FROM THE MARGINS TO THE CENTER:
APPLYING STANDPOINT THEORY TO UNDERSTAND AND
TRANSFORM POWER RELATIONS IN THE CLASSROOM

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Keywords:	ABSTRACT
student-lecturer interaction; power dynamics; standpoint theory; equity in education; interpersonal communication	*Constructive and friendly student-lecturer interactions are essential in learning because apart from being able to provide a pleasant educational experience it can also improve students' personal and academic abilities. However, student-lecturer interactions often experience inequality due to the power imbalances among the participants. This study aims to identify the student-lecturer interaction in learning to increase an equal relationship based on students' perspective. Questionnaires adapted from QTI were distributed to 40 students to collect the data. The results of the study highlight the importance of strong pedagogical leadership and understanding in fostering effective student-lecturer interactions. Students value lecturers who demonstrate leadership, consider their diverse learning needs, and create inclusive learning environments. However, the study also reveals concerns regarding uncertainty and limited student autonomy, consistent with critiques of traditional, lecturer-centered instruction. From a standpoint theory perspective, power imbalances within the classroom can hinder student engagement and motivation and impede the development of crucial 21st-century skills. Cultivating a student-centered environment with open communication, shared decision-making, and student agency is crucial for enhancing the learning experience and fostering student success.*

A. INTRODUCTION

Student-lecturer interaction is an important aspect of learning. Constructive and intimate interactions between lecturers and students provide educational experiences that are not only fun for students but can also develop their personal and academic abilities (Elegbe, 2018). Positive lecturer-student interaction greatly contributes to student learning. A productive learning environment is characterized by supportive and warm interactions in the classroom, both between lecturers and students, as well as between students (Wubbels et al., 2012).

Interaction in class is also influenced by culture. As explained by Hofstede in Kasuya (2008), there are four dimensions that affect interaction in the classroom, i.e. individuality/collectivity, avoidance of uncertainty, power distance, and masculinity/femininity. Of the four dimensions, the power distance between lecturers and students greatly influences this interaction, especially in communication activities. Lecturers prefer to control students (dominant), and students are instructed to always obey (submissive). This unequal distribution of power exists in every society. It means that inequality exists in every culture but only differs in the tolerance level in each society.

In a classroom setting, there are still lecturers who have not implemented equal lecturer-student interaction. There is still a top-down (hierarchical) relationship pattern. Until now, there are still stereotypes against students that can lead to unfair treatment even though lecturer-student interactions that run harmoniously and equally can foster supportive and caring values that contribute to influencing student learning motivation and enthusiasm. Harmonious interaction will create a safe environment and stimulate students to participate in learning (Luz, 2015).

Based on the explanation above, the researchers are interested to investigate the student-lecturer interaction in class based on students' perspectives by applying the standpoint theory. The results of the study are expected to give new perspectives to lecturers from the students' point of view in order that both parties can build equal relationship when interacting in class.

Communication Pattern

Lecturers and students are part of the academic community who live in an academic area called a university. Like other humans in society, lecturers and students are social beings who interact with each other and need one another. In interacting, humans carry out the process of communication to understand each other. The communication process carried out repeatedly and continuously will form a pattern of communication. Soejanto (2005) defines a communication pattern as a simple description of the communication process that shows the link between one communication component and another. Djamarah (2004) adds communication pattern is a pattern or form of relationship between two or more people in the process of sending and receiving messages in the right way so that the intended messages can be understood.

Devito (2019) divides communication patterns into four types, namely primary, secondary, linear, and circular communication patterns. The primary communication pattern can be understood as the process of conveying messages by the communicator to the communicant using channels or media in the form of symbols. In this pattern, communication is divided into two symbols, verbal and nonverbal. The verbal symbol

is language. This symbol can express the thoughts of the communicator. In contrast to verbal symbols, nonverbal symbols are not in the form of language, but signals conveyed using body parts, such as heads, eyes, lips, hands, and others. The secondary communication pattern is the process of conveying messages by the communicator to the communicant as in the primary one but assisted by means or tools as a second medium. Communicators use the second medium because the communicants are in different places and far away, or there are many communicants. In this pattern, the message will be conveyed more effectively and efficiently if it is supported by sophisticated information technology. A linear communication pattern can be understood from the meaning of the word linear itself, which means straight or one-way. Tubbs and Moss (2005) state that a linear communication pattern is a one-way communication process where the communicator provides a stimulus and the communicant shows the expected response or response without making interpretations and selections. In this process, the communicators usually meet in person with the communicants, although they can use a second medium. Linear communication can be effective if there is planning before the communication is carried out. The next pattern is the circular communication pattern. As the term implies, circular means round or annular. In this pattern, feedback occurs from the communicant to the communicator. The communication process in this pattern occurs continuously, giving rise to feedback between the communicator and the communicant.

The communication patterns that occur between lecturers and students on campus are generally primary and circular. However, these patterns have become secondary and hybrid (a mixture of primary and secondary) since the beginning of the Covid-19 pandemic. Meanwhile, the linear communication pattern occurs only when the lecturer needs to deliver the materials in person.

Interpersonal Communication

Communication is divided into several categories based on its form, namely intrapersonal communication, interpersonal communication, group communication, public communication, organizational communication, mass communication, and political communication (Mulyana, 2001). In the context of higher education, lecturers and students tend to use interpersonal communication in their daily interactions. According to DeVito in Effendy (2003), interpersonal communication can be interpreted as a process of sending and receiving messages between two people or small groups that cause direct effects and feedback. In other words, interpersonal communication is a way to convey and receive one's thoughts, information, ideas, feelings, and even emotions, to the point of achieving the same understanding between the communicator and the communicant (Wahyuni, 2017). Interpersonal communication can occur in the interaction of two people, such as husband and wife, co-workers, close friends, teacher-students, and many more (Mulyana, 2005).

DeVito (1997) mentions that there are five general qualities in achieving interpersonal communication's effectiveness which have characteristics that can be viewed from a humanistic perspective, namely openness, empathy, supportiveness, positiveness, and equality. Openness is an attitude of being able to accept other people's input or opinions and being willing to convey information to others. It means that the communicator is willing to disclose appropriate information without being covered up, and the communicant can react honestly to existing stimuli. Conversation participants

who are silent, uncritical, and unresponsive will be very dull. The person talking wants a reaction from the listener because a disapproving answer sounds better than silence. The second quality is empathy. Empathy is a person's ability to understand and feel the conditions and circumstances of others as if he/she were in the same position as others. People who have the quality of empathy can understand the motivations, experiences, feelings, and attitudes of others. Next is supportiveness or a supportive attitude. Interpersonal communication will work effectively when the communicating parties commit to supporting each other to create an open interaction. Fourth, positiveness or a positive attitude can be shown in two ways, namely by expressing a positive attitude and positively encouraging those with whom you interact. Positive attitude refers to two aspects of interpersonal communication, namely (1) interpersonal communication can be developed if someone has a positive attitude towards themselves, and (2) positive feelings in communication are generally essential for effective interaction. The last is equality which means that both parties are equally valuable. They value each other and need each other.

Interpersonal Communication, Andragogy Approach, and Equal Interaction between Lecturers and Students

According to Abubakar (2015), communication between lecturers and students can occur both inside and outside the classroom. A smooth communication process between lecturers and students will produce good learning outcomes. Meanwhile, the communication process will not run smoothly if the lecturer does not provide space for the communication itself. They will find it difficult to explore students' abilities to ask questions or express their opinions so that the results of learning are not optimal. Naim (2011) emphatically states that the key to communication in the classroom lies with the educator or lecturer. By providing space and time for students to ask questions and give opinions, lecturers can create a comfortable and equal learning atmosphere. It is comfortable because communication goes not in one direction but in two directions. It is equal because students can express their opinions and feelings like relationships between friends. This is the advantage of interpersonal communication between lecturers and students. However, in practice, in certain classes, many lecturers still have the perspective that they are the holders of power in the class so that students who want to graduate must obey them. Among students, lecturers like this are nicknamed killer lecturers who apply excessive discipline and often do not give grades transparently. There are also, in other cases, students who think that they are the ones who have money so they are entitled to get what they want, including grades. Perspectives like this will make interpersonal communication fail and create unequal learning interactions.

In the world of education, learning interactions between lecturers and students cannot use a pedagogy approach (teaching for children), but use an andragogy approach (teaching for adults). Etymologically, andragogy comes from two Greek words namely *andra* which means adult and *agogos* which means to lead or guide, so andragogy can be defined as the science and art of guiding or helping adults to learn (Sudjana in Hiryanto, 2017). The word adult itself refers to the condition of students who are adults, both in terms of physical (biological), legal, social, and psychological dimensions. Physical or biological dimensions cannot be separated from age and sexual maturity. Hurlock in Hiryanto (2017) states that adulthood or maturity can be seen from the age

of 21 years or is often counted from 7 or 8 years after a person experiences puberty or reaches sexual maturity. This age-based approach is used by law enforcement to apply different penalties to offenders. Meanwhile, from the social dimension, early adulthood can be seen from the shift from an egocentric view to an empathetic attitude; relationship determination plays a very important role. Maturity can also be seen from psychological maturity. There are seven characteristics of psychological maturity according to Anderson (in Mappiare, 1983), namely (1) being oriented to the task being done not to the ego, (2) having clear goals and efficient work habits, (3) being able to control personal feelings so that they can consider the feelings of other people, (4) have an objective attitude, (5) can accept criticism and suggestions, (6) can be responsible for their own efforts, and (7) can adapt to new situations. Students in tertiary institutions are on average aged 18 years and over, so the most suitable teaching approach is andragogy in which students are seen as individuals who have reached biological, social, and psychological maturity.

By viewing students as fellow adults and communicating interpersonally, lecturers can build equal interactions with students because one of the characteristics of interpersonal communication itself is equality where both parties tacitly admit each other is valuable because they both have something important to give and present based on their respective functions and roles. However, inequality often arises when lecturers and students are unable to negotiate in achieving their respective goals, resulting in conflicts which, if not resolved immediately, will have a negative impact on learning outcomes, not only for students but also for lecturers.

The Standpoint Theory

The standpoint theory first appeared in 1807 when Georg Wilhelm Friedrich Hegel, a German philosopher, began to analyze the master-slave relationship to show that what people 'know' about themselves, others, and society depending on which group they belong to (Griffin, 2012). This creates different points of view from one another towards the same reality. This difference is due to their position which is socially different. What they know and experience differs from one another, giving rise to different perspectives on things. In this case, a slave will have a different interpretation from his master of what is called chains and punishments, even though they are in the same 'reality'. However, because the master's role is supported in such a way by the existing social structure, with that power, it is their point of view that is accepted by the world (Griffin, 2012).

According to the standpoint theory, each point of view is limited and partial. However, some points of view are more partial than others so that the point of view of the dominant group tends to be biased because they want to maintain the status quo by obscuring the point of view of the subordinate group. In contrast, the point of view of the subordinate group has a more objective perspective. In this theory, the marginalized group must not only develop their own point of view from a less privileged position, but must also understand the point of view of the privileged group. Kroløkke and Sørensen, (2006) add that a slave (subordinate group) must understand the standpoint of his master (dominant group) to survive, but the other way around does not apply. They claim that where there are power relations, there is never a single perspective. In other words, no point of view is complete and each perspective is limited (Wood, 2011).

The standpoint theory is basically guided by the views of people who are marginalized by the existing social and cultural system. The goal is very humane, namely to empower the oppressed in order to improve their situation, which has been largely ignored in socio-political theory and movements (Gurung, 2020). In relation to the world of academia, the standpoint theory can be used to examine the inequality that often occurs in lecturer-student relations where lecturers are seen as the party with power and students are the oppressed. Often lecturers place themselves as a superior group where they think the class they are in is their class so they feel they have full control over what happens in class. They forget that students are also part of the class, in which the students' rights are, such as the right to express opinions and be heard, the right to take part in determining the rules approved in class, the right to obtain specific knowledge in their field, and so forth.

Power Distance and Interaction in Class

Hofstede (1986) states that power distance affects lecturer-student interaction in classroom learning. This can be an inhibiting factor in communication activities. The degree of difference in power distance can be measured by how much the members of that cultural group accept the unequal distribution of power. According to Hofstede (1980), it is true that all societies are unequal, but more people experience inequality than others. It means inequality exists in every culture, but the level of tolerance is different in every society. Likewise, inequality in class interaction exists in every society, depending on the extent to which each tolerates this inequality. Lecturers with a large power distance tend to dominate students, expecting students to act according to their orders. In class, the type of interaction between lecturers and students or students and students is limited. In contrast, for lecturers with a small power distance, students' interaction with lecturers and with other students is more active and freer (Kasuya, 2008).

For example, Asian nations are said to be nations with large levels of inequality, while western countries are societies with small levels of inequality. In Asian countries such as Japan and China, people who have less power tend to accept inequality. They are expected to know and accept their own place. They are relatively passive, using self-denial to fit their ranks and tend to refrain from expressing their own opinions in front of others. On the other hand, in Western countries like the US and UK, people tend to reject the unequal distribution of power. According to Hofstede (1986), Asian countries such as Japan, South Korea, Thailand, and Hong Kong are categorized as societies with large Power Distance, while Western countries such as the UK, US, Canada, and Germany are classified as societies with small Power Distance.

These different dimensions of power influence class interactions in these countries, including in Indonesia as a part of Asia. The following are the differences in lecturer-student interactions related to power distance.

Lecturer Interpersonal Behavior Model

To describe students' perceptions of lecturer behavior, the Wubbbels, Créton and Hooymayers Model (1985, see Wubbels & Levy, 1993) can be used. This model was designed by Leary (1957) in an educational context. The Leary model has been extensively investigated in clinical psychology and psychotherapeutic settings (Strack,

1996). This model proved to be complete enough to describe interpersonal relationships (Brekelmans et al., 2005).

Lecturer interpersonal behavior models are mapped into two-dimensional coordinate systems. These dimensions are Proximity (closeness) including Cooperative versus Opposition and Influence dimension including Domination versus Submission. Proximity (CO) represents the cooperative level or closeness between lecturers and students. The Influence (DS) dimension shows who directly controls the communication and how often the communication takes place (Wubbels & Brekelmans, 2005). Each quadrant of the coordinate system represents two segments of lecturer interpersonal behavior, so there are a total of 8 sectors of lecturer interpersonal behavior. For example, the two sectors in the first quadrant, (dominant and cooperative) are called Leadership aspects (DC represents the high level of dominance and low moderate cooperative level) Helping/Friendly (high cooperative level and lower dominance level) is CD). The sector in the second quadrant (Cooperative-Submissive) is called the Understanding aspect (high cooperative level and lower moderate submissive level is CS). Student Responsibility/Freedom (high submissive level and low cooperative level) is SC. In the third quadrant, Submission-Opposition) is the Uncertain aspect (higher submission level and lower opposition is SO). Dissatisfied (high opposition level and lower submission level) is OS. Finally, in the fourth quadrant, Opposition-Dominance is called the Admonishing aspect (high level of opposition and lower level of dominance is OD). And Strict or Strictness (high level of dominance and lower level of opposition) is DO (Wubbels & Brekelmans, 2005). Furthermore, these sectors can be presented in Model 1 in Figure 1.
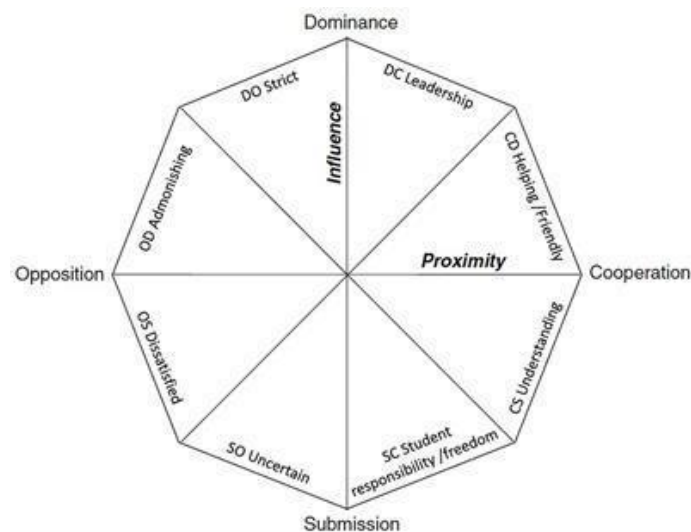

Figure 1. Lecturer Interpersonal Behavior Model (Adapted from Wubbels and Leary, 1993)

Leary's model is then translated into the classroom and divided into eight equal sectors which provide examples of different types of teacher's or lecturer's behavior when interacting with students. More details can be seen in Figure 2 below:
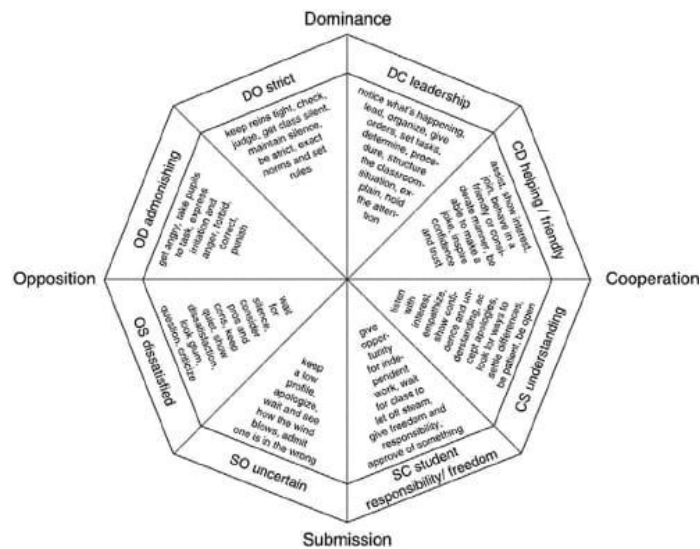
Figure 2. Eight Equal Sectors in Leary's Model

In Leary's model, the two important dimensions that Leary called the Dominance-Submission dimension and the Resistance-Cooperation dimension. While the two dimensions are sometimes given other names, Brown (1965) using Status and Solidarity, Dunkin and Biddle (1974) using Warmth and Direction - this model has generally been accepted as a universal descriptor of human interaction. Both dimensions are also able to describe the students' perceptions on their teacher's behavior (Wubbels & Levy, 1993).

Furthermore, based on Leary's interpersonal behavior model, Wubbels et al. (1985) developed the Questionnaire on Teacher Interaction (QTI). QTI was developed in the early 1980s by a team of researchers from the Netherlands at the University of Utrecht to measure teacher's (lecturer's) behavior in interactions with students (Wubbels, et al., 1985). QTI, adapted from Leary's interpersonal behavior model, allows a graphical representation of human interaction with the help of the Proximity dimension (Cooperation-Opposition) to measure the level of cooperation or closeness by those involved in the communication process and the dimension of Influence (Dominance-Submission) which indicates the degree of dominance or control during the communication process (Wubbels & Levy, 1993).

B. METHOD

This study used quantitative method. Descriptive quantitative method was used to describe the numeric data gained from the distribution of questionnaires to the purposive sampling, 40 students of Faculty of Da'wah and Islamic Communication, UIN Siber Syekh Nurjati Cirebon, Indonesia in Semester 5. The questionnaires were adapted from Wubbels & Leary's Questionnaire on Teacher Interaction (QTI) model. The short version of QTI developed by Wubbels (1993) has 48 items. This version assesses 8 aspects named Leadership, Helping/Friendly, Understanding, Student Freedom/Responsibility, Uncertain, Dissatisfied, Admonishing, and Strict (Fraser et al., 2021; Aldridge, 1995; Maulana, et.al., 2012). The collected data were then analyzed using descriptive quantitative analysis. To describe the pattern, the researchers conducted a few steps, namely describing the data, presenting the data, analyzing the data using a human interaction model which is adapted to become a lecturer interpersonal behavior

model, The Leary Model and Coordinate System. This model has two dimensions, namely the Proximity dimension (Cooperation-Opposition) to measure the level of cooperation or closeness between lecturers and students in the interaction process and the Influence dimension (Dominance-Submission) to indicate the level of domination or control and obedience during the interaction process, in order that the pattern obtained can describe the model of equality of lecturer-student relationship which are categorized into dominant-submissive and cooperative-oppositional. The last step is drawing conclusion. The conclusion of the research results is the answer to the problem formulation above and some findings as well as recommendations.

C. RESULT AND DISCUSSION
Findings
The QTI (Wubbels, 1993) consists of 48 items with 8 scales; each scale consists of 6 items, to which students responded on a five-point Likert scale from 0 – 4 (never – always). The scales describe eight different aspects of behavior, namely Leadership (DC), Helping/Friendly (CD), Understanding (CS), Student Responsibility/Freedom (SC), Uncertain (SO), Dissatisfied (OS), Admonishing (OD), and Strict (DO).

1. Leadership
In general, the leadership aspect of the lecturers at the Faculty of Da'wah & Islamic Communication at UIN Siber Syekh Nurjati Cirebon was good. This can be seen in the numbers listed in Table 1 below. The percentage of lecturers who had high leadership competence is 52.5%. Meanwhile, if seen cumulatively, as many as 89.5% of lecturer leadership competencies are at moderate to high levels, and only 10% had low leadership competencies. A clearer visual picture can be seen in Table 1.

Table 1. Leadership

Leadership				
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Low	4	10.0	10.0	10.0
Medium	15	37.5	37.5	89.5
High	21	52.5	52.5	52.5
Total	40	100.0	100.0	

In this study, the measurement of leadership was carried out by observing the indicators that influence them. There were 6 indicators measured based on the survey that we conducted, namely (1) Enthusiasm, (2) Obviousness, (3) Attention, (4) Knowledge of the Situation, (5) Leadership, and (6) Confidence. Of the six indicators, we only paid attention to two indicators that were strong (Confidence) and weak (Knowledge of the Situation), of which cumulative figure (always–often) reaches 82.5% and 27.5% respectively.

2. Understanding
The second aspect that we examined is lecturers' understanding towards students. In this aspect, we found quite good results. This can be seen in the numbers listed in Table 2 below; lecturers who had a high understanding of students score 57.5%. Meanwhile, if seen cumulatively, as much as 92.5% of the competence of lecturers' understanding of students is at a moderate to high level. As for the lecturers' competency of understanding towards students, the figure is relatively small, only 10%. A visual picture can be seen more clearly in Table 2 below.

Table 2. Understanding

Understanding				
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Low	3	7.5	7.5	7.5
Medium	14	35.0	35.0	92.5
High	23	57.5	57.5	57.5
Total	40	100.0	100.0	

The measuring of this aspect was carried out by observing the indicators that influenced it. There are 6 indicators measured based on the survey, namely (1) trust the students, (2) compromise, (3) repeat explanation, (4) listen, (5) know when students do not understand, and (6) lecturer's patience when interacting with students. Of the six indicators, we only paid attention to two indicators, the strong (Lecturers' Patience) and the weak (Lecturers' Recognizing when Students Not Understand), of which cumulative figure (always–often) reaches 85% and 27.5% respectively.

3. **Uncertain**

The third aspect that we examined is Uncertain where lecturers had high uncertainty of 40.0%. Meanwhile, if seen cumulatively, as many as 72.5% of lecturers' uncertainty are at moderate to high levels, and only 27.5% have low uncertainty. The aspect of the lecturers' uncertainty is negative. This means that the higher the aspect of uncertainty found in the lecturers, the more incompetent they are. Conversely, the lower the aspect of uncertainty, the better their competence is. The whole data can be learned in Table 3 below.

Table 3. Uncertain

Uncertain				
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Low	11	27.5	27.5	27.5
Medium	13	32.5	32.5	72.5
High	16	40.0	40.0	100.0
Total	40	100.0	100.0	

Measuring aspect of lecturers' uncertainty in class was done by calculating the 6 indicators that influenced it. The 6 indicators measured based on the survey are (1) not sure, (2) undecided, (3) not know what to do, (4) easy to be ordered, (5) not know direction, (6) easy to make fun of. Of the six indicators, we only paid attention to two indicators, the strong (Easy to be Ordered) and the weak (Easy to Make Fun of), of which cumulative figure (always–often) reaches 27.5% and 82.5% respectively.

4. **Admonishing**

The fourth aspect is the lecturer's ability to admonish, where we found it at medium and high levels. Lecturers had the competence level of moderate ability to admonish by 43.5%. As for the lecturers who had the high competency level of the ability to admonish is 32.5%. Meanwhile, if seen cumulatively, as much as 77.5% of the lecturers' ability to admonish is at a moderate to high level. Meanwhile, the competence of the lecturer's ability to admonish is at a low level of 22.5%. Learning from the figures in Table 4 below, it can be concluded that aspect of Admonishing was still quite good.

Table 4. Admonishing

Admonishing				
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Low	9	22.5	22.5	100.0
Medium	18	45.0	45.0	77.5
High	13	32.5	32.5	32.5
Total	40	100.0	100.0	

The six indicators that influenced Admonishing are (1) suddenly angry, (2) easily angry, (3) quick to criticize, (4) impatient, (5) easy to conflict, and (6) sarcastic. Of the six indicators, we only paid attention to two indicators, the strong (Quick to Criticize) and the weak (Easy to Conflict), of which cumulative figure (always–often) reaches 27.5% and 82.5% respectively.

5. Helping/Friendly

The next aspect we examined is Lecturers being Helpful/Friendly, which was found quite good. This aspect was scored between the moderate to high level range. Lecturers who were easy to provide moderate assistance scores 52.5%. As for lecturers who were easy to provide high assistance, the figure is 32.5%. Meanwhile, if we see cumulatively, as much as 85.0% of the lecturers' ease to provide help is at a moderate to high level, and only 15% of the lecturers were easy to provide low assistance. Table 5 shows the figures in detail.

Table 5. Helping/Friendly

Helping				
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Low	6	15.0	15.0	100.0
Medium	21	52.5	52.5	85.0
High	13	32.5	32.5	32.5
Total	40	100.0	100.0	

There are 6 indicators influencing this aspect, namely (1) Willing to Guide, (2) Friendly Lecturer, (3) Reliable Lecturer, (4) Has a Sense of Humor, (5) Able to Joke, and (6) Fun. Of the six indicators, we only paid attention to two indicators, the strong (Friendly) and the weak (Reliable), of which cumulative figure (always–often) reaches 80% and 22.5% respectively.

6. Dissatisfied

Dissatisfied is the next aspect measured and we found it to be good. Lecturers who had a high dissatisfaction is 35.0%. The moderate dissatisfaction reaches 40.0%. Meanwhile, if seen cumulatively, as much as 65.0% of the Dissatisfaction is at a moderate to low level. The data contained in Table 6 below indicate that the lecturers' dissatisfaction with students is mostly (more than half) at moderate and low levels.

Table 6. Dissatisfied

Dissatisfied				
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Low	10	25.0	25.0	25.0
Medium	16	40.0	40.0	65.0
High	14	35.0	35.0	100.0
Total	40	100.0	100.0	

There are 6 indicators measured for this aspect, namely (1) Students cheat, (2) Students do not know anything, (3) Lecturers underestimate students, (4) Students cannot do anything, (5) The lecturer looks dissatisfied, and (6) The lecturer looks suspicious. Of the six indicators, we only paid attention to two indicators, the strong (Lecturers not underestimating students) and the weak (Lecturers not assuming students do not know anything), of which cumulative figure (always–often) reaches 80% and 45% respectively.

7. *Responsibility/Freedom*

The seventh aspect cannot be said to be good. Lecturers who had the competence to give high responsibility to students are only 15.0%. The competence to give low responsibility to students is 32.5%. Meanwhile, if seen cumulatively, as much as 85.0% of the competence to give responsibility to students is at a moderate to low level, and only 15% have the competence to give high responsibility to students. Table 7 presents the figures in detail.

Table 7. Student Responsibility/Freedom

Student Freedom/Responsibility				
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Low	13	32.5	32.5	32.5
Medium	21	52.5	52.5	85.0
High	6	15.0	15.0	100.0
Total	40	100.0	100.0	

There are 6 indicators influencing this aspect, namely (1) Students Making Decisions, (2) Students Influence Lecturers, (3) Allow Students to Joke, (4) Give Freedom, (5) Give Free Time, and (6) Forgiving. Of the six indicators, we only paid attention to two indicators, the strong (Forgiving) and the weak (Give Freedom), of which cumulative figure (always–often) reaches 70% and 62.5% respectively.

8. *Strict*

The eighth aspect we examined is Strict, which we found it still not good, but it was still in the moderate level. Lecturers who controlled the class strictly only scored 25.0%. While those who controlled the class less strictly reach 12.5%. Meanwhile, if seen cumulatively, as much as 75.0% of the competence of lecturers to strictly control students is at a moderate to low level. As for the biggest, the competence of lecturers to strictly control students is at a moderate level, 62.5%. Table 8 presents the figures in detail.

Table 8. Strict

Strict				
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Low	5	12.5	12.5	12.5
Medium	25	62.5	62.5	75.0
High	10	25.0	25.0	100.0
Total	40	100.0	100.0	

There are 6 indicators of this aspect, namely (1) Strict, (2) Ordering students to be quiet in class, (3) Difficult, (4) Lecturers set high standards, (5) Stingy about grades, and (6) Afraid. Of the six indicators, we only paid attention to the strong (Ordering students to be quiet in class) and the weak (Lecturers set high standards), of which cumulative figure (always–often) reaches 57.5% and 80.0% respectively.

Discussion

The findings of this study provide valuable insights into student perceptions of lecturer-student interaction. Notably, students highly valued leadership and understanding demonstrated by their lecturers. This aligns with existing research highlighting the importance of strong pedagogical leadership in fostering effective learning environments (Leithwood et al., 2004). Effective pedagogical leaders, within the context of higher education, are not merely content deliverers but also facilitators of learning who inspire, motivate, and guide students towards intellectual growth. Furthermore, the perception of understanding suggests that students appreciate lecturers who consider their diverse learning styles and individual needs, a crucial aspect of inclusive and effective teaching (Felder & Silverman, 1988). By acknowledging and addressing the unique learning needs and preferences of individual students, lecturers can create a more inclusive and supportive learning environment where all students have the opportunity to thrive. This not only enhances student engagement and motivation but also contributes to improved learning outcomes for all.

However, the study also revealed significant areas for improvement, particularly regarding uncertainty and limited student responsibility/freedom. These findings resonate with critiques of traditional pedagogical approaches that often prioritize teacher-centered instruction and passive student learning (Freire, 1970). This approach can limit student engagement, critical thinking, and the development of essential skills such as self-directed learning and problem-solving. From a standpoint theory perspective (Harding, 1991), these perceived limitations may stem from power imbalances within the classroom. The traditional role of the lecturer as the sole authority figure can contribute to a sense of uncertainty and limited autonomy among students. This power dynamic can hinder effective communication and learning. When students feel uncertain about expectations and lack the freedom to actively participate in the learning process, their engagement and motivation can diminish (Ryan & Deci, 2000). In a classroom where students feel controlled or lack a sense of ownership over their learning, their intrinsic motivation, or the internal drive to engage in learning for its own sake, can be significantly undermined. This can manifest in decreased engagement, reduced effort, and ultimately, poorer learning outcomes. Furthermore, a lack of student agency can impede the development of crucial 21st-century skills such

as critical thinking, problem-solving, and creativity. When students are primarily passive recipients of information, they have limited opportunities to develop these essential skills. By contrast, student-centered learning environments that prioritize active learning, inquiry-based approaches, and collaborative projects can foster the development of these crucial skills (Bransford et al., 2000).

These findings underscore the importance of cultivating a more equitable and student-centered learning environment where open communication, shared decision-making, and student agency are valued. Moving forward, educators can leverage these findings to enhance teaching practices. Strategies such as incorporating student feedback mechanisms, promoting active learning approaches, and fostering a supportive and inclusive classroom climate can help to address student concerns and create a more empowering learning experience for all.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, while lecturers are largely viewed as effective leaders and communicators, the findings underscore the importance of addressing the nuances of power dynamics and communication in education. By incorporating the principles of standpoint theory and fostering a balance between leadership and student autonomy, educators can create more empowering and inclusive learning environments. These efforts not only enhance the educational experience but also contribute to the development of more equitable and dynamic academic institutions.

Suggestions

After completing this research, the authors need to provide some suggestions for the development of teaching and learning at UIN Siber Syekh Nurjati Cirebon, Indonesia and further research:

1. Re-evaluate teaching practices: This research highlights the need for educators to critically examine their teaching practices and identify areas where they can enhance student autonomy and engagement.
2. Promote student-centered learning approaches: The findings emphasize the importance of shifting towards more student-centered approaches, such as active learning, inquiry-based learning, and collaborative projects.
3. Foster open communication and dialogue: Creating a classroom environment that encourages open communication and dialogue between students and lecturers is crucial for addressing student concerns and building trust.
4. Incorporate student feedback: Regularly seeking and incorporating student feedback can provide valuable insights into their learning experiences and identify areas for improvement in teaching practices.
5. Empower students through shared decision-making: Involving students in decision-making processes, such as course design or assessment, can enhance their sense of ownership and motivation.
6. Address power imbalances: Educators should be mindful of the potential for power imbalances in the classroom and strive to create a more equitable and inclusive learning environment for all students.
7. Further research: Further research is needed to investigate the specific strategies that can effectively address power dynamics and enhance student autonomy within different academic contexts.

These suggestions highlight that this research has significant implications for improving teaching practices and creating more effective and equitable learning environments for all students.

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Conflicts of Interest

The authors declare no conflicts of interest with respect to the research, authorship, and/ or publication of this article.

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