Leadership in kindergartens, Indonesia:

The need for professional learning in inclusive education

Suhendri

Graduate Student

Graduate School for International Development and Cooperation,

Hiroshima University, Japan

Norimune Kawai

Professor

Graduate School of Education,

Hiroshima University, Japan

To cite this article:

Suhendri, & Kawai, N. (2021). Leadership in kindergartens, Indonesia: The need for professional learning in inclusive education. *International Journal of Whole Schooling*, *17*(1), 98-130.

Abstract

Inclusive education in Indonesia has continuously developed an "education for all" movement, including at the kindergarten level. In line with this movement, leadership plays an essential role in the successful implementation of inclusive kindergartens. To improve their skills and knowledge, inclusive kindergarten leaders need to undergo professional development to enhance their leadership. By using a narrative literature review method, this study shows that leadership, and its need for professional learning, are notable elements in high-quality inclusive kindergartens in Indonesia. Numerous works of literature have been reviewed and analyzed to support these findings. In addition to providing a comprehensive overview of leadership and professional learning in inclusive kindergartens in Indonesia, this study is expected to fulfill the need for Indonesian literature regarding inclusive areas. This study should, therefore, be considered during future advanced research.

***Keywords*:** Inclusive Kindergarten, Leadership, Professional Learning

Introduction

In Indonesia, the official institution that manages education is the Ministry of Education and Culture; all educational policies are sourced from this institution. As an extension of this institution, education offices regulate regional-level education policies in each district and city. These offices are called district/city education offices. In 2018, the Ministry of Education and Culture handled around 243,771 schools in Indonesia, besides the number of kindergartens.

Indonesia has followed a centralistic educational system. The term "centralistic educational" here means that power and control are concentrated on the central authority of an organization of an educational system (Merriam, 2012). Consequently, general education is based on equality in Indonesia, including inclusive education programs. All decisions, such as curriculum design, are made from the top, regardless of their relevance to students' lives and the environment (Parmono et al., 2008).

Despite this top-down approach to the structure of Indonesia's education system, there have been attempts to allow for input at local levels. The introduction of Law number 5 of 1973 allowed for more autonomy from central and local governments. Law 22 of 1999 also mentioned that education is only partly the central government's responsibility (Ministry of Education, 2012).

However, the implementation of this decentralization has not progressed sufficiently. Consequently, the positions and roles of students tend to be considered objects, which gives fewer benefits to inclusive education, especially at the kindergarten level, where children need to develop their skills and creativities. This lack of implementation of the law of decentralization also affects less-prevalent forms of education in Indonesia. Sakti (2007) identified that there is still a difference in the quality of educational facilities and infrastructure in some areas. The government is more inclined to develop education on Java,

whereas developments in other regions have largely been abandoned. Sakti (2007) then highlighted an example whereby many students from other islands have often moved to Java to attend reputable educational institutions, which offer better quality facilities and resources than the institutions of their home islands. Lestari (2012) stated that this centralistic phenomenon prevents students' freedom to think, solve problems independently, work and live in a group full of initiative and creativity, and develop adequate interpersonal skills needed in an inclusive school setting.

It is strongly believed that this centralistic educational system also affects inclusive education (Strogilos, 2012). Leaders in inclusive education tend to follow the government's guidance for inclusive settings. Therefore, professional learning for leaders is necessary to improve inclusive leaders' competencies and ignite their creativity in managing their schools. While most inclusive education research in Indonesia is still more concerned about the awareness of the inclusive system, and its implementation regarding the Ministry of Education Law no 70, 2009, there have been few studies into leadership and professional learning.

Research Question

As guidance of this study, a question is generated: "How important is professional learning for principals to support high-quality inclusive kindergartens in Indonesia?"

Aim of the Research

The need for professional learning for educators is essential to improve their competencies. The improvement of educators' skills and knowledge will be beneficial not only for educators to supplement their expertise but also for the students they teach.

Principals in kindergartens who implement inclusive education in their schools need to improve their competencies because besides being good leaders, they must also teach all

children. Unfortunately, almost none of the studies talk about this issue. Therefore, this study aims to determine the importance of professional learning in inclusive education for kindergarten principals in Indonesia.

Method

Here, a narrative literature review is used to provide an in-depth discussion for this study. A narrative literature review is one kind of study that presents a comprehensive, critical, essential, and objective analysis devoting specifically to a particular topic (Baumeister & Leary, 1997). All relevant studies and information are examined, discussed, and analyzed to support the findings of this study. This study collects data through library collection materials (books, journals, government reports, and articles) without the need for field research. The steps are as follows:

1. Collecting the materials.
2. Reading the relevant materials.
3. Recording the materials.
4. Synthesizing the materials.
5. Processing materials research results.

Most studies published in the last 20 years were presented and discussed, except three studies, which are more than 20 years, are still included for their essential parts to support the study. Most of the journal pieces of literature were found in the google scholar database using the terms "leadership in kindergartens," "inclusive education in Indonesia," and "professional learning for principals." As this is a narrative literature review, there are no other particular criteria in selecting the studies; as long as they were relevant, valid, and reliable to this study, they were all included to get more comprehensive findings.

Literature Review

International Perspectives on inclusive education

In his book, *Pengantar Pendidikan Inklusif* (introduction to inclusive education), Garnida (2015) explained that the development of inclusive education initially started in Scandinavian countries (Denmark, Norway, and Sweden). He claimed that in the United States in the 1960s, President Kennedy sent special education experts to Scandinavia to study mainstreaming and least restrictive environments, which were determined to be suitable for the United States. England, in Ed. Act. 1991, then began introducing the concept of inclusive education, with a marked shift in the model of education for children with special needs from segregative to integrative.

The demand for the implementation of inclusive education across the world had become increasingly evident, especially since the world convention on children's rights in 1989 and after the world conference on education in 1991 in Bangkok, which resulted in the declaration of "education for all" (Garnida, 2015). The implications of this statement are binding on all-conference members so that all children, without exception (i.e., including children with special needs), receive adequate education services. As a follow-up to the Bangkok Declaration, in 1994, an educational convention was held in Salamanca, Spain, which triggered a need for inclusive education that became known as "the Salamanca statement on inclusive education" (Wulandari, 2014).

Sopiani (2014) summarized the history of inclusive education as follows:

- In around 1960 - Integration education (especially for blind people) began to be practiced in several countries
- In about 1980 - The term inclusion education was introduced and practiced in Canada and developed in the US and other countries.

- In 1994 - The term inclusion education first appeared in international policy documents, following The Salamanca Statement, The World Statement on Special Needs Education.

In developing countries, the existence of inclusive education was started by missionaries. They educated people with special needs (Abosi & Koay, 2008). Since this initial effort, attempts to find productive systems to teach people with disabilities have been made locally and abroad. Lim and Tan (1999) explained that countries such as Singapore had undergone changing their exceptional education services from total segregation to total integration. This condition also applies to Malaysia, China, the USA, Nigeria, and India (Jelas, 2000; Potts, 2000; Alur, 2001; Villa et al. 2003, Abosy & Koay, 2008).

After the Salamanca declaration, inclusion began to be viewed globally as one of the concrete solutions to overcome the problems of children with special needs. Abosi & Koay (2008) argued that inclusive education would benefit children with special needs and regular students, as they can study and learn together without any discrimination. They also stated that inclusive schools must be aware of any differences in students' needs, including students with special needs.

Some countries have claimed to have benefited from implementing inclusive education. For example, at the beginning of inclusive education in the USA (around the 1990s), inclusive education was used to allow students with special needs to participate in mainstream schools (Fisher, Roach, & Frey, 2002). In Nigeria, inclusive education is used to provide equal opportunities in education for every child, including children with special needs (Ajuwon, 2008). In Australia, inclusive education's purpose is to improve the achievements of all children (Van Kraayenoord, 2007). Jelas (2000) stated that inclusive education allows children with special needs to benefit through gaining social skills in developing countries such as Malaysia.

However, some studies have also claimed that some problems arise as a result of actualizing inclusive education. A Dutch survey of children with problematic behavior by Monchy, Pijl, and Zandberg (2004) (*n*=25) found that inclusive education harmed their social needs, as their peers excluded them. In another example, Monda-Amaya (2000, 2001 cited in Lindsay, 2003) studied children with learning disabilities who were included in an inclusive school (n=20) (n=30). Both claimed that these children might not have benefited from the inclusion system, as most of them felt lonely at school. Abosi and Koay (2008) argued that some children with severe disabilities would not benefit from an inclusive system and might even disturb the inclusive class. Instead, these authors suggested that children with severe disabilities should join a particular school rather than an inclusive school.

Overview of Inclusive Education in Indonesia

Some scholars in Indonesia have used slightly different definitions of inclusive education. Fitria (2012) argued that inclusive education is an education in which all students with special needs can attend regular schools in their area of residence and receive various support services according to their educational needs. Rudiyati (2011) defined inclusive education as to where schools can accommodate all children without discrimination regarding their physical condition, intellectuality, social condition, emotional, linguistic, ethnic, cultural, or other conditions. Another scholar, Wathoni (2013), explained that inclusive education is an education service system that requires children with special needs to study in their closest schools, in regular classes, with friends of their age.

The history of inclusive education in Indonesia is both long and complicated. The development of inclusive education in Indonesia began in the 1960s, where the integration of blind students in high schools began as an individual initiative (Wulandari, 2014). Wulandari

(2014) and Firdaus (2010) illustrated the development of inclusive education in Indonesia as follows:

- In 1978-1986, an Integrated Education project was held for blind children, with technical assistance from Hellen Keller International (HKI).
- In 1999, the government introduced inclusive education with technical assistance from the University of Oslo through seminars and workshops.
- Based on the historical development of inclusive education, since the beginning of 2000, the Government of the Republic of Indonesia has developed an inclusive education program. This program is a continuation of an integrated education program launched in Indonesia in the 1980s but was later underdeveloped. It only began to re-emerge in 2000 following global trends, using the concept of inclusive education.
- In 2002, pilot schools began to appear in several cities, in line with the trends of the demands of world development regarding inclusive education.
- In 2004, Indonesia held a national convention, producing the Bandung Declaration. This convention outlined Indonesia's commitment to inclusive education.
- In 2005, an international symposium was held in Bukittinggi, producing the Bukittinggi Recommendations. Among other recommendations, this symposium emphasized the need to continue developing inclusive education programs to ensure that all children genuinely receive a quality education. Furthermore, it noted the need for quality care and the need to fight for children's rights with learning barriers.

According to Wathoni (2013), Izzaucon (2014), and Garnida (2015), the juridical foundation of inclusive education in Indonesia is based on:

1) 1945 Constitution (amendment) article 31:

a) Paragraph (1): Every citizen has the right to education.

b) Paragraph (2): Every citizen is obliged to attend primary education, and the government is obliged to finance it.

2) Law No. 20 of 2003 concerning article 5 of the national education system:

a) Paragraph (1): Every citizen has the same right to obtain a quality education.

b) Paragraph (2): Citizens who have physical, emotional, intellectual, or social disorders have the right to receive special education

c) Paragraph (3): Citizens in remote or underdeveloped areas and distant indigenous peoples have the right to receive special service education.

d) Paragraph (4): Citizens who have potential intelligence and special talents are entitled to special education.

3) Law No. 23 of 2002 concerning child protection:

a) Article 48: The government is obliged to hold a primary education of at least 9 (nine) years for all children.

b) Article 49: The state, government, family, and parents must provide the most extensive opportunity for children to obtain an education.

4) Law No. 4 of 1997 concerning persons with disabilities:

Article 5: Every person with a disability has equal rights and opportunities in all aspects of life and livelihood.

5) Minister of Education Regulation No. 70 of 2009 concerning inclusive education: for students who have abnormalities and potential intelligence and or unique talents

6) Circular of the Directorate General of Primary and Secondary Education Ministry of Education No. 380/C.C6/MN/2003 January 20, 2003: Every district/city must organize and develop education in at least 4 (four) schools consisting of Elementary, Middle School, High School, and Vocational School.

7) Bandung Declaration: "Indonesia towards inclusive education" August 8-14, 2004:

a) Ensure that every child with disabilities has the opportunity to access all aspects of life, both in the fields of education, health, social, welfare, security, and other areas, to become a reliable member of the next generation.

b) Ensure that every child with disabilities is treated as a dignified individual and obtains humane treatment and quality education. It must also consider the potential and needs of the community, without discriminatory treatment that harms their existence physically, psychologically, economically, sociologically, lawfully, or in their political and cultural life.

c) Organizing and developing management that creates a supportive environment for children with disabilities, allowing them to develop their unique potential optimally.

d) Ensure freedom of children with disabilities to interact reactively and proactively with anyone, anytime, and in any environment, by minimizing obstacles.

e) Promote and socialize inclusive education services through mass media, scientific forums, education and training, and others on an ongoing basis.

f) Following an action plan and funding for meeting physical and non-physical accessibility, quality education services, health, recreation, and welfare, for all children with disabilities and other children with disabilities.

g) Inclusive education supported by synergic and productive cooperation between the government, educational institutions, related institutions, business and industry, parents, and the community.

Furthermore, Garnida (2015) also states that there are three philosophical foundations for the application of inclusive education in Indonesia:

1. The Indonesian nation is cultured with the symbol of the statue of Garuda and has the principle of Unity in Diversity.

2. The views of religion, especially Islam, which is the religion adopted by the majority of Indonesian citizens, confirms that:

a) Humans are born in a state of holiness.

b) The nobility of a person is considered not from the physical, but *taqwa* (obedience to God).

c) Humans are created differently to know each other better.

3. The universal view of human rights states that every human being has the right to decent living, education rights, health rights, and the right to get a proper job.

According to Rudiyati (2011), based on the theory of Vaughn, Bos, and Schuman in the Directorate of Special Schools Development (2007, p.1-10), six models are described how children with special needs can be placed in an inclusive setting in Indonesia. These are:

- Full inclusion. Students with special needs learn together with other students, all day, with the same curriculum.
- Regular class with a cluster. Students with special needs learn together with other students in a special group.
- Regular class with the pull-out system. Students with special needs learn together with other students; however, at different times, they are pulled out from the class to the counseling room to study and get guidance from specialist teachers.
- Special class with some integration. Students with special needs learn from special teachers in special rooms. At other times, they learn together with regular students in a regular class.
- Full special class. Students with special needs learn from special teachers in special rooms within a regular school.

There are still some challenges in implementing inclusive education in Indonesia. From a teacher's perspective, Fitria (2012) argued that having too many students in a class and

students with special needs prevents a teacher from using methods in which they vary how they convey subject matter to all students. Moreover, the Indonesian government pays little attention to the need for professional learning for teachers to improve their skills and knowledge in inclusive schools (Rudiyati, 2011). According to Rudiyati, regarding school facilities, educational facilities such as media and learning resources for children with special needs are limited in regular schools in Indonesia; some schools do not have textbooks in braille or audiobooks for blind students.

Furthermore, regarding financial issues, Garnida (2015) claimed that inclusive schools require more significant funding than regular schools, which is very challenging to obtain in Indonesia. They mention that the budget needed for inclusive schools is higher because they require support for special facilities, learning media, salary for experts and special teachers if required, and even for the evaluation process for special needs students, which differs from regular students. While inclusive education benefits all school members, especially at the kindergarten level, unfortunately, a search of studies using the keywords "inclusive kindergarten in Indonesia" finds no direct results in three prominent database journals, namely Sage, Eric, and Google Scholar.

Analysis of the Literature

Inclusive Kindergartens in Indonesia

In Paragraph (1), 1945 Constitution (amendment) article 31, it is stated that "every citizen has the right to education." This sentence means that all Indonesian children, without exception, have the right to get a good education, whatever their background. Furthermore, Indonesia has also implemented a 9-year compulsory education program, which stretches from elementary to secondary school. This program means that every citizen of Indonesia must go to school starting with elementary school and finish their secondary school

education. The government is responsible for making sure that all children in Indonesia have access to a proper education.

Although kindergarten in Indonesia is considered a part of early childhood education, it is not a compulsory program of education in Indonesia. Early childhood education is defined as a coaching effort aimed at children from birth to six. This effort is made by providing educational stimuli to help physical and spiritual growth. Children are ready to enter further education (Law No. 20 concerning National Education System Article 1 Paragraph 14, 2003). There are two kinds of formal early childhood education in Indonesia: kindergarten and Raudhatul Athfal (religious school for early childhood). Kindergarten in Indonesia is officially defined as an institutional and educational environment for children aged around four to six who are on a formal education pathway (Solehuddin et al., 2014). The 2004 Competency-Based Curriculum clearly states that the purpose of education in kindergarten is to help students develop their various potentials. These potentials include psychological and physical possibilities, including moral and religious values: social-emotional, cognitive, language, physical/motoric, independence, and art. They will, therefore, be ready to study at elementary school (Maryatun, 2008). Unfortunately, as a result of the non-compulsory program provided by the government, some young children choose to stay at home before they enter elementary school. They do this for many reasons, such as financial problems and not having enough information about the benefits of kindergarten (Halimah & Kawuryan, 2010). Parents may also feel that it is difficult to assess the kindergartens in their area.

Based on the Ministry of Education and Culture data, the number of kindergartens has significantly increased in almost every province in Indonesia (see Table 1 in the appendix). As shown from this table, the number of kindergartens in every province in Indonesia grew significantly. This condition is particularly prevalent in Java, such as East Java, Central Java,

and West Java. In the year 2011/2012, Indonesia had around 70,917 kindergartens across all 34 provinces. In 2015/2016, however, this number increased by approximately 15 thousand kindergartens. The improvement was in line with the increasing number of students, from around 3.6 million in 2011/2012 to about 4.4 million students in 2015/2016 (see table 2 in the appendix).

Both tables provide a clear understanding that kindergartens are accepted by society as a means to educate their children. The observed increase in the number of kindergarten students proves that kindergartens in Indonesia are in demand in large and crowded islands like Java, Sumatra, and Kalimantan and Indonesia's outer islands, such as Sulawesi and Papua, which certainly have children with special needs.

Unfortunately, the numbers presented in Table 1 and Table 2 do not include inclusive kindergartens. This issue can arise due to two factors:

1. Inclusive kindergartens are included in special kindergartens and limited in number (Ariastuti & Herawati, 2016).
2. Indonesia is still in the ambiguity to define inclusive education. Ariastuti and Herawati (2016) argued that the definition of inclusion has not optimally represented teachers' attitudes, school facilitation, and learning programs.

The next question from the data could be, "How many children with special needs have been included in the kindergartens?" No accurate data for this question has been found so far, however. Being an inclusive school is not just a label, however. Abosi and Koay (2008) used an excellent definition of how inclusive education does not merely relate to schools. According to their findings, which were based on the South African Educational System, inclusive education can be defined as a "learning environment that promotes the full personal, academic and professional development of all learners irrespective of race, class, gender, disability, religion, culture preference, learning style, and language."

As one of these learning environments, inclusive kindergartens should act as the first step for facilitating children with special needs. Outside of special education for special needs children, kindergartens have provided some benefits for children, especially full-day kindergartens. Dhuey (2011) recommended some studies in which children had gained benefits from entering kindergarten. For example, a study by Chetty et al. (2010) found that children who experienced high-quality kindergartens will have a better life from a financial perspective. Furthermore, several studies by Cascio (2004, 2009, 2010) revealed that the expansion of kindergarten availability affects the number of students who drop out of schools, especially for white students. Another example, based on a literature review from Clark and Kirk (2000), found that attending full-day kindergarten can improve children's academic and social needs. Carnes and Albrecht (2012), who cited the "no child left behind" approach, surprisingly argued that full-day kindergarten has allowed children to get a high-quality education. With such a significant number of benefits, kindergartens are hoped to accommodate regular students and students with special needs.

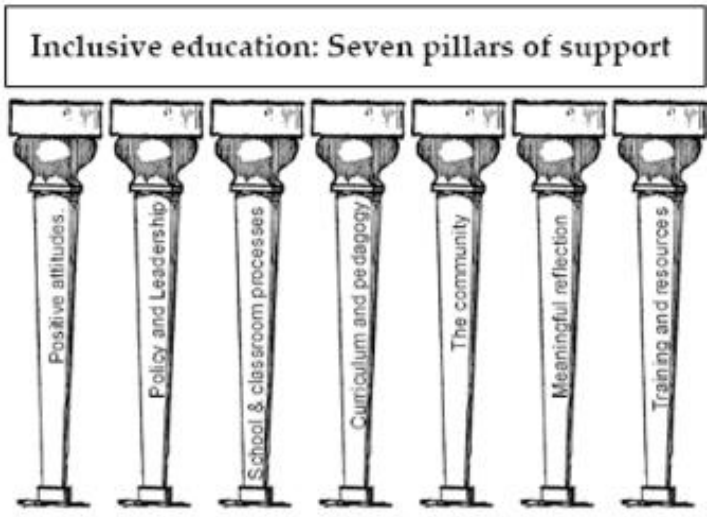
Leadership in Inclusive Education

According to Loreman (2007), there are seven pillars in supporting inclusive education. They are positive attitudes, supportive policy and leadership, school and classroom processes grounded in research-based practice, flexible curriculum and pedagogy, community involvement, meaningful reflection, and necessary training and resources (see Figure 1). These pillars are interrelated to each other to form a qualified inclusion education.

As can be seen from the pillars, without solid leadership, inclusive education will not succeed. Strong leadership can support a positive atmosphere in an inclusive school.

Figure 1

Seven pillars of support for inclusive education



Source: Loreman (2007). Seven Pillars of Support for Inclusive Education.

However, the definition of leadership and management is often biased. Cuban (1988) clarifies classifications between leadership and management, linking leadership with change while linking management to maintenance. Leadership can be defined as influencing others' activities to achieve desirable goals, and leaders are people who determine others' visions, missions, motivations, and actions to develop an effective organization. Managing refers to methods to maintain organizational arrangements efficiently and effectively. In their study, titled "Educational leadership and management: theory, policy, and practice," Bush (2003 cited in Bush, 2007) highlighted that the link between leadership and management as being "...leadership to values or purpose while management relates to implementation or technical issues."

Ryan (2006) claimed that in inclusive education, a hierarchical view of leadership is not accepted, instead asserting that this leadership model is contrary to the notion of inclusion itself. This issue is because it contains a bias towards understanding inclusion, where people are often neglected for having different characteristics and prerogative rights. Ryan then

suggests two kinds of leadership for effective inclusive education. The first is emancipatory leadership, which is based on studies by Foster (1989) and Marshall and Ward (2004). This kind of leadership benefits social justice. The second is differently abled leadership, which is based on Keyes et al. (1999). This leadership approach provides positive effects for all students in mainstream schools.

Furthermore, Loreman (2007) argued that a kind of "shared leadership," where the whole school community works together to support inclusion, is the best choice to form a quality inclusive school climate. By applying shared leadership, all school community members can be easily directed to accept an inclusive approach within the school (Loreman & Deeper, 2002). Loreman gave an example of how a high school principal can foster inclusion at their school by promoting a culture of caring, kindness, and mutual respect and support. The principal should underline that teamwork is the key to a thriving, inclusive school culture (Loreman, 2001 cited in Loreman, 2007).

As Florian (2017 cited in Suhendri, 2017) emphasized, the primary factor in implementing inclusion regards collaboration from all of the parties involved, ranging from teachers, principals, school staff, students, parents, government, and the community. If only one party does not participate in supporting the implementation of inclusion, then this inclusion will not be implemented as expected.

Principals in Inclusive Kindergartens

Regarding training in inclusive education for kindergarten teachers, Niland (2017, cited in Suhendri, 2017) determined that accepting special needs children in kindergarten has its advantages. There are at least four benefits of adopting inclusive education in kindergartens:

1. All children will learn the language, social, playing, and thinking skills from interactions between students.

2. Regular children will learn to be empathetic and understand differences.
3. Children feel stronger feelings of belonging than adults.
4. Adults can learn from children how to blend into a relationship.

However, these benefits can only be obtained through excellent teamwork led by a good leader.

A principal is a leader in a school. The principal determines the center and rhythm of a school (Setiyati, 2014). Setiyati identified the conditions that a leader must fulfill for them to succeed in leading an organization. These conditions can be described as follows:

a) Having a high enough intelligence to think of and find solutions to any problems that arise, appropriately and wisely.

b) Having stable emotions that are not swayed by various atmosphere changes and can distinguish between personal problems, household problems, and organizational problems.

c) Having intelligence in dealing with others and making subordinates feel at home, happy, and satisfied in their work.

d) Having the expertise to organize and mobilize staff wisely, realize organizational goals, and know exactly when and to whom responsibility and authority will be delegated.

Explicitly, by citing a study by Wahjosumidjo (2005), Setiyati highlights the two critical roles of a principal, namely:

a) The principal acts as a central force and is the driving force of school life.

b) Principals must understand their duties and functions, which are critical for the school's success, and must care for staff and students.

In kindergartens in Indonesia, most principals act as teachers as well. Therefore, they have to perform two functions, both as a school leader and as a teacher to their students. In his

dissertation regarding the leadership of kindergarten principals in Hong Kong, Wong (2006) argued that principals were generally encouraged to describe the objectives of their schools, to communicate with their staff, to motivate and involve them in achieving the school's goals, and to market their schools (cited from Cranston et al., 2002). Kindergarten teachers act as transmitters of ideas and as transformers and catalysts of values and attitudes (Pontoh, 2013). Sadly, as evidenced in a study by Charlesworth et al. (1991), kindergarten teachers in Indonesia emphasized preparing students for entering elementary schools rather than playing an essential role for children.

Professional Learning in Inclusive Education

While most studies have focused on attitudes toward inclusive learning, the need to improving educators' knowledge and skills in inclusive education is often neglected. One of the most challenging obstacles in implementing inclusive education, however, is educators' lack of knowledge and skills regarding understanding inclusivity itself and in understanding the education of all children in inclusive schools (Scott et al., 1998). According to Van Laarhoven et al. (2007), despite the importance of teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education, the skills to support inclusive setting classes are more valuable.

Professional learning is necessary for educators and principals to increase their skills and knowledge in inclusive education, including kindergarten. In Indonesia, this need is more critical, as inclusion is still in a developmental phase. Professional learning, which is also termed teacher training, is how educators can learn about diverse students. This professional learning will ensure that they do not encounter difficulties in dealing with all students in regular classes (Avramidis & Norwich, 2002).

For principals in inclusive kindergartens, professional learning will improve their leadership competencies and their skills in dealing with students with special needs, as they also act as

educators in kindergartens. Buysse and Hollingsworth (2009) suggested special early educators need professional learning because the number of inclusive early childhood programs is growing. They also asserted that designing professional learning specifically for early childhood education educators would improve teaching and intervention practices, which would support implementing a high-quality inclusive program.

According to Nishimura (2014), active professional development has been cited in numerous previous studies to benefit the many parties involved in inclusive education. Nishimura listed 17 studies regarding a coaching model of professional development with various numbers of samples. Most of these studies highlighted the positive effects of professional development for achieving a better inclusive education. One example is the study conducted by Miller, Harris, and Watanabe (1991) (n=6), which revealed that coaching professional development increased teachers' skills and performance. Another study by Sari (2007) (n=122) focused on in-service teacher training programs, showing that teachers improved their knowledge and attitudes regarding deafness.

Scholars have introduced some professional learning models to fill the gap in educators' knowledge and skills regarding inclusive settings. Aside from Nishimura's study (2014), which revealed how a model for coaching professional development had shown tangible results in many types of research, Loreman (2001 cited in Loreman, 2007) surveyed in Australia to find out what kinds of models regarding professional learning that teachers needed. Their results showed that the type of professional learning that teachers need most is in-class support from experts and colleagues. This kind of support can also be mixed with school-based professional learning. In line with Loreman's findings, Lisdiana, Supriyanto, and Tarsidi (2018) also suggested that in-service learning for educators could improve their competencies regarding inclusive education. This study also found that pre-service professional learning can be combined with in-service learning.

In contrast, a few studies have revealed that professional learning in inclusive education has been shown not to improve teachers' skills and knowledge. Galović, Brojčin, and Glumbić (2014), for example, found that there were no significant differences between teachers who received professional learning and those who did not receive the training. A further study also found the same result when using the coaching technique to examine students with limited English literacy (*n*=38). In this study, Lee, Penfield, and Maerten-Rivera (2009) showed that professional development for teachers did not have a significant impact on the development of students' scientific achievement.

Conclusion and Recommendation

Based on the literature reviews mentioned, many studies have shown the critical role of leadership in inclusive education. In Indonesia, this role becomes more crucial at the kindergarten level, as most principals in Indonesia have two positions, both as a kindergarten leader and as an educator. As a leader in an inclusive setting, they must manage a high-quality inclusive atmosphere in their schools. As educators, they should know how to be teachers for all students.

It also clear that to improve kindergarten principals' skills and help them acquire core knowledge of inclusion, they must do professional learning. Professional learning for kindergarten principals is believed to equip principals with leadership competencies in an inclusive setting. Furthermore, many studies have proven that professional learning will benefit educators and principals in dealing with inclusive schools, especially how to teach in diversity to meet every student's needs (Avramidis & Norwich, 2002; Nishimura, 2014; Lisdiana et al., 2018).

Some scholars introduced some professional learning models in inclusive education to meet principals' competencies improvement needs. Among those models, three models are

believed to improve educators' and principals' skills and knowledge in inclusive education, namely a coaching model (Nishimura, 2014), in-class support model (Loreman, 2001 cited in Loreman, 2007), and in-service model (Lisdiana et al., 2018).

For recommendation, future studies in professional development in inclusive education for kindergarten principals in Indonesia are required to expand the possibilities of some professional development models in inclusive education in Indonesia. Furthermore, the role of the Indonesian government to take part and to support professional learning for increasing kindergarten principals' skills and knowledge in inclusive education is also needed, so the development of high quality of inclusive education in Indonesia can continue to be improved.

References

Abosi, O., & Koay, T. L. (2008). Attaining Development Goals of Children with Disabilities: Implications for Inclusive Education. *International Journal of Special Education, 23*(3), 1-10.

Ajuwon, P. M. (2008). Inclusive Education for Students with Disabilities in Nigeria: Benefits, Challenges and Policy Implications. *International journal of special education, 23*(3), 11-16.

Alur, M. (2001). Some cultural and moral implications of inclusive education in India—A personal view. *Journal of Moral* Education, *30*(3), 287-292.

Ariastuti, R., & Herawati, V. D. (2016). Optimalisasi Peran Sekolah Inklusi [The Optimalization of the Role of Inclusive Schools]. *Jurnal Pengabdian Pada Masyarakat, 1*(1), 38-47.

Avramidis, E., & Norwich, B. (2002). Teachers' attitudes towards integration/inclusion: a review of the literature. *European Journal of Special Needs Education, 17*(2), 129-147.

Baumeister, R. F., & Leary, M. R. (1997). Writing narrative literature reviews. *Review of general psychology*, *1*(3), 311-320.

Bush, T. (2007). Educational leadership and management: theory, policy, and practice. *South African Journal of Education, 27*(3), 391-406.

Buysse, V., & Hollingsworth, H. L. (2009). Program quality and early childhood inclusion: Recommendations for professional development. *Topics in early childhood special education*, *29*(2), 119-128.

Carnes, G., & Albrecht, N. (2012). *Academic and social-emotional effects of full-day kindergarten: the benefits of time*.

Charlesworth, R., Hart, C. H., Burts, D. C., & Hernandez, S. (1991). Kindergarten teachers beliefs and practices. *Early Child Development and Care, 70*(1), 17-35.

Clark, P., & Kirk, E. (2000). All-day kindergarten. *Childhood Education, 76*(4), 228–231.

Cronin, P., Ryan, F., & Coughlan, M. (2008). Undertaking a literature review: a step-by-step approach. *British journal of nursing, 17*(1), 38-43.

Cuban, L. (1988). *The Managerial Imperative and the Practice of Leadership in Schools*. Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.

Dhuey, E. (2011). Who benefits from kindergarten? Evidence from the introduction of state subsidization. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis, 33*(1), 3-22.

Firdaus, E. (2010). *Pendidikan Inklusif dan Implementasinya di Indonesia* [Inclusive Education and Its Implementation in Indonesia]. In Seminar Nasional Pendidikan.

Fisher, D., Roach, V., & Frey, N. (2002). Examining the general programmatic benefits of inclusive schools. *International Journal of Inclusive Education, 6*(1), 63-78.

Fitria, R. (2012). Proses pembelajaran dalam setting inklusi di sekolah dasar [Learning process in elementary inclusive schools]. *Jurnal Ilmiah Pendidikan Khusus, 1*(1), 90-101.

Florian, L., & Linklater, H. (2010). Preparing teachers for inclusive education: using inclusive pedagogy to enhance teaching and learning for all. *Cambridge Journal of Education, 40*(4), 369-386.

Foster, W. (1989). Toward a critical practice of leadership. *Critical perspectives on educational leadership, 3,* 39-62.

Galović, D., Brojčin, B., & Glumbić, N. (2014). The attitudes of teachers towards inclusive education in Vojvodina. *International Journal of Inclusive Education, 18*(12), 1262-1282.

Garnida, D. (2015). *Pengantar Pendidikan Inklusif* [Introduction to Inclusive Education]. Refika Aditama: Bandung.

Halimah, N., & Kawuryan, F. (2010). Kesiapan memasuki sekolah dasar Pada anak yang mengikuti pendidikan TK dengan yang tidak mengikuti pendidikan TK di kabupaten kudus [Children Readiness for Elementary Schools for Kindergarten Children and non-Kindergarten Children]. *Jurnal Psikologi UMK: PITUTUR, 1*(1), 1-8.

Izzaucon. (2014). *Tujuan dan Landasan Pendidikan Inklusi* [The Purpose and Foundation of Inclusive Education]. Retrieved July 02 2019 from http://izzaucon.blogspot.com/2014/06/tujuan-dan-landasan-pendidikan-inklusi.html

Keyes, M. W., Hanley-Maxwell, C., & Capper, C. A. (1999). "Spirituality? It's the core of my leadership": Empowering leadership in an inclusive elementary school. *Educational Administration Quarterly, 35*(2), 203-237.

Jelas, Z. M. (2000). Perceptions of inclusive practices: the Malaysian perspective. *Educational review*, *52*(2), 187-196.

Lisdiana, A., Supriyanto, D., & Tarsidi, D. (2018). Sikap Guru Terhadap Pendidikan Inklusif-Kecenderungan Internasional [Teacher Attitude Towards Inclusive Education – International Perspective]. *JASSI ANAKKU*, *19*(1), 1-10.

Lee, O., Penfield, R., & Maerten-Rivera, J. (2009). Effects of fidelity of implementation on science achievement gains among English language learners. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching: The Official Journal of the National Association for Research in Science Teaching, 46(*7), 836-859.

Lestari, N. T. (2012). *Sentralisasi dan desentralisasi* [Centralisation and decentralisation]. Retrieved August 01, 2012, from http://edukasi.kompasiana.com/2012/03/12/sentralisasi-dan-desentralisasi/

Lim, L., & Tan, J. (1999). The marketization of education in Singapore: Prospects for inclusive education. *International Journal of Inclusive Education, 3*(4), 339-351.

Loreman, T. (2007). Seven Pillars of Support for Inclusive Education: Moving from. *International Journal of Whole Schooling, 3*(2), 22-38.

Loreman, T., & Deppeler, J. (2002). Working towards full inclusion in education. *Access: The National Issues Journal for People with a Disability, 3*(6), 5-8.

Marshall, C., & Ward, M. (2004). "Yes, but…": Education leaders discuss social justice. *Journal of school leadership, 14*(5), 530-563.

Maryatun, I. B. (2008). *Pemanfaatan kegiatan outbound untuk melatih kerjasama (sebagai moral behavior) anak taman kanak-kanak* [Outbound activity as mutual cooperation exercise for kindergarten children's moral behavior building]. Google Scholar.

Merriam, W. (2013). *Definition of centralism.* Retrieved February 10, 2013, from http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/centralism

Miller, P. S., Harris, C., & Watanabe, A. (1991). Professional coaching: A method for increasing effective and decreasing ineffective teacher behaviors. *Teacher Education and Special Education, 14*(3), 183-191.

Ministry of Education. (2012). *Kemendikbud* [Ministry of Education]. Retrieved February 10, 2013, from http://www.kemdiknas.go.id/kemdikbud/

Monchy, M. D., Pijl, S. J., & Zandberg, T. (2004). Discrepancies in judging social inclusion and bullying of pupils with behaviour problems. *European Journal of Special Needs Education, 19*(3), 317-330.

Nishimura, T. (2014). Effective professional development of teachers: A guide to actualizing inclusive schooling. *International Journal of Whole Schooling, 10*(1), 19-42.

Parmono, Syahid, A., Antonilamini, Titik, P., & Iswatun. (2008). *Sentralistik dan desentralistik pendidik* [Teachers' centralization and decentralization]. Retrieved August 10, 2012, from http://antonilamini.wordpress.com/2008/05/18/sentralisasi-dan-desentralisasi-pendidikan/

Pontoh, W. P. (2013). Peranan komunikasi interpersonal guru dalam meningkatkan pengetahuan anak [The role of teachers interpersonal communication towards the improvement of children's knowledge]. *Jurnal Acta Diurna, 2*(1).

Potts, P. (2000). A Western perspective on inclusion in Chinese urban educational settings. *International Journal of Inclusive Education, 4*(4), 301-313.

Central Bureau of Statistics (2019). Jumlah Sekolah, Guru, dan Murid Taman Kanak-Kanak (TK) di Bawah Kementrian Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan [Number of Kindergarten Schools, Teachers and Students Under the Ministry of Education and Culture]. Retrieved May 10, 2019, from https://www.bps.go.id

Rudiyati, S. (2011). *Potret Sekolah Inklusif di Indonesia* [Overview of Inclusive Schools in Indonesia]. Makalah. Pertemuan Nasional Asosiasi Kesehatan Jiwa dan Remaja (AKESWARI): Yogyakarta.

Ryan, J. (2006). Inclusive leadership and social justice for schools. *Leadership and Policy in schools, 5*(1), 3-17.

Sakti, S. W. (2007). *Pendidikan di Indonesia?* [Education in Indonesia?]. Retrieved 19 August 2012 from: http://elmu.umm.ac.id/mod/forum/discuss.php?d=666

Scott, B. J., Vitale, M. R., & Masten, W. G. (1998). Implementing instructional adaptations for students with disabilities in inclusive classrooms: A literature review. *Remedial and special education, 19*(2), 106-119.

Setiyati, S. (2014). Pengaruh kepemimpinan kepala sekolah, motivasi kerja, dan budaya sekolah terhadap kinerja guru [The effects of school leadership, work motivation, and school culture towards teachers' daily work]. *Jurnal Pendidikan Teknologi dan Kejuruan, 22*(2), 200-206.

Solehuddin, M., Syarifah, I., Budiman, N., Setiawan, D., & Budi, U. L. (2014). *Pembaharuan pendidikan TK* [Renewal of Kindergarten Education]. 1-27.

Strogilos, V. (2012). The cultural understanding of inclusion and its development within a centralised system. *International Journal of Inclusive Education, 16*(12), 1241-1258.

Suhendri. (2018). *Pengenalan Pendidikan Inklusi untuk Taman Kanak-kanak* [Introduction to Inclusive Education in Kindergarten]. Majalah Inklusi: Ministry of Indonesian Education. ISSN: 1978-5151.

Van Kraayenoord, C. E. (2007). School and classroom practices in inclusive education in Australia. *Childhood education, 83*(6), 390-394.

Van Laarhoven, T. R., Munk, D. D., Lynch, K., Bosma, J., & Rouse, J. (2007). A model for preparing special and general education pre-service teachers for inclusive education. *Journal of Teacher Education, 58(*5), 440-455.

Villa, R. A., Van Tac, L., Muc, P. M., Ryan, S., Thuy, N. T. M., Weill, C., & Thousand, J. S. (2003). Inclusion in Viet Nam: More than a decade of implementation. *Research and Practice for Persons with Severe Disabilities, 28*(1), 23-32.

Wahjosumidjo. (2005). *Kepemimpinan Kepala Sekolah Tinjauan Teoritik dan Permasalahannya* [Leadership Principal School Theoretical Review and Problems]. Jakarta: Rajawali Press

Wathoni, K. (2013). Implementasi Pendidikan Inklusi dalam Pendidikan Islam [The Implementation of Inclusive Education in Islamic Education]. *Ta'allum: Jurnal Pendidikan Islam, 1*(1), 99-109.

Wong, T. K. S. (2006). *A case study of leadership of kindergarten principals in Hong Kong* (Doctoral dissertation, Queensland University of Technology).

Wulandari, F. (2014). *Sejarah Pendidikan Inklusif di Dunia dan di Indonesia* [The History of Inclusive Education in the World and in Indonesia]. Retrieved 02 July 2019 from https://www.academia.edu/8677313/Pendidikan_Inklusif\

Appendix

Table 1

Numbers of Kindergartens in Indonesia

Province	Schools				
	2011/2012	2012/2013	2013/2014	2014/2015	2015/2016
Aceh	1,507	1,566	1,784	1,983	2,184
Sumatera Utara	1,551	2,046	1,984	2,254	2,309
Sumatera Barat	1,971	1804	1,962	2,068	2,357
Riau	1,499	1,484	1,413	1,759	2,070
Jambi	1,002	385	991	1,005	1,189
Sumatera Selatan	1,199	1,287	1,279	1,589	1,761
Bengkulu	528	570	772	894	948
Lampung	2,098	2,416	2,304	2,603	2,701
Kepulauan Babel	286	301	318	346	346
pulauan Riau	473	471	499	496	596
DKI Jakarta	1,857	1,252	1,416	1,477	2,295
Jawa Barat	5,999	5,738	6,973	7,420	8,119
Jawa Tengah	12,935	14,003	13,350	13,564	14,090
DI Yogyakarta	2,135	2,138	2,002	2,121	2,136
Jawa Timur	16,471	16,562	16,040	16,724	18,163
Banten	1,611	1,573	1,639	1,784	2,023
Bali	1,296	1,374	1,397	1,448	1,593
Nusa Tenggara Barat	1,265	1,544	1,465	1,523	1,658

Province	Schools				
	2011/2012	2012/2013	2013/2014	2014/2015	2015/2016
Nusa Tenggara Timur	1,147	683	1,175	1,256	1,174
Kalimantan Barat	614	529	600	699	731
Kalimantan Tengah	999	1,016	1,226	1,471	1,490
Kalimantan Selatan	2,050	2,129	2,292	2,385	2,365
Kalimantan Timur	1,054	1,104	1,459	1,337	1,253
Kalimantan Utara	-	-	-	176	169
Sulawesi Utara	1,291	1,398	1,535	1,509	1,110
Sulawesi Tengah	1,174	1,017	1,419	1,377	1,799
Sulawesi Selatan	3,323	3,471	3,726	3,853	3,954
Sulawesi Tenggara	1,142	1,314	1,381	1,476	1,719
Gorontalo	680	651	741	761	755
Sulawesi Barat	513	392	538	591	676
Maluku	403	276	276	322	465
Maluku Utara	266	289	361	373	484
Papua Barat	194	225	429	267	324
Papua	384	348	236	457	493
Total	70,917	71,356	74,982	79,368	85,499

Source: Central Bureau of Statistics, Indonesia (2019).

Table 2

Numbers of kindergarten students in Indonesia

Province	Students				
	2011/2012	2012/2013	2013/2014	2014/2015	2015/2016
Aceh	79,225	85,289	93,432	99,314	105,201
Sumatera Utara	99,501	163,886	172,106	183,989	193,472
Sumatera Barat	96,806	75,715	78,196	84,712	90,097
Riau	75,615	93,599	95,624	100,838	105,282
Jambi	47,971	35,320	36,854	39,787	42,633
Sumatera Selatan	60,134	66,365	69,682	74,811	79,323
Bengkulu	25,727	29,358	30,827	35,472	38,476
Lampung	104,991	97,404	102,275	115,725	121,861
Kepulauan Babel	23,188	28,780	28,782	29,794	32,149
Kepulauan Riau	24,331	41,194	42,401	44,344	46,337
DKI Jakarta	125,469	110,193	123,143	126,538	127,756
Jawa Barat	312,202	367,224	387,757	403,107	406,495
Jawa Tengah	641,941	649,629	668,597	689,884	695,733
DI Yogyakarta	115,372	94,977	94,022	96,927	97,802
Jawa Timur	826,369	881,922	915,154	927,849	938,293
Banten	80,840	154,108	164,071	170,092	173,453
Bali	68,080	78,618	82,549	82,195	86,185
Nusa Tenggara Barat	62,063	103,428	108,601	112,002	115,762
Nusa Tenggara Timur	52,723	72,825	76,468	80,582	86,556

Province	Students				
	2011/2012	2012/2013	2013/2014	2014/2015	2015/2016
Kalimantan Barat	31,980	47,698	50,085	52,549	56,402
Kalimantan Tengah	47,365	51,913	54,507	57,891	62,269
Kalimantan Selatan	95,823	81,536	87,652	96,457	102,378
Kalimantan Timur	60,274	51,449	54,022	50,605	54,308
Kalimantan Utara	-	-	-	12,640	13,640
Sulawesi Utara	62,406	60,166	63,077	65,254	69,912
Sulawesi Tengah	57,649	70,606	74,136	81,418	86,762
Sulawesi Selatan	152,527	193,122	202,779	210,998	219,983
Sulawesi Tenggara	55,409	80,738	84,773	90,741	94,497
Gorontalo	33,962	26,351	27,668	28,726	30,597
Sulawesi Barat	24,209	16,372	17,191	20,678	22,312
Maluku	18,308	19,047	19,999	20,914	22,568
Maluku Utara	12,931	18,391	19,311	21,467	23,165
Papua Barat	11,079	12,622	13,254	12,901	13,821
Papua	25,971	34,084	35,788	37,024	39,952
Total	3,612,441	3,612,441	4,174,783	4,358,225	4,495,432

Source: Central Bureau of Statistics, Indonesia (2019).