question and other students are asked to be quiet and not allowed to answer.
- The classroom is so simple, not many pictures on the wall except the picture of the president and vice-president, a clock, lesson schedule, and two pictures of national heroes.
- Some students who disengage return quickly to the tasks when the teacher approaches them or looks at them.
- Teacher asks some student to the write their answer on the blackboard.
- When teacher asks something related to the lesson, students cannot answer their teacher's even though the answers are actually in the textbook. It seems that they do not learn their lesson beforehand.
- Some student look serious and pay attention to teacher.
- The room is hot. Some students fan themselves using books. They do not look comfortable.
- 45 minutes pass, the teacher stop lecturing, gives time for students to ask questions.
- The teacher keeps encouraging students to ask if they have anything they do not understand.
- Only one student asks question and the teacher responds to the question.
- No more students asks question to teacher.
- The teacher sets a test, asking students to sit a bit far from each other. She says she wants to see if students have mastered the today's lesson.
- The teacher dictates the questions, students write the questions on a piece of paper.

- Again, some students look uncomfortable as the classroom is hot...difficult to concentrate on doing their test/tasks. Some students try to look at their friends' answers (cheating)
- The class next door is noisy. The noise can be clearly heard from this class disturbing the class and concentration. The voice of the teacher in the next-door class is also heard from here.
- Again, some students begin to not engage in the task.
- The teacher reminds them to focus on the lesson and tasks.
- Hot…the teacher looks exhausted with the weather and with managing the class.
- She looks unhappy when she checks students' work indicating that students do not master what she has taught.
- Class dismisses
- After the lesson, the teacher told me that students did not focus on lesson. They often played during the lesson. She suspected that students did not learn at home or prepare for the lesson. In addition, the classroom environment was not comfortable too.

Appendix 4: Interviews guides

Questions for teacher

1. I would like to have a picture of your educational background and your roles at school. Would you please tell me a little bit about these things?
2. Everyone knows how demanding a teacher's role is. What are some of the other parts of your life that are important to you outside school?
3. I would be interested in your experience about teaching and schooling. How have you experienced teaching in schools like the ones in Aceh?
4. What do you see as the most challenging part of teaching? And what do you see as the difference between teaching before and after the tsunami?
5. What do you know about the impact of traumatic events such as the tsunami in Aceh on students/teachers?
6. Have you or others noticed that children in Aceh are affected by the tsunami? In what ways?
7. How do you recognize that your students are having problems or difficulties?
8. Why do you think some students are experiencing less difficulty than others? Or what might be some of the reasons for those difficulties in your opinion?
9. What did you or other teachers do when you/they know that one/some of students are having difficulties with their academic or social life?
10. As not all students have the same level of difficulties, what strategy do you think teachers should use to accommodate the needs of all children in their classrooms?
11. How do you perceive the role of teachers at school in Aceh?
12. How should teachers position themselves in the life of children?
13. What challenges have you and others in your school faced to effectively work with students since the tsunami?
14. Who can you talk to when you have problems with your class and students?
15. In your opinion, what makes a good teacher?
16. How would we achieve things that make us a good teacher?
17. What do you think about the importance of professional developments (PD) for teachers?
18. Have you ever attended such program (PD)? Would you please tell me about the program you have attended?
19. What about special programs to address children's needs at school affected by the tsunami? Have you been in those programs? Could you please tell me about the programs?
20. Sometimes we do have bad days in our everyday life. How often do you have bad days at school and what are the causes?
21. What about good days at school? What makes you happy to come or to be at school?
22. If you were given three wishes, what would you wish to see in this school to be better place for you as a teacher?
23. If you hold a power to make a change in this school. What would you do?

Questions for community members

1. In general, what do you as the different in tsunami-affected schools between before and after the tragedy? What can you tell me about the schools?
2. It seems that the school currently has a very low number of student enrolments. What do you think are the causes?
3. What do you know about the impact of the tsunami students?
4. Do you notice that teachers and/or students are still having difficulties as a result of the tsunami? In what ways?
5. Do you believe that children are still affected by their tsunami experience?
6. If not, what makes them able to cope with their tsunami experience?
7. What can be the challenges for students in their learning?
8. What are the causes of the problems students are facing at school?
9. What can be done to help the students overcome their problems?
10. What are the impacts of the tsunami on teachers?
11. Do you notice that teachers are having problems as a result of the tsunami? In what ways?
12. Could you tell me the general features of teachers in schools affected by the tsunami?
13. Do you see that the tsunami still have impact on teachers at school?
14. If not, what makes them able to cope with their tsunami experience?
15. What can be the challenges for teachers in teaching at schools in Aceh now?
16. What are the causes of the problems?
17. What can be done to help teachers address their problems?
18. What is a good teacher in your eyes?
19. What do you think about the role of teachers at a tsunami-affected school?
20. What do you expect from a teacher? Why
21. How would that be achieved?
22. What can be the challenges for teachers to be a teacher as you are expecting?
23. What can be done to address the challenges?
24. What skills and knowledge should a teacher have to teach at a tsunami affected school especially in dealing with tsunami-affected students?
25. What resources do teachers at the tsunami-affected school need?
26. Is there anything else a teacher needs to perform their roles well?
27. What do you know about any program to enhance teachers' knowledge and skills? Are they important?
28. Do you think that it is important to provide teachers teaching at tsunami-affected schools with a special training?
29. What do teachers needs to help students affected by the tsunami learn better?
30. What do you think about the roles of the community at school? Are they involved at school so far?
31. What are the roles of parents at school and in their children's education?
32. What can the government do to help teachers and students at tsunami affected schools for better teaching and learning at the schools?
33. If you were given three wishes to make the schools better, what would your wishes be?
34. How sure are you that your wishes can be a reality?

Questions for students

1. When you have problems, who do you see as important to help you overcome those difficult situations? Could you please tell me what they do? Are those programs/help they offered useful?
2. What are some ways you have seen others or yourselves as important to cope with the challenges?
3. What about teachers? What did/do your teachers do to help you cope with your difficulties?
4. What activities do you think you like most from any program/activity your teachers have offered to help you overcome the challenges? Why?
5. In your opinion, what does a good teacher do to make your life better (in/outside school)?
6. What do you see as the challenges for your teachers in teaching or working students at school?
7. Do you have any ideas what your teachers can or should do to overcome the challenges?

Appendix 5: Translation of interviews with a teacher, student, and community member

Translation of interview with a teacher

I: I was so impressed when I did my class observation yesterday in your class. You mastered the class and the material very well. If I may know, would you please tell me how long have you been teaching at school?

R: Since 1 Oct 1981, 28 years plus few months now. That is not a short period of time.

I: Would you please tell me your educational background?

R: I did my one-year undergraduate teaching program in 1979/1980 in Banda Aceh after finishing my senior high school. Because of the family reasons, which were financial matters and a great responsibility that my parent had to raise their 9 children in the family, I decided to not continue my study but start to find a job. I decided to be a teacher because becoming a teacher has always been my life aspiration. Since I was still a student, I used to pretend become a teacher in my room alone. Firstly, I was employed as a teacher in Junior High School ▮▮▮▮▮▮▮ in South Aceh commencing on 1 October 1981. Two years there, I moved to teach at a junior high school in ▮▮▮▮▮ south Aceh from 1984 to 2003 ...eh...while continuing my study to a three-year undergraduate teaching program. I finished the study in 1998. Then I got married and had kids. Actually, at that time I wanted to continue my study to a full undergraduate program in teaching but at the same time my husband also wanted to continue his study to that program. So, I gave in. Later, I continue my study at Open University. Just a year I had been doing my study at the Open University, my husband wanted to move to Banda Aceh and I followed him to Banda Aceh and began teaching at this school since 24 January 2004. That's why I am here now in Banda Aceh. When we first came here we lived in a small rented house. Five months later, I took a chance to raise loan from a bank in Banda Aceh to buy a house. With the help from an ex-student of mine in ▮▮▮▮▮ who had been the manager of that bank at time, I got the loan I need to buy a little house. I had forgotten him completely but he still remembers me, introduced himself and was willing to help me. He also took me around Banda Aceh and treated me and my husband, who was also his teachers in Senior High School ▮▮▮▮▮, to lunch. It showed how respectful is a teacher in a student's eye.

I: Very respected, wasn't it?

R: I was deeply touched to see how respectful he is to me, his old teacher. On December 2004, I moved in to our new home in ▮▮▮▮▮ sub-district. But God had different plan. The tsunami hit Aceh in on 26 December 2004 and I lost

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[23] Name of certain persons and places have been covered for ethical reasons. This has been done for all in the interview samples in this Appendix.

everything that I had. At that time I prayed to God with all my heart and soul that I accepted his will if I had to die on that day. I thought it was the Judgement day that God promises. If there was any good deed I have done in my life that You accept, please save me, said me in my prayer to God...God answered my prayer and he saved me from the water that I believe about 15 meter in height. I keep praying and praying and asking God to meet me with my children and husband whoever is alive. Again, my prayer was answered. I saw my husband in debris of a destroyed house. I hailed towards him and he came to me by crawling on his hands and knees. Then I met my son. I said to him that I could not stand anymore and I am likely to die any minutes to follow your little sister. You be good to your father. Having heard that, he grovelled at my feet and said; Mom, please look after us. Please be strong. If you are not strong how can we are strong. At that time, I just submitted to my fate. I said to my son don't cry. I need some water, and he and my husband went to find some water. I drank to clean my stomach as I had swallowed lots of tsunami water. That night, I slept on the street with many dead bodies around me. The next day, I asked my husband to go along to look for my youngest child who had been swept from my arms. When we arrived at ▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮, you Mr. Fadli may know the place, another earthquake happened and people yelled the seawater arose again (the possibility of another tsunami). We quickly went back to meet our two children that we left. In short, we arrived in ▮▮▮▮ (a hill area in Banda Aceh) and stayed overnight there. We then went to a relative of my husband in ▮▮▮▮▮▮ and stayed there for 6 months. Life was not easy for us during our staying there. In June 2005, I moved to a tsunami refugee barrack in ▮▮▮▮▮▮ and I began to manage my life again with a broken heart while I kept asking for help here and there. At last, we got a little house of 6x6m from an NGO.

I: What was the name of the NGO?

R: APLING, an NGO from Ethiopia, a poor country in Africa. At the end of December 2007, I continued my study again at the open University after I got the replacement for my certificates which were lost in the tsunami. And this is my last semester there. So, I have not got a certificate for full undergraduate degree yet. But my experience in teaching is rich and many people admire me. However, since I have not got the undergraduate certificate, I cannot be certified as a professional teacher. Honestly, I feel so sad looking at other colleagues who have been certified as professional teachers while I cannot be. But I keep praying to God to guide me and give the best things. I always encourage myself to always be optimistic and energetic to do the best I can for my job although with a broken heart looking at other colleagues even the younger ones have been certified in professional teaching. Becoming a teacher is my life aspiration.

I: Besides a teacher, you are also a vice principal?

R: Yes, the vice principal for student affairs.

I: Could you please tell me your role and responsibilities as the vice principal for student affairs?

R: Yes. There are written on the wall behind my seat in the office about the role and responsibilities of the vice principal. We can see them there. Therefore, I always come to school on Monday for Upacara bendera (assembly) although I am not on duty on every Monday. After the assembly, I check students' discipline in wearing school attributes. If I found a male student whose hair is long, I will cut it straight away. Thank God, the students' discipline is formed now as you Mr. Fadli can see yourself but their IQ is still low.

I: In your opinion, what do you know about the impact of the tsunami on children or students and on teachers?

R: Huge! Actually, the majority of students who come to this school are those with life difficulties and problems. Some students are those with divorced parent, some are orphans as a result of the tsunami, some have no father and the mother marry another man or vice versa. At the beginning after the tsunami, I was upset if I found students were naughty or lazy. After I had a chat with the children, I understood that the majority of the students here had problems mainly from homes. They are traumatized because of the family dysfunction that might not be as a result of the tsunami. I am so concerned with them. I do not hope them to be clever students, but only to obey the regulations, for example to perform prayer at the school praying room (the 'mushalla'). That's enough. I keep monitoring the students here although sometimes beyond my duties. What I do is merely to hope for God's blessing.

I: What about the impact of the tsunami on teachers?

R: The impact to teacher...We, the teachers who were affected by the tsunami, seem to mean nothing for other colleagues who were not the victims of the tsunami. How can I say that? Just after the tsunami, we did not have a uniform for school. Other people who gave us the uniform such as teachers from other school while many of teachers in this school were not affected by the tsunami and they are rich too. You Fadli can see yourself. But I did not feel disappointed. They can laugh because they have a complete family and lots of property but we lost our family members and belongings. May be God are testing us. I believe that God is testing our faith. Those who are loved are tested. This principle (belief) made me strong during that difficult conditions and motivated me to stand up. Even, in many occasions, I was the one who lead the meetings and organised events at school. People including the principal admired me.

I: Do you notice if the tsunami has affected the teaching and learning process at school? For example teachers have difficulties in performing their teaching tasks?

R: Oh. No no. Once, I felt hopeless and useless. That was about 3 to 6 months following the tsunami. I do not want (to do) anything. I had no feelings at all to teach at that time. Then I received a letter from my younger brother in village. That letter had awakened me to gain my spirit back. In that letter he said that: "Wake up my sister! You wake up. Do not be hopeless. Gain back what you have achieved. Your life has not ended yet. It is still long. My sister, please revive from your hopelessness." After having read the letter, I started to revive. I

realised that I should not be hopeless and God does not like people who are hopeless. Now, although I do not have any salary left, as my salary is all debited to pay for the loan I raised to bank to expand my house. I have two children now, teenager- a girl and a young man while the house built by the NGO is too small and has only one bedroom. Thank God, I still have side job as a casual teacher at other schools and private course and earn some money from teaching there. Sometimes, I feel sad as I see other colleagues signed their salary receipt and took the money while I always sign the receipt but take no money. I try to be strong although with a broken heart. Moreover, my husband does not care of household expense and he does not give money to me. I often cry in my heart and pray to God. But as Fadli can see, I still exist.

I: So, In addition to teaching in this school, you have a side job?

R: Yes, teaching at that other schools in the afternoon to have some income.

I: So it is to support your family expense?

R: Yes, It is.

I: Do you or other teachers in this school notice that student here are having difficulties as a result of the tsunami?

R: Yes. But other colleagues do not have the solution. Why I say so? Once, there was an orphan student in this school whose parents were killed in the tsunami. That student, who graduated last year, wore sandal to school. A teacher who was not affected by the tsunami was on duty at that time, I am not mentioning her name. She then slapped that student three times. That meant that teacher did not understand the problems faced the student. That student cried and went home and reported to his brother. Soon, his brother came and I could see that he was very upset and asked for the teacher to show up. Actually, that teacher was there but I was the one who faced the student's brother to protect that teacher. I did not want that brother to slap back the teacher although I knew that teacher is wrong. The brother and I then had a conversation to solve the problem. After that student's bother left the school, that teacher said "alaah" despising that student's brother rather than to thank me. Then I told the teacher off. "Ibu cubit daging ibu baru cubit daging orang". You were not affected by the tsunami so you could not see or feel the difficulty of life that probably the student was facing. He lived with brother now and no matter what love and affection of a bother give will never be same as love of parents. That student might not received adequate love at home. Many of the teachers here at this school are snobbish. Once, we, the teachers who are the victims of the tsunami, were excluded by some other colleagues. I did not take it seriously. But God looks after us so that we can survive.

I: How do you know if your students are having problems or difficulties?

R: Difficulties in financial matter or study?

I: In their study.

R: When I notice that students' academic performance decrease, I would ask the students to talk and ask few questions such as about his/her homes. Ask if they are happy if I visit their homes. I would take an effort to visit their homes. My experience from one visit to a student's home where the student lives with his/her aunt, and talking to the aunt and the way she responded, I can understand that no one can replace parent's love and affection. It will never be the same.

I: Not the same?

R: Not the same. Family factors or homes seem to be the major causes for students' problems at school. And I absolutely can understand that.

I: Apart from the tsunami factor, what other factors have been the causes for student's difficulties in learning?

R: A lack of school facility that support teaching and learning. For example, when I want to teach the process of photosynthesis to the student, there is no instrument in the laboratory. So I have to change material with something else simple such as using rice to show photosynthesis. Basically, what I want for my lesson is achieved. I notice that in addition to the tsunami factor, a lack of seriousness in learning also contribute to students' problems in learning at school.

I: How can student are not serious?

R: I think may be because the level of family income is low. Actually there few students who are willing to study but their intelligence level is low. For example in one lesson, I notice a student who looked very serious paying attention to my explanation. But when I ask question he could not answer it.

I: May be they do not study the lesson at home?

R: Yes.

I: May be because students have to work at home to help their parent?

R: I have seen some family here. There are students who left home without telling their parent. They join a gang such as motorbike race gangs. Then they do not study at home. There are student whose writing books are still empty that show they do not study at home. From all, boys are more troubled than girls although they both are affected by the tsunami.

I: Or that was as the implementation of their release of a feeling of frustration?

R: That's correct. That is as their release of a feeling of frustration because they do not receive adequate love and attention at home. So they try to find self-identity through friends by joining the motorbike racing and join gangs-here and there. Therefore, school is only as a place for them to release the feelings of frustration.

I: When you know there is any of your students is having problems or difficulties, what will you do?

R: Err... There is no special therapy for that. I look at their faces, and ask questions. I just try to understand them and follow what they want. For example, there was a student who would do anything except to study. So I asked him to clean the room. And he did it very quickly. So, he loved working more than studying. May be he thought studying is difficult and take time. May be he got hard time from outside world like from parents, and friends so that he became pessimistic in studying.

I: We all know that not all students in a class have the same difficulties and needs? How do you manage this?

R: May be. I cannot help them in financial matters. Because I am the principal for student affairs, I come in to every class and take the data of students who are eligible for scholarship. Nearly all students in this school receive scholarship. Some have it in every six months, some in four months and some in every three months.

I: Apart from financial matters, what do you do with the different problems and needs of students in a class? How do you manage it?

R: I am not a class supervisor. The class supervisors usually call for their parents to come to school to discuss the issue. I personally usually ask the students what is their problem and discuss the problems with them. That's why many students like me.

I: Based on your experience, is there any difference of your role before and after the tsunami?

R: Yes, there is. Long time ago when I was still a teacher in ▮▮▮▮▮▮, I found that few students are naughty but they are diligent and they obeyed the school regulations. My relationship with students' parent was close too. After I moved here, I still do the best I can because teaching is my ideal.

I: So you consider your role remain the same. There is no big challenge after the tsunami?

R: No. What I found as a big challenge is the ability of the students to receive the lessons I teach which is very low. But students in my old school, I just need to write things and they understand them.

I: Is that because students here lack concentration?

R: Yes. I think mainly because of their family background, which is from family with level of IQ, low socioeconomic family background, problems as a result of the tsunami. The problems are just so complex.

I: So you consider your job is more demanded (difficult) now?

R: Yes. But I do not consider it difficult or take it as burden. I take it as ...

I;   But that becomes the challenges for you?

R: Yes. They are the challenges for me.

I: In the life of children, how should a teacher position him/herself?

R: Eh....

I: Where is the position of a teacher in a student's life?

R: I looked into students' eyes. Sometimes I found sadness in there. I tried to find the solution. Once, I included a student in the list of scholarship recipient because he said he come from poor family. I invited the student's parent to school to receive the scholarship. In fact, the mother is the stepmother. She said she has treated the student as her own son. But she still could see dissatisfaction in the student. I then said to the mother to treat the student even better as is he is her own son.

I: Does it mean that you also treat students here as your own children?

R: Yes. That's why students obey me. You can see it yourself. I treat them gently and with affection. By so doing, they may be comforted. And I always try to motivate them to study by good words expectations. But I have to acknowledge that their IQ level is very low.

I: If you have problems with your students or class, to whom do you usually come to ask for help?

R: Sometimes when I have problems in my class, I would discuss it with friends at school. But not all colleagues can be friends or good. "Kepala sama hitam tapi hati lain". If the problem were personal, I would not tell anybody, as I am afraid they will disclose the issue. Sometimes I also discuss the problems at school with my daughter at home. For example when the student seemed to be diligent and motivated to come to school because they were expecting the scholarship. Sometimes when I have money, I give students uniforms for example in 2008; I gave a pair of uniform for a boy because I saw him wearing torn pants to school. So the student can feel that there is someone who cares. From that I think many students respect me. Sometimes I try asking other colleagues to donate things to students but for many reasons their hearts were not touched to do it.

I: If you have a problem you cannot solve yourself. Is there a place outside school for you or other teachers that you can come to ask for help?

R: No. I have not ever studied educational psychology topic so it is only based on my experiences to how to deal with the problems. I work out how to deal with different students and different problems.

I;   So, is there any place outside school for a teacher to discuss the problems they might have?

R: NGO for example?

I: Counselling centres or NGO or place that you can come to discuss your problem....

R: Here, if counselling is involved, that means the problem is serious. Before any problem reaches the counselling centre, I would ask student to discuss the problem first. With a good communication (relationship?), we can embrace the students...and they will be happy. There is a school counselling teacher here but I do not involve in counselling. I only deal with students who come to me for advices towards their problems.

I: How do you perceive the role of parent in children's education?

R: Once we had a meeting with students' parents. I think their participation is only about 50%. Of 40 invited, only 15 turned up to school. So, I can say parents' participation is low.

I: In your opinion, what makes a teacher is considered as a good teacher?

R: In my opinion, a student will consider his/her teacher as a good teacher when a teacher can serve as a friend, a guide, who can be a parent for them and an educator. So teachers can be her/his idol.

I: Teachers be a model for students?

R: Yes. Teachers as a model for students. So we have to be wise and able to position ourselves in students' lives. Sometimes we are their friend, parents, or someone they respect. Sometimes when I saw there was a class unattended, I just ask the students to sing or read poetry although that was not my responsibility to cheer them. From that I think students respect me.

I: What can a teacher do to be a good teacher?

R: Personally, I would say that firstly teachers need to know their students. That is the most important thing. If we do not know student, everything seems to be going difficult. Touch their heart then they will be willing to study. That is my way of dealing with students here.

I: Do you see training, workshops or seminars as important to be provided to teachers to make them good teachers?

R: Sometimes we do have training. Some training programs are formal such as training related to subjects on how to prepare good lesson plans, teaching methods and how to be good teachers (in teaching technique). Some are non-formal. I have been to such training such as those run by NGOs about psychosocial to deal with trauma after the tsunami. The training involved games and singing activities. I combine the two kinds of training I have received to deal with issues in class depending on the situations.

I: So, would you consider training either formal or non-formal as important to be provided to teachers?

R: Very important because I know that teachers are agent for education who need to have good techniques, tricks, and methods in delivering knowledge. They are just like the street vendors who have to be good at speaking to sell their products or goods. We teachers are examined from head to toe.

I: Just now, you said that you have been in a training program related to the tsunami. Was that a sustained program or just a one stop and that's it?

R: I had been in that program for three times, I think they were in 2007. Now there is no such program anymore as NGOs have gone...back to their countries. So training is only what provided by the office of the Dept. of Education. Although only three times I was involved in those training, they are very meaningful for me.

I: Hm. This may be the last question for this interview today. So, subject-related training was provided by the office of Dept. of Education while those related to the tsunami was run by NGO?

R: Actually, NGOs also ran some subject related training programs like those in 2005 by ERA and Sampoerna Foundation.

I: But Dept. of Education provides only subject-related training for teachers?

R: Yes. Yes.

I: Thank you very much madam. We will continue our interview later in the second interview after I have a bit analysis of this interview.

The translation of the interview with a community member

F: What do you see as the challenges for the school after the tsunami?

C: Since the tsunami, there is a lack of student. Many schools were built by the NGO. There were about seven students in a class.

F: Ok

C: The first challenge is the students who were from the coast, most of them died. Even if there is one or two alive, they are scared to go to the school in the tsunami area.

F: Does it mean that people are moving to other area?

C: We do not know that. Some people are still in trauma.

F: Ya, ya

C: They might have moved out. But there is also what we call urbanisation…people are moving to this tsunami area. Their children who are in the school age are now dominating our school.

F: Do you mean people from other area?

C: Yes, people from outside area. Not many of the tsunami people exist anymore.

F: Ya.

C: So the first problem for the children who experienced the tsunami is their learning motivation is disturbed…first from the psychological perspective and the other is from the perspective of...

F: Economic?

C: The family economy is clearly badly affected, even worse when they live alone. When they (students) do not have parent, brother or relative, they will face financial issue like for transportation and to continue their education. Also they are still traumatised because the school is closed (to the beach).

F: Do you see that children are still traumatised?

C: The children who are the victims are still traumatised.

F: Do you mean the victims of the tsunami?

C: The tsunami victims, especially on the date of the tsunami every year. People who lost their relatives are still affected by the tsunami, much less the children who lost their parents. That very much affected children's education

F: If we look at the percentage of the tsunami affected students, how many of them are in our school?

C: Do you mean the students who are the victims of the tsunami?

F: Yes…just the rough percentage.

C: Approximately 25%.

F: 25%?

C: 25% of students are the tsunami victims. Interestingly...the school has been for about 5 years on now...but it still not (running well)?

F: That is interesting. Why? Do you think the school has not succeeded yet in attracting students to enrol? Don't people trust the school?

C: No, It happens not only in ▮▮▮▮▮▮ (the study school) but also in most other tsunami schools and we have checked it out for that matter. We have actually tried to promote our school, but much less for those who experienced the tsunami who would think twice to go to our school, other people would consider our school as the last alternative to enrol their children to our school. My own son, I have to heavily persuade him to wanting to go to this school before he finally agreed to.

F: Is that because the school is located closed to beach or the tsunami affected school?

C: That because the trauma. It is probably be different if the death is only one or two people such as when people are in the beach and then they are drowned. But the tsunami was huge even the world acknowledges it. Even if we go the Arab countries and we tell people that we are from Aceh...the tsunami, people will help us.

F: So, when the children who are native to ▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮ or ▮▮▮▮▮▮▮(from the study school neighbourhood area) go to other schools outside this area, it is because they are scared to go to ▮▮▮▮▮ (the study school)?

C: Ee. E. That's...

F: Or they tried to find a school they perceived as a better quality school?

C: That can be the case. Moreover, the recruitment system is now based on NEM (the National Examination Test score). But what I notice is the children from this tsunami area are those who are from the low SES family. They do not really care about choosing school. As long as they go to school, that is enough for them. I have seen many children who go to school in the morning and work in the afternoon to help their family for economic matters. We have seen many who go to the sea. When the children do not attend the school, parents do not respond positively when we inform them about their children's absence.

F: So, how would the school committee be involved in process of learning and teaching at the school?

C: We have tried to embrace…ee. Call the parents to motivate their children that the children would be motivated to learn, go to school especially there is BOS funding to support students now.

F: Free schooling?

C: providing support for transportation using that BOS funding.

F: Do you mean giving money for transportation"

C: Not giving money but providing means of transportation such as giving bicycles for students. But the problem is most parents in this tsunami area have low education make it difficult for the school to communicate with them. In this tsunami area, parents do not respond when we inform them about their children's educational matters. Even the principal complained that there was a student who does not attend the school for months, and the parent did not respond when they are informed about it.

F: That's probably because they were busy working?

C: Yes.

F: Is there any relationship?

C: Yes there is a relationship because the students are asking to go...

F: Do you mean students are asking to go to the sea?

C: No but they are helping catching crabs, fishing alike. Once, we call the parents but no response for their children's education. Sometimes, I saw students in the local market selling until late at night, until "subuh" (around 5 am in the morning). Soon they finish school at 2 PM, they start to sell in "subuh market" (a very early morning market). I have seen some children like that.

F: Is there any efforts from the school to help those students?

C: That's the problem. There are approaches from the school committee and the principal to call for the parents, but whatever approaches we do there always seems no response from the parents. Now, I start to see a little improvement but very little.

F: In terms of the parents' response?

C: The response. Except for the non-tsunami students. The students from non-tsunami background, probably because of their parents' facility, are better. The first group (the tsunami students) are "klo priep" (the Acehnese term meaning very stubborn, ignorant) ha. Ha....

F: Not listening to anyone and anything, right?

C: Our school has three classes in each grade now. That's better compared to other schools. Then we look at the school system in Aceh, which is like a cone.

F: Pyramid?

C: Too many elementary schools in the tsunami area, such as one in ███████, but the number of the students is low. The number of the secondary schools is also big but Senior Schools is limited. That affects the students' enrolment.

F: Ya.

C: The Senior schools cannot cope with students' enrolment because lots of junior high school graduates. So people have no choice for senior school then they go the senior school in our area.

F: Do you mean SMA 13 (the name of the senior school in the area)?

C: Compared to SMA 6, our senior school has more students because people consider the closeness to where they live.

F: YA.

C: Our school (the study school) is also not bad compared to other schools. We have three classes now. We may have four classes next year. Now, the students are no longer those who are the tsunami victims but the outsiders.

F: Are they students who were rejected by other school and then enrol here?

C: In our school?

F: Yes.

C: E. Ee.

F: I am sorry to say... Maybe the students are those who have tried to enrol in other schools but failed and then they go to our school. So our school is the last choice.

C: No. Children especially parents know they children ability based on their NEM. When they see their children's NEM, they know what school is suitable for their children. There are people who think our school as a lay aside (spare) school.

F: As a fake school?

C: Look like. But when we open for registration last time, people did come to enrol even though the enrolment did not reach the expectation of at least ...how many? 34 students in a class?

F: 30 students

C: Yes 30.

F: Lets say we have 20 students in a class.

C: Ah…that's good. In Australia, there are 15 students, right? That intensive class is better. Ha.ha. (Laughing)

C: Much better than old school in our time, which had 54 students in a class, too crowded.

F: My time, there were 45 students in a class.

C: E. 45.

F: 50.

C: 50 students if the school was the favourite one reaching 53. In our school ███████. It is not too bad. We have good building, laboratory, and computer and there were people from NGO coming to train to use the computer.

F: I saw the school has few computers

C: We used to have 65 mobile computers from NGO visiting our school by a car. And now we have not had such program because it is the new beginning of school, isn't it?

F: Excuse me?

C: It is the new school term; we do not have such program. We used to have good computer facility right after the tsunami. The car came with the computer. Each student in the class could use one computer. Ha. Ha...All my children, both of them know how to use computer. I was astonished because I never sent them to a computer course. I asked them to type a letter using my computer, they can do it. I asked them to make the salary report for my employees, they can do it. They learnt it from the school. That was when his class was having 15 or may be 13 students. There is the advantage (of having small class).

F: In terms of the school facility like books, laboratory equipment, it seems that the school lacks of it. Why?

C: A... First, we are from the tsunami background area where parents' income is so low. That affects the school, doesn't it? We cannot expect everything from the government. The school committee try to improve the school facility by involving the...

F: the parents?

C: The parents. When we sat with the parents and talked about improving the school facilities, of course we talked about money. And when we talked about money, no one was interested in. This is the problem. When we invited parents for a meeting discussing that we need this. We need that…there was no response although they did not say no. When the students were about to graduate, we asked them to donate a book from each student to improve the library facility, no one responded. The parents are not supporting and we cannot just hope from the government. The government funding is very limited like BOS funding. The BOS itself is given based on the number of the students. And we receive little. Other schools like SMP 1, or MTsN, which have lots of students, receive a lot. I f I am not wrong, 575 thousand for junior high school. If 1000 (students), that will account for 500 million (rupiah). 700(?) the committee can collect to improve the school facility plus the donation from the parents, lets say they donate 500. So, we are not surprised that the school whose parents from good socio economic status, they are better. In our school, the parents are pedicab drivers, "pemulung" (people who collect cans, plastic bottles etc. for recycling), and fishermen.

F: If we cannot hope from the parents, is there any effort from the school committee to find funding from other sources such as from offices?

C: The committee has not done that. There is no more NGO. The funding from the government is only from the office Dept. of Education, which has been specifically allocated, based the district affordability. From other sources like the BRR and NGO, as they all gone, seems to be impossible. We did improve facility like the praying room. It

was in consistent with the regulation in Aceh. We do "zikir, wirid" (praying together) there that sometime the school finish a little bit late on special days. For other programs, we have not been able to do yet.

F: For my personal knowledge, what are actually the responsibilities of the school committee?

C: The committee, in partnership with the school principal, has the responsibility to assure the teaching and learning can proceed in school, including the facility and non-material educational matters such as extracurricular activities in the afternoon such as "les" (extra lessons in the afternoon) and dealing with the parents.

F: Ya.

C: Because of the extra hours, parents protested because they need their children to help them working. That also happened in MAN (a name of senior high school) when they require students to stay for some extra hours until 5 PM. The parents there also protested, much less for the tsunami area like our school when we diminished school at 2:30, the parent protested.

F: Were parent informed before the program was implemented?

C: Oh yes, of course. What happened was only the mother came when we invited parents to school, and the mother cannot make decision. They just kept silent. The husbands were at work.

F: Ya.

C: It was very difficult, wasn't it? It is different compared to schools whose parents are well educated. They come when invited and have lots of ideas for school improvement. Our school, parents have no idea. It is very difficult. It probably will take another 10 years to make changes in ▮▮▮▮▮ where most people are affected by the tsunami. I have also noticed it happened at SMA 14. Looking at our parents' background, it is difficult. If the parents are from the civil servants, lets say they are from the lowest group of civil servants, it probably easier to communicate. But in the tsunami area where parents did not even graduated from elementary school, even if they graduated from junior school but for the kind of work they are engaging, they do not put education as....

F: As priority?

C: Not as the priority. Even our religion put education as priority, doesn't it? The money? What is that for? So, it is really hard. The principal himself is having headache (complaining of the situation).

F: When parents do not motivate their children, do you think that was because they do not understand or they are pessimistic that they children will be successful?

C: Ah. Everything is put on school. When the government campaigned about free education, parents, especially those with low education, no longer care about anything because they think school is free. Look at the difference between schools, which have much money, and those, which have little money. Which one is more successful? Look at the Turkey school

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(one prestigious school in Aceh which is established by the Turkey government), there is no student from tsunami background there. So if people expect for free, they get the school as what we see now.

F: So far, when you have a meeting with parents, what do you talk about?

C: When we hold a meeting, they have no reaction. That even becomes worse if we start to talk about money

F: Do they have any concern?

C: Concern?

F: From the parents.

C: There is no concern. They do not have any concern. For the children to go to school is enough. They then just wait for their students' graduation. If we invited them to school to discuss to discuss school quality improvement, they will not come. Perhaps only five parents come. Once, we supposed to hold a meeting at 9 am, but only one parent turned up. I said to the principal to begin the meeting. The meeting was to discuss the allocation of BOS funding. The funding was enough to hold national examination try out three times. I invited parent to hear they opinion if it is okay if we request some money from parent to make additional try out plus extra lesson in the afternoon for students. I said we need extra 300,000 from each parent to implement the planning. One parent questioned if that amount could be reduced. Then I challenged the parent by questioning how much he spent for his cigarettes every day. I said to him: "lets say you spent 3 packs of cigarettes each day which is about 30,000 rupiah. If you quitted smoking for only ten days, that was enough for the money I requested for school program. Which one would you choose?" There was no response. In this tsunami school, having a meeting with parents does not worth it. They are sleeping while we are thinking of ways to improve school. The only way is to wait for another 10 years after this tsunami generation.

F: Do think we need to educate parents first?

C: Yes. We talked and found the parents who are the pedicab drivers, "pemulung", they did not listen to. That affected the children.

F: Yes.

C: The children from 'good' family background, they are fine. People are comparing that it is easy and fun to teach at "SMP Percontohan" (one favourite junior high school in Banda Aceh). Students in SMP Percontohan are intelligent. We do not even need to teach them. They themselves are seeking for lessons/knowledge even from outside the school (courses after school).

F: Yes.

C: Am I right? If the parents are motivated, then the education will be good. I have checked that to favourite school. Our teachers are as good as theirs.

F: Yes.

C: In those favourite schools, teachers do not even need to teach the students. They have already understood the lesson because they take courses. Like here (the English course institute owned by the committee where this interview took place), you (pointing at me) will see students with uniform coming here to learn English. In most our school, we know that the learning system is teachers' dictation, write on the blackboard and then explain. Learning should be fun such learning by playing, with games. At school, even when the school make an extra hour classes in the afternoon, students still do not make any improvement. When my child in elementary school, I did not let my son attend the extra hour lesson at the school because I knew the teaching method at school, but rather I sent him to extra courses outside school. Look…my son can even corrected his teacher when the teacher misspelled the word ice cream. Now he is at the senior school, once his teacher also made mistakes in English but he did not protest because he was afraid that the teacher would give him bad mark. So, students will not good (at English) if they do not take course outside school.

F: So, to improve the quality of teachers, what would you do as the school committee?

C: What does it mean?

F: The improvement of the quality of teachers

C: The committee cannot interfere with that. That is the responsibility of office of Dept. of Education

F: May be in addition to their responsibility.

C: We can only propose such as when we proposed extra lessons at school in the afternoon. I suggest to closely monitor teachers. I used to write about teachers. If I test teachers, none of them can pass the test. ▮▮▮▮▮▮▮ also wrote about that issue. If teachers are asked to sit for a National Examination test (which is actually set for students), those teachers themselves will not be able to pass the test.

F: Is there any evaluation or monitor from the committee about teachers' work?

C: No, we can go that far. The committee only deal with the facility for example asking support (money) from parent but no response. Much less there is regulation now that the principal cannot ask money from parents.

F: So, the committee cannot deal with the issue regarding the quality of teachers?

C: No. That's the responsibility of the Dept. of Education. The teaching and learning process is under the school principal responsibility. Once in a week the school ask teacher are given a paper to tick on some points about their work.

F: Do you mean a kind of...

C: Questionnaire

F: A kind of observation sheet?

C: Then we (the school) call particular teacher to discuss their issue in a meeting. We also ask students about that issue.

F: At school, has the committee ever invited teachers to listen to their concerns?

C: We do not have the right to do that. That's the principal's duty.

F: When parents send their children to school, they certainly have something in hope, right?

C: Yes. But in our school parents do not question about their student achievement as long as they can pass the final test. Once I questioned teachers because my son got good marks while I believe he was not that good. If other parents question when their students get good marks, that is good. But there is no. When we had extra lesson in the afternoon, we asked parent to give 10,000 for the school to buy lunch for the students, only one parent, who was working at the office of cooperation, agreed.

F: Is there any control from the community over the school, for example when there are students hanging around outside the school are?

C: Yes including from the community leader. There are community members who caught students who brought mobile phone, students who sat near the river…but the control was not as powerful as it used to be. We used to have the right to slap student but now no more. It is risky to do that now. Even the teachers are scared to do physical punishment. For the risks, the community member is reluctant to interfere (admonish) now. We once had a problem when reprimanded students who were sitting in the river, since that, people do not really care anymore. In Aceh, the service such as education, medical, or legal services get less appreciation.

F: Why?

C: Because we cannot see the product that can be seen.

F: Invisible?

C: yes, invisible, no impression. For example, when I first opened this English course, I asked for 5,000 for the course fee while in Jakarta at that time was 75,000. When I tried to increase a little bit after a while, many students ran away. I told people that here educational service is so cheap and not appreciated by people. When people send children to school, everything will automatically become the sole job of teachers, whether students can or cannot learn

F: In your opinion, what can be done for the tsunami school?

C: For...?

F: For making the tsunami school better.

C: The parents...if the parents begin to question the school about their children's mark, for example asking why their children get good marks while they know their children are not clever. But there is no such parent here. What actually happens is the school gives good marks to make parents happy. I have seen that happen a lot.

F: Yes.

C: Ranking…but when we test they do not know anything.

F: yes.

C: We are left behind. In our time, we are happy if we can pass the test.

F: Yes.

C: Now they do not care. The system should have changed. Students need to pass the test but with a good mark. Students need to attend extra lesson in the afternoon. Would that guarantee? It can. You are also a teacher, aren't you? You know that.

F: Ya. Ya

C: In addition, there is jealousy in our people. The teachers said: "I work so hard while others (teachers) are just sitting. They get the same amount of the salary as I do. We work hard but other people who become rich". That sort of jealousy exists here.

F: Hm.

C: our education will never be better because we (teachers) work as perfunctory. For example, my friend ███ who have been a teacher for 20 years. He can remember the content of the book he uses including the page because he has used the same book for over 20 years of his teaching. People think he is great that he can memorise the content of the book. I would say he is the most stupid teacher.

F: Yes.

C: Like many teachers who use "buku pintar" (the title of a book)

F: Yes

C: In five years, they can memorise the content of the book

F: eh.

C: In Aceh, people awareness and appreciation for education and services is very low.

F: Eh.

C: That's the challenges for the school, either the tsunami or non-tsunami affected school.

F: If you can wish for three things, what would your wish be?

C: The first, the school committee is in partnership with parents, isn't it?

F: Yes.

C: Parent should support. The committee is the body where parents can communicate, isn't it?

F: Yes.

C: If the problem is with teachers, we then can discuss that with the principal. But if parent do not care, the committee cannot do anything. The committee just become the symbol.

F: Eh.

C: If there is money, then the committee can play its role, no money no way. The committee is elected by parents. If parents do not support, the committee cannot anything. In a meeting for school improvement for example, parents say agree but no implementation from them. If we happened to meet on the road, parent then would say: "sorry I do not have money". What can I say?

F: Ya.

C: When we invite for a meeting, in their mind, it must be about money. Then we discuss how to improve our school, everyone kept silent...no response or idea. I challenge by setting a certain program like the extra lesson in the afternoon for the student. It obviously needs funding. So does where the money come from?

F: When parents do not respond for that, what else the committee do to help the school?

C: When there is no response from the parents, that means we have to find funding from the third party…but it cannot guarantee.

F: For example?

C: E...for example we make proposal to apply for funding from offices or departments that we perceive would give us funding. But that's all we can do. We do not know whether they give or not. It will be different if parent can support for school funding. Do not just rely on the BOS funding.

F: Yes, can't be from BOS for everything.

F: To end this interview, do you have anything to say or your hope to make the school be better?

C: My hope is there is parents' awareness (attention). That's the most important. If there are about 100 students, and 60 of their parents care about and support the school, it would make the school run well. Parents should care about the teaching and learning at school, the facility, and school programs. Don't just form the school committee but give no support to it. In a meeting, do not just keep silent. If there is no response from parents, the committee cannot do things.

F: Ya.

C: It is not teacher that makes school be better. It depends on us, the parents. If parent do not support the school, it would not happen (the improvement at school).

F: How sure are you it will be a reality?

C: I would say in another 10 years when the tsunami generation has gone. When the new generation is born. We hope in the future, the students who enrol in the school are those whose parents are from "good" economic and education background to make the school

run well. If not, the principal will have a headache. The principal will ask the school committee to help with issue. At the end it is the committee that has to deal with it. The principal is only the person who manages the teaching and learning. It is the parents who play important role. If parents do not support, the school committee cannot function. Like in a village, if the people are not supporting, the leader cannot do everything by himself. Look at SMA 3, MAN, MTsN (all favourite schools), they are very good (in terms of parents' support).

C: If we compare our school with SMP 1 (favourite school), their teachers are the same as ours in the quality. Our school principal is originally from SMP Percontohan (favourite school) but he cannot do much here because there is no support from the parents. If parents are supportive, that's easy. If parents talk to us about what to do to improve the school while they are waiting for collecting their children, that's good. But, our parent do not even care whether their children come or do not come to school, even when there was students who did not attend school for months. Interestingly, that student passed the National Examination Test and his NEM (the test score) was good. If parents are not supportive, everything is nonsense. You (pointing at me) can see your self. You are a teacher…where did you teach?

F: At MTsN Pidie

C: Look at MTsN, MAN, why they can be good school? So, if parents are good, the school becomes good. Sometime we want to filter/select the potential students. But if we do that, we are likely to have no students and have to close the school. It is problematic. In my opinion, parents are the key. If they are supportive, the school will become good. If not it is difficult.

F: Alright sir. Thank you very much for your kindness and all the information you have given as the head of the school committee.

Translation of interview with a student

F: Bismillahirrahmanirrahim. Let's begin our interview today to see the challenges and needs for teachers working at the area affected by the tsunami. I interview children to see what things that make them able to learn in a better way, their hope toward their teachers. Aa, aa. Would you mind telling me a little bit about your life after the tsunami, whether you see your life is harder than before. You are free not to answer this question. And if you choose not to answer that's fine and we will continue to the next question. If you would like to answer...just tell your story roughly. It does not have to be very detailed.

W: In general?

F: Ehm.

W: My life is more difficult compared to before the tsunami.

F: If I may know, what was the cause?

W: It is a matter of working

F: What do you mean?

W: It means working. I live in other people house now and I think this is what I am supposed to do when living with other people.

F: O. I understand. Is that causing a problem with your learning at school? What I mean is your situation that you are living with other people and you have to work are causing problem with your schooling?

W: Yes to some extent.

F: Can you tell me how?

W: Yes. I often feel sleepy at school because I have to get up very early in the morning at four o'clock.

F: And that affects your learning at school?

W: Yes.

F: Apart from living with other people and you have to get up very early in the morning and you feel sleepy at school, are there any other factors that make you unable to learn well at school for example you do not have book? Is there thing that can make you unable to learn the way you want it to be?

W: Yes there is.

F: Can you give me the example?

W: I do not have books. Even if I am asked to buy book like LKS, I do not have money. I sometimes need to go to the market to find a job to earn money.

F: In addition to your personal issues, is there an issue with your friends or your teachers that can affect your learning for example their attitude toward you?

W: No, there is not.

F: So, you are happy with your friends. If you have a problem either a problem with learning at school or other issues, who do you consider as important to help you?

W: None.

F: If you have a problem, whom are you going to talk to?

W: To friend(s).

F: Friends? Is that any friend or a certain friend?

W: Only with certain friends.

F: You mean not to anyone of your classmates but to a certain person. Why it has to be him/her? Why not to others?

W: Because I have considered him as my own family and he can keep the secrets.

F: What do you mean by the secrets? Is that your personal issue?

W: Yes.

F: If you have problems with your lessons for example you do not understand what the teachers have explained, who/where do you go to ask for help?

W: To classmates, also to the subject teacher.

F: How often do you approach or ask/talk to your teacher?

W: Only when I do not understand the lesson.

F: If you can tell me, how close do you think you are with your teachers?

W: There are some teachers I am close to.

F: Is there any that you are not close to? If you compare, is there more teacher you are close or more you are not close to?

W: More teachers I am not close to

F: Why do you think you can be close to some teachers but not to some others? What makes you close or not close to teachers?

W: What makes me close to some teachers is the way they speak. I mean they are humorous. The one I am not close to makes me hesitate to talk to them.

F: Why?

W: Not because I am afraid of them but I just feel uncomfortable. For example the school principal, I am not afraid of him but I just feel not quite proper to approach. That's why I am not close to.

F: Is that because he never greets you or asks you anything?

W: That's the fact that he never does that. That is because he is a… (a principal? I confirmed). Yes. A principal. Also, rarely does he enter the classroom.

F: Right, he rarely comes into the classroom. So, in your opinion how important is for a student to be close to their teachers?

W: Not very important.

F: Why it is not very important to be close to teachers?

W: Because once there was a teacher who told us not to be too close to teacher because we might then treat them disrespectfully, like a friend.

F: May be it is not in that way. When we are close to teacher, it does not mean we treat them like a friend. But we can come to them to talk or discuss our problems. Do you think it is important for a student to tell their problems to their teachers?

W: There might be some students telling the teachers.

F: You yourself come to your teachers to talk about your problem?

W: Only if they ask.

F: If they do not ask then you would not tell? What about to your friends?

W: To my close friend?

F: Hmm.

W: Usually he already knew beforehand because we play together. For example he can tell if I was reprimanded and then asked me why. Then I talked to him.

F: Do you mean you were reprimanded at school?

W: At home

F: Both at school and home?

W: Also at school. So it is both.

F: If I may know, after six years of the tsunami, does it still affect you in any way?

W: No longer.

F: No longer? You must have forgotten it except when there is earthquake as you told me before. Is that true?

W: Even when there is an earthquake, I am not frightened anymore. If my time to die comes, then I will die no matter what.

F: Is that because you believe in God's will so that you have been able to overcome that problem? Are there other things that you do cope with the tsunami?

W: Yes.

F: What is that?

W: Yeah. I smoke.

F: Smoking?

W: And playing game.

F: Playing play station?

W: Yes, play station. Some times like the other day, I was asked by friends to get drunk. Not drinking alcohol but drugs such as cough tablets. The doses was one but I was given overdoses to get drunk

F: Oh.

W: My head was so sick that day.

F: Because you get drunk?

W: And I was unconscious.

F: When you were asked to do such a risky thing like that, why did you want to do that?

W: I just want to try how it feels.

F: But you know that was not good, didn't you?

W: Yes, I did.

F: So, why did you still want to do that? What was the reason?

W: I just wanted to try. I wanted to know how it feels.

F: But that makes you addicted to it such as the smoking, doesn't it.

W: But I no longer use the drug.

F: Now...you said that you smoke to cope with your problems. Why it has to be smoking?

W: Why I have to smoke?

F: Hm.

W: Because it has sensational feelings.

F: As if you are forgetting things, isn't it?

W: E...There is a feeling of dizziness especially if we suck the smoke in very deeply; we hold it in and then release it very slowly. I just can't explain the sensation.

F: Fly?

W: Yes.

F: You know the fly that I mean, don't you?

W: Yes, I do.

F: As if we are up above the sky and forgetting things.

W: But it does give me headache.

F: Is there any other things that are more positive that you have done to cope with your problem?

W: What do you mean?

F: A more positive thing such as reciting Quran, recreation or play with your friends other than smoking that you have done to overcome your problems?

W: Yes, there is.

F: What is it?

W: Looking for a job (working). For example I collect the recycled plastic bottles to have money. Some I use for playing play station game and some for buying cigarettes.

F: At the end it seems that smoking is so important for you.

W: Ha. Ha. (Laughing). I did sometimes take a walk with friends but then we still bought cigarettes at the end.

F: Since the tsunami, have you ever seen a psychologist for a consultation? Or have you ever been visited by them to discuss your problems?

W: Never.

F: Never? Like what I have been doing, encouraging/asking you to have a conversation, do you think it is important for you to talk to other people when you have problems or do you want someone available for a talk?

W: Yes, it is important so they understand me.

F: For example your friend?

W: Sometimes I talk to my brother, too.

F: You have one brother, don't you? A while ago you told me that your brother also like smoking (yes he does, W spontaneously answered). And he uses drugs?

W: He had marijuana, but he has stop taking it.

F: Oh. That's good.

W: At the time he was stopping taking the marijuana, his body temperature was so high and at the same time his body was very cold, too. He covered his body even his face with thick jacket plus layers of clothes until he sweated all over his body. The next day he slept from noon until the following morning. Then he felt better.

F: But he has stopped using drugs, hasn't he. Is he still smoking?

W: Yes, he is.

F: To your knowledge, do you think he does that because he wants to forget his tsunami related problem or because of other things?

W: To my knowledge?

F: Hm.

W: I think it started from when he just wanted to have a try.

F: So it started from desire to try?

W: But finally he is able to stop it.

F: In your opinion, what can a child do to cope with their problems?

W: Try to find a way out such as ask advices from friends.

W: But you would not tell anybody unless someone is asking you, wouldn't you?

W: Emm.

F: According to you, what is a good teacher?

W: The ones who understand us.

F: What do you mean by understand us?

W: They have an understanding of ours. They know students' conditions. They know how to treat different student with their particular issues.

F: That means teachers have to know their student. So far, do you feel that your teacher have acted the way you want them to be?

W: How? Discrimination?

F: No. Do you think that your teacher have made an effort to approach students such as asking about your problems and helped you solve the problems. Do you see that they have or have not done so?

W: Some have but some have not. Like ███████, he asked me to come to him for help if I have a problem. But I do not dare come to him.

F: Was that about money?

W: No.

F: I guess you should tell him if you have a problem (yes, W confirmed). But I think there are not many such teacher here. Of thirty teachers in this school, how many do you think are as ▮▮▮▮▮▮?

W: Only two.

F: Only two? What about the rest?

W: As ordinary, nothing special.

F: Nothing special? Do you mean the teachers only talk you if you ask them and if you do not ask then they will not talk to you?

W: Ehm.

F: You said before that you are not close to some teachers, why?

W: As I told before, I just feel hesitate toward them. If they do not begin a conversation then I would not start. If they ask me something then I would talk to them but rarely do teachers began a conversation.

F: In your opinion, what can a teacher do to help students, to help them be able to learn better at school?

W: Understanding.

F: How would you describe it?

W: For example, teachers have to be firm with naughty student. They have to find way to deal with naughty students.

F: Do you mean there should be sanction for students who are naughty?

W: Yes, there should be ways for that.

F: When you say there are naughty students, why students become naughty?

W: That's...how can I explain this?

F: It is hard to explain, isn't it?

W: People have different mind, also the causes for students to be naughty are different.

F: Personally, do you think you are naughty or not?

W: Both.

F: Sometimes naughty and sometimes not?

W: Emm.

F: When you are naughty, what do you think the causes are?

W: That's sometimes because I am distressed from home problem. I have problems from home.

F: Alright, I understand that.

W: But when the distressed feelings have gone, I asked myself why I misbehaved. I told myself not to do it again but in fact I did it again and again.

F: That's because the problems at home happen again and again.

W: I did take some thoughts why I am like that and told myself not to do it again.

F: When it happened again you know that it was wrong, didn't you?

W: Sometimes, I fell silent on my own thinking about that.

F: But when you are naughty, did your teachers notice that you were having problems?

W: (W shook his head as a no answer).

F: They do not know? What they know was you were naughty?

W: Yes. There was a teacher asking what the problem was. But I just told her that I was fine.

F: But then he/she did not ask any further, did they? (W nodded). You are in the third grade now. What would you like to be when you grow up?

W: I want to be a doctor.

F: A doctor. That's your ideal. Looking at your condition now, your learning, your school performance or the way your teacher are teaching, how sure are you that you are going to be a doctor? But this is nothing to do with money…just pretend you have money. Just looking at your school achievement, your learning and the teacher's teaching, are you sure you can be a doctor?

W: I am sure if I can be a doctor. I have a strong will and if I am determined I am sure I can. Nothing is impossible.

F: Yeah. Nothing is impossible. What have you learned at school that help you achieve your ideal?

W: Mmm.. (not sure expression).

F: What have you learned at school to achieve your ideal?

W: The subjects about natural science.

F: You like natural science?

W: Yes. Chemistry, Biology, Physics. They are related to medicine.

F: But looking at the school facility, which I think is poor, are you pessimistic that you cannot study well?

W: Sometimes the teachers ask us to bring the material from home (to support learning).

F: Sometimes, students or teachers do have bad days at school. What makes you feel unhappy at school?

W: That's just because of my own stress.

F: Your personal problems?

W: Yes.

F: Is there other things like teachers, the school buildings or anything that may make you feel uncomfortable at school?

W: Yes, there is.

F: What is it?

W: The library.

F: Why?

W: It lacks facility. Like what I stated in my drawing, the library should have room for comics for having fun, place for textbooks, encyclopaedia, and dictionary. So if we need fun we will go to comic room, if we have problems with lesson we go to textbooks section and to encyclopaedia for history subject.

F: Of six school days in a week, from 8 am to about 1 pm, how often do you feel uncomfortable at school?

W: It depends on me myself.

F: For example?

W: For example when I am stressed, frustrated, and I have nothing. I sometimes feel distressed and upset without reasons.

F: What makes you stressed and upset?

W: Most comes from home.

F: All from home?

W: Some are also from teachers such as when they give lots of homework.

F: How can homework makes you stressed?

W: It is a matter of time. I have very little time. I have to do homework but I still have to work to earn money. Moreover, not only one but lots of teachers give homework.

F: Is there a person that can help you with your homework?

W: None.

F: Your brother or your foster parent or anyone who can help you do your homework?

W: None. I have never been asked if I have homework of not.

F: So no one ask about your school or your homework?

W: None. They only sometimes told me to study hard.

F: What about if you cannot do your homework?

W: If I cannot?

F: Hm…you would not do it?

W: Sometimes I just don't do it. Sometimes I asked a friend to copy theirs. The problem is my limited time.

F: Did your friends give you to copy theirs?

W: Yes…most are the girls.

F: Why the girls? Are you closer to girls?

W: E...(nodded). But boys give a copy, too.

F: How important are friends for you?

W: It is important. For example when we have problems on the road outside there, friends may come to help.

F: Do you think your friend like you?

W: I do not know.

F: Just based on your feelings, do you think they like to be friend with you? Sometimes we can feel if someone like to be our friend, can't we?

W: Yes.

F: So what do you think?

W: There are some who do not like me.

F: If they do not. What was the problem you think?

W: I do not know. May be, it is because they do not know me yet.

F: If there are 20 students in your class. How many who are close to you?

W: Almost all.

F: Almost all you are close to?

W: Hm. We borrow things like the erasers from each other and then we eventually feel close to each other.

F: What about the teachers? How do you like your teachers?

W: Only some teachers.

F: Only to certain teachers? Do you think your teachers like you?

W: E. I do not know.

F: From your feelings. Do you think they love you?

W: No. I am not special to them.

F: Do you mean they treat you as they treat others?

W: Em. Yes.

F: Is there any of your friends who tried to put you down and caused you into troubles?

W: No, there is not.

F: Okay, this is an important question for me. How often do feel stressed in your daily life?

W: In daily life?

F: E...Are you a kind of a stressed person, unhappy?

W: Yes, I am.

F: So, you often feel unhappy. Apart from home factors, what are other issues?

W: That's...because I was told I was wrong but I do not know and I was always blamed for things that were went wrong. I am very stressed. For example, while I am tired I was again asked to do other things at home. I still did it but I grumbled in my heart. My aunt asked me to do some work and she did not notice I was tired. But I understand that she was also tired. But sometimes I did not understand why everything I do was considered as bad.

F: So to overcome your stress, what did you do? You said earlier that you had cigarettes. Is there any other way?

W: I play game on Play station.

F: Other than playing game on play station?

W: Hang out with friends. When hanging out with friend, we talk about different things.

F: Did you do religious thing to overcome your problems?

W: Rarely did I do.

F: For example you pray, you go to pray or recite the Quran when you were stressed?

W: I rarely did that. I do not have enough time. I sometimes did not even hear the sounds of azhan (a call to prayer from the mosque). I was with friends playing music and listened to songs.

F: You told me before that you ware working. If you do not mind, can you tell me what do you do in addition to collecting the recycled plastic bottles?

W: Trading

F: Do you mean helping your aunty selling vegetables at the local market?

W: Yes, I do

F: But you do not do that all the time but only after school, don't you?

W: Yes. But sometimes I did trading with my friends, and I was given 20,000 rupiahs (about AUD$ 2) a day.

F: In a day?

W: Eh. I do not do that at the moment because we have not got anything for selling. But I like trading with my friends and earned 20,000 rupiah a day because in a month I can have 600,000 rupiahs. I can use that money for my daily needs.

F: You have lots of home based problems that hinder you from studying well, don't you?

W: But when I was in good mood, I would do everything even though I was very tired. For example, after doing house chores such as washing dishes, cleaning the house, washing a big pile of laundry, I quickly had a bath and straight away did my homework. I did whatever tasks from the homework that I could and left those I could not.

F: Okay. We have been talking and talking. If you think you have had enough and want to discontinue this interview, you are free to do that at anytime. You just tell me, alright?

W: No, I like having conversations like this.

F: But do not hesitate to tell me if you want to stop this conversation.

W: In fact, I love when people talk to me and ask me questions.

F: That's good. Now, is there anything that you are worried about in your life?

W: What does it mean?

F: Something that makes you worried. For example you are worried that you won't be able to finish your study, you are worried you do not have money to pay for your school, you worried that you will not be able to achieve your ideal. Basically, is there anything you worry will happen to you?

W: None. But sometimes I was worried like when I did not have LKS or books. But usually, the problem was solved. I worked here and there to earn money or sometimes there were people who gave alms to me or other kinds of donations. I will use the money only for school purposes.

F: You won't use the money from alms or donation for buying cigarettes, will you?

W: No, I won't. I buy cigarettes only using the money I earned from working. Once, my parents said to me, don't smoke unless you have got permanent job and earn money yourself.

F: Your own parents?

W: Ehm. I was told that. But sometimes, I did not have jobs to do, no money, no cigarettes, and that made me really distressed. Lucky sometimes a friend of mine whose name is ▮▮▮▮ asked me to go and collect 'atom'.

F: Is 'atom' the name you call for collecting recycled plastic goods?

W: Ehm. We sometimes competed against each other to collect more 'atom'. But we always share equally whatever the money we got from selling the collected plastics. I always tried to find a job when I did not have one. I work to earn money for example for my pocket money, as I no longer get pocket money. Lucky sometimes friend gave me things. Sometimes, I only had 1000 rupiah (about AUD$ 10 cents) in my pocket and I would use it only for cigarettes because I would be stressed at home if I did not have cigarettes. I know that cigarettes contain nicotine and it harms our body.

F: Okay. Let's back to school issues. Since you become a student, from primary school until now, is there anything your teachers have done that leaves a great impression to you?

W: (silent)

F: For example, you had an experience that you want it to happen again because it left a great impression on you.

W: What does it mean?

F: Since primary school until your current school at this junior high school, have your teachers ever done something that impresses you?

W: None, except when I was at second grade last year, when ▮▮▮▮uti came to me and talked to me. He assured me that he was available if I need help anytime. He also told me to see ▮▮▮ ▮▮▮▮▮ if he was unavailable. That's what I hope from teachers. But rarely does things like that happen.

F: Reversely, is there anything that your teachers have done that disappointed you?

W: Yes, there is.

F: What is that?

W: Sometimes, teachers just gave lots of homework to finish within given time inconsiderably while I have lots of things to do at home. And I do not have time to do the homework at school either.

F: What about the bad words that teachers use to you such as I knew one teacher said that you are like monkey. Did you feel disappointed?

W: No, I did not.

F: Why?

W: Because I know how she is and her characteristics. That's the way she speaks. So I ignore it and I was not upset.

F: She also beat you up, in front of me.

W: I had already been unconscious and did not feel anything at that time.

F: When a teacher considers a student as naughty, what do you expect them to do?

W: They sometimes just warn the student.

F: Do you mean that teachers should not just warn the student (but address the issue)? Alright, do you think your teachers have their own problems?

W: Problems?

F: In your opinion, what do you think that can be problems for your teachers?

W: Students.

F: What does it mean?

W: If teachers do not understand students, they sometimes strike and do not want to teach when students misbehaved.

F: Are you saying that students can be the problems for teachers, so they do not teach well?

W: Maybe teachers also have problems at home but we do not know what their problems are.

F: So, what do you think teachers should do to address issues with students?

W: Understanding.

F: Understanding?

W: They should understand students.

F: Looking at your academic grades, you have had a good performance starting from first rank in your class, and then the sixth.

W: Ehm.

F: then the fourth with good marks of 70 and 80. Currently, you rank ninth in your class. That means you are a smart student. While you are having lots of problems at home, having no parents and living with other people, you still achieve good school performance. You have to get up 4 o'clock in the morning, work to earn money but you still can rank sixth in your class. That's amazing. Not many students can do that. I personally won't be able to do that. So, what makes you be able to be as good as that?

W: I do not know. I know I rarely study my lessons at home. So I just try to keep in my mind what I was learning at school. I was told that as long as we pay attention to teachers' explanation in class and store it in our mind, it would be fine.

F: That achievement, was that from your self-motivation? (W nodded). Was there any motivation from home toward your learning (W shook his head)? If I may know, when your own parents were still alive, did they help you with your learning?

W: I rarely saw my parents since I was little because they were in Aceh working.

F: So you get used to it?

W: Yes, I do.

F: Let me ask you one more time, are you sure that the tsunami no longer affects you in any way?

W: (W nodded)

F: Or. Is there of your friends telling you that they are still under the impact of the tsunami?

W: There is not.

F: When you look at the tsunami pole there, what comes to your mind?

W: I am not sure if the tsunami water was that high. If it was true, that means the tsunami water was as high as the roof (of double storied building).

F: It does not remind you of your parents or anything else?

W: (W shook his head). Sometimes, I remember my experience when the sea waves carried me to the sea when swimming at the beach.

F: When was that? After the tsunami?

W: No. It was when I was at year one of this junior high school. It was strong windy day and with big waves. Nobody was there for fishing. I was there with my two friends. We just keep swimming although the waves were so strong. We usually brought sponge to help us floating but we did not bring anything on that day. Then I was dragged by the wave into the sea because I was not good at swimming at that time. One of my friends asked for help but no one heard because we had been away so far. The other one tried to help me but he was so weak already being hit by sea waves. I saw his feet floating and I was scared. I was drowned. When I was drowning, I thought I was going to die. I told myself that I did not want to die now because I will be having school exams and I have not finished my school yet. And I told myself that I did not want to die this way. Then after the third time the waves pushed me down into the sea, some people together with a friend of mine came to help us. I still remember that experience and I thank God that I am still alive.

F: Did the tsunami come across your mind when you were drowning?

W: No, it did not. I only remembered the school, the examination and my ideal that I going to achieve. And I did not want to die that way.

F: Now I am going to ask you about this school. Do you agree or not if people say that the students of this school are naughty?

W: Excuse me?

F: Do you agree if I or other people say that the students in this school are naughty?

W: Hm. Ha. (Laughing).

F: You don't?

W: I would say yes and no.

F: May be you would say some are naughty and some are not. According to you, are there more students who are naughty or not naughty?

W: More naughty students, especially the boys. You know this school has more boys than girls, don't you?

F: So, what factors do you think can make students become naughty?

W: I do not know. They may have their own problems.

F: And I would say the problems must be different to each of them. To end this interview, if you could ask for three things from this school, what would you ask for?

W: I want understanding teachers, better library facility. And one more thing is the school regulations.

F: The first one is teachers who understand, the second one is better facility, and third is the school regulation. What do mean by teachers who understand?

W: As I said before, teachers should know student and know how to deal with students who are naughty. And teachers should have firm attitudes toward the naughty students. They are considerate. So we are not bored at school.

F: What about the school regulations. What do you mean by that?

W: What I mean is the school regulations should not be very strict. Teachers should not just give punishment for students who broke the school discipline without asking the students first for their reasons why they break the regulations for example when there were students wearing blue and white uniform on Monday instead of white and white.

F: It means teachers should be more considerate. They ask before they punish. May be students wore blue pants because his white pants are wet and so on. Is that what you mean? (W nodded). Do you think the regulations in this school are unclear?

W: It is not clear!

F: Not clear?

W: Foe example with the current form of school regulations which they use points. I do not know what the points are and how they work.

F: Students are just told there are points but you do not even know what they are. Have you ever seen the points from the new school regulation?

W: They have not ever been put on the school wall.

F: Not even in your classroom? (W shook his head). If you would like to say something to your teachers, the principal or to anybody, what would your message be?

W: My message to my teachers is I hope they are understanding. They should always understand, understand their students.

F: Okay. Is there anything else?

W: No, there is not.

F: Alright, this is the end of our interview today. If you have any issues such as discomfort feelings or stress as a result of this interview, please feel free to contact me. I would be happy to discuss it with you or we can go to a counselling centre for any discomfort feelings you may have that may be caused by this interview.