WHY DON’T I ASK FOR HELP?

Examining factors influencing academic help-seeking practices among primary students in Jakarta, Indonesia

Ratna Dyah Suryaratri

Bachelor of Science in Biology (IPB, Indonesia 1999)

Master in Educational Psychology (UI, Indonesia 2005)

Thesis submitted to the Faculty of Law, Education, Business and Arts

Charles Darwin University, Darwin, Australia

for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

2015
Thesis declaration

I hereby declare that the work herein, now submitted as a thesis for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy of the Charles Darwin University, is the result of my own investigations, and all references to ideas and work of other researchers have been specifically acknowledged.

I hereby certify that the work embodied in this thesis has not already been accepted in substance for any degree, and is not being currently submitted in candidature for any other degree.

Ratna Dyah Suryaratri

Signature:

Date: December 18, 2015
Abstract

Student academic help-seeking has been identified as an important behaviour of self-regulated learners. Following a series of policy changes, the Indonesian educational system is now shifting from a traditional teacher-centred approach to a student-centred approach, in which students are encouraged to take more responsibility for their own learning. This study is focused on understanding student academic help-seeking behaviour in primary schools located in Jakarta, Indonesia. In doing so, it used a mixed methods approach to investigate factors that influence these behaviours. It explores perceptions of academic help-seeking reported by students ($N = 337$) and teachers ($N = 21$) from eight primary schools in Jakarta. Results indicate that students find it difficult to ask for academic help even though they believe they should in order to improve academic success and despite quantitative data revealing student intentions to ask for help as high ($M = 3.19; SD = 0.46; N = 331$). This study confirms that teacher behaviours are a significant influence on student academic help-seeking; most teachers hold the belief that student academic help-seeking is an important behaviour that they are obliged to promote. Both teachers and students identified factors that may support or inhibit help-seeking behaviour, and overwhelming identify the teacher as the main factor. The traditional teacher-centred approach to education is thus found in this study to undermine student academic help-seeking.

The implications of this study are that if a real paradigm shift in moving towards student-centred learning is to be achieved, teachers will need to find strategies that promote student academic help-seeking. Teachers will also need to give guidance to students on how to develop the required skills; however, findings indicate that for this to be achieved professional development programs will be required for teachers to
develop their skills to properly support this new policy paradigm. The key question to emerge from this thesis is how the disconnection between government policy and practices in the classroom might best be addressed.

**Keywords:** academic help-seeking; mixed methods; Indonesia; primary students
Acknowledgements

Alhamdulillah, thanks to Allah SWT, whose power and blessings always give me power and spirit to never give up and keep going to finish this study.

In the successful completion of this thesis I would like to thank to the following people who supported and facilitated my work and helping me reach the goal of a Doctorate in Educational Psychology from the School of Education at the Charles Darwin University, Australia.

Special thanks to my thesis supervisor, Associate Professor Dr Greg Shaw for his invaluable advice, constructive criticisms, guidance and support during the work of this thesis. Without all of his support, this research would not have been possible.

I also wish to acknowledge the help and support given to me by Professor Dr Ruth Wallace, Dr Jon Mason and Dr Gretchen Geng for their expertise and patience. Their help has been immeasurable, as is the depth of my gratitude.

I would to also thank the primary schools principals for the flexibility to allow me to conduct this study within the schools. Particular thanks are due to the teachers and students for their participation in this study. Thank you for graciously allowing me into your classrooms and for patiently bearing with me as my project evolved. Without your help and flexibility I would not have been able to complete this work. I would also like to thank all my research assistants for their hard work in helping me with data collection processes.

The work reported herein was supported by a grant from the Higher Educational Directorate, DIA BERMUTU (Dana Insentif Akreditasi for Better Education through

Special thanks to mbak Deasyanti, my best friend, my sister in everything but blood, my partner in crime throughout this long journey. I will forever appreciate and treasure our friendship.

Thanks also to my fellow research students: mbak Aam, teh Indra, mbak Meika, pak Uud, mas Hanan, mas Rozaq, mbak Tuty, mas Rury, mbak Arum, mbak Evi, mas Hanan, mas Rachmat, mbak Epik and mbak Ratih, from whom I learnt about commitment and motivation. Their persistent spirit was a constant reminder to focus my efforts on finishing this dissertation. Thank you for the tears and laughter.

To mbak Umi and family, thank you very much for all the support and the encouragement. Mama Pires and the Pires family, Aunty Lu and Alex for all the joy and laughter.

Thanks too to professional editor, Rosemary Purcell, who provided copyediting and proofreading services according to the guidelines laid out in the university-endorsed national guidelines for editing research theses.

Finally, thanks to my family for their unconditional love and encouragement throughout.
Table of Contents

Thesis declaration ...................................................................................... iii

Abstract .................................................................................................... v

Acknowledgements ................................................................................... vii

Table of Contents ........................................................................................ ix

List of Figures ........................................................................................... xvi

List of Tables ............................................................................................ xvii

List of Abbreviations ................................................................................ xix

Glossary ................................................................................................ . xxi

Chapter 1 THE RESEARCH AND ITS CONTEXT ........................................ 1

1.1 Background of the study........................................................................ 1

1.2 Why academic help-seeking behaviour is important ........................... 2

1.3 National approach .................................................................................. 4

  1.3.1 The education system in Indonesia................................................... 4
  1.3.2 The aims of the national education system in Indonesia ....................... 5
  1.3.3 The National Standards of Education.................................................. 7
  1.3.4 The changing curriculum ........................................................................ 9
  1.3.5 The shifting paradigm and its problems .............................................. 10
  1.3.6 The National Examination policy ......................................................... 12

1.4 Learning culture in Indonesia .............................................................. 14

1.5 How does the learning context in Indonesia influence student academic help-seeking? ................................................................. 15

  1.5.1 The role of the teacher in student academic help-seeking.................. 15
  1.5.2 The role of the classroom learning environment ............................... 16
  1.5.3 The role of the student in academic help-seeking ............................... 17

1.6 Purpose of the study ............................................................................ 19

1.7 Research questions .............................................................................. 21
Chapter 2 A REVIEW OF LITERATURE ................................................................. 27

2.1 Academic help-seeking ........................................................................ 27
   2.1.1 The history of academic help-seeking .............................................. 27
   2.1.2 Modern conceptions ........................................................................ 28
   2.1.3 Prior concerns before requesting academic help .............................. 30
   2.1.4 The process of student academic help-seeking ................................. 31
   2.1.5 Types of academic help-seeking ...................................................... 35
   2.1.6 Research around student academic help-seeking ............................. 37
   2.1.7 Summary ....................................................................................... 39

2.2 The role of teachers related to student academic help-seeking .......... 39
   2.2.1 Teacher beliefs and attitudes towards teaching and learning .......... 40
   2.2.2 Teacher behaviours related to student academic help-seeking ......... 43
   2.2.3 Teacher characteristics ................................................................. 49
   2.2.4 Teacher support and responses to student questions ....................... 51
   2.2.5 Summary ....................................................................................... 52

2.3 Student instigation of academic help-seeking .................................. 54
   2.3.1 Demographic factors ..................................................................... 54
   2.3.2 Student personal characteristics ...................................................... 56
   2.3.3 Student attributions ........................................................................ 60
   2.3.4 Student meaningful learning orientation ........................................... 63
   2.3.5 Summary ....................................................................................... 65

2.4 The role of peers .................................................................................. 65
   2.4.1 The significant of peers in student learning ..................................... 66
   2.4.2 Peers and academic help-seeking behaviour ............................... 67
   2.4.3 Teacher versus peer assistance ....................................................... 72
   2.4.4 Summary ....................................................................................... 72

2.5 Classroom learning environment ....................................................... 73
   2.5.1 Classroom physical environment and student academic help-seeking .... 74
   2.5.2 Classroom psychological environment and student academic help-seeking .............................................................. 77
2.5.3 Summary ........................................................................................................... 80

2.6 The role of parents and family background on student academic help-seeking ........................................................................................................... 80

2.6.1 Parenting and student academic help-seeking ............................................ 81
2.6.2 Socioeconomic level and student academic help-seeking ......................... 84
2.6.3 Parent relationships with teachers and school .............................................. 85
2.6.4 Summary ......................................................................................................... 86

2.7 Summary of Chapter 2 ...................................................................................... 86

Chapter 3 METHODOLOGY AND RESEARCH DESIGN .................................. 89

3.1 Research questions.............................................................................................. 89

3.2 Methodological perspective ............................................................................. 90

3.2.1 Quantitative research design ...................................................................... 90
3.2.2 Qualitative research design ....................................................................... 92
3.2.3 Mixed methods research design .................................................................. 93

3.3 Research design .................................................................................................. 95

3.3.1 Stages of the study ...................................................................................... 96

3.4 The structure of the study ................................................................................ 97

3.4.1 Setting .......................................................................................................... 97
3.4.2 Participants .................................................................................................. 98
3.4.3 Sampling ...................................................................................................... 102
3.4.4 Research assistants ..................................................................................... 105

3.5 Instruments for data collection ....................................................................... 106

3.5.1 Academic help-seeking scale .................................................................... 107
3.5.2 Attribution scale .......................................................................................... 108
3.5.3 Meaningful learning orientation scale ........................................................ 109
3.5.4 Teacher support and responses to student questions scale ...................... 111
3.5.5 Classroom structure scale .......................................................................... 112

3.6 Data collection strategies .................................................................................. 114

3.6.1 Survey/questionnaires .................................................................................. 115
3.6.2 Classroom observations .............................................................................. 116
3.6.3 Focus-group interviews ............................................................................... 119
3.6.4 Individual interviews ................................................................................... 121

3.7 Data analysis ...................................................................................................... 122

3.7.1 Statistical data analysis ................................................................................ 122
# Qualitative data analysis

## Ethical issues

## Presentation of the findings

## Summary

## Chapter 4 ENGAGING IN ACADEMIC HELP-SEEKING BEHAVIOUR

### The importance of student academic help-seeking

#### Teacher perspectives

#### Benefits to the teachers

#### Benefits to the students

#### Student perspectives

### Student academic help-seeking behaviour

#### Students reluctant to seek academic help

#### Student intention of seeking academic help

### Why some students do not ask for academic help

#### Teacher reasoning

#### Student reasoning

#### The themes that emerged from the interviews

### How students ask for help from their teachers

#### Formal approaches

#### Informal approaches

#### Using student approaches to promote academic help-seeking

### Types of student academic help-seeking

#### Adaptive help-seeking

#### Maladaptive help-seeking

### Student preferred helpers

#### Peers

#### Teachers

### Summary

## Chapter 5 THE ROLE OF THE TEACHER IN STUDENT ACADEMIC HELP-SEEKING BEHAVIOUR

### The significance of teachers

### Teacher beliefs and perceptions
5.3 Teacher behaviour ................................................................. 177
  5.3.1 Encouragement .................................................................. 178
  5.3.2 Discouragement ................................................................. 180
5.4 Teacher responses to student academic help-seeking ............ 183
  5.4.1 Teacher positive responses .................................................. 183
  5.4.2 Teacher negative responses .................................................. 184
  5.4.3 Teacher responses related to student academic help-seeking ... 187
5.5 Teacher characteristics .......................................................... 193
5.6 Teacher preparation and teaching methods ............................ 197
  5.6.1 Teacher preparation ............................................................. 197
  5.6.2 Teaching methods/activity structures .................................... 201
5.7 Summary ................................................................................. 207

Chapter 6 CONTEXTUAL FACTORS ............................................. 209

6.1 Classroom environment .......................................................... 209
  6.1.1.Classroom physical environment .......................................... 210
  6.1.2.Classroom structures ......................................................... 215
6.2 Subject matter .......................................................................... 220
  6.2.1.Math .................................................................................. 221
  6.2.2.Science ............................................................................... 222
  6.2.3.Other subjects ..................................................................... 225
6.3 The impact of Indonesian culture ............................................ 228
6.4 The role of peers ...................................................................... 232
  6.4.1.The significance of peers ...................................................... 232
  6.4.2.Positive influence of peers ................................................... 234
  6.4.3.Negative influence of peers ................................................... 238
6.5 The role of parents and family background ............................. 242
  6.5.1.Family socioeconomic status ................................................. 244
  6.5.2.Home and school environment continuity ............................. 250
  6.5.3.Parent-teacher communication ............................................. 254
6.6 Summary ................................................................................. 257

Chapter 7 INTERNAL STUDENT FACTORS ................................. 259

7.1. Student perceptions of academic help-seeking ..................... 259
Appendix A. Ethics Forms ..............................................................355

Appendix A.1 PLS and CF for parents .............................................. 356
Appendix A.2 PLS and CF for parents in Indonesian language ........... 358
Appendix A.3 PLS and CF for students ............................................. 360
Appendix A.4 PLS and CF for students in Indonesian language .......... 361
Appendix A.5 PLS and CF for teacher ............................................. 362
Appendix A.6 PLS and CF for teacher in Indonesian language .......... 364
Appendix A.7 PLS and CF for school principal ................................. 366
Appendix A.8 PLS and CF for school principal in Indonesian language .... 368

Appendix B. Research Instruments ..................................................370

Appendix B.1 Instrument (in English) ............................................. 370
Appendix B.2 Instrument (in Indonesian Language) ............................. 376
List of Figures

Figure 1.1 The history of curriculum in Indonesia .................................................... 10
Figure 1.2 The types of National Examination in the Indonesian education system 12
Figure 2.1 Process of asking for academic help ....................................................... 35
Figure 2.2 The role of the teacher in academic help-seeking .................................... 53
Figure 2.3 Diagram of academic help-seeking factors ........................................... 87
Figure 3.1 Flowchart of data collection and analysis .............................................. 125
Figure 5.1 Scatter plot between teacher responses and academic help-seeking .... 190
Figure 6.1 Scatterplot between classroom structure and academic help-seeking ... 219
Figure 7.1 Scatterplot between attribution and academic help-seeking ............ 287
Figure 7.2 Scatterplot between meaningful learning orientation and academic help-seeking ................................................................. 291
Figure 7.3 Student academic help-seeking and gender ........................................ 297
List of Tables

Table 1.1 Summary of the National Standards of Education ........................................ 8
Table 1.2 Construct and definition .............................................................................. 23
Table 2.1 Adaptive versus maladaptive help-seeking .............................................. 37
Table 3.1 Student participants ................................................................................. 100
Table 3.2 Schools and classes .................................................................................. 101
Table 3.3 Teacher participants ................................................................................ 102
Table 3.4 Sampling .................................................................................................. 104
Table 3.5 The instruments ....................................................................................... 114
Table 3.6 Classroom observations ........................................................................... 118
Table 4.1 Mean and standard deviation of academic help-seeking ....................... 144
Table 4.2 Total mean and standard deviation of academic help-seeking .............. 144
Table 4.3 Percentage of academic help-seeking items ........................................... 146
Table 5.1 Mean and standard deviation of teacher responses ................................ 188
Table 5.2 Percentages of Items on teacher response .............................................. 189
Table 5.3 Total mean and standard deviation of teacher responses ....................... 190
Table 5.4 Means of academic help-seeking and teacher responses ....................... 192
Table 6.1 Means and standard deviation of classroom structure ........................... 216
Table 6.2 Percentages of classroom structure items .............................................. 217
Table 6.3 Total mean and standard deviation of classroom structure ..................... 218
Table 7.1 Means and standard deviation for student attribution ............................ 285
Table 7.2 Percentages for student attribution items ................................................. 285
Table 7.3 Total mean and standard deviation of student attribution ....................... 286
Table 7.4 Means of academic help-seeking and attribution .................................... 288
Table 7.5 Means and standard deviation of meaningful learning orientation ........ 289
Table 7.6 Percentages of meaningful learning orientation items ............................ 290
Table 7.7 Total mean and standard deviation of meaningful learning orientation.. 291
Table 7.8 Gender differences in student academic help-seeking ............................ 296
# List of Abbreviations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ATR</td>
<td>Attribution</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CF</td>
<td>Consent Form</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C-Ob</td>
<td>Classroom Observation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CS</td>
<td>Classroom Structure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DIA BERMUTU</td>
<td>Dana Insentif Akreditasi for Better Education through Reformed Management and Universal Teacher Up-grading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FGI</td>
<td>Focus-Group Interviews</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HREC</td>
<td>Human Research Ethic Committee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IPS</td>
<td>Ilmu Pengetahuan Sosial (Social science)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KBK</td>
<td>Kurikulum Berbasis Kompetensi (Competence-based Curriculum)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KTSP</td>
<td>Kurikulum Tingkat Satuan Pendidikan (School-based Curriculum)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MLO</td>
<td>Meaningful Learning Orientation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MoEC</td>
<td>Ministry of Education and Culture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MoRA</td>
<td>Ministry of Religious Affairs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MoRTHE</td>
<td>Ministry of Research, Technology and Higher Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NAPLAN</td>
<td>National Assessment Program – Literacy and Numeracy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NE</td>
<td>National Examination, Ujian Nasional</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NSoE</td>
<td>National Standards of Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PKn</td>
<td>Pendidikan Kewarganegaraan (Civics)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PLS</td>
<td>Plain Language Statement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q&amp;A</td>
<td>Question-answering</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QIB</td>
<td>Questionnaires of Instructional Behaviour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td>Standard Deviation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SES</td>
<td>Socioeconomic status</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPSS</td>
<td>Statistical Package for the Social Sciences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TC</td>
<td>Teacher Responses</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
# Glossary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bu/Ibu</td>
<td>Mrs: A title for female teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dioreo</td>
<td>Slang term referring a student being pinched</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kepo</td>
<td>Slang term referring to people who are being nosy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kurikulum</td>
<td>Curriculum</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Chapter 1 THE RESEARCH AND ITS CONTEXT

This thesis describes research on primary student academic help-seeking behaviour in Jakarta, Indonesia and identifies a number of key findings. This chapter covers the background of the study and outlines the reasons for focusing on this topic. It describes an overview of student academic help-seeking behaviour and why this behaviour is important in student learning processes. It also presents the purpose, research questions, and the significance of this study to teaching and learning processes. Finally, it presents the structure of the thesis.

1.1 Background of the study

This research merges my interest and experiences as a student with my journey as a lecturer in one of the universities in Indonesia involved in teacher education. During my own schooling years when my teachers asked students whether they had any questions related to the learning material being presented, on almost every occasion no students asked questions, and this included myself. My experience was that my classmates and I were reluctant to raise any questions of our teachers. We were afraid to speak our mind in the classroom. Our classes were mostly quiet with students listening to teachers, following instructions, and obeying what teachers said dutifully.

Now, as a lecturer, I face this same situation with my university students, a dilemma for me on the opposite side of the podium. In an Indonesian context I have found it hard, even impossible, to convince students to speak up in the class and ask me questions when they need further explanation. Some students just avoid seeking academic help, even when they know they need it. Why do they behave in this way?
This topic has intrigued my curiosity for years; therefore when undertaking research for my master’s degree I chose to explore it. In my previous study, I explored the relationship between student perceived competence and classroom structures toward academic help-seeking behaviour (Suryaratri, 2005). The study found that students more likely asking academic help when they feel competence within classroom that emphasise mastery performance. However, I then realised that there are still many obstacles students face in seeking academic help in the classroom, and that I needed to dig deeper. From this context I decided to continue to investigate this behaviour more comprehensively. Of course, I am not the first person to observe that students in Indonesia are typically passive in the classroom, displaying obedience and listening carefully to their teachers (Harsono, 2006; Lengkanawati, 2003; Suryanto, 2014; Widodo & Pujiasmuti, 2006). The key focus in this thesis is more specifically an exploration of academic help-seeking behaviour – the factors that facilitate and inhibit it.

With increasing globalisation and international access to education, the Indonesian context of this study is highlighted because cultural factors can be seen as deeply rooted and not easily changed. As Harsono (2006) pointed out that in order to improve Indonesian education system, it will take long time of teaching and learning processes and need wisdom from both government and the people.

1.2 Why academic help-seeking behaviour is important

Academic help-seeking is conceptualised as an achievement behaviour involving the search for and employment of a strategy to achieve success (Ames & Lau, 1982). Despite the significant role of academic help-seeking reported in Western contexts,
many studies report that some students are reluctant to seek academic help when they face challenges and difficulties (Karabenick & Newman, 2006).

Why should students seek help? Can it be assumed that such behaviour is necessarily beneficial? Learning occurs within a learner (Cobb, 1999; Fox, 2001; Grabinger & Dunlap, 1995). While it often involves teaching and the provision of guidance and information by a teacher, a learner must also build their understanding and knowledge by integrating new information and skills. Impediments to learning can occur at a number of stages in the process, but critically, if a learner is not able to incorporate new content, then clearly the process has not worked.

While learning, a student often identifies gap/academic difficulties and then seek help, particularly from their teachers or peers. Teachers often provide prompts to facilitate or scaffold student learning, which can involve problem-solving approaches whereby students are faced with problems that require them to make choices and find solutions. In order to learn when problems appear, students need to be able to find and apply solutions. While they may solve problems on their own the problems presented also often challenge students to integrate their own knowledge and opinions with those of others (McCaslin & Good, 1996).

By asking for academic help students can potentially enhance their problem-solving skills while also learning how to exchange or share their knowledge and opinions with others (Karabenick, 2010). Students need to be able to ask questions to develop their skills in identifying gaps in their learning. They can also benefit from being able to engage socially with others, especially teachers, in order to overcome academic difficulties. Through developing this behaviour students become active and adaptive,
cultivating their intellectual interests through developing academic and critical thinking skills.

Through investigating student academic help-seeking behaviour in Indonesia this study has necessitated an exploration of the broader Indonesian learning context. Central to this is the national education system and the policies that successive governments have used to pursue specific aims.

1.3 National approach

This section outlines the Indonesian Government’s approach to education. It is necessary to have a comprehensive information about Indonesian education system and Government approach to provide the context of this study and to understand the goals of education system and the reality fact on the school level.

1.3.1 The education system in Indonesia

The education system in Indonesia is the responsibility of three ministries – the Ministry of Education and Culture (MoEC), the Ministry of Religious Affairs (MoRA), and the Ministry of Research, Technology and Higher Education (MoRTHE). The MoEC is responsible for the education system from pre-school (playgroup and kindergarten) to high-school, whereas the MoRA is responsible for the education system under Islamic affiliation schools. The MoRTHE is responsible for tertiary education, which includes universities, academies, institutes and polytechnics.

There are two educational systems acknowledged by the Indonesian Government: formal and non-formal education. Formal education consists of primary, secondary and tertiary education, while non-formal education for examples, Qur’anic studies in
mosques or Sunday school in churches. Schools in Indonesia are run either by the government or the private sector.

Children officially start their compulsory education in primary school at age six or seven. Primary school spans six years and covers basic education. Students then continue their education for three years in middle school. Their secondary education entails another three years in high school. In 2015, a 12-year compulsory education program for all children in Indonesia began, comprising primary school, junior high school (middle school) and senior high school (Kementrian Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan, 2014b). After finishing these 12 years of education, students may progress to tertiary education for three to four years or longer in higher education institutions.

1.3.2 The aims of the national education system in Indonesia

The specific aims of the national education system in Indonesia are:

1. to develop citizens based on Pancasila values.

   Pancasila is the philosophical foundation of the Republic of Indonesia. It comprises five basic principles that held to be inseparable and interrelate (spiritual, justice, unity, democracy and social).

2. to support Indonesian society, people and state. The Undang-Undang Sistem Pendidikan Nasional (National Education System Law No. 2, 1989).

These aims were extended by the National Education System Law No. 20/2003, which ensures equal opportunity, improvement of quality and relevance, and efficiency in management to face challenges locally, nationally and globally (Undang-Undang
Sistem Pendidikan Nasional, 2003). Article (1) of National Education System Law No 20/2003 also mentions three key notions in Indonesian education system, which are: 1) learning atmosphere; 2) instructional processes; and 3) active development of learner’s potential. These three key notions emphasise on how a learner should engage in active learning in order to develop their potential (see details in Undang-Undang Sistem Pendidikan Nasional, 2003).

The education system in Indonesia therefore functions as maintaining Indonesian cultural values and generating the knowledge, skills and science relevant in the 21st century (Purwadi & Muljoatmojo, 2000). It aims to improve the life of the nation and develop the Indonesian people as a whole (intellectually, morally, spiritually, physically and socially). Generally, this system produces educated citizens who are characterised as able to contribute to a modern, advanced, democratic and prosperous Indonesian nation (Gufron, 2010).

This study focuses on primary school education, in which the expressed aims of the national education system are to develop the lives of children as individuals and members of society and of mankind, as well as to prepare them to pursue their studies in the next level (Undang-Undang Sistem Pendidikan Nasional, 2003). Basic education in primary school provides students with the ability to read, write, to do math, and to develop primary knowledge and learning skills (Permendikbud 57, 2014). In this level students are prepared so they might obtain learning skills for becoming self-regulated learners. Such preparation includes seeking academic help when it is required.
1.3.3 The National Standards of Education

In order to achieve the aims and guarantee the quality of the educational system in Indonesia, the government sets a minimum criterion for eight education aspects – the National Standards of Education (NSoE) (Peraturan Pemerintah/Government Act No 13, 2015). The standards function as a basic planning, conducting and monitoring tool for the national education system, and are summarised in Table 1.1. about National Standards of Education.

Unfortunately, not all units of education or institutions fulfil these standards. A statement from Mr Baswedan – the Minister of Education and Culture – in the MoEC (Kementrian Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan, 2014c) shows that 75% of schools in Indonesia have not yet met these minimum requirements. Capability of the teachers is one of the factors that determines the fulfilment of the standard for learning processes. Lufri (2008, cited in Milya, 2013), shows that teachers who lack experience, knowledge and skills and low commitment influence the overall quality of teaching and learning. This problem is compounded when considering the lack of facilities. Nurfaisal (2012), a high school principal in Riau, reports that teachers have difficulty applying student-centred approaches due to lack of facilities, large class sizes and dominant teacher-centred approaches. Other examples show the inadequacy of laboratories, with expensive equipment not used optimally due to the lack ability of the teachers to operate these equipment (Yulaelawati, 2000, cited in Poisson, 2001).

Such conditions (a miss-matched between the national standards and the reality of practice in schools) will influence the teaching and learning processes in the classroom. Teacher quality that does not meet the criteria of the national standard will certainly impact on student learning and their achievement. Therefore, this study
investigates deeper how these conditions specifically affect student academic help-seeking behaviour.

Table 1.1 Summary of the National Standards of Education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>National Standards</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Standard of content</strong></td>
<td>The minimum content of material and competencies to achieve standards of graduate competence. It provides the basic framework and structure of the curriculum. Details are described in <em>Permendikbud</em> (MoEC Regulation) No. 64/2013.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Standard of learning processes</strong></td>
<td>This involves planning, assessing, monitoring and evaluating the learning. Learning should be interactive, inspiring, challenging, motivating and engaging, and fit with student developmental stage, physically and psychologically. Details are described in <em>Permendikbud</em> (MoEC Regulation) No. 65/2013.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Standard of finance</strong></td>
<td>This specifies the way that funding is managed to provide facilities and human resource development. It includes allocation for personal funds for each student and operational costs such as teacher salaries, learning media, and maintenance. Details are described in <em>Permendiknas</em> (MoE) No. 69/2009.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Standard of student assessment</strong></td>
<td>The learning assessment standards used by teachers, schools and government. Details are described in <em>Permendikbud</em> (MoEC Regulation) No. 66/2013.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Standard of the quality of educators and staff</strong></td>
<td>This details the academic qualifications and competencies of the teachers. Academic qualification refers to the minimum degree required by a teacher and validated by the relevant certificate. Competencies refer to pedagogic, personality, professional and social competencies. Details are described in <em>Peraturan Pemerintah</em> (Government Act) No. 32/2013.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Standard of graduate competence</strong></td>
<td>The minimum criterion for a student to graduate. It includes the minimum standard for primary and secondary education levels, and the minimum standard for each group of subject matter, as well as each subject. Details are described in <em>Permendikbud</em> (MoEC Regulation) No. 54/2013.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Standard of facilities and buildings</strong></td>
<td>This describes the minimum facilities, such as furniture, education tools, learning media, books and other learning sources to enhance learning processes. It includes specifications for the standards of classrooms, teacher’s room, headmaster’s room, library, laboratory, workshop, canteen, electricity, sports field, praying room, playground and other facilities that enhance learning processes for each school. Details are described in <em>Peraturan Pemerintah</em> (Government Act) No. 32/2013.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Standard of management</strong></td>
<td>This describes the management standards for schools, for each local region and for the government. Details are described in <em>Peraturan Pemerintah</em> (Government Act) No. 32/2013.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: *Peraturan Pemerintah/Government Act 13 (2015)*
1.3.4 The changing curriculum

One of the mechanisms through which the government aims to achieve the national education goals (apart from the NSoE) is a curriculum that is organised for teaching and learning processes in the classroom. From 1945 to 2015 the Indonesian Government implemented 10 separate curriculums (Belen, 2010). Furthermore, Belen observes that these changing curricula have been due to a combination of knowledge development demand, the challenge of globalisation, and often also due to changing political views.

Beginning with *Kurikulum* 1984, the education system in Indonesia has emphasised active student learning (Belen, 2010). This policy document emphasises the need for students need to take an active role in their learning. This fundamentally new concept for Indonesia was not implemented nationally, only in several provinces and cities. Therefore, in 1994, the government launched a revised *Kurikulum* 1994 that emphasised active student learning as a national goal. However, many experts and educators saw this curriculum as having failed to achieve its goals (Belen, 2010). In implementation, due to content overload, teachers still tended to teach their students through teacher-centred approaches focused on passing tests. The traditional, didactic, classroom structure continued to emphasise test performance achievement and facilitated a competitive environment (Harsono, 2006).

In 2004, the government enacted KBK curriculum (*Kurikulum Berbasis Kompetensi*) or competency-based curriculum with an emphasis on student competence. However, in 2006 the government introduced yet another new curriculum, KTSP (*Kurikulum Tingkat Satuan Pendidikan*) or school-based curriculum. KTSP emphasised student
competence, but also provided freedom for teachers to manage and create their own lesson plans.

The most recent curriculum implemented is *Kurikulum 2013*, based on Regulation No. 20/2003. The aim of this curriculum is building on and balancing between hard and soft skills of student learning and promoting student-centred approaches. However, due to new policy and a change of government, the new Minister of MoEC (Anis Baswedan) delayed the implementation of this curriculum nationally and it is now only being piloted in a few schools and in those schools that chose to continue to use it following the pilot (*Kementrian Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan*, 2014a). Figure 1.1 diagrammatically shows the history of the introduction of the Indonesian curriculum.

**Figure 1.1** The history of curriculum in Indonesia

### 1.3.5 The shifting paradigm and its problems

The Indonesian Government in this reformation era is trying to improve the quality of learning processes and services. Since 1984 the national education system has stressed student-centred approaches, so there exists strong evidence of the policy intent over three decades. Students, especially primary school students, need to be able to develop
independent learning skills since that is the basic purpose of primary education (Indonesian National Education System Law No. 20/2003, 2003). However, this shifting paradigm from teacher-centred to student-centred approaches is an ongoing process, and is not without resistance and difficulties (Bjork, 2004; Marsigit, 2006; Richards, Gallo, & Renandya, 2001; Yeom, Acedo, & Utomo, 2002).

Because the systems and processes of education in Indonesia are well-established historically and culturally, teachers, in particular, have difficulty undertaking the paradigm shift required. In my own experience as a lecturer I have observed that some teachers in some schools still covertly practice the traditional approach when teaching their students. Teachers are reluctant to change to student-centred approaches and rarely facilitate interactive sessions with students (Bjork, 2004; Kristiansen & Pratikno, 2006), predominantly because the change is perceived to involve much more work-related pressure.

The general purpose of this study, then, is to investigate how student-centred approaches have been employed at the school level through the development of student academic help-seeking behaviours. In a student-centred approach students should have a central role in the processes of learning (Burnard, 1999; Kember, 1997; O’Neill & McMahon, 2005). They must be actively engaged in the learning process and be responsible for, and with, their own learning. Taking an active role in the classroom involves sharing opinions, forming arguments and asking questions whenever the need arises. Therefore, requesting help or asking questions of their teachers or their peers when they face academic difficulty is critical.
1.3.6 The National Examination policy

For over 20 years the MoEC has held a National Examination (NE) for Indonesian students at Years 6, 9 and 12. According to Permendiknas/Minister Decree No. 75/2009, one of the purposes of this policy is the selection for entrance into the next level of schooling (Permendiknas 75, 2009). Therefore, to many students, parents and teachers, passing the NE somehow becomes the main goal of education. In some respects the NE fulfils a similar function to the National Assessment Program – Literacy and Numeracy (NAPLAN) in Australia. Figure 1.2 shows the history of the NE in Indonesia.

![Diagram showing the history of the National Examination in Indonesia](image)

Source: Sulistyo (2014)

**Figure 1.2** The types of National Examination in the Indonesian education system

Since its introduction, many researchers and educators have argued about the positive and negative impact of the NE on students. In particular, there are debates raging about whether or not it actually improves the quality of education in Indonesia (Afrianto, 2008; Azhar, 2009; Handayani, 2010; Murtiana, 2010).

For Afrianto (2008) the positive side of NE is that it functions as a benchmark for successful teaching and learning process at national level – just as NAPLAN does in
Australia. As such, it provides input and feedback to the government. In addition, it may motivate students to study harder. The minimum score can serve as a stimulus to boost students to do their best effort, otherwise they will fail. In terms of scoring, the NE has practicality because items such as multiple choice are easy to mark and considered more objective compared to the scores given by teachers; such tests also make the task of compiling data straightforward (Sugiharto, 2009).

In contrast, the disadvantages of the NE are not insignificant – especially for students, parents and teachers. Students are under pressure; they lose their leisure time and creativity because most of the time is spent studying and preparing for the exam (Azhar, 2009). Students could also become disoriented, with their motivation for learning expressed as extrinsic, not intrinsic. Students who receive bad results from the exam tryout can become hopeless and develop an expectation of ongoing failure in the future (Stiggins, 1997, cited in Murtiana, 2010).

Probably the most significant deficit of the NE is that teachers are teaching to the test, and not teaching for knowledge or skills. For practical reasons, teachers tend to teach only the strategies to be successful in the exams, and become less creative in designing their lessons (Afrianto, 2008). These practices do not help students improve their actual knowledge and skills; instead, they tend to produce superficial knowledge and understanding.

Parents also feel the impact of the NE. Many get tense and worry about the results; others complain about the new policy (Handayani, 2010). They spend extra money sending their children to tutoring institutions outside school hours so that their children know strategies for answering the questions and consequent success in the NE.
1.4 Learning culture in Indonesia

In Indonesia, education is an important value for someone who wants to gain a better future. The Indonesian people generally perceive that graduating from a respectable school with high achievement outcomes would give them more opportunity to find a prestigious job and develop their career. With a suitable job and position people can ensure a better future for themselves (Atmanti, 2005). This important valuing of education, together with the educational system, policy and Indonesian culture, influences the overall learning culture in Indonesia.

The learning culture in Indonesia is characterised as highly competitive, exam-centric, and dominated by teacher-control and a rote-learning orientation. Afiatin (2007) states that one of the problems in student learning is the gap between the knowledge and student behaviour and attitudes. Many students are able to memorise the learning content but they often have difficulties in applying the knowledge into daily situations. She argues that this gap exists because students tend to learn about things rather than learning how to be.

The culture in Indonesia also impacts how students behave in the classroom. Student respect for their teachers is as high as their respect for their own parents. Students arrive at school and go straight to all the teachers to shake their hand and show them respect. At school, teachers take on the roles of “parents at school” (Djamarah, 2005 p. 3). Students are generally taught to listen and obey their teachers without question, particularly in primary school. In Indonesia, critique or disagreement with what the teacher is saying is not expected. Formal address is used when speaking to teachers: *Pak* or *Bu* (Mr or Mrs). To students, an informal relationship with teachers and calling teachers by their first names or nicknames will likely seem rude and out of line.
Indonesia, like most other East Asian countries, is representative of a collectivism culture (Hofstede, 2011). In such cultures stress is upon belonging, maintaining harmony, and avoiding the word “I” in language. Importantly, instead of learning how to learn, the purpose of education is expressed more in terms of learning how to do (Hofstede, 2011). Furthermore, people view and identify themselves as a member of a group (Earley, 1993) that share common interests and traits and are concerned about one another’s welfare (Triandis, Bontempo, Villareal, Asai, & Lucca, 1988).

1.5 How does the learning context in Indonesia influence student academic help-seeking?

Student decisions to ask for academic help are influenced by both internal and external factors (Kozanitis, Desbiens, & Chouinard, 2007; Newman, 2000; Ryan, Patrick, & Shim, 2005). In order to gain a better and more complete understanding of student academic help-seeking behaviour in Indonesia, this study explores both internal and external factors from students and teachers. Specifically, this study focuses on factors such as the role of teachers, the role of classroom environments and the role of student themselves as the help-seeker.

1.5.1 The role of the teacher in student academic help-seeking

Academic help-seeking is a social transaction between students and potential helpers such as teachers. This study investigates how the role of teachers influences student academic help-seeking and specifically how students perceive their teachers’ willingness to help them when they face academic difficulty.
Students will likely seek more academic help from their teachers when they feel that teachers give positive responses and support them. However, the student-teacher relationship is typically asymmetrical, especially within the culture in Indonesia (Maulana, Opdenakker, den Brok, & Bosker, 2011 & Bosker, 2011; Novera, 2004). Maulana et al. (2011) also explain that the student-teacher relationship within Indonesian society demonstrates power distance with students giving respect to the teachers. It is considered to be impolite for students not to obey and listen to their teachers. Conversely, teachers also expect that their students will comply with their instructions.

The teacher is an important figure in the classroom. How they behave and speak, and how they frame the teaching and learning processes in the classroom certainly influences student behaviours. Therefore, a useful source of data is to explore what students perceive in relation to how their teachers support and respond to requests for help.

1.5.2 The role of the classroom learning environment

Previous studies have indicated that one factor influencing student academic help-seeking is the learning environment (Karabenick, 2011; Newman, 2000). This study examined closely classroom structures, an aspect of the classroom environment which concerns the guidance, processes and sequences of learning activities in the classroom available for both teacher and students in order to master the lesson materials (den Brok, Bergen, Stahl, & Brekelmans, 2004).

In a student-centred approach students ideally take active roles in learning, such as constructing knowledge by building hypotheses, gathering evidence, and interpreting
results. However, as already indicated, a student-centred approach is a new paradigm for most teachers and students in Indonesia. Teachers are not well trained in applying this approach in their lessons. While they may have the knowledge, they do not know how to share this knowledge using a student-centred approach (Harsono, 2006) and display “expertise inhibition” (Bjork, 2004; Makitalo-Siegl, Kohnle, & Fischer, 2011; Marsigit, 2006). These teachers are still stuck in their traditional classroom script of instruction.

Moreover, in Indonesia, teachers commonly emphasise classical approaches with strict guidance from the central education system, despite system reforms in recent years providing directives and guidance that teachers should emphasise a student-centred approach. The learning processes are typically situated in highly structured contexts that tend to inhibit academic help-seeking behaviour.

This study, therefore, investigates the role of the classroom learning environment in general, and specifically the influence of classroom structures on student academic help-seeking. Previous studies have shown that the way students perceive their classroom environment impacts on student academic help-seeking behaviour (Karabenick & Newman, 2006). How students perceive the class may inhibit or encourage their academic help-seeking behaviour.

1.5.3 The role of the student in academic help-seeking

The decision to ask for academic help is clearly influenced by external factors such as teachers and the classroom learning environment. However, the decision to seek help also depends on the students themselves. This study investigates student perceptions on their own academic help-seeking behaviour and how important this behaviour is
seen in relation to their learning processes and achievement. Specifically, this study also focuses on student attribution and meaningful learning orientation.

**Student attribution**

According to many researchers, attribution is an important aspect in academic help-seeking behaviour in classroom contexts (R. Ames & Lau, 1982; Karabenick, 2010). Attribution here refers to student perspectives about the cause of their success or failure in an academic setting. In Indonesia, the dominant didactic approaches help create classroom environments that tend to be competitive. The teachers usually push students to get good marks and to pass the exams, while the Indonesian educational system still tends to promote a teacher-centred traditional instruction approach. Rote learning is also a deeply embedded practice in classrooms with strong emphasis and focus on content acquisition with dominance of the examination (Lengkanawati, 2003; Zulfikar, 2009).

Both students and teachers perceive that memorising content in order to pass an examination is more important than learning itself. This situation likely endorses student perceptions that it is very important for them to get high marks (Middleton & Midgley, 1997). In learning environments that emphasise performance, students will feel that academic success or failure is highly valued (Ryan & Pintrich, 1997). When students are facing academic difficulties, causal attribution will certainly impact on their behaviour. The way that students responded to their success or failure can be mediated by causal attribution (Collins & Sims, 2006). Therefore, understanding the role of causal attribution to academic help-seeking behaviour is important in order to get a comprehensive explanation about the relationship between the external factors and the internal factors of academic help-seeking.
Student meaningful learning orientation

With students encouraged to pass tests, there is little emphasis on helping them learn how to learn. This approach by teachers impacts on what students do and how they engage in their class.

Academic help-seeking behaviour will likely happen in situations when the learning process results in meaningful learning (Ames, 1992; Meece, 1991). A meaningful learning environment means that the content of the material being taught relates to a student’s everyday life, or is content that students can readily relate to. Often, in Indonesia, the content taught is unrelated to daily activities or practical uses (Afiatin, 2007). There is a disjuncture between what the children are learning in school and the things they experience outside school. In order to better make a connection between school learning and daily living the students need to not only receive help from their teachers, but they also need to manage themselves in engaging in the learning process outside of school. When students perceive that the content of the materials is important for their life and their future they are more likely to actively attempt to master it, or in other words, they will have a meaningful learning orientation. With this orientation students would likely enhanced their academic help-seeking behaviour. Therefore, this suggests that further investigation on this construct related to academic help-seeking could inform future policy development.

1.6 Purpose of the study

The purpose of this research is to identify and explore ways in which academic help-seeking might impact teaching methods and learning outcomes in Indonesia.
Specifically, it explores internal and external factors that influence academic help-seeking behaviour among students in primary schools in Jakarta, Indonesia.

The study focus is on factors that contribute to student academic help-seeking behaviour:

1. The internal factors: student internal factors, student attribution and perceived meaningful learning orientation.

2. The external factors: the roles of teachers and the roles of classroom learning environment.

3. Teacher perspectives of their student academic help-seeking behaviours.

4. Student perspectives of their own academic help-seeking behaviours and its value.

This study explores in depth the internal and external determinates of academic help-seeking behaviour among Year-6 students. Primary school students are the focus of this study because primary education functions as a foundation for the next level of education. In this level, character building, and learning skills and strategies such as problem solving and seeking academic help are developed. Each student needs to learn these skills to gain academic success and thus become a life-long learner.
1.7 Research questions

Based on the main purpose of this study and its background, and to provide guidance for this study, the central research question is:

What factors influence academic help-seeking behaviour among primary students in Jakarta, Indonesia?

Questions closely linked to this are:

1. What is the nature of academic help-seeking in academic contexts?
2. What impact do internal and external factors have on academic help-seeking?
3. What are teacher perceptions about the meaning of student academic help-seeking behaviour? In addition, how do they respond to student academic help-seeking behaviour?
4. What are student perceptions about their own and their peers’ academic help-seeking behaviour? Moreover, why do some students ask for help and the other students avoid it?

1.8 Significance of the study

This study:

1. Contributes to the gap in the current research of academic help-seeking literature since this study is within a non-Western culture. Cross-cultural research has shown different results related to help-seeking behaviour in
achievement-related behaviours between Asian and Western students (Volet & Karabenick, 2006).

2. Provides perspective on academic help-seeking behaviour from Indonesian culture and its education system as it responds to an increasingly globalised environment. There are limited studies in Indonesia about this academic help-seeking behaviour in the classroom.

3. Highlights the topic of academic help-seeking, a topic that is not the norm in education learning culture in Indonesia.

4. Provides a comparison of experiences between Western and Asian cultures. Many Asian cultures emphasise attending to others, fitting in, and harmonious interdependence with them (Markus & Kitayama, 1991).

5. Uses mixed methodology, a methodology not often used in the research of academic help-seeking in Indonesia. This research is able to capture and raise participants’ voices, especially the students that are often neglected. The use of mixed methodology therefore provides in-depth understanding of the topic of this study.

6. Potentially contributes to public policy development, since it is related to teacher education and teacher pre-service and preparation.

7. Informs strategies that educators and school principals might employ in attempting to provide better learning environments that will help students develop academic help-seeking skills.
8. Raises teacher awareness of the importance of student academic help-seeking behaviour in the teaching and learning process.

1.9 Definitions of constructs used in this study

Table 1.2 presents definitions and a short commentary about each key construct used in this study.

**Table 1.2 Construct and definition**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>Comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Academic help-seeking behaviour</td>
<td>Students ask for academic help when they face academic problems either from their peers or teachers in the classroom or outside. The type of assistance could be clarifications, information or confirmation.</td>
<td>This study draws its definition of academic help-seeking from many resources, such as Nelson-Le Gall (1985); Newman (1998) and Calarco (2001).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Adaptive academic help-seeking</td>
<td>Asking for appropriate help when needed: hints, clues, explanation, confirmation.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Maladaptive academic help-seeking</td>
<td>Asking for academic help but not for mastery or understanding: direct answers; asking someone else to solve the problem; cheating.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic help-seeking concerns</td>
<td>The concerns of students as they specifically relate to academic issues.</td>
<td>Three general concerns students have about academic help-seeking behaviour before requesting academic help are autonomy, ability and expediency. This definition is derived from Butler (1998).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Autonomy</td>
<td>Resistance to academic help-seeking because of a desire to complete work on one’s own without depending on assistance from someone else.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Ability</td>
<td>Resistance to academic help-seeking because of worries that one will look inadequate if one asks for help.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Expediency</td>
<td>Resistance to academic help-seeking because of a belief that it will not be effective.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic help-seeking skills</td>
<td>Knowing what, when, where, why, from whom and how to gain academic help.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## Attribution

How a student explains their past failure or success. The attribution pattern relevant to help-seeking involves the belief that effort results in increased chances of success while help-irrelevant attributions focus on excuses which are not likely to mediate self-improvement strategies.

### Classroom structures

Describes the degree to which activities in the classroom are structured. Highly structured classrooms follow a very tightly sequenced order of activities.

- **Teacher control**
  
  Teachers taking over student completion of learning-related tasks.

- **Student initiated**
  
  Students taking an active role in learning.

### Meaningful learning orientation

Students connect with a new concept or information with knowledge they already have, and improve ability in solving problems. Meaningful learning orientation is the degree to which students aim to learn with the intention of meaningfully understanding ideas and relationships.

### Rote learning orientation

Student learning is dependent on verbatim memorisation and drilling.

This definition is derived from Weiner’s attribution theory and then developed by Ames and Lau (1982) in the context of academic help-seeking behaviour. Classroom structures may vary from high structure to low structure, from den Brok, Bergen, and Brekelmans (2006).

## 1.10 The structure of the thesis

### Chapter 1 – The research and its context

This chapter presented the background and rationale for the study, and provided an overview of the current issues related to teaching and learning processes in Indonesia and the importance of the role of student academic help-seeking. Exploring the culture in the Indonesian educational system related to academic help-seeking behaviour led to identifying gaps in research which, in turn, led to the development of the purpose of the study, the guiding research question, and the importance of the study.
Chapter 2 – A review of literature

The following chapter is a comprehensive literature review that examines academic help-seeking in detail, as well as factors that contribute to academic help-seeking such as the role of the teacher, peers and parents, classroom structures and learning cultures in Indonesia. It also elaborates on the internal factors of the students, such as their attribution, meaningful learning orientation, and their relationship with the teachers as they relate to academic help-seeking.

Chapter 3 – Methodology and research design

This chapter discusses methodology that has been used in this study (mixed methods) and the justification for its choice. It explains and describes the research process and the data analysis process. The strength of the methods used in this study is also discussed. Participants and setting, sampling procedures and instrumentation are all described in detail.

Chapter 4, 5, 6, and 7 – Results

Chapters 4–7 present the findings. Results are exposed including statistical analysis and qualitative analyses followed by a discussion of the findings. Chapter 4 describes the nature of student academic help-seeking in this study including how the students engage with this behaviour, their reasons for not asking for help and their preference of helpers. Chapter 5 examines the role of teachers in student academic help-seeking. Next, Chapter 6 investigates the role of the external factors found in this study such as the classroom structures, the role of peers and the role of parents. Chapter 7 closely examines the individual factors that contribute to student academic help-seeking such
as student attitudes towards academic help-seeking, their attributions and the meaningful learning orientations.

Chapter 8 – Contribution and implications

This concluding chapter summarises the significant contribution of this study and suggests strategies for improving the educational system in Indonesia. Finally the chapter gives suggestions for future research in academic help-seeking.

1.11 Summary

This chapter provided an overview of this study. Its purpose is to define the nature of student academic help-seeking behaviour among primary students in Jakarta, Indonesia.

Previous studies of academic help-seeking and the importance of this behaviour were briefly outlined, along with the background of the study in relation to the Indonesian teaching and learning context. Variables that were considered include both internal and external factors – teachers, the classroom learning environment and the students themselves.

The purpose of this study, along with main research question and the extended research questions, were described in this chapter. Lastly, the significance and contribution of this study was explained.

The next chapter outlines the theories of academic help-seeking and factors related to this behaviour. It also outlines the measurement used in this research.
Chapter 2  A REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This research explores the context in which primary-school student academic help-seeking behaviour in Indonesia occurs most easily. This chapter begins with a general review of literature relevant to student academic help-seeking behaviour. It examines perspectives on the input of local teachers, on student internal factors, the influence of peers and the classroom context, as well as factors emerging from parental and family backgrounds that contribute to student academic help-seeking behaviour.

2.1  Academic help-seeking

This section discusses the concept of academic help-seeking, including a review of the perceptions of educators and other stakeholders of this behaviour. Emergent viewpoints about the process and the types of academic help-seeking are also considered.

2.1.1  The history of academic help-seeking

Early research and literature addressing academic help-seeking tend to characterise this behaviour as a manifestation of dependency behaviour. The term dependent flows from a tendency of Western cultures to emphasise individual independence and self-reliance (Butler, 2006) in which individualism and the ability to cope and respond to obstacles are both highly valued. According to Newman (2003), academic help-seeking has traditionally been perceived by teachers and students in negative ways (i.e., as an indication of incompetence, immaturity, lack of independent resourcefulness, and over-dependence on others).
From this perspective, it makes sense that most teachers will perceive requests for help as maladaptive behaviour (Butler, 2006). Contesting this view, other researchers consider dependent behaviour unacceptable (Beller, 1957; Nelson-Le Gall, 1986). On the contrary, Nelson-Le Gall (1981, 1986) argues that academic help-seeking behaviour is better characterised as adaptive behaviour, especially when it is seeking better understanding. Nelson-Le Gall (1981) also proposes that academic help-seeking is an important but neglected phenomenon in teaching and learning process. Likewise, other researchers recognise the importance of this adaptive behaviour in learning and have investigated the nature of academic help-seeking in learning contexts (Karabenick, 2011; Makitalo-Siegl, Kohnle, & Fischer, 2011; Newman, 2006; Puustinen, Lyyra, Metsapelto, & Pulkkinen, 2008; Ryan & Shin, 2011).

Many researchers now accept academic help-seeking as part of self-regulated learning strategies (Karabenick & Newman, 2006; Nelson-Le Gall, 1981; Nelson-Le Gall & Glor-Sheib, 1985; Newman, 2000; Ryan et al., 2005; Ryan, Pintrich, & Midgley, 2001). This perspective is important because it acknowledges the role of social interaction in seeking help, unlike other strategies that focus on cognitive and meta-cognitive approaches (e.g., monitoring; planning). However, other student behaviours prior to seeking help might need consideration, such as motivation, concealing inadequacy and protecting self-esteem (Butler, 2006).

2.1.2 Modern conceptions

More recent literature reveals variations in perception and the consequent definitions of student academic help-seeking.
While Nelson Le-Gall (1985) argues that academic help-seeking is an adaptive strategy, a more general characterisation describes it as behaviour exhibited by students when they face academic difficulties (Karabenick & Newman, 2006). Students become aware of the need for assistance when they encounter difficulties in understanding content material. In resolving these difficulties students develop social skills in learning how to approach other people to get academic help (Anderson & Messick, 1974; Cole & Traupmann, 1981).

Stanton-Salazar (1997) defines academic help-seeking as a critical mechanism to get support from teachers and other people. Although students may seek help from family and friends, the help from their teachers is especially useful. This is because teachers have the ability and obligation to transfer information directly, and wise students see teachers as institutional resources and opportunities (Stanton-Salazar & Dornbusch, 1995). Related research also indicates that teachers certainly expect their students to seek help when needed (Patrick, Anderman, Ryan, Edelin, & Midgley, 2001).

Calarco (2011) defines academic help-seeking as students seek assistance, clarification, information, and checking-of-work from teachers. Furthermore, this behaviour increases student learning and achievement (Karabenick & Sharma, 1994a; Newman, 1994, 2000; Ryan, Hicks, & Midgley, 1997; Zimmerman & Pons, 1986). However, it is also the case that some students choose to avoid seeking academic help. For example, a student may just skip a problem or write any answer rather than ask for academic help (Butler, 1998).

Emergent schools of thought about academic help-seeking now consider it as a subject of self-regulating strategies, such as students monitoring their work and performance, being aware of their need for help when trying to solve problems on their own, and by

Academic help-seeking can be seen as emerging from a combination of meta-cognitive awareness and social interaction. As such, researchers now accept academic help-seeking as a part of a social interactive strategy that involves teachers and peers (Newman, 1998). In order to find help, students need to approach teachers or peers and request help. For some students, however, there is an esteem risk involved in revealing their inadequacy. Such students are concerned about others’ opinions concerning their competencies and may not ask for help simply to protect their self-esteem (Karabenick & Newman, 2006).

Furthermore, Newman (1994, 1998) sees affective-motivational considerations as important in academic help-seeking behaviour – inclusive elements such as goals, attitudes, self-belief, and feelings that are associated with personal motivation, need for challenge, tolerance for task difficulty, willingness to admit personal difficulty and the need for social interaction with teachers and peers that are more knowledgeable.

2.1.3 Prior concerns before requesting academic help

Butler (1998) reports that there are three general concerns students have about academic help-seeking behaviour: autonomy, ability and expediency.

Autonomy concerns refer to resistance to academic help-seeking because of a desire to complete work on one’s own without assistance from someone else – in other words, students want to solve their problem independently. Butler (1998) also shows that
students who hold autonomy concerns are more likely to request adaptive help, such as hints or clues that may assist in mastering the content or in solving the problem.

Ability concerns refer to resistance to academic help-seeking because of worries about looking inadequate if they ask for help. Students who hold this attitude will be unlikely to ask for help in order to continue masking their inability. Students who have such ability concerns are more likely to avoid academic help-seeking (Newman, 1990; Ryan & Pintrich, 1997).

Expediency concerns refer to resistance to academic help-seeking because of a belief that such help will not be effective due to perceptions that a competent, willing helper able to provide the appropriate assistance is either not available or will simply take too long. With this type of attitude, students will be unlikely to ask for help. They tend to avoid seeking help and prefer to ask for a direct answer or using cheating behaviour (Butler, 1998).

2.1.4 The process of student academic help-seeking

Nelson-Le Gall (1986) proposed a systematic model of student academic help-seeking that is a mix of high complexity processes involving meta-cognitively guided activity (Nelson-Le Gall, 1981, 1986; Newman, 1994). The model was later elaborated by Newman (1994) to understand the complexity of the process. Stahl and Bromme (2009) then argue that the learning environment is important in the seeking help process and presented the five-step model as describes below:

1. the awareness of students

2. deciding to seek help
3. identifying potential helpers

4. eliciting help

5. evaluating the behaviour.

Moreover, Nelson-Le Gall also explains that in order to initiate/instigate academic help-seeking, students also need to become aware of the obstacles to goal attainment, view other people as resources valuable for goal achievement, and learn how to enlist others to help attain these goals.

**Awareness of the need for help**

Academic help-seeking is a deliberate act where a student is aware of the need for help and that they may not have sufficient competency to reach their academic goals. Student knowledge of their gaps (their limitations in undertaking tasks) affects their problem-solving skills (Baker & Brown, 1984). Baker and Brown (1984) particularly note that if students fail to notice this gap, they are unlikely take an action to address the learning problem they face. However, if students are able to detect a learning problem and know how to solve it, they will likely use help-seeking as a strategy to solve the problem.

Ryan et al. (2001) argue that help-seeking processes begin from student awareness about their need for help. For van der Meij (1994) and (Dillon, 1988, 1991) the awareness emerges as a state of confusion when students meet puzzlement in trying to understand content they must learn. Students identify a gap between their knowledge and the new material, or they find a contradiction between the teacher’s explanation and their prior knowledge. This confusion may arise from internal or external factors (Nelson-Le Gall, 1981, 1986; Newman, 1990, 1994).
Awareness of this gap increases as students get older (Newman, 2000). Younger children still have difficulty assessing the need for help due to their underdeveloped metacognitive skills and inadequate monitoring of what they are doing. Therefore, they do not access help that available to them. They are also less experienced in evaluating their academic performance. Nelson-Le Gall (1986) suggests that maturation and experience determine student ability to evaluate the need for help.

Nelson-Le Gall (1986) also argues that students must learn to monitor their own task performance and attempt to deal with difficulties or problems because their teacher in a large classroom cannot always perform this function for them. Students need to learn to utilise their peers, as well as teachers, as potential helpers.

**Decision to seek help**

Awareness of their inability would certainly motivate the students to seek more help (Markman, 1977). Academic help-seeking may not happen, however, if the students avoid taking learning responsibility, such as completing academic tasks assigned by their teacher. Student decisions to ask for academic help can therefore be based on the benefit versus its cost. When the cost of asking for academic help outweighs the benefit they will be unlikely to ask for help.

A number of studies place academic help-seeking behaviour within the frame of motivational theory which explains students actions, desire and need to gain achievement (Butler, 2006; Karabenick & Newman, 2006; Newman & Goldin, 1990; Roussel, Elliot, & Feltman, 2011; Ryan & Pintrich, 1997). The findings of these studies suggest that students who have an achievement goal orientation will be more likely to seek help in order to understand the lesson. However, there are costs that students need to deal with when they ask other people for help. Academic help-seeking
can imply feelings of inadequacy and threaten self-worth (Covington, 1992). Before students decide to ask for help they will consider these factors, and if the benefit outweighs the cost only then they are likely to make the request.

**Identification and selection of potential helper**

After a student decides to seek help, the next step is to find a potential helper. However, students do not see everyone as a potential helper. Before asking for help students consider the characteristics of the helper. Younger students prefer to approach adults and older children for help (Edwards & Lewis, 1979). Some studies indicate students prefer to ask for help from their peers (Boehm, 1957; Nelson-Le Gall & Gumerman, 1984; Northman, 1978). Nelson-Le Gall and Gumerman (1984) find that students seek help from their family, teachers and friends.

**Strategies for enlisting helpers**

Following the identification of potential helpers, students need a strategy to obtain help. This requires adequate social skills using verbal and non-verbal strategies. Verbal strategies include asking for help directly of the helper or reminding the helper about their obligation to help (Cooper, Marquis, & Ayers-Lopez, 1982; Wilkinson & Calculator, 1982). Non-verbal strategies include making eye contact or using facial expressions such as confusion or frustration used by young children (Nelson-Le Gall, 1986). Furthermore, Nelson-Le Gall suggests that students may engage with different kinds of strategies to obtain help, and these strategies may differ based on age and gender (see details in section 2.3.1 demographic factors).

**Evaluative responses**

According to Nelson-Le Gall (1986), after a student gains help, it is also possible that they will evaluate the processes, then look at the responses from their helpers and
decide whether they actually successfully benefitted. Such evaluation will likely influence a student’s decision to ask for academic help in the future. If a student fails to obtain the desire help, either because they feared rejection when approaching someone or the help was ineffective, then they need to re-evaluate their choice of helper.

Students need to repeat these processes (finding suitable helpers) until they gain the required academic help. If these attempts continue to fail the students may stop engaging in academic help-seeking (Nelson-Le Gall, 1986). On the other hand, if the help-seeking is successful, students will gain some benefit, such as understanding the content of learning, maintaining their positive self-perception and developing their academic help-seeking strategies effectively (Webb, 1983). Figure 2.1 illustrates the process of help-seeking.

![Figure 2.1 Process of asking for academic help](image)

### 2.1.5 Types of academic help-seeking

Asking for academic help may serve quite distinct goals, such as completing a task without sufficient understanding, avoidance of failure, or developing competence (Nelson-Le Gall, 1981). Distinctions such as adaptive academic help-seeking and
maladaptive academic help-seeking are prominent in the literature and explained below.

**Adaptive academic help-seeking**

Adaptive academic help-seeking is the tendency to ask for appropriate help when needed (Newman, 2006; Ryan et al., 2005). Students initiate this kind of behaviour after initially trying to solve the problem. Typically, students will request hints to clarify learning strategies. Engaging in this behaviour typically improves student capacity to solve problems independently.

Adaptive help-seeking is referred to by some researchers as ‘instrumental help-seeking’ aimed at gaining understanding or solving a problem (Karabenick & Knapp, 1988, 1991; Nelson Le-Gall & Glor-Scheib, 1986; Newman, 1990; Newman & Schwager, 1992). Students who seek help this way will likely put effort into first attempting to solve a problem and may initially refuse help so they can solve it by themselves. In this way students use self-regulation learning strategies in problem solving, and may be able to undertake more challenging tasks than previously.

**Maladaptive academic help-seeking**

Maladaptive academic help-seeking refers to behaviour when students ask for academic help rather than mastery or understanding. Instead, the intention might just be to find an easy way to complete a task. Such students tend to ask for direct answers in order to solve their problem, or prefer to have someone else solve the problem for them; they may even revert to cheating by copying someone’s answer (Butler, 1998).

Students perform maladaptive academic help-seeking when they perceive a problem to be beyond their ability to solve or they are more interested in gaining the outcome
than understanding. However, students may face another problem by engaging in this type of help-seeking, such as continued dependence on others to get answers, and this might negatively influence their self-regulated learning development (Ryan, Patrick & Shim, 2005).

Table 2.1 shows the differences between adaptive and maladaptive help-seeking.

**Table 2.1 Adaptive versus maladaptive help-seeking**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adaptive help-seeking</th>
<th>Maladaptive help-seeking</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>▪ asking for help in understanding after initially trying to solve the problem</td>
<td>▪ asking for help as an easy way to complete task</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>▪ prefer hints; clues to clarify or confirm something or solve problems</td>
<td>▪ prefer direct answers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>▪ perceive the task as challenging</td>
<td>▪ asking someone to do it for them</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>▪ cheating</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>▪ perceiving that the task is too difficult</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.1.6 Research around student academic help-seeking

Research on student characteristics is commonly based on motivational components, such as academic self-efficacy (Ryan, Gheen, & Midgley, 1998), personality (Newman, 2000), perceived competence (Newman, 1994; Ryan & Pintrich, 1997) and achievement motivation (Ryan & Pintrich, 1997). Ryan, Gheen and Midgley (1998) found that avoidance of help seeking was related negatively to students' academic efficacy. However, avoidance of help seeking was related less strongly to students' academic efficacy in classrooms in which teachers believed they should attend to their students' social and emotional needs. Furthermore, Newman (2000) investigation shows that older students have greater sensitivity to the negative implication of their behaviour and may inhibit them asking for academic help. Study from Newman (1994) and Ryan and Pintrich (1997) find out that students with higher perceived competence and motivation ask more help compare to students with low perceived competence.
Other variables have been drawn from external factors such as the role of the teacher (Kozanitis et al., 2007; Ryan et al., 2005), class management (Makitalo-Siegl et al., 2011), the role of peers (Roussel et al., 2011), family (especially the role of parents) (Puustinen et al., 2008), and from different cultures (Shih, 2007). Demographic factors, such as age, gender, and social context and culture also affect whether a student will request help or not (Aleven, Stahl, Schworm, Fischer, & Wallace, 2003; Newman & Goldin, 1990). These factors will be explained more in details in the next sections of this chapter.

**Indonesian research about student academic help-seeking**

Little research about student academic help-seeking exists in Indonesia. Most of the investigating research is typically quantitative in approach and has focused only upon student perceptions – examples include the work of Mursyidawati, Siswati, and Widodo (2009) and Yusticia (2013) who investigated high school students; Suparno and Wirawan (2007) who focused on college students; and Suryaratri (2005) who focused on students at middle school level. Notably, Mursyidawati et al. found a positive correlation between academic help-seeking behaviour and self-regulated learning. Similarly, Suparno and Wirawan found a positive correlation between academic help-seeking behaviour and positive attitudes towards academic achievement, while Suryaratri suggests that a positive correlation exists between perceived competence and academic help-seeking. Yusticia found a negative relationship between academic help-seeking and performance goals.
2.1.7 Summary

In summary, the literature reveals that many researchers initially viewed student academic help-seeking as a dependent behaviour that students avoid and teachers did not encourage. Over time, the teaching community now perceives academic help-seeking as one of a group of self-regulated learning strategies that both students and teachers should recognise. Previous studies show that developing student academic help-seeking skills can involve complicated factors, which are discussed in the following sub-sections.

2.2 The role of teachers related to student academic help-seeking

Teachers play a significant role in student learning, including their academic help-seeking behaviour, and are scrutinised here as contributors to the external factors influencing student academic help-seeking (Karabenick & Newman, 2006; Newman, 2000). Intricate personal and environmental variables can also influence teachers’ and students’ behaviour in the classroom (Eccles et al., 1993; Wentzel, 1998; Wentzel, Battle, Russell, & Looney, 2010). The interaction between personal and environmental factors, such as support from teachers and peers, can be seen to have an effect on their academic help-seeking behaviour.

The following discussion focuses on teacher beliefs and attitudes towards student academic help-seeking. Understanding the role of beliefs and attitudes is important because these two factors are basic characteristics of one’s behaviour. Teacher behaviours that may support or inhibit student academic help-seeking are therefore reviewed, as are how students and teachers build relationships. Previous studies show that students who felt comfortable in approaching their teachers and have a good
relationship were more likely to request academic help. Teacher effort to promote student academic help-seeking from previous studies is also discussed.

2.2.1 Teacher beliefs and attitudes towards teaching and learning

Investigating the role of teacher beliefs and attitudes towards student academic help-seeking indicates that teacher beliefs are an important area in the teaching and learning process (van Uden, Ritzen, & Pieters, 2014). Van Uden et al. (2014) argue that teachers believe their knowledge is more important than other variables in the teaching and learning processes. These beliefs involve subject-matter knowledge, pedagogical knowledge and didactic knowledge, or knowledge about how to present teaching materials – all help to shape teacher identity (Beijaard, Verloop, & Vermunt, 2000; Borko, 2004; Darling-Hammond, 2006). In relation to teachers, Pajares (1992) also argues that the best indicator for teacher decisions is their beliefs and that behaviour can be explained well by understanding those beliefs.

Teachers have to make routine assessments on their teaching effectiveness in the classroom, make judgements and decisions, and respond accordingly. Teacher beliefs profoundly influence their decisions (Borko & Putnam, 1996; Borko, Roberts, & Shavelson, 2008; Chen, 2008; Kagan, 1992; Nespor, 1987; Pajares, 1992). Their selection of teaching strategies is also based on their beliefs about teaching, educational goals and student learning. Their beliefs facilitate them to focus on their selected problem and how to solve it (Borko & Putnam, 1996; Nespor, 1987).

Albion (1999) also found that teacher beliefs are a crucial factor in selecting strategies or significant tasks when facing a problem in teaching. Pajares (1992) reports a significant correlation between teacher beliefs and teacher preparation, instructional
decisions and classroom practices. Kagan (1992) shows that teacher beliefs act as the base of teaching and correlate with teaching styles that later become stable and hard to change. Furthermore, Kagan emphasises that in order for a teacher to be able to change their teaching styles, it is necessary to change their beliefs.

This is likewise the case for teacher attitudes. Attitude is understood here to be a tendency to react towards any subject, positively or negatively (Adediwura & Tayo, 2007) and emerges from two phenomena: cognitive and emotional sources. Attitude is also identified as an important factor in educational psychology and influences how people think (Fazio & Roskes, 1994, cited in Adediwura, 2007).

In an educational context, teachers with a positive teaching attitude tend to become effective teachers (Eggen & Kauchak, 2001). In addition, positive attitudes have been identified as necessary for teachers to promote a caring and supportive classroom environment: enthusiasm, caring, firmness, democratic, effective use of time, efficient routines, and motivating students through building positive relationships (Brunning et al., 1999, cited in Adediwura, 2007). All such characteristics relate to increasing student achievement. Adediwura (2007) also suggests that positive teacher attitudes and good personal qualities enhance student academic performance.

In conclusion, teachers who hold the belief that academic help-seeking is an important behaviour and helps student learning will likely promote this behaviour. Teachers who have a positive attitude towards this behaviour will also likely support their students to engage with academic help-seeking. Although numerous studies concerning student academic help-seeking exist (Butler, 1998; Newman, 2000; Ryan, Hicks & Midgley, 2007; Sakiz, 2011; Wosnitza, Labitzke, Woods-McConney, & Karabenick, 2014),
little is known regarding teacher beliefs and attitudes towards academic help-seeking or their roles – especially in Indonesia.

**Inconsistency between teacher beliefs and their behaviours**

While it may be assumed that teacher beliefs are a significant factor influencing teaching processes, studies have also revealed inconsistency between the expressed beliefs and practices of teachers (Chen, 2008; Wosnitza, Labitzke, Woods-McConney, & Karabenick, 2014).

Chen (2008) explains that these consistencies are due to:

1. the influence of external factors
2. teachers’ incomplete or inadequate theoretical understanding
3. teachers’ other conflicting beliefs.

Chen (2008) also identified a discrepancy between teacher beliefs and performance in the classroom concerning technology use. While all teachers strongly agree on constructivist concepts, they still used teacher-centred approaches and lectures, and they used technology only to support such instruction. Moreover, Lowyck (2003, cited in Chen, 2008) also explains that not all teaching actions arise from teacher intentions or beliefs because the context profoundly influences teacher decision making. The context includes information about students, the characteristics of learning tasks or curriculum, and the constraints and support of the instructional situations. These findings suggest that the beliefs that teachers hold may not align with their practices.

A study from Wosnitza et al. (2014) on teacher beliefs and their effort to promote student academic help-seeking also indicates inconsistency in beliefs and behaviour. The study found that although some of the teachers reported that they would not deny
any request for help, in practice they unintentionally sent the opposite message to their students. These findings imply that teachers may not be as mindful about how they communicate help-seeking expectations to their students as they think they are.

### 2.2.2 Teacher behaviours related to student academic help-seeking

Early research on effective teacher behaviours that may increase student motivation was conducted by Skinner and Belmont (1993). Since then, several researchers have identified a wide range of teacher behaviours. Kyriakides, Creemers, and Antoniou (2009) define teacher behaviours as observable instructional behaviour of teachers in the classroom such as structuring, questioning, teaching modelling, managing time and creating the classroom learning environment. For Brophy (1986), teacher behaviours include guiding, modelling, praising and giving reinforcement. Babad, Bernieri, and Rosenthal (1991) also distinguish teacher behaviours from verbal and non-verbal behaviour in the classroom.

According to Newman (2000), teacher behaviours may influence student learning and academic help-seeking in three ways: teacher involvement through their relationship with students; teacher promotion of student academic help-seeking through the classroom context, and teacher daily operations. Similarly, Le Mare and Sohbat (2002) identify a number of teacher characteristics that are essential in determining student decisions about whether to approach their teacher for help. Moreover, Karabenick and Sharma (1994) and Kozanitis et al. (2007) investigated how teacher support and responses to student questions impact ultimate decisions on seeking academic help.
Teacher interactions with students

The nature of the teacher relationship with students is a crucial factor in determining student involvement in learning and achievement (van Uden et al., 2014). Because academic help-seeking requires students to approach their teachers and peers, and this often needs to be facilitated by a positive student-teacher relationship (Karabenick & Newman, 2006). However, recent research shows that the student-teacher relationship is commonly asymmetrical (McCaslin & Good, 1996). As a consequence, teachers need to build positive relationships with their students, showing a caring and respectful disposition that will facilitate their communication (Goodenow, 1993; Goodenow & Grady, 1993; Jennings & Greenberg, 2009). When students perceive they are respected by teachers, this leads to emotions and behaviours such as feeling happy, showing interest and demonstrating effort towards achievement (Ames & Archer, 1988).

Through positive student-teacher interactions teachers may help students develop academic help-seeking skills (Newman, 2000). This student-teacher relationship can be seen as consisting of four dimensions: affection (liking; appreciation); dedication of resources (time, energy); dependability (availability); and understanding of student needs (Skinner & Belmont, 1993). However, when students approach teachers to ask for academic help, they may also calculate the perceived benefit against the cost of doing so. Each student develops different beliefs about their teachers and their helpfulness or the cost versus benefit in asking questions.

As they get older, students gain experience and become more aware of their relationships with teachers and whether teachers can meet their needs or provide help that will benefit them (Newman, 1998, 2000). Primary school students choose their helpers based on their competence and skills (Barnett, Darcie, Holland, &
Kobasigawa, 1982). Higher level primary school students select their helper based on teacher willingness or awareness of other’s problem and abilities. Students also evaluate the quality of responses that they get (Barnett et al., 1982; Furman & Buhrmester, 1985).

To summarise, the quality of the student-teacher relationship influences the degree to which students are confident in approaching their teacher for academic help. Therefore, in order to enhance student academic help-seeking behaviour, teachers need to be able to elicit trust from their students and reduce the perceived cost of asking for academic help. Students perceive their relationship with the teacher from different perspectives, and teacher involvement can have different meanings to them. Cost or concerns about potential costs that have links to fear of embarrassment can have a strong inhibiting effect on help-seeking, especially among older children.

**Teacher promotion of student academic help-seeking**

In order to promote student academic help-seeking behaviour teachers may create a classroom environment that encourages students to become self-regulated or independent learners (Newman, 2000). Self-regulated learners take responsibility for their own learning. They use learning strategies to master the material, and one of these strategies is asking for academic help when they need it.

Teachers who focus on understanding and independent learning create a classroom that puts emphasis on mastery of goals. In this context, teachers provide mastery performance feedback, and support student needs and social development based on student efforts (Newman, 2000). In contrast, classrooms where the emphasis is on performance goals link success to ability. Here, teachers focus more on gaining high
scores offering student performance feedback that is contextualised by comparison with their friends (Ames & Archer, 1988; Nicholls, 1979).

In classrooms where emphasis is on mastery goals students are generally encouraged to seek assistance when it is required. Research shows that primary students working to solve puzzles within a mastery goal context typically ask for more help compared to students working within performance goal contexts (Butler, 1993; Butler & Neuman, 1995; Newman & Schwager, 1995). However, students within mastery goal contexts often also reported that they wanted to solve problems independently, and therefore they do not ask for help (Butler, 1998; Butler & Neuman, 1995).

Ryan and Pintrich (1997) show a significant relationship between perceived classroom goal structure and academic help-seeking behaviour. Students who perceive their classroom in terms of mastery learning will likely seek academic help compared with those who perceive their classroom in terms of performance goals. Classrooms with mastery goal structures see student understanding as preeminent, and therefore see asking for academic help as a valid learning strategy. However, in classrooms where the emphasis is more on performance, such as getting a high score, student perceive highly competitive situations and therefore avoid asking questions due to possible embarrassment. Interestingly, Ryan and Pintrich also report that students with low perceived cognitive competence are more willing to request help when the classroom promotes mastery learning.

Conversely, students working under performance goals are unlikely ask for help to maintain their self-perception of ability (Elliott & Dweck, 1988; Graham & Golan, 1991). In such a context students tend to engage with maladaptive self-attribution and negative behaviour, such as giving up or completing the task as fast as possible. They
often choose expedient strategies such as asking for the correct answer (Newman & Schwager, 1995) or do not ask for help at all (Butler, 1998; Butler & Neuman, 1995).

Daily teacher operations

In order to enhance student academic help-seeking behaviour, teachers need to design daily lesson plans that provide effective support for their students. Newman (2000) proposes that structuring classroom activity in ways that foster mastery learning is an important element for teachers in achieving this goal. In pursuing this goal teachers generally use three different types of activity structures: individual, whole-class and small group. A set of norms and rules with both explicit and implicit expectations can be linked to each subset of activity.

For individual activity, teachers typically expect students to attempt independence without depending on help from others (McCaslin & Good, 1996; Nelson-Le Gall & Scott-Jones, 1985). The social norm for this type of activity is that students do not disturb their friends by going to the teacher if they need help. Because of the nature of the tasks typically assigned, teachers tend to expect their students will not need assistance during individual activity (van der Meij, 1988).

For whole-class activity, teachers typically present new material to the entire class. Teachers encourage students to ask questions but, since the teacher is in control of the class, they mostly instigate the questioning rather than the student (Cazden, 1986; Mehan, 1979, cited in Newman, 2000). In this situation, students avoid seeking academic help because the cost of social comparison such as potential embarrassment is strong (Dillon, 1988; Karabenick & Knapp, 1988).
The third type of classroom structure design is small-group activity, which is generally designed to encourage students to interact with and learn from one another by requesting and giving help (Webb & Palincsar, 1996). Students working in small groups are more likely to seek academic help from other students and from the teacher as well (Nelson-Le Gall & Glor-Scheib, 1985).

Newman (2000) suggests several benefits from working in a small group for students related to seeking academic help as describe below:

1. lack of social comparison, given that student performance is not in public view of all other children
2. working collaboratively which gives students a sense of self-determination in actively engaging in their own learning
3. students working collaboratively tend to talk with one another in ways that may facilitate help-seeking.

Tutoring can be seen as a variation of small-group activity, designed to help students actively engage with other individuals (Graesser & Person, 1994). Studies show that students often learn more (in math and reading) in one-to-one tutoring sessions than in classroom settings (Cohen, Kulik, & Kulik, 1982). This may be at least partially due to the facilitation of help-seeking (Graesser & Person, 1994). Tutoring sessions generally concentrate on specific knowledge deficits and, as a result, tutors may have a sustained opportunity to interactively diagnose and remedy such deficits. Students potentially acquire good question-asking skills from tutors who can model ‘good’ questions. In addition, this reduction in the likelihood of embarrassment in front of tutors in turn reduces reluctance to seek help.
In summary, through implementing different activity structures, teachers influence the degree to which the learning environment supports help-seeking. Collaborative activities, both involving small groups of students and one-to-one tutoring, may facilitate the student developing competencies and a sense of control with regard to academic help-seeking.

2.2.3 Teacher characteristics

Teacher characteristics that have been classified by Le Mare and Sohbat (2002) as teacher willingness, competence, expectations, personality traits, relationships with students, predictability, familiarity, gender, and mood. Students in Le Mare and Sohbat’s study reported asking for help, creating strong feelings in becoming comfortable with seeking assistance from teachers.

Students observe teacher willingness and decide accordingly whether it will support or inhibit them from asking for academic help. Students who perceive that their teachers lack willingness (does not listen to them, ignored them, or are just too busy) will be unlikely to ask for academic help. However, when students feel that their teachers listen to them, encourage them to ask and are willing to answer their questions, they are also likely to ask for help (Le Mare & Sohbat, 2002).

Teacher competence is also an important factor determining whether students will approach their teachers for help. When students perceive that their teachers have competence (understands the problem, knowledgeable and knows how to help) they will likely approach them for help. Aladejana (2000, cited in Adediwura, 2007) found that students also prefer to have teachers who are competent in the subject and consequently respect and trust them accordingly. Students also prefer to have teachers
who listen to their problems, and provide understanding, patience and willingness to explain things interestingly (Adediwura, 2007).

Students in Aladejana’s (2000) study, (cited in Adediwura, 2007) also reported that they were concerned about the teacher expectations. When they thought that their teacher expected them to already know the content or should be able to solve the problem by themselves they are unlikely to ask for help. On the other hand, when they perceive that teachers expect that it may not be necessary to know the content, they feel encouraged to ask for help. According to Aladejana, supportive teacher personality traits such as being nice and patient can also encourage student academic help-seeking. Unfriendly or strict teachers, whether in reality or merely perceived to be so, will inhibit students asking for help.

Teacher interactions with students determine how teachers develop relationships with students and how approachable they are (Le Mare & Sohbat, 2002). Furthermore, Le Mare and Sohbat found that teacher favouritism is seen as inhibiting student academic help-seeking. Favouritism is the tendency to favour a person or group based on unrelated factors such as personal contacts, personal characteristics or even just personal preferences rather than capabilities (Aydogan, 2008). Therefore, favouritism may ruin equal opportunity because it only gives advantages to some students who may not necessarily deserve it (Nadler & Schulman, 2006, cited in Aydogan, 2008).

Another characteristic is teacher predictability. Some students avoid asking for academic assistance from their teachers when they feel uncertain whether or not they will answers their questions. The Le Mare and Sohbat (2000) study reported that students found difficulties and could not predict whether their teacher would provide answers or not. This unpredictability certainly inhibits student academic help-seeking.
Le Mare and Sohbat (2002) state that teacher familiarity refers to how well students know their teacher. When students know their teachers well, they know that it is right for them to ask for help. Moreover, in this context students do not feel shy and are more comfortable asking for academic help from their teachers compared to situations that might involve substitute teachers.

Teacher gender is the factor that students least mentioned in the Le Mare and Sohbat (2000) study. Students perceived that female teachers are generally more caring and value collaborative work, while male teachers were perceived as placing more value on independent learning. Therefore, many students prefer asking for academic help from their female teachers. Likewise, teacher mood also influences student academic help-seeking behaviour. Some students are afraid to ask questions when they think their teachers are in a bad mood.

### 2.2.4 Teacher support and responses to student questions

Karabenick and Sharma (1994) found significant correlation between student perceptions of teacher support for student questioning and motivational tendencies. This study found that creating opportunities for questions and providing high quality answers are important dimensions of teacher support. Karabenick and Sharma reveal that students who perceive teacher as supportive and could provide high quality answers or responses will likely ask a question in the classroom. This study also found that students who have high self-efficacy beliefs and task value would more likely seek academic help.

Similarly, Kozanitis et al. (2007) found that perceptions of teacher reactions impact positively on student academic help-seeking, while Schwager and Newman (1991,
cited in Karabenick & Sharma, 1994b) found that perceived teacher encouragement related to young children’s intention to ask questions.

Newman and Schwager (1993) found that teachers exhibit different behaviour towards their students based on student achievement. This is partly shaped by teachers also having different expectation towards these students. Teachers often neglect low achiever students and show behaviours such as being slow to respond to their questions, offering direct answers rather than explanations, or giving them more negative feedback and not praising their successes. Unstated beliefs imply that teachers engage more with high achiever students than low achievers (Cooper, 1979; Cooper, Hinkel, & Good, 1980, cited in Newman & Schwager, 1993). Such variation in treatments will likely have the result of some students developing attitudes that adversely impact their learning engagement and academic help-seeking behaviour.

Teacher reactions to academic help-seeking also contribute to student academic help-seeking (Le Mare & Sohbat, 2002). Negative reactions (such as making individual problems public or being cross) will discourage students from asking for help. These negative reactions also become student concerns. Moreover, some studies (Newman, 1990; Newman & Schwager, 1993) found consistent findings related to potential embarrassment such as ‘looking dumb’ will likely inhibit them from asking for academic help.

2.2.5 Summary

Teachers play very important roles in influencing student academic help-seeking development. These influences include their beliefs and attitudes towards student academic help-seeking, and involve the development of student-teacher relationships.
Building caring and positive relationship enable students to feel comfortable in approaching them to ask for help. Furthermore, the way teachers set classroom goals impact student decisions on whether to ask for help. Teacher selection of classroom activities has also been found to be important in developing student academic help-seeking skills. Figure 2.2 summarises the role of the teacher in academic help-seeking.

Figure 2.2 The role of the teacher in academic help-seeking

There is no shortage of research investigating the role of teachers in student academic help-seeking. As yet, however, there is little research about how these roles might apply in an Indonesian context. There is a substantial gap in the literature that this study aims to address. Within different learning systems and cultures, teachers in Indonesia may face different challenges or respond with different behaviours towards student academic help-seeking. This thesis addresses some of these issues (detailed in Chapter 5).
2.3 Student instigation of academic help-seeking

While student decisions on whether to ask for academic help depends on external factors such as teachers, peers or classroom context, it is also largely determined within the students themselves. Previous studies have identified several internal factors that impact decision making (Aleven & Koedinger, 2000; Alexitch, 2002; Butler, 1999). The following discussion reviews these factors, beginning with demographics such as age and gender, followed by personal characteristics such as passiveness. This leads to a discussion focused on student attribution and meaningful learning orientation.

2.3.1 Demographic factors

Several studies have shown that age and gender influence a student’s decision on whether to ask for academic help (Aleven et al., 2003; Newman & Goldin, 1990; Newman & Schwager, 1995; Puustinen et al., 2008; Stephanou & Tatsis, 2009).

Age

Academic help-seeking abilities improve with age (Newman & Schwager, 1995). Due to enhancement of metacognitive skills, older students are more able to develop academic help-seeking behaviour compared with young students (Ryan & Pintrich, 1998). Older students are also better at monitoring and reflecting upon their own learning progress (Aleven et al., 2003). Foundational research in educational psychology (Wood, Bruner & Ross, 1976) reveals that three-year-old children often ignore the helper; however, by age four to five, when facing a problem, they can initiate a help request (Stephanou & Tatsis, 2009). At this age a child starts to develop attitudes and beliefs towards factors that contribute to the effectiveness of help-seeking (Barnet et al., 1982; Nelson-Le Gall & Gumerman, 1984). Newman and Goldin (1990)
and van der Meij (1988) also found that young students recognise the necessity of seeking help to solve a problem. However, they are also aware of the positive and negative consequences of asking for academic help in the classroom.

With increasing age, students get better at developing help-seeking skills and assessing potential helpers (Newman & Goldin, 1990). Aleven et al. (2003) found that the criterion for choosing a helper might vary based on the age of the help-seeker, the perceived competence of the helper and the helper’s understanding of the needs of the seeker (Nelson-Le Gall, 1981). However, with increasing age students also become more reluctant to seek academic help because of concerns about other’s opinions (Myers & Paris, 1978). As they get older, students have been observed as more passive and infrequently seek needed academic assistance (Dillon, 1988; van der Meij, 1988).

Nelson-Le Gall (1987) also report that with increasing age students learn to distinguish between necessary and unnecessary help, and clearly prefer indirect help to direct help. Older students (Year 4) are more aware of the need for assistance, and can regulate and evaluate it better compared to younger students (Year 2) (Pustinen, 1998). Moreover, Nelson-Le Gall and Jones (1990) show that older students (Year 5) ask for academic help when needed and are able to differentiate between different types of assistance compared to younger students (Year 3). Older students are also less likely than younger students to express unclear understanding and are more likely to request specific academic help (Newman & Schwager, 1995).

In summary, student age contributes to the behaviour of seeking academic help. With increased age students are able to manage academic help-seeking, choose potential helpers, and evaluate the impact better. However, they are also more reluctant and avoid seeking academic help because of the potential cost involved.
Gender

Previous studies focused on learning processes have shown that gender differences contribute to student academic help-seeking in ways that are complex (Aleven et al., 2003; Butler, 1998; Newman & Goldin, 1990; Ryan et al., 1998). Butler (1998) and Adema-Hannes and Parzen (2005) report that boys request less academic help and focus more on ability-orientation, avoiding seeking help to mask their incompetence. Boys also prefer to ask for academic help from their peers (Adema-Hannes & Parzen, 2005). However, Newman and Goldin (1990) show that girls avoid seeking help because they are more concerned with what teachers may think than boys are.

Other studies, such as from Nelson-Le Gall and Glor-Scheib (1985) and Webb and Kenderski (1985, cited in Newman & Goldin, 1990) reveal that there are also differences concerning the type of help requested and gender. Nelson Le-Gall (1987) shows that more girls perform adaptive academic help-seeking (asking for understanding) compared with boys, especially low achievers.

Gender influences in academic help-seeking has also been identified in a study from Gernigon et al. (2003) that shows girls ask for more help than boys because it is more acceptable for them to do so. Looking at gender influences more broadly, Vogler and Baken (2007) found that women are more comfortable asking and receiving help than men because of stereotypes in society.

2.3.2 Student personal characteristics

This section discusses student personal characteristics such as: attitudes and belief, prior knowledge and student passiveness related to student academic help-seeking.
Student attitudes and beliefs towards academic help-seeking

Student attitudes towards academic help-seeking have an important role in determining actual behaviour (Ryan & Pintrich, 1997). Moreover, Newman (1990) found that attitude towards academic help-seeking is the causal link between motivational factors and help-seeking behaviour.

Different attitudes towards academic help-seeking held by students in the classroom have been found to be dependent on their perceived benefit and costs (Karabenick & Knapp, 1991; Newman, 1990; Ryan & Pintrich, 1997). Positive attitudes towards academic help-seeking refer to the potential benefit that may be gained and is useful for understanding and promoting learning (Ames, 1983; Karabenick & Newman, 2006; Nelson-Le Gall, 1985; Roussel et al., 2011). On the other hand, negative attitudes towards academic help-seeking refers to perceived threats to self-esteem related to perceived inability or sociocultural rules that inhibit asking questions (Gross & McMullen, 1983; Rosen, 1983; Roussel et al., 2011; Shapiro, 1983).

Different attitudes towards help-seeking lead to different help-seeking behaviours. Previous studies have mentioned two key attitude variables towards student academic help-seeking (Karabenick & Knapp, 1991; Newman, 1990; Newman & Goldin, 1990; van der Meij, 1988). First, perceived benefits of help-seeking recognise academic help-seeking as a useful strategy that encourages learning, and second, the threat to self-worth. It is important here to note that Western social cultural emphases on independent mastery and self-reliance (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Furthermore, Deci and Ryan (1987) suggest that help-seeking may be perceived as a dependent behaviour that conflicts with personal needs for autonomy. Threat to self-worth in this current
study refers to threat to self-worth arising from, though not necessarily caused by, peers or teachers.

**Student prior knowledge**

Nelson-Le Gall (1986) suggests that students must have adequate prior knowledge (know what is not known, to know what could be known) in order to formulate effective academic help-seeking. When someone knows too little about the problem or knows too much, it will likely reduce the likelihood of asking for help to solve the problem. Therefore, with appropriate prior knowledge and skills students will likely ask for academic help within a supportive classroom environment. Previously, Newman and Goldin (1990) have shown that academic help-seeking mostly happens among high achievers compared to other students. These students ask for more academic help because they have the beliefes that asking questions help them learn more and they are not concerned that other people might see them as a ‘dumb’ students.

**Student shyness and passiveness**

One of the reasons for some students avoiding seeking help is because they are passive in the classroom. Not all students participate equally in classroom activities, and it is often the case that a few high-achiever students are active in the classroom and tend to dominate interaction (Jones, 1990; Jones & Gerig, 1994; Sadker & Sadker, 1985).

Brophy and Evertson (1981, cited in Jones & Gerig, 1994) suggest that passive students rarely interact with their teachers and thus lack opportunity for a response. In their study, these students were passive not just in the whole-class learning process, but also in small-group activities. Brophy and Evertson suggest that these students are typically inactive, passive and detached, and avoid teachers except for when they needed help.
Good (1981) proposes that students can act passively because of the variation in feedback they receive from their teachers. Low achievers tend not to engage with classroom activities because teachers rarely give them the opportunity to answer questions and tend to exacerbate the problem by giving them less time for, or delayed feedback. Teachers often do not appreciate success by giving praise to these students (Good, Slavings, Harel, & Emerson, 1987).

Jones (1994) identifies the profiles of passive students:

1. Low achiever and low expectation students avoid starting interactions with others and passivity is their way of coping with the dynamic of the classroom (Good & Brophy, 1987).

2. Shy students have few or no friends, and tend to have solitary hobbies and like to work alone. They do not like to follow the crowd in thought or action.

3. Students who lack of self-confidence avoid being the centre of attention by choosing not to interact in class.

4. Serious students are diligent with their schoolwork and want to do well.

5. Students showing cultural influence. It is a common phenomenon that Asian students show passiveness as a way of showing respect for teacher and peers.

Although many researchers found that some students are passive or uninvolved, Fong (1987) argues that the idea of passive students are uninvolved learners is untrue. According to Fong, these students may choose not participate in class or decide to stay silent not because of the current teacher but as a result of a behaviour shaped by their previous teachers and classroom experiences. Similarly, Good (1981) shows that some
students avoid taking risks in class discussions because of their prior experiences. This study investigated these shyness and “passive” values since Indonesian students may adopt these values related to the Asian culture and learning culture where passive means obedience and respect.

2.3.3 Student attributions

One of the factors that emerged as a focus in this study is student attribution and its relationship with academic help-seeking. The construct of attribution is within the theoretical framework of self-esteem (Ames & Lau, 1982). According to Weiner (1985), attribution theory in the learning context is a way to describe how a student explains their past failure or success. This attribution can indirectly contribute to their future achievement, affective reactions, expectations for success, choice of task and persistence. Weiner also suggests that causal attribution can mediate a range of responses following failure.

There are four key elements to explain the cause of a success or failure event: ability, effort, task difficulty and luck. The internal characteristics of the person are presented by the ability and effort components, while the task difficulty and luck components explain external factors (Weiner, 1985). Another concept from attribution theory is the stability and instability of the components. Ability and task are relatively stable, while effort and luck are relatively unstable. Therefore, the four elements in this causal model reflect two basic dimensions – the locus of control (internal or external) and the degree of stability (stable or variable) (Weiner, 1985).
Attribution and academic help-seeking

Ames and Lau (1982) show that student attribution influences student academic help-seeking behaviour. Ames and Lau conducted their research among college students. Their study explains that when a student holds an external attribution, such as explaining his or her poor performance in a test on ‘bad luck’, they will likely avoid seeking academic help. In this situation the student perceives they have no ability to gain success in the future and are less likely to seek help than those who perceive themselves as having ability (Karabenick & Newman, 2006).

Ames and Lau (1982) propose the terms help-relevant attribution and help-irrelevant attribution. These dimensions help describe how the attribution pattern relevant to help-seeking involves the belief that effort results in increased chances of success. When a student has such a help-relevant belief, they are more likely to ask for help. In contrast, help-irrelevant attributions focus on excuses such as ‘tricky test items,’ ‘the instructor did not motivate me,’ and so on, which are not likely to mediate self-improvement strategies.

The significant of attribution

As described by Bank and Woolfson (2008), attributions are the causal explanations that people give to the events that happen to and around them. People need to understand or explain what and why things happened to them in order to strive in the future.

According to Weiner (1979), there are two kinds of attribution: first, general attribution (not passing an exam because lack of intelligence); and second, specific attribution (not passing an exam because lack of understanding of some math formulas). Tessler and Schwartz (1972) found a link between student feelings of inferiority and the
decline of their self-esteem with general attribution related to academic help-seeking. This means that students avoid seeking academic help because they believe that asking reveals their lack of intelligence. Ames and Lau (1982), however, suggested students view task specific attribution as a factor that can be improved by effort. When students attribute their failure to specific ability achievement, the negative affect is not as strong as when they attribute their failure to global ability attribution.

Ames and Lau (1982) further suggest that student academic help-seeking is a behaviour that links to a complex pattern attribution of ability and effort matched with the use of much reasoning in explaining student performance. They propose that an attributional pattern relevant to help-seeking involves the belief that student basic ability is adequate, and that the more effort students put in increases the chance of success. Moreover, external factors, such as the task and luck as uncontrollable factors, did not inhibit student performance. For students who perceive they are capable of doing the task, but do not apply enough effort, and there are no external forces that inhibit them, help-relevant attribution indicates they will likely ask for academic help within the classroom supportive to this action.

In contrast, help-irrelevant attributions focus on excuses such as ‘tricky test items,’ or ‘the teachers did not motivate me,’ and so on, which are not likely to mediate self-improvement strategies. Therefore, students who attribute their performance to help-irrelevant attribution will be unlikely to ask for academic help since they perceive that external factors are something they cannot control.
2.3.4 Student meaningful learning orientation

A definition of meaningful learning relevant to this thesis is learning that is substantive in content, useful in the future and linked to the broader world (Ares & Gorrell, 2002). Ares and Gorrell (2002) reveal the importance of connecting the learning inside and outside of the school. Muir’s study (2000) indicates that students from middle schools report the usefulness of connected learning with the content for their future careers.

A large body of research corroborates the influence of meaningful learning orientation on student learning processes and outcomes in classroom settings (Ausubel, Stager, & Gaite, 1968; Keskitalo, Pyykko, & Ruokamo, 2011; Novak, 2002). Meaningful learning orientation is broadly defined by how learners actively link what is known to substantive aspects of new concepts and, as such, might also play a significant role in help-seeking. It seems reasonable to assume that if one believes, for example, that learning is for your future this would lead to more help requests than believing that learning is just to past the test (BouJaoude & Barakat, 2003). Research shows that meaningful learning orientation contributes to student achievement motivation and engagement in classroom activities (Novak 2002).

Distinguishing meaningful learners and rote learners

This sub-section explains the differences between these two learning orientations. Both the learning orientations have their own characteristics, depending on the learner.

Meaningful learners are able to connect a new concept or information with the knowledge they already have. They can improve their ability in solving problems. They also can reduce overload memorisation. On the other hand, students using rote strategies depend on verbatim memorisation and drilling. Importantly, they may not
be as successful as meaningful learners in correcting a misunderstanding in science (BouJaoude, 1992). Furthermore, BouJaoude (1992) shows that meaningful learners also show significantly better achievement compared to rote learners.

Meaningful learning orientation can also be understood as the degree to which students aim to learn with the intention of meaningfully understanding the ideas and relationships involved (Entwistle & Ramsden, 1982). In general, however, students are not inclined to learn meaningfully (Cavallo, 1996), instead, they tend to memorise the content or facts for one topic and isolate them from other topics.

Tekkaya and Yenilmez (2006) propose the following characteristics of meaningful learners. They are motivated to understand the content, maintain a critical and objective view, have a deep approach to learning, use evidence, are able to reorganise new content with relevant prior knowledge and personal experience, and build holistic content.

According to Ausubel et al. (1968), in order for meaningful learning to take place the subject must be potentially meaningful and the learner must show clear effort, such as actively trying to make a connection from what is known to the new concepts/learning material. Meaningful learning also implies that students must be motivated to make connections between concepts, and a meaningful learning orientation will influence student academic help-seeking behaviour. Students who hold a meaningful learning orientation will likely ask for academic help in order to gain a better understanding when they face a gap in knowledge. Furthermore, Donn (1989, cited in Cavallo & Schafer, 1994) states that meaningful learners respond to novel problems by self-questioning and by relating and elaborating ideas.
Meaningful learning orientation and academic help-seeking

In designing this study, findings from the foregoing literature indicate that students who perceive material to be useful for the future and can make connections between concepts will be more likely ask a question or request help when they face academic difficulty compared to students who tend to use rote strategies in learning.

2.3.5 Summary

The literature suggests that student internal factors are important in determining student academic help-seeking behaviour. While demographic factors such as age and gender, and student characteristics have been known to contribute to student behaviour including academic help-seeking behaviour, research has shown students often base their decisions on cost-benefit considerations. Other variables such as student attribution and student meaningful learning orientation also have been known to have an impact on the decision students make to ask for academic help.

Although most of the studies related to academic help-seeking in Indonesia focus on student reports, none have used qualitative approaches that bring student voices into account. Little is known about their opinions related to this topic. Therefore, this study addresses this gap and explores Indonesian student perceptions regarding academic help-seeking.

2.4 The role of peers

This study focuses on the behaviour of students at Year 6 in their transition stage from childhood to adolescence where the role of peers starts to become an essential factor that determines student academic help-seeking. This section begins with the significant
of peers in student learning and the role they play in student academic help-seeking. A normative comparison with peers is reviewed and teacher versus peer assistance is examined.

2.4.1 The significant of peers in student learning

Eccles et al. (1993) characterises adolescence as a stage of ‘storm and stress’ with many students facing difficulties in passing through it. Eccles et al. also highlight a mismatch between needs and opportunities for adolescents to develop in the social environment. During this stage, the peer group is increasingly important (Gorman, Kim, & Schimmelbusch, 2002) and close relationships are needed (Eccles et al., 1996) for students to adjust and meet their psychological needs (Eccles, Lord, & Midgley, 1991).

One of the essential characteristics of the peer relationship is the sense of belonging to the group and being accepted (Sherif & Sherif, 1964, cited in Berndt, 1999). The need for acceptance leads students to conform to the group norms. This conformance may lead students to either negative or positive behaviour. Students may perceive that their groups and the group norms are more important than academic achievement. Thus, they are under pressure to follow their group norms otherwise they might face consequences such as being teased (Simon, Eder, & Evans, 1992). Adolescence students therefore typically try to avoid being punished by their groups because this may end their friendship (Piaget, 1932; Piaget & Gabain, 1977).

Peer influence often decreases student effort on academic tasks and encourages students to waste their time on non-academic activities (Bishop, 1989). Students may believe that getting high grades, attending school daily and developing good
relationships with teachers will only reduce their time with their friendship groups (Fordham & Ogbu, 1986; Gorman et al., 2002). Similarly, Hersch (1998, cited in Gorman et al., 2002) also found that students perceived academic achievement is valued less in peer groups.

Although researchers have shown negative influences of peers on student behaviour in schools some studies have shown different results. Studies from Newcomb, Bukowski and Pattee (1993) and Schunk and Zimmerman (1997) show that students who observe their classmates working hard on academic tasks may follow the example and are motivated to work hard as well. Friendships with peers may lead to a positive outcome, but this depends on reinforcement (Berndt, 1999; Berndt & Murphy, 2002). For example: the exchange of positive comments between students that align with their attitudes and values will likely increase their positive behaviours. A study from Berndt et al. (1984, cited in Berndt, 1999) suggests that having a discussion with peers encourage students to exchange their ideas. Furthermore, such exchanges provide opportunities for students to not only express and defend their opinions but also learn to accept other opinions and reasons.

2.4.2 Peers and academic help-seeking behaviour

Newman (2000) found that peers influence the development of academic help-seeking skills and attitudes in three ways:

1. peer involvement through friendship and social goals

2. social comparison, since student naturally compare their academic performance each other
3. Interactions between students give opportunities to develop their questioning skills.

**Peer involvement through friendship and social goals**

Berndt (1999) defines friendship as helping and supporting each other. Students involved in friendships have the opportunity to work together and seek help from each other (Newman, 2000). Some elements of friendship may help students facilitate academic help-seeking, such as affection, companionship, intimacy, and lack of conflict and rivalry (Berndt & Keefe, 1995; Buhrmester, 1990; Furman & Buhrmester, 1985).

Students are inclined to engage in learning activities and tend to do well academically when they perceive their friendship has fulfilled their needs (Berndt & Keefe, 1995). Moreover, with good quality friendships, students feel comfortable asking for help and support from their friends. On the other hand, students who may be having problems with their friends will be unlikely to expose their need for help (Newman, 2000).

Students who share similar goals, attitudes and values towards schools with their friends develop familiarity that provides confidence, which enables them to ask for academic help and encourages the use of other strategies to cope with academic difficulties (Newman, 2000). For example, Nelson-Le Gall and DeCooke (1987) found that for students in Year 3 and Year 5, boys and girls prefer to seek help from their gender more often than from friends of the opposite gender.

Another important feature in peer relationships is social goals shared among the students, such as social affiliation (desire for friendship and intimacy) that can impact academic help-seeking (Newman, 2000). Students who highly value social affiliation
and are able to make friends will likely adjust well in school (Birch & Ladd, 1998). A study from Ryan et al. (1997) reports that students who perceived social affiliation is important were unlikely to avoid asking for academic help from their teachers or peers.

**Social comparison**

The development of student academic help-seeking skills and attitudes relate to social comparison in several ways. First, it provides feedback regarding student performance that will increase student awareness of the need for assistance. Second, it may also hinder a student from asking for help due to a perceived public threat to their competence and self-worth (Newman, 2000). Students also use information from social comparison to set a benchmark to define the norms of their performance and to improve task performance and ability.

Newman and Schwager (1993) report that a classroom environment that emphasises competitiveness and leads students to judge others by performance negatively will likely increase normative comparison. Students will be unlikely to ask for academic help and avoid possible embarrassment by publicly seeking help from teachers. However, by comparing their academic achievement among themselves, a student may be aware that it is alright for them to need academic help when they realise that their friends also need it. Teachers also can help reduce the cost of seeking help by assuring their students that it is normal to need help (Newman & Schwager, 1993; Karabenick, 1996). Although the normative expectation in most classrooms is not to ask questions (Dillon, 1988), shared difficulty that classmates experience with the same material may actually encourage students to seek help. Social comparison also may help students to identify potential and effective helpers among their friends (Frey & Ruble, 1985).
As experience accumulates with age, students become more aware that help is needed when they face academic difficulties and adjust their help-seeking according to the task (Nelson-Le Gall & Jones, 1990). Social comparison information may help students to develop academic help-seeking skills if the information is given in a nonjudgmental way (Nelson-Le Gall & Scott-Jones, 1985, cited in Nelson-Le Gall & Jones, 1990).

Peers sometimes perceive approaching other classmates in order to gain academic help as a threat to student self-worth (Berndt & Keefe, 1995). Therefore some students avoid seeking academic help from peers because they do not want peers to think that they are ‘dumb’ (Nelson-Le Gall & Gumerman, 1984). Several studies also have shown that students avoid seeking help because they are afraid and concerned about negative reactions from their peers (Butler, 1998; Ryan & Pintrich, 1997; Newman, 2000, 2002; Newman & Goldin, 1990). It appears that some students also harbour fear of embarrassment or looking silly and inadequate in front of their friends because they need to maintain their self-worth (Rousell, 2011).

In summary, social comparison is natural in the classroom when students work together and interact with other students; it provides feedback for students on their performance. With this information, students can learn to develop positive attitudes towards academic help-seeking and develop their skills as well. However, some students worry about negative feedback and this inhibits them from asking for academic help.

**Support for developing competence**

Students receive encouragement and information from their peers. During classroom activities in small group collaboration, students can get academic help from their peers.
rather than their teacher. Through this cooperation students may gain academic and social benefits (Newman, 2000).

In small-group collaboration, students have the chance to share opinions, strategies, hypotheses and other ideas publicly (Cooper, 1980; Teasley, 1995). The thinking process that is usually in private is now visible, open for others to analyse. During group collaboration students also have the opportunity to ask (and be asked) questions. Students may use questioning activities to monitor their own and other’s comprehension or check for other information such as clarification or justification (Brown & Campione, 1994, cited in Newman, 2000).

By listening and observing other students’ questions, students may learn how to develop their own skills effectively. They also have the opportunity to identify potential and effective helpers based on perceived competencies (Newman, 2000). Working in small group collaboration also provides students opportunities to learn how to use academic help in a constructive way, such as using new information from others to solve a problem (Webb, Troper, & Fall, 1995).

Students often formulate an unclear and inexplicit question to their friends, and in return may gain a non-elaborated answer or no response at all and therefore their performance likely suffers (Webb & Palincsar, 1996). However, when these students persist on reformulating and revising their questions they will get better explanations, and therefore increase their performance (Webb & Farivar, 1994). Students increase their chances of receiving elaborated explanations when they are able to formulate clear, precise and direct questions (Webb & Kenderski, 1985, cited in Webb & Farivar, 1994). Lastly, with age, students are able to develop their language competencies and increase their ability to ask or give academic help (Newman, 2000).
2.4.3 Teacher versus peer assistance

Several studies have found that some learning materials are easier to understand from other students than from teachers (Damon, 1984; Ellis & Rogoff, 1982; Webb & Lewis, 1988, cited in Oberman, 2000). Moreover, Johnson and Johnson (1987) report that student-student interaction is an important factor that contributes to student performance. Students may find it easier to understand their friends’ explanations. This may be because they speak with their own language, they directly approach the problem, they work together solving problems and come easily into agreement (Oberman, 2000). Furthermore, peer communication has been differentiated from adult-child communication through how they share their ideas, how they come into consensus, and how willing they are to compromise (Damon, 1984, cited in Oberman, 2000).

A study from Oberman (2000) shows a distinction between help sourced from peers and teachers based on gender. Girls reported higher academic help-seeking towards their teachers than peers. They perceived teachers as more knowledgeable; however, girls also reported that they approach their friends first before they ask teachers. They perceived that teachers are sometime not always accessible to help them. The girls also preferred adaptive academic help (hints or clues) that made them understand the material.

2.4.4 Summary

Understanding peer influences on student attitudes and behaviours is important in understanding student academic help-seeking. Peers are significant in the development of student academic help-seeking attitudes and skills. Students are most influenced by
their close friends, and this influence occurs both negatively and positively. Social-comparison information often promotes competition, and inhibits students from publicly admitting they need assistance. However, peers also provide opportunities to experience and benefit from social aspects of learning. They are resources for one another, providing potential helpers when the teacher is unavailable. In collaborating, students may gain experience with different types and uses of questioning and develop their questioning skills.

### 2.5 Classroom learning environment

Classroom characteristics play an important role in influencing student academic help-seeking along with student personal characteristics (Nelson-Le Gall, 1985; Newman, 1991; Newman & Schwager, 1992).

According to Frenzel, Pekrun, and Goetz (2007) the scope of the classroom learning environment consists not only of physical characteristics such as school buildings and classroom size, but also social dynamics, such as student-teacher relationships and teacher learning instructions. In another words, the learning environment is the whole learning setting perceived by the learners and the instructors. Thus, the two essential elements of the classroom learning environment can be classified as physical and psychological. According to several studies, both physical and psychological elements are interrelated and shape a learning atmosphere for students and teachers (Al-Enezi, 2002).

Many researchers have reported that the perceived learning environment plays an important role in determining student achievement (Fraser, 1994; McRobbie & Fraser, 1993, cited in Frenzel et al., 2007) as well as student emotional and social outcomes.
(Anderman, 2002; Anderman et al., 2001; Turner et al., 2002). Several studies in the field of student academic help-seeking behaviour have also been shown that classroom context such as classroom goal structures contribute to students seeking academic help (Butler, 1998; Marx, Fuhrer, & Hartig, 1999; Pajares, Cheong, & Oberman, 2004; Turner et al., 2002).

2.5.1 Classroom physical environment and student academic help-seeking

Numerous studies concerning the physical environment of the classroom have shown that many aspects of physical variables, such as school building conditions, learning spaces, seating arrangement, lighting, overall maintenance and building quality, have an impact upon student grades, achievement, behaviour, satisfaction and affective performance (Al-Enezi, 2002; Bosch, 2003; Bullock, 2007; Clark et al., 2006; Earthman, 1998). However, studies directly investigate the role of physical condition to student academic help-seeking behaviour are still limited. Thus, this study will also investigate the influence of the learning environment to academic help-seeking behaviour.

Previous studies about the learning environment in education generally focus more on the connection between the physical environment and student achievement (Hiemstra, 1991; Lanham, 1999). A study from Al-Enezi (2002) for example, reveals a significant correlation between school building condition and student achievement scores in art and science, although, the main effect of building conditions also varied across gender and academic major. Similar findings also reported by Bullock (2007) show building conditions affected student achievement in Standards of Learning examinations.
especially in English, mathematics and science. Students accomplished more in renovated buildings compared to older buildings. Earthman (1998) also reveals that school facilities related to student achievement and behaviour. Results show that classroom temperature, proper illumination, space, equipment and furnishings have positive impacts on student test scores and behaviours.

From a broader perspective, Bosch (2003) focused on student behaviour and attitudes as well as achievement in relation to the physical condition of the environment. This study reported other details such as student perceptions of safety, presence of facilities such as telephones in the classrooms, air quality, conference spaces, fluidity of seating and work surfaces to meet changing needs and student display spaces. These physical variables are important in student learning.

Another important feature of the classroom physical condition is noise. Clark et al. (2006) investigated the impact on aircraft and road traffic noise exposure on student reading comprehension, reporting that aircraft noise exposure at school has a significant correlation with impaired reading comprehension. However, road traffic noise exposure was found not to have any significant correlation with reading comprehension.

Lanham (1999) found that improving school buildings specifically with respect to air conditioning could enhance student achievement. This result is consistent with other research findings from Hines (1996) and Earthman, Cash and Van Berkum (1995) which reveals that air conditioning systems are essential factors influencing student academic performance. In addition, Lanham also found that the cleanliness of the building is also a factor that contributes to student academic performance. In a
comfortable environment, students will likely be more engaged in learning activities including asking for help when they need it.

Earthman (2002) found that physical improvements also influence the teachers, who reported that improvements would likely increase the teaching environment. Classes with too many students and overcrowding, also makes it harder for students to learn; especially for students from low socioeconomic status (SES). The study show that class size reduction leads to higher student achievement. Therefore, the size of the classroom and also the number of the students in the classroom will likely influence student academic help-seeking. Students will likely avoid asking academic help in a overcrowding classroom.

Lastly, seating arrangement has also been found to be an important factor influencing student behaviour specifically on student questions-asking behaviour (Marx et al., 1999). Marx et al. (1999) state that students seated in a semicircle arrangement asked more questions compared with those who a row-and-column seating arrangement. Moreover, Marx et al. argue that social interaction is encouraged when individuals are able to establish face-to-face contact.

Lipman, Sharp, and Oscanyan (2010) suggest there is a reciprocal relationship where the environment influences the learners and the learners influence the environment. In sum, a better physical learning environment encourages students to perform better, gaining higher grades, influencing the development of positive behaviour and attitudes and also increasing student academic help-seeking behaviour. Therefore, the importance of this learning environment is investigated in this study including physical building and seating arrangements that may encourage or inhibit students academic help-seeking.
2.5.2 Classroom psychological environment and student academic help-seeking

Previous studies have proven that classroom context has a direct contribution to student academic help-seeking (Butler, 1998; Marx, 1999; Pajares, 2004; Ryan & Pintrich, 1997; Turner et al., 2002). Classroom context, such as goal structures, classroom structures and teacher instructions, impact on the way students behave including how they seek academic help.

Classroom structures may vary from high to low. Highly structured classrooms follow a very tightly sequenced order of activities (den Brok et al, 2002). Teachers present the learning processes, introduce, guide and evaluate the learning activities, and likely dominate the learning process. Students follow teacher instructions; rarely ask questions but study many new materials. They need to obey and only work after they have been told to. However, in a low structured classroom context students are likely to be more involved in the learning process and are able to be self-directed after receiving an introduction and basic guidelines (den Brok et al, 2002). They have to solve the problem by themselves. In this situation, they are more likely to seek academic help (Karabenick, 2011).

Another important element is how the teacher sets the tone of the learning environment in the classroom, including the instructional dimension. In the classroom, a key element in defining the student role is the degree to which students have control over their own learning activities (den Brok et al., 2004). The other element is the degree to which teachers are explicit or clear about what students have to learn and how (Brekelmans, Sleegers, & Fraser, 2000). The next element is often referred to as clarity (Cruickshank & Kennedy, 1986, cited in den Brok Bergen, & Brekelmans, 2006),
active learning (Brekelmans et al., 2000), activating instruction and control or delegation (den Brok et al., 2006) Moreover, research has shown that classroom management is an important prerequisite for student learning and student on-task behaviour (Creemers & Reezigt, 1996).

This study investigates the role classroom structures have in determining student academic help-seeking or how students perceive teacher control behaviour in the classroom. Den Brok et al. (2004) investigated student perceptions on teacher control behaviour in the classroom. There are two types of student learning regulations: ‘student-initiated’ and ‘teacher-initiated’. Teacher control is described as ‘strong,’ ‘shared’ or ‘loose’ in relation to student activities during learning tasks.

These three teacher control constructs are described below:

1. **Strong control**, refers to taking over a student’s completion of learning-related tasks. Example behaviour from teachers includes making an outline for daily activities, giving examples and highlighting main points. In every step of the learning process the teacher does what students could and should be doing. Teachers become a learning model and elicit the necessary prior knowledge to perform the activities. This approach is also linked with highly teacher-centred methods (Lamberigts & Bergen, 2000, cited in den Brok et al., 2006). Therefore, this study hypothesises that in this situation, students are unlikely ask for academic help.

2. **Shared control** refers to activating and encouraging students to take an active part in their learning. In this case several researchers make a further division: shared responsibility between student and teacher, and shared responsibility
between student and student (den Brok et al., 2002; Lamberigts & Bergen, 2002). With shared control, teachers perform and complete targeted learning activities, continually activating students. Examples of such teacher behaviours include asking questions, giving assignments or assigning tasks, and stimulating students to cooperate. Students are encouraged to work together to complete an academic task as a learning processes. This type of control highly correlates with cooperative learning activities (Stahl, 1999). In this situation, this study then hypothesises that students who perceive shared-control in their classroom are likely to ask for academic help since they feel responsible for their own learning.

3. **Loose control**, refers to inspiring and motivating students to complete learning activities by themselves with little guidance from the teacher. Teachers assume that students initiate their own learning and gain all the cognitive, affective and regulative learning activities by themselves. The teacher gives freedom and independence to operate during learning activities. Students are challenged, encouraged and enticed to engage in learning activities by themselves as much as possible. Student academic help-seeking is likely to happen between students, their peers, and their teachers.

The construct of classroom control therefore extends beyond the teacher presenting information and controlling the learning process to also recognise the shifting responsibilities from the teacher to the student to complete an academic task. This type of control is theoretically correlated with the concept of a powerful learning environment and to radical-individualistic constructivism (Lamberigts & Bergen, 2000).
2.5.3 Summary

This section highlighted the importance of the classroom learning environment, both physical and psychological, influencing student behaviour in general and, specifically, student academic help-seeking behaviour. A number of studies demonstrate that classroom conditions have a significant role in determining student achievement as well as student attitudes and behaviours. Overall, the foregoing studies recommend that with better physical conditions of the learning environment students will be encouraged to learn better and achieve more. Furthermore, students in an environment that encourages them to ask for academic help are typically classrooms that emphasise mastery learning rather than performance learning, and with a classroom structure that shows shared authority between student and teacher.

As mentioned in Chapter 1, the classroom learning environment in Indonesia is typically characterised as competitive and shaped by rigid instructions from teachers. Research concerning academic help-seeking within the classroom learning environment in Indonesia, however, is still limited.

2.6 The role of parents and family background on student academic help-seeking

The roles of parents and family background are important factors in student learning and academic help-seeking (Bempechat, 1990; Bong, 2008; Calarco, 2011; Epstein, 1992; Newman, 2000, 2002; Puustinen et al., 2008). Since this study focuses on Year-6 students, these roles are crucial. Keith et al. (1986) found that in student learning parent influence is more consistent for primary students than for middle and high schools students. However, while these roles are briefly reviewed this is not the main
topic of this study. In addition, while the data from the parents in this study is derived from teacher interviews, Fan (2001) recommends that teacher reports can also be used to measure parental involvement in student learning.

### 2.6.1 Parenting and student academic help-seeking

The literature review shows that the involvement of parents in student learning and academic help-seeking is central in terms of building continuity between home and school for children related to their relationship with other significant factors, such as parents and teachers (Newman, 2000).

Newman (2000) suggests that when children are able to build good quality relationship with their primary caregiver (parents), they will be able to develop a sense of self-confidence and trust with other people. Children who receive support and care from their parents also will able to develop respect and find it easier to approach other people to request help in the future.

Furthermore, Newman (2000) shows that parents need to support language development and provide basic communication skills, such as how to ask for help or formulate a question. Children start to learn that through language they can request specific assistance and learn that asking for help may solve problems. Language development is a crucial factor to develop help-seeking skills (Rice, 1989, cited in Newman, 2000). Children also need adequate feedback from their parents/caregiver to improve their help-seeking skills. If they succeed in gaining help from adults, they will be encouraged to request help in the future when required.
At home, parents also need to support their children to develop their competence by engaging in conversations about their activities, providing help and showing how to solve problems (Newman, 2000). During these interactions, parents may provide hints and explanations rather than direct answers (Hermans, ter Laak & Maes, 1972, cited in Newman, 2000). These processes will help children engage with critical thinking and lead them to ask questions and encourage them that requests for help are acceptable. Previous studies have also shown positive influences from parents on student achievement, attitudes, behaviour, and student engagement in learning and school activities (Bempechat, 1990; Epstein, 1992).

Parenting practices (actions, behaviours and interactions) have been shown to contribute to student academic help-seeking (Neitzel & Stright, 2003; Newman, 2000; Puustinen et al., 2008). A study from Newman found a link between the quality of parental instructions and frequency of student academic help-seeking. Children whose parents give instructions in small steps matched with their ability were more likely to ask for more help from their teachers and peers.

Neitzel and Stright (2003) reveal that at school, students whose parents (usually mothers) provide them with metacognitive information, guidance and emotional support, tend to ask for academic help from their teachers.

Another key element supportive of student learning at home is family environment (Epstein, 1992). Epstein (1992) found that parents who are aware, knowledgeable, encouraging and involved in their children’s learning have a positive correlation with student academic work, school attitudes, higher aspirations, and other positive behaviours. Several studies also suggest those parents who assist their children at home
have a significant contribution to children’s achievement, attendance and school adaptability (Comer & Haynes, 1991; Epstein, 1992).

Similar findings from Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (1997) suggest that parents who believe that they have to take action will likely be involved in their children’s learning. They also have sense of efficacy in helping their children to be successful academically. These parents perceive that they have the skills, interest and abilities to help their children in learning. Furthermore, they also have time and energy; they also believe that they have been given opportunities to be involved in their children’s learning by the children and the school. They perceive that their children and the school need them to be involved in their children’s learning processes. Parental support and expectation generally increase student learning motivation (Ethington, 1991, cited in Bong, 2008). Furthermore, Ethington notes that parents who feel confidence in their children’s competence in school encourage their children to engage in achievement behaviour in their learning at home and in school. They also encourage their children to have a positive self-perception and academic motivation.

A study by Bong (2008), focused on high school students in Korea, however found that parental support, perceptions and expectations often conflict with classroom goal structures. These can support and may enhance or inhibit student academic help-seeking behaviour. For example, student perceptions of their parent’s support, demands and pressures made them feel an obligation (thankfulness, respect and guilt) to achieve academic success. In order to maintain their relationship with their parents, these students need to gain better academic achievement. Therefore, sometimes instead of seeking academic help they may prefer to cheat (especially in math) to avoid conflict with their parents.
2.6.2 Socioeconomic level and student academic help-seeking

The reviewed literature shows how important parent support is to student learning. Unfortunately, not all parents are able to provide all the necessities mentioned above to their children. Some literature shows that parent education and SES also determines parental involvement in children’s learning (Bempechat, 1990; Calarco, 2011; Fan & Chen, 2001; Semba et al., 2008).

Bempechat (1990) found middle-class parents are better in accommodating the demand from school than lower-class parents. For example, middle-class mothers use more strategies to enhance their children’s academic achievement, closely monitor their children’s progress and approach the teachers when their children face academic problems compare to lower-class mothers (Baker & Stevenson, 1986). However, a study from Clark (1983) shows that low SES level is not automatically a predictor of a less effective parent. Clark shows that children from a low SES level with high achievement had parents who place high value in education and their future. These parents also monitor their progress and encourage them to be responsible with their academic outcomes.

Calarco (2011) found similar results related to SES and student academic help-seeking. Calarco reports that middle-class students request more help from teachers and employ different strategies (approach directly or interrupting their teachers) compared with lower-class students. Therefore, they receive more help from teachers and gain advantages. Furthermore, Calarco found that students from different levels receive different resources and opportunities. Middle-class parents are more able to provide learning materials at home, while lower-class students are usually only able to
gain learning resources from schools (Bourdieu 1977; Lamont & Lareau 1988, cited in Calarco, 2011).

Another study from Semba et al. (2008) focused on parent influence in student academic success. The study found that the education level of both mother and father is an essential factor for children’s healthcare. This study shows that the higher the formal education of both parents, the more they are capable of taking care and providing better protection for their children. Therefore, they may provide a better learning environment. Semba et al. also suggest that a more educated father makes more money and engages with more protective behaviour towards their children by providing them with more nutrition and health.

2.6.3 Parent relationships with teachers and school

The role of parents is not only significant at home – their interaction with the school and teachers may support their children’s learning (Bong, 2008; Comer & Haynes, 1991; Izzo, Weissberg, Kasprow, & Fendrich, 1999). Comer and Haynes (1991) suggest that the collaboration between the school and family are significant in supporting children’s learning. This is because the families provide social, cultural and emotional support for the children, and then the schools provide opportunities to develop positive relationships between children and teachers to develop their learning. Epstein (1992) found the school and family partnership as critical and emphasised that the two institutions have the same responsibility for children’s education.
2.6.4 Summary

In summary, family background and parenting behaviour contribute in many aspects to student learning at school. Parent-children interactions seem to be crucial for the development of children’s adaptive help-seeking. Through parental involvement, children potentially learn that they can solve problems by gaining help from adults. The skills they get from home are likely to benefit children in future classroom situations when they face academic challenges and need to approach their teachers or classmates for assistance. More specifically, parental involvement in providing a learning environment and support is essential for the development of competence on learning and academic help-seeking. Some middle and upper-class parents have the skills and facilities to foster their children’s learning and achievement motivation. However, lower-class parents often struggle to provide these supports.

As mentioned in this chapter (Section 2.1.6), most of the studies conducted in Indonesia focus on the students as the help-seekers. Limited knowledge is found around the roles of parents on student academic help-seeking. This study investigates these roles through the eyes of students and teachers.

2.7 Summary of Chapter 2

This chapter has reviewed the relevant literature on student academic help-seeking behaviour. Academic help-seeking behaviour is an important learning strategy that leads to positive outcomes and has been validated by many researchers. However, it is also the case that many students have been found to be reluctant to seek academic help. A number of factors that may contribute to student academic help-seeking behaviour have been identified. External factors such as teachers, peers, parents and classroom
contexts have been discussed. Student internal factors such as characteristics and other variables were also discussed in this chapter.

![Diagram of academic help-seeking factors](image)

Notes: ATR = attribution; MLO = meaningful learning orientation; AHS = academic help-seeking; SES = socioeconomic status

**Figure 2.3 Diagram of academic help-seeking factors**

Figure 2.3 shows the summary of factors that according to the literature influence student academic help-seeking. This diagram also shows that culture in Indonesia covers learning culture that affects both teacher and student behaviour.

Chapter 3 discusses the methodology used in this study and the research design including data collection processes and analysis.
Chapter 3 METHODOLOGY AND RESEARCH DESIGN

Central to this thesis is a study that aimed to investigate student academic help-seeking factors from both student and teacher perspectives. This chapter discusses the study methodology, provides justification for selecting it, and outlines its benefits. In doing so, it restates the research questions and outlines the methodological perspectives, the research design and the processes of data collection. It details the structure of the study, including the setting, the characteristics of the participants and the sampling procedures. Furthermore, this chapter describes the instruments and the processes of data analysis. Finally, the chapter addresses the ethical issues related to this study.

3.1 Research questions

Informed by the literature reviewed in the previous chapter, this research explores how primary school students in Indonesia engage in academic help-seeking and what factors influence this behaviour. Specifically, the following research question has provided focus:

What factors influence academic help-seeking behaviour among primary students in Jakarta, Indonesia?

Other specific linked questions are:

1. What is the nature of help-seeking in academic contexts?
2. In what ways do internal and external factors impact on academic help-seeking?
3. What are teacher perceptions about student academic help-seeking behaviour?
4. How do teachers respond to student academic help-seeking behaviour?

5. What are student perceptions concerning both themselves and their peers in relation to academic help-seeking behaviour?

6. Why do some students ask for help and others avoid it?

These research questions guided selection of the most appropriate methodology and research design for understanding the underlying issue of what influences academic help-seeking behaviour.

### 3.2 Methodological perspective

Three types of research design are commonly used in social and behavioural research and their underpinning paradigms: quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods research. Generally, the post positivist paradigm is associated with the implementation of quantitative research, constructivism with qualitative research, and mixed methods research is underpinned by the pragmatism paradigm (Creswell, 2009, 2013). These three types of research design are best conceived as being on a continuum rather than being discrete, with the quantitative and qualitative approaches representing polar opposites (Creswell, 2009). Mixed methods research design occupies a middle position since this approach uses both quantitative and qualitative methods.

#### 3.2.1 Quantitative research design

Quantitative research design is an approach to research that tries to confirm or deny existing theories by testing hypotheses against collected evidence (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). The hypothesis is a tool for a researcher to test (examine) relationships among variables in existing theories. The variables must be measured
objectively by instruments such as a scale (questionnaire) constructed through a rigorous process involving validity and reliability test items. From a set of questionnaires, the researcher obtains scores from the participants and then the score is analysed statistically in order to get a significant number to determine the relationship among the examined variables.

The aim of quantitative research design is to achieve factual knowledge with objectivity and non-bias from the researcher. In order to reach objectivity, the post positivist approach develops knowledge through objective observations and measurements (Teddlie & Tashakori, 2009). Objectivity is gained by providing data and evidence with standard validity and reliability. Therefore, within this paradigm, the researcher must follow scientific methods – beginning with selecting appropriate theories to examine the relationship among variables, followed by constructing the instrument, collecting the data and testing the hypotheses. Then, the researcher can determine the relationship of the variables (theory verification). Since the post positivists hold an underlying assumption that ‘the truth is out there’, they test competing hypotheses by first trying to reject the null hypothesis in order to accept the alternate hypothesis instead of testing the existence of the relationship.

However, many experts suggest that the processes of numbering or scoring tend to simplify human experience (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2004). The process of reduction into numbers means that quantitative research can exclude, ignore or not recognise participant voices and their stories.

Researchers commonly use quantitative research design to determine the cause and effect of objective observable variables into dependent variables.
3.2.2 Qualitative research design

Qualitative research design is an approach to explain and describe phenomena in its natural setting (Creswell, 2012). For Creswell, qualitative research is defined as:

… an inquiry of process of understanding based on distinct methodological traditions of inquiry that explore a social or human problem. The researcher builds a complex, holistic picture, analyses words, reports detailed views of informants, and conducts the study in a natural setting. (p. 15)

Similarly, Denzin and Lincoln (2011, p.8) characterise qualitative research as a “multi-method in focus involving an interpretive, naturalistic approach to its subject matter”.

The key characteristics of qualitative research design, then, are that the researcher is the key instrument of data collection, the process of data analysis is inductive, and the focus of the research is on participants’ perspectives and their meaning (Creswell, 2009, p. 17).

Qualitative research is typically driven by the research questions, mainly about how and why some phenomena occur (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2006). Qualitative research questions mostly attempt to discover or explore processes, or describe experiences of the participants through asking open-ended questions (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2006). Interviews and observation provide the data. Several data analysis techniques involve interpreting and seeking meaning, for example, through thematic analysis (Lane, Lane, & Kyprianou, 2004), content analysis and narrative analysis (Vermunt, 2005).

Another important characteristic of qualitative research design is that the researcher brings their personal values, assumptions, beliefs and experiences to the data analysis process, whether these are made explicit or not (Creswell, 2009). Thus, the notion of subjectivity is important in qualitative analysis.
Social constructivism is a theoretical paradigm and research approach underpinning qualitative research design (Creswell, 2009; Teddlie & Tashakori, 2009). This paradigm holds the belief that knowledge (the truth) is constructed through individuals giving meaning to their world (Crotty, 1998; Neuman, 2005). Different people may interpret the same phenomena differently. Moreover, people hold their own values, and are influenced by their history and culture.

Under a qualitative research design, the researcher tries to interpret the data from interviews and their observations by identifying themes emerging from the data. Furthermore, the researcher tries to establish linkages or relationships between the emerging themes.

### 3.2.3 Mixed methods research design

Mixed methods research design can be seen as occupying the middle ground, drawing upon both quantitative and qualitative approaches in research science. Many contemporary researchers adopt it, particularly in the field of education and social science. Mixed methods research design emerged during the ‘war’ between purist quantitative and qualitative researchers, who believe that the two methods cannot and should not be mixed (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

However, as a third paradigm, according to many researchers (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Morgan, 2007; Symonds & Gorard, 2010) mixed methods research design does not suggest neglecting quantitative or qualitative research designs, but rather maximising the strengths of both approaches and minimising the weaknesses (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Mixed methods research as the third
research paradigm can therefore help bridge the schism between quantitative and qualitative research (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2004).

The use of mixed methods, especially in educational research, has become more widely spread due to the benefits offered by this method (Creswell, 2009; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Mertens, 2014).

The paradigm that typically underlines the research design of this study is pragmatism (Creswell, 2009; Teddlie & Tashakori, 2009), and is focused on the questions of what and how. Research within this paradigm often aims to solve problems; therefore it can use any necessary methods to answer the research questions. A mixed methods approach means combining research techniques, methods, approaches and concepts into a single study (Yin, 2006). This includes the use of narration to add meaning and context, or applying statistics to bring precision to narrative data. Further, Yin (2006) argues that mixed methods research not only combines methods from quantitative and qualitative approaches, but can also combine quantitative approaches, such as experimental surveys with no qualitative data.

Mixed methods research design allows the researcher to choose appropriate research strategies and methods in order to answer the research questions. The combination or integration of quantitative and qualitative approaches also allows the researcher to view and address the research problem from many perspectives.

The explicit aim of this study is to investigate and understand student academic help-seeking behaviour in the classroom, within a natural setting. It explores what factors influence the behaviour and provides understanding about why some students avoid seeking academic help. Thus, it is necessary to capture different views of students and
teachers about academic help-seeking. In studying student behaviour in the classroom, including how students approach their teachers to ask for academic help, it is necessary to capture the voices of the students and their teachers and try to understand the factors influencing behaviours by measuring a number of identified variables. Mixed methods research design is therefore the most appropriate methodology for this study.

In investigating student academic help-seeking behaviour, as well as intention to seek academic help, this study also needed to measure various contributing factors. Each of the selected variables was measured using quantitative approaches based on the data collected from a survey of the student academic help-seeking behaviour and deepened through classroom observations, as well as through student and teacher interviews. The mixed methods strategy employed in this study is, therefore, a mixed methods sequential strategy. The study was divided into two stages: a quantitative stage followed by a qualitative stage. Creswell (2009) identifies the sequential mixed method as a procedure for collecting data when the researcher needs to expand the findings by using two methods. The researcher can commence with a quantitative approach followed by a qualitative approach, or vice versa.

### 3.3 Research design

The main purpose of this study was to gain a better understanding of the nature of academic help-seeking among primary school students. As such, the research questions focused on the specific factors internal and external to the students that influence this particular behaviour. Mixed methods research design was selected, driven by the research questions, to answer the research questions thoroughly and comprehensively.
The use of a mixed methods approach is common among many researchers, especially in social-educational fields, as it supports research that can answer the research questions comprehensively and the researcher is able to look at the problem from many perspectives. Since research in education or social science is about people, incorporating many variables, researchers need to be able to understand the topic comprehensively. The researcher needs not only to look at the direct variables contributing to the behaviour, but also to consider other indirect variables that might contribute.

Using mixed methods has allowed me to use multiple approaches in order to answer the research questions. Using quantitative approaches, I determined the role of each internal and external factor of student academic help-seeking behaviour. Furthermore, to discover the actual behaviour and elaborate on other information that cannot be examined by answers to questionnaires, a qualitative approach was undertaken. This approach enabled me to identify stronger inferences in understanding academic help-seeking behaviour.

3.3.1 Stages of the study

This study is divided into Stage 1 and Stage 2. The first stage involved administering a survey by distributing a set of questionnaires about student academic help-seeking and the factors influencing the behaviour. The results of this stage were useful in then informing the classroom observation and interviews that followed.

Stage 1: Administering the survey

In this stage, I aimed to investigate how the internal factors (student meaningful learning orientation and attribution) and the external factors (student relationship with
teachers and classroom structures) affect student academic help-seeking behaviour. The data from this stage were used as the basis for exploring further detail in Stage 2.

**Stage 2: Interviews and classroom observations**

A qualitative exploration of both student and teacher perceptions is about academic help-seeking behaviour detailed in terms of *how* and *why* they do it; through classroom observations, focus-group interviews and an individual interview process. The interviews captured participant points of view about the importance of help-seeking behaviour. By interviewing both teachers and students, I gained breadth of information and multiple perspectives about the particular behaviour. By observing the actual behaviour in the classroom, I could confirm or clarify the results of the interviews and vice versa.

**3.4 The structure of the study**

This section describes the setting, the participants involved and the sampling techniques.

**3.4.1 Setting**

The research was conducted in eight primary schools in Jakarta, Indonesia, from September 2012 through to January 2013. The school selections were of varied status, including regular schools and excellent schools. The excellent schools are those with high student achievement as measured by scores in the National Examination, and are thus model schools.

The schools were also from different subdistricts in Jakarta, so the study could better understand academic help-seeking behaviour based on both school characteristics and
areas. Jakarta consist of six districts which are North Jakarta, South Jakarta, West Jakarta, East Jakarta, Central Jakarta and Kepulauan Seribu district area. Each district has several subdistricts. This study focuses in East Jakarta district only, and the schools were from different subdistricts in East Jakarta. The choice of East Jakarta was due to the limitation of the researcher to cover all Jakarta district area. Karabenick and Newman (2006) suggest that learning contexts contribute to academic help-seeking behaviour. Thus, in order to gather information from students from different family backgrounds, I selected the urban setting/context for this study.

3.4.2 Participants

The participants in this research were Year-6 primary school students and primary school teachers in Jakarta.

Schools

The school participants in this study were selected from two categories of schools, which are regular and excellent school. The school categorisation is according to their achievement score in the National Exam each year. In Indonesia, excellent schools, both private and public, generally have higher quality academic students enrolled compared to regular schools (Newhouse & Beegle, 2006). These excellent schools, therefore, benefit from brighter students leading to more positive learning environments. According to van der Meij (2006), prior knowledge significantly affects the number and quality of questions asked by students – to formulate a question, students need to have adequate knowledge related to the subject material. Student differences between excellent schools and regular schools may indicate a difference in their academic help-seeking behaviour. There are many schools (and students) in
Jakarta that could fit this research. In order to limit the number, multistage cluster sampling was used.

**Student participants**

By Year 6, students start socially comparing themselves with their peers. They make decisions based on benefit and cost of the behaviour. Since academic help-seeking behaviour is an interaction with other people, by the time students reach Year 6 they would likely start to think about the risk of academic help-seeking behaviour before asking for such help (Butler, 1998). Participants from Year 6 can give a strong opinion about their learning experience in primary school. Furthermore, it is important to investigate academic help-seeking behaviour early in a student’s academic experience to be in the best position to advise teachers of ways that they can promote this behaviour with their students.

The student participants in this study numbered 337, coming from four public schools and four private schools in East Jakarta. Out of these students, 108 were observed in four classrooms across four schools, and 55 participated in focus-group interviews across five schools. Table 3.1 shows the number of students participating in this research from each school.
### Table 3.1 Student participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School name</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Public/Private</th>
<th>Regular/Excellent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>School A</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>23.10</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>Regular</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School B</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8.00</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School C</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>21.10</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>Regular</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School D</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2.40</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School E</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>16.60</td>
<td>Private</td>
<td>Regular</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School F</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>14.20</td>
<td>Private</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School G</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.50</td>
<td>Private</td>
<td>Regular</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School H</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10.10</td>
<td>Private</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>337</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Some schools had two Year-6 classes running in parallel. Table 3.2 describes the number of participants from each class in each school, and shows that five schools (A, C, E, F and H) had parallel classes. In School A, Class 6A had 38 students (48.72%) and 6B had 40 students (51.28%). In School C, Class 6A had 35 students (49.29%) and 6B had 36 students (50.71%). In School E, both 6A and 6B had 28 students. In School H, Class 6A had six students (17.65%) and Class 6B had 28 students (82.35%).
### Table 3.2 Schools and classes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Schools</th>
<th>Class</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>6A</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>6B</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>n</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>n</td>
<td></td>
<td>n</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School A</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>48.72</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>51.28</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School B</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School C</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>49.29</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>50.71</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School D</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School E</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>50.00</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>50.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School F</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>47.92</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>52.08</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School G</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School H</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>17.65</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>82.35</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Total number = 337

### Teacher participants

Teachers from the same schools were also invited to participate in this project, with 21 participating. Participants included Year 1 to Year-6 classroom teachers, as well as specific subject teachers of religion, sport, English and art (music). There was one teacher from each of Year 1, 2, 3 and 4; two teachers from Year 5; five specific subject teachers; and 10 Year-6 teachers. Some teachers taught in two different schools; two teachers were principals in one school and Year-6 classroom teachers in another. There were nine male teachers and 12 female teacher participants. Table 3.3 shows the number of teachers participating in this research from each school.
### Table 3.3 Teacher participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School Name</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School A</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School B</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School D</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School F</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School G</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 3.4.3 Sampling

The sampling technique in this study was multistage cluster sampling. According to Kemper, Stringfield and Teddlie (2003), this technique is most appropriate when the sampling unit is not an individual but rather a group; in this case schools and classrooms. Multistage cluster sampling allows the sample to be further reduced by selecting a random sample from the selected cluster (Kemper et al., 2003). The sampling unit in this study was schools in Jakarta clustered at region and status level (private and public, and excellent and regular schools).

#### The process of selecting the sample of the schools

The first step in selecting the sample for this study was choosing the region in Jakarta for the setting. Jakarta has six districts; Central Jakarta, West Jakarta, East Jakarta, North Jakarta, South Jakarta and Kepulauan Seribu. I selected East Jakarta for this study. The next step was to identify the public and private schools and those categorised as excellent and regular. I consulted with an officer of Jakarta Education Division to determine the schools. I specifically asked for a list of the primary schools in East Jakarta, with their categorisation. The schools are categorised as excellent or regular according to their achievement score each year in the National Examination.
obtained the list of all primary schools in East Jakarta, along with the status, the address, the name of the principal and the contact number to be contacted.

**The selection process for excellent schools**

There are 10 districts in East Jakarta (this study refers to them as District 1 to District 10). There is one excellent primary school (from public and private sectors) in each district. As I needed at least two districts with excellent schools, I randomly selected two schools from both Districts 5 and 6 to join this project. School B (public) and School H (private) are in District 5; School D (public) is in District 6. The selected private school in District 6 refused to participate; therefore, I randomly selected District 1 to provide the remaining excellent private school, School F (Table 3.3).

**The selection process of regular schools**

There are seven sub-districts in District 5; I randomly selected Sub-district 2 for the cluster of regular schools. Sub-district 2 has 20 primary schools, with 15 public schools and two private schools. I selected School A (public) and School E (private) to join this project. Further, District 6 has eight sub-districts with 11 primary schools (five public and six private). I selected School C (public) and School H (private) from District 6 (Table 3.3).

Therefore, from the selection processes described above, eight schools participated in this project – Schools B, D, F and H are excellent schools, Schools A, E, C and G are regular schools. Table 3.4 shows the type of school, the number and the schools selected, illustrating that this study involved eight schools across both the public and private sector, and regular and excellent levels.
Table 3.4 Sampling

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of school</th>
<th>Number of schools</th>
<th>School</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Public</td>
<td>Regular</td>
<td>2, Schools A and C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>2, Schools B and D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private</td>
<td>Regular</td>
<td>2, Schools E and G</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>2, Schools F and H</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Sampling for Stage 1**

For the first stage of this study, the survey, I invited 390 Year 6 students from the eight selected schools to complete a set of questionnaires. Of these, 337 returned consent forms for the project (86.41%). Only student participants were required to complete the questionnaires.

**Sampling for Stage 2**

For the qualitative stage (Stage 2) I selected four schools for observation and some of the students and teachers for interview. Convenient sampling involves selecting those schools that give permission for the next stage. Except for Schools C and E, all other schools gave permission to conduct Stage 2. I therefore based my selection on the schedule match and availability of each school. School H had difficulty managing the schedule with other schools, so I dismissed School H from Stage 2. Each type of school was represented by at least one school: School A, regular public school; Schools B and D, excellent public schools; School F, excellent private school; and School G, regular private school. School D advised that only interviews of students and teachers were available, not classroom observation, as the classroom was under renovation – the school was concerned the condition of the classroom may distract student concentration. Thus School D was eliminated, leaving Schools A, B, F and G for Stage 2.
Sampling for student and teacher interviews

The sampling technique chosen for Stage 2 student focus-group interviews was purposive criterion sampling (Palys, 2008), which involves searching for cases or individuals who meet a certain criterion. In this study, the results of the survey (Stage 1) determined the criterion. The selection was based on student attitudes towards academic help-seeking. Students with high and low scores in academic help-seeking behaviour from the scale were interviewed separately in two groups of focus-group interviews. A total of 55 students participated in nine focus-group interviews. Details of the focus group interviews and the individual interviews is explained in section 3.6.3 and 3.6.4.

I invited teachers from five selected schools to join an individual interview or focus-group interview. I used convenient sampling (Teddlie & Yu, 2007), welcoming teachers who were willing to participate in focus-group interviews or an individual interview to this project. The teachers could join the focus-group interviews or the individual interview. I gave those teachers who found it hard to schedule time with other teachers for the focus groups the option to join the individual interview.

3.4.4 Research assistants

To help me conduct the research, I employed 10 research assistants from my university. They were university students at third or fourth year of their studies and had already passed advanced methodology courses. I conducted a one-day workshop to train them how to conduct and administer the survey. Furthermore, they had also been trained in addressing basic ethical principles and confidentiality issues. These research assistants helped me with administering the survey, inputting the scores into
a table sheet, and transcribing data interviews. All these data collection processes were supervised by the researcher (me) to ensure that ethical principles were followed.

3.5 Instruments for data collection

The instruments used in this study were questionnaires on academic help-seeking behaviour that explicitly sought data for meaningful learning orientation, student attribution, teacher support and responses to student questions, and student perspectives on classroom structures. Each of the instruments used a Likert-type scale, with scale ranges from 1–4. These questionnaires focused on one subject only – math – to ensure students focused on the same teachers in their school. The questionnaires were based on questionnaires used in previous studies (Ames & Lau, 1982; Butler, 1998; Karabenick & Sharma, 1994; Midgley, Arunkumar, & Urdan, 1996; Ryan & Shin, 2011). I modified and revised these previous questionnaires for use in Indonesia, to ensure they addressed the research questions and that they suited the participants. The questionnaires were presented in Indonesian as the participants were Indonesian language speakers. I also modified the scale from 1–5 into 1–4 because, according to the pilot study, students tended to choose the middle point. The process of pilot study was explained in section 3.6.1 below.

This section describes the process of constructing each instrument. All were originally from previous research conducted in Western countries and were in English. However, the language of the participants in this study is Indonesian. Therefore, I needed to translate each item into Indonesian and then check accuracy when they were back-translated into English.
After gathering the results from the student responses, I checked the reliability and validity of each item of the instruments with statistical package for the social sciences (SPSS) tools. The items that did not score 0.3 were deleted.

3.5.1 Academic help-seeking scale

The Likert-type scale adopted for the survey was based on previous studies by Ryan and Pintrich (1997) and Tanaka, Murakami, Okuno, and Yamauchi (2001) with score ranges from 1–5 consisting of seven items. The score ranged from 1 (true) to 5 (not true). The items are an ‘if clause statement’ and measure student academic help-seeking behaviour in the classroom. The instruments measure student adaptive help-seeking and avoidance help-seeking behaviour. Adaptive help-seeking behaviour in this study refers to students actively asking for academic help from their teachers in the classroom when they need it. The type of the help requested enhances student understanding of the material or helps solve similar problems in the future. Thus, students ask for hints, clues, clarification or understanding about the subject matter rather than the answers. Avoidance help-seeking behaviour refers to students who do not ask for academic help in the classroom when they encounter difficulties in understanding a subject matter or solving a problem.

There were 14 items in the original instrument, consisting of seven items (Items 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 10, 13) from the adaptive help-seeking subscale, and seven items (Items 2, 4, 6, 8, 11, 12, 14) from the avoidance help-seeking scale. After the pilot study, I deleted five items, leaving nine in the final instrument: Items 1, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 11, 13 (see table 3.5 for the details of the instruments).
In this study there were nine items, consisting of five in the adaptive help-seeking dimension (Items 1, 3, 5, 7 and 9) and four in the avoidance help-seeking dimension (Items 2, 4, 6 and 8). The avoidance help-seeking dimension were negative items. The negative items then were reversed in the scoring process and were coded as HS-R. Each of the dimensions aggregates the scoring, and the total score reflects the types of behaviour. The higher the score, the more students perform academic help-seeking behaviour. The reliability of this instrument after the pilot study was $\alpha = 0.715$ for adaptive help-seeking and $\alpha = 0.706$ for avoidance help-seeking dimension (for details of the instruments see Appendix B.1).

### 3.5.2 Attribution scale

The attribution scale that was used is based on previous studies by Ames and Lau (1982) and Vispoel and Austin (1991). It measures student attribution for the following elements: ability, effort, task difficulty and luck. The operational definition of student attribution is student perception of the cause of the success and failure in the academic setting (Weiner, 1985, 2010). In this scale, the students respond to a set of questionnaires and imagine the cause of their success or failure in their most recent math exam. The instructions use phrases such as: “Please remember the result of the last exam and then respond to the questionnaire based on the reason for getting your result in that exam”. The response of this scale is ranged from 1 (true) to 4 (not true).

There were 19 items in the original instrument, consisting of 10 items (Items 1, 4, 5, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 14, 15, 18, 19) from the help-relevant subscale and nine items (Items 2, 3, 6, 12, 13, 16, 17) from the help-irrelevant scale. After the pilot study, I deleted nine
items, leaving 10 in the final instrument: Items 1, 3, 4, 5, 8, 12, 13, 14, 15 and 19 (see table 3.5 for the details of the instruments).

The scale consists of two dimensions; the *help-relevant attribution* (Items 1, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 9, 10) and *help-irrelevant attribution* (Items 2, 8). The help-relevant attribution in this study refers to student perceptions of the pattern of four components of attribution (ability, effort, task difficulty and luck) relevant to asking for help. In contrast, the pattern of *help-irrelevant attribution* is that ability and effort are not adequate, and the luck and task difficulty factors are high. The scoring of the items for this subscale is reversed and were coded as ATR-R. The scoring comprises a total score from each item. The higher the score, the more students attribute their result to factors that are relevant for asking for help – *help-relevant attribution*. A low score means that students attribute their success and failure to the *help-irrelevant attribution*. After the pilot study, the validity and the reliability of this instruments was $\alpha = 0.702$. The coefficient of reliability ($\alpha$ Cronbach) for the instrument is in the range of moderate reliability, from 0.6–0.7 (Vermunt, 2005). Details of the instruments are in Appendix B.1.

### 3.5.3 Meaningful learning orientation scale

The inclusion of a *meaningful learning orientation* scale into the survey instrument was adapted from Novak (2002), Cavallo (1996) and Entwistle and Ramsden (1982), because it measures a student’s desire to learn meaningfully. In this study, meaningful learning orientation refers to a student’s learning approach, in which they connect new material with prior knowledge and their experience in daily life. Doing so indicates that they perceive the lesson as useful and important to their future.
There were 20 items in the original instrument, consisting of 10 items (Items 1, 2, 7, 9, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 19) from the meaningful learning orientation subscale, and 10 items (Items 3, 4, 5, 6, 8, 10, 11, 17, 18, 20) from the rote learning orientation subscale. After the pilot study, I deleted 10 items, leaving 10 in the final instrument: Items 2, 12, 14, 15, 16 and 3, 8, 17, 18, 20 respectively (see table 3.5 for the details of the instruments).

The scale consists of two subscales; meaningful learning orientation (Items 1, 4, 5, 6, 7) and rote learning orientation (Items 2, 3, 8, 9, 10). The meaningful learning orientation refers to students actively seeking to integrate new knowledge with knowledge already in their cognitive structure. In other words, students approach a learning task with the intention of meaningfully understanding the ideas and relationships involved. The rote learning orientation refers to the tendency to memorise or use memorising strategies for learning. The Likert-type scale ranges between 1 (not at all true) to 4 (very true). Students were instructed to respond on a 4-scale option that best describes their orientation to learning. Examples include, “I try to understand new ideas by relating them to real life situations to which they might apply” for the meaningful learning approach and, “I learn things by rote, going over and over them until I know them by heart” to measure student rote learning approach. See Appendix B.1 for the final instrument. The items from the rote learning approach were reversed for the scoring and were coded as MLO-R. The total score from the two scales indicate the learning orientation that students hold. The higher the score, the more students hold a meaningful learning orientation. The validity and the reliability after the pilot was $\alpha = 0.702$ for meaningful learning orientation and $\alpha = 0.552$ for rote learning orientation. Unexpectedly, in this research the $\alpha$ Cronbach result for the rote
learning orientation data is unreliable. Kaplan and Saccuzo (1982; 2012) recommend that α Cronbach test should range between 0.7 – 0.8. However, since rote learning is a dominant feature of formal learning in Indonesia, both the instrument and data are still included within the analysis because other factors were expected to influence the result. As a mixed method study with the qualitative data dominant this unreliable data on rote learning does not compromise the overall analysis and discussion.

3.5.4 Teacher support and responses to student questions scale

This instrument focuses on how teachers support and respond to student questions. The instrument was based on PTSQ (Perceived Teacher Support Questions) from Karabenick and Sharma (1994) and Kozanitis et al. (2007). The definition of the variable is student perceptions on how teachers support and respond to student questions.

This Likert-type scale ranges between 1 (not at all true) to 4 (very true). The instrument uses positive and negative sentences to describe the teacher’s responses. Examples include, “My math teacher responds to questions by trying to answer them as carefully and thoroughly as he/she can” as a positive item, and “My math teacher responds to questions by answering them as briefly as possible so that he/she can return to what he/she was saying” as a negative item. The negative items were reversed in the scoring process and were coded as TC-R. Non-verbal responses included items such as, “My math teacher looks at each student while talking to the class”. The questionnaire asks students to respond to the way teachers respond or support their questioning in the classroom. The higher the score, the more students perceive their teacher as responsive and supportive of their questions. On the other hand, students with a low score in this
scale perceive that their teachers do not support them and respond to their questioning process appropriately (see Appendix B.1 for detail of the instruments). The validity and the reliability of this instrument in the pilot was $\alpha = 0.701$.

There were 15 items in the original instrument, consisting of seven dimensions and classified as: dimension specific instructions (Items 1 and 7); emotional response to questions (Items 2 and 11); informative responses (Items 3 and 9); value of questions (Items 4 and 14); dimension rewards (Items 6 and 15); opportunity (Items 8 and 12) and the non-verbal dimension (Items 5, 10 and 13) (see table 3.5 for the details of the instruments).

After the pilot study, there were 10 items in the final instrument: specific instructions (Item 7); emotional response to questions (Items 2, 11); informative responses (Items 3, 9); value of questions (Item 14); dimension rewards (Item 6); opportunity (Items 8, 12) and non-verbal dimensions (Item 5).

### 3.5.5 Classroom structure scale

The instrument used to determine classroom structure was based upon Questionnaires of Instructional Behaviour (QIB) from den Brok et al. (2006). The QIB has four dimensions; however, for this study I used two dimensions – teacher control and student active role. The original questionnaire has 33 items. Classroom structure refers to the role of teachers in controlling student activity, and the opportunity for students to be actively engaged in the learning activities and express their own learning strategies. The questionnaire asked students to rate their teacher instructions in their math class from 1 (never happened in the class) to 4 (very often happened in the classroom). The instrument uses five items representing teacher control (Items 1, 4, 5,
9, 10) and five items representing student active role (Items 2, 3, 6, 7, 8). Items such as, “At the beginning of the lesson, my math teacher explains his/her plans for that lesson” show strong teacher control, whilst items such as, “My math teacher encourages me to take responsibility for my work” shows student active role.

The scale is a continuum, which means teacher control ranges from very strong to loose. Thus, the higher the score, the more students perceive the classroom as highly structured. In contrast, a low score indicates that students perceive their classroom to be loosely structured. The validity and the reliability of this instruments in the pilot was $\alpha = 0.740$. Details of the instruments are in Appendix B.1

There were 16 items in the original instrument, consisting of seven for the teacher control subscale (Items 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 15, 16) and nine for student active role subscale (Items 2, 6, 8, 11, 13, 14). After the pilot study, 10 items remained in the final instrument: Items 3, 7, 9, 16, 19, 6, 13, 4, 10 and 12 (see table 3.5 for the details of the instruments).

Table 3.5 shows the number of items from the original instruments and the number of items in the final instruments after the pilot study.
### Table 3.5 The instruments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Existing Instrument</th>
<th>Instrument in the present study</th>
<th>Pilot study</th>
<th>Items in the present study</th>
<th>α</th>
<th>Cronbach</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Academic help-seeking behaviour</td>
<td>Adaptive help-seeking</td>
<td>1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 10, 13</td>
<td>1, 5, 7, 9, 13</td>
<td><strong>0.715</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Avoidance help-seeking</td>
<td>2, 4, 6, 8, 11, 12, 14</td>
<td>4, 6, 8, 11</td>
<td><strong>0.706</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meaningful learning orientation</td>
<td>Meaningful learning</td>
<td>1, 2, 7, 9, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 19</td>
<td>2, 12, 14, 15, 16</td>
<td><strong>0.702</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rote learning</td>
<td>3, 4, 5, 6, 8, 10, 11, 17, 18, 20</td>
<td>3, 8, 17, 18, 20</td>
<td><strong>0.552</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attribution</td>
<td>Help-relevant</td>
<td>1, 3, 4, 5, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 14, 15, 18, 19</td>
<td>1, 3, 4, 5, 8, 14, 15, 19</td>
<td><strong>0.702</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Help-irrelevant</td>
<td>2, 6, 12, 13, 16, 17</td>
<td>12, 13</td>
<td><strong>0.702</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher support and responses to student questions</td>
<td>PTSQ</td>
<td>Specific instructions</td>
<td>1, 7*</td>
<td>7*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Emotional response to question</td>
<td>2*, 11</td>
<td>2*, 11</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Informative response</td>
<td>3, 9*</td>
<td>3, 9*</td>
<td><strong>0.701</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Value of questions</td>
<td>4*, 14</td>
<td>14</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reward</td>
<td>6, 15*</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Opportunity</td>
<td>8, 12</td>
<td>8, 12</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non-verbal</td>
<td>5, 10, 13</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classroom structures</td>
<td>QIB</td>
<td>Teachers’ control</td>
<td>1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 16, 19</td>
<td>3, 7, 9, 16, 19</td>
<td><strong>0.74</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Student initiative</td>
<td>2, 6, 8, 11, 13, 14</td>
<td>6, 13, 3, 4, 10, 12</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: * = item reversed; PTSQ = Perceived Teacher Support Questions; QIB = Questionnaires of Instructional Behaviour

### 3.6 Data collection strategies

I conducted the research from September 2012 through to January 2013 in East Jakarta, Indonesia. This section describes the procedures for the three types of data collection based on how the data was being collected: survey administration (quantitative);
classroom observations (qualitative); and focus-group interviews and individual interviews (qualitative).

This section also explains the strategies used to obtain sufficient data to answer the research questions from each of the data collection stages.

### 3.6.1 Survey/questionnaires

All students \((N = 337)\) in the sample group were asked to fill out a set of five questionnaires. The questionnaires asked about their attributions, meaningful learning orientation, perception of classroom context, relationship with the teacher, and attitude towards academic help-seeking. Each questionnaire had no more than 10 items, and there was a total 49 items for the five questionnaires.

**Pilot study**

Before going into fieldwork, the questionnaires were tested in a pilot study in order to test validity and reliability. The aims of this pilot study were first to make sure students would understand each statement in the questionnaire. Second, the pilot study was conducted to meet the statistical requirement for each instrument. The pilot study was conducted in two schools with students at Years 5 and 6. The number of participants in the pilot study was 107 students. The approximate time required for them to fill out the questionnaire was an hour, and the whole process took one and a half hours. The time and place for the pilot study was negotiated with the school principals and the class teacher, and was conducted after class. I improved the questionnaire as a result of the information gathered during the pilot study. The outcome of the pilot was the final questionnaire ready for the survey as discussed in the previous sections.
To conduct the pilot study, I gathered parental consent forms and distributed the trial questionnaires to the students; consulted the teachers about readability of the items; obtained the results and conducted the statistical data analysis; and checked on the reliability and the validity for each item in the instruments. Next, I revised and modified the instruments ready for the research.

**Survey administration**

The surveys were administered to students in their classroom. The principal and class teacher determined when the survey was administered; making sure student learning activities were not disturbed. The surveyor read the instructions and items aloud, while students read along and responded. This procedure made sure that the students filled in all the questionnaires. Students were told that the survey was not a test, and that there were no right or wrong answers. Students were told that the purpose of the survey was to find out about their beliefs and behaviours related to school, and that this was a chance for them to express their opinions. Students were assured that the information in the survey would be kept confidential, that their participation was voluntary, and there were no consequences if they changed their mind about participating.

**3.6.2 Classroom observations**

I undertook classroom observations in classroom settings over one semester for each class, in one class each in Schools A, B, F and G. The aim was to observe the actual behaviour of student academic help-seeking and how teachers respond to help requests. The observation method is a useful tool to determine the exact behaviour in the natural environment (Johnson & Turner, 2003).
I took the role of observer, spending a limited time inside the group, and informing the students that they were being observed. The classroom observations were videotaped and coded later using a coding scheme as suggested by Flewitt (2006). Using video data gave me the ability to understand the complexities and dynamics of the processes of interaction in the classroom. I also took extensive field notes during and after the observation sessions, which were then available for analysis. By combining observations and questionnaires, I gathered data from different perspectives. The result from the observations support, complement and sometimes contrast with the data from interviews and questionnaires.

I undertook 12 classroom observations (22 sessions) in four schools. Table 3.6 shows the location, the subject and session for each classroom observation, the pseudonym of the teacher and the number of students for each class.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Classroom Observation</th>
<th>Teacher/Student</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>School A</td>
<td>Classroom observation Day 1: 08.00–08.50</td>
<td>Mrs Diana/38 students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Subject: science; ecosystems</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>School G</td>
<td>Classroom observation Day 1:</td>
<td>Mrs Novita/16 students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Session 1: 07.15–8.30</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Subject: math; geometry</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Session 2: 08.30–9.30</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Subject: civics; history values</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Session 3: 9.30–10.30</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Subject: science; conductor and isolator</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>School A</td>
<td>Classroom observation Day 2: 8.45–9.30</td>
<td>Mrs Diana/38 students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Subject: language; news and information</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>School G</td>
<td>Classroom observation Day 2: 10.42–11.37</td>
<td>Mrs Novita/17 students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Subject: language; types of letters</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>School G</td>
<td>Classroom observation Day 3:</td>
<td>Mrs Novita/17 students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Session 1: 06.55–08.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Subject: science; conductor and isolator</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Session 2: 08.00–09.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Subject: science: the process of material changing</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Session 3: 09.00–10.07</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Subject: PLBJ: intrusion</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>School B</td>
<td>Classroom observation Day 1: 07.18–08.50</td>
<td>Mrs Kristina/34 students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Subject: math; data collection</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>School A</td>
<td>Classroom observation Day 3: 07.40–08.55</td>
<td>Mrs Diana/38 students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Subject: math; data collection; group assignment and discussion</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>School B</td>
<td>Classroom observation Day 2:</td>
<td>Mrs Kristina/35 students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Session 1: 10.00–10.40</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Subject: math; practicing</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Session 2: 10.40–11.30</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Subject: social science; world maps</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>Location</td>
<td>Classroom Observation</td>
<td>Teacher/Student</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td>-----------------------</td>
<td>-----------------</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| 9  | School B | Classroom observation Day 3:  
Session 1: 09.00–10.00  
Subject: science; practice making salted egg  
Session 2: 10.00–11.00  
Subject: science | Mrs Kristina/  
35 students |
| 10 | School F | Classroom observation Day 1:  
Session 1: 08.00–09.00  
Subject: math; analysing data  
Session 2: 09.30–10.30  
PLBJ; checking on homework  
Session 3: 11.00–12.00  
Subject: music | Mr Muhidin/  
30 students  
Mrs Irma/  
30 students |
| 11 | School F | Classroom observation Day 2: 06.50–7.35  
Subject: language; types of letters | Mr Mustafa/  
30 students |
| 12 | School F | Classroom observation Day 3:  
Session 1: 06.45–08.00  
Subject: science; material changing  
Session 2: 08.05–09.00  
Subject: social science; practice  
Session 3: 09.30–10.20  
Subject: social science; world continents | Mrs Reni/  
30 students |

Note: PLBJ = Pendidikan Lingkungan Budaya Jakarta (Education of Environment and Culture of Jakarta)

### 3.6.3 Focus-group interviews

I undertook focus-group interviews with teachers and students to collect further data. A focus group is a situation in which a small group of six to 12 people discuss a particular topic or issue (Johnson & Turner, 2003). This method is useful for exploring ideas and helping researchers obtain in-depth information about exactly what people think about an issue. I conducted separate focus-group interviews for teachers and students. The number of participants for each session ranged between five and seven people. Krueger and Casey (2001) suggest between six and eight participants, as smaller groups show greater potential.
I conducted the focus group sessions over one to two hours to allow in-depth
discussion. I selected participants from each type of school (public and private;
excellent and regular). I conducted 11 focus-group interviews (two teacher focus
groups and nine student focus groups) for this study. I was the group moderator and
facilitated group discussion on a series topic about academic help-seeking behaviour.
I included both closed and open-ended questions and recorded the interviews using an
audio recorder that allowed for later data analysis. I transcribed each recorded
interview to text for analysis using NVivo.

Examples of questions for the student focus group interviews are:

1. What will you do if you have problems with your learning process?
2. What is it about a teacher that makes it difficult to ask him/her for help?
3. What is it about a teacher that makes it easy to ask him/her for help?
4. How does that make you feel?
5. Can you think of a time that it was easy to ask a teacher for help? Tell me
   about it.
6. Can you think of a time that it was difficult to ask the teacher for help? Tell
   me about it.

Examples of questions for teachers in the focus group and individual interviews are:

1. Why do you think some students avoid seeking help when they face
difficulties in learning?
2. What are the factors inhibiting students requesting help from a teacher? Or
   peers?
3. What are the teacher factors that might influence students not to seek help in the class?

4. What kind of design/help is available from the teacher to encourage students to seek help?

5. Did you think subject matter matters?

6. What were the implications for students who elicit help? Or do not request help?

7. What other factors might influence this behaviour?

3.6.4 Individual interviews

The last stage of data collection was the individual interviews with teachers. The teachers who were unavailable for focus-group interviews were invited to join individual interviews. Sixteen teachers from five schools participated in this stage. Teachers were asked their opinion about student academic help-seeking behaviours.

The interview was semi-structured (De Munck, 2009; Paris & Cunningham, 1996; Tsuji, 2010) ensuring a focus on the central questions of this research, but allowing respondents to raise issues and make other comments. One advantage of this method is that the researcher can probe the interviewee for clarity or for more detailed information when needed (Johnson & Turner, 2003), and it also encourages the respondents’ ‘voice’. The interview sessions were recorded by electronic audio device and analysed later. Interviews were digitally recorded for transcribing and analysed using text coding techniques to identify emergent themes and exemplars. The questions for the individual interviews with teachers are similar as the list of group interview questions with teachers as above.
3.7 Data analysis

This section describes the process of data analysis used in this study. Since this research used a mixed methods approach, the data analysis followed the seven data analysis stages according to Onwuegbuzie and Teddlie (2003): data reduction, data display, data transformation, data correlation, data consolidation, data comparison and data integration.

3.7.1 Statistical data analysis

This section describes the statistical data analysis used in this study, including descriptive statistics and inferential statistics. I used statistical principles and textual and code analysis to analyse and theorise the data. The statistical data were analysed in two parts: descriptive statistics and inferential statistics. I used descriptive statistics to describe participant demographic data by presenting them in graphs and tables.

The teacher descriptive statistics describe age, gender, working experience, the subject matter taught, and teaching qualification and certification status. Furthermore, the descriptive statistics from each variable (student academic help-seeking behaviour, meaningful learning orientation, attribution, teacher support and responses to student questions, and classroom structures) are also presented to show the pattern emerging from the data.

I used inferential statistics to investigate the correlation between independent variables (meaningful learning orientation, attribution, teacher support and responses to student questions and classroom structures) and dependent variables (student academic help-
seeking behaviour) as well as the contribution of internal and external factors to determine help-seeking behaviour.

I used SPSS software (IBM SPSS Statistics 19) to analyse quantitative data from questionnaires by scoring them based on participant responses. SPSS then provided descriptive statistical data, such as frequency, proportions of the subjects, central tendency measurements (mean, median and modus) as well as measuring the coefficients of correlations and coefficients of determinations for student academic help-seeking behaviour.

3.7.2 Qualitative data analysis

This section describes the qualitative data analysis. The data were drawn from classroom observations and interviews.

Qualitative data analysis involves coding of data sets into different main themes and examining them for linkages, relationships and exemplars. All the qualitative data in this study were in Indonesian and the analysis was also mainly in Indonesian. However, after analysis I reported the results in English.

I used basic qualitative/interpretive analysis (Vermunt, 2005) in this study. According to Ary, Razavieh, and Sorensen (2009) basic analysis in qualitative analysis can be used when the researcher is looking for meaning in order to understand the participant points of view. For this study, I identified themes and sub themes from the interviews and classroom observations. Ary et al. also suggest that this type of analysis can be based on a variety of disciplinary lenses and the multiple techniques of data collection appropriate such studies, especially in the field of education.
I used video recordings, detailed transcription, and observer reflections to undertake observation data analysis. The observation data were based on my classroom observation notes. The observation data were presented in the form of teacher and student activities related to academic help-seeking behaviour and classroom structure. I then identified the classroom behaviours and categorised them. Categories included the types of academic help-seeking, student-student and teacher-student interactions.

I used NVIVO software (QSR NVIVO 10) to organise all the data from interviews and observations. This tool identifies themes emerging from participant responses through coding followed by analysis. NVIVO software is useful for extracting quotes from interviews to support a particular interpretation, managing data and analysing documents, video, audio and images in one organised program (De Munck, 2009). NVIVO software also helps the researcher identify the qualitative and quantitative differences between participants, and has the ability to quickly construct a query from verbal transcript data (Tsuji, 2010). Only statements from the interviews that are quoted in this thesis were translated from Bahasa Indonesia into English. Figure 3.1 presents a diagram of the research questions and how to answers by the methods used in this study.
3.8 Ethical issues

This section describes ethical issues related to this study. Given that students and teachers were participants, adherence to basic ethical principles such as *free* and *voluntary* participation and the *confidentiality* of data were necessary. Since this study involved young students as participants, there were also several other ethical issues to be addressed. This section then describes how to address ethical considerations in working with young children, such as the issue of parental consent.

**Ethical clearance**

Prior to the fieldwork, I obtained a permission letter (Letter of Consent) from *Kepala Dinas Pendidikan Provinsi Jakarta* (Head of Jakarta Province Office Area of Education) to conduct the research in primary schools in Jakarta. In addition, Ethics Clearance from Charles Darwin University Human Research Ethic Committee (HREC) was obtained. I followed the general principals from the current National Health and Medical Research Council regulation and the policy of the Charles Darwin University respectively.
The next step involved gaining permission from the school principals to conduct the research in their schools. The principals need to give consent to allow teachers and students to participate in this project, who in turn, also needed to consent. Appendix A.7 details the consent letter from the school principals.

**Consent from the participants**

The majority of the participants in this study were young people of developing maturity (average age was 11-years-old); therefore I sought parental consent for all stages of this study that involved these students. I sent a letter to the parents along with the description of the project so they could choose in which stage of the study (survey, classroom observations and/or focus-group interviews) their children could participate. The parents needed to sign the letter and return it to me. With the help of the classroom teachers, the percentage rate of returned consent forms was 86.14%. Students who did not return the consent form were given the option to remain in the classroom doing other activities such as reading. Appendix A.1 details the consent letter from the parents.

Even with parental consent, respect of the children is paramount. Therefore, the children were free to decline to participate in the study at any time without question or consequences. This project also sought consent from the students. Consent from students is considered essential (Dockett & Perry, 2007). I explained the research project to them in plain language that they could easily understand. I also made sure they understood their rights to withdraw from this project at any time. Appendix A.3 details the consent letter from the students.
Teachers as participants are considered adult and therefore have the capacity to give their own consent to participate. Appendix A.5 details the consent letter from the teachers.

**Free, voluntary and confidential**

Participation in this project was voluntary. There were no consequences if a participant chose not to participate. The participants (students and teachers) could withdraw at any time with no consequence. Morrow (2008) suggests that consent is much more than agreeing; it is also about taking time to make a decision, being able to ask questions regarding the project, and being able to say yes or no. It is also an ongoing process during the study, not just at the beginning or at the time the participants agree to participate. Participants were reminded that if ever they felt uncomfortable with the process they could withdraw from the project.

Another important ethical principle is confidentiality. The participants need to know that their responses are entirely confidential. Students as (minor/vulnerable) were assured that no one would know their responses – neither their teachers nor their parents. The researcher needs to make sure that data is kept secure and confidential. In reporting this study, the names of the participants are pseudonymous, and the name of geographical places such as districts, sub-districts and schools are in code.

**Bias from the researcher**

I acknowledge the bias that I might have brought to the study from my own experience as a student in Indonesia and as a lecturer in a university that teaches people to become teachers. However, these biases were minimised by following the methodology as guidance for the project. For example, using a semi-structured interview approach and instruments assists in achieving objectivity.
In conclusion, the ethical issues in this study were addressed and the basic principles have been followed in order to meet with the best interests of participants, both physically and psychologically.

3.9 Presentation of the findings

As the research was conducted in a mixed methods approach, the findings are presented by integrating the results from quantitative and qualitative data analysis. The findings from quantitative data analysis such as the statistics descriptive of student academic help-seeking, and the coefficients of correlation or determination, were calculated to find a pattern for generalisations. Then issues emerging from the interviews and observations were used to explain more deeply student academic help-seeking and to provide rich exemplars related to this behaviour.

3.10 Summary

This chapter has provided details of the methodology and the strength of the approaches used in this study. The mixed methods approach was chosen as the best way to answer the research questions thoroughly and comprehensively. This method is in line with the nature of the research, which is to explore student and teacher opinion and behaviour related to academic help-seeking activities. The design of the survey was discussed, showing its intent to portray the tendencies of students to seek academic help during classroom activities, or not. Furthermore, classroom observations can capture the actual academic help-seeking behaviour sought by the students and the responses given by the teachers. From the interviews and focus groups interviews as described, I was able to identify different perceptions of both students and teachers.
The participants and setting, and sampling procedures and instrumentation have also been described in detail.

Chapter 4 outlines the results of this study emerging from the data, including the nature of academic help-seeking behaviour and how students engage with academic help-seeking.
Chapter 4 ENGAGING IN ACADEMIC HELP-SEEKING BEHAVIOUR

This chapter is the first of four chapters that present, discuss and examine the findings of this research. Where appropriate, it links findings from the literature with findings from the study. As an overview of the student academic help-seeking behaviour studied, it consists of six sections. First, teacher and student perspectives of the importance of student academic help-seeking behaviour are discussed. This is followed by a focus on the nature of student academic help-seeking behaviour in the classroom during teaching and learning; an exploration of themes that emerged from interviews as to why some students avoid seeking academic help; a section that describes how students seek help; discussion on the types of student academic help-seeking behaviour, and finally, discussion on student preferences in seeking help.

4.1 The importance of student academic help-seeking

Teachers and students in this study view the importance of student academic help-seeking behaviour from different perspectives, and their perceptions of this behaviour are an essential starting point in understanding this behaviour as a whole. Teachers may likely support this behaviour if they perceive it as important in student learning, while students may adopt this behaviour if they view it as significant to their academic success.

4.1.1 Teacher perspectives

Teacher beliefs influence their behaviour in the classroom, and could affect the way they teach and the kinds of learning environments they create (Guskey, 2002; Palak &
Walls, 2009). Fredricks, Blumenfeld, and Paris (2004) found that teacher support, positive teacher-student relationships, classroom structure, autonomy support and the creation of authentic and challenging tasks are all associated with student engagement at the classroom level, and therefore, the teacher has a role in creating those supportive conditions. However, whether teachers try to create such conditions, and how they go about trying to do so, is likely to depend on their beliefs about teaching and about being a teacher.

From the interviews, this study found that all 21 teachers agreed that student academic help-seeking is an important behaviour for student learning. One teacher related, “Yes, it is very important [for us], so that we could understand our students’ understanding of the material” (I-17: Mrs Sari, Year-6 teacher, 24/12/12). Another teacher remarked, “I think it is very important [for students] … students really must ask [for academic help] so that we are able to know [their understanding]” (I-16: Mrs Lilis, Year-6 teacher, 11/12/12). Moreover:

It is our obligation as a teacher, we must [encourage them to ask], and we must dig deeper into our students’ understanding whether they have mastered the content perfectly (I-1: Mrs Nur Hamidah, Year 5 teacher, 31/10/12).

This behaviour was also perceived as an adaptive behaviour with teachers reporting that students should seek academic help when they face difficulties in mastering the lesson content. This aligns with other research that shows students seek help to enhance their academic performance (Butler, 2006, p. 18).

Findings of this study are similar to other studies conducted in Western cultures where teacher opinions about student academic help-seeking have been the focus (Wosnitza et al., 2014); however, these findings are not clear as Wosnitza et al., (2014) also found inconsistency between teacher attitudes and their behaviour regarding student
academic help-seeking. This inconsistency is discussed in more detail in Chapter 5 section 5.2 page 172.

Some teachers interviewed emphasised the importance of this behaviour as a benefit not only for the students, but also for the teachers. The following sub-section discusses such perspectives.

4.1.2 Benefits to the teachers

This study found that student academic help-seeking behaviour had the following advantages for the teachers:

1. the teacher was able to assess student learning processes;

2. it provided feedback for the teacher regarding teaching processes.

3. it helped teachers develop more focused learning materials.

Assessment of student learning processes

Student academic help-seeking was viewed by one of the teachers as helping him assess the process of student learning. This teacher explained that by students asking questions, teachers can assess the process of student learning, “If they ask [for academic help] then we can assess [them] from the process [of their learning]” (I-8: Mr Muhidin, Year-6 teacher, 19/12/12). Furthermore, he stated that teachers should not only see the results, but more importantly the process of the learning.

For another teacher, a student’s request for academic help was viewed as an indicator of the level of student comprehension about the learning material:
Yes, it is very important, because [it can help us] to find out about the students’ comprehension … If they ask then we know how much they have understood [of] what we have explained to them (I-17: Mrs Sari, Year 5 teacher, 24/12/12).

According to Wilson (1985), teachers can gain benefit from accepting and evaluating student questions because their study was able to identify students who were underachievers through their questions. Wilson also found that building effective communication with students to help them master the learning material is important for overall student outcomes. The findings of this study supported Wilson’s study, which found that student questions help them appreciate the level of student understanding of the learning material and use that information to explain the material better.

Feedback for the teachers

Student requests for academic help also provide information and feedback for the teachers about their teaching processes. Teachers may use this information to identify their students’ problems in mastering the learning material. As Mr Mustafa explained in his interview, “If they ask something, it means they haven’t understood the learning content” (I-5: Mr Mustafa, Year-6 teacher, 28/11/12). Teachers in this study used this information to identify the gap between their students’ level of knowledge and their expectations:

… we can then measure our students’ knowledge. How much have they absorbed and therefore we really hope that they would ask, students should ask questions so that we know (I-3: Mrs Indri, Year-6 teacher, 27/11/12).

For another teacher, when her students stayed silent in the class after she explained something, she took it as a signal that, “Something might be wrong”:

It’s something important Bu, because sometimes their silence signalled that something is not right, what I mean is when they keep silent they might have not understood yet. Sometimes students are afraid to ask questions (I-13: Mrs Munawarah, Year 5 teacher, 10/12/12).
According to some teachers, the quietness of the class does not necessarily mean that the students have understood the material clearly, for them it is more likely the opposite. Teachers perceive this situation as a warning to them that their students somehow did not fully understand their explanations. Therefore, student requests for academic help are important to them.

Lin (2003) reports that teachers may gain more understanding about their student learning from how students respond to their learning instructions. From student responses the teacher may use the information in order to make a better decision with regard to enhancing student learning. This study also found that teachers acknowledge the importance of student questions for them to gain better understanding of student learning.

**Learning material development**

Another benefit that teachers revealed about student academic help-seeking behaviour was that it may help teachers develop their learning material. It is interesting to note that this behaviour challenged some teachers. As Mrs Diana stated, “When the student asked something, I can use [the question] to develop my learning material … so [it also] increases teachers’ knowledge and [is] also a challenge [for me] to develop [my] knowledge (I-19: Mrs Diana, Year-6 teacher, 24/12/12). She added that the teaching and learning process would lift to a higher level and help other students broaden their knowledge as well. Another teacher also acknowledged that some of his students asked difficult questions and sometimes he found he was not able to answer them. However, he was able to use the questions to improve his knowledge, “... when [I] could not [answer the questions], well I will have to read [again] and learn [again about it]” (I-8: Mr Mustafa, Year-6 teacher, 19/12/12).
Student requests for academic help ultimately also help the teachers establish a starting point for their lesson plans and to make adjustments according to student learning levels. Student academic help-seeking might also enable teachers to measure their students’ comprehension in order to develop appropriate learning materials.

### 4.1.3 Benefits to the students

Teachers in this study also emphasised that these behaviours are important for their students, and that their students might gain benefits from asking for academic help.

**Improving student understanding**

Teachers in this study believed that asking for clarification or help to solve a problem assists their students in enhancing their understanding and enables them to achieve good results in their academic tasks (I-3: Mrs Indri, Year-6 teacher, 27/11/12; I-1; Mrs Nur Hamidah, Year 5 teacher, 31/10/12). However, they also noticed that some of their students were motivated to ask questions to gain attention and extra points. In addition, Mrs Diana noticed that other students in the classroom derived benefit from their classmate’s questions, “… the information will be distributed to the other students in the classroom” (FGI-19: Mrs Diana, Year-6 teacher, 24/12/12).

Many previous studies have shown that students gain benefit from asking questions. In doing so, they become self-regulated learners (Karabenick & Newman, 2006) and can perceive themselves as competent (Butler, 1998).

**Improving student confidence**

By asking questions, teachers also believed that their students’ confidence would be enhanced and their curiosity fulfilled (I-1: Mrs Nur Hamidah, Year 5 teacher,
31/10/12). One teacher said that this behaviour could also boost student pride, “They feel proud if they can ask their teacher” (I-3: Mrs Indri, Year-6 teacher, 27/11/12).

**Improving student communication skills**

Teachers noted that by seeking academic help, students improved their verbal ability and communication skills, as Mr Firdaus pointed out in the discussion below:

> So, student academic help-seeking is very important in the classroom, because the more students ask questions the more we (teachers) understand their comprehension on the subject matter and also automatically they will improve their verbal skills and enhance their communication skills (I-20: Mr Firdaus, Year-6 teacher, 14/12/12).

However, teachers also noticed that some students ask questions because they want to get their teacher’s attention. “Sometimes, several students ask questions or teachers’ help just to gain our attention”, as Mrs Nur Hamidah mentioned in the interview (I-1: Mrs Nur Hamidah, Year 5 teacher, 31/10/12).

As mentioned in Chapter 2, academic help-seeking can also be seen as a social strategy (Nelson-Le Gall, 1986). By asking questions and approaching other people, students enhance their social and communication skills. Positive results and experience can then serve as reinforcement of this behaviour (Nelson-Le Gall, 1986).

Thus, the positive benefits of student academic help-seeking behaviour as reported by teachers show that these teachers have a good understanding about this behaviour and its relationship to teaching and learning. Teachers in this study are also likely to encourage academic help-seeking behaviour in the classroom. According to Hativa, Barak, and Simhi (2001) teacher beliefs are one of the factors influencing their behaviour in the classroom; however, there is inconsistency between the ideal and daily practice suggesting a gap between the beliefs and values that teachers hold and
the actual behaviours in the classrooms. Moreover, there are other factors that contribute to the complexity of the relationship between teacher beliefs and behaviours, and Chapter 5 discusses the important role teachers play in student academic help-seeking behaviour.

4.1.4 Student perspectives

This study found that students believed that asking for academic help is important for their academic success. Since the participants of this study were students in Year 6, most were very concerned about the National Examination (Ujian Nasional). This concern was reflected in their answers. They were concerned about getting a high score so that they could continue their study in middle school, as these two students stated:

… for us it is also [important], so that we can understand how to solve a problem, how to do it this time … so that when we are in the middle school for example, we know that we have been taught about this before in Year 6, we can remember it again and we can get the highest NEM score (FGI-1: Aditya, Year-6 student, 19/11/12).

In my opinion, it is important, because if I ask [for academic help] then it will stay in my brain and if we can do the National Examination, then we can get a high NEM score (FGI-1: Lisa, Year-6 student, 19/11/12).

Students also said that they view this behaviour as important because they can improve their understanding of subject material (FGI-9: Year-6 students, 14/12/12). One student stated that by asking questions he could solve similar problems in the future (FGI-11: Theo, Year-6 student, 12/01/13). Another student noted that she requested academic help for her own knowledge and to fulfil her curiosity (FGI-6: Rida, Year-6 student, 12/12/12). For other students, asking for academic help was a way to get a good mark, broaden knowledge and gain better achievement (FGI-10, Year-6 students.

---

1 NEM: Nilai Ebtanas Murni (National Examination Score)
Interestingly, some students also mentioned becoming famous in the eyes of their teachers and peers, and becoming a champion in their class (FGI-10, Year-6 students, 14/12/12).

Some students in FGI-9 also noticed that they could benefit from classmates who ask for academic help in the classroom, as seen in the exchange below between the researcher (R) and the students (St1 and St2):

R: If one of your friends asks a question in the class, how do you see it?
St1: We will get help
R: How’s that?
St2: For example, if our friends ask the same questions that we want to ask
R: So, you feel like being helped if someone asks the same question first?
St1: Yes (FGI-9: Year-6 students, 14/12/12).

These students clearly showed that they recognised the importance of academic help-seeking. Many stated that the need for getting a high score in the National Examination was important and that this should be enough for them to pursue this behaviour in the classroom.

Afrianto (2008) reports that there are some positive advantages from the National Examination, among them motivation for students to learn hard to pass the exam. Students in this study also expressed this opinion.

In summary, students in this study believed that asking for academic help was an important behaviour to aid their learning success. While they would likely act on that belief, particularly if they faced academic difficulties, it is not a straightforward issue because later classroom observations and further discussion with students also showed that many avoided seeking help when they knew they needed it.
The following section explains the actual behaviour of teachers and students in the classroom related to academic help-seeking. It describes whether or not students actually seek academic help when they face academic problems.

### 4.2 Student academic help-seeking behaviour

Seeking academic help when students face difficulty in understanding subject lessons is considered to be an adaptive behaviour; however, previous studies mostly in Western cultures, show that students can also be reluctant to ask for help, especially from their teachers (Karabenick & Newman, 2006; Marchand & Skinner, 2007; Ryan et al., 2005; Ryan & Pintrich, 1997; Ryan & Shin, 2011).

#### 4.2.1 Students reluctant to seek academic help

Similar to findings of previous studies cited above, this study found that many students were reluctant to seek academic help, especially from their teachers during classroom activities. Teacher and student interviews, as well classroom observations established this finding.

Teachers in this study gave a variety answers to questions about whether or not their students asked for academic help in the classroom. One teacher indicated that less than 5% of his students (only 1–2 students) were likely ask for academic help (I-2: Mr Emil, Year-6 teacher, 05/11/12); while another teacher reported that up to 75% of his students engaged in academic help-seeking behaviour during the lesson (I-8: Mr Muhidin, Year-6 teacher, 19/12/12). The majority of the teachers (76%), however, reported that the rate of students asking questions in the classroom was lower than 25% (the average size of the classrooms ranged between 30 and 38 students).
Furthermore, teachers reported that their students kept silent despite being given opportunities to ask for academic help. Many of these students avoided seeking academic help. Therefore, a common situation in the classroom was that students sat passively, listening to the teacher’s instructions and doing assignments quietly.

This finding is in line with findings from both Exley (2005) and Barron (2002) about learner characteristics in South-East Asian schools, who are typically passive, quiet and shy learners. Exley found that the dominant characteristics of students in Indonesian classrooms to be passiveness, shyness and quietness. Details of these characteristics are provided in Chapter 7.

During interviews many students reported that they rarely ask for academic help from their teachers in the classroom and confirmed the trend that they typically do not ask any questions of their teachers in the classroom. Below are examples of student responses to the questions:

R:  Do students often ask questions in the class?
S:  Rarely Mam. (FGI-3: Abdan, Year-6 students, 19/12/12).

R:  Do you ask your teacher?
S:  [No] I never [ask my teacher]. (FGI-9: Fahri, Year-6 student, 14/12/12).

R:  So, students, if you were given a chance [from your teacher] to ask, [such as]; does anyone have any questions? Will anyone raise any questions?
Ss:  Hehehe, nope. (FGI-5: Year-6 students, 10/12/12).

Most of the students in this study admitted that they rarely sought academic help from their teachers, despite their teachers giving them opportunities. Even though these students realised that their teachers would be happy if they asked for help, they were
still reluctant to ask questions. Thus, the result of student interviews confirms the results from the teacher interviews.

The classroom observations also support the findings from the interviews. Although the classroom observations showed variations in the dynamics of teaching and learning that ranged from traditional teaching methods to a more dynamic and active student-centred approach, the majority of the students in this study did not ask for academic help from their teachers.

Results found in School B, in the four sessions of the classroom observations, revealed a very typical traditional approach of teaching methods. Students were seated in their chairs and listened carefully to their teacher’s instructions and then did the tasks provided by the teacher. The teacher often left the class, and many times, she was busy with her job at her desk. None of these students performed academic help-seeking behaviour during the observations (C-Ob\textsuperscript{2}: School B, 16/11/12; 21/11/12).

In School A and School F, I found more dynamic student activities, with the teacher conducting group discussions or using a typical question-answering (Q&A) method. Students were more actively engaged in the learning process, asking some questions of their teachers. However, most of the time students were just actively replying or answering the teacher’s questions (C-Ob: School A, 08/11/12; 13/11/12; 19/11/12 and C-Ob: School F, 27/11/12; 28/11/12).

To summarise, from both student and teacher interviews as well as from the classroom observations, it can be concluded that the majority of students in this study avoided asking for academic help in the classroom during the lessons. This was despite the fact

\textsuperscript{2} C-Ob: classroom observation
that both students and teachers understood very well the importance of academic help-seeking behaviour. This finding is supported by Hativa et al. (2001), who suggest that there is a discrepancy between beliefs and actual behaviours in classrooms. It indicates that other factors contribute to the complexity of student academic help-seeking behaviour.

These initial findings led into deeper investigation on reasons and factors influencing student academic help-seeking behaviour, and are discussed in the following sections and chapters.

### 4.2.2 Student intention of seeking academic help

This sub-section presents the results of the questionnaire on student academic help-seeking. The questionnaire aimed to investigate whether or not students will ask for academic help in the classroom during the lesson. Table 4.1 reports the mean and Standard Deviation (SD) of each item of the questionnaire.

There were nine items in this instrument – *asking the teacher* (HS1), *do not ask for academic help* (HS2-R), *seeking teacher’s help* (HS3), *do not raise any questions* (HS4-R), *know whom to ask* (when facing academic difficulties) (HS5), *just guessing the answers* (HS6-R), *asking the formulas to solve problems* (HS7), *answer anything* (put down any answers) (HS8-R), *asking about the content* (learning material) (HS9). Out of these nine statements, HS1, HS3, HS5, HS7 and HS9 asked about student adaptive help-seeking. However, HS2-R, HS4-R, HS6-R and HS8-R measured student avoiding seeking academic help and were reversed for the analysis process (see details in Chapter 3 page 106).
Table 4.1 Mean and standard deviation of academic help-seeking

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>HS7</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>336</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HS4-R</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>337</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HS9</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>336</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HS5</td>
<td>3.22</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>335</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HS6-R</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>335</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HS8-R</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td>337</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HS1</td>
<td>3.11</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>337</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HS2-R</td>
<td>3.06</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>337</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HS3</td>
<td>3.03</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>337</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: a) Means were ranked from highest to lowest; b) The students were asked to rank their academic help-seeking on a four-point scale: 1 = not true at all; 2 = not true; 3 = true; 4 = very true; c) A repeated measures ANOVA was used on the above means, $F(8,2640) = 9.13, p < 0.01$

Table 4.1 shows that all of these items were rated higher than the average (scale 1–4) which means that the majority of the students reported that they will likely ask for academic help when they have difficulty in understanding the learning material or to solve a problem. Item HS7 (asking for a formula to solve problems) was rated highest while Item HS3 (seeking teacher’s help) was the lowest. Further analysis shows that the total means of student academic help-seeking from all items was 3.19 (with the maximum score of 4), as can be seen in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2 Total mean and standard deviation of academic help-seeking

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Student academic help-seeking</td>
<td>3.19</td>
<td>0.46</td>
<td>331</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This finding suggests that students seeking academic help when they face problems was in line with student cognitive knowledge about the importance of academic help-seeking behaviour. However, this finding is contrary to the actual behaviour of these students in the classroom. Again, findings from the quantitative data show that while students intended to ask for academic help, they did not seek that help. Dillon (1988,
suggests that “95% of the questions that we have in mind to ask we never go on to utter”.

According to Newman and Schwager (1993), whether or not students actually ask for academic help when they hold the attitudes and intention to ask is related to other factors. They also point out that students are also concerned with the potential benefit and cost of academic help-seeking.

Other factors, such as student beliefs and awareness, may have important roles in determining student academic help-seeking behaviour. According to Newman (2000), the awareness of the importance of asking for help develops from an early stage – in kindergarten or even younger. Furthermore, from this early age students already recognise and are aware of the potential cost that may be involved. For example, asking for help is perceived to be a low-ability indicator (Graham & Barker, 1990; Weinstein & Middlestadt, 1979). Students in this study were in upper grades that may have concerns about the cost of asking for academic help. With increasing age students also become more reluctant to seek academic help because of concerns about other’s opinions (Myers & Paris, 1978). Newman (1990) also found that older students were more affected than younger students about the cost of seeking academic help.

Item analysis per scale (1–4) was conducted to gain better understanding about academic help-seeking behaviour in this study. Table 4.3 shows that in the item about *asking formulas* (HS7), 90.7% of students reported that it was true and the other 9.2% reported that it was not true or not very true at all. It also shows that for the item *do not ask for help* (HS4-R) 88.7% of students agreed that it was not true while 11.3% students did not agree. Furthermore, Table 4.3 shows that for item *asking for learning materials* (HS9), 282 students (83.7%) reported that it was true or very true and the
remaining 54 students (16%) reported that it was not true. For the item *knows whom to ask* (HS5), 295 students (86.7%) agreed with the statement and the other 43 students (12.8%) stated that it was not true.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>HS7</td>
<td>2.38</td>
<td>6.85</td>
<td>45.24</td>
<td>45.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HS4-R</td>
<td>2.37</td>
<td>8.91</td>
<td>41.84</td>
<td>46.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HS9</td>
<td>2.38</td>
<td>13.69</td>
<td>40.18</td>
<td>43.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HS5</td>
<td>2.39</td>
<td>10.45</td>
<td>49.55</td>
<td>37.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HS6-R</td>
<td>5.07</td>
<td>13.14</td>
<td>37.61</td>
<td>44.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HS8-R</td>
<td>4.45</td>
<td>13.65</td>
<td>41.25</td>
<td>40.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HS1</td>
<td>6.23</td>
<td>11.27</td>
<td>47.78</td>
<td>34.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HS2-R</td>
<td>2.37</td>
<td>17.81</td>
<td>51.63</td>
<td>28.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HS3</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>18.39</td>
<td>48.66</td>
<td>29.10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: a) \(N = 337\); b) 1 = not true at all; 2 = not true; 3 = true; 4 = very true

It can be seen in Table 4.3 that there were 274 students (81.3%) said that the item *guessing answers* (HS6-R) was true and the 18.1% students said that it was not true. Next, the item *answer anything* (HS8-R) found that 276 students (81.9%) disagreed with the statement and the remaining 61 students (18.1%) agreed. Furthermore, 82.5% of students reported the item *asking teachers* (HS1) was true or very true and the remaining 17.5% students did not agree that it was true. In the item *do not raise questions* (HS2-R) 79.8% of students reported that it was not true and the remainder (20.2%) reported that it was true. There were 77.8% of students who reported that the item *seeking teachers’ help* (HS3) was true \((\geq 3)\) and the other 22.2% of students reported that it was not true. All items in Table 4.3 show that most students (range between 77.8% - 90.7%) have willingness to ask for academic help.

To summarise, the students in this study were actually willing to ask for academic help from their teacher. As the findings from the interviews suggested, they know the importance of asking for help to their achievement (see discussion section 4.1.4 page
However, many of them also reported that they were reluctant to seek academic help. Teacher interviews and classroom observations also confirmed this avoidance behaviour. The following section discusses reasons why these students do not ask for academic help during the learning process.

4.3 Why some students do not ask for academic help

As just discussed, this study found that that even though students knew the importance of asking for academic help and had the intention to seek it, the reality was they avoided doing so in the classroom. This section further explores the reasons for this avoidance behaviour. It first explores teacher reasoning about why their students did not ask for academic help. Second, it explores student reasoning and their experiences in their daily life at school. Finally, it identifies themes that emerged from the multitude of reasons for discussion in the following chapters.

4.3.1 Teacher reasoning

Teachers in this study mentioned several reasons for their students avoiding seeking academic help, with most being related to student characteristics. Teachers stated that their students were “shy” (I-3: Mrs Indri, Year-6 teacher, 27/11/12), “lacked confidence” (I-4: Mr Widodo, Year-6 teacher, 27/11/12), showed “lack of interest” and “lack of knowledge and understanding” (I-1: Mrs Nur Hamidah, Year 5 teacher, 31/10/12).

Other teachers reported that avoidance might be because a student “doesn’t know what to ask” (I-2: Mr Emil, Year 5 teacher, 05/11/12), is “afraid of their teacher” (I-15: Mrs
Santi, Year 4 teacher, 11/12/12), and “afraid of asking the wrong question” (I-14: Mrs Hana, Year 3 teacher, 10/12/12).

Some teachers admitted that they might undermine their own students from asking for help. One teacher confessed that students may be reluctant to ask for help because of the “negative responses” from teachers (I-6: Mrs Reni, Year-6 teacher, 30/11/12). Another teacher recalled, “… probably because the teacher cannot stimulate their students [to ask for help]” (I-5: Mr Mustafa, Year-6 teacher, 28/11/12). Another teacher responded that the students may “dislike” their teachers, so that they do not want to ask for help (I-8: Mr Muhidin, Year-6 teacher, 19/12/12).

Teachers in this study also mentioned the importance of parents and family background. “Lack of support” from the parents (I-19: Mrs Diana, Year-6 teacher, 24/12/12) and “the condition of the home” (I-17: Mrs Sari, Year-6 teacher, 24/12/12) were the main concerns of these teachers (see for details in Chapter 6, section 6.5.1 page 244).

Some teachers mentioned the influence of peers. Teachers stated that the reason some students did not ask for help was because they were afraid of negative responses from classmates. As stated by Mr Widodo, “They were afraid that their friends will make fun of them” (I-4: Mr Widodo, Year-6 teacher, 27/11/12).

However, some teachers also noticed that some students did not ask for help because of the need for independence. One teacher said that the students wanted “to solve the problem by themselves” (I-7: Mrs Irma, Year-6 teacher, 30/11/12), or “they have understood the lesson” (I-5: Mr Mustafa, Year-6 teacher, 28/11/12). Another teacher
added that it was most likely because “other students already asked the questions” (I-11: Mr Sigit, Year-6 teacher, 10/12/12).

4.3.2 Student reasoning

From student interviews, this study found that the reasons for not asking for help varied from being afraid of their teacher to being lazy. I found that some of the students’ reasons were similar to those of their teachers (as discussed in the previous subsection), such as student characteristics, the role of peers and the teachers themselves.

Some students related the reasons to internal factors such as, “I do not know what to ask” (FGI-5: Vivi, Year-6 student, 10/12/12). Another said, “I do not ask for help because I am lazy” (FGI-9: Malik, Year-6 student, 14/12/12). One participant confessed that he felt too “shy” to ask for help in the classroom (FGI-9: Heru, Year-6 student, 14/12/12). For another student, avoidance was related to the “lack of vocab” (FGI-9: Yoga, Year-6 student, 14/12/12). One student confessed that she tried to ask but then she was too nervous and “lost her words” (FGI-10: Felli, Year-6 student, 14/12/12).

I also found that some students did not ask for help because they just wanted to solve the problem by themselves (FGI-6: Hasanah, Year-6 student, 12/12/12; FGI-8; Nurilita and Devi, 12/12/12). Another student said she already understood the lesson so she did not need to ask for help (FGI-2: Netty, Year-6 student, 19/11/12).

The student interviews also uncovered some reasons relating to peers. Yustia and Evasari (FGI-11:12/01/13), Lara (FGI-10: 14/12/12), Rury (FGI-5: 10/12/12) and many others revealed that they did not want to embarrass themselves in front of their
friends. Another student stated that some of her friends did not even bother to ask for help. They would rather cheat or copy another student’s work (FGI-1: Ulfa, Year-6 student, 19/11/12).

Additionally, I found many students unwilling to ask for academic help mainly because of the teachers. Some reasons were similar to those the teachers presented, such as negative responses from their teacher (FGI-3: Hendra, Year-6 student, 19/11/12), being afraid of their teacher (FGI-5: Anwar, Year-6 student, 10/12/12), and disliking their teacher (FGI-3: Gunawan, Year-6 student, 19/11/12).

However, this study also revealed some important findings that teachers may not be aware of. For example, one of the students stated that he did not ask any questions because of “teacher favoritism”; he felt that his teacher did not treat all of her students equally (FGI-1: Ahmad, Year-6 student, 19/11/12). Another student felt that her teacher often gave “severe punishment” to the students in her class, such as expelling a student from the class (FGI-1: Evi, Year-6 student, 19/11/12). One student also added that she was reluctant to ask for help when she saw her teacher was busy with her job at her teacher’s desk, “… she ignores us because she was busy with her laptop all the time” (FGI-2: Eni, Year-6 student, 19/11/12). Another student indicated that teacher verbal abuse undermined her from asking for academic help from her teacher. “The language that she used is not appropriate, how can she say something like that to her students?” as Ulfa stated in her interviews (FGI-1: Ulfa, Year-6 student, 19/11/12).

Moreover, I found one unexpected response for not seeking academic help in the classroom. This student was worried that he would run out of break time if he asked any questions:
… because if I haven’t finished [this task] then I won’t be allowed to have a break, however, my other friends [who have finished the task] are allowed to have a break, that’s why I don’t ask ... (FGI-5: Anwar, Year-6 student, 10/12/12).

Although rare, I also found that one student reported that he got a wrong answer from his teacher when he asked for help, “I checked and rechecked again and [later] I found out that [her answer] was wrong” (FGI-7: Iwan, Year-6 student, 12/12/12).

This study found many causes inhibiting students from specifically asking for academic help from their teachers. According to Nelson Le-Gall (1981), student decisions whether or not to ask for help is based on the associated benefit and cost. If the cost outweighs the benefit, they are unlikely to ask for help.

To help me organise all the data, I identified the themes that emerged, as described in the next sub-section.

4.3.3 The themes that emerged from the interviews

After reading and rereading the transcript of the interviews from both teachers and students I categorised the reasons into eight main themes:

1. The role of teacher covers their attitudes, behaviour, teacher responses to student questions and teacher characteristics. This theme includes teaching preparation, teaching method and related to the characteristics of the subject matter.

2. Classroom environment covers both the physical condition of the classroom and the classroom structure. The classroom structure refers to the way teachers managed their classroom.

3. The role of peers covers both the positive and negative influences of peers on student academic help-seeking.
4. *The role of parent* covers parental involvement in their children’s learning.

5. *Student attitudes* cover both positive and negative attitudes towards academic help-seeking.

6. *Student skills* covers what students have and required to develop academic help-seeking behaviour.

7. *Student characteristics* covers both characteristics that may support or inhibit academic help-seeking.

8. *Student demographic data, such as age and gender* covers how age and gender may influence student academic help-seeking.

These eight themes can be further classified, as the first four themes can be seen as external or contextual factors related to student academic help-seeking. These themes are discussed in Chapter 6. Kempler and Linnenbrink (2006, p. 90) use the term *contextual factors* for themes that involve the availability of potential helpers (Ryan & Pintrich, 1998) and the norms and rules of the classroom (van der Meij, 1988). The second four themes were categorised into student internal factors of academic help-seeking. These themes will be discussed in Chapter 7.

**4.4 How students ask for help from their teachers**

Although most students do not ask their teachers for academic help, this study found that some students do raise some questions. This section describes the way these students approached their teachers in the classroom to seek academic help.

From the data, I was able to identify the patterns of how students performed academic help-seeking behaviour in or outside the classroom. I identified formal and informal approaches: I use the term *formal approach* to refer to the ways students ask for
academic help from their teachers in the classroom during teaching and learning processes and the term *informal approach* when students approach their teachers for academic help outside the class, after the lesson has finished.

### 4.4.1 Formal approaches

I identified three types of formal approaches to teachers.

**Asking aloud**

Students with enough desire and willingness for academic help asked their teachers questions in class. Such questions were meant for the teacher; however, other students also heard the question and learned from it. In response, teachers typically provided an answer to the whole class. Sometimes, the teacher would probe the question with another question, or conduct a discussion leading on from that question. This approach was found in School A when the teacher conducted a typical Q&A teaching method (C-Ob: School A, 08/11/12) and in School F when the teacher had similar approach (C-Ob: School F, 27/11/12).

Students who ask for help this way are typically smart, brave and confident. This type of academic help-seeking was also identified in the teacher interviews. To ask for help students must have adequate prior knowledge, and this relates to their achievement level. According to van der Meij (1990), in order to be able to formulate a question students need to have good prior knowledge. Students need motivation to approach their goal and be brave enough to perform in front of the class. This personality disposition is discussed further in Chapter 7, which focuses on student internal factors related to academic help-seeking behaviour.
Private approach

Students were also observed to approach their teachers in the classroom during the lesson and talked to them privately, sometimes whispering their questions. These students preferred to have a private discussion with their teacher to avoid embarrassment from others (peers):

But, the fact is the rest of them prefer to have a private discussion between them and the teacher, it’s more comfortable since they assume that others will laugh at them (I-19: Mrs Diana, Year-6 teacher, 24/12/12).

From the classroom observations in School F, the students commonly moved close to the teacher’s desk with their book. Instead of raising their hand and asking (aloud) for the whole class to hear, they seemed more comfortable approaching their teacher and asking privately. They would speak softly (sometimes whispering) and the teacher would respond only to the student who asked for help. Even when the teachers were busy writing on the whiteboard, some students would approach them to ask questions in the same manner (C-Ob: School F, 26/11/12).

In the classroom observation in School G (C-Ob: School G, 14/11/12) and F (C-Ob: School F, 26 11/12) I also noticed that when the teacher gave opportunities for students to ask questions, most of the students remained silent. However, when the teacher walked around the class and approached the students one by one, the students started showing their work and asking for help or clarification. Unfortunately, both of the teachers in those observations often left the classroom to do other business, mostly administration tasks. The teacher in School G even had to leave the class for almost the entire time of the session because she needed to discuss something with the principal of the school.
By using this private approach, students avoided their friends laughing at them for having silly questions. Students tend to protect their self-worth by asking questions privately (Butler, 2006). Students are concerned about others’ opinions and they do not want to be the centre of attention by asking aloud. To them, asking questions aloud is considered maladaptive behaviour.

The student interviews provided an example of a private approach. Felli was willing to ask for academic help by raising a question. However, she would only ask a question if she was sitting in the front row of the class, “I will ask the teacher if I sit in the front row” (FGI-10: Felli, Year-6 student, 14/12/12). The seating arrangement for that classroom changed regularly (every two weeks or every month) so students would have a chance to sit in the front row before moving to the back of the classroom for the next period. Felli wanted to directly ask teachers questions privately by walking forward to the teacher’s desk. When sitting in the back row, she found it hard to raise her hand and ask. The classroom was small and the teacher could not move freely, so teachers usually stayed in front of the class or at their desk. Raising a question is hard for students like Felli, and she was afraid that others would see her as an inadequate student so she did not ask. However, by sitting in the front row she could approach the teachers easily and not be a burden or the centre of attention in the class. Below is the conversation with her, telling her experience of asking questions:

   R: Do you ask your teacher?
   S: If I sit in the front row
   R: Do you have to move forward in [front of the class] to ask the teacher?
   S: No. If I sit in the front row then I will ask the teacher
   R: Oh, so if you were sitting in the back?
   S: Yeah, if I’m sitting in the back then I won’t ask
   R: Sit in the back won’t ask, why?
S: It’s too far
R: Don’t you raise your hand to ask? Or maybe the teacher will come to you?
S: No. It’s hard to move forward because the classroom is so small, and I am not comfortable if the other students sit down and I was stood all by myself
R: Do you have to move forward to ask or just raise your hand?
S: Both is okay, but if you sit in the front row then you can just speak softly so that the other students won’t be able to hear your questions, because sometime your question does not make sense and others perhaps will laugh at you (FGI-10: Felli, Year-6 student, 14/12/12).

Felli felt more comfortable approaching her teacher privately. She did not want to be heard by other students, afraid that her silly questions would make her friends laugh. Felli maintained her self-image by not publicly asking her teacher questions. Her phrase, “If the other students sit and I was stood all by myself” indicates that she did not want to be the centre of attention.

**Writing on a piece of paper**

Other ways in which students asked for help was by writing their questions on a piece of paper and giving it to their teacher. This method was helpful for passive students who were reluctant to ask for help:

… for some students to be able to ask a question [it] must be initiated by asking your question in the heart, because to ask verbally they seem shy, some of them do not have capability to raise a question. We [teachers] start from that point, by asking the students to ask themselves so that their friends would not know and then slowly they will have a skill to ask and finally will be able to ask [directly to the teacher] (I-20: Mr Firdaus, Year-6 teacher, 14/12/12).

Since the practice of verbal Q&A in Indonesian students is uncommon, it is typically just a few students who ask any questions. In this case of written questions, the teacher provides a strategy to promote student academic help-seeking by giving them a chance to ask a question in written form. The expected result is that the students will get used to asking their teacher, and after some time they will be able to ask their teacher directly. By writing down their questions, students do not need to face the embarrassment of other students laughing at them, and they are able to solve their
academic difficulties. At the same time, they learn how to formulate a question and improve their academic help-seeking skills. However, I only found this third type of seeking help in School D. The teacher, Mr Firdaus, adapted this method from a teaching method called the *snowball method*. He used it to promote student academic help-seeking behaviour in his classroom. Details of this method are discussed in Chapter 5, section 5.6.2 page 205-206.

In conclusion, from the interviews of both teachers and students together with classroom observations, I found three types of formal help-seeking behaviour and students selected that which was most comfortable to them.

### 4.4.2 Informal approaches

Informal academic help-seeking behaviour refers to situations when students approach their teacher to have a conversation or discussion outside the class, during break time or after the class finished. Teachers from School F set up a special place called the *Asking Corner*, for students to come anytime during break time to ask for help with any academic difficulties:

> I have prepared a place upstairs with Mrs Reni and Mr Mustafa, in the corner [of the building]. That place we designed to help students with special needs. … So, in the class, we recommend the student [to use the place] if they feel shy with their friends or even if they are afraid to disturb the teaching and learning process, if they feel uncomfortable … So, students who face academic difficulties in any subject that we taught; math, language, science, during the break we prepared ourselves and they can come to us every day (I-8: Mr Muhidin, Year-6 teacher, 19/12/12).

This provides evidence that the teachers noticed how important student academic help-seeking behaviour is. It also shows that the teachers noticed that their students need help but are reluctant to seek it, and that students are more comfortable approaching them privately. These teachers then facilitated their students in getting academic help.
Students who keep silent in the class can benefit from the Asking Corner without feeling being embarrassed or ashamed.

One teacher added that during the lesson she gave opportunities to ask questions but usually none would. However, after the class was over, she said she was often approached by her students, usually together, to ask for clarification or explanation (I-3: Mrs Indri, Year-6 teacher, 27/11/12).

4.4.3 Using student approaches to promote academic help-seeking

Information about how students engage with academic help-seeking can be used by the teacher to promote academic help-seeking behaviour in the classroom. For example, in the first type of formal approach, the student asking aloud in front of others, the teacher may use this situation to encourage other students by rewarding the student who asks the question. Other students might then be motivated to ask for academic help when they see that other students can perform and get positive consequences. However, teachers also need to make sure that they respect any silly questions from the students and answer them seriously.

In the case of the second type of formal approach, when students approach teachers privately to ask for academic help, the teacher needs to make sure that they are available to be approached, or should walk around the classroom more often to check on their students.

The third formal approach, when students write down their questions, shows a way of teachers being creative in finding a way to help their students to engage with academic help-seeking behaviour.
In conclusion, this study found that students developed both formal and informal academic help-seeking strategies to overcome their academic difficulties. By understanding how students performed their strategies in order to get academic help, teachers can provide suitable ways to meet student needs.

4.5 Types of student academic help-seeking

This section describes what kinds of questions students ask their teachers in order to get academic help. Based on the use/benefit/utility of the request from students in this study, I further identified two types of academic help-seeking behaviour: adaptive help-seeking and maladaptive help-seeking. Adaptive help-seeking refers to questions students raise by students that will enable them to improve their understanding and ability to solve similar problems in the future. Maladaptive help-seeking refers to students asking questions that do not enhance their independent work, the tendency to ask for academic help when they encounter difficulties without putting in any real effort.

4.5.1 Adaptive help-seeking

1. This study found at least four sub-types of adaptive help-seeking: Students asked questions related to the content material. This study found that some students asked about the learning content or sought clarification on some issues. They also asked their teachers to explain or repeat the explanations slowly (FGI-2: Lisda, Year-6 student, 19/11/12; FGI-4: Gatot, Year-6 student, 10/12/12; FGI-11: Theo, Year-6 student, 12/01/13). This behaviour was also recognised by the teachers (I-3: Mrs Siti, Year-6 teacher, 27/11/12;
2. Students ask for a formula or how to solve a problem. In this study, some teachers explained that some students asked them how to solve a problem or to clarify their answer (I-16: Mrs Lilis, Year-6 teacher, 11/12/12). Further, Mrs Lilis explained that these questions were commonly found in math and science lessons. Students confirmed this finding by stating that they often asked for help in order to solve math problems or undertake experiments in science (FGI-3: Gunawan, Year-6 student, 19/11/12). In their opinion, asking for a formula or a way to solve the problem would help them solve similar problems in the future (FGI-1: Aditya, Year-6 student, 19/11/12; FGI-11; Theo, Year-6 student, 12/01/13).

3. Students ask for confirmation or clarification of instructions or how to do an assignment. This study found that some students asked questions around an assignment that their teacher gave such as what number, what page and which exercise (C-Ob: School F, 26/11/12). In addition, students asked if they could do the assignment in a different way. One student stated that he asked his teacher about the meaning of the task and how to answer it (FGI-10; Rangga, Year-6 student, 14/12/12). Teachers also confirmed this type of question and said that their students often asked for clarification about whether or not they have reached the right answers (I-7: Mrs Irma, Year-6 teacher, 30/11/12).

4. Students provide critical opinions and comments to their teachers. Surprisingly, I observed some students asking critical questions or making
comments (C-Ob: School A, 8/11/12). In School A, when the teacher explained the balanced ecosystem, some students asked questions such as, “Why do we need to do reforestation?” or, “Why can’t we hunt a bear and take their head as accessories in our home?” After the classroom observation, I asked the teacher about their questions and she commented, “The ‘why’ questions not only reflected students’ curiosity but also showed us that they have read a lot and learn from many other resources” (Mrs Diana, Year-6 teacher, 19/11/12).

These findings are supported by a study by Newman and Schwager (1995). The study found that Year-6 students are more likely ask for specific academic help such as a formula or hints to solve a problem than younger students. However, a study by Butler (1998) also found that some students often ask for a direct answer to solve their problems. The following sub-section explains the findings of this study when students are expedient in asking for academic help (Butler, 1998).

4.5.2 Maladaptive help-seeking

In contrast to adaptive help-seeking, which enhances student learning and thinking processes, I also found some questions raised by the students that can be categorised as maladaptive help-seeking behaviour:

1. Students ask for a **direct answer**. From the classroom observation in School B, I found several students asked their peers for a direct answer when trying to do an assignment (C-Ob: School B, 21/11/12). I also noticed that commonly, students asked for a direct answer when the type of problem is a *fill in the blank* type of question. From the interviews, some teachers also
noted that students often asked for direct answers from them (I-16: Mrs Lilis, Year-6 teacher, 11/12/12; I-13; Mrs Munawarah, Year 5 teacher, 10/12/12).

2. **Students ask something that is unrelated to the topic** (but still related to the subject matter). From the teacher interviews, teachers said some students asked questions in the classroom that were off the topic. Some teachers saw this behaviour as annoying and irrelevant to the learning process. Teachers felt that such questions wasted the time needed to catch up to the target of curriculum (I-9: Mr Teja, Year-6 teacher, 19/12/12). Teachers often either postponed the answer or gave a short explanation to the student that their question was off the topic (I-9: Mr Teja, Year-6 teacher, 19/12/12; I-19; Mrs Diana, Year-6 teacher, 24/12/12). However, students might raise these questions out of curiosity, and could receive benefit from the answer.

3. **Students ask unimportant questions.** These questions were categorised as maladaptive behaviour because they were not related to the topic and would not enhance student understanding or critical thinking. For example, students asked about their teacher’s appearance or joked about the learning content (I-1: Mrs Nur Hamidah, 31/10/12).

4. **Students copy other student work.** During the classroom observation I also found that some students chose to copy the work of other students rather than asking for a formula (C-Ob: School G, 14/11/12). When the teacher left the class and told the students to complete some problems, some students started to move around to a student who was able to answer the problem, and copied the answers without asking or seeking help.
5. Students **ask questions during exams**. This study also found that some students admitted that they were reprimanded by their teacher for asking questions during exams (FGI-10: Ida and Nanang, Year-6 students, 14/12/12).

To summarise, this research has identified two types of student academic help-seeking behaviour that has been expressed with perspectives from both students and teachers. Four were adaptive behaviours and five were maladaptive behaviours. Teachers can use a number of strategies in directing their students to be engaged more in adaptive help-seeking behaviour and reduce maladaptive behaviour. By understanding the attitudes that underline their behaviour, teachers can respond appropriately.

### 4.6 Student preferred helpers

Identifying and finding a suitable helper is an essential step for a student before eliciting help (Nelson-Le Gall, 1981; Ryan et al., 2001). In this step students typically first assess potential helpers who they can approach to successfully get the help they need.

This study investigated whether students preferred to ask for academic help from their peers or their teachers. The 55 students who joined the focus-group interviews responded and of these the majority (62% or 34 students) preferred to ask for help from their peers, while 33% (18 students) preferred to ask their teachers and 5% (three students) preferred not approaching peers or teachers. One such student said she could manage her academic problems so far (FGI-2: Netty, Year-6 student, 19/11/12); the other two did not ask any questions because they wanted to solve the academic
problems by themselves (FGI-8, Devi and Nurilita, Year-6 student, 12/12/12). The following sub-sections describe the reasons for the student choices.

4.6.1 Peers

The interviews found that 62% of students preferred to ask for academic help from their friends. Most said that they felt more comfortable seeking academic help from their classmates than their teachers. One student noted, “I feel more comfortable and the answers are more complete” (FGI-10: Rangga, Year-6 student, 14/12/12). Some more capable students can act as learning resources for other students. One student recounted how another more capable student took on the role of teacher in work groups:

Well yes, sometimes she becomes our teacher when we study together (FGI-1: Evi, Year-6 student, 19/11/12).

One student shared that the reason she preferred asking her friend was because she felt closer to her friend, and did not want to worry about her teacher’s perception:

For me, I often ask my friends. I want to ask my teacher but then the teacher will say, ‘Hey this material had been taught before, what’s wrong with you?’ My teacher will be angry with me. If I ask my friend, I feel closer (FGI-6: Hasanah, Year-6 student, 12/12/12).

Another student chose to seek help from his friends because he felt shy about asking his teacher (FGI-4: Cica, Year-6 student, 10/12/12). Another student noted that asking a friend was faster (FGI-1: Evi, Year-6 students, 19/11/12), and more fun (FGI-6: Nadirra, Year-6 student, 12/12/12). Also students had closer and more intimate relationships with friends (FGI-1: Ulfa, Year-6 student, 19/11/12).

However, the students also admitted that asking their friends had some disadvantages, such as friends sometimes putting down any answer (FGI-3: Lisa, Year-6 student, 19/11/12; FGI-10: Ida, Year-6 student, 14/12/12). One student shared that he might
get the \textit{wrong answer} from his friends (FGI-11: Theo, Year-6 student, 12/01/13), while Felli said that explanations from friends might be too long and make her dizzy (FGI-10: Felli, Year-6 student, 14/12/12). Another student explained that she sometimes received negative responses from her friends (FGI-1: Ulfa, Year-6 student, 19/11/12). Nanang said that his friends sometimes joked around, not answering him seriously (FGI-10: Nanang, Year-6 student, 14/12/12).

The majority of the students in this study chose to seek help from their friends mostly to avoid embarrassing themselves in front of their teachers. For example, one student said he was \textit{worried} that his teacher would think that he did not pay attention in class (FGI-7: Arifin, Year-6 student, 12/12/12). Another said that her teacher might perceive her as \textit{being lazy} (FGI-1: Ulfa, Year-6 student, 19/11/12). Another added that his teacher might embarrass him in front of his peers (FGI-3: Lisa, Year-6 student, 19/11/12). Basically, for these students, asking their teacher would ruin their self-image, therefore the cost of asking teachers outweighed the benefit, so they chose to ask their friends instead.

The teacher interviews confirmed this finding, with the majority of teachers agreeing that most of their students preferred to ask their friends whenever they needed academic help. One teacher noted, \textquotedblleft I think they felt more comfortable approaching their friends\textquotedblright{} (I-1: Mrs Nur Hamidah, Year 5 teacher, 31/10/12). Another remarked, \textquotedblleft They ask their friends, since they are at the same age, they use their own language and can understand each other better\textquotedblright{}, furthermore, \textquotedblleft I can see that they are more comfortable asking their peers, so I allowed them to do so but I keep monitoring them\textquotedblright{} (I-16: Mrs Lilis, Year-6 teacher, 11/12/12).
From the classroom observations I noted that in almost all schools (the exception was in School A, Class B), the class was arranged classically, with students sitting in rows and students not usually allowed to move around the classroom freely. So, even if they chose to seek help from their peers, their choice was limited between the friends who sat next, in front or behind them. This arrangement might limit their chances to get help from a more capable friend who was not sitting close by.

This finding contrasts with the findings from Newman and Schwager (1993) who found students in their studies preferred to ask for academic help from their teachers than their peers. These students perceived that their teachers were unlikely to call them ‘dumb’ and more capable of help them than their classmates.

### 4.6.2 Teachers

This study found that some students preferred to ask for academic help from their teachers. These students chose to ask their teachers because in their view teachers are experts of the subject matter. One student noted that, “Teachers know better” than their friends and they can provide easier ways to solve the problems (FGI-2: Lisda, Year-6 student, 19/11/12). Another student explained that the reason teachers were preferable to their peers was because teachers were, “Clearer and easier to understand” (FGI-1: Aditya, Year-6 student, 19/11/12). Another stated that, “Teachers explain things to the point, straight away and completely” (FGI-9: Agung, Year-6 student, 14/12/12).

In the teacher interviews, teachers also stressed that students should ask them since it is their job to be able to help students understand the learning content, and, if they understand student preferences for helpers, they could find a strategy for them to gain assistance from classmates (see discussion in section 4.1.1). However, they also
noticed that students were reluctant to ask for their help. In order to help students approach their teacher for academic help, teachers can use strategies such as reducing their negative perceptions about students. For teachers to be seen as potential helpers (help providers), a useful strategy is to be proactive, taking an active role by approaching students. Instead of leaving the class, teachers could use the time to walk around the class and ask students one by one if they require help (see discussion in section 4.4.3).

Newman (2000) suggests that students might decide whether to ask for academic help from their peers or their teachers based upon their perceptions of the cost-benefit. Younger students often approach teachers because teachers are nice (teacher traits) or because of the teacher’s competence. However, older students, such as the Year-6 students in this study, base their approaches on teacher willingness to help, their awareness of others’ problems and ability, and quality of advice and guidance (Barnett et al., 1982; Furman & Buhrmester, 1985).

In terms of the aims of this study the most important consideration is that students should be able to find an effective helper to overcome their academic difficulties, whether it is from a friend or a teacher. According to Newman (2006, p. 233), as adaptive help-seekers, students should be able to consider their situation and then find an appropriate person to help them. For example, students with difficulties in math might ask a friend who is good at math, rather than go to the teacher for a solution. Details about peer influence are discussed in Chapter 6.

To summarise, student preferences for choosing a helper depends on the perceived benefit and cost. Many students prefer asking for help from their friends because they feel more comfortable and do not have to lose face in front of their teachers. Students
were also more concerned about teacher perceptions of their ability or academic performance in the class than peer perceptions.

4.7 Summary

This chapter provided an overview of primary student academic help-seeking behaviour. Both students and teachers in this study perceived that asking for academic help was an important behaviour. However, in reality both teachers and students admitted that students did not ask for academic help when they needed it, especially from teachers, during the teaching and learning process.

Students employed different formal and informal approaches to academic help-seeking. However, this study found that students mainly preferred to approach their teacher outside of class, informally. Students in this study also preferred to ask for help for from their peers, rather than their teachers.

From the list of reasons that emerged from student and teacher interviews concerning why students were reluctant to ask for help, this study found this behaviour to be complex, involving many factors. This included teacher factors, the role of peers and parents and other external factors, as well as internal factors such as student skills and awareness.

This study also found that students preferred to ask for academic help from peers. The decision about whether to choose to ask a friend or teacher for help was mostly based on the benefit in relation to the cost of receiving help. However, finding an effective helper is an important step in performing academic help-seeking behaviour.
To better understand student academic help-seeking behaviour, the next chapter outlines the role of teachers on student academic help-seeking behaviour since their role is found to be the most important factor in this study.
Chapter 5 THE ROLE OF THE TEACHER IN STUDENT ACADEMIC HELP-SEEKING BEHAVIOUR

The previous chapter examined the nature of student academic help-seeking and included the themes that emerged from the teacher and student interviews, which were categorised according to external and internal factors. Findings indicate that the role of the teacher in student academic help-seeking behaviour was the most salient external factor. This chapter now addresses how teacher perceptions, beliefs and behaviours influence student academic help-seeking.

5.1 The significance of teachers

Teaching and learning are closely related, and teachers in the classroom play an important role that includes diverse roles, ranging from facilitating learning, assessing and evaluating student work, developing materials and curriculum (Crosby, 2000), to character building through caregiving, moral discipline and teaching values (Lickona, 1997). Teachers also need to be able to manage the classroom and organise instruction (Gencer & Cakiroglu, 2007). Teachers as learning facilitators therefore have the opportunity to influence student academic help-seeking behaviour.

This study found that teachers are significant in student academic help-seeking behaviour, a finding that is supported by previous studies (Butler, 2006; Le Mare & Sohbat, 2002; Oortwijn, Boekaerts, Vedder, & Strijbos, 2008). From the interviews and classroom observations conducted in this study, I found that teachers play key and important roles at every stage of student engagement in academic help-seeking.
Findings from the study, however, show that both teachers and students reported that teachers act to support or limit students in seeking academic help. Through a comprehensive process of reading and rereading, and data analysis, several themes and sub-themes related to the impact of teachers on student academic help-seeking emerged. These themes and sub-themes are teacher beliefs and perceptions; academic supportive behaviours, including how they support and respond to student questions; interpersonal characteristics; and teaching preparations and methods. The following discussion elaborates on these themes.

5.2 Teacher beliefs and perceptions

This sub-section investigates what teachers believe and how these beliefs affect their perception of the teaching process and student academic help-seeking behaviour. As discussed in Chapter 4, teachers in this study believed that student academic help-seeking is an important behaviour that every student must develop, indicating that, as educators, it is their obligation to encourage their students to engage with academic help-seeking behaviour. One participant stated, “Well, if we talked about obligation, then it is a must [to encourage help-seeking] … because it is a part of our obligation as a teacher to dig more for students’ understanding” (I-1: Nur Hamidah, Year 5 teacher, 31/10/12). Another participant remarked that teachers must encourage their students to ask questions; “Well, if the teacher cannot encourage their students to ask, then the student will [be] unlikely [to] ask questions” (I-20: Firdaus, Year-6 teacher, 14/12/12). However, several teachers also noticed that it is not easy for their students to ask for academic help. Below is one teacher’s opinion about this issue:

In my opinion, if we see the benefit, one, if these students haven’t understood yet, then they can gain more understanding. And then they will be braver [confident
to ask] because in order to make students ask for help is very difficult [for students] to ask a question is difficult (I-15: Mrs Santi, Year-4 teacher, 11/12/12).

Many researchers suggest that teacher beliefs about teaching and learning contribute to their perceptions about teaching practices, and these perceptions then influence their behaviours in the classroom (Judson, 2006; Pajares, 1992; Rimm-Kaufman & Sawyer, 2004). Thus, holding a belief that it is their obligation to promote help-seeking behaviour in the classroom should have encouraged teachers in this study to support their students to seek help.

Holding positive beliefs about student academic help-seeking, such as considering it important for student learning and an obligation for the teacher to promote it, however, is not enough to make students seek help. Such a belief has to be supported by the way teachers act in enhancing and supporting student behaviour in their daily teaching practices.

Most of the teachers in this study (95%) reported that they always give their students opportunities to ask for academic help during classroom activities. Some teachers added that they regularly remind their students that they do not mind being interrupted if the students have any questions (I-8: Muhidin, Year-6 teacher, 19/12/12; I-7: Mrs Irma, Year-6 teacher, 30/11/12). Moreover, many teachers expressed their own feelings towards student academic help-seeking, such as feeling happy when their students asked for help. One teacher recalled, “In fact teachers will [be] happy if the students raise questions. Yes [we are] happy to explain [again], to make it clear [for the students]” (I-21: Mr Hendra, Year-6 teacher, 14/12/12). Another teacher said, “When I was teaching and then a student asked questions, I felt very happy” (I-4: Mr Widodo, Year-6 teacher, 27/11/12).
Teachers also shared their opinions about the characteristics they believed a teacher should have in order to be able to enhance student academic help-seeking behaviour: teachers should have an “open mind” and be “willing to accept critiques” from their students (I-8: Muhidin, Year-6 teacher, 19/12/12); a teacher should accept a “noisy class” environment as long as the noisy activity is part of the learning processes (I-8: Muhidin, Year-6 teacher, 19/12/12); and, teachers should be willing to “spend a lot of time” explaining the material they are teaching (I-16: Mrs Lilis, Year-6 teacher, 11/12/12). Further, Mrs Lilis emphasised the importance of teachers involving students in the learning process. Another teacher responded that she accepted and even encouraged alternative ways for her students to engage in their own problem-solving, “There are many ways [to solve a problem] … and I also ask my students which one they can get [easily understand] … and they want [a solution that is acceptable to the student]” (I-6, Mrs Reni, Year-6 teacher, 30/11/12). She also encouraged her students to study from a variety of resources:

The learning sources are not just from the book. I always told them that. It could be from the news, bulletin, and newspaper and even from the internet. Try to click on Google. I said, you can search from there you can get what you want to know. Tomorrow you write it down and present the answers. For me, I guide them into that direction. Why? Because if they only count on the material from us … (I-6: Mrs Reni, Year-6 teacher, 30/11/12).

Teachers in this study recognised the importance of student academic help-seeking behaviour; they also gave their students opportunities to ask for help and encouraged them to ask questions. Thus, the teachers held a positive attitude towards student academic help-seeking. When teachers have a positive attitude, students are likely to adopt academic help-seeking as an adaptive behaviour in the teaching and learning process. Furthermore, researchers argue that teacher decisions are made according to their beliefs (Bandura, 1986; Rokeach, 1968), and that these beliefs affect their
behaviour in the classroom (Pajares, 1992). Some researchers argue that the beliefs teachers hold influence their perceptions and judgments, which, in turn, affect their behaviour in the classroom, or that understanding the belief structures of teachers and teacher candidates is essential to improving their professional preparation and teaching (Pajares, 1992).

The teachers in this study, however, admitted that they wondered why their students avoided seeking academic help when they knew they needed it. As one teacher shared, “I always give them opportunities [to ask for help], at the beginning, in the middle and also at the end of the class, still they keep silent. I got confused, is this because of the way I teach or …?” (I-2: Mr Emil, Year-6 teacher, 05/11/12). Therefore, in designing this study, it seemed necessary to hear student voices related to their academic help-seeking behaviour – how students perceived their teacher behaviours related to academic help-seeking is discussed later in this chapter.

Although teachers perceived that asking for academic help is important for their students, several attitudes and beliefs of teachers that might inhibit students from asking for help have also been identified. From the teacher interviews, I found that teachers often assumed that students had understood the material if they did not ask questions. One teacher stated, “Well, if they don’t ask, I assumed that they have understood the content” (I-17: Mrs Sari, Year-6 teacher, 10/12/12).

Teachers often expected that their students were able to seek academic help whenever they were given the opportunity. Those students who were self-confident and smart were more proactive in finding a solution to their problem. Asking for help from their
teacher was one of those solutions. However, students who did not feel so confident needed their teacher to encourage and help them to ask for academic help.

This study also found that teachers sometimes had different expectations for their students based on school status or student socioeconomic background. Some teachers reported that students in public regular (not excellent) schools would not ask questions, compared with students in private schools. The following statements are from teachers who teach in both public and private schools:

… but it’s hard for them [students from public schools] to be independent; they still need to be guided because these kids are difficult. Nah, I [also teach] in private schools, I can see the difference between them. And I can see that students in Primary School X … [there was a] big difference about independence in learning, very significant (I-2: Mr Emil, Year-6 teacher, 05/11/12).

… and yes, almost in every year, students in private schools were more active [than students in public schools] because of the family background and then the family condition including nutrition (I-6: Mrs Reni, Year-6 teacher, 30/11/12).

These teachers suggested that students in private (excellent) schools were more confident, smarter and better in many aspects than students in public schools. Most of the teachers also expected that students from higher socioeconomic backgrounds were more willing to engage in classroom learning, including asking for help when they needed it. On the other hand, teachers had lower expectations for students from low socioeconomic backgrounds. When a teacher has low expectations of their students, it is reflected in their behaviour in the classroom. For example, they tend to ignore their students, rarely respond to their questions, or only provide minimal explanations. This behaviour would certainly reduce the likelihood of students asking for academic help. Students would be disadvantaged and would not able to develop their skills in asking for help.
Although some teachers admitted that they might be inhibiting students from asking for academic help, I also noticed that some teachers perceived that the reason for this was the students themselves, and they seemed to blame their students for not actively engaging in classroom activity. This phenomenon was evident in the interviews when some teachers stated that, “Students were not ready” (I-19: Mrs Diana, Year-6 teacher, 24/12/12), “students were passive/quiet” (I-2: Mr Emil, Year-6 teacher, 05/11/12), and, “Students were not used to asking questions” (I-1: Mrs Nur Hamidah, Year 5 teacher, 31/10/12).

In summary, teachers in this study acknowledged that academic help-seeking is an important behaviour in student learning; however, they also recognised that it is hard for their students to ask for help, especially directly to the teacher. These teachers also thought that their students were not used to asking questions or seeking academic help in the classroom. Some teachers also had different expectations for their students, and this likely influenced their behaviour towards their students.

5.3 Teacher behaviour

This sub-section discusses teacher behaviour in the classroom that might act to support or inhibit student academic help-seeking behaviour. Teacher behaviours in school may or may not relate directly to student academic help-seeking behaviour. However, these behaviours were perceived by both students and teachers as important and having a role in whether or not students ask for academic help. This study found that the way teachers behave in general may impact on student academic help-seeking behaviour.
5.3.1 Encouragement

In order to encourage their students to ask for help, teachers explained the importance of academic help-seeking:

Yes, I explain to them … I stimulated them to ask. And one day I explained to them, ‘If no one has any questions, then let’s try to solve this problem’. I gave them some problems and then we discussed them, marked and found out that many students could not solve the problem. And then at that time I explained to them the importance of asking for help, do not be shy. I motivated them. And then next time when I explained [a lesson] these students started to ask for help … We need to be patient because they have just learned how to ask questions (I-16: Mrs Lilis, Year-6 teacher, 11/12/12).

One of the essential factors in developing student skills in asking for academic help is their awareness of their need for such help. Explaining the importance of seeking academic help when students need it can assist in motivating them to ask for help. According to Nelson Le Gall (1981), a learner must be able to identify the need for help when they encounter difficult tasks. These processes include meta cognitive functions such as assessing task difficulty, monitoring task progress, and evaluating one’s own comprehension and knowledge (Nelson-Le Gall, 1981; Newman, 1998; Ryan & Pintrich, 1998).

A significant teacher behaviour promoting academic help-seeking is when the teacher provides the opportunity for students to ask for help. Many teachers stated that they were always giving these opportunities:

During my explanations I always give them the opportunity to ask. I explain step by step. Are there any questions till now? And after I have finished my lesson I still give them the opportunity to ask. Is there something that you don’t understand, please ask any questions (I-8: Mr Muhidin, Year-6 teacher, 19/12/12).

Some teachers gave rewards to students who asked for help. “Yes, maybe if they have been given any rewards … reward such as a sign from colourful paper origami and saying ‘Clever’ … students will be very happy” (I-3: Mrs Indri, Year-6 teacher,
27/11/12). Another teacher used humour to trigger student questions, “I stimulate them with humour so that they will ask” (I-15: Mrs Santi, Year 4 teacher, 11/12/12).

Likewise, one of the teachers explained that giving examples close to daily life to make it easier to understand encouraged students to ask more questions:

In the learning content, we usually give some examples within daily life. If the subject is easy than we can explore more on our daily life and it is easier for them to relate it. Such as science and math, we can be more flexible. If we use examples from daily life it seems quicker for them. If the examples were close to them, usually there will be questions from them. However, we still must encourage them to ask due to their passivity. It’s because they do not understand or they may understand but are shy. We cannot possibly guess their mind (I-12: Mrs Novita, Year-6 teacher, 14/11/12).

This teacher recognised that giving examples close to student daily life helped them understand better. Students would thus learn meaningfully. According to Ausubel et al. (1968), for students to engage in meaningful learning the concepts involved must first be perceived as potentially meaningful and the students must actively attempt to relate what is known to substantive aspects of new concepts. Therefore, when students have the desire to relate concepts they will likely ask for help to bridge the gap.

Another important behaviour reported in the student interviews was that some teachers approached their students individually and asked them whether or not they had questions. One of the students admitted that it was easier for him to ask for help when his teachers frequently checked whether or not they had questions:

R: What kind of teacher do you think is easy to approach to ask?
S: Teacher that frequently asks their students
R: Oh, do you mean asking like, ‘Do you want to ask something?’
S: Yes (FGI-9: Yoga, Year-6 student, 14/12/12)

This finding concurs with the findings from the van Uden et al. study (2014) that shows student perceptions of teacher interpersonal behaviours, such as understanding,
helping and giving freedom to their students, is a predictor of, or enhances, student engagement in the classroom. Student engagement in this study included behavioural engagement and emotional engagement.

In summary, teachers in this study encouraged their students to actively engage in academic help-seeking behaviour by explaining its importance and giving them the opportunity to ask questions. Some used rewards and humour; others gave examples that related to student daily life. Another teacher was perceived as easier to approach because they approached the students individually to check on whether they had questions.

5.3.2 Discouragement

This study also found that some teacher behaviours undermined student academic help-seeking behaviour. One teacher reasoned that most of the students who did not ask for academic help were reluctant to ask because teachers dominated activities in the class, “It’s because [teachers were] very dominant, and that’s how I see it. Teachers were still very dominant” (I-2: Mr Emil, Year-6 teacher, 05/11/12). Another teacher remarked, “Well, still in the old style, using the old methods. I haven’t … I am still using the old model; I haven’t changed” (I-5: Mr Mustafa, Year-6 teacher, 28/11/12). For another it was because teachers still do not know the appropriate method, “We do not know what methods that we will use … Therefore, the learning processes go back to discussion and the lectures again” (I-12: Mrs Novita, Year-6 teacher, 10/12/12).

Sometimes teachers explained the learning material too fast or used language that was difficult for the students to understand. For example:
… because they need it [to ask] maybe … maybe I explained too fast or they have not understood the content yet (I-6: Mrs Reni, Year-6 teacher, 30/11/12).
That’s true, so sometimes the level of language that we use does not meet with the children’s level. Not all kids can understand/absorb what we have explained as we expected (I-8: Mr Muhidin, Year-6 teacher, 19/12/12).

Similarly, students also viewed that teaching methods influenced their academic help-seeking behaviour as noted by one student who felt that her teacher did not teach them appropriately:

… for us in Year 6, we were no longer needing to draw pictures in solving a problem, and the most important thing is to go deeper in [understanding] the learning material (FGI-1: Ulfa, Year-6 student, 19/11/12).

Another student stressed teachers using inappropriate language for their students, “And then she said, ‘You gave me a hard time’. I don’t think that’s appropriate language to address your students, using harsh words” (FGI-1: Ulfa, Year-6 student, 19/11/12). Teacher favouritism was another student’s problem, “Mrs Diana is a stern person, but sometimes she shows favouritism, such as with Roni. Although she said that she did not have favourites, you cannot lie about that with kids” (FGI-1: Aditya, Year-6 student, 19/11/12).

Many students were concerned about teachers who often left the classroom for their administration tasks. One student said, “When we were studying she often leaves the classroom so that we were left behind.” Another student stated that teachers were busy with their own tasks, “Sometimes we have been asked to come forward. Sometimes we were ignored; she concentrated on her work and her laptop” (FGI-2: Eni, Year-6 student, 19/11/12). Students also noticed that their teacher sometimes ignored them when they asked questions:

[She was] too ignorant. I feel that she always treats me like that, I don’t know about the others. Well, not always but if I ask something to her I feel like I was not respected, she did not answer [my questions] and she only said that she will
Some of the students felt that their teachers sometimes used inappropriate words or language. As one of the students stated in the interviews, “When my friend answered her question … she got angry because [the formula] is not right, and she said, ‘You are so annoying’ … The language that she used is not appropriate, how can she say something like that to her students?” (FGI-1: Ulfa, Year-6 student, 19/11/12). In a different school, I also observed the teacher using ‘bad words’ to address her students in the classroom in front of their peers (C-Ob: School B, 16/11/12). This kind of behaviour was noticed by students, and would likely undermine their academic help-seeking behaviour.

During my classroom observations it was also the case that while some teachers gave their students opportunities to ask for help they often moved onto the next topic too quickly (C-Ob: School G, 13/11/12; C-Ob: School F, 26/11/12). Teachers did not give enough time for their students to formulate a question and ask it. Students are unlikely to ask for help under this situation – they might think that their teacher did not really mean it when offering the opportunity.

A consequence of some teacher behaviour I noticed during classroom observations that would also likely undermine student academic help-seeking was the stress placed on passing the National Examination. Often during classroom observations teachers emphasised passing the National Examination, and at times this seemed excessive. One teacher said in front of the class that they did not have enough time to cover all of the content for the NE. She kept saying that her students had fallen behind and needed to catch up (C-Ob: School G, 13/11/12). Later, during the teacher interviews, I found that many teachers crammed the learning material of two semesters into the first
semester. They used the second semester to drill their students with weekly exams as practice for the NE. Schools B, D, F and G used this practice (see table 3.1). In School A, teachers had additional time before and after school to prepare their students for the NE. Both students and teachers felt extreme pressure to pass the exam in those schools that crammed the curriculum into one semester. Teachers needed to cover all the learning material in one semester and therefore often neglected or ignored the needs of the students to learn meaningfully and develop their academic help-seeking skills.

In summary, even though some teachers in this study promoted student academic help-seeking behaviour in the classroom their behaviours inadvertently discouraged students from asking for academic help. Students perceived discouragement from their teachers, which then undermined their engagement in seeking academic help.

5.4 Teacher responses to student academic help-seeking

Previous studies mention that teachers have significant roles in student academic help-seeking (Butler, 2006; Le Mare & Sohbat, 2002; Oortwijn et al., 2008). One of the important roles that emerged in this current study was teacher support and responses to student questions. This is consistent with other studies that have also found this to be important (Karabenick & Sharma, 1994; Kozanitis et al., 2007). Similarly, teacher characteristics were another essential factor found in this current study; as identified by Le Mare and Sohbat (2002). The following sub-sections elaborate on these roles, responses, and characteristics.

5.4.1 Teacher positive responses

Teachers in this study believe that their responses to questions promote student academic help-seeking behaviour. During interviews teachers revealed that they were
concerned with answering their students correctly and were also willing to answer questions that were off the topic.

Students noted in their interviews that when their teachers provided a good answer to their questions they would most likely ask more questions, “Because the explanation is clear so that we can understand easily” (FGI-1: Evi, 19/11/12). Furthermore, students valued a teacher who was always willing to answer their questions seriously, “Because he [always] answered students’ questions without being angry; seriously and not just joking” (FGI-2: Rio, 19/11/12). Students also noted that teachers who responded with respect were favoured, “If we ask something she respects our questions” (FGI-1: Aditya, 19/11/12). Moreover, students liked it when their teacher re-explained slowly when they did not understand, making sure that they comprehended the content and the principles (FGI-2: Rio, 19/11/12).

5.4.2 Teacher negative responses

The teachers also admitted that sometimes they gave negative responses to student questions that discouraged them from asking for academic help:

One of the reasons is because students were shy and the second was, because there were some teachers when their students ask [for help], they did not respond. For example, ‘Here are the answers, just read in the book’ (I-6: Mrs Reni, Year-6 teacher, 30/11/12).

Another teacher mentioned that teachers often asked their students a question after they explained something, which would also likely discourage their students from asking again in the future. She said, “Maybe they were afraid, if they ask a question and then we explain, and after that we question them back” (I-12: Mrs Novita, Year-6 teacher, 10/12/12).
Another teacher suggested that students worried about being ridiculed by their teachers (I-2: Mr Emil, Year-6 teacher, 05/11/12). One teacher confessed that she would not answer students who asked direct questions – students might perceive this as their teacher refusing to help them (I-16: Mrs Lilis, Year-6 teacher, 11/12/12). Sometimes, however, the teacher did not answer the question because they did not know the answer:

However, if I cannot answer their questions, I will explain that to them that unfortunately I haven’t read that matter and it will be my homework and tomorrow morning I will give you the answers ... We need to do a little bit to ‘dodge’ from the students but we also need to give them a certainty that they will get the explanation from their teacher (I-6: Mrs Reni, Year-6 teacher, 30/11/12).

Students noted that some teachers gave them negative responses when they had difficulty, which made them reluctant to seek academic help at the time. Some students were concerned about the teacher’s perception of their academic help-seeking. Some students perceived that their teacher did not like them asking questions because they kept asking the same question over again (FGI-9: Year-6 students, 14/12/12). Others felt that their teachers got annoyed by their questions (FGI-1: Year-6 students, 19/11/12) or their teacher did not like being interrupted (FGI-1: Year-6 students, 19/11/12). Another student confessed that she did not ask her teacher because she was afraid of being scolded or being dioero³ (punished/pinched) (FGI-3: Indra, Year-6 student, 19/11/12).

When asked about how teachers answer their questions one student replied, “Well, yes sometimes when I want to ask the teacher … she said to me, ‘You can find it in your book, you should be able to do it by yourself’” (FGI-2: Lisda, 19/11/12). Another participant explained that the teacher’s explanations were sometimes unclear,

---

³ dioero = Indonesian slank word for being pinched
“Sometimes [the explanations] made us dizzy [frustrated]” (FGI-1 and FGI-6: Ulfa, Fani, 19/11/12). One participant said that he was afraid of being laughed at: “Because if I were mistaken [I was afraid of] … laughing” (FGI-4: Gunawan, 10/12/12). Several students worried that their teacher would be angry if they asked questions (FGI-1: Ulfa, 19/11/12). Another student complained that their teacher made fun of their questions, such as, “So that when I want to ask something he makes a joke and then I forgot what I wanted to ask” (FGI-9/10: Arif, 14/12/12).

Students in this study expressed concern about the benefit and cost of asking for help from their teachers. A study by Newman and Schwager (1993) found that unsupportive comments such as those found in this study (e.g., “You can find it in your book, you should be able to do it by yourself”) tend to increase perceived costs for students (Newman & Schwager, 1993; van der Meij, 1988). Inhibitions to seek academic help are then exacerbated when students feel that their teachers are unwilling to help (van der Meij, 1988).

Some students also recognised don’t disturb me messages from their teachers. Students shared that sometimes they wanted to ask for academic help; however, they saw that their teacher was busy at their desk and did not want to be disturbed, and the students were reluctant to ask for academic help under such circumstances, “Sometimes we have been asked to come forward. Sometimes we were ignored; she [just] concentrated on her work and her laptop (FGI-2: Eni, 19/11/12). Students interpreted these kinds of messages as teachers not wanting to be interrupted by questions. A study by Babad et al. (1991) explains that students are able to detect teacher non-verbal behaviour (teacher immediacy) and recognise whether or not their teacher truly cares about their students. Richmond (2002) indicates that teacher immediacy behaviours can be of
benefit to the teacher in gaining their students’ trust by showing that they are competent and that they care. When teachers gain students’ trust their students are more likely to feel comfortable asking for academic help and engaging more in the learning process.

Teacher behaviour, both verbal and non-verbal, was found to influence student academic help-seeking. The way teachers responded to student questions was important in enhancing student academic help-seeking behaviour. These findings align with findings from Karabenick and Sharma (1994) that show teacher support of college students’ questions influences the way in which students formulate questions. Similarly, a study on undergraduate students by Kozanitis et al. (2007) shows that teacher support and responses directly determine student instrumental help-seeking approaches. Both of these studies were conducted using quantitative approaches. The research described in my study also captured student voices and thus provides rich exemplars and deeper understanding of student perceptions of their teacher responses to their academic help-seeking needs.

5.4.3 Teacher responses related to student academic help-seeking

The survey examined how student perceptions about teacher responses to student questions relate to student academic help-seeking behaviour. The results from the survey and the correlation between student perceptions and their intention to ask for academic help from their teacher in the classroom are discussed below.

The questionnaire on student perceptions of teacher responses to student questions consisted of 10 items: giving a complete answer (TC1), giving attention (TC2), giving praising to student questions (TC3), do not mind being interrupted (TC4-R), giving
appropriate time to answer student questions (TC5), giving necessary answer (TC6-R), feeling happy to answer (TC7), time provided to answer (TC8-R), perceived that questions are important (TC9) and do not mind if students raise too many questions (TC10-R). Table 5.1 reports the mean and SD for each item from the survey.

**Table 5.1 Mean and standard deviation of teacher responses**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TC1</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>336</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TC2</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>336</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TC10-R</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>337</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TC5</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>335</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TC7</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>337</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TC9</td>
<td>3.11</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>335</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TC8-R</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>336</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TC3</td>
<td>2.74</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>336</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TC6-R</td>
<td>2.54</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>334</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TC4-R</td>
<td>2.18</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>337</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: a) Means were ranked from highest to lowest. b) The students were asked to rank teacher responses in a four-point scale: 1 = not true at all; 2 = not true; 3 = true; 4 = very true c) A repeated measures ANOVA was used on the above means, $F(9, 2934) = 77.41, p < 0.01$

Table 5.1 shows that TC1 was rated the highest (3.35), and TC2, TC10-R, TC5, TC7 and TC9 were also rated higher than 3 (true), while TC8-R, TC3, and TC6-R were rated lower than 3 with TC4-R the lowest (2.18).

Table 5.2 presents the percentages of student perceptions on teacher responses to student questions.
Table 5.2 Percentages of Items on teacher response

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TC1</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>8.63</td>
<td>38.39</td>
<td>49.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TC2</td>
<td>2.38</td>
<td>9.23</td>
<td>47.32</td>
<td>41.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TC10-R</td>
<td>5.94</td>
<td>15.13</td>
<td>37.09</td>
<td>41.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TC5</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>10.45</td>
<td>51.94</td>
<td>33.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TC7</td>
<td>4.45</td>
<td>11.57</td>
<td>48.96</td>
<td>35.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TC9</td>
<td>5.07</td>
<td>9.56</td>
<td>54.92</td>
<td>30.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TC8-R</td>
<td>9.23</td>
<td>21.43</td>
<td>41.96</td>
<td>27.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TC3</td>
<td>8.93</td>
<td>24.12</td>
<td>50.59</td>
<td>15.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TC6-R</td>
<td>13.36</td>
<td>37.34</td>
<td>35.19</td>
<td>11.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TC4-R</td>
<td>26.11</td>
<td>38.88</td>
<td>25.82</td>
<td>9.19</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: a) $N = 337$ b) 1 = not true at all; 2 = not true; 3 = true; 4 = very true

By aggregating “true” and “very true”, and “not true” and “not true at all”, it can be seen that 88.1% of students reported TC1 as true or very true and 11.9% as not true. For TC2, 88.39% of students reported that it was true or very true, and the remaining 11.61% reported that it was not true. There were 78.93% of students who reported that TC10-R was true and the other 21.07% reported that it was not true. TC5 had 286 students (85.37%) agreeing and the other 49 students (14.63%) stating that it was not true. For TC7, 84.98% of students reported that it was true and the other 16.02% reported that it was not true or not very true. For TC9, 286 students (85.37%) reported that it was true or very true and the remaining 49 (14.63 %) reported that it was not true. For TC8-R, 233 students (69.34%) agreed with the statement and the remaining 103 students (30.66%) disagreed. There were 66.95% of students who reported that TC3 was true and the other 33.05% reported that it was not true. Table 5.2 also shows that for TC6-R 174 students disagreed (51.6%) and 47.4 % students agreed. Finally, for TC4-R, 65% students disagreed with the statement while 38.9% students agreed with the statement.
Positive perceptions of teacher support and responses to student questions can be seen in Table 5.3, which shows the total mean and SD of teacher responses to student questions.

**Table 5.3** Total mean and standard deviation of teacher responses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Responses</td>
<td>2.97</td>
<td>.38</td>
<td>327</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From Tables 5.1, 5.2 and 5.3 it can be concluded that students in this study perceived that their teachers were supportive and responded well to their questions.

Correlation found that the teacher responses and student intention to ask for academic help was significantly correlated, $r = 0.27, p < 0.01$.

![Figure 5.1](image.png)

**Figure 5.1** Scatter plot between teacher responses and academic help-seeking

Figure 5.1 shows a positive correlation between student academic help-seeking and perceptions of teacher support and responses to student questions. This positive correlation means that when students perceived that their teachers would likely support
and give positive responses to their questions, their intention to seek academic help would increase.

The quantitative data show that when the students perceived that their teachers were likely to give positive responses to their questions, such as giving complete answers, paying attention and not minding interruption, the students were likely to ask for academic help when required. These findings concur with the student interviews, where they said they were likely to approach teachers who would give supportive or positive responses to their questions (see section 5.1.3 and also section 5.5).

Despite students perceiving that their teachers were supportive, however, they were still reluctant to seek academic help from their teachers. Therefore, factors other than teacher support contributing to academic help-seeking behaviour need to be considered. Such factors include classroom structure and student internal factors. Research shows that when classrooms are perceived as competitive students are unlikely to ask for academic help from the teachers (Ryan & Pintrich. 1997).

Further investigation was conducted to analyse the mean difference of student academic help-seeking for each teacher support item. Table 5.4 shows that except for TC8-R, TC6-R and TC4-R, all items were significantly different in academic help-seeking. For example, for TC1 (giving a complete answer), the quality the response to student questions was perceived as significantly different and influenced student willingness to ask for academic help, while for TC8-R (time provided to answer student questions), the amount of time provided did not influence the decision to ask for academic help.
The means of TC6-R (giving necessary answer), and TC4-R (do not mind being interrupted) show that whether or not the teacher gives the necessary answers or whether they mind being interrupted or not, did not influence the decision to avoid seeking academic help. Students perceived that they should ask for academic help despite their teachers not giving necessary answers or minding being interrupted. These findings suggest that some students might see that the teacher is a potential helper since they have an obligation to help students to understand the learning material. These findings were confirmed the findings from the student interviews.

In summary, this study found that when teachers were perceived as supportive and likely to give positive responses, students intended to ask for academic help from them. This finding was similar to the study from Karabenick and Sharma (1994) who found positive correlations between student academic help-seeking and perceived teacher support to student questions.
5.5 Teacher characteristics

Another important factor that emerged from this study was teacher characteristics. Both teachers and students identified teacher characteristics that might encourage or discourage student academic help-seeking behaviour. Previous studies have shown that teacher personality is one of the factors that contribute to student academic help-seeking behaviour (Le Mare & Sohbat, 2002).

Teachers were asked about the kind of characteristics that might relate to student academic help-seeking. Answers fell into two categories – professional or academic, and personal characteristics. The characteristics that teachers felt were necessary to academic help-seeking behaviour were patience, wisdom, and caring. The professional or academic characteristics mentioned were enjoyment of teaching, a focus on teaching, good knowledge of the material as well as student character. One teacher mentioned the ability to encourage mastery learning rather than achieving the curriculum target.

Teachers also thought that some of their characteristics might hinder academic help-seeking behaviour, such as having a fierce reputation that made students afraid of them. Other traits, such as being undemocratic or having no passion for teaching, were perceived as professional characteristics that inhibited academic help-seeking. Not smiling and being unfriendly with students, or using a loud voice were also perceived as inhibitors.

Similar to the answers from teachers, students were also concerned about teachers making themselves easy or difficult to approach. Teacher characteristics that most students viewed as being easy to approach were that they were nice, clever,
understanding, friendly and caring. One student stated that having a close relationship with their students is important for their teacher, as is smiling and being humorous in class. Most students perceived that a teacher who was relaxed and not too formal was easy to approach, and a patient teacher helped them be comfortable. Some students identified that being firm, thorough and having a broad knowledge were important characteristics. Another student mentioned that being given the opportunity to ask was experienced as encouragement to ask for help. One student stressed that having access to senior teachers with more capability and experience was important:

For example, if this teacher’s age is 21-years-old than their experience is only a little. That will be different from the teacher that is older with much more experience (FGI-10: Ridwan, 14/12/12).

Characteristics such as being a tough and stern teacher, or making fun of questions and being scary, was seen to undermine student academic help-seeking behaviour. Furthermore, some students said that teachers demonstrating ignorance, lacking communication skills and having a loud voice, would inhibit them from asking for academic help. Often students felt that their teachers did not appreciate their questions, “My teacher ignored my questions, I feel that she did not appreciate me” (FGI-1: Ahmad, 19/11/12). Another student seemed to have a sense that her teacher was always busy with herself, such as leaving the class or doing her own tasks, “Mrs Diana often leaves our class for a workshop, or is busy with her own tasks in her desk” (FGI-1; Evi, 19/11/12).

Interestingly, students were concerned about teacher favouritism; however, none of the teachers in this study identified this trait. Students felt that they were being treated unequally in the classroom, and that teachers only responded to their favourite students. This attitude and behaviour certainly undermined some student intentions to
approach their teacher when they needed help with their learning. Since none of the teachers mentioned teacher favouritism, it seems that teachers were unintentionally showing this in the classroom.

Results from the study indicate that students asking for academic help from their teachers depend upon the teacher characteristics. Some of the results in this study were similar to results from Le Mare and Sohbat (2002), who identify 10 categories of teacher characteristics that students perceive – willingness, competence, reaction to self and others, expectations, global personality, relationship with children, predictability, mood, familiarity and the teacher gender. My study identified seven categories – willingness (“my teacher ignores my questions”), competence (“broad knowledge”), reaction to self and others (“makes fun of my questions”), expectations (“you can find it on your book”), global personality (“nice, patient, tough, stern”), relationship with children (“lack of communication, close to students”) and teacher’s mood (“bad mood”). However, my study also identified that the age of the teacher is an important factor for some students. Some students perceived that the more senior their teacher, the more capable they are of teaching and providing answers to questions.

Previous studies have found that friendly and caring teachers are described as having open lines of communication, and as demonstrating democratic interaction styles (Wentzel, 1998). During teaching and learning activities, these teachers tend to pay attention, listen, ask questions, inquire if students need help, make sure students understand difficult material, and provide help in non-threatening ways (Wentzel, 1998). When students experience this type of relationship, they learn that teachers are effective and trustworthy helpers.
Based on the findings above it is critical for teachers to avoid behaviour that might be interpreted by their students as being indifferent or disrespectful towards them. Teachers should build good relationships with their students, and communication, including mindfulness of body language as a critical component in this process. A student makes the decision to ask for academic help from their teachers based on their perception of how the teacher will respond to the request. In seeking academic help students undertake a form of cost-benefit analysis. If their perception is that their teacher will be indifferent to the request or not provide them with the caring support they need, they will be unlikely to proactively engage in academic help-seeking from their teacher.

Van Uden et al. (2014) and Muller (2001) suggest that students who are trying to do their best are more likely to build a positive relationship with their teachers than students who do not show interest in school. This means that the already disengaged students, those who are most in need of positive relationships with their teachers, are also less apt to be liked by their teachers (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009). Interested and caring teachers who try to establish positive relationships with their students could make the difference for students at risk (Allen, Pianta, Gregory, Mikami, & Lun, 2011; Jennings & Greenberg, 2009).

According to Newman and Schwager (1993) the student-teacher relationship is one of the determining factors that influence whether or not students ask for academic help from their teachers. They suggest that developing a personal relationship and encouraging asking for help can enhance student academic help-seeking behaviour; however, they also note that a personal relationship impacts more on younger students
(Year 3) and encouragement of questioning affects older students more (Year 5 and 7).

In summary, teachers potentially influence academic help-seeking through building personal relationships that make their students confident they can rely on the teacher for assistance. However, concerns about potential costs in doing so, such as embarrassment, can have a strong inhibiting effect on help-seeking, especially among older children (Newman, 2000).

5.6 Teacher preparation and teaching methods

This section focuses on how teacher preparation and teaching methods are linked to student academic help-seeking behaviour in the classroom. This study found that how well teachers have prepared their lesson plan before teaching and the choice of teaching methods can influence student academic help-seeking behaviour in the classroom. In elaborating on this, discussion is focused on how teachers perceived the importance of lesson planning and the choice of teaching methods.

5.6.1 Teacher preparation

When teachers were asked what the most important component of the teaching process that might impact on student academic help-seeking behaviour was, many stated teacher preparation or the lesson plan. Preparation included lesson plans, the syllabus, learning materials, evaluation sheets and student activities, as well as monthly and daily plans (I-20: Mr Firdaus, Year-6 teacher, 14/12/12). Teachers admitted that if they were well prepared before teaching, they would be able to encourage their students to engage in the learning process, including asking for academic help. One teacher said that well preparedness motivated her to teach her students well:
It really depends on our preparation, if we were ready with all the instruments and we will also be motivated to encourage our children to be more active (I-1: Mrs Nur Hamidah, Year 5 teacher, 31/10/12).

Another remarked, “It depends ... if we have preparation, then we will do that [promote students to engage actively], if we do not have any preparation then [we just] lecture” (I-1: Mrs Nur Hamidah, Year 5 teacher, 31/10/12). Another teacher admitted, “We need to have very good [teaching] preparation before [we teach]” (I-5: Mr Mustafa, Year-6 teacher, 28/11/12). For another teacher, the lesson plan would help her follow the steps of the teaching method easily, “If we use RPP [a lesson plan], it will help me to follow easily each step for the next meeting tomorrow” (I-7: Mrs Irma, Year-6 teacher, 30/11/12). One teacher explained how she made lesson plans for the whole semester, and that it helped her teaching:

I don’t think there is a problem if we have a good [teaching] preparation. For me, I have prepared a semester plan before the school starts; we have prepared it during school break. We usually have the program ready, we have the whole lesson plans and we have divided them monthly. For a month or a week, we can see it; we have made it so all we have to do just have a look at it and we can also see the guidelines. We just need to develop more, so in my opinion this is not too difficult because we have prepared the semester plan (I-16: Mrs Lilis, Year-6 teacher, 11/12/12).

This finding suggests that teachers in this study had good knowledge about the importance of the lesson plan in helping them to teach effectively. They also acknowledged that when they were well prepared they would likely be able to enhance student engagement in the classroom, including academic help-seeking behaviour. Ideally, teachers in this study prepared a lesson plan before they taught.

In contrast to ideal intentions, however, it was also found that many teachers confessed they generally did not prepare their lesson plan well enough. These teachers identified obstacles that hindered them from preparing lesson plans. Some said it was because of their workload, including administrative tasks and academic tasks; others commented
that Year-6 teachers needed to teach all subjects (math, language, science and social
science, civic and local culture) and they have difficulties with mastery and
preparation:

Indeed if we were about to teach we need to prepare the whole preparation for
more than six [subjects] then we might not get to sleep all night. (I-20: Mr
Firdaus, Year-6 teacher, 14/12/12).

For that we indeed did not have any variation [in teaching method], if we want to
[have variation] we need to prepare everything before. But here [in this school],
many teachers just teach like that as you can see, most of them [did not have a
proper preparation] (I-5: Mr Mustafa, Year-6 teacher, 28/11/12).

One teacher admitted that she and many other teachers would prepare a lesson plan
and use a variety of teaching methods when they were being monitored by the school
principal or supervisors from the MoE (I-1: Mrs Nur Hamidah, Year 5 teacher,
31/10/12). According to her, this classroom supervision was held once a year by the
MoE. Below is the conversation about how she prepared her class before the
supervision took place:

… and because there was a supervisor [who monitored us] all of us were very
enthusiastic … And I have told them if we have a supervisor in our class you
must not just sit quietly; you must ask something even though you do not know
anything … And then that’s what happened when we have a supervisor and the
principal in our classroom (I-1: Mrs Nur Hamidah, Year 5 teacher, 31/10/12).

Further, she explained that she would pick learning material that she had taught before:

… yes, the students have learnt the material and therefore they can grab it easily.
If I choose something new then the students will know nothing about it because
they have not read it yet and they will look dumb. Since I have explained the
content to them, I was confident to teach in front of the supervisor. Without any
supervisor [in the classroom], I would never know what will happen, let’s just
wait and see (I-1: Mrs Nur Hamidah, Year 5 teacher, 31/10/12).

A finding from one of the classroom observations confirmed this finding. In School B,
during the classroom observation I noticed that the teacher was busy at her desk with
some learning material while her students did a math assignment (C-Ob day 2: School
B, 21/11/12). When I asked her whether I could extend the classroom observation, she
apologised and refused because she needed to concentrate on her teaching preparation. She said that since her school principal was supervising her the following day, she needed to prepare different learning materials.

During the interviews I also found that some teachers were teaching in two different schools, which was not optimal for lesson preparation:

So, since I teach double [in two schools], inevitably my concentration is split, because [both of them] need preparation. For example, I wanted to use in focus so I must prepare the material and everything … and that will take time, so if in the morning I was [teaching] here and then in the afternoon I have to be there [other school], I feel tired (I-5: Mr Mustafa, 28/11/12).

However, other teachers stated that they did not have any problems managing their time between two schools (I-5: Mrs Reni, Year-6 teacher, 30/11/12; I-7: Mrs Irma, Year-6 teacher, 30/11/12; I-8: Mr Muhidin, Year-6 teacher, 19/12/12).

These situations (the lack of teaching preparation and preparing only for the scrutiny of supervisors) tend to lead these teachers to use traditional approaches, in which teachers dominate the class and give little opportunity for students to act, including asking for academic help when they need it.

In conclusion, these findings suggest that a lack teaching preparation will likely lead to ineffective teaching and learning in the classroom. Teachers tend to use the traditional approach, creating a situation in which students will remain passive in the class and avoid seeking academic help. Consequently, without good preparation teachers were unable to develop their teaching methods and failed to encourage their students to engage with academic help-seeking behaviour.
5.6.2 Teaching methods/activity structures

Teachers generally employ different types of teaching methods and activity structures, for example, individual, whole-class, and small-group instruction. Each type of teaching method has its own set of rules and expectations – both explicit and implicit – regarding instruction, classroom management, student-teacher interaction, and communication among students (Newman, 2000). Each set of rules relates to how students engage with academic help-seeking behaviour in the classroom.

In this study student academic help-seeking was found to relate to the choice of method the teacher used during teaching and learning activities. Several teachers identified teaching methods that might enhance or inhibit student academic help-seeking behaviour in the classroom.

Most teachers agreed that lecturing was the type of teaching method that undermined student academic help-seeking behaviour the most. Teachers stated that it was “boring”, “unattractive”, “old fashioned” and made their students passive (I-6: Mrs Reni, Year-6 teacher, 30/11/12; I-4: Mr Widodo, Year-6 teacher, 27/11/12; I-1: Mrs Nur Hamidah, Year 5 teacher, 31/10/12). However, even though they labelled this teaching method negatively, they admitted that they still used it. One teacher said, “Well, still in the old style, using the old methods. I haven’t [changed] … I am still using the old model; I haven’t changed, haven’t entirely changed” (I-5: Mr Mustafa, Year-6 teacher, 28/11/12). Another teacher stated that she had tried to use different kinds of strategies besides lecturing; however, she found it hard to apply and she felt trapped and back to the old paradigm approaches (teacher-centred), “… because these children are not equal in terms of their ability to explore and absorb knowledge. So,
eventually we got stuck again lecturing them … lack of feedback from them …” (I-19: Mrs Diana, Year-6 teacher, 24/12/12).

Another teacher expressed a similar experience:

From us [teachers], if we cannot understand the learning content, the material, what the material is; then it will be hard for us. And also the methods, we do not know what methods that we will use; how can we engage with them [the material and the methods]. Therefore, the learning processes back to discussion and the lecturing, lecturing again, do the task in LKS [Lembar Kerja Siswa/student work sheet] and that’s it (I-12: Mrs Novita, Year-6 teacher, 10/12/12).

In one of the interviews, a teacher shared that when students do not ask questions, he did not have enough challenges:

… for example, I teach in primary school, I could teach them with my eyes closed since [no students] ask. So for us, teachers in primary schools, no need to read since there’s no challenges [from the students] (I-2: Mr Emil, Year-6 teacher, 05/11/12)

Further, he explained that it was hard for him to change the way he teaches:

Because it is not as easy as turning your palm around ... moreover for teachers who have taught for more than 30 years, it is hard [to change] … [We are] afraid that it won’t work. We have felt confidence using this method; it has been successful since Dutch [colonialism] era, for many years … there’s no [guarantee] (I-2: Mr Emil, Year-6 teacher, 05/11/12).

Another teacher confirmed this finding, stating that many senior teachers were reluctant to change the way they teach, with many using teacher-centred approaches in the class (I-20: Mr Firdaus, Year-6 teacher, 14/12/12). Furthermore, Mr Teja remarked that he teaches his students the way he was taught by his teacher, “Yes Bu, I applied what I received when I was in teacher preparation school. It was Mr Sujono, who teaches very excellent, no one gets sleepy and no one chats to each other. If they wanted to chat, they better do it outside the class … and it works every time”. He explained that his teacher would ask his students one by one sequentially from the last row of the class, and that helped students memorise the content of the lesson.
In further discussion, teachers noted that in order to enhance student academic help-seeking behaviour in the classroom they needed to use varied methods. One of the teachers admitted that when she used a variety of methods she found that students engaged in the learning activities better:

… method is a way or a tool that teachers use to motivate the students in order to achieve the goal of that method. In fact in the teaching and learning processes we use a variety of methods such as lecturing, questions and answers and others. And we also need to consider the way our students grab the material differently. Some [grab the knowledge] with audio … Others may use visual or motor; that will automatically differ from each other. Therefore we need to use a different kinds of methods so that our students will be motivated to absorb the content maximally (I-6: Mrs Reni, Year-6 teacher, 30/11/12).

Lecturing can be classified as whole-class activity with the teachers presenting new lessons to the entire class. Lecturing commonly sees the teachers asking questions rather than students (Cazden & Beck, 2003). This leads to a high social comparison and potential embarrassment that is likely to prevent students asking questions or for academic help (Dillon, 1988; Karabenick & Knapp, 1988).

When teachers were asked what kind of teaching methods would likely enhance student academic help-seeking behaviour in the classroom, most agreed that discussion and experimental approaches were best. They found that when they used these methods students engaged actively in the learning process: “I can see that these students were more enthusiastic … they were active [discussing] in their group and asked [each other]” (I-1: Mrs Nur Hamidah, Year 5 teacher, 31/10/12). Another teacher could see that his students were more dynamic in the classroom during group discussion (I-2: Mr Emil, Year-6 teacher, 05/11/12). Unfortunately, these teachers rarely used this discussion method because it took too long and teachers did not have much time to complete the curriculum (I-2: Mr Emil, Year-6 teacher, 05/11/12; I-9: Mr Teja, Year-6 teacher, 19/12/12; I-12: Mrs Novita, Year-6 teacher, 10/12/12). “If I
still have enough time and was not being rushed for the National Exam and then I will likely use the discussion method”. Other teachers stated that the discussion method was only appropriate for smart students because often they found that it was only these students who worked for the whole group (I-13; Mrs Munawarah, Year 5 teacher, 10/12/12; I-14: Mrs Hana, Year 3 teacher, 10/12/12).

Teachers usually used the experimental method in science class. They admitted that students were excited doing experiments where they could observe the results. Teachers usually gathered the students into several groups and they had to work together in that group. Teachers also found that since the learning content was close to their daily life (e.g., observing decomposition of food) students were more motivated in learning and thus more engaged in academic help-seeking (I-3: Mrs Indri, Year-6 teacher, 27/11/12; I-6: Mrs Reni, Year-6 teacher, 30/11/12; I-12; Mrs Novita, Year-6 teacher, 10/12/12). Moreover, Mrs Indri added that during the experimental project a lot of her students made comments and asked her a lot of questions (I-3: Mrs Indri, Year-6 teacher, 27/11/12).

In group work, students can interact with each other by requesting and giving help (Nelson-Le Gall, 1995; Webb & Palinscar, 1996). Previous studies show that students working in small groups are more likely to seek academic help from their peers as well as from their teacher (Nelson-Le Gall & Glor-Scheib, 1985; Newman, 1991). This is because group work activity may reduce social comparisons – students did not have to perform in front of the whole class. These students might perceive fewer inhibitors and be more eager to ask for academic help (Johnson, Johnson, Stanne, & Garibaldi, 1990; Roseth, Johnson, & Johnson, 2008).
Other teaching methods used in this study to promote student academic help-seeking behaviour were the peer-tutorial and snowball methods. A Year-6 teacher in School A found that with peer-tutorials she could stimulate student academic help-seeking behaviour, especially from peers, and she also benefitted:

Sometimes I use a peer tutorial method. So, the students who have capability as a tutor will teach their friends. So, I will pick the smart ones and I can get help from them. For example, when I have to go to a workshop; I will give an assignment. Those smart students whom I believe have understood [the content], I ask them to help me help other friends that [are] having academic difficulties (I-16: Mrs Lilis, Year-6 teacher, 11/12/12).

She noted that since her students appeared more comfortable asking for academic help from their classmates, she chose this method to help students engage with the learning process:

Now I can see that they seem more comfortable [to ask] with their friends so I just let them do that, but I always monitor their [achievement] score with a test that I made; half of the class has to stay outside and the other half stayed in the class. I don’t want them to [cheat] (I-16: Mrs Lilis, Year-6 teacher, 11/12/12).

The tutorial method encourages students to actively engage with other people, such as an adult as a tutor or peer tutor (Graesser, Person, & Huber, 1992; Graesser & Person, 1994). With this method students potentially develop their questioning skills by interacting with other students and modelling from the tutor. Furthermore, embarrassment is generally reduced; students may be less inhibited from seeking academic help from tutors (Newman, 2000).

In one situation the snowball method was used by a teacher to “force his students” to ask questions without feeling humiliated:

For example, the snowball model … They [students] will be forced to [ask]. So that’s what the snowball method is. We need to have a piece of paper that’s cut into small pieces that we make a ball from. And then we play the game by throwing those balls to the students, we tell them to catch the ball. After that they will be asked to open the ball; make it into a paper sheet again and write down one question that comes into your mind, anything will do, it can be something that’s relevant to the lesson, daily life, make a question that’s related to our discussion today, and so we do not limit the students [with the questions].
allowed them to ask questions related to the subject or if they do not have any question related to the subject they can write any questions. That’s how to stimulate our students to ask, and also the ball will improve their gross motor skills by throwing and catching it. And this game is interesting for them and stimulates passive students to [ask] … And then they write down the questions they need to throw back to us. After that we will discuss the questions (I-20: Mr Firdaus, Year-6 teacher, 14/12/12).

He explained that at first his students were reluctant to throw the ball to their teacher, as it is considered impolite for a student to throw something to their teacher. Therefore, he needed to explain that in this game they were allowed to, and after that they started to enjoy the game. He also explained that in terms of the quality of student questions, at first their questions were still weak, but then they gradually became related to the lesson content. He expected that with this method his students eventually would learn how to formulate a question and become accustomed asking questions of their teacher:

For students to be able to express their questions they probably state it in their heart [silently] before they utter it verbally…[some of them were] shy, some did not have the skills to formulate questions, so we have to initiate them with this [method] … after sometime when they have ability to ask the questions, they eventually will able to [ask] (I-20: Mr Firdaus, Year-6 teacher, 14/12/12).

In summary, it has been found that several teachers selected and developed a teaching method that would likely enhance student academic help-seeking behaviour. By using teaching methods such as group discussion, experiments, peer-tutorials and the snowball, teachers facilitated their students to learn in a passionate and meaningful way. Moreover, these methods were found to be more fun and increased student curiosity. In this situation students were likely explore their interests and were able to develop academic help-seeking skills as well.

It was also the case, however, that teachers found obstacles in applying these methods. Some teachers still taught traditionally, and were reluctant to change. Some teachers were unsure about adopting a new paradigm that differed from what they had been doing. These teachers felt pressured from the school, supervisors and parents to make
sure all of their students passed the National Examination. Therefore many declined
to use student-centred approaches regardless of how boring their method was. In this
situation students would not be able to develop their learning skills, including
developing academic help-seeking skills.

For teachers to be able to choose and develop teaching methods that fit with the student
characteristics they need to develop student academic help-seeking behaviour in the
classroom. Findings of this study indicate that implementation of different activity
structures and teaching methods may be one strategy to achieve this. Collaborative
activities, both involving workgroups of students and peer tutorials may also facilitate
students in developing their academic help-seeking skills.

5.7 Summary

This chapter investigated the important influences a teacher has in shaping academic
help-seeking behaviour in the classroom. These influences include teacher beliefs and
perceptions, teacher behaviour, how student questions are supported and responded to,
teacher characteristics, and how teachers prepare for lessons and select a teaching
method.

Teachers in this study believed that asking for academic help is an important behaviour
in student learning; however, they also noticed that asking questions is difficult for
some students. Teacher behaviour can be seen to either enhance or undermine student
academic help-seeking behaviour. Whether in teacher-centred or student-centred class
activities the teacher plays a key role in developing student academic help-seeking
behaviour.
This study also found that some teachers expected that their students will ask for academic help when they need it, however, many teachers do not provide enough guidance to their students on how to gain help effectively. Therefore, the students are not used to asking for academic help. Although teachers in this study were found to encourage their students to ask for academic help, this study also found that some of the teachers’ behaviour hindered student academic help-seeking, such as engaging in favouritism. National Examination is also identified as a main concern for both teachers and students, where teachers teach students to pass the test and generally ignore the learning processes (see detail in section 5.4).

Teacher characteristics are also a factor that may encourage or inhibit student academic help-seeking. This study found that students will approach and ask for academic help from teachers that they are not just comfortable to talk to but those that they see are competent to help them (see discussion in section 5.5).

Teaching preparation and teaching methods are also found as factors that contribute to student academic help-seeking. Well prepared teacher will likely promote academic help-seeking behaviour by using a variety teaching methods and activities. Several teachers in this study were found using various kind of strategy to enhance their students engaging academic help-seeking (see discussion in section 5.6).

Chapter 6 discusses in detail other external factors found in this study, such as classroom structures, the role of peers and parents.
Chapter 6 CONTEXTUAL FACTORS

This chapter focuses on examining the significance of contextual or external factors associated with student academic help-seeking behaviour. The first section discusses the importance of the classroom learning environment on how students perform academic help-seeking, and includes discussion of classroom characteristics and physical condition. This is followed by an investigation of the relationship between subject matter and student academic help-seeking. The influence of the learning culture in Indonesia and the roles that peers play are then likewise considered. Finally, this chapter details how parents and family background have significant roles in determining student academic help-seeking behaviour.

6.1 Classroom environment

Classrooms are learning environments that play a significant part within teaching and learning processes. Classrooms are more than just physical buildings where learning activities occur; they also include academic activities such as instructional practices, student-student relationships and student-teacher relationships (Frenzel, et al., 2007). Both students and teachers have their own perceptions about the classroom as a learning environment (Frenzel et al., 2007; Lippman, 2010; Martin, 2002) that then impacts them in terms of student academic outcomes (Fraser & Fisher, 1982; Fraser & Walberg, 2005) and student attitudes and behaviour (Anderman, 2002; Anderman et al., 2001; Weinstein, 1979). However, little is known about how the physical classroom environment directly impacts student academic help-seeking behaviour. Previous studies on student academic help-seeking show the importance of classroom contexts on student decisions seeking academic help (Ryan et al., 1998; Ryan et al.,
1997; Ryan et al., 2001) – but these are in terms of classroom goal structures such as mastery and performance. Furthermore, data in this study show that the classroom physical condition influences student engagement in learning and indirectly may also impact student academic help-seeking behaviour in the classroom.

The following section discusses the classroom environment, both its physical condition and characteristics, which directly or indirectly influence student academic help-seeking behaviour. First, it explores what the features of the classroom are and how these may explain student academic help-seeking behaviour. Next, the data from the survey of student perceptions of their classroom structures is examined in terms of its correlation with student academic help-seeking behaviour.

### 6.1.1. Classroom physical environment

Previous studies have shown that features of the physical environment, consisting of modes of layout, physical structure and arrangement of the room, distribution of space and the ergonomic factors of the classroom setting, influence the teaching and learning processes (Lippman, 2010; Martin, 2002; Randhawa & Michayluk, 1975; Zandvliet & Fraser, 2005).

This study found that classroom physical environments may relate to student engagement in learning and may also contribute to student academic help-seeking behaviour. This theme emerged mostly from teacher interviews and classroom observations. Teachers in this study reported that the classroom setting may impact student learning activities, including academic help-seeking. The schools and classroom observations included physical conditions, such as school location, the construction of the buildings, and facilities, such as libraries, school yard, computer rooms and the size of the classes.
Based on the classroom observations, this study found that the classroom conditions across five schools ranged from schools that had facilities that met the requirements of the national standard of education in Indonesia to schools with minimum or poor conditions that do not meet the national standard. The following sub-section describes school conditions from each observed school.

**School A** is an excellent public school with Level A accreditation. It has facilities such as a library and computer lab to support student learning, and is a school that has been supported by the government with books and other electronic equipment. From the classroom observations, classroom size meets the requirements of the standard of education. This study found that almost all of the classroom seating arrangements were in a classic arrangement where students sit in row-columns, with only one classroom having a U-shaped layout. However, this school is located near the airport, therefore often the noise of the airplanes disturbs the learning process. Students and teachers reported that they could not hear their own voices when there was aircraft noise, and this disturbed their concentration on teaching and learning (I-19: Mrs Diana, Year-6 teacher, 24/12/12).

**School B** is a regular public school located next to the traditional market. The school and classroom observations revealed that the size of the classrooms meet the standard requirements. However, from the interviews, one of the teachers felt that the classrooms were uncomfortable.

Well maybe it’s because the classroom conditions, it’s too hot [because there are] not many trees, therefore it’s not comfortable and [the classroom is] also dusty, [the appearance is] not interesting and dull/faint. I as a teacher also feel uncomfortable and swelter (I-1: Mrs Nur Hamidah, Year-5 teacher, 31/10/12).
This teacher further explained that these uncomfortable conditions might undermine students in engaging in learning and therefore it could lead them to be less engaged in academic help-seeking. The location of this school also concerned some of the teachers. The traditional market across from the school was noisy, busy and dirty. To prevent the students skipping class and running to the market, the school always locked the front gate and had security staff guarding it.

**School D** is an excellent public school; however, at the time the study was conducted the school was being renovated, which required a move to a government building near the school location. This new building did not have adequate space for classes and therefore all the classrooms were too small; neither teachers nor students could move freely during the lessons.

**School F** is a private excellent school that has an A accreditation level. This study found that all the classrooms met the national standard requirements and it had complete facilities to support student learning activities, such as a library, music room, computer room and praying room.

**School G** is a regular private school with Level B accreditation. It does not have adequate facilities such as a library or computer room. This school only has five classrooms for six levels. Therefore the school combines Year 1 and Year 2 students in the same class. Each classroom was small and only separated by a plywood partition that allowed students in one class to hear the busy noise from adjoining classrooms. Students and teachers in these classes were not able to move freely.

From the interview and observation data it can be seen that the learning environment in each school varied. Some of the schools met the Indonesian national condition
standard, and are able to support learning processes; however, for some other schools, limited resources might inhibit student enjoyment of learning. For example, in noisy classes both students and teachers described the classroom conditions as uncomfortable, preventing them from engaging with academic help-seeking. According to Flutter (2006), students learn better when the learning environment supports them. Uline and Tschannen-Moran (2008) also found a positive relationship between student achievement and the quality of school facilities, such as building conditions and features (age, air-temperature, lighting, acoustic control and school design).

The findings of this study also show that some physical factors might influence student engagement in learning. Those physical factors are: noise, classroom size, air-temperature and classroom condition (Ryan & Pintrich, 1997). According to Eartman (2002), temperature and air quality are the two essential building elements that impact on student academic achievement. Climate control (air conditioning, heating) also affects student learning outcomes, with students in better school conditions scoring higher academic achievement (Hines, 1996). A study by Lanham (1999) shows that the lack of temperature control makes it difficult for students to focus their complete attention on learning in the classroom. Lanham suggests removing these distractions to help provide a more optimal learning environment. This study found that some classrooms are just too hot; both students and teachers did not feel comfortable. None of the classrooms observed in this study provided air-conditioning in their classrooms.

Another problem emerging from this study was noise. Aircraft noise exposure has an impact on student learning (Earthman, 2002; Hines, 1996; Lanham, 1999). According to Haines et al. (2001), chronic aircraft noise exposure is associated with higher levels
of noise annoyance and lack of reading comprehension, a deprivation which also limits the extent of spoken language. Other research found that chronic noise exposure hinders cognitive functioning and impairs pre-reading and reading skills (Evans & Maxwell, 1997; Maxwell, 1999).

Seating arrangements are also related to student academic help-seeking. According to Marx et al. (1999), students ask more questions in a semicircle than in a row-and-column arrangement, and the pattern of question characteristics is stable over time. They also found that within the row-and-column arrangement there was an action-zone in which students asked more questions per lesson. This explains that in the situation of face-to-face contact, social interaction is encouraged and students are willing to ask questions of one another. This study found School B had one classroom with U-shape seating, which facilitated students to be more active compared to students sitting in the classic arrangement (Ob-1: School B, 19/11/12).

This study found an indirect relationship between physical condition and student academic help-seeking. In support of this finding, a meta-analysis conducted by Bosch (2003, 2006) shows the effects of physical school environments on student and teacher attitudes, behaviours, and outcomes. The reviews show evidence of correlational studies linking the physical environment of schools to the attitudes, behaviour and outcomes of building occupants. In this study, student academic help-seeking behaviour as a part of student engagement in learning might depend on a comfortable learning environment.

In summary, a classroom’s physical condition is an important element that supports student learning. As Lipman (2010) suggests, the physical environment should be structured to support learning because there is a transaction between the learner and
the learning environment where the environment shapes the learner and, in turn, the learner influences the learning environment, which consists of other students, teachers and the physical environment.

6.1.2. Classroom structures

From the survey this study identified a number of findings about student perceptions of their classroom structure. This sub-section discusses how students perceived the classroom environment in terms of teacher control of student interactions.

To determine student perceptions of classroom structure (Snyder, Dillow, & National Center for Education) 10 statements relating to classroom structure were used in the survey: my teacher reviews important notes (CS1), my teacher gives me freedom to work on my task according my speed (CS2-R), my teacher appreciates students’ work (CS3-R), my teacher tells us how to do homework (CS4), my teacher shows students the way to complete the task (CS5), my teacher gives us freedom in ways to work on tasks (CS6-R), I am allowed to work in my own way (CS7-R), my teacher motivates us to take responsibility to do work (CS8-R), my teacher explains all material before a test (CS9) and my teacher reviews material that we have learnt (CS10). Table 6.1 reports the means and SD of student perceptions of classroom structure.
Table 6.1 Means and standard deviation of classroom structure

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CS9</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>337</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CS10</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>337</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CS5</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>336</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CS1</td>
<td>3.16</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>337</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CS4</td>
<td>2.76</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>335</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CS2-R</td>
<td>2.69</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>335</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CS6-R</td>
<td>2.59</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>337</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CS7-R</td>
<td>2.50</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>335</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CS3-R</td>
<td>2.01</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>335</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CS8-R</td>
<td>1.89</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>337</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: a) Means were ranked from highest to lowest. b) The students were asked to rank classroom structures in a four-point scale: 1 = hardly ever; 2 = sometimes; 3 = often; 4 = very often c) A repeated measures ANOVA was used on the above means, \( F(9, 2934) = 135.27, p < 0.0123233 \)

In Table 6.1, explains all materials before a test (CS9) and reviews material (CS10) are rated the highest (3.31), while reviews important notes (CS1), shows students the way (CS5) and how to do homework (CS4), were also rated higher than 3 (true). These five items measured high teacher control in the classroom.

However, Table 6.1 also shows that my teacher gives me freedom to work on my task according my speed (CS2-R), my teacher gives us freedom in ways to work on task (CS6-R), I am allowed to work in my own way (CS7-R), and my teacher appreciates students’ work (CS3-R), were rated lower than 3, with my teacher motivates us to take responsibility to do work (CS8-R) being the lowest (1.89). These five items measured student perception on how their teacher gives freedom to them to take control of their learning. As seen in Table 6.1, all these items were rated lower than the items that measured student perceptions on teacher high control of student learning.

Further analysis on each item is shown on Table 6.2, which shows that for explains material before a test (CS9), there were 293 students (86.94%) who reported that it occurred often or very often and the remainder (13.06%) reported that it was not true. There were 86.05% of students who reported that CS10, reviews material, occurred often (> = 3) and the other 13.95% of students reported that it was not often.

216
Table 6.2 Percentages of classroom structure items

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CS9</td>
<td>2.97</td>
<td>10.09</td>
<td>39.46</td>
<td>47.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CS10</td>
<td>1.78</td>
<td>12.17</td>
<td>39.46</td>
<td>46.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CS5</td>
<td>3.57</td>
<td>12.21</td>
<td>46.43</td>
<td>37.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CS1</td>
<td>2.97</td>
<td>16.02</td>
<td>43.32</td>
<td>37.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CS4</td>
<td>6.87</td>
<td>31.34</td>
<td>41.19</td>
<td>20.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CS2-R</td>
<td>6.27</td>
<td>36.72</td>
<td>39.10</td>
<td>17.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CS6-R</td>
<td>11.57</td>
<td>32.64</td>
<td>41.25</td>
<td>14.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CS7-R</td>
<td>13.14</td>
<td>37.61</td>
<td>35.52</td>
<td>13.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CS3-R</td>
<td>22.70</td>
<td>58.50</td>
<td>14.32</td>
<td>4.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CS8-R</td>
<td>37.39</td>
<td>43.92</td>
<td>10.98</td>
<td>7.71</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: a) N = 337 b) 1 = hardly ever; 2 = sometimes; 3 = often; 4 = very often

For item CS5, *shows students the way*, 283 students (84.22%) agreed and the other 53 students (15.78 %) stated that it was did not happen often in their classroom. The majority of students (81.01%) reported that CS1, *reviews important notes*, often or very often happened and the remaining 18.99% of students did not agree. For CS4, *how to do homework*, 61.79% of students agreed that it was true, while 38.21% students did not agree.

For *my teacher gives me freedom to work on my task according my speed* (CS2-R) 57.01% students reported that it happened often or very often (> = 3) and the remaining 144 students (42.99%) reported that it hardly ever or sometimes happened in their class (< = 2). There were 188 students (55.79%) who said that *my teacher gives us freedom in ways to work on tasks* (CS6-R) was true and the rest (44.21%) said that it was not true. Next, in *I am allowed to work in my own way* (CS7-R), 50.75% of students reported that it was not true and the other 49.25% reported that it was true or very true.

There were 81.20% of students who reported that *my teacher appreciate students’ work* (CS3-R) was true (> = 3) and the other 18.80% students reported that it was not true. Lastly, for *my teacher motivates us to take responsibility to do work* (CS8-R) 274
students (81.31%) agreed with the statement and the rest of the students (18.69 %) disagreed.

From the findings above, it can be seen that students in this study perceived that their classroom structure was highly teacher-controlled. Their teachers dominated their learning processes through giving rigid instructions on how to do assignments, homework and exams (den Brok et al., 2006). It can be seen from Table 6.2 that students also perceived that their teacher rarely or hardly ever gave them responsibility to do work, nor appreciated their work.

The total mean of classroom structure is shown in Table 6.3. The average of student perceptions of their classroom structures was $M = 2.74$, from a scale of 1–4, showing that the classroom structure was perceived as high teacher-controlled.

**Table 6.3 Total mean and standard deviation of classroom structure**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classroom Structure</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2.74</td>
<td>.30</td>
<td>328</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A correlation found that student perception on classroom structures and student intention to ask for academic help was significantly correlated, $r = 0.12, p < 0.01$. 
Figure 6.1 shows positive correlation between student academic help-seeking and student perception on classroom structure. However, in order to interpret this result, some concerns should be noted. The $r = 0.12$ shows a weak correlation. It shows that even though the classroom structure was perceived as strongly teacher-controlled, students were likely still seeking academic help from their teacher.

Statistical data collected from this study shows that classroom structures influenced student academic help-seeking behaviour. One explanation for this finding is that both students and teachers in this study were already culturally embedded in a teacher-centred paradigm, so that it was hard for them to change into a student-centred paradigm. The data also indicate that students perceived their classroom as focused on teacher control rather than supporting student initiative. For them, this kind of structure was perceived as an appropriate learning condition. Therefore, some students still performed academic help-seeking regardless of the classroom structure.
6.2 Subject matter

This section discusses the influence of subject matter on student academic help-seeking behaviour in the classroom. Subjects, such as math, have been related to students seeking academic help. Previous studies show that math is perceived by many students as a difficult subject – they are likely to need more academic help and therefore ask for more help compared with other subjects (Butler, 1998, 2008; Newman & Schwager, 1993; Ryan & Pintrich, 1997; Stodolsky & Grossman, 1995).

From the teacher and student interviews this study identified the characteristics of the subject matter as one factor that might influence student academic help-seeking behaviour in the classroom. As one teacher stated:

So, factors that cause students to not ask for help, one of which is their psychology factors, friends and subject matter (I-4: Mr Widodo, Year-6 teacher, 27/11/12).

Another teacher, however, argued that it was not because of the characteristics of the subject matter, since Year-6 teachers teach almost every subject in the class; rather, it depends more on the teaching methods that the teachers used in the classroom as stated below:

It depends on the subject that we have been discussing [in the class]. So, every day we have different ways of teaching for every subject. That’s because we were class teachers. So, one subject could be taught in many methods (I-19: Mrs Diana, Year-6 teacher, 24/12/12).

Subsequent to this finding, further investigation was carried out concerning which subject matter would likely make students seek more help in the classroom. The answers from teachers and students varied, but in general at least two subjects were perceived by students and teachers as resulting in students being likely to ask for academic help from their peers or teachers: math (perceived by 70% of teachers and 80% students), and science (perceived by 85% of both teachers and students). On the
other hand, both students and teachers identified that social science and PKn/Pendidikan Kewarganegaraan (civics) were the subjects that students were less likely to ask for academic help.

Stodolsky, Salk, and Glaessner (1991) found that student feelings and attitudes towards different subject matter in school are developed through teaching instructions, the way a subject is delivered, the structure of classroom experiences, the content material, and student achievement and competence. They also suggest that some subjects, such as math, tend to be viewed differently by different types of students within different kinds of instructional approaches.

6.2.1. Math
Both students and teachers reported that students would likely ask for more academic help in math lessons. Many students perceived that math was a difficult subject, confusing and complicated (FGI-11, Year-6 students, 12/01/13). Other students from focus-group interviews stated that math is difficult because there are too many formulas that make them frustrated; moreover students complained that teachers often gave a lot of assignments (FGI-3: Year-6 students, 19/11/12). However, other students had different opinions, and stated that although math was difficult it was also interesting and challenging (FGI-9: Year-6 students, 14/12/12). Many students also perceived that they have to master math because it is in the NE (FGI-3, Year-6 students, 19/11/12). With these characteristics, therefore, in math students will likely need more academic help. For the students who sought help, their motivation was mainly to ask their teacher how to solve problems and explain formulas or to ask other students or teachers for direct answers. This finding is supported by Stodolsky et al. (1991) who found that students have both positive and negative perceptions about
math. Students also show more dependency between students and teachers in the field of math and ask for more help from teachers or friends.

From teacher points of view, math is also perceived as a subject that is difficult to understand, scares their students, is uninteresting and makes their students less enthusiastic to learn (I-1: Mrs Nur Hamidah, Year 5 teacher, 31/01/12; I-13: Mrs Munawarah, Year 5 teacher, 10/12/12).

This finding is similar to the findings from Butler (1998), Newman and Schwager (1993), and Ryan and Pintrich (1997) where the students perceived that math was a hard subject which required them to seek more academic help compared to other subjects. According to Stodolsky et al. (1991), however, students in primary level (Years 1, 2 and 3) perceived that math is one of the most liked and important subjects in all grades of school. But, as students reach higher grades (Years 4, 5 and 6), math becomes more difficult and more students dislike it.

In math classes, teachers often explain the material to the whole class and then give their students an assignment; students will then do the task mostly individually rather than in a work group (Stodolsky, 1991). Students express great dependence on teachers and this often makes them report more anxiety towards math and perceive math as difficult. In math, students seek more academic help (Nelson-Le Gall & Glor-Scheib, 1985) and, in comparison with reading or English, students reported that they need more help with their schoolwork (Newman & Goldin, 1990).

6.2.2. Science

Students and teachers in this study also reported that science was a subject in which students were likely to ask for academic help. Teachers revealed that science tends to
make students ask a lot of questions because the learning content is close to their daily
life (I-12: Mrs Novita, Year-6 teacher, 10/12/12), for example, the concept of heat (I-
1: Mrs Nur Hamidah, Year 5 teacher, 31/10/12).

Teachers often conducted an experiment or performed demonstrations in front of the
class, which made science lessons more interesting for both students and teachers (I-
3: Mrs Indri, Year-6 teacher, 27/11/12). The experiments, for example to prove the
effect of oxygen on decomposing food, could help the students engage more in the
learning process. Moreover, teachers often assigned students to work in groups to
conduct the experiments themselves. These experiments in groups allowed the
students to collaborate with their peers, solving problems together, and therefore
encouraging them to help one another (I-6: Mrs Reni, Year-6 teacher, 30/11/12).

According to one of the teachers, student enthusiasm for science is because they are
able to do the experiments themselves:

> Well, science class. The experiments made them like it. They like to do some
> experiments. Discussing in a group, they can do that with the help of the teacher.
> Teacher gives guidance first and then they write down the results from what they
> have observed. For example, what kind of experiment that they have done, they
> write down the material, we must guide them; otherwise they won’t be able to do
> so.

> In my opinion it is science; students were enthusiastic in the subject that they can
do some experiments. There were a lot of learning media and they really can learn
> from it. They will make many comments and ask many questions to the teacher,
especially students at Year 5 (I-1: Mrs Nur Hamidah, Year-5 teacher, 31/10/12).

In science class, students are allowed to conduct some experiments on certain topics
such as observing the metamorphosis of a butterfly or learning how to graft a plant.
Teachers often arrange group discussions or individual tasks and then students can
present the results in front of other students. In these situations teachers reported that
students were more engaged in learning and showed an increase of academic help-
seeking behaviour (I-15: Mrs Santi, Year 4 teacher, 11/12/12).
Harper, Etkina, and Lin (2003) suggest that in learning science, asking questions is encouraged and becomes the most important part of the learning processes. Student questions also enhance their understanding (Marbach-Ad & Sokolove, 2000) and develop their inquiry skills. Harper et al. mention several reasons why student question-asking should become more fundamental in science courses. In learning science, students need to be able to develop the inquiry nature of science by engaging in question-asking (Marbach-Ad & Sokolove, 2000). Students who ask questions maintain or hold material better than those who do not (King, 1990; Marbach-Ad & Sokolove, 2000). Also, there is a positive relationship between improved question-asking ability and improved problem solving (King, 1991).

This study found that in science class students thought that the learning materials were close to their daily life. For example, lessons might involve discussions about food, observing metamorphosis, or learning to grow some plants. Additionally, students were able to experience learning through experiments and not only from books or listening to their teacher. These learning experiences act as a stimulus to increase curiosity and meaning-making. According to Mayer (2002), meaningful learning happens when students are able to transfer new information and create new knowledge in solving a similar problem. By doing experiments students try to solve a new problem and actively engage in constructing meaning. Within these processes students also develop self-questioning (Cavallo, 1996) and in order to fill the gap they might encourage themselves to ask the questions aloud. Science classes, therefore, are places where students are able to experience direct learning and where academic help-seeking behaviour is promoted.
6.2.3. Other subjects

Other subjects such as PKn/civics, language, music, religion and IPS/Ilmu Pendidikan Sosial (social science) were not reported (by students or teachers) as significantly related to increasing academic help-seeking behaviour. Help-seeking depended more on how teachers delivered their lesson in the classroom, although, according to many teachers in this study those subjects had mostly been delivered in a traditional approach, by lecturing. Therefore, many students reported that they sometimes felt bored because they had to memorise so many learning materials. Only when the teachers designed a specific method other than lecturing did students get more involved in the learning process. Some teachers made those subjects more interesting by having a class discussion or initiating games that encouraged their students explore more (I-20: Mr Firdaus, Year-6 teacher, 14/12/12; I-5: Mr Mustafa, 28/11/12). As mentioned in Chapter 5, one teacher developed a snowball teaching method that may promote student academic help-seeking behaviour for social science.

Teachers also revealed that when subject matter required a lot of memorisation with a lot of content, they typically did not encourage students to ask questions. In these situations some of the learning content was perceived as being irrelevant to daily life, or perceived as being too complex to be learnt at the primary level:

Well, such as IPS [social science], we have [the history of] kingdoms that really had to be memorised. The teacher gave explanations and students need to read because they need to remember it well. (I-12: Mrs Novita, Year-6 teacher, 10/12/12).

We need to have a learning media that can help us. It’s because the students were lazy to read and they get bored and if we tell them a story than they will get sleepy and fall asleep in the classroom. And when I ask something the class just become very quiet and they don’t know how to answer (I-12: Mrs Novita, Year-6 teacher, 10/12/12).
Subject material such as PKn/civics was perceived by both students and teachers as a boring lesson with much of the learning content not relevant to student daily life. For example, learning about the tasks of parliament members in the House of Representatives was perceived by one teacher as not suitable for the students:

I take objection to PKn. The content was mostly about the tasks of parliament members in the House of Representatives. I don’t think that suits primary students. I would prefer to teach character building such as Pancasila, I think that [material is] more suitable for them (I-16: Mrs Lilis, Year-6 teacher, 11/12/12).

The teacher suggested that it is more important for the students to develop good character based on Pancasila rather than having her students memorise parliamentarian tasks.

Another difficulty that emerged from teaching PKn was that according to another teacher in higher levels (Years 4, 5 and 6), the learning material became more complex and teachers had difficulty simplifying their language to explain it so that students could understand. This situation made it hard for the teachers to explain to their students which, in turn, made it harder for the students to gain any meaning. Therefore, in this kind of situation, students are likely to avoid seeking academic help:

PKn was rather difficult for higher levels to be explored into a daily life. For lower levels such as Grade 1, 2, 3 were easier, about family and other things. For higher levels the students have been forced, well I don’t know in other schools… But they need to have broad knowledge because the content was about the election, government, social phenomena. And if we do not understand the content it will be very hard for us to explain to them and exploration in daily life is much harder … And then the way we explain it to them is harder because our style is more acceptable for adults than for kids. Maybe that why it is even harder to explain it to the students … And therefore it hard for them to ask questions, so we only make questions based on the content, so it’s rigid (I-12: Mrs Novita, Year-6 teacher, 10/12/12).

The characteristics of civics and social science tend to lead students to learn the content material through more rote-learning by memorising and repetition. Rote learning by itself, however, tends to shape students as passive leaners (Cavallo, 1996). This
learning situation does not stimulate student critical thinking and tends to also decrease their engagement in learning. One of the students in the interviews admitted that he rarely asked any questions in those two subjects because he could find all of the answers by reading (FGI-3: Year-6 students, 19/11/12). This kind of teaching method does not challenge students to think at a higher level, nor stimulate critical thinking and questioning. Besides, the typical exercises in these subjects are ‘filling in the blank’ questions and multiple choice. All the questions are mostly about facts that have been presented, and students just need to recall them to answer the problems.

Related perspectives were provided by some teachers who complained that rote learning discourages students from engaging in active deeper thinking while encouraging some of the lazy students to put down any answer or just guess from the options given. Many students also preferred to do multiple choice questions or fill in the blanks rather than write an essay or long explanation. This situation is different from science classes when students worked in groups, and learned by doing and experiencing. Students in science classes are challenged to think deeper and as a consequence more questions are raised in their minds, which some of them express by asking more questions.

Some teachers, however, had their own ways of preventing students from putting down any answer – asking the students to write down the reasons or the formula for how they came up with the answer. This study, however, still found that many teachers were forced to drill their students with multiple choice problems in order to prepare their students for passing the National Examination during the few months when this study was conducted.
To summarise, the characteristics of the subject matter might influence student academic help-seeking behaviour. Subject matter that encourages and challenges students to engage in active learning, such as science, may increase student academic help-seeking. Teachers in this study, however, argued that it also depends on their teaching methods – even in ‘boring’ subject such as PKn (Pendidikan Kewarganegaraan/civic) or social science, student academic help-seeking can be stimulated if the teaching is non-traditional.

6.3 The impact of Indonesian culture

This section examines the impact of the learning culture in Indonesia on student academic help-seeking. This theme emerged from the teacher interviews in which it was explicitly stated that the learning culture in Indonesia determines student academic help-seeking behaviour. According to one teacher, the Indonesian culture might constrain students from giving opinions freely and suggested that the asymmetrical relationship between students and older people hinders students from speaking up freely:

First, it’s because in Indonesian culture, in our culture we were not being conditioned to be vocal, this is different with people from the Western [culture] and how children behave in relationship to their parents, just like friends, so I assume it must be the culture … The second is the teacher factors, teachers who don’t do well in promoting/encouraging their students to ask, and the third is the knowledge of the students, lack of knowledge [not broad] (I-20: Mr Firdaus, Year-6 teacher, 14/12/12).

According to Maulana et al. (2011), the typical relationship between student and teacher in Indonesia is an asymmetrical one. Students pay respect to their teachers as much as to their own parents, obeying and listening to them. Questioning older people, especially parents or teachers, could be interpreted as impolite. This then, might be one of the reasons why some students are reluctant to ask for academic help even in
academic settings when this behaviour could be encouraged. This finding is also supported by Hofstede works on Cultural Dimension on the dimension of Power Distance (Hofstede, 2011). In a country like Indonesia, as a large power distance society, the parents teach obedience to their children and older people (such as teachers) are both respected and feared. In addition, a large power distance situation also indicated by teacher centred activity and classroom hierarchy means existential inequality. Another issue arising from the interviews and observations is the pressure from the NE for both students and teachers. This has a big influence upon all teaching and learning processes. Just like in China, a country with a long history of being examination-oriented (Kirkpatrick, 2011), students in Indonesia learn with a focus solely on passing the examinations (see details in Chapter 4, section 4.1.4). They take the exam as determining their future. According to Schmitz (2011, cited in Kirkpatrick, 2011), focusing so much on passing the test also has the effect of students losing their imagination and creativity.

Students in this study were in Year 6 and have to face the NE and feel pressure. Exam-centric education has a negative impact on students, such as stress and anxiety, because they feel judged by their results (Kirkpatrick, 2011). Kirkpatrick goes further and suggests that the exam system also controls what students do and do not know. With this kind of education, critical thinking as a core component of education is not developed.

Additionally, an exam-oriented education system will hinder students from developing learning techniques that might help them learn better (developing learning strategies that suit them) (Kirkpatrick, 2011). This includes academic help-seeking skills.
It is often the case that Asian learning culture is portrayed with students as rote learners (Biggs 1987; Watkins & Hattie 1981), or as passive rather than active learners (Kember, 2000). Challenging this view, however, Kember (2000) found that Asian students can and do adjust to active forms of learning if given the opportunity.

Recently, the Indonesian Government through the MoE introduced a new policy to change the dominant teacher-centred approaches into student-centred approaches. In order to change or implement this new reform both students and teachers first need to change their orientation. To change the traditional characteristics, as Kember (2000) proposed in his study, students need to be allowed to adapt the new forms of teaching and learning over a (long) time. This is because their previous experiences in traditional didactic teaching and passive learning conditions also created expectations of highly structured teacher instruction in which the teacher defines the content and delivers it. Therefore, for both teachers and students shifting to the new format of teaching and learning can be difficult or uncomfortable. It is still hard for them to adjust from the dominant teacher-centred approach (Kember, 2000). Both students and teachers need more time and support to adapt to the new teaching styles.

This study found that the teacher-centred paradigm in Indonesia is the dominant practice among teachers. Both students and teachers have learned how to behave and what behaviour is expected in the classroom: for the teacher this is delivering the content material while for the student it is obeying the teacher’s instruction (see details in Chapter 5, section 5.1.7 Teaching methods/activities). The practice of students asking questions is uncommon and therefore difficult to initiate or sustain. Instead of generating questions from students, teachers mostly ask all questions and expect students to respond to them. Moreover, the asymmetrical student-teacher relationship
exacerbates this: students are expected to give respect to the teacher, and teachers expect that their students regard them as a role model and someone with authority (see details in Chapter 6 section 6.3). This situation makes it harder for students to ask questions. Students are very concerned about their teacher’s opinion of them. One of the reasons they do not ask for help is that their teacher might think that they have not paid enough attention to the explanation. This lack of attention can be interpreted by teachers as students disobeying. Students confessed that they are reluctant to ask for academic help because teachers may get angry with them because they did not concentrate or are too lazy (see details in Chapter 5, section 5.1.2 Discouragement). Quiet classrooms are also typical, and result from students focusing on listening to the teachers. Most of the students in this study admitted they felt shy and did not like speaking in front of the whole class (see details in Chapter 7, section 7.5.3 Shyness). They preferred other students to ask questions so they could avoid humiliation. This can be understood since asking questions is still very rare and has not been embedded as a part of the learning process yet. Since this behaviour is uncommon, student skills are not developed. This situation combined with the pressure of the NE undermines student academic help-seeking behaviour.

In summary, the Indonesian culture that values the hierarchal relationship between young and older individuals and emphasises the importance of respecting teachers as your own parents, might make students reluctant to ask for academic help. Together with the exam-oriented system of education, both students and teachers typically neglect the development of learning skills, including seeking academic help when required.
6.4 The role of peers

In the classroom, students not only interact with their teachers; mostly they interact with their classmates. Students influence each other by sharing opinions, experiences and knowledge to pursue both their social and academic goals (Newman, 2000). Newman suggests that students also have the opportunity to develop their academic help-seeking skills through these interactions.

Previous studies show classmates have a significant role in developing academic help-seeking skills in school (Nelson-Le Gall, 2006; Newman, 2000, 2002; Oberman, 2000; Roussel et al., 2011; Shim & Finch, 2013). Moreover, from both the interviews and classroom observations, this study found that peers emerged as a factor that determined student academic help-seeking. Teachers and students perceived that peers can both support and undermine academic help-seeking behaviour.

This section first discusses the significance of peers in academic help-seeking behaviour and then the positive influence of peers on this particular behaviour. Last, the role of peers perceived by students and teachers in inhibiting academic help-seeking is discussed. In this study I focus on the influence of peers specifically in terms of developing student skills, attitudes and behaviours towards academic help-seeking (Newman, 2000).

6.4.1. The significance of peers

Understanding the role of peers in student academic help-seeking is important for many reasons. First, previous researchers have already shown the importance of classmates based on student preferences of helper identified earlier in this study (see Chapter 4 for details). Results show that many students prefer to ask for academic help
from their classmates more than their teachers. Student decisions to ask for academic help from their friends are mainly based on cost-benefit (Stahl & Bromme, 2009).

Second, students in this study were in Year 6 and in early adolescence stage, ranged between 10 - 13 years old (Erickson, 1968, cited in Trucco, Wright, & Colder, 2013). This developmental period is characterised by instability and rapid change (Roberts, Caspi, & Moffitt, 2001), identity formation (De Fruyt et al., 2006), the need for peer acceptance (de Bruyn, Cillessen, & Wissink, 2010; Kingery, Erdley, & Marshall, 2011) and the need for autonomy (Eccles et al., 1993). Furthermore, students spend most of their time with their peers both inside and outside school, interacting and influencing each other (Berndt, 1999). Therefore, peer involvement can be essential to the way students develop their questioning skills and attitudes.

Another characteristic in this early adolescent period is that students tend to compare their performance with their classmates in both academic and social fields (Newman, 2000; Ryan & Shim, 2006, 2008). They are concerned with maintaining their self-esteem and do not want to ‘look dumb’ in front of their teachers and classmates.

Many teachers in this study admitted that they had difficulties in handling their Year 6 students compared to students in lower levels. One teacher stated that they needed to be more patient and more understanding in dealing with these students (I-13: Mrs Novita, Year-6 teacher, 10/12/12). Another teacher stated that their students started to make their own ‘gang’ and ignored their teachers, as stated below:

Students from 5th and 6th grade even more, now that they tend to make a group right? So sometime they felt that their group is more important than learning, more important than their school. They will follow what the group said. They just don’t care whether it was right or wrong. They sometimes they even ignore their teacher since the most important thing for them is their group, their gang (I-1: Mrs Nur Hamidah, Year-5 teacher, 31/10/12).
School adjustment (both social and academic) in this early adolescent period has been shown by many researchers to relate to friendship and social goals (Newman, 2000) (Wentzel, Baker, & Russell, 2009), including striving to be popular, peer acceptance (Ryan & Shin, 2011), social competence and academic achievement (Ryan & Pintrich, 1997). Taken together, peers and their characteristics in this developmental period can also affect how teachers treat their students and influence students in performing academic help-seeking.

Thus, this study found that there were both positive and negative influences from peers upon student academic help-seeking. In discussing further the influence of peers I use the framework of social goals and peer relations articulated by Newman (2000) in the next session.

6.4.2. Positive influence of peers

Although many teachers in this study found that students at this age entered a vulnerable stage and faced problems with school adjustment, some teachers also noticed that there were positive influences from peers related to academic help-seeking.

One of the teachers shared that she could enhance student engagement in academic help-seeking by choosing an appropriate teaching method, such as a peer-to-peer tutorial method. Teachers noticed that some smart students can act as learning resources for their friends by sharing their knowledge:

Some students could work thoroughly like Syifa and Aji, they can be resources, they can help their friends and they have responsibility [to help their friends], they are more mature than other students. These were the kinds of students that we can use as the key [in peer tutorial-method] (I-6: Mrs Reni, Year-6 teacher, 30/11/12).
Learning in groups as in a peer-to-peer tutorial method appears to enhance student academic help-seeking behaviour in the classroom. Students felt more comfortable to ask their friends when they faced academic difficulties. Similarly, a study from Newman and Gauvain (1996, cited in Newman, 2000) investigated Year-6 students working in small groups drew similar results, with students more likely to seek help from their classmates and be involved in a task group. Furthermore, Newman and Gauvain also note that peers can act as learning resources and an alternative helper when students either cannot approach their teacher or the teacher is unavailable.

This study found that the peer-tutorial method facilitated students with opportunities to learn from each other in order to complete a task. Work in a group provided them with flexible interaction between each other in which they could express and communicate their need for academic help a lot easier and more comfortably. According to Newman (2000), for students in higher classes, this method provides a chance to share their thoughts, goals and strategies. Newman also notes that these opportunities are useful for developing questioning skills needed in asking for academic help.

Students also admitted that they gained benefit from their friends from peer-tutorial methods. One student stated, “Well yes, sometimes she becomes our ‘teacher’ when we study together” (FGI-1, Evi, Year-6 student, 19/11/12). Another student said, “…more ideas, and when some [of us] did not understand, other students [more capable can teach us], so all of us can understand [the lesson]” (FGI-10: Felli, Year-6 student, 14/12/12). They also said that they can solve a problem quicker and complete the task better. Students noted that they can learn from each other during workgroups.
and also identified their classmates as a learning source, characterising them as smart, serious, calm, can explain how to solve problems, unselfish and humble.

During classroom observations in School A (C-Ob: School A, 19/11/12), students worked in groups consisting of six to seven students and were required to complete a math task. Students were able to interact with each other and they also initiated academic help-seeking. Students also looked motivated to complete the task. The majority of the questions they asked were related to academic content and how to solve problems, with some of the questions directed to their peers and some to their teachers. However, I also observed that in one or two groups, one or two students dominated the group work, while the other members of the group just watched.

One student admitted that in group work, it was easier for them to cheat, “[I prefer] in group work, since it is easier for me to copy [from other student]. Work in group is easier” (FGI-3: Indra, Year-6 student, 19/11/12). In contrast, one student complained that their friends depended on them in a group work, “… I dislike my group, and they just have low understanding … I feel annoyed” (FGI-1: Ulfa, Year-6 student, 19/11/12).

Although work in groups allows students to get academic help easier, some students also performed expedient help-seeking (Butler, 1998) instead of adaptive academic help-seeking. Expedient help-seeking refers to students asking for direct answers or cheating (Butler, 1998), and having someone else solve the problems (Nelson-Le Gall & Glor-Scheib, 1983).

Classroom observations in School D (C-Ob: School D, 24/11/12) showed a different outcome. The class teacher set up a work group and students were divided into four
groups (consisting of eight to nine students per group). The assignment was to make salted egg as a science project. I observed that instead of letting the students do the work, the teacher dominated. The students did not have much chance to conduct their own project. While the teacher was busy in one group, most of the other students in the other groups just waited at their desk for the teacher. With this group work the teacher seemed to fail to achieve the goal. When the teacher dominated the work the students did not have opportunities to develop questioning skills or the ability to ask for academic help. It was clearly the case that the teacher was fixed in a teacher-centred approach.

Another teacher also noticed that student togetherness enhanced academic help-seeking behaviour – when one student started to ask questions, the others followed. This teacher also noted that she felt happy since her class had become more dynamic:

   So they will only have confidence if they were together. When one student ask questions other students then will start to follow, ‘Yes Mam, me too Mam, I also do not know this problem’. There they are. So, there’s got to be one person [to] initiate and the other will be motivated [too] (I-3: Mrs Indri, Year-6 teacher, 27/11/12).

A study from Newman and Schwager (1993) found that when students faced the same difficulties in the lesson it was a situation that might enhance student academic help-seeking behaviour. As in the example above, when one student was brave enough to seek help in the classroom the other students realised that they had the same problems and were encouraged to follow the lead and ask for academic help. Students at this age will naturally compare their academic performance among their peers (Ryan & Shim, 2006). However, feedback from their peers will make them aware of the need for assistance (Karabenick & Newman, 2006).
As stated by Newman (2000), students tend to adopt the same values as those of their classmates. Furthermore, students who follow their friends’ behaviour in asking questions might influence other students in their attitudes to academic help-seeking (Sagotsky & Lepper, 1982).

This study found that with positive influence from peers, students still need to be able to gain the benefit for themselves. Students need to be able to maximise the opportunities and teachers need to be able to gain benefit from peers by choosing teaching methods that enhance interaction between students. Teachers should consider that students are more comfortable in asking for help from their classmates.

6.4.3. Negative influence of peers

This section discusses the negative influence of peers upon student academic help-seeking. Both teachers and students perceived that peers can undermine academic help-seeking. When the cost of asking for academic help is perceived as higher than the benefit, students will be unlikely to ask for help (Karabenick, 2006).

This study found from the teacher interviews that peers could have negative influences on student behaviour in general, or directly in relation to academic help-seeking. One teacher acknowledged, “Peers is one of the factors … I think these students were afraid of being ridiculed by their friends” (I-4: Mr Widodo, Year-6 teacher, 27/11/12).

As students naturally compare their academic performance with their peers, they become concerned with their self-image. The feedback they gain from their classmates is often perceived as a threat in a competitive classroom condition (classroom goal structure, Ryan & Pintrich, 1997). This threat decreases the occurrences of students openly admitting the need for academic help in the classroom (Newman, 2002).
Another teacher stated that students prefer to follow their friends than be committed to their schooling, “Well if their friends like to play PS/PlayStation, [are too] lazy to do the homework, like to skip the class and since they feel like they belong to that group then they will also join their group …” (I-1: Mrs Nur Hamidah, Year-5 teacher, 31/10/12).

At this age, teachers also found that students have a strong sense of group belonging, and they prefer to choose their peers rather than their learning:

> For students [in] Year 5 and 6 now that they tend to make a group. And then they tend to think that their group is more important than learning at school. What the group say that’s what they follow. They do not really care whether the group is right or wrong … (I-1: Mrs Nur Hamidah, Year-5 teacher, 31/10/12).

Furthermore, this teacher explained student activities related to their group such as, “When the friends don’t have motivation to learn, play games, play PS, skip the class, therefore automatically they will be affected …” (I-1: Mrs Nur Hamidah, Year-5 teacher, 31/10/12).

What these teachers were concerned about can be explained from early adolescent characteristics. As Shim and Finch (2013) note, at this stage of development there is a tendency towards decreased academic engagement, motivation and achievement. Other researchers point out the importance of peer acceptance (Ryan & Shin, 2011), social approval from classmates (Ryan et al., 1997), and the desire to look ‘cool and popular’ (Ryan & Shim, 2006, 2008). Therefore, by joining a gang (group) or skipping the class, these students might feel accepted among their peers and look cool. Ryan and Shin (2011) also found that the desire to look cool and avoid self-humiliation has a significant correlation with asking for academic help. Putting too much effort in learning is often perceived as not cool (Gorman, et al., 2002).
Another teacher explained that students did not ask for help from their teachers because they did not want to embarrass themselves in front of their peers. As one teacher remarked, “There are some students that ask inconsequential questions, and if we mention their names their friends make fun of it” (I-20: Mr Firdaus, Year-6 teacher, 14/12/12). Other also shared, “Their friends will say ‘huuu …’ and that’s one of the factors that could cause [them to be] reluctant to ask questions” (I-6: Mrs Reni, Year-6 teacher, 30/11/12).

Students in this study were concerned about what their friends thought about them. Many of them stated that the reason they did not ask for help from their teacher in the classroom was because they were afraid of the response from their classmates. Some were worried about being laughed at or ridiculed by their friends if they asked the wrong questions. “I do not ask because I feel shy when my friends look at me, how come my other friend already know [that matter] and I am the one who do not know so I feel shy and I do not ask” (FGI-10” Lara, 14/12/12). Several studies also have shown that students avoid seeking help because they are afraid and concerned about negative reactions from their peers (Butler, 1998; Ryan & Pintrich, 1997; Newman, 2000, 2002; Newman & Goldin, 1990). Furthermore, adolescence students therefore typically try to avoid being ridiculed by their groups because this may damage their friendships (Piaget, 1932; Piaget & Gabain, 1977). Thus, they are under pressure to follow their group norms otherwise they might face consequences such as being teased (Simon, Eder, & Evans, 1992).

These observations are in line with previous studies that mention students mask their inability and do not ask their teachers in the classroom because they are afraid that their classmates will see them as inadequate in the particular subject matter. Students
perceive that the cost of asking for academic help outweighs the benefit, therefore they do not ask for help (Karabenick & Knapp, 1991; Newman & Goldin, 1990; Ryan & Pintrich, 1997).

The following example is representative of this behaviour, and is what one student said in the interviews in relation to how peers influenced their academic help-seeking:

S: I do not ask because I feel shy when my friends look at me, how come my other friend already know [that matter] and I am the one who do not know so I feel shy and [therefore] I do not ask (FGI-: B, Year-6 student).
R: Do you often asking in the classroom?
S: Rarely Mam
R: Why?
S: [I feel] shy
R: Shy? To whom? Your teacher or students?
S: With students
R: Why?
S: Because I was afraid that they will laugh at me (FGI-9: Najib, 14/12/12).

One of the main findings in this section is that students worried about looking dumb in front of peers and teachers. They feel shy, do not want to reveal a lack of competence, and are therefore reluctant to ask for help. Classrooms in Indonesia tend to competitive, with teachers often showing the importance of achieving high scores. Therefore, most students learn that maintaining ‘looking good’ is important.

Students were afraid of losing face in front of their peers. Teachers can, however, provide a learning environment that decreases this anxiety. Ryan and Pintrich (1997) show that students with low achievement are still eager to ask for academic help when they perceive that the classroom stresses mastery more than performance goal orientation.

Academic help-seeking strategies involve not only cognitive ability but also the need to approach other people (teachers or peers), which can involve social and emotional
abilities. Asking for academic help might be seen as embarrassment and the risk of receiving negative responses from their classmates hinder these students (Newman & Goldin, 1990).

In summary, in this study peers played an important role in the development of student academic help-seeking behaviour, and they provided a valuable resource for student academic help. The interviews and classroom observations suggested that there were a number of factors that determined from which classmate a student requested help. Students preferred to ask for academic help from their peers rather than from teachers. A potential response emerges from this: teachers could provide learning activities that allow students to interact with their classmates in solving problems, while also monitoring the work dynamic in student groups. Peer influence on student academic help-seeking is complex and also depends on other factors, such as teaching methods, classroom goal structures and student social goals.

6.5 The role of parents and family background

Previous studies have shown that parents and family background contributes to the development of student academic help-seeking. Newman (2000) suggests that parent-child attachment determines student academic help-seeking behaviour in the classroom, while Puustinen et al. (2008) found that parenting nurturance is linked to children’s help-seeking in solving problems. A study from Calarco (2011) also shows different behaviours in student academic help-seeking between students who come from middle-class and working-class family backgrounds. Other studies from Stright et.al. (2001) and Neitzel and Stright (2003) show that the role of parents is important in developing student self-regulation in learning, including academic help-seeking behaviour.
In this study, I found similar findings relating to how family background might contribute to student academic help-seeking behaviour. Although I did not interview the parents directly, the ‘parenting and family background’ theme constantly emerged during the interviews with teachers across all schools. Teachers in this study always stressed the importance of student family background (in terms of social status), the parent-child relationship, and also parent-teacher communication concerning student behaviour in schools. Considering that teachers in this study have been building relationships with parents regularly in schools and many of them often intentionally conduct home visits, it seems reasonable to assume that teachers can be a valid resource for gathering information about family background. A similar study from Izzo et al. (1999) also used teacher perceptions of parental involvement in student achievement and found that teachers can predict the extent of parental involvement based on the child’s school performance. Teachers might draw conclusions about parental involvement at home in their children’s learning, however, and therefore might also compromise the validity of the findings. The idea that parents have a significant role perceived by teachers is also found in studies by Allen (1996), Matzye (1995) and Clarke and Williams (1992, cited in Fan & Chen, 2001). Therefore, this sub-section probes this issue deeply: it presents the role of parents and family background on student academic help-seeking behaviour based on teacher points of view. Although this theme of family background has emerged mainly from the teacher interviews, I was also able to draw some information from the observation data and student interviews.

Details within social research are also important to highlight, and some of the teachers who participated in this study were teaching in two different schools of different levels.
(regular and excellent). Therefore, teachers were also able to make comparisons between those schools based upon their own experience. The information gathered from them often showed the differences in student behaviour between those two types of school. Added to this consideration, teachers in this study were mainly concerned with four aspects of family background: SES (focus on parents’ education and economic level); the continuity between home and school environment; parents and family support of student learning; and, parent-teacher communication.

### 6.5.1. Family socioeconomic status

The four different types of schools (public, private, regular and excellent) in this study provided a range of student family backgrounds. School level may also determine the family background of the students. The regular public and regular private schools are generally representative of middle and low SES families, whereas excellent private and public schools represent middle and high SES families (Siagian, 2012; Taufiqqurahman, 2010). Taufiqqurahman (2010) argues that the existence of excellent schools has created a gap between students because only high SES students can afford to attend excellent schools. This study was thus able to elicit different stories related to student family background based on school level.

The regular public and private schools in this study were School B and School G, while School A and School F were excellent public and private schools respectively. One teacher from School B described the conditions of most of her students’ parents as being from a low SES:

> Here [in this school] most of the parents are from low level of education; they were labours, washerwomen, therefore the communication between parents and [their] children was low. (I-1: Mrs Nur Hamidah, Year-5 teacher, 31/10/12).
Another teacher from School B described the situation that “Many of the students were from a broken home family and from the middle, low and even very low socioeconomic status” (I-2: Mr Emil, Year-6 teacher, 05/11/12). Other teachers mentioned that some of the parents were unemployed and did not have a permanent job (I-3: Mrs Indri, Year-6 teacher, 27/11/12).

A similar situation was also found in School G, where the majority of students came from families with a low SES: “Almost 60–70% of the parents here were not able to pay the school tuition fee”. These parents mostly worked as sellers at traditional markets or were labourers, and the mothers usually worked as washerwoman (FGI teachers at School G, 10/12/12). Teachers also said these parents were busy with their work (in order to survive) and tended to neglect their children’s education. They rarely spent their time assisting their children with academic tasks. One of the teachers stated, “Parents did not give any attention [to children’s learning], they just go to work and that’s it” (I-13: Mrs Munawarah, Year-6 teacher, 10/12/12).

From school and classroom observations I was able to see the school environment, including the physical (building) of the schools and the appearance of the students. Both Schools B and G were located in a densely populated area and School B was located next to a traditional market in a narrow street. School G had a very modest (plain) building with only a small yard in front of the school. Students in Year 1 and Year 2 in School G shared the same classroom because the school did not have enough classrooms. There was a small library in School B with a limited book collection; however, there was no library in School G. Some students in School G did not have textbooks, requiring the school to lend the books to them. This situation provides a contrast with the conditions in Schools A and F, which were excellent schools.
Students from these schools obviously came from middle and high social SES, judging from the quality of their uniforms, shoes, school bags and gadgets. A study from Siagian (2012) shows that students from an excellent school tend to wear symbols that define them as ‘excellent’, such as wearing sophisticated gadgets. A consequence was that interaction between students from excellent and regular schools was typically distant.

The majority of teachers across all schools held the belief that the family SES impacted on student performance in school. Students need to first meet their basic needs in order to gain success in learning. Echoing this, Slameto (2010, cited in Warahmah, 2012) suggests that family economic conditions closely relate to children’s learning. Books, uniforms and other items for school learning can only be purchased if families have enough money. If students live in low SES families they can also lack basic needs, and this situation can disrupt their learning.

Furthermore, teachers pointed out that if parents have a low level of education this can also lead to their inability to help their children with school tasks such as homework, “How can they help their children with their homework if they even do not know how to read?” (I-4: Mr Widodo, Year-6 teacher, 27/11/12). This teacher often invited parents to help him with student homework issues. He then realised why some of his students did not complete their homework because the parents were actually unable to provide the required guidance.

A study from Stright and Neitzel (2001) found that parents with higher intellectual ability may give their children better academic guidance (metacognitive skills) and therefore their children will be more likely to become self-regulated learners. In this
case, however, parents may also have a low level of education and these students might not necessarily get the benefit from their SES.

Low SES (low income) demands that parents work all day. Teachers believed that this condition leads to a lack of communication between parents and their children as described below:

No wonder some kids keep silent at class not like other students, oh that’s because the condition at home … The parents were selling food in the traditional market, went home at noon and then get sleep. At night they start to work again, so they rarely meet their children. Do not care about their children so much; therefore no guidance for these children. That’s the weakness. So it is the environment that shape students habits. (I-17: Mrs Sari, Year-6 teacher, 24/12/12).

Since parents were busy with their work, communication with their children was low. The low level of communication then led to passivity of the children – they were not used to discussing academic issues with their parents.

A study by Puustinen et al. (2008) investigated the relationship between parenting and children’s help-seeking. The study found that warm and caring parenting related to emotional stability and self-confidence in girls facing problems, and facilitated them in seeking academic help such as hints instead of asking direct answers. It is important for parents to maintain their relationship with their children by giving them warm and caring parenting; however, in this study, students from poor families did not always experience that, reducing their ability to actively be engaged in the classroom, including asking for help when they need it.

One teacher also suggested that the level of education and the economic situation of the family might contribute to student behaviour at schools: “It is probably that the level of economic and education were different and maybe they do not open [to
critiques from children]; for example, students cannot say something [is] wrong about their parents” (I-8: Mr Muhidin, Year-6 teacher, 19/12/12).

A teacher from School B compared his students’ behaviour from this school with their peers from a private excellent school:

I can see the students in School X [an excellent private school] were very independent in learning. There was a very clear difference [between this school and that school] (I-2: Mr Emil, Year-6 teacher, 05/11/12).

This teacher also explained that differences in student behaviour between these two schools were due to the level of the school and the SES of the families.

Another teacher from School F, who teaches in two schools, made comparisons in student behaviour. He mentioned that in School F over 75% of students were active and able to understand the learning content, while in School Y (a regular public school) the students were more easily regulated (showing more obedience), but they also remained passive in the class. Students rarely asked questions even though he always provided opportunities for them to ask for help. Further, he reasoned that one factor that might make the difference between the students from the schools was parents or family background:

The response was different because probably parents in that school (School Y) did not support their children or due to the parents’ level of education ... In here, parents supported [their children] even though they might busy with their career they can send their children to a private tutorial or to their grandmother. These students have more opportunities [to have other learning resources] ... while the other students could really only depend on their school (I-8: Mr Muhidin, Year-6 teacher, 19/12/12).

He also argued that he always treated all of his students in both schools with the same teaching methods and the same quality of problems/material. The result, however, was different. Students in School Y rarely asked for help, while students in School F were more actively engaged in learning activities and showed more self-confidence.
Teachers from excellent schools also mentioned that middle and high SES parents can also face the same problem as low SES parents regarding time spent with their children. Due to job demands, these parents often did not spend enough time with their children. Nonetheless, these parents were still able to provide better quality material to support their children in their education. Therefore, these students were still able to gain support for their education and perform well in school. On the other hand, parents from low levels of education might not be able to support their children optimally because of their limited understanding about school.

Calarco (2011) investigated the behavioural differences between students from a middle-class background compared with students from a working-class background. From his observations he found that students from a middle-class background sought more academic help from their teachers compared with students from a working-class background. Furthermore, students from a middle-class background were also able to demonstrate different strategies for obtaining help from their teacher, often exercising more persistence. Therefore, these students were able achieve better outcomes compared with their peers from working-class backgrounds. Calarco’s study identifies that family background is one of the factors that contributes to student academic help-seeking behaviour. However, Calarco’s study did not give any direct or clear explanation regarding how family background relates to student academic help-seeking behaviour in the classroom.

To summarise, the SES of a family typically, though not necessarily, influences the ability of parents to support their children in education. Low SES families typically lead to low levels of support, which has the consequence of the students being unable
to perform well in school. Therefore, schools and teachers need to consider how to provide better services to those students.

6.5.2. Home and school environment continuity

Another important sub-theme that emerged from the teacher interviews was the continuity between the home and school environment – the maintenance of treatment over time or coordination among systems that support children’s learning and development (Garbacz et al., 2009).

Sheridan et al (2004) defines the continuity of the home-school environment as an approval/coherence in parent-teacher discussions or meetings. Further, Garbacz et al. (2009) elaborates this definition by adding the dimensions of structural continuity (consistency between parent-teacher supports on children’s learning) and relational continuity (the degree of connectedness between parents and the teacher). Pianta and Rimm-Kaufmann (2006) describe home-school continuity in terms of the agreement/coherence of stimulations, materials and routine that parents provide at home with the values that the school/teacher has to support learning at school.

Research shows that the continuity between home and the school environment will help students perform better in school (Pianta & Rimm-Kaufman, 2006; Pianta & Walsh, 1996; Rosier & McDonald, 2011). Therefore, students who experience discontinuity between home-school environments will be at a disadvantage. This condition might be more challenging because they need to be able to adapt to new values in school.

Teachers in this study mentioned the importance of continuity between home and the school environment as a factor that might contribute to student academic help-seeking
behaviour. One teacher stated that student will likely ask for help in the classroom when they are used to doing it in their home:

If their parents used to give [them] freedom to speak or sharing their opinion at home and they used to do it then Insha’Allah wherever they are they will feel free to do it too (I-1: Mrs Nur Hamidah, Year-5 teacher, 31/10/12).

From the student interviews, one student admitted that she often asked for academic help from her teachers in the classroom because her parents encouraged her to ask for help when she faced academic difficulties.

I have been taught [by my parents] to ask questions … for example if I don’t understand [the material] then I will ask my teacher (FGI-1: Ulfa, Year-6 teacher, 19/11/12).

On the other hand, when parents did not build a good learning culture at home, or did not provide assistance for children at home, these children were unlikely to have a good learning habit. In school, these students will likely fail to take the opportunity to ask for help from their teacher.

This study found that when students have been encouraged to ask for help by the parents at home, they will likely ask for academic help in the classroom. Parent behaviours towards their children and the stimulation, materials, and routines they provide in the home environment, support self-regulatory skills, motivation, language, pre-literacy, and social skills that young children mostly need when they enter a school (Pianta & Rimm-Kaufman, 2006).

Newman (2000) suggests that parents might help their children in school by providing support for autonomy, support for the development of competence and parent involvement. According to Newman, it is important for parents to join their children’s activities and to talk about it, because this action may be related to academic help-
seeking at school. The way parents talk to their children and discuss their activities together also impacts how parents provide help, and can be seen as an example for children. Therefore, when children face academic problems they can use these examples to solve their problems.

It is important for teachers to be aware of the patterns of family interactions, to be aware that children come to school with different levels of metacognitive ability and procedures for academic management (Neitzel & Stright, 2003). Parents could help their children at school by teaching them academic skills at home. When parents teach academic skills to prepare their children to learn in school, parents also emphasise the family culture, as well as their attitudes and motivation to their children (Bempechat, 1990). Children who have not been introduced to these academic skills often face difficulties in adjusting to the school’s regulations (Skinner, Bryant, Coffman, & Campbell, 1998).

Other important roles of parents at home that teachers thought might contribute to student academic help-seeking behaviour were the communication between parents and children, parent attitudes towards schools, parent-teacher communication, and parental support (learning support, attention and nutrition).

As Newman (2000) mentions, parental engagement with their children’s activities at home is important in helping students develop their skills in academic help-seeking behaviour. Teachers in this study also believed that the quality of communication between parents and children can help students develop academic help-seeking behaviour in the classroom:

If in their home they frequently communicate with their parents and considered [them] as friends, they have a place to share with their parents, mother and father.
then they will likely use to say their opinion or say what they want and usually these children come from family like that in the school they will behave like that too (I-6: Mrs Reni, Year-6 teacher, 30/11/12).

Other teachers emphasised that “openness to critique and having broad knowledge” was an important role of parents at home to support student academic help-seeking behaviour at school (I-8: Mr Muhidin, Year-6 teacher, 19/12/12).

Mrs Sari stated that teachers concerned about parents at home should “accompany and monitor their children” (I-7: Mrs Sari, Year-6 teacher, 24/12/12). This teacher also shared her observations on her students’ home conditions, and further explained that the lack of parental communication with their students leads to student passivity in the classroom:

No wonder some kids keep silent at class not like other students, oh that’s because the condition at home … The parents were selling food in the traditional market, went home at noon and then get sleep. At night they start to work again, so they rarely meet their children. Do not care about their children so much; therefore no guidance for these children. That’s the weakness. So it is the environment that shape students habits. (I-17: Mrs Sari, Year-6 teacher, 24/12/12).

This condition (low economic level), where parents are also busy with their work, made these parents tends neglect their children’s education. This also influenced their attitude to involvement in student learning that further influenced low levels of academic help-seeking behaviour (Newman, 2000).

Another parental attitude that might contribute indirectly to the low level of student academic help-seeking behaviour emerging from the teacher interviews was parent attitudes towards free education policies. Some teachers complained about the changing attitude of the parents when the government started to implement free education policy for public schools:

It is very different, if in private [schools] we can see that the parents were very involve [with the school]. Here, we cannot see that … now that everything is free
of charge [for public schools]. I think that would explain [the attitudes]. … in private [schools] the parents need to pay for fee school and you will fight for something that you have paid for (I-2: Mr Emil, Year-6 teacher, 05/11/12).

Some parents seemed to take the free education policy in the wrong way – it seemed to reduce parental responsibility for their children’s education. This finding was similar to the findings from Fitriah (2010) who found that parental participation in school decreased significantly after the government implemented the free education policy in 2009. The study was conducted in one district in Indonesia and focused on parent participation in school management. These kinds of parent attitudes were perceived by teachers as increasing the burden in their job. Without the support from the parents at home teachers felt that it was harder for them to achieve the target of the education/learning process.

6.5.3. Parent-teacher communication

Parental involvement in children’s learning, characterised not only by the continuity between home and school learning but also by the communication between parents and teachers, is also related to the success of students in school (Rimm-Kaufman, Pianta, Cox, & Bradley, 2003). Parent-teacher communication contributes to children’s achievement, attitudes and aspirations, regardless of student competence and family background, based on parental involvement in children’s learning/schooling (Izzo et al., 1999).

This study found there were two types of parent-teacher communication based on the SES of the parents. Teachers suggested that parents from low SES often put the whole responsibility of their children’s education on the school. These parents depended highly on the schools providing every requirement for their children to pass the NE and be able to continue to study in a public school.
One teacher stated, “Parents already give all the responsibility to the school, send their children here and hoping their children will pass the exam” (I-8: Mr Muhidin, Year-6 teacher, 19/12/12). Furthermore, he explained that he often had difficulties in gaining responses from the parents in parent-teacher meetings due to the low level of education of the parents:

The majority of parents were graduated [only] from primary schools, so often they do not fully understand [the meeting content], therefore in the meeting they just keep silent. We explained to them [the content], however, they keep silent. We ask them their opinion, they still silent … finally after the meeting was done, they approach me and said, ‘Please, do as you wish with my children, the important thing is that they can pass the exam and continue to the public school which is free”’ (I-8: Mr Muhidin, Year-6 teacher, 19/12/12).

Often the parents were reluctant to attend the parent-teacher meeting in school even though they had been invited. This was because they were afraid that they would be in trouble or they need to spend more money on their children’s education as explained below:

When we invite them, they were afraid because of the cost. Therefore, we have to explain to them that this meeting was not about money or other expenses (I-12: Mrs Novita, Year-6 teacher, 14/11/12).

This is in contrast with what happened in the school with parents from a higher education level, where the teacher stated that these parents showed their enthusiasm and eagerness to know their children’s progress in school. One teacher described them as vocal and critical, often complaining about the service from teachers and school (I-5: Mr Mustafa, Year-6 teacher, 28/11/12). Another teacher mentioned that good communication between the school and the parents had been built (I-4: Mr Widodo, Year-6 teacher, 27/11/12). The school always involved the community and the parents in their programs. Parents also often criticised the content of the curriculum, the program and the evaluation. One teacher mentioned that these parents felt that they had spent much money on their children’s education in this school and therefore they
had the right to get a better service for their children. Another teacher mentioned that she always invited the parents at least three times a year to socialise and evaluate the class activities, and to receive a progress report on the students. Parents often asked for solutions to their children’s problems and also gave feedback to the school and teachers (I-6; Mrs Reni, Year-6 teacher, 30/11/12).

When parents can work together with teachers they can also discuss the curriculum and homework, and this presents an optimum situation. Therefore parents may monitor their children’s progress closely (Epstein, 1992; Slaughter-Defoe, Nakagawa, Takanishi, & Johnson, 1990). Communication, cooperation, mutual respect, and reciprocity are important keys to the quality of the home-school relationship (Comer & Haynes, 1991). Parents who constantly work together with teachers can promote or enhance the quality of home-school continuity. Students who experience the integration of the learning environment between school and home would likely succeed in school.

These findings are limited, however, without supporting information from parents. Ideally, an investigation on parental involvement should include parent participation. Future research should continue to explore the role of parents (by exploring variable such as parent attitudes towards their children’s learning, how parents spend time with their children, how much time they provide in helping their children with school tasks, how they provide a learning environment, while also monitoring and discussing family background (socio demographic variable). Future research could also observe the condition of the family and their neighbourhood as part of the interview process. Overall these findings suggest that schools need to put more effort in building constructive relationships with the parents in order to provide a program to improve
parental ability and awareness of engaging with their children’s learning, especially those from low SES (Izzo et al., 1999).

6.6 Summary

The contextual factors in this study have been found to impact student academic help-seeking. Both the physical condition of the classroom and the classroom structure influenced student academic help-seeking behaviour. Students are able to learn better in a classroom that is comfortable with facilities that enhance their motivation and support their engagement in learning. Students seek more academic help in a classroom where the teachers employ democratic learning styles rather than a rigid high control teaching style. This study found that subject matter which allowed students to be challenged and experience meaningful learning also motivated them to engage with the learning processes, that included asking for academic help. Student academic help-seeking behaviour is also influenced by the culture and the learning culture in Indonesia that places emphasis on an exam-orientation, making students and teachers focus more on achieving high scores and passing the test while neglecting the importance of developing learning skills such as academic help-seeking. Therefore, in this situation, students were unlikely to seek academic help for the sake of learning itself. Furthermore, this study found that parents and peers might constrain student academic help-seeking behaviour.

In the next chapter the role of internal factors on student academic help-seeking are discussed.
Chapter 7 INTERNAL STUDENT FACTORS

Literature relating to student academic help-seeking suggests that there are many factors that determine student engagement, including contextual factors and student internal student factors. In an attempt to gain better understanding of student academic help-seeking behaviour, this chapter explores the internal factors influencing student academic help-seeking behaviour. Internal factors are those personal characteristics that students bring to the particular learning situation, such as age, personality, motivation, experiences and cognitive abilities.

The internal factors identified in this study are student attitudes towards academic help-seeking, student metacognitive knowledge and skills, student academic help-seeking skills, student characteristics, and demographic factors such as age and gender.

While all these factors were perceived differently and are unique to every individual in school, they cannot be separated from external factors. Pressure from both external and internal factors will impact student behaviour in the classroom (Aleven et al., 2003). Several studies, however, confirm the complexity of the interaction between such factors as a student’s prior knowledge and self-regulatory skills, and the kind of help offered by the system (Wood, 2001; Wood & Wood, 1999). Therefore the learning environment, the offered help, and the characteristics of the learners should be considered thoroughly.

7.1. Student perceptions of academic help-seeking

According to Newman and Schwager (1992) student perceptions about themselves and their environment is important in understanding the reality that guides their
behaviours. Student perceptions span their views, attitudes, beliefs, thoughts and interpretations. This section explores how students perceive such help and how these perceptions direct their behaviour in seeking academic help. From the data analysis, a common perception that may relate to academic help-seeking is associated with teacher expectations.

Student perceptions of factors that might influence their engagement in academic help-seeking in this study are broad, ranging from their perceptions about academic help-seeking, peers, teachers, academic identity, and classroom contexts. The role of peers, classroom contexts and teachers was addressed in Chapters 4, 5 and 6. Chapter 5 detailed the role teachers fulfil from their perspective, therefore in order to gain from both views, this section addresses student perceptions of their teachers as potential helpers in academic help-seeking.

7.1.1. Student perceptions of their teachers

In educational settings the teacher is a significant person, and therefore, student perceptions of their teachers are important in considering how students behave in classrooms. Student perceptions of their teachers related to student academic help-seeking (Le Mare & Sohbat, 2002). Perceptions can become fixed but students also continually create their perceptions of teacher behaviour and teacher expectations. Together with their perceptions of classroom activities these perceptions become an important factor for students in deciding whether or not they ask for academic help (Newman & Schwager, 1992).

This study found that student perceptions of teacher feelings and expectations play an important role in academic help-seeking behaviour. Students can determine how their
teacher feels about them through observation of teacher communication behaviours (Teven & McCroskey, 1997). From student interviews, this study found that some students perceived their teachers as happy when they asked for academic help. From the student focus-group interviews one of the students stated, “The teacher was happy to see it. If someone were asking something and asks many times then the teacher will be happy” (FGI-9/10: Year6 students, 14/12/12). Such a perception will encourage students to ask for academic help from their teacher.

Many students, however, were also concerned about teacher expectations. One of the students shared that she was worried about her teacher’s perception that she was lazy and dumb, “Sometimes our teacher thinks that we were lazy … It’s just that sometimes some people [are] slower in their movement; I am also not fast but slow” (FGI-1: Ulfa, Year-6 student, 19/11/12). Some students also did not ask for help because they were afraid that their teacher might accuse them of cheating, “The fact is that we did not want to cheat, we just want to ask the way to solve it but directly [the teacher] commented ‘What do you up to? What’s wrong with you?’” (FGI-1: Year-6 students, 19/11/12). Another student had similar concerns:

For example if I got all the right answers for my social science task, I was worried that she might ask me, ‘How come you get it all right? Did you cheat?’ I was afraid that she might blame me for that (FGI-7: Septian, Year-6 student, 12/12/12).

Students were also afraid of being punished for engaging in discussion with other students on the other side of the classroom.

S: When I wanted to ask I was suspected of walking around the class …
R: So, you were not allowed to walk in the class?
S: No
R: But you wanted to ask a question right?
S: Yes, but [if you walk like that] then your name will be noted
R: Noted for what?
S: Will be noted and give it to the teacher and I will get punishment
    (FGI-4: Gunawan, Year-6 student, 19/12/12).

Some students even perceived that they were not supposed to ask any questions in the classroom. According to Newman (2000) students have different sets of beliefs towards their teachers. Students may perceive a teacher as a possible helper or as a possible cost when they ask them for academic help. Findings from this study show that such considerations were part of making a decision to ask for academic help.

Previous studies show that student perceptions of teacher involvement, understanding feelings and reciprocal liking, are connected with student engagement and achievement scores (Davidson, 1960; Moos & Moos, 1978, cited in Newman & Schwager, 1992). Furthermore, Davidson (1960) suggests that the more students have positive perceptions of their teacher’s feelings, the better their achievement and the more appropriate their behaviours are considered to be by the teachers. This study found that some of the students had positive perceptions of teacher feelings about asking for academic help, and therefore, these students will be likely to ask for academic help.

Another important issue concerning student perceptions of their teachers is their perceptions of teacher treatment. According to Brattesani (1984) student perceptions of teacher treatment also plays an important role in mediating teacher expectancy effects (or expectations) in the classroom. This means that when students perceive that their teachers have low expectations of them they also perceive that teachers will treat them differently compared with those students with high achievement. Several studies show that students do perceive differences in the ways teachers work with high and low achievers (Brattesani, 1984). These studies show that low-achieving students
report more negative feedback, and more work and rule orientation; however, higher-achieving students report higher expectations, and more opportunities and choice of task. Students in this study were also aware that they were given feedback from their teachers that were consistent with their own achievement or teacher expectations levels.

Conversely, teachers also have different expectations towards their students. Several studies show the presence of differential teacher expectations of individuals within classrooms (e.g., Eccles & Wigfield, 1985; Good & Brophy, 2003; Pellegrini & Blatchford, 2000, cited in Rubie-Davies, 2006). Furthermore, Brophy (1982, cited in Rubie-Davis, 2006) suggests that teacher expectations influence 5% of student achievement and argues that while this may be small, the accumulation of such an effect over a number of years could have a marked influence on student achievement. Cooper (1979) also suggests that teacher expectations often play a role in student achievement. He indicates that students perceive that teachers tend to stay with high-achiever students longer after they have failed to answer a question (verbal input). Students perceive that the teacher gives more clues and more repetition, and/or more explanation when these students answer a question incorrectly than when low-achieving students answer incorrectly (Brophy & Good, 1970, cited in Cooper 1979).

In summary, student perceptions of teacher expectations and teacher feelings determine student academic help-seeking behaviour. Students who perceived that their teachers are unhappy with their behaviour will be unlikely to approach to them and ask for academic help. Consequently, teachers need to consider how well and how fairly they support and encourage students to ask whenever they need help.
One of the important factors that influenced student willingness to ask for academic help found in this study was their feelings and previous experiences regarding asking for academic help from their teachers. When students perceive positive feelings/emotions about academic help-seeking they will be likely to ask for more help in the future. On the other hand, negative feelings will likely make them avoid seeking academic help. This study also found that past experience of asking for academic help might relate to behaviour in the future. Moreover, Le Mare and Sohbat (2002) suggested that in seeking academic help, students establish strong feelings about whether they feel comfortable in approaching their teachers.

A study from Pekrun (2002) shows that academic emotions such as enjoyment, hope, pride, relief, anger, anxiety, shame, hopelessness, and boredom are all significantly related to student motivation, learning strategies, cognitive resources, self-regulation, and academic achievement, as well as to personality and classroom antecedents. Furthermore, Pekrun suggests that emotions may influence student cognitive processes and performance, as well as their psychological and physical health. Therefore, it is important to investigate how students feel in relation to their experience in engaging academic help.

According to Meyer and Turner (2002), student-teacher interaction is an important factor of student engagement in learning. In this interaction, both students and teachers are involved in experiencing a range of emotions that play a pivotal role in teaching and learning processes, such as how students face failure, how they engage in challenging situations, how teachers deal or feel about these relationships, and how
students discern whether or not their teacher is supportive or involved in their learning processes.

In human learning, there are three essential components: cognition, motivation and emotion (Snow, Corno & Jackson, 1996, p. 243, cited in Meyer & Turner, 2002); however, many researchers examine these three components separately (Meyer & Turner, 2002). Furthermore, Meyer and Turner (2002) suggest that emotion is commonly neglected or just a background in some studies. Therefore, in order to address this shortcoming, this study investigated the component of emotion to gain a better understanding of it in relation to student academic help-seeking behaviour.

This study found that students experience a range of emotions related to academic help-seeking. Students revealed in the interviews that they were satisfied (FGI-9: Yoga, Year-6 student, 14/12/12), happy (FGI-9: Malik, Year-6 student, 14/12/12), proud (FGI-9, Najib, Year-6 student, 14/12/12) and felt appreciated (FGI-6, Fatimah, Year-6 student, 12/12/12) after successfully getting help from their teachers.

Despite these positive emotions being mentioned, many students also experienced negative emotions related to academic help-seeking. One student expressed anger, “I have been very emotional, and when I do I will go crazy” (FGI-1: Ulfa, Year-6 student, 19/11/12). Another participant said that she kept silent, “Sometimes I just hold it in my heart but I was afraid that someday I will blow up so I just keep silent … well, I just let it go” (FGI-7: Kartika, Year-6 student, 12/12/12). Disappointment was also one of the feelings that these students felt when their teachers responded to their questions inappropriately:

At that time I want to ask a question but when the teacher came and asked, ‘What are you doing?’ I said, ‘I asked the way to solve it’ but then the teacher said, ‘You
will cry if you were being scolded’ I was so disappointed but then I just keep silent (FGI-1: Aditya, Year-6 student, 19/11/12).

Some students felt emotions such as annoyance (FGI-1: Aditya, Year-6 student, 19/11/12) and hatred (FGI-2: Lisda, Year-6 student, 19/11/12). One student admitted to feeling sad, “When I was scolded I feel sad and therefore I don’t want to ask any questions again” (FGI-7: Iwan, Year-6 students, 12/12/12). Another student felt embarrassed in front of friends, “[I feel] embarrassed with my friends and my teacher (FGI: Vivi; Year-6 student, 10/12/12). Furthermore, students reported that they felt nervous when asking for academic help from their teachers and anxiety even before asking questions. These negative feelings will likely influence their reluctance to ask for academic help from their teacher.

According to Pekrun (2000) emotions can strongly affect students’ thoughts, motivation and behaviour. Negative emotions such as anger, disappointment and boredom related to avoidance behaviour (Meyer & Turner, 2002). On the other hand, positive emotions, such as enjoyment of learning, are associated with self-regulated learning (Meyer & Turner, 2002) and creative learning strategies, elaboration and metacognitive monitoring (Pekrun, 2000). Ryan et al. (2005), also found that students who feel positive emotions will be less likely to avoid seeking academic help, and students feeling negative emotions towards academic help-seeking tend to avoid seeking academic help.

This study found that students with negative experiences in seeking help from their teachers developed negative emotions that then led to avoidance behaviour in asking for academic help again in the future. However, if students experienced success in seeking academic help, especially from their teacher, and felt proud and happy because of it, they would likely engage with this learning strategy in the future. This finding
suggests that teachers need to be able to build student-teacher relationships with warm, caring and supportive approaches that create a positive learning environment.

7.3. **Student awareness of the needs for seeking academic help**

The first step for students in seeking academic help is their awareness of the need to ask for it (van der Meij, 1994). Van der Meij (1999) describes this initial stage as one of confusion, when students experience a gap between their prior knowledge and the new information they receive. Student awareness improves as their age increases (Newman, 1994). Furthermore, student awareness can lead to the decision whether or not to ask for academic help.

From a self-regulated learning theory perspective, awareness is an aspect of metacognitive knowledge that allows students to know whether their understanding or lack of it matches with particular learning materials (Cao & Nietfeld, 2007). With this awareness, students are able to develop and plan strategies to enhance their learning, such as time allocation and the effort required to study. Moreover, Cao and Nietfeld (2007) describe metacognitive skills in terms of the ability of students to select appropriate learning strategies, to monitor the action, and then to evaluate the effectiveness of the selected strategies. Additionally, Cao and Nietfeld suggest that the interaction between metacognitive knowledge and metacognitive skills assists a student to become a self-regulated learner.

Consistent with these findings, this study found from the teacher interviews that teachers recognised one of the reasons their students ask for academic help is because they were aware of the need to ask for help:
Teachers recognise student awareness is important in encouraging them to seek academic help. The decision to ask for help can be triggered by the students (internally) or externally, such as by their teachers (van der Meij, 1994). Therefore, teacher awareness of a student’s need for help-seeking is also an important factor regarding this behaviour.

During the interviews, teachers reported that many of their students did not ask for academic help because they often did not know what to ask: “They were confused what to ask because they do not understand the lesson yet, they do not know what to ask” (I-1: Mrs Nur Hamidah, Year-5 teacher, 31/10/12), and, “Sometimes these kids wanted to ask but then do not know what to ask” (I-11: Mr Sigit, Year-6 teacher, 10/12/12).

Another indicator from the teacher point of view that may contribute to the lack of help-seeking is student prior knowledge. One teacher said that lack of knowledge and understanding of the material discouraged them from asking for help:

Yes, that’s concluded as well, because of the lack of knowledge and the difficulties of articulating the questions, ‘Which one should I ask or this maybe not an appropriate questions?’ (I-2: Mr Emil, Year-6 teacher, 05/11/12).

This lack of knowledge can lead these students to the decision not to ask for help because they were afraid that they might formulate the ‘wrong’ questions. Students also admitted that one of the reasons for not asking for academic help from their teachers is because they were afraid of “asking the wrong thing” (FGI-3: Gunawan, Year-6 student, 19/1/12). I also observed in School G that one of the students did not
ask her teachers for help, despite not knowing how to solve the problem (C-Ob: School G, 13/11/12).

This study found that some students do not know what to ask because of their lack of prior knowledge related to the content material. Students failed to use the opportunity to gain academic help from either their teachers or peers. This situation may be related to teachers not providing specific guidance for their students since they were busy reaching the target of the curriculum and preparing their students for the NE.

Aleven and Koedinger (2000) found that some students do not know when they need help, and refer to a limitation in student metacognitive ability in judging their need for academic help. Aleven and Koedinger also reveal that students with higher metacognitive skills are able to recognise better the need for academic help. They also suggest that the role of the tutor plays an essential part in teaching metacognitive skills and in guiding when they should ask for academic help. Students need to be taught to develop their metacognitive skills, such as recognising the need for seeking help, in order to increase this behaviour. However, many teachers in this study seemed to neglect this behaviour and take it for granted that their students would ask for help when they need it. It is not enough for the students that teachers emphasise the importance of academic help-seeking without helping them develop the necessary skills. Students need to be able to monitor their learning improvement and their understanding of material, and recognise the need for seeking help in order to close the gap in their knowledge.

Aleven and Koedinger (2000) also explain that student metacognitive skills are varied for each student; however, students with higher academic ability have better metacognitive skills. Some students may lack the ability to monitor their own
knowledge and understanding. In this case, the teacher should give more guidance. Teachers need to help the students develop metacognitive help-seeking strategies (Wood & Wood, 1999).

As students become self-regulated learners, they will be able to develop their own strategies in learning (Winne & Hadwin, 1998), particularly from the interchange of metacognitive knowledge and metacognitive skills (Cao & Nietfeld, 2007). Student academic help-seeking is thus a strategy of self-regulated learning. Therefore, students need to be able to use this strategy to enhance their learning. Furthermore, Cao and Nietfeld (2007) also found that despite student awareness of the need for academic help (metacognitive knowledge), some students still prefer not to use any strategies to get help, and instead apply learning strategies they already have. In other words, even though students have the awareness of the need for academic help, they do not necessarily develop the right strategies to overcome their difficulties.

Previous studies show that learning strategies are related to coordination of metacognition and prior knowledge (Pressley, Borkowski, & Schneider, 1987, cited in Cao & Nietfeld, 2007). It can be seen in this study that some students did not ask questions because they did not have enough prior knowledge and lacked awareness. According to Zimmerman and Martinez-Pons (1986), smart students employ more varied learning strategies than lower-ability students.

From the classroom observations, this study found that students did not develop learning strategies. In School G, students remained quiet in their seats and listened to the teacher’s explanation with no one actively taking notes until the teacher told them to. Therefore, if the teachers just continued with the lesson without telling them to take notes, the students might lose some important information. Teachers in this study were
not just neglecting the promotion of student academic help-seeking, but also other learning strategies that these students should have in primary level to continue to next level. Thus, these students were not learning how to learn – especially in seeking academic help when they need it.

In summary, students need to be taught how to develop these learning skills, including academic help-seeking. Relevant to this, a study from Cao and Nietfeld (2007) shows that student awareness does not automatically lead to engagement in applying appropriate learning strategies. This finding suggests that students still need guidance in order to develop their learning strategies and need to be able to apply them in the right situations.

7.4. Formulating questions

Academic help-seeking skills in this study refer to the ability of students to formulate a question, find an effective helper, perform the actual behaviour, and then evaluate the behaviour. The data indicate that students were reluctant to seek academic help even when they required it. This situation might be related to the ability of students perform academic help-seeking through formulating questions.

This study found that many of the students did not ask for academic help because they did not know how to formulate a question properly: “[Students] feel shy, afraid of asking the wrong questions, afraid of making mistake …” (I-14: Mrs Hana, Year-4 teacher, 10/12/12):

But the way I see it is that these students cannot formulate their questions. That’s the most important thing. Actually here they want to raise questions but then they cannot articulate their questions … So, in my opinion, their inability to speak their mind [is one of the factors] (I-2: Mr Emil, Year-6 teacher, 05/11/12).
Another consequence that these students may encounter is when they ask the wrong questions they may feel humiliation in front of their peers:

[They were] afraid of making a wrong question; [they could be] afraid of being blame and other kids would shout ‘wuuuuu’ something like that, being ridiculed by other kids (I-12: Mrs Novita, Year-6 teacher, 10/12/12).

This finding is also supported by student interviews. Some students did not ask for help because when they were about to ask they could not find the words: “There was a time when I have prepared the lines carefully. But then I got blank. Everything was gone and [I was] very nervous and my heart was beating fast” (FGI-10: Felli, Year-6 student, 14/12/12). Another student explained that they were worried their teacher would not understand their questions:

I was afraid that my teacher doesn’t understand my questions because I can’t say it properly. I was afraid that my questions were not clear enough (FGI-6/7: students, Year-6 students, 12/12/12).

Moreover, other students felt that they did not have enough vocabulary to formulate a question: “It’s difficult. The vocab was difficult and I could not find the vocab” (FGI-10: Lara, Year-6 student, 14/12/12).

According to Nelson-Le Gall et al. (1990), when a student increases their experience in seeking help, they show improvement in being able to formulate a question to specific academic problems. For example, students with good vocabulary choices related to specific learning content ask more essential questions compared with students who have limited vocabularies.

7.5. Student characteristics

Several studies identify that student characteristics are related to how they engage in academic help-seeking. Motivational characteristics such as aspiring for achievement
(Newman & Goldin, 1990), academic self-efficacy (Ryan et al., 1998), and having a learning goal orientation (Newman, 1998) are related to academic help-seeking. Personality traits such as greater shyness (Le Mare, 1998) and self-perceptions of social competence (Ryan & Pintrich, 1997) are also related to student academic help-seeking.

This section describes student motivational characteristics and personal/trait characteristics related to academic help-seeking. Teachers in this study reported that the decision by students to seek academic help may depend on their characteristics. This study examined this issue from both student and teacher perspectives. Both teachers and students were asked to identify what kind of students likely engaged with academic help-seeking and what were the characteristics of students who tended to avoid seeking academic help. This study found similar characteristics emerged from both the student and teacher interviews. Characteristics such as confidence expressed by smart and curious students associated with actively asking for academic help. In contrast, shyness and passiveness were associated with avoidance.

7.5.1. Confident, smart and curious students

Teachers in this study highlighted student characteristics such as self-confidence and curiosity as some of several characteristics that might endorse student academic help-seeking: “[The student] already has high self-confidence [from home] and also has high curiosity” (I-1: Mrs Nur Hamidah, Year-5 teacher, 31/10/12), and, “Well it’s true that smart students were [asking questions], for lower students, it is very hard… And also for brave kids [they] were asking questions” (I-7: Mrs Irma, Year-6 teacher,
Moreover, it was also stressed that student ability to perform higher level thinking influenced their academic help-seeking:

In general, students who have critical thinking and raise questions were smart students... The ones who ask questions were the smart students, the others who do not completely understand yet did not ask any questions (I-4: Mr Widodo, Year-6 teacher, 27/11/12).

Similar to these teacher views, students also described the same characteristics for those students who actively engaged in asking for academic help, especially from their teachers. These characteristics were being active in class, brave, clever or smart, and curious.

Both students and teachers valued these characteristics as helping engagement in academic help-seeking behaviour. Smart and confident students likely perceived themselves as learners with high cognitive competence. Therefore, they were more likely to engage in academic help-seeking. This finding is supported by Ryan and Pintrich (1997), who investigated the role of perceived cognitive competence and perceived social competence related to student academic help-seeking. The results show that students who perceive themselves as having competence seek more academic help compared with students with less cognitive competence.

Curiosity is also one of the characteristics that can make students seek academic help when they face academic problems or find a gap in their knowledge. Studies from Newman (1990, 2002) show those students who have high curiosity will likely ask for academic help. These students show interest in learning new things and are intrinsically motivated in nature; they ask questions and seek help when they need it.

Students who ask for academic help in the classroom were not always perceived in a positive way from other students. For example, being brave is one of the characteristics
perceived as a positive value by both teachers and students; however, some students valued this characteristic negatively when it related to asking for academic help from the teachers. They saw other students who asked for academic help as *nekat* (bold/daring) and assumed that this student just wanted to get the attention of other students and their teachers (FGI-9: Year-6 students, 14/12/12). This negative label might happen because some students asked ‘silly questions’, sometimes unrelated to the learning content, and then other students made fun of these questions. Another negative characteristic is being *kepo*, a slang term used by students to describe other people who are nosy or curious. This term was used by students who perceived someone who asks something irrelevant to the topic being taught by their teachers (FGI-9: Year-6 students, 14/12/12).

S: If you want to ask maybe because you are *kepo*
R: What does *kepo* mean?
S: *Kepo* means knowing every participant object
R: Do you think it’s good or bad? Is it positive or negative?
S: Some were positives and some were negatives.
   The negative ones it’s because you ask something that’s irrelevant to the topic that you have been taught, hehehe.
   (FGI-9: Year-6 students, 14/12/12).

This finding suggested that not all students who asked for academic help in the classroom were perceived by the other students as showing positive behaviour and was dependent on what kind of questions students ask their teachers. Both students and teachers shared similar ideas, however, about what kind of characteristics that students should have to engage in academic help-seeking. This information can be used by teachers to provide the right feedback to their students in order to boost student self-confidence and develop learning content that triggers student curiosity.
7.5.2. Motivated learners

Previous studies show that student motivation is one of the important factors in their learning (Newman, 1990, 2002; Ryan & Pintrich 1997). Most of the teachers in this study acknowledged the importance of student motivation on their learning and academic help-seeking behaviour; however, they also expressed concern about the lack of learning motivation in their students. Teachers reported that they have observed their students in daily activities and found that many were unmotivated, and therefore, unlikely to ask for academic help:

Low, it is very low. The learning motivation is very low (I-2: Mr Emil, Year-6 teacher, 05/11/12).

Several teachers also noted lack of concentration, lack of interest, and lack of content comprehension: “… because they have something else in their mind …” (I-1: Mrs Nur Hamidah, Year 5 teacher, 31/10/12). Furthermore, teachers also found that their students showed little learning enthusiasm, “Their enthusiasm was also low” (I-20: Mr Firdaus, Year-6 teacher, 14/12/12). And, “They just do not understand, therefore they were afraid of asking … because if they do not understand than they won’t ask any questions” (I-12: Mrs Novita, Year-6 teacher, 10/12/12). One of the participants commented on students who do not take note or pay enough attention to their teacher:

Maybe at that time [the student] was not concentrating a little bit and missing something or maybe when I was explaining something then [the student] took notes therefore took note while listening to my explanation. [The student] only got half notes and half from my explanation (I-8: Mr Muhidin, Year-6 teacher, 19/12/12).

The lack of a reading habit was identified as another factor influencing the lack of motivation:

To read a book is also very low. They don’t even want to visit the library. So, when they went to the library, they just have a look at the title of the books and
change all the time, but never read the book completely. No one has ever had any intention to borrow the books (I-2: Mr Emil, Year-6 teacher, 05/11/12).

Learning motivation certainly plays a significant role in student academic help-seeking. At this stage of schooling, students might hold different goals with some adopting achievement goals such as a desire to master the learning content and is likely to ask for academic help, whereas some students adopting performance goals such as receiving rewards and avoiding punishment is unlikely to ask for academic help (Ryan & Pintrich, 1997).

7.5.3. Shyness

This study also found some characteristics in students that might become a barrier in their academic help-seeking behaviour. The first characteristic that teachers constantly stated was shyness. One of the reasons for most students not asking for help was because they were too shy to raise their hand and ask for help: “The truth is there was something that they wanted to ask but they were shy” (I-7: Mrs Irma, Year-6 teacher, 30/11/12). “In general, they were afraid or feel shy, shy to ask. (I-13: Mrs Munawarah, Year 5 teacher, 10/12/12).

Similar with their teachers, many students also reported that they did not ask for academic help because they felt shy (FGI-5: Vivi, Year-6 student, 10/12/12). “I feel a little shy to ask to my teacher” (FGI-4: Dedy, Year-6 student, 10/12/12). Shy students do not ask for academic help from their teachers, or even from their friends.

Some students were thus reluctant to seek academic help even when they were aware that they needed it. According to Arbeau, Coplan and Weeks (2010), shyness is related to socio-emotional difficulties. Arbeau et al. suggest building close teacher–student relationships with shy students as a strategy to help them adjust with the environment.
Shy students are cautious and nervous when facing new social situations and also worried about other people’s social-evaluation (Coplan & Armer, 2007). Moreover, although these shy students want to make social contact with their peers, they are often inhibited by social fear and anxiety (Coplan, Prakash, O’Neil, & Armer, 2004).

This study found that many students were too shy to ask for academic help especially from their teachers. Reasons given by these students were that they were concerned with other people’s opinions, especially their peers and teachers. A shy person usually has low self-esteem (Cheek, Malchior & Carpentieri, 1986 cited in Schroeder, 1995). A shy person also often feels anxiety and is not sure about themselves and therefore avoids interaction with other people (Wills & DePaulo, 1991). This social anxiety influences their ability to accept help from their social support network. Shy students are reluctant to ask for academic help because they perceive themselves as lacking social competence and might not be able to build a good relationship with the potential helper. They are afraid that their request for help will be rejected. They have a self-fulfilling prophecy, a shy person often feels that their request for help will be denied or rejected and therefore they act or behave in such a way that causes them to be actually rejected (Wills & DePaulo, 1991). Furthermore, Brophy (1996) suggests that the lack of social competence in shy students may result from the lack of opportunity for conversations with their parents or their peers.

Student shyness may emerge in their overall personality or only in a certain situation as a response to a trigger (Brophy, 1996). For example, shy students develop social anxiety because of repeated failure, mistreatment or rejection from adults or peers. This study found that some students were reluctant to ask for academic help because
Lacina-Gifford, Kher & Besant (2002) conducted a study to explore what kind of strategies might be useful in helping shy students in the classroom. The results show that shy students should be treated with respect, not made to feel stupid, and teachers need to avoid sarcasm and use direct instructions. In contrast, they found that confronting or embarrassing the student in front of the class, or using punishment strategies are unproductive approaches.

What can teachers do to help shy students? Teachers need to be aware that a student is shy and help them develop themselves. Brophy (1996) suggests reducing shyness through peer involvement. Shy students enjoy and open up more in small-group activities (Garbe, 1990). Since shy students avoid social interaction and yet crave to be accepted by other people (teachers and peers), it is best for them work in a small group so that they do not feel as though they attract too much attention (Garbe, 1990). Additionally, teachers need to be able to minimise stress or embarrassment and need to encourage their responses through involving them in private talks. However, this study found that the typical classroom environment in Indonesia tends to be competitive and emphasises performance that might hinder shy students from participating in learning activities. In this case, teachers need to create a classroom atmosphere that stresses mastery and understanding more. Ryan and Pintrich (1997) found that low-ability students ask for more academic help when they perceive their classroom as one that values mastery goal structures.

In summary, shyness in this study typically resulted from lack of competence, causing avoidance of seeking academic help and the consequent embarrassment in front of
other people. The classroom environment led these shy students to behave that way. The following sub-section discusses the passiveness of students in this study.

### 7.5.4. Student passiveness

Students in Indonesia are often portrayed by their own teachers as passive learners. Teachers in this study reported that one of the reasons why many of their students did not engage in academic help-seeking was because they were always passive in the classroom. Passive learners in academic contexts refer to those students who do not interact or participate at all during classroom interactions (Jones & Gerig, 1994). Jones and Gerig (1994) found that nearly 30% of the students in their study remained silent in the classroom and did not participate in whole class discussion, with any discussion tending to be dominated by only a few verbally active students.

From the interviews and the classroom observations, this study found that most students (75–80%) did not engage or remained silent in the classroom. One of the teachers commented that many times his classroom was so quiet that it was like he was teaching in the cemetery (I-8: Mr Muhidin, Year-6 teacher, 19/12/12). This situation describes a typical classroom in Indonesia. According to Harsono (2006), many Indonesian teachers perceive that a good class is equivalent to a quiet class where the students sit quietly and listen obediently to their teachers. Students then learn that silence is an acceptable or good behaviour in the classroom. Indonesian students are thus ‘taught’ to be quiet in class so they can listen to the teacher appropriately.

Some researchers argue that student passiveness is influenced by the culture (Deveney et al., 2005) while others propose that it may happen because of student preference,
where they choose to be passive regardless of their academic ability (Jones & Gerig, 1994).

Deveney et al. (2005) conducted a study in Thailand and found that several student behaviours were manifestations of the culture. She found that while Thai students have positive characteristics, such as being friendly, sociable and academically able, she found that they tended to be passive, rarely active in discussion, only responding to the teacher when asked to, and preferred to keep silent even when they know the answers.

Students in Indonesia can also be described this way since Indonesia and Thailand share similar values and culture. Both countries have a collectivist culture, as Dimmock (2000, p. 47) explains:

> In collectivist societies, people place group goals above their personal goals; they are brought up to be loyal to, and integrate into, strong cohesive groups, which often include extended families.

Indonesian culture also places the teacher in a high position, requiring that students pay respect to them. Students in this study can be seen kissing their teacher’s hand to show respect. Parents emphasise to their children that teachers in school should be treated like second parents. Therefore, students should talk to them politely, and arguing with them is something that is considered rude or impolite and possibly leading into overtly respectful behaviour. Indonesian collectivist culture also tends to avoid conflict and prefers smooth interactions and maintenance of harmony.

The asymmetrical relationship between the teacher and the student can also be seen as a strong cultural trait that might contribute to and endorse student passiveness. One teacher reported that his students refused to engage with the activity he set up because
they considered it impolite to throw a ball to older people (I-20: Mr Firdaus, Year-6 teacher, 14/12/12). Furthermore, this teacher commented that Indonesian culture does not encourage student questioning, and that students do not want to ‘lose face’, being afraid of making a mistake. Silence therefore, can also be perceived as a cultural phenomenon, as it is seen as a way of showing respect and politeness to teachers.

This study found that many of the passive students were also shy. As previously mentioned, shy students would likely avoid seeking academic help, especially from their teachers, because they do not want to embarrass themselves. Jones (1994) supports this finding and shows that 72% of passive students described themselves as shy. Furthermore, the low academic achievement of these shy students made them lack confidence and therefore they avoided interaction with other people. Likewise, students in this study did not want to be the centre of attention. They expressed feeling anxious or afraid of speak out in front of other people. However, avoiding being the centre of attention could also be explained by developmental characteristics of early adolescence (Susman, 1993).

The passive behaviour of students in this study can thus be explained as the way they cope with the variety of classroom contexts they face (Good & Brophy, 1987, cited in Jones, 1994).

Another explanation can be inferred from Good, Slaving, Harel & Emerson (1987) who offer a model of student passivity which suggests that differences in teacher feedback contribute to why some students become verbally passive in the classroom. This model proposes that teachers often give low-achiever students less time, direct answers instead of the formula and feedback, call them less often, and forget to give them rewards for their achievements.
Jones and Gerig (1994) also found, however, that some of these passive students report their passiveness as a part of their learning style. They do not engage with the whole class discussion because they might prefer to listen, to analyse, and to think. They like to work alone. In this case, the decision to keep silent is from the students themselves, not from the teacher. Teachers therefore should be careful in judging student passiveness, and not assume that passive students are low achievers.

Classroom contexts that emphasise performance goal structures could also contribute to student passiveness. In these classroom contexts, students are likely to be judged by their academic achievement. Therefore, they choose not to ask for academic help to maintain their self-image. Exam-oriented learning culture, drilling from the teacher and passing the test also leads to neglecting the development of learning skills such as seeking academic help. The teacher-centred approaches found to be dominant in this study are therefore reinforced by such cultural traits and, as a consequence, many teachers reported resistance to changing their teaching method into more student-centred approaches.

What can teachers do to reduce student passiveness? Deveney (2005) suggests that teachers need to improve their awareness and to enhance their skills to be able to build a learning environment that supports the students in developing confidence and taking an active role in the learning processes. This can be facilitated by using small-group discussion in which silent or passive students can learn to take responsibility by working with others including seeking and giving academic help. Other strategies include developing a meaningful and welcoming learning environment in which passive and shy students can feel acceptance and not worry that their ideas and answers
will be rejected. Such strategies can help these students feel that it is okay to be wrong, to learn from mistakes, and be free to explore more.

To summarise, the passiveness of the students in this study is consistent with them not actively seeking academic help. This passiveness can be seen as resulting from the influence of Indonesian culture that has a very significant impact on both the teaching and learning processes. Moreover, the classroom context that places emphasis on competitiveness and performance forces low-achiever students to remain passive. Exacerbating this situation, student shyness and lack of competence leads them to hide their inability by not asking for academic help.

7.6. Student attribution

This section details the findings on student attribution. The student attribution items in the survey were *good at math* (ATR1), *work very hard* (ATR2-R), *ability* (ATR3), *motivation* (ATR4), *effort* (ATR5), *preparation* (ATR6), *the test was easy* (ATR7), *luck* (ATR8-R), *talent* (ATR9), and *the amount of the task was not too much* (ATR10). Table 7.1 presents the means and SD for each item of student attribution.
Table 7.1 Means and standard deviation for student attribution

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ATR3</td>
<td>3.28</td>
<td>0.64</td>
<td>337</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ATR4</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>337</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ATR5</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>336</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ATR6</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>337</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ATR8-R</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>336</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ATR7</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>335</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ATR1</td>
<td>2.89</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>337</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ATR2-R</td>
<td>2.81</td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td>337</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ATR9</td>
<td>2.60</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>337</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ATR10</td>
<td>2.53</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>334</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: a) Means were ranked from highest to lowest; b) The students were asked to rank their attributions on a four-point scale: 1 = strongly disagree; 2 = disagree; 3 = agree; 4 = strongly agree; c) A repeated measures ANOVA was used on the above means, $F(9,2934) = 44.60, p < 0.01$

In Table 7.1 ability (ATR3) is rated the highest (3.28), and motivation (ATR4), effort (ATR5), preparation (ATR6), luck (ATR8-R) and test was easy (ATR7) are also rated 3 or higher (true). However, it can be seen in Table 7.1 that good at math (ATR1), work very hard (ATR2-R), and talent (ATR 9) are rated lower than 3, with the task was not too much (ATR10) rated as the lowest (2.53).

Table 7.2 Percentages for student attribution items

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ATR3</td>
<td>1.48</td>
<td>5.64</td>
<td>55.79</td>
<td>37.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ATR4</td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td>14.54</td>
<td>43.61</td>
<td>38.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ATR5</td>
<td>2.68</td>
<td>9.52</td>
<td>54.76</td>
<td>33.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ATR6</td>
<td>4.45</td>
<td>11.57</td>
<td>50.15</td>
<td>33.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ATR8-R</td>
<td>5.66</td>
<td>18.45</td>
<td>41.67</td>
<td>34.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ATR7</td>
<td>3.58</td>
<td>18.80</td>
<td>51.64</td>
<td>25.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ATR1</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>22.84</td>
<td>54.02</td>
<td>19.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ATR2-R</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>30.28</td>
<td>48.36</td>
<td>18.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ATR9</td>
<td>6.82</td>
<td>38.28</td>
<td>43.03</td>
<td>11.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ATR10</td>
<td>10.78</td>
<td>35.33</td>
<td>43.71</td>
<td>10.18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: a) $N = 337$; b) 1 = strongly disagree; 2 = disagree; 3 = agree; 4 = strongly agree

Table 7.2 shows that there were 92.88% students who reported that item ATR3, ability, was true and the other 7.12% of students reported it was not true. For ATR4, motivation, 82.5% students agreed that it was true while 17.5% students did not agree. For ATR5, effort, 295 students (87.8%) agreed and the other 41 students (12.2%)
stated that it was not true. Similarly, 283 students (83.98%) reported that ATR6, *preparation*, was true and 16.02% of students said it was not true. For ATR8-R, *luck*, 255 students (75.89%) agreed and 81 students (24.11%) disagreed. For item ATR7, *test was easy*, 77.62% students reported that it was true and 22.38% reported that it was not.

There were 73.31% of students who reported ATR1, *good at math*, as true or very true and the remaining 26.69% of students did not agree. For item ATR2-R, *work very hard*, 66.46% of students reported it was true and the rest (33.54%) reported it was not true. In the case of item ATR9, *talent*, the distribution is more even with 185 students (54.9%) reporting it was true or very true and 152 students (45.1%) reporting that it was not true. Likewise, 180 students (53.89%) reported that ATR10, *the task was not too much*, was true and 46.11% of students said that it was not true.

Table 7.3 shows total mean and SD of student attributions in this study. With M = 2.97, it shows that students in this study attribute academic help-seeking as a relevant behaviour in their learning process. They will likely perceive that they have adequate ability and believe that effort will improve their achievement (Ames & Lau, 1982). Therefore, they will be likely ask for academic help when they need it.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ATR</td>
<td>2.97</td>
<td>0.40</td>
<td>331</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: ATR = attribution

A correlation found that the student attribution and student intention to ask for academic help was significantly correlated, \( r = 0.29, p < 0.01 \).
Figure 7.1 Scatterplot between attribution and academic help-seeking

Figure 7.1 shows a positive correlation between student academic help-seeking and student attribution. This positive correlation means that when students attribute the academic help-seeking behaviour as relevant, they will likely ask for help. This finding is similar to the study from Ames and Lau (1982) that shows students will likely ask for help when they attribute performance in asking for academic help as effort and internal factors.

Further investigation was conducted and the results can be seen in Table 7.4, which shows the means of student academic help-seeking for each items of student attribution.
Table 7.4 Means of academic help-seeking and attribution

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Means (Academic Help-Seeking)</th>
<th>F (3,326)</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ATR3</td>
<td>26.60</td>
<td>25.26</td>
<td>28.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ATR4</td>
<td>26.00</td>
<td>26.91</td>
<td>28.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ATR5</td>
<td>26.11</td>
<td>26.16</td>
<td>28.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ATR6</td>
<td>29.33</td>
<td>27.49</td>
<td>28.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ATR8-R</td>
<td>29.16</td>
<td>27.48</td>
<td>28.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ATR7</td>
<td>29.17</td>
<td>27.81</td>
<td>28.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ATR1</td>
<td>28.54</td>
<td>27.41</td>
<td>29.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ATR2-R</td>
<td>28.18</td>
<td>28.91</td>
<td>28.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ATR9</td>
<td>29.05</td>
<td>27.62</td>
<td>29.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ATR10</td>
<td>29.42</td>
<td>28.62</td>
<td>28.42</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: ns = not significant

Table 7.4 shows there were four items from the questionnaire that show significantly different academic help-seeking for each scale. They were ability (ATR3), motivation (ATR4), effort (ATR5) and talent (ATR9). Students who perceived that they have adequate ability and talent in math also perceive more effort and motivation as important, and are likely ask for academic help.

On the other hand, there were no significant differences on preparation (ATR6), luck (ATR8-R), test was easy (ATR7), good at math (ATR1), work very hard (ATR2-R) and the task was not too much (ATR10).

To summarise, the positive correlation found in this study shows that in students who hold help-relevant attributions were likely to ask for academic help when they need it. However, the r value ($r = 0.29$) was considered to be a weak correlation, therefore, showing that there other variables influence student academic help-seeking behaviour.

### 7.7. Student meaningful learning orientation

This section describes the findings on student meaningful learning orientations. There were 10 items relating to this theme within the survey: *I try to understand a subject by*
correlating it to real life situations occurring every day (MLO1), I study in a way that I concentrate on memorising a lesson (MLO2-R), sometimes, I don’t really understand what I have read/learnt (MLO3-R), I usually ask myself about the material I have learnt from the teacher (MLO4), when I learn a new material, I try to correlate it to what I have formerly known (MLO5), when I learn new material, I try to see its benefit for the sake of my goal (MLO6), when I learn a new thing, I try to correlate it to daily life (MLO7), I spend a lot of time on reviewing the lesson in order to memorise it (MLO8-R), I usually read material with no effort to really gain an understanding of it (MLO9-R) and I am not certain about what I am learning; I just try to catch it up as far as I can (MLO10-R). Table 7.5 illustrates the means and SD in meaningful learning orientation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MLO6</td>
<td>3.19</td>
<td>0.854</td>
<td>335</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MLO5</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>0.791</td>
<td>335</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MLO7</td>
<td>2.99</td>
<td>0.761</td>
<td>336</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MLO1</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>0.872</td>
<td>337</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MLO4</td>
<td>2.83</td>
<td>0.910</td>
<td>336</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MLO9-R</td>
<td>2.78</td>
<td>0.828</td>
<td>336</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MLO10-R</td>
<td>2.62</td>
<td>0.906</td>
<td>337</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MLO3-R</td>
<td>2.40</td>
<td>0.750</td>
<td>337</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MLO8-R</td>
<td>2.19</td>
<td>0.866</td>
<td>334</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MLO2-R</td>
<td>1.95</td>
<td>0.787</td>
<td>337</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: a) Means were ranked from highest to lowest; b) The students were asked to rank their MLO on a four-point scale: 1 = not at all true; 2 = somewhat true; 3 = true; 4 = very true; c) A repeated measures ANOVA was used on the above means, \( F(9, 2934) = 83.85, \ p < 0.01 \)

Table 7.5 shows that two items were rated higher that 3, MLO6, when I learn new material, I try to see its benefit for the sake of my goal, and MLO 5, when I learn new material, I try to correlate it to what I have formerly known, with MLO 6 the highest (3.19). Other items were rated lower than 3, with MLO9-R, I usually read material with no effort to really gain an understanding on it, the lowest (1.95).
Table 7.6 shows that for MLO6, when I learn new material, I try to see its benefit for the sake of my goal, 275 students (82.9%) agreed while 60 students (17.91%) stated it was not true. Similar numbers (79.70%) perceived MLO5, when I learn new material, I try to correlate it to what I have formerly known, as true and 20.30% said it was not true. For item MLO7, when I learn a new thing, I try to correlate it to daily life, 77.68% students reported it was true and 22.32% students reported it was not. There were 241 students (71.52%) who reported MLO1, I try to understand a subject by correlating it to real life situations occurring every day, as true or very true, while 96 students (28.48%) did not agree. For item MLO4, I usually ask myself about the material I have learnt from the teacher, 65.48% students agreed it was true while 34.52% students did not. For MLO9-R, I usually read material with no effort to really gain an understanding on it, 226 students (67.26%) reported it was true or very true, and the rest (32.74%) reported that it was not true or not true at all. MLO10-R, I am not certain about what I am learning; I just try to catch it up as far as I can, was more evenly distributed with 54% agreeing it was true and 46% disagreed. For MLO3-R, sometimes, I don’t really understand what I have read/learnt, the views were more even with 43.02% students reporting it was true and 56.98% students reporting it was
not. For MLO8-R, *I spend a lot of time on reviewing the lesson in order to memorise it*, 213 students (36.23%) agreed and the rest (63.77%) disagreed. Lastly, for MLO2-R, *I study in a way that I concentrate on memorising a lesson*, 76.86% reported it was not true and (23.14%) reported it was true.

Table 7.7 shows total mean and SD of items indicating a positive meaningful learning orientation of participants.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MLO</td>
<td>2.69</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td>328</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: MLO = meaningful learning orientation

A correlation found that the student meaningful learning orientation and student intention to ask for academic help was significantly correlated, \( r = 0.29, p < 0.01 \).

**Figure 7.2** Scatterplot between meaningful learning orientation and academic help-seeking
Figure 7.2 shows a positive correlation between student academic help-seeking and student meaningful learning orientation. The finding suggests that students in this study who showed a meaningful learning orientation, such as connecting the learning material with their prior knowledge, will likely seek academic help when they encounter difficulties. This is consistent with Cavallo (1994) who found that students ask for academic help more when they have a meaningful learning orientation; however, the r value was small ($r = 0.29$) indicating a weak correlation between the two variables. Students in this study may not develop the strategies of a meaningful learner and seek academic help when they need it. Classroom observations confirmed that many of them did not employ strategies such as taking notes without their teachers telling them to (C-Ob: School B, School F and School G). In a highly teacher-dominant and competitive class, students might find it hard to develop meaningful learning orientations. Students in this study were in Year 6, and soon to face the NE. Therefore, together with their teachers, they were more concerned with getting a high score in the exam. In other words, learning processes emphasised drilling and memorising learning content rather than learning in a meaningful way. This situation may lead to the low frequency of student academic help-seeking behaviour in the classroom.

Another explanation for the low correlation between the academic help-seeking behaviour and the meaningful learning orientations arises from the $\alpha$ Cronbach of the measurement (see Chapter 3 section 3.5.3). Students in this study may have provided responses simply to please the researcher and to satisfy other people such as their teachers. According to Fisher (1993), social desirability bias occurs when respondents try to avoid embarrassment and project a favourable image to others. Future research
is needed to enhance the validity and the reliability of the instrument and reduce this bias.

### 7.8. Demographic factors

This section explores the impact of demographic factors on student academic help-seeking behaviour. Previous studies show that age has a significant influence on student academic help-seeking (Newman, 1995; Newman & Goldin, 1990; Ryan & Shim, 2012); however, previous studies show different results related to the impact of gender. Some studies show that girls typically ask for more academic help than boys, and is a behaviour perceived as more acceptable for girls than boys (Ryan et al., 1998; Ryan et al., 1997). Other researchers, however, found that there are no differences between boys and girls in seeking academic help (Butler & Neuman, 1995). The following sub-section discusses these issues in more detail.

#### 7.8.1. Age

Because this study only investigated Year-6 students, the impact of age can only be examined in terms of developmental stage (early adolescence). This study closely examined how this stage influences students to ask for academic help.

According to Eccles et al. (1993) many researchers refer to early adolescence as a stage of storm and stress, and many individuals experience difficulties as they pass through it. This stage is also characterised by negative psychological changes that result from a mismatch between the needs of developing adolescents and the opportunities afforded them by their social environments. For example, a mismatch can develop in school or at home.
Many teachers in this study noted that in this period students have reached, or are approaching, puberty and they care more about their peers and social life than academic achievement:

And also Mam, the Year-6 students have already stepped in into puberty phase. One student might do not be shy before, willing to ask and perform but after they were in a higher level they sometimes feeling shy. Therefore sometimes we need to look back into that matter too (I-21: Mr Hendra, Year-6 teacher, 14/12/12).

Susman et al. (1987) describe puberty as a period with dramatic changes in the hormone system taking place in parallel with physical development. This stage is also characterised by escalation of aggressiveness and rebellious behaviour (Weisfeld & Berger, 1983). As one teacher reported, many of his students also started to show juvenile delinquency and negative behaviours:

That’s unique about students at Year-6; they were in the puberty phase therefore from their behaviour and language sometimes out of the track. That’s when the role of the teacher is needed. We need not to bore to guide them, develop and teach them. Because in this stage they have tendency to misbehave and if as a teacher we do not care about it then it will become juvenile delinquency (I-20: Mr Firdaus, Year-6 teacher, 14/12/12).

Similarly, Susman et al. (1987) mention that the effect of hormones can be seen through the expression of negative behaviour such as irritability or talking back.

Students in this study mentioned that they did not ask any questions or seek academic help because they did not want other people (peers and teachers) looking at them, or in other words, they did not want to be the centre of attention (FGI-10: Year-6 students, 14/12/12). Avoiding being the centre of attention is also one of the characteristics of early adolescence (Good et al., 1987, cited in Susman, 1993). Good et al. found that there is a point where asking questions in Year 7 decreases significantly and can be interpreted as students avoiding being the centre of attention. Likewise, there is the so-called imaginary audience phenomenon (Farel, 1982, cited in Susman, 1993), where students at this age feel like an actor on a stage with everyone looking at them. This
feeling combines with their rapid physical changes to make them want to avoid becoming the centre of attention even more.

This study also found that teachers preferred to teach mature students because they are more ready to learn: “It seems that the active one is those students because of their age, they are mature. The age factor, when they are mature enough [ready for school]” (I-3: Mrs Indri, Year-6 teacher, 27/11/12).

Teachers in this study also reported that their students as spoilt (I-3: Mrs Indri, Year-6 teacher, 27/11/12), apathetic (I-19: Mrs Diana, Year-6 teacher, 24/12/12), ignorant (I-11: Mr Sigit, Year-6 teacher, 10/12/12), giving up easily (I-13; Mrs Munawarah, Year-5 teacher, 10/12/12), not caring much about their achievement (I-20: Mr Hendra, Year-6 teacher, 14/12/12) and underestimating their learning. Basically, this describes a lack of learning motivation. This finding is consistent with Ryan and Shim (2012), who found the decline in achievement due to the change of student perceptions of their learning goals. Ryan and Shim also found that students ask more direct questions of their peers rather than asking for academic help for understanding the content.

Eccles et al. (1993) show that early adolescence is characterised by a decrease in school grades. Furthermore, Eccles et al. suggest there is a decline in some of the motivational constructs such as intrinsic motivation (Harter, 1981), interest in school (Epstein & McPartland, 1976), self-concept and self-perception (Eccles, Midgley, & Adler, 1984), and confidence in one’s intellectual abilities, especially following failure (Parsons & Ruble, 1977). Additionally, there is a decrease of attention in class, school attendance and self-perception as indications of a regular decline in academic motivation (Midgley & Eccles, 1989).
In summary, this study found that early adolescence influences student academic-help-seeking behaviours because at this stage students are more concerned with other people’s opinions and avoiding embarrassing themselves. Teachers of students at this age thus need to be aware of not embarrassing them in front of their peers. Teachers should be able to help early adolescent students to adjust to the school environment so that they can meet their academic goals and also their social achievement goals.

7.8.2. Gender

The role of gender in student academic help-seeking is still unclear and debatable. The results from previous studies show inconsistency about whether male students ask questions more frequently than female students, and because of this inconsistency this study is only exploratory in this matter.

Findings from the interviews varied between schools as to whether there is a significant difference between boys and girls related to their academic help-seeking. From the descriptive statistical data, this study found that the mean from female students were higher than the mean of male students on student academic help-seeking (see Table 7.8).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>144</td>
<td>29.32</td>
<td>4.065</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>187</td>
<td>28.22</td>
<td>4.228</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A t-test was used to compare the means of female students and male students regarding their academic help-seeking. A significant difference was found between them, \( t \) (329)
It shows that females have a significantly higher score than male students.

Figure 7.3 Student academic help-seeking and gender

Figure 7.3 shows the difference between male and female academic help-seeking. Female students have higher intentions to ask for academic help than male students. This finding confirms some of the studies on gender and academic help-seeking.

From the interviews, however, this study found that teacher views varied about which group (male or female) ask more for academic help. One teacher from School B argued that, “Boys sought more help than the girls since they were more confident.” And, “Boys, because they have confidence and even though they were just mediocre but they were brave”. (I-3: Mrs Indri, Year-6 teacher, 27/11/12). A teacher from School A also reported similarly that the girls are shyer than boys. The boys were perceived as more aggressive and therefore they ask for academic help more often, “Girls were shyer than boys who were more aggressive … and the vocal ones were mostly the ones in the middle rank” (I-19: Mrs Diana, Year-6 student, 24/12/12).
Student interviews revealed different stories about which groups sought more academic help. Students in School D viewed that girls were more willing to ask for help because they are braver than boys. The common reason for that is because mainly girls are more diligent and tekun (more committed) than boys.

R: Which one asks questions more in the class? Is it boys or girls?
S: Girls
R: Why girls?
S: Because girls were more confident and in our class boys [rarely ask]. Only one or two boys …
(FGI-1: Aditya, Year-6 student, 19/11/12).

The same results were found in School D in the second focus-group interview:

R: Were there students who ask questions?
S: Yes there were
R: Were they more boys or girls?
S: Girls
R: More girls, how come?
S: Because they were talkative…
(FGI-9: Year-6 student, 14/12/12).

However, other students noted that some of the boys preferred to cheat rather than ask questions: “If other kids such as boys, they like to cheat. They do not ask how just ask directly the answer; please give me the answer” (FGI-1: Ulfa, Year-6 student, 19/11/12).

Student interviews in School F also indicate that girls sought more academic help because they were smarter and more curious than the boys. Additionally, students at this school perceived that boys asked less for academic help and were described as “not take the learning seriously” and more “joking around” (FGI-8: Year-6 students, 12/12/12).

These findings are interesting because the students attributed boys with characteristics such as ‘aggressive’, ‘brave’ and ‘talk loudly’ even though their academic
achievements were mediocre. Moreover, girls were perceived as shyer and quieter than boys, but also perceived as smarter.

On the other hand, when girls were perceived as seeking more academic help, both students and teachers attributed this to them because they were smart, talkative and diligent, and committed to learning processes. In this case, boys were again perceived as more ‘joking around’ and likely to choose the expedient way such as ‘cheating’ rather than asking for academic help to enhance their understanding. According to Gilligan (1982, 1983, cited in Ryan et al. 1998), girls are often less vocal, calm, or lose their voice because they want to appear as a ‘good woman’ stereotype, such as nice, polite, unassertive and quiet. Ryan et al. (1998) suggests that students perceive academic help-seeking more as a masculine than feminine activity. A study from Nelson-Le Gall & DeCooke (1987) found that in general, students perceived that girls are more likeable than boys. Girls are also perceived to have higher academic competence compared to boys. Many researchers also agree that girls hold positive status in the classroom and are expected to be more responsible (Nelson-Le Gall & DeCooke, 1987). As Aleven et al. (2003) suggest, there is a complexity in student academic help-seeking behaviour concerning gender.

In summary, this study found that girls were likely ask for academic help than boys. During the interviews, however, both students and teachers in some schools could identify which group sought more academic help. The results varied across the schools. In general, teachers perceived that boys asked more for academic help because they were braver and more aggressive than the girls, while students perceived that girls asked more because they were smarter and diligent.
7.9. Summary

This chapter showed that student internal factors such as student attitudes towards academic help-seeking play an important role in student academic help-seeking behaviour. Students with positive attitudes are more willing to ask for help and gain benefit from it.

Student awareness of the need for seeking academic help was also found to be an important factor; however, students in this study lacked such awareness. This condition is due to the lack of appropriate guidance from the teachers. To be consistent with the national policy teachers in this study could therefore give specific guidance to their students in developing their academic help-seeking skills and teach their students learning strategies that could assist them become self-regulated learners.

Student characteristics such being as smart, confident and motivated can be seen as helping the students engage more in academic help-seeking behaviour. For students with characteristics such as shyness, teachers need to communicate that making a mistake is a part of the learning processes. Teachers also need to be able to develop strategies to help shy students to engage more actively in the learning processes.

Student passiveness in the classroom can be addressed by the teacher developing teaching methods that make sure all students get involved, such as through small discussion groups or other teaching strategies. Teachers need to direct their classroom goal structures more towards mastery rather than performance as a strategy that might increase student academic help-seeking behaviour.

This study also found that students with help-relevant attribution tend to seek help compared with students who hold help-irrelevant attribution. Consequently, for
students to gain benefit from academic help-seeking, teachers need to guide their students with more emphasis on mastery learning. This study also found that students who pursue a meaningful learning orientation will likely ask more for help compared with students who have a rote-learning orientation. In order to address this, teachers should connect the learning material closely with student daily life in order to increase their academic help-seeking.

This study found no significant differences between male and female students related to student academic help-seeking behaviour. Also, in early adolescence student decisions to ask for academic help are dependent more on the benefit versus cost.

This study found that student academic help-seeking is a complex behaviour that involves both internal and external factors, with an interplay taking place between both kinds of factors.
Chapter 8 CONTRIBUTIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

This study focused on student academic help-seeking among primary school students in Jakarta, Indonesia. In drawing together the findings already discussed, this chapter highlights their significance in terms of contributions and key implications, particularly with respect to the mismatch between public policy and teaching practice.

In this thesis student academic help-seeking has been conceived as a strategy of self-regulated learners; however, this behaviour has been found to be dependent upon a number of critical factors. These factors have been the focus of this study, with the data analysis showing they can be classified as either contextual or internal to students. Contextual factors include the roles performed by teachers, peers and parents, as well as the classroom learning environment, the influence of subject matter, and the learning culture in Indonesia. Internal factors of the learners include student perceptions of academic help-seeking, their awareness and skills, and their characteristics. In addition, this study found that student attribution and meaningful learning orientations determine student academic help-seeking. Further, this study found that female students were likely to ask for more academic help than male students. Finally, behaviour in schools is significantly determined by the students being at the early adolescent developmental stage.

8.1. Significance of this study

As discussed in Chapter 1, this research set out to explore and investigate factors determining Indonesian student academic help-seeking behaviour. Both this study and the relevant literature show that this behaviour is commonly neglected, or even discouraged, by teachers. Questions from students are rarely expected in the classroom
by either students or teachers. As a consequence, research in this field is still limited in Indonesia. The current study can therefore assist in raising awareness of the importance of academic help-seeking as it reveals new information from an Indonesian cultural perspective. Furthermore, given the policy shifts within Indonesia in recent years, engaging in academic help-seeking should be considered as an ability that Indonesian students need to develop in order to promote student-centred learning in the Indonesian education system.

Findings from the current study demonstrate how academic help-seeking behaviour is developed and performed within the Indonesian context and, significantly, that it is different from other studies that have mostly been conducted in Western cultures. Academic help-seeking in Indonesia is strongly influenced by the Indonesian learning culture and educational system. Therefore, this study identifies a gap in the research literature on academic help-seeking, despite earlier research showing cultural differences in academic help-seeking behaviour between Asian and Western students (Volet & Karabenick, 2006).

Using mixed methods, this study has captured views from both students and teachers about the importance of this behaviour in teaching and learning, reasons why students do not ask for help and reasons why teachers are not able to optimise their efforts in promoting this behaviour. The use of mixed methods has enabled deeper investigation of the topic of academic help-seeking and provided a rich understanding of the contemporary situation.

This study has validated prior research while also identifying some new evidence suggesting factors (both contextual and internal) that are related to developing and performing academic help-seeking in Indonesia. These findings may help guide efforts
by teachers and schools to develop strategies that help students develop their skills in becoming active in their own learning. This study can therefore be used to raise teacher awareness of the importance of student academic help-seeking behaviour and inform teacher education as well as teacher pre-service preparation.

8.2. Key findings

This study found that within the contemporary Indonesian educational system student academic help-seeking behaviour is constrained due to a number of factors:

1. The ability of teachers to support student academic help-seeking is constrained because of a teacher dilemma: teachers are willing to promote student academic help-seeking behaviour; however, they may not act in an optimal manner because of obstacles they face associated their perspective on student-centred approaches, teaching skills and the pressure from the NE.

2. Student willingness to seek academic help depends on internal cognitive factors such as perceptions of academic help-seeking behaviour (cost-benefit), awareness of skills needed to ask for help, personal characteristics, learning orientation, attributions and their relationship with the teachers.

3. Within the competitive classroom learning environment many students feel that asking questions will only make them appear inadequate in front of their teachers and friends, making them more concerned about opinions of their teachers and peers and resulting in avoidance of seeking academic help rather than losing face.
4. Peers play an important role on student decisions about whether or not to seek academic help, with peers either supporting or inhibiting academic help-seeking behaviour. Year-6 students are in the early stage of adolescence, when peer acceptance and comparison are very important.

5. Parent support of student learning and parent communication with teachers will likely enhance student academic help-seeking behaviour. Parents from higher socioeconomic and educational backgrounds will likely engage more in learning, including academic help-seeking behaviour.

6. Parents from lower socioeconomic and educational backgrounds mostly give over their responsibility for their children’s learning to teachers.

7. Supportive classrooms environments (both physical and psychological) will more likely encourage students to engage with academic help-seeking. This study found that most of the classroom structures are characterised as having strong teacher control and a performance goal structure. These structures stimulate a competitive learning environment that eventually undermines student academic help-seeking.

8. Learning culture in Indonesia is characterised by teachers performing a dominant role in the classroom that has the effect of undermining student academic help-seeking behaviour.

8.3. Contributions of this study

The primary contribution of this study is in demonstrating that student academic help-seeking behaviour is a topic that can reveal much about the Indonesian education
system. In elaborating on the specific contributions the following findings are summarised and grouped under three key headings.

8.3.1. Dynamics of academic help-seeking behaviour

In the Indonesian context academic help-seeking is a behaviour that happens only under certain conditions and needs to be considered in context, as summarised below:

- Student academic help-seeking is a complex behaviour that is influenced by both contextual and student factors that impact each other.

- How students engage and seek academic help, their preference of helpers, and what kinds of academic help they seek have been identified. Significantly, while consideration of the benefit or cost involved in performing this behaviour is important, other factors, such as teacher responses to their questions, their academic help-seeking skills and classroom structures, are involved.

- Factors associated with teachers determine student decisions on whether to seek academic help. Teacher-centred approaches to classroom teaching are characteristic of most of the teachers in this study and have been found to be the main factor that inhibits students seeking academic help.

- Teachers defend their approach by reporting that they are not ready or are reluctant to adopt the new paradigm the Indonesian Government now promotes.

8.3.2. Depth of cultural impact

The general culture and the learning culture in Indonesia have proven to be important factors that determine student academic help-seeking behaviour:
This study provides new information concerning student academic help-seeking in the context of South East Asian culture. The literature review of academic help-seeking provides evidence that most research on this topic has been based on Western culture. This situation suggests a bias that needs addressing in order to develop a more global perspective that recognises some of the classroom dynamics in the context of South East Asian culture.

The learning culture in Indonesia plays a significant role in shaping behaviour of both teachers and students, and this includes academic help-seeking. The strong culture of a traditional paradigm in the education system (a dominance of ‘lecturing’ in the classroom) has conditioned both teachers and students to not expect questions in the classroom (Harsono, 2006).

In the context of collectivism culture (which emphasises maintenance of harmony) asking questions (in a quiet classroom environment) is perceived by most of the students and teachers as ‘disturbing’ the harmony of the classroom (Hofstede, 2011; Markus & Kitayama, 1991).

The asymmetrical relationship in terms of power and control between student and teacher (Maulana et al., 2011) is also a factor in making most teachers expect no questions from their students.

8.3.3. Issues arising with education policy in Indonesia

Academic help-seeking behaviour in Indonesia also has been restrained because of the complications arising between ideal and real practices of the education policy:

This study has identified a disconnection between some Indonesian policies relating to student-centred learning and their application in the classroom. This
disconnection has a negative impact because students are not actively encouraged to initiate seeking academic help.

- The policy literature shows that policy makers acknowledge the importance of students taking an active role in their own learning; however, the teachers in this study show that they are not ready and are more comfortable remaining with the traditional approaches.

- The curriculum policy framed by competence-based approaches and constructivism ideally encourages students to pursue their own learning and therefore to seek academic help; however, this study shows that both students and teachers are having difficulties in applying this new paradigm.

- The focus of the National Examination has forced teachers in Indonesia to reach the curriculum target through placing emphasis in their teaching by ‘teaching to the test’. Such a response will likely inhibit students asking for academic help.

**8.4. Implications of the research**

Drawing from the data analysis and the findings from this study, academic help-seeking is a complex behaviour that depends on both contextual and intrapersonal factors. However, this behaviour also has been considered as important for development of student learning. Therefore, strategies need to be developed for enhancing student academic help-seeking in Indonesia. If student academic help-seeking is encouraged, then the overall quality of the educational system will likely benefit. Improvements to the overall quality will ultimately depend upon improvement
of students and teachers at the individual level, as well as improvement at the school and national levels.

8.4.1. Individual level

At the individual level, this study found both students and teachers play a role in student academic help-seeking.

Students

Students are the subject of this study, and ultimately the development of academic help-seeking skills is associated with their learning. However, achieving this is not entirely their responsibility and students need assistance from the adults who surround them, especially their teachers. Therefore, the findings of this study suggest that:

1. Students have the right to develop skills; including the skills of seeking academic help that will assist them continue learning at higher levels of education.

2. Students have the right to express themselves freely, discuss openly and not worry about negative responses from their classmates or teachers.

3. Students have the right to be free from pressure and to experience learning as fun within a caring classroom structure that promotes learning behaviours without excessive pressure from the NE.

4. Students have the right to pursue their interest in learning something that is meaningful and useful, enabling them to actively engage in the learning process.
5. Students have the right to be taught, guided and encouraged to seek academic help and, in the case of Indonesia, they need to become accustomed to doing so. They need to know that in learning there is no silly question to ask.

**Teachers**

Teachers play an essential role in influencing student academic help-seeking behaviour. Teachers are potential helpers for students and should be able to optimise their role. As an implication of this study, teachers could encourage or promote student academic help-seeking through adopting a number of strategies:

1. Most importantly, teachers could avoid behaviours that might undermine student academic help-seeking. In order to support student academic help-seeking behaviour teachers need to provide positive responses to student questions, to be genuine in providing opportunities to students to ask questions, not judge their students, and remain accessible to their students by not being too busy with their own work or being absent from their class.

2. Teachers can provide guidance and develop student skills in academic help-seeking (step-by-step skills) and not assume that students will ask for help when they face academic problems. This study found that students do not automatically formulate questions that lead them to mastery and understanding of the learning content and some students develop expedient types of academic help-seeking behaviour such as just asking their peers for direct answers.
3. If teachers place more emphasis on mastery learning rather than teaching to the test, then even students with low ability will not be worried about asking questions since the risk has been reduced (Ryan & Pintrich, 1997).

4. Teachers can create strategies or teaching methods that involve or encourage students to participate more in the learning processes, including academic help-seeking. As suggested by Newman (2000), teachers may promote academic help-seeking through daily activities.

5. Teachers can build good relationships and communication with students so that they feel comfortable and secure and confident in asking for help in solving academic problems as mentioned by Karabenick and Sharma (1994) and Kozanitis et al. (2007). In this study some students acted differently towards their teachers when they were in informal situations, such as in break time or in extra lesson time; however, when they are in the formal situation of the classroom, they behaved in ways that re-established a distance between them.

6. Teachers can also build a strong relationship and communication with parents in order to maintain the same environment between home and school life. Teachers and parents can help each other support student achievement in school. Parents from low socioeconomic backgrounds can be empowered to get more involved with their children’s learning by active encouragement from teachers and principals as suggested by Calarco (2011). This requires building parent awareness of the importance of their role in their children’s learning. With parents from middle and higher socioeconomic backgrounds,
teachers can get benefit from their feedback to the teaching and learning processes.

7. Teachers can become involved with policy development and decisions because they are the ones who know the situation most. Teachers have the experience to express their own thinking about improvements that can be made.

8. Given the explicit direction from the government authorities, teachers need to start changing – shifting from teacher-centred approaches into more student-centred approaches. This can be achieved through providing more space or power to their students, creating more opportunities for their students to initiate questioning, and listening more to student voices in order to understand their learning needs better.

9. The quality of teaching and professionalism of teachers could be improved by teachers joining or attending workshops or participating in group discussions. Ongoing professional learning can be achieved through continued reading and study.

8.4.2. School level

It is the responsibility of the school and the principal to provide suitable learning facilities for teaching and learning, such as a library and books, and facilities in the classroom such as computers and projectors. This study found that school conditions ranged from excellent and well-resourced to poor with few resources. Schools and principals also have an obligation to meet a national standard for the learning activities as articulated in the national standard of education.
Principals can also serve as agents of change at the school level. Improvement of schools and teachers depends highly on how the principals lead. School principals have to have a vision for their school to become better. At the same time, teachers will find it a lot easier to change and adopt the new paradigm if they have full support from the principal.

8.4.3. National level

For the government to be effective at the policy level, teachers need to be supported in changing their practices. In particular, changes to the curriculum can only be effective if teachers have the skills to implement them. Consideration of how the NE operates also seems necessary.

This study has revealed student academic help-seeking behaviour is undermined by the NE and the educational system. Therefore, in order to enhance student academic help-seeking and their engagement in learning, policy reform within the MoEC also seems necessary. At the time of writing (2015) the Indonesian Government is further considering Kurikulum 2013 and how it might be implemented. Below are some implications and recommendations from this study for policy makers to consider. Specific actions that the MoEC can do to improve the quality of education in Indonesia, that will likewise enhance student learning skills, include the following.

For teachers:

1. The NE could function as a mapping of competence and not just a focus of teaching and learning.

2. Raise awareness about the importance of academic help-seeking behaviour as a strategy for achieving better quality of learning.
3. Teachers may promote student academic help-seeking by using student approaches that were found in this study. Teachers may give their students rewards for asking questions, demonstrate respect of students questions, checking students one by one if they have any questions and being creative to find ways engaging in academic help-seeking.

**For schools:**

1. Provide ongoing professional accreditation for all teachers in Indonesia through the provision of workshops and training.

2. Ensure the provision of the minimum standard of school facilities.

3. Provide opportunities to teachers to voice their concerns in the ongoing development of the curriculum and educational system in Indonesia.

**For parents:**

1. Encourage parents to build good communication between schools and parents in relation to student development and achievement.

2. Initiate a campaign about the importance of parental involvement in their children’s learning.

3. Schools and workshops for parents, and socialisation for the important role of the parents in schools and community. It is easier through schools (principals and teachers) as an agent of change.

In summary, there are several important things that the MoEC can do to improve the educational system that might enhance student engagement in learning, including
academic help-seeking behaviour. In order for any changes to be effective all parties involved should take an active role.

8.5. Limitations of the study

This study has focused on academic help-seeking behaviour of students in Year 6 in an urban setting in Jakarta. In using a mixed methods approach to capture the nature of academic help-seeking from both student and teacher perspectives many unanswered questions have arisen along the way as I reflected on the process of this research.

The findings of the current study must be interpreted in light of several limitations. Understanding these limitations has indicated areas for further research that could be useful.

1. The initial construct of academic help-seeking in this study did not separate adaptive and maladaptive behaviour. In the development of instruments all the items mostly referred to adaptive academic help-seeking; however, this limitation has been addressed to some extent through the analysis of the qualitative data interviews from the students.

2. In conducting the research between Stage 1 (administrating the survey) and Stage 2 (classroom observations or interviews) due to the time limitations of the schools, I did not have time to analyse the findings from the survey in detail prior to the classroom observations and interviews. Therefore even though the design involved sequential mixed methods, the data analysis was conducted in parallel. The sequential stage was only for the collecting procedures.
3. In some cases I could not match the data from the survey participants with the data from the interviews. For example, some parents who gave consent for their children to participate in this study only allowed the children to join the survey and not the interviews and vice versa.

4. I am aware that the instruments used in this study were developed from previous studies from Western cultures and were not specifically constructed/developed for Indonesia and this raises possible questions concerning the appropriateness of these instruments. However, in order to develop the instruments for the context, procedures such as expert judgement, translations and back-translation from an English expert and teachers, as well as the pilot study, were conducted in order to optimise the validity. Furthermore, one of the instruments, (the MLO instrument) did not reach the statistically reliable psychometric requirement; therefore, the interpretation of the results was also informed by the data from classroom observations and interviews to draw valid findings. Given this situation, further research is needed in this area to develop academic help-seeking instruments and other variables specifically for Indonesian students.

5. This study has found that parents have a significant role in determining student engagement in academic help-seeking. However, this finding is not directly from the parents themselves but through the interviews of students and teachers. Therefore, further research could be carried out to explore the role of parents by interviewing the parents themselves and making observations through parent-child relationships and how parents involve themselves in their children’s learning.
8.6. Future research

One of the outcomes of this study is that more studies concerning academic help-seeking in Indonesia are needed in order to explore different subject participants and methods, different levels of education, subject matter and each significant party related to academic help-seeking, such as students, teachers, principals, parents, peers and stakeholders and policy makers. Furthermore, research studies related to academic help-seeking in Indonesia may elaborate the findings from this study in order to validate or modify the theories involving topics such as attitudes, gender influence or socioeconomic background in Indonesian culture.

The findings of this study also have some important consequences for the Indonesian Government and policy makers on how to improve policy implementation of professional development, specifically for classroom teachers in deepening student engagement and promoting academic help-seeking. When Indonesian education culture and practices can come to the position – in terms of policy and practices and professional development – hopefully we might see some significant changes occurring to achieve better learning practices of Indonesian students. A big question that emerges out of this study for future research is how can the disconnect between government policy and practices in the classroom be best addressed.
References


Barron, P. (2002). Providing a more successful education experience for Asian hospitality management students studying in Australia: A focus on teaching and learning styles. *Journal of Teaching in Travel & Tourism, 2*(2), 63-88. doi:10.1300/J172v02n02_04


Architecture, and Management (pp. 323-347), Boston, MA: Pearson Allyn and Bacon.


Clark, C., Martin, R., Van Kempen, E., Alfred, T., Head, J., Davies, H.W., &…
noise exposure at school and reading comprehension: The RANCH project.
*American Journal of Epidemiology, 163*(1), 27-37. doi: 10.1093/aje/kwj001


*Educational Technology Research and Development, 47*(3), 15-31. doi:
10.1007/BF02299631


Cole, M., & Traupmann, K. (1981). Comparative cognitive research: Learning from
a learning disabled child. In W. A. Collins (Ed.), *Aspects of the development of

Collins, W., & Sims, B.C. (2006). Help seeking in higher education academic
support services. In S. A. Karabenick & R. S. Newman (Eds.), *Help seeking in
academic settings: Goals, groups, and contexts* (pp. 203-224). NJ: Erlbaum.


Cooper, H.M. (1979). Pygmalion grows up: A model for teacher expectation
communication and performance influence. *Review of Educational Research,
49*(3), 389-410. doi: 10.3102/00346543049003389

http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0012-1649.16.5.433

Tracing developmental patterns and consequences of children's spontaneous
interactions. In L. Wilkinson (Ed.), *Communicating in the classroom* (pp. 69-84).

withdrawal and nonsocial play in early childhood. *Child Development
Perspectives, 1*(1), 26-32. doi: 10.1111/j.1750-8606.2007.00006.x

Coplan, R.J., Prakash, K., O'Neil, K., & Armer, M. (2004). Do you" want" to play?
Distinguishing between conflicted shyness and social disinterest in early
childhood. *Developmental Psychology, 40*(2), 244-258. doi: 10.1037/0012-
1649.40.2.244


Lippman, P.C. (2010). Can the physical environment have an impact on the learning environment? *CELE Exchange*, 1-6. doi:10.1787/5km4g21wpwr1-en


Morrow, V. (2008). Ethical dilemmas in research with children and young people about their social environments. *Children's Geographies, 6*(1), 49-61. doi: 10.1080/14733280701791918


Taufiqqurahman. (2010). *Sekolah elit sebagai reproduksi alat kesenjangan sosial: Studi terhadap proses reproduksi kesenjangan sosial di lingkungan internal*


van der Meij, H. (1990). Question asking: To know that you don't know is not enough. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 82*(3), 505-512. doi:10.1037/0022-0663.82.3.505


http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.cedpsych.2010.03.002


Appendices

Appendix A. Ethics Forms

Appendix A.1 PLS and CF for parents

Appendix A.2 PLS and CF for parents in Indonesian language

Appendix A.3 PLS and CF for students

Appendix A.4 PLS and CF for students in Indonesian language

Appendix A.5 PLS and CF for teacher

Appendix A.6 PLS and CF for teacher in Indonesian language

Appendix A.7 PLS and CF for school principal

Appendix A.8 PLS and CF for school principal in Indonesian language
Appendix A.1 PLS and CF for parents

Dear parents,

My name is Ratna Dyah Suryaratri, and I am currently a PhD student in the School of Education at Charles Darwin University, Australia, and I am the principal researcher of this project. This study is conducted under supervision of Associate Professor Greg Shaw of Charles Darwin University.

I would like to invite your child to join in this research project. The information your child provides is very important for helping students learn best. Your child was selected as a possible participant in this study because he/she studies at an urban school in Jakarta. Your child’s participation is voluntary, however, I would appreciate it very much.

As part of my study, I will arrange times to sit in to observe your child in their class. With your permission, I will use a video recorder to capture learning activities in the class. These recording will be kept secure and no one will know what your child says or does.

Also, your child will be invited to join a group interviews consisting of 6 students. I would like to ask few questions during this interview about some factors that might encourage or inhibit your child in learning. This session will also be recorded. If necessary I will follow-up with individual interviews and your child may be invited to participate. At any time, your child can refuse to answer any question or withdraw from the research without consequences of any kind.

Any information that is obtained from your child will remain confidential and kept secure. If you allowed you children to participate in this research, please indicate it by completing the informed consent on the last page.

If you have any questions about the research, please feel free to contact me, Ratna, via email at ratnadyah.suryaratri@cdu.edu.au; or phone at 081209971562. You may also contact my Supervisor, Associate Professor Greg Shaw, via email at greg.shaw@cdu.edu.au; or phone at +61 8 8946 7306

If you have any problem related to this research, you can contact Executive Staff of CDU HREC via phone at +61 8 8946 6498 or via email: cdu-ethics@cdu.edu.au

Thank you.

Ratna Dyah Suryaratri

(this for you to keep)
Parent consent form

Research project: Factors influence academic help-seeking among primary students in Jakarta, Indonesia.
Supervisor: Associate Professor Greg Shaw
Researcher: Ratna Dyah Suryaratri

- I have read and understood the information provided about this research project (Plain statement dated September 2012).
- My child’s participation in this study is free and voluntary.
- I agree that my child take part in this research:
  - [ ] Fill in the questionnaire
  - [ ] Classroom observations: [ ] classroom observation will be videotaped
  - [ ] Focus group discussion: [ ] focus group discussion will be recorded
  - [ ] Individual interview: [ ] individual interview will be recorded

- I understand that I may withdraw my child from this research at any time and neither I nor my child will be disadvantaged in any way should I do this. If I withdraw my child, I understand that all relevant tapes and transcripts, or parts thereof, will be destroyed.

Name of student: 

Name of parents/guardian: 

Signature: 

School: 

Date: 
Appendix A.2 PLS and CF for parents in Indonesian language

LEMBAH INFORMASI PENELITIAN

Bapak/ibu yang terhormat,

Nama saya Ratna Dyah Suryaratri, dan saya sedang menempuh S3 di School of Education, Charles Darwin University, Australia, dan saya adalah peneliti utama proyek ini. Penelitian ini dilakukan di bawah bimbingan Associate Professor Greg Shaw dari Charles Darwin University.


Pertanyaan tentang penelitian ini dapat disampaikan kepada saya, Ratna, melalui email di ratnadyah.suryaratri@cdu.edu.au atau melalui telepon di no: 081299517192. Bapak/ibu juga dapat menghubungi supervisor saya, Associate Professor Greg Shaw, melalui email di greg.shaw@cdu.edu.au atau melalui telepon di no: +61 8 8946 7306

Apabila Bapak/ibu memiliki masalah terkait dengan penelitian ini, Bapak/ibu dapat menghubungi Staf Eksekutif dari Charles Darwin University Human Research Ethics Committee melalui no telepon +61 8 8946 6498 atau via email: cdu-ethics@cdu.edu.au

Terima kasih,
Ratna Dyah Suryaratri

(lembar ini untuk dicopir)
Lembar kesediaan mengikuti penelitian

Pembimbing: Associate Professor Greg Shaw
Peneliti: Ratri Dyah Suryarati

Dengan ini saya menyatakan bahwa:

- Saya telah membaca dan memahami informasi yang diberikan tentang proyek penelitian (lembar informasi tertanggal Juli 2012).
- Keikutsertaan anak saya dalam penelitian ini bersifat sukarela dan bebas tumpang tekanan.
- Saya setuju anak saya berpartisipasi dalam penelitian ini: [ ]
  ☐ Mengisi kuesioner penelitian
  ☐ Observasi kelas dan ☐ observasi akan direkam
  ☐ Diskusi kelompok dan ☐ diskusi akan direkam.
  ☐ Wawancara individu dan ☐ wawancara akan direkam.
- Saya memahami bahwa saya dapat menarik anak saya dari penelitian ini kapan saja dan baik saya maupun anak saya akan dirugikan dengan cara apapun yang harus saya lakukan ini. Jika saya menarik anak saya, saya memahami bahwa semua kaset yang relevan dan transkrip, atau bagianya, akan dihancurkan atau dikembalikan sesuai dengan permintaan.

Nama siswa: __________________________________________

Nama orang tua/wali: _____________________________________

Tanda tangan: __________________________________________

Sekolah: ______________________________________________

Tanggal: ________________________________________________
Appendix A.3 PLS and CF for students

Plain language statement

Dear students,

My name is Ms Ratna and I am studying about students’ behaviour in primary schools. I want to find out about how students and teachers help one another in solving academic problems in the classroom.

I would like you to spend one hour to fill in a set of questions about your feelings and opinions on what happen in your classroom. There will be no right or wrong answers, only your opinion matters. No one will know your responses, not your peers, teachers or parents. Please do not put your name on the questionnaires. Your answer will be kept secretly anonymous. Your participation will be very valuable to me.

If you are happy to take part, then just sign your name below and give the form to your teacher. You don’t have to take part if you don’t want to. Just tell your teacher and no one will mind. If you need to ask any questions, tell your teacher and I will come and talk to you.

From

Ms Ratna

(please tear this part and give it back to your teacher 😊)

Student Consent Form

Dear Ms. Ratna,

- I have read and understood the information about this study.
- I agree to fill in the questionnaire for this research
- I am happy to take part in this research

Name________________________

Signature____________________

Date_______________________
LEMBAR PENJELASAN PENELITIAN

Halo adik-adik semua,

Nama saya Ratna dan saat ini saya sedang meneliti perilaku siswa di sekolah dasar. Saya ingin menaari tahu tentang bagaimana siswa dan guru saling membantu dalam memecahkan masalah akademik di dalam kelas.


Terimakasih banyak dan salam manis,

Ratna

Lembar kesedian mengikuti penelitian

(berikan bagian ini kepada Bapak/Ibu guru, terimakasih)

Kepada Ibu Ratna,

* Saya telah membaca dan memahami informasi tentang penelitian ini.
* Saya setuju untuk mengisi kuesioner untuk penelitian ini
* Saya senang ikut dalam penelitian ini

Nama

Tanda tangan

Tanggal
Appendix A.5 PLS and CF for teacher

Plain Language Statement

Dear teacher,

My name is Ratna Dyah Suryaratri, and I am a lecturer from Universitas Negei Jakarta (UNJ) and currently a PhD student in the School of Education at Charles Darwin University, Australia, and principal researcher of this project. The research involves learning more about academic help-seeking behaviour among primary students in Jakarta. This research is conducted under the supervision of Associate Professor Greg Shaw of Charles Darwin University.

I would like to invite you to participate in this research project. The information you provide is extremely important in helping students achieve educational goals. Your participation is free and voluntary. If you agree to participate in this study, we would ask you to do the following things:

1. Classroom observations
   I will arrange times to sit in to observe students in your class in order to get an accurate picture of what goes on in your classroom.

2. Focus group and individual interviews
   One hour focus group interview to find out about teacher perceptions concerning student academic help-seeking behaviour. If required, some follow up individual interviews may also be held. With your permission, I would like to audio and video-tape the observations and interviews so I can record the details accurately.

Confidentiality and data security

Any information that is obtained in connection with this study that can identify you will remain confidential and will only be disclosed with your permission. Responses will be held in the strictest professional confidence and will only be viewed by the principal investigator.

Risk

You can choose whether to be in this study or not. If you feel any discomfort you may stop and withdraw from the study at any time. If you volunteer to participate in the research project above, please indicate that you agree to participate in this research by completing the informed consent on the last page.

Further information for this research:
If you have any questions or concerns about the research, please feel free to contact:
Researcher: ratnadyah.suryaratri@odu.edu.au; phone at 081 29997192.
Supervisor: pres.shaw@odu.edu.au; phone at +61 8 8940 7306.

If you have any problem related to this research, you can contact Executive Staff of CDU HREC via phone at +61 8 8940 6498 or via email: edu-ethos@odu.edu.au

Your assistance in this research is greatly appreciated.
Ratna Dyah Suryaratri

(this for you to keep)
Teacher consent form

Research project: Factors influence academic help-seeking among primary students in Jakarta, Indonesia.
Supervisor: Associate Professor Greg Shaw
Researcher: Ratna Dyah Suryaratni

- I have read and understood the information provided about this research project (Plain language statement dated September 2012).
- My participation in this study is free and voluntary.
- I agree to participate in:
  - Classroom observations ☐
  - Focus group discussion ☐
  - Individual interview ☐
- Classroom observation will be videotaped
- Focus group discussion will be recorded
- Individual interview will be recorded

- I understand that I may withdraw myself or any information that I have provided for this research and that I will not be disadvantaged in any way should I did this. If I withdraw, I understand that all relevant tapes and transcripts, or parts thereof, will be destroyed.

Name of participant: __________________________________________
Signature: __________________________________________________
School: _____________________________________________________
Date: ________________________________________________________
Appendix A.6 PLS and CF for teacher in Indonesian language

LEMBAR INFORMASI PENELITIAN

Yang terhormat Bapak/ibu guru,

Saya, Ratna Dyah Suryarani, dosen Universitas Negeri Jakarta (UNJ) dan saat ini sedang melakukan penelitian untuk penyelenggaraan studi saya di School of Education - Charles Darwin University, Australia. Tujuan penelitian ini adalah mempelajari perilaku adaptif siswa kelas 6 SD dalam belajar di Jakarta. Peneitian ini di bawah bimbingan Associate Professor Greg Shaw.

Saya mengundang Bapak/ibu guru untuk berpartisipasi dalam penelitian ini. Informasi yang terkumpul dari penelitian ini akan digunakan untuk meningkatkan kualitas sistem pembelajaran siswa SD. Partisipasi Bapak/ibu bersifat sukarela, namun sangat saya harapkan. Berikut adalah hal-hal yang akan dilakukan dalam penelitian ini:

1. Observasi kelas
   Peneliti akan melakukan dua hingga tiga kali pengamatan dalam kelas Bapak/ibu untuk mendapatkan gambaran yang akurat tentang segaia kegiatan siswa di kelas.

2. Diskusi kelompok dan wawancara
   Diskusi kelompok selama 2 (dua) jam untuk menggali informasi tentang persepsi guru terhadap perilaku siswa dalam mencari bantuan akademik. Apabila dirasa perlu maka dilanjutkan dengan wawancara individual. Proses pengamatan dan diskusi kelompok akan direkam guna memperoleh data yang akurat.

Kerahasiaan dan keamanan data
Semua data yang terkumpul dari studi akan dirahasiakan dan hanya dapat diakses oleh anggota tim penelitian. Semua bentuk publikasi yang terkait dengan penelitian tidak akan menyertakan identitas pribadi partisipan. Tim peneliti telah mendapatkan pengaranah tentang etik penelitian dan akan menjaga kerahasiaan data secara profesional.

Resiko penelitian

Informasi lebih lanjut mengenai penelitian dapat menghubungi:
Peneliti: ratnahdyah.suryarani@cd.edu.au | no telp +62 812 999 7192
Supervisor: greg.shaw@cd.edu.au | no telp +61 8 8946 7306

Apabila Bapak/ibu memiliki masalah terkait dengan penelitian ini, Bapak/ibu dapat menghubungi Staf Eksekutif dari Charles Darwin University Human Research Ethics Committee melalui no telepon +61 8 8940 0496 atau via email: cdu.ethics@cd.edu.au

Terimakasih atas bantuan dan kerja sama Bapak/ibu sekalian.
Ratna Dyah Suryarani

(lembar ini untuk disimpan)
Lembar persetujuan

Pembimbing : Associate Professor Greg Shaw
Peneliti : Ratna Dyah Suryarani

Dengan ini saya menyatakan bahwa:

- Saya telah membaca dan memahami informasi yang diberikan tentang proyek penelitian (lembar informasi penelitian tertanggal Juli 2012).
- Keikutsertaan saya dalam penelitian ini bersifat sukarela dan bebas tanpa tekanan.
- Saya setuju berpartisipasi dalam penelitian ini: [ ]
  □ Observasi kelas dan □ observasi akan direkam
  □ Diskusi kelas dan □ diskusi akan direkam.
  □ Wawancara individu dan □ wawancara akan direkam.
- Saya memahami bahwa saya dapat menerik diri dari penelitian ini dan bahwa seye tidak akan dirugikan dengan cara apapun saya harus melakukan ini. Jika saya menarik diri dari penelitian ini, saya memahami bahwa semua data yang relevan terkait diri saya akan dihancurkan atau dikembalikan sesuai dengan permintaan.

Nama peserta: ____________________________________________

Tanda tangan: __________________________________________

Sekolah: ______________________________________________

Tanggal: _______________________________________________
Appendix A.7 PLS and CF for school principal

Dear School Principal,

My name is Ratna Dyah Suryartri, and I am a lecturer from Universitas Negeri Jakarta (UNJ) and currently a PhD student in the School of Education at Charles Darwin University, Australia, and principal researcher of this project. The research involves learning more about academic help-seeking behaviour among primary students in Jakarta. This research is conducted under the supervision of Associate Professor Greg Shaw of Charles Darwin University.

I would like to invite you to participate in this research project. The information you provide is extremely important in helping students achieve educational goals. I would ask your students and teachers to do the following things:

1. **Survey**: Students from sixth grade will be asked to complete a survey in class. This survey asks 50 questions about how they perceive and how they use academic help-seeking as a part of their learning process. This survey will take approximately one hour to complete (a copy is attached).

2. **Observations**: I will arrange times with teacher to sit in and observe students in up to three classroom lessons in order to get an accurate picture of what goes on in the classroom.

3. **Focus group and individual interviews**: Separate focus groups interview of students and teachers will be conducted to supplement the survey and observations. During the one hour focus group sessions, I hope to find out more about perceptions concerning academic help-seeking behaviour from these two group types. If required, I will conduct some individual interviews.

With your permission, I would like to audio and video-tape the observations and interviews so I can record the details accurately.

**Confidentiality and data security**

Any information that is obtained in connection with this study that can identify the participants will be kept securely and will remain confidential and will only be disclosed with their permission. Responses will be held in the strictest professional confidence and will only be viewed by the principal investigator. The participants can choose whether to be in this study or not. If they feel any discomfort they may stop and withdraw from the study at any time.

**Further information for this research**

If you have any questions or concerns about the research, please feel free to contact:
Researcher: ratnadyah.suryartri@odb.edu.au; phone at 08129997192.
Supervisor: greg.shaw@odb.edu.au; phone at +61 8 8946 7308.

If you have any problem related to this research, you can contact Executive Staff of CDU HREC via phone at +01 8 8940 0498 or via email: cdu-ethics@odb.edu.au

Your assistance in this research is greatly appreciated.
Ratna Dyah Suryartri

*(this for you to keep)*
Principals/schools consent form

Research project: Factors influence academic help-seeking among primary students in Jakarta, Indonesia.
Supervisor: Associate Professor Greg Shaw
Researcher: Raina Dyah Suryarini

- I have read and understood the information provided about this research project (Plain language statement dated September 2011).
- I agree that students from sixth grade will complete a survey in class.
- I understand that one half hour focus group interview per group of students will be recorded and transcribed.
- I understand that if required a follow-up individual interview for students and teacher may be conducted which also be recorded and transcribed.
- I understand that up to three classroom lessons will be video-taped and transcribed.
- I agree to allow students and teachers at this school to take part in this research with their consent.

Principal: __________________________________________

School: __________________________________________

Signature: _________________________________________

Date: ___________________________________________
LEMBAR PENJELASAN PENELITIAN

Yang terhormat Bapak/Ibu Kepala Sekolah,

Nama saya Ratna Dyah Suryaratni, dan saya seorang dosen dari Universitas Negeri Jakarta (UNI). Saat ini saya sedang menempuh S3 di School of Education, Charles Darwin University, Australia. Tujuan penelitian saya ini adalah untuk mendalami perilaku mencari bantuan akademik di kalangan siswa sekolah dasar di Jakarta. Penelitian ini di bawah bimbingan Associate Professor Greg Shaw dari Charles Darwin University.

Saya mengundang sekolah Bapak/Ibu untuk berpartisipasi dalam penelitian ini. Informasi yang dapat diperoleh dari siswa dan guru-guru di sekolah ini akan sangat berarti dalam membantu siswa mencapai tujuan pendidikan. Keikutsertaan mereka dalam penelitian ini bersifat sukarela dan saya akan sangat menghargainya. Adaun hal-hal yang akan dilakukan dalam penelitian ini antara lain sbb:

1. Survey
   Siswa kelas enam akan diminta untuk mengisi kuesioner yang terdiri dari 50 butir pertanyaan seama kurang lebih 60 menit (kuesioner terlampir).

2. Observasi
   Observasi kelas dalam tiga kali pertemuan dengan tujuan untuk memperoleh gambaran yang akurat tentang kegiatan pembelajaran di kelas.

3. Diskusi kelompok dan wawancara individu
   Diskusi kelompok bagi guru dan siswa yang dilakukan secara terpisah. Diskusi kelompok dilaksanakan kurang lebih satu sampai satu setengah jam. Jika diperlukan, maka saya akan melakukan wawancara individu baik pada guru maupun siswa.

Peneliti akan merekom seluruh kegiatan observasi kelas dan proses wawancara sehingga dapat diperoleh data yang lengkap dan akurat.

Kerahasiaan dan keamanan data
Semua data yang terkumpul dari penelitian ini akan dirahasiakan dan hanya dapat diakses oleh anggota tim penelitian. Semua bentuk publikasi yang terkait dengan penelitian tidak akan menyertakan identitas pribadi partisipan.

Informasi lebih lanjut mengenai penelitian dapat menghubungi:
Peneliti: ratnadyah.suryaratni@cdu.edu.au, no telp +61 8 9496 1122
Supervisor: greg.shaw@cdu.edu.au, no telp +61 8 9496 7306.

Apa bila Bapak/Ibu memiliki masalah terkait dengan penelitian ini, bapak/ibu dapat menghubungi Staf Eksekutif dari Charles Darwin University Human Research Ethics Committee melalui no telepon +61 8 8946 6498 atau via email: cdu-ethics@cdu.edu.au

Terimakasih,
Ratna Dyah Suryaratni

(lembar ini untuk dicimpor)
Lembar persetujuan penelitian

Pembimbing : Associate Professor Greg Shaw
Peneliti : Ratna Dyah Suryaratri

Dengan ini saya menyatakan bahwa:

- Saya telah membaca dan memahami informasi yang diberikan tentang proyek penelitian (lembar penjelasan penelitian tertanggal Juli 2012).
- Saya mengijinkan siswa-siswa kelas enam mengisi angket penelitian.
- Saya mengijinkan guru-guru dan siswa mengikuti diskusi kelompok selama sampai satu setengah jam dan kegiatan ini direkam dan ditranskrip.
- Saya mengijinkan wawancara individu untuk siswa dan guru dan kegiatan ini juga direkam dan ditranskrip.
- Saya mengijinkan peneliti melakukan observasi kelas dan bahwa kegiatan ini direkam dan ditranskrip.
- Saya mengijinkan siswa-siswa dan guru-guru di sekolah ini untuk ambil bagian dalam penelitian ini dengan persetujuan mereka.

Kepala Sekolah: ____________________________________________

Sekolah: ________________________________________________

Tanda tangan: ____________________________________________

Tanggal: ________________________________________________
Appendix B. Research Instruments

Appendix B.1 Instrument (in English)

Survey

Part A. Student Identity

1. Gender (please tick √):

   □ Male       □ Female

2. Age: ______ years old

3. School: _______________________

   😊😊😊
Part B. Student academic help-seeking

Instructions:
Dear students, the following 9 survey items are about your academic help-seeking behaviour. Read all the statements carefully and imagine them happening in your class. Please put (✓) in column that best describes your opinion using the following rating scale:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answer number</th>
<th>1: Not at all true</th>
<th>2: Somewhat true</th>
<th>3: True</th>
<th>4: Very true</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Please be honest, for this is not a test and there is no wrong answers, every responses is right.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>If I failed to find ways to solve a problem, I ask my teacher for help so that I can solve it.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>I don’t usually ask for help when solving a mathematics problem although I find it hard to do</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>If there is something that I cannot solve in math, I will seek teacher’s help</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>I don’t raise question during mathematics class eventhough I don’t understand</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>If I need help in class, I know to whom I will ask for help</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>If I don’t understand a mathematics problem, I prefer making a guess on the answer to asking for someone’s help</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>If I find problems that I am not able to solve, I will ask for the formula</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>When failed to answer a mathematics problem, I would rather give any sort of answers to it than asking for someone’s help</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>If I find it hard to understand a mathematics material, I will ask my teacher for help to make me understand about it</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Part C. Student meaningful learning orientation

**Instructions:**

Dear student, below are 10 statements about your habit in study. Read each of the statement carefully and put (√) in column that best describes your opinion using the following rating scale:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answer number</th>
<th>1 : Not at all true ☎️ ☎️</th>
<th>2 : Somewhat true ☎️</th>
<th>3 : True ☎️</th>
<th>4 : Very true ☎️ ☎️</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Please be honest, for this is not a test and there is no wrong answers, every responses is right.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I try to understand a subject by correlating it to real life situation occurring every day</td>
<td>☐☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>The best way for me to learn is to concentrate and memorize a lesson</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Sometimes, I don’t really understand what I have read/learnt</td>
<td>☒</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>I usually ask myself about the material I have learnt from the teacher</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>When I learn a new material, I try to correlate it to what I have formerly known</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>When I learn a new material, I try to see its benefit for the sake of my goal</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>When I learn a new thing, I try to correlate it to daily life</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>I spend a lot of time on reviewing the lesson in order to memorize it</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>I usually read a material with no effort to really gain an understanding on it</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>I am not certain about what I am learning; I just try to catch it up as far as I can</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Part D. Student attributions

Instructions:
I want you to think about your past experiences in school especially in math. When you get result of your exam, please think of the following statements are possible reasons why you might have done well or poor. Read each statement carefully and put an (√) in the appropriate column to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement. Be sure to respond to all of the statements.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>My success or failure in the latest math test due to:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I have strong skills in math</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>The exam was too hard</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>My success in the test was due to my being able to understand the material</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>I am motivated to study math</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>My success in this test was because I have put my effort to the optimum</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>The notes I made helped me prepare to study before the test</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>The problems were easy to understand and work on</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>It was my luck that I could achieve a good mark in the test</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>I am talented in math</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>The amount of material in the exam was not to many</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Please be honest, for this is not a test and there is no wrong answers, every responses is right.
Part E. Teacher responses to students’ questions

Instructions:

Dear students, the following are 10 statements about the role of your math teachers answer your questions in the class. Read each of the statement carefully and put (√) in column that best describes your opinion using the following rating scale:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answer number</th>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>My mathematics teacher gives a complete and clear answer on a student’s question</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>My mathematics teacher pays attention to a student who raises a question in class</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>My mathematics teacher gives compliment to a student who is willing to raise a question</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>My mathematics teacher does not allow a student interrupting his/her speaking with questions while he/she is explaining something</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>My mathematics teacher gives students appropriate time to raise questions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>My mathematics teacher gives answers as necessary so that he/she can continue with the lesson</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>My mathematics teacher usually feels happy if he/she has students raise questions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>When starting to explain a lesson, my mathematics teacher does not usually give students time to raise questions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>My mathematics teacher believes that students’ questions are important</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>My mathematics teacher is not happy if his/her students raise too many questions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Please be honest, for this is not a test and there is no wrong answers, every responses is right.
Part F. Classroom structures

Instructions:

Dear students, the following 10 survey items are about your math teacher’s behaviour in the classroom. Please put (✓) in column that best describes your opinion using the following rating scale:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answer number</th>
<th>Statement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Hardly ever (---)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Somewhat happened (+)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Often happened (++)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Very often, almost always happened (+++)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Please be honest, for this is not a test and there is no wrong answers, every responses is right.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>1-</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>In the end of the class, my class teacher reviews important notes on what has been learnt.</td>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>My class teacher gives me freedom to work on my task according to my speed.</td>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>My class teacher appreciates students’ ideas and opinions.</td>
<td></td>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>My class teacher tells us how to work on the homework.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Regarding the lesson, my class teacher shows us ways to complete the tasks.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>++</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>My class teacher gives freedom in ways I work on the task.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>++</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>In mathematics, I am allowed to work with my own ways.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>In a group work, my class teacher motivates students to take mutual responsibility</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>My class teacher explains us about all materials that will be used for the test.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>My class teacher reviews the materials we have learnt</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thank you for your answers

😊 😊 😋
Appendix B.2  Instrument (in Indonesian Language)

Survey

Bagian A. Identitas siswa:

1. Jenis kelamin (beri tanda √):
   
   □ Laki-laki  □Perempuan

2. Usia: ______ tahun

3. Sekolah: ____________________________________
Angket Bagian B.

Petunjuk:

Adik-adik, berikut ini tersedia 9 pernyataan yang mungkin terjadi pada diri Adik. Bacalah masing-masing pernyataan dengan baik dan bayangkankan bahwa peristiwa tersebut sungguh-sungguh terjadi. Beri tanda $\checkmark$ pada kolom salah satu pilihan jawaban yang menurutmu paling sesuai dengan pendapat Adik sebagai berikut:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Pernyataan</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Apabila tidak menemukan cara menyelesaikan soal, saya minta bantuan guru supaya bisa mengerjakannya</td>
<td>$\checkmark$</td>
<td>$\checkmark$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Saya biasanya tidak minta bantuan dalam mengerjakan tugas matematika, walaupun soalnya sulit</td>
<td></td>
<td>$\checkmark$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Apabila ada bagian pelajaran matematika yang tidak bisa saya kerjakan sendiri, saya mencari bantuan guru</td>
<td></td>
<td>$\checkmark$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Saya tidak bertanya dalam pelajaran matematika, walaupun saya tidak mengerti</td>
<td></td>
<td>$\checkmark$</td>
<td>$\checkmark$</td>
<td>$\checkmark$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Apabila saya membutuhkan bantuan dalam kelas, maka saya tahu kepada siapa akan mencari bantuan</td>
<td></td>
<td>$\checkmark$</td>
<td>$\checkmark$</td>
<td>$\checkmark$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Apabila saya tidak memahami soal matematika, saya lebih suka menebak jawabannya daripada minta tolong pada orang lain</td>
<td></td>
<td>$\checkmark$</td>
<td>$\checkmark$</td>
<td>$\checkmark$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Apabila ada soal yang tidak mampu saya kerjakan, saya bertanya rumus-rumusnya</td>
<td></td>
<td>$\checkmark$</td>
<td>$\checkmark$</td>
<td>$\checkmark$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Ketika saya tidak dapat menjawab soal matematika, saya lebih suka menjawab apa saja daripada minta bantuan orang lain</td>
<td></td>
<td>$\checkmark$</td>
<td>$\checkmark$</td>
<td>$\checkmark$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Apabila saya kesulitan memahami suatu materi matematika, saya meminta bantuan guru untuk memahaminya</td>
<td></td>
<td>$\checkmark$</td>
<td>$\checkmark$</td>
<td>$\checkmark$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Bekerjalah dengan jujur, ini bukanlah tes, tidak ada jawaban yang salah, semua jawaban adalah benar.
**Angket Bagian C.**

**Petunjuk:**

Adik-adik, berikut ini tersedia 10 pernyataan tentang kebiasaan adik-adik dalam belajar. Bacalah masing-masing pernyataan dengan baik dan beri tanda √ pada kolom salah satu pilihan jawaban yang menurutmu paling sesuai dengan kebiasaan belajar adik sehari-hari.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Pernyataan</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Saya mencoba memahami pelajaran dengan cara menghubungkannya dengan kejadian sehari-hari</td>
<td>☒</td>
<td>☒</td>
<td>☒</td>
<td>☒</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Cara saya belajar adalah dengan berkonsentrasi menghafal pelajaran</td>
<td>☒</td>
<td>☒</td>
<td>☒</td>
<td>☒</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Kadang saya tidak benar-benar memahami apa yang saya baca/pelajari</td>
<td>☒</td>
<td>☒</td>
<td>☒</td>
<td>☒</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Saya biasanya bertanya-tanya pada diri sendiri tentang materi pelajaran yang saya dapat dari guru</td>
<td>☒</td>
<td>☒</td>
<td>☒</td>
<td>☒</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Saat saya belajar materi baru saya mencoba untuk menghubungkannya dengan apa yang sudah saya ketahui sebelumnya</td>
<td>☒</td>
<td>☒</td>
<td>☒</td>
<td>☒</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Saat mempelajari materi baru saya berusaha melihat kegunaannya untuk mencapai cita-cita saya</td>
<td>☒</td>
<td>☒</td>
<td>☒</td>
<td>☒</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Saat saya belajar hal baru saya mencoba menghubungkannya dengan kehidupan sehari-hari</td>
<td>☒</td>
<td>☒</td>
<td>☒</td>
<td>☒</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Saya menghabiskan banyak waktu untuk mengulang-ulang pelajaran supaya hafal</td>
<td>☒</td>
<td>☒</td>
<td>☒</td>
<td>☒</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Saya biasanya membaca pelajaran tanpa benar-benar berusaha memahaminya</td>
<td>☒</td>
<td>☒</td>
<td>☒</td>
<td>☒</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Saya tidak yakin dengan apa yang saya pelajari, saya ikuti saja sebisa mungkin</td>
<td>☒</td>
<td>☒</td>
<td>☒</td>
<td>☒</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Bekerjalah dengan jujur, ini bukanlah tes, tidak ada jawaban yang salah, semua jawaban adalah benar.
Bagian D. Angket tentang atribusi

Petunjuk:

Dalam menjawab pernyataan berikut ini adik-adik diminta untuk mengingat hasil ulangan harian matematika yang terakhir. Setiap pernyataan merupakan kemungkinan salah satu penyebab keberhasilan atau kegagalan dalam ulangan matematika tersebut. Bacalah masing-masing pernyataan dengan baik dan beri tanda √ pada kolom salah satu pilihan jawaban yang menurutmu paling sesuai dengan pendapat Adik sebagai berikut:

Jawaban angka

1: Sangat tidak setuju ☓ ☓
2: Tidak setuju ☒
3: Setuju ☑
4: Sangat setuju ☒ ☑

Bekerjalah dengan jujur, ini bukanlah tes, tidak ada jawaban yang salah, semua jawaban adalah benar.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Pernyataan</th>
<th>1 ☓ ☓</th>
<th>2 ☒</th>
<th>3 ☑</th>
<th>4 ☒ ☑</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Saya merasa mempunyai kemampuan yang baik dalam matematika</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Soal ulangannya sangat sulit untuk dikerjakan</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Keberhasilan saya dalam ulangan tersebut karena kemampuan saya untuk memahami materinya</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Saya bersemangat dalam mempelajari matematika</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Keberhasilan saya dalam ulangan ini karena usaha saya yang optimal</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Catatan yang saya buat membantu dalam belajar untuk menghadapi ulangan</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Soalnya mudah dimengerti dan dikerjakan</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Hanya karena faktor keberuntungan saja sehingga saya bisa dapat nilai bagus di ulangan</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Saya memang berbakat dalam pelajaran matematika</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Bahan ulangannya tidak terlalu banyak</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Bagian E. Angket tentang peran guru

Petunjuk:

Adik-adik, berikut ini tersedia 10 pernyataan tentang peran guru dalam membantu adik-adik belajar di kelas. Bacalah masing-masing pernyataan dengan baik dan beri tanda √ pada kolom salah satu pilihan jawaban yang menurutmu paling sesuai dengan apa yang terjadi di kelas tersebut:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Pernyataan</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Guru matematika saya menjawab pertanyaan siswa dengan lengkap dan jelas</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Guru matematika saya memperhatikan siswa yang bertanya di kelas</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Guru matematika saya memuji siswa yang mau bertanya</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Guru matematika saya melarang siswa menyela pembicaraannya dengan pertanyaan-pertanyaan ketika ia sedang menjelaskan</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Guru matematika saya memberi cukup waktu bagi siswanya untuk bertanya</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Guru matematika saya menjawab pertanyaan dengan seperlunya saja supaya dia bisa segera melanjutkan pelajarannya lagi</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Guru matematika saya biasanya merasa senang jika ada siswa yang mau bertanya</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Kalau sudah mulai menerangkan, guru matematika saya biasanya tidak memberi waktu kepada siswanya untuk bertanya</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Guru matematika saya percaya bahwa pertanyaan siswa adalah penting</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Guru matematika saya biasanya tidak suka kalau siswanya banyak bertanya</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Bekerjalah dengan jujur, ini bukanlah tes, tidak ada jawaban yang salah, semua jawaban adalah benar.
Bagian F. Angket tentang suasana kelas

Petunjuk:

Adik-adik, berikut ini tersedia 10 pernyataan yang menggambarkan peristiwa yang mungkin terjadi di kelas pada saat pelajaran berlangsung. Bacalah masing-masing pernyataan dengan baik. Adik-adik diminta menilai seberapa *sering* kejadian itu terjadi di kelas. Beri tanda √ pada kolom salah satu pilihan jawaban yang menurutmu paling sesuai dengan pendapat Adik sebagai berikut:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Pernyataan</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Di akhir pelajaran, guru kelas saya mengulang hal-hal penting yang telah dipelajari</td>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Guru kelas membebaskan saya mengerjakan tugas sesuai dengan kecepatan saya</td>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Guru kelas saya menghargai ide dan pendapat siswanya</td>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Guru kelas saya memberitahu bagaimana caranya mengerjakan PR</td>
<td>+++</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Dalam pelajaran, guru kelas saya memberikan banyak cara untuk menyelesaikan tugas</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Guru kelas saya memberikan kebebasan bagaimana saya mengerjakan tugas</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Dalam pelajaran matematika, saya boleh bekerja sesuai dengan cara saya sendiri</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Dalam bekerja kelompok, guru kelas saya mendorong siswanya untuk bertanggungjawab bersama</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Guru kelas saya menjelaskan materi apa saja yang akan jadi bahan ulangan</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Guru kelas saya mengulang materi yang sudah dipelajari</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Bekerjalah dengan jujur, ini bukanlah tes, tidak ada jawaban yang salah, semua jawaban adalah benar. Terimakasih.

Terimakasih atas jawabannya 😊😊😊