

Original Research

Received 12 May 2026

Revised 18 June 2026

Accepted 02 July 2026

Natural Resources for Human Health 2026, Vol. 6 (11s): 1113–1124

KEYWORDS:

teacher performance; SWOT analysis; primary education; geographic inequality; professional development; educational management; Indonesia

SWOT-Based Strategic Analysis for Improving Primary School Teacher Performance in Geographically Diverse Areas: Evidence from Muna Regency, Indonesia

Laode Baka^{1*}, Usman Rianse², Damhuri³, La Ndia⁴, Muhammad Suriyadarman Rianse⁵

¹²³⁴ Halu Oleo University, Kendari, Indonesia

⁵ Karya Persada University, Raha, Indonesia

*Corresponding author: laodebaka@gmail.com

ABSTRACT: Teacher performance improvement in geographically diverse regions cannot be achieved through uniform professional development policies. This study identifies the internal and external determinants that shape primary school teacher performance in Muna Regency, Indonesia, and formulates context-sensitive strategic priorities using a SWOT framework. A qualitative case-study design was employed. Data were generated through in-depth interviews, focus-group discussions, participant observation, and document analysis involving 49 informants: 21 teachers, 21 principals, one school supervisor, three district education officials, and three parents. Participants represented schools with A, B, and C accreditation statuses across urban, coastal, and inland settings. Thematic analysis was combined with Internal Factor Analysis Summary (IFAS), External Factor Analysis Summary (EFAS), and a SWOT strategy matrix. Teacher commitment, professional experience, active school leadership, collaborative practices, supervisory support, and high-performing schools as sources of good practice constituted the principal strengths. Uneven competence, limited digital capability, insufficient post-training mentoring, inadequate facilities, low non-civil-service teacher welfare, administrative burden, and inconsistent supervision were the main weaknesses. Opportunities included national teacher-quality policies, the Merdeka Curriculum, data-based planning, educational technology, university partnerships, and district training programmes. Geographic isolation, transport barriers, weak connectivity, budget limitations, accreditation disparities, policy changes, and declining motivation among underpaid teachers constituted major threats. The IFAS-EFAS assessment positioned the sampled case in the Weakness-Threat quadrant, requiring a defensive yet developmental strategy; these scores are qualitative prioritisation outputs from the case rather than population estimates for all primary schools in Muna Regency. The study proposes a holistic-contextual model integrating competence, welfare, motivation, and work-environment support, differentiated by geography and school accreditation. The findings demonstrate that geography should be treated as a strategic contingency in teacher performance management rather than merely as a background condition.

1. INTRODUCTION

Teacher quality is one of the most consequential school-based conditions influencing students' learning opportunities. Effective teaching requires more than subject knowledge: it depends on pedagogical judgement, assessment literacy, professional commitment, collaboration, access to instructional resources, and organisational support. Research on effective professional

development consequently emphasises sustained duration, active learning, collaboration, coaching, feedback, and coherence with teachers' daily work rather than isolated workshops [1–3]. Teacher performance is therefore best understood as an outcome of an interacting professional system, not as an individual attribute detached from school and community conditions.

This systemic view is particularly important in archipelagic and geographically dispersed regions. Distance, transport reliability, internet connectivity, and the distribution of qualified personnel affect whether teachers can participate in training, receive supervision, access digital resources, and collaborate with peers. International reports warn that educational technology may widen rather than reduce inequality when infrastructure, teacher capability, and local relevance are uneven [4,5]. In Indonesia, decentralisation has expanded local responsibility for educational provision, but differences in administrative capacity, geography, and resource availability continue to shape the quality of services across districts and schools [6,7]. Consequently, teacher-improvement programmes designed for easily accessible urban schools may not be feasible or effective in coastal and inland settings.

Muna Regency in Southeast Sulawesi illustrates this challenge. Its educational landscape includes urban centres, coastal settlements, and inland areas. Schools also differ in institutional capacity, as reflected in A, B, and C accreditation categories. Schools with stronger accreditation tend to possess better-organised instructional administration, more regular academic supervision, stronger collaborative cultures, and better access to facilities. Schools with weaker accreditation, especially in coastal and inland locations, face overlapping constraints related to transport, connectivity, instructional media, teacher distribution, professional-development access, and the welfare of non-civil-service teachers. These differences mean that equal treatment does not necessarily produce equitable improvement.

Previous studies have examined teacher competence, motivation, welfare, instructional leadership, technology integration, and professional learning communities as important predictors of teaching quality [8–14]. However, these determinants are frequently analysed separately, and geography is often treated merely as a descriptive setting. A fragmented approach can lead to fragmented policy: competency workshops are offered without follow-up mentoring; digital platforms are introduced without connectivity; performance demands increase without administrative simplification; and teachers in difficult areas receive the same intervention schedule as colleagues located near district services. The result may be formal programme completion without sustained change in classroom practice.

Strategic analysis offers a means of connecting these dimensions. SWOT analysis distinguishes internal strengths and weaknesses from external opportunities and threats and then matches them to produce SO, ST, WO, and WT strategies [15,16]. In education, the value of SWOT lies not in producing a static list, but in clarifying which capabilities can be mobilised, which internal deficits require correction, which external resources can be leveraged, and which environmental risks must be reduced. When combined with qualitative evidence, the framework can translate stakeholders' experiences into prioritised and context-sensitive action.

This study focuses specifically on the second research problem of a broader investigation into holistic teacher performance improvement in Muna Regency: which determinants constitute strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats within distinct geographic contexts? It makes three contributions. First, it integrates competence, welfare, motivation, leadership, supervision, facilities, collaboration, technology, policy, and geography within one strategic framework. Second, it treats school accreditation and geographic location as contingencies that require differentiated rather than uniform interventions. Third, it moves from diagnosis to an actionable holistic-contextual model in which teacher development and system development occur simultaneously.

The novelty of the proposed framework lies in treating geographic accessibility as an active strategic contingency rather than a descriptive setting, combining geography with school accreditation status, linking WT, WO, ST, and SO strategies to different levels and modes of intervention, and integrating teacher-level development with system-level support. In this way, the holistic-contextual model extends conventional SWOT-based educational management from static diagnosis toward sequenced, context-dependent action.

The central problem is that teacher performance improvement in Muna Regency has generally been addressed through partial programmes, while the constraints experienced by teachers are multidimensional and geographically uneven. Professional-development opportunities, digital access, supervision, facilities, welfare, and school leadership interact differently in urban,

coastal, and inland schools. A strategy that ignores these interactions risks strengthening schools that already possess greater capacity while leaving vulnerable schools further behind.

Accordingly, the study addresses the following question: What internal and external determinants represent strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats to improving primary school teacher performance in the specific geographic context of Muna Regency, and what strategic orientation should guide improvement? The analytical objectives are to identify the determinants, compare their relative strategic weight, establish the system's SWOT position, and formulate differentiated SO, ST, WO, and WT responses.

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1 Research Design and Context

A qualitative case-study design was used to obtain an in-depth account of teacher performance within its real organisational and geographic setting [17,18]. The case was bounded by public primary education in Muna Regency and included schools representing A, B, and C accreditation statuses in urban, coastal, and inland areas. The design was appropriate because the study sought to understand how professional, organisational, socioeconomic, and geographic conditions interacted, rather than to estimate a population parameter.

Teacher performance was the substantive phenomenon of interest, whereas the formal unit of analysis was the teacher performance support system. This system included individual teachers, school leadership, supervision, district policy, parental participation, professional development arrangements, facilities, and geographic accessibility. Treating these elements as an interconnected case enabled the analysis to distinguish observed teacher performance from the organisational and contextual support system that shaped it, thereby avoiding attribution of performance problems solely to individual teachers.

2.2 Participants and Data Sources

Participants were selected purposively based on their direct involvement in primary education and their ability to explain conditions across school types and locations. The detailed participant composition produced a total of 49 informants. The sample combined frontline, managerial, supervisory, policy, and community perspectives, strengthening triangulation and allowing institutional claims to be compared with school-level experience.

Table 1. Composition of Research Informants

Participant group	n	Analytical contribution
Primary school teachers	21	Teaching practice, competence, workload, motivation, welfare, and access
Principals	21	Instructional leadership, supervision, school culture, facilities, and management
School supervisor	1	Cross-school supervision, geographic access, and professional development
District education officials	3	Policy, budgeting, teacher development, and quality assurance
Parents	3	Community support and perceived learning-service quality
Total	49	Multi-stakeholder triangulation

The participant composition combined frontline, managerial, supervisory, policy, and community perspectives, strengthening triangulation across school-level and system-level experience.

2.3 Data Collection and Ethical Safeguards

Data were collected through in-depth interviews, focus-group discussions, participant observation, and document analysis. Interviews explored teacher competence, welfare, motivation, workload, school

leadership, supervision, technology use, facilities, policy support, and geographic barriers. Focus groups were used to test emerging interpretations and identify strategic priorities across stakeholder groups. Observations covered classroom practice, teacher meetings, professional-learning activities, facilities, and school culture. Documents included teaching plans, school performance reports, local education policies, professional-development records, and accreditation-related materials.

Data collection continued until thematic sufficiency was reached: the same core themes recurred across stakeholder groups and geographic categories and later interviews, focus groups, observations, and documents produced no materially new strategic themes. Participants were informed about the purpose of the study, participation was voluntary, recording was undertaken with consent, and identities were kept confidential. To protect confidentiality, the article uses anonymised and paraphrased evidence rather than personally identifying quotations.

2.4 Data Analysis and SWOT Scoring

The qualitative material was analysed through coding, categorisation, and thematic development following the principles of reflexive thematic analysis [19,20]. A hybrid deductive-inductive approach was used: initial coding was organised around four sensitising dimensions competence, welfare, motivation, and work-environment support while additional themes such as accreditation, transport, connectivity, policy, and community support were allowed to emerge from the data. Data displays and iterative verification followed the interactive logic of data condensation, presentation, conclusion drawing, and verification [21]. Credibility was strengthened through source, method, and perspective triangulation.

Thematic findings were subsequently translated into a SWOT framework. The analytical boundary was defined at the immediate teacher-school level: factors located primarily within teachers and schools were classified as internal strengths or weaknesses, whereas district-level policy and programmes, technology and infrastructure conditions, finance, wider social support, and geographic accessibility beyond the immediate school unit were classified as external opportunities or threats. IFAS and EFAS were then used as qualitative prioritisation devices rather than inferential statistics. For full reproducibility, the original scoring procedure must be reported from the scoring sheets. The differences between strength and weakness totals and between opportunity and threat totals were plotted to determine the strategic quadrant. Finally, SO, ST, WO, and WT alternatives were developed and evaluated for urgency, likely impact, contextual relevance, and implementation feasibility.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1 Geographic and Institutional Variation in Teacher Performance

Within the participating cases, teacher performance and the supporting organisational conditions were not evenly distributed across schools. A-accredited schools in the study generally displayed more complete instructional planning, more systematic academic supervision, greater use of collaborative routines, and better access to learning facilities. B-accredited schools showed moderate organisational capacity but required targeted consolidation in instructional innovation, assessment, and professional collaboration. C-accredited schools in the sampled cases experienced the most intensive combination of limited facilities, uneven teacher capability, weak connectivity, and restricted access to continuous support. These comparisons are case-study findings and should not be interpreted as universal characteristics of all schools with the same accreditation status.

Geography amplified these institutional differences. Urban schools had easier access to district offices, training venues, supervisors, internet connectivity, and peer networks. Coastal and inland schools faced longer and less predictable travel, higher supervision costs, weaker connectivity, fewer professional-learning opportunities, and greater difficulty retaining or attracting experienced teachers. Geography therefore operated as a structural condition influencing the availability, cost, continuity, and timing of teacher support. This finding supports the argument that technology and professional development can reproduce inequality when access conditions are not addressed [4,5].

3.2 Strengths: Professional Commitment and Existing Institutional Assets

The most prominent internal strength was teachers' commitment to carrying out instructional responsibilities, which received the highest weighted strength score (0.54). Informants consistently described teachers as continuing to teach and support pupils despite limited facilities, difficult travel, and welfare pressures. This commitment was reinforced by the moral meaning attached to teaching, emotional attachment to pupils, and satisfaction derived from student progress. Such intrinsic commitment is a valuable strategic resource; however, it should not be interpreted as a substitute for institutional support.

Teaching experience was another strength. Many participants had more than ten years of service and possessed practical knowledge of pupils, local culture, school routines, and curriculum change. Experienced teachers could serve as mentors, particularly when their tacit knowledge was combined with updated pedagogical and digital practice. Active principals also constituted a significant strength. In schools where principals regularly observed teaching, provided constructive feedback, facilitated collaboration, and recognised teacher effort, teachers were more willing to reflect and innovate. This is consistent with evidence that instructional leadership has

stronger effects when leaders focus directly on teaching and teacher learning [11,12].

Additional strengths included collaborative cultures in some schools, support from the school supervisor, parental and community involvement, and the presence of A-accredited schools that could function as good-practice hubs. District-level programmes and policy support were treated as external opportunities rather than internal strengths under the stated analytical boundary. Professional learning communities can influence both instructional practice and student learning when collaboration is focused, continuous, and connected to evidence from classrooms [13]. The strategic issue is therefore not the absence of strengths, but their uneven distribution and limited cross-school mobilisation.

3.3 Weaknesses: Uneven Capability, Digital Gaps, Welfare, and Follow-Up

Internal weaknesses were more dominant than strengths. The highest-priority weaknesses were uneven teacher competence, limited mastery of educational technology, and professional-development activities that were not consistently followed by mentoring. Some teachers continued to experience difficulty preparing contextual teaching modules, implementing active and differentiated learning, using formative assessment, integrating digital media, and adapting instruction to diverse pupil needs. These problems were more visible in B- and C-accredited schools.

The findings confirm that workshop attendance alone is an insufficient indicator of professional growth. Effective professional development requires content focus, active learning, coherence, sustained duration, modelling, coaching, and feedback [1,2,9]. Without post-training observation and mentoring, teachers may understand new concepts but be unable to translate them into classroom routines. Guskey's model similarly suggests that durable changes in beliefs and practice emerge through implementation and evidence of improved outcomes, not simply through initial exposure [10].

Digital capability was constrained by both skills and infrastructure. The TPACK framework emphasises that meaningful technology integration requires the interaction of technological, pedagogical, and content knowledge [14]. Yet participants described situations in which teachers had limited confidence, devices were scarce, connectivity was unstable, or available platforms did not match local classroom realities. The weakness was therefore sociotechnical: training, infrastructure, confidence, leadership expectations, and pedagogical design all needed to be addressed together.

Teacher welfare, particularly among non-civil-service teachers, was also a strategic weakness. These teachers often carried responsibilities similar to civil-service teachers while receiving lower and less predictable compensation. Economic pressure reduced time and energy for lesson preparation and professional learning and could encourage secondary employment. Teacher well-being literature shows that organisational conditions and material security are connected to professional engagement, retention, and the quality of teacher-student relationships [8,22]. Other weaknesses included excessive administrative workload, uneven academic supervision, limited learning facilities, weak collaboration in some schools, and constrained school and district budgets.

3.4 Opportunities: Policy, Data, Technology, Partnerships, and Practice Hubs

The strongest external opportunity was the availability of training and coaching programmes from the District Education Office. National teacher-quality policies, implementation of the Merdeka Curriculum, and the use of Education Report Cards

for data-based planning also created an enabling policy environment. These instruments could support more precise needs assessment, programme targeting, and budgeting, provided that data were interpreted locally rather than used merely for compliance.

Educational technology represented another opportunity, especially for connecting dispersed teachers, sharing teaching resources, and supporting hybrid supervision. However, technology should be designed around connectivity constraints. Low-bandwidth communication, downloadable resources, asynchronous mentoring, and offline digital content may be more appropriate than platform-intensive solutions in difficult-access areas. UNESCO's technology-in-education analysis stresses that access, governance, teacher readiness, and pedagogical purpose should precede technology procurement [4].

Partnerships with universities could extend district capacity through needs-based training, lesson study, classroom action research, digital-resource development, and evaluation. Community support and school-family communication could strengthen pupil attendance and learning continuity. A-accredited schools offered a particularly practical opportunity: they could be organised as practice hubs for cross-school mentoring, peer observation, joint lesson planning, and shared supervision. This approach transforms accreditation from a ranking mechanism into an institutional learning asset.

3.5 Threats: Geographic Isolation, Connectivity, Budget Pressure, and Quality Gaps

External threats exceeded available opportunities. Geographic diversity was the most pervasive threat because it raised the cost and reduced the frequency of training, supervision, resource distribution, and inter-school collaboration. Coastal weather, transport availability, and distance could disrupt scheduled support. Inland schools similarly faced long travel times and limited access to district services. A policy that assumes regular physical access will systematically under-serve these locations.

Weak internet connectivity was closely linked to geographic isolation. It restricted participation in online training, access to teaching resources, digital administration, and communication with supervisors. This threat interacted directly with the internal weakness of limited digital competence: teachers with the greatest need for digital learning frequently had the least reliable access to it. Budget limitations further restricted facility improvement, transport support, teacher incentives, and the continuity of mentoring programmes.

Accreditation disparities constituted an additional threat. Without deliberate mechanisms for resource redistribution and organisational learning, higher-capacity schools may continue to progress while lower-capacity schools struggle to meet changing expectations. Rapid curriculum and policy changes can also become threats when implementation support is uneven. Administrative pressure may displace time for planning and reflection, while the low welfare of non-civil-service teachers creates a risk of declining motivation and turnover. These threats reveal that the sustainability of teacher commitment cannot be assumed indefinitely.

Table 2. Summary of SWOT Determinants

Dimension	Principal determinants	Strategic meaning
Strengths	Teacher commitment; experience; active principals; collaboration; supervisor support; A-accredited practice hubs; community and district support	Mobilise existing professional and institutional capital
Weaknesses	Uneven pedagogy; limited digital competence; insufficient mentoring; inadequate facilities; low non-civil-service welfare; administrative burden; inconsistent supervision	Repair internal capability and support systems

Dimension	Principal determinants	Strategic meaning
Opportunities	Teacher-quality policy; Merdeka Curriculum; data-based planning; education technology; university partnerships; district training; community support	Use external programmes to accelerate targeted improvement
Threats	Geographic and transport barriers; weak internet; budget limits; school-quality gaps; policy change; administrative pressure; motivation risk	Prioritise resilience, equity, and affirmative support

Table 3. Compact Qualitative Evidence Linking Themes to Stakeholder Groups and SWOT Classification

Theme / group / SWOT	Representative evidence from the case
Teacher commitment / Multiple groups / Strength	Teaching continued despite difficult travel, limited facilities, and welfare pressure; stakeholder accounts and field evidence linked commitment to pupils and student progress.
Pedagogical & digital capability / Teachers/schools / Weakness	Accounts, observations, and documents showed difficulties in contextual modules, differentiated learning, formative assessment, and digital-media use.
Non-civil-service welfare / Teachers/schools / Weakness	Lower and less predictable compensation created economic pressure and constrained preparation and professional learning.
Policy, training & partnerships / District/documents / Opportunity	District programmes, curriculum policy, data-based planning, university partnerships, and appropriate technology provided resources for improvement.
Geography & connectivity / Multiple groups / Threat	Travel distance, transport uncertainty, weak internet, and higher supervision costs reduced access to training, supervision, and digital resources.

Note: Evidence is paraphrased from triangulated interviews, focus groups, observations, and documents to preserve participant confidentiality; no claim is made that any single statement represents all participants.

3.6 IFAS–EFAS Position and Strategic Priority

The IFAS results produced a total strength score of 3.02 and a total weakness score of 3.16, giving an internal difference of -0.14. The EFAS results produced an opportunity score of 2.66 and a threat score of 2.89, giving an external difference of approximately -0.22. On this qualitative prioritisation basis, the sampled teacher performance support system was positioned in Quadrant IV, the Weakness-Threat quadrant. This classification reflects the analytical assessment of the participating stakeholders and study context; it is not an inferential or statistically generalisable measurement of all primary schools in Muna Regency.

Table 4. IFAS–EFAS Strategic Position

Axis	Positive score	Negative score	Difference	Interpretation
Internal	Strengths = 3.02	Weaknesses = 3.16	−0.14	Weaknesses slightly dominate
External	Opportunities = 2.66	Threats = 2.89	≈ −0.22	Threats dominate
Position			Quadrant IV	WT strategy: reduce weaknesses and control threats

A WT orientation is often described as defensive, but in this context it should not be interpreted as retrenchment. It requires protecting instructional continuity while building the minimum enabling conditions for development. The first priority is to prevent vulnerable schools and teachers from falling further behind through affirmative resource allocation, zonal supervision, transport support, low-bandwidth professional learning, and targeted welfare measures. The second priority is to correct internal weaknesses through sustained mentoring, digital capability development, administrative simplification, and stronger school leadership.

Because the differences between positive and negative scores were not large, the quadrant should be treated as a strategic warning within the sampled case rather than a permanent or objective label for the entire district. The IFAS/EFAS values are prioritisation aids derived from qualitative evidence, not population parameters. Effective WT measures can create the conditions for subsequent WO and SO strategies. For example, stabilising connectivity, supervision, and teacher welfare enables schools to benefit more fully from curriculum reform, digital resources, district training, and university partnerships.

3.7 SWOT Strategy Matrix

Table 5. Contextual SWOT Strategy Matrix

Strategy	Contextual formulation
SO	Use committed and experienced teachers, active principals, supervisors, collaborative cultures, and A-accredited schools to exploit district training, data-based planning, technology, university partnerships, and community support. Establish practice hubs and cross-school professional learning communities.
ST	Use leadership, teacher commitment, supervisor support, and community networks to preserve instructional continuity under geographic, connectivity, policy, and budget pressures. Develop local resource sharing, hybrid supervision, and school-level adaptation teams.
WO	Use external training, universities, technology programmes, and data-based planning to address uneven competence, digital gaps, limited facilities, and weak follow-up. Require mentoring, classroom application, peer observation, and evidence of implementation after training.

Strategy	Contextual formulation
WT	Provide affirmative support to C-accredited, coastal, and inland schools; introduce zonal supervision, transport assistance, low-bandwidth/offline resources, priority infrastructure funding, administrative simplification, and incentives for non-civil-service teachers in difficult areas.

3.8 Geographic and Accreditation-Based Differentiation

The strategic matrix must be implemented differently across contexts. Urban schools should focus on deepening instructional innovation, becoming demonstration sites, hosting peer learning, and extending digital mentoring to less accessible schools. Their relative advantage should be converted into a district resource rather than remaining an isolated institutional benefit.

Coastal schools require flexible scheduling, transport support, asynchronous professional learning, downloadable or offline teaching resources, and supervision organised around geographic clusters. Where internet access is intermittent, programmes should combine periodic face-to-face visits with telephone- or messaging-based mentoring. Inland schools similarly require zonal supervision, mobile training, shared equipment, and stronger coordination between district officials, supervisors, and school leaders. Throughout this article, the geographic categories are therefore used consistently as urban, coastal, and inland, matching the reported study contexts.

Accreditation-based differentiation is equally important. A-accredited schools should function as practice hubs and mentors. B-accredited schools need targeted quality consolidation, including stronger assessment literacy, digital pedagogy, supervision, and professional-learning routines. C-accredited schools require affirmative packages that combine facilities, intensive mentoring, leadership development, welfare support, and regular monitoring. Isolated interventions are unlikely to succeed because weaknesses reinforce one another.

3.9 The Holistic-Contextual Strategy Model

The resulting model integrates four pillars: teacher competence; teacher welfare; motivation and collaborative culture; and work-environment and system support. These pillars are activated through a continuous cycle of needs diagnosis, strategic planning, implementation, performance assessment, feedback, follow-up, and recognition. Context diagnosis based on geography, accreditation, staffing, facilities, and connectivity determines the intensity and mode of intervention.

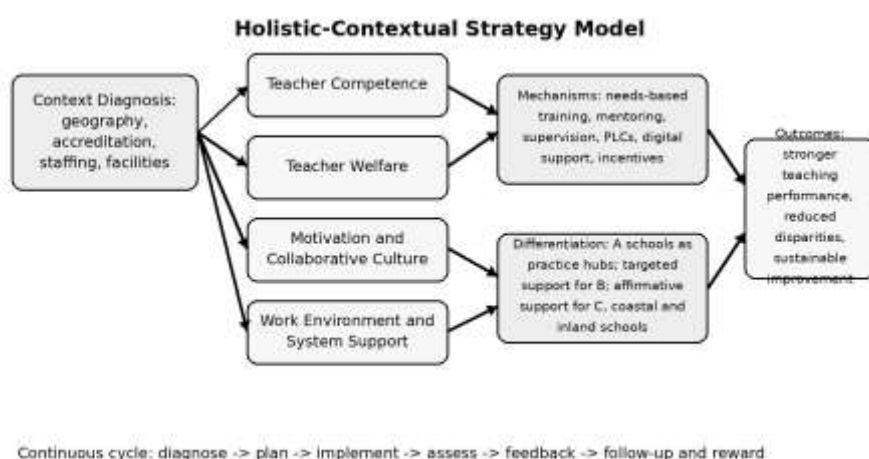


Figure 1. Holistic-contextual model for teacher performance improvement

The competence pillar includes needs-based pedagogical training, curriculum and assessment support, digital pedagogy, lesson study, mentoring, and classroom-based feedback. The welfare pillar includes fair incentives, transport assistance, recognition, and professional-development access for non-civil-service teachers. The motivation and culture pillar includes participatory leadership, recognition, professional learning communities, peer mentoring, and teacher involvement in decision-making. The

work-environment pillar includes instructional facilities, connectivity, administrative simplification, regular academic supervision, parent-school partnerships, and district-university collaboration.

The model is holistic because no single pillar is sufficient. Competence cannot be enacted without time, facilities, and supervision; motivation is difficult to sustain under severe welfare pressure; technology training has limited value without connectivity; and strong leadership cannot compensate indefinitely for structural underfunding. The model is contextual because the mode and intensity of support vary by geography and accreditation. It is collaborative because responsibility is distributed among teachers, principals, supervisors, district officials, families, communities, and universities. It is sustainable because each intervention includes follow-up, evidence of classroom implementation, and a feedback loop.

The theoretical contribution of the holistic-contextual model is its treatment of geography as a strategic contingency in teacher performance management. Geographic location affects not only access but also the cost, continuity, modality, and equity of professional support. The framework further combines geography with accreditation status, links WT, WO, ST, and SO strategies to differentiated intervention intensity, and integrates teacher-level development with system-level development. The practical contribution is a sequencing principle: stabilise vulnerable contexts through WT measures, use opportunities to repair weaknesses through WO measures, mobilise strengths against continuing threats through ST measures, and progressively expand SO strategies as institutional capacity improves. Figure 1 operationalises this logic by connecting context diagnosis, the four support pillars, a continuous improvement cycle, and intended performance outcomes.

3.10 Limitations and Future Research

The qualitative case-study design prioritised contextual depth rather than statistical generalisation. Participants represented major stakeholder groups and variations in accreditation and geography, but the findings do not capture every primary school or all possible community perspectives. The IFAS and EFAS scores were used to prioritise themes emerging from qualitative evidence; they should not be interpreted as population estimates. The study also relied partly on stakeholder perceptions, although interviews were triangulated with observations, documents, and group discussion.

Future studies should test the holistic-contextual model through longitudinal mixed-method designs. Comparative research across archipelagic districts could determine which geographic adaptations are transferable and which remain locally specific. Intervention studies could evaluate whether zonal supervision, practice-hub mentoring, administrative simplification, transport support, and targeted welfare measures produce sustained changes in teaching practice and reduce performance disparities.

4. CONCLUSION

The study identified a multidimensional set of determinants shaping primary school teacher performance in the participating Muna Regency cases. The principal strengths were teacher commitment, professional experience, active leadership, collaborative practices, supervisory support, community involvement, and the potential of A-accredited schools as practice hubs. The principal weaknesses were uneven pedagogical and digital competence, inadequate post-training mentoring, limited facilities, low welfare among non-civil-service teachers, administrative burden, inconsistent supervision, and uneven collaboration.

Policy support, the Merdeka Curriculum, data-based planning, educational technology, university partnerships, district training, and community support created meaningful opportunities. Nevertheless, geographic isolation, transport difficulty, limited connectivity, budget pressure, accreditation disparities, rapid policy change, administrative demands, and declining motivation among underpaid teachers constituted stronger external threats in the sampled context. The IFAS-EFAS position in Quadrant IV therefore represents an analytical warning derived from qualitative prioritisation, not a statistically generalisable classification of every primary school in Muna Regency. Immediate policy should prioritise reducing internal weaknesses and protecting vulnerable contexts against external risk.

The proposed holistic-contextual model combines competence, welfare, motivation and collaborative culture, and work-environment support. Implementation should be differentiated: A-accredited and urban schools can serve as practice hubs; B-accredited schools require targeted consolidation; and C-accredited, coastal, and inland schools require affirmative, integrated support. Strategy should be sequenced across the four SWOT responses: WT measures first stabilise vulnerable contexts; WO measures use external opportunities to repair internal weaknesses; ST measures mobilise existing strengths against continuing threats; and SO measures are expanded as institutional capacity improves. Sustainable improvement therefore depends on strengthening teachers and strengthening the systems around them at the same time.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The authors acknowledge the teachers, principals, school supervisor, district education officials, parents, and school communities in Muna Regency who contributed their time and professional perspectives to the study.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

All authors contributed to the conception and development of the study, interpretation of the findings, critical revision of the manuscript, and approval of the final manuscript.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

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

ETHICS STATEMENT

Participants were informed about the purpose of the study, participation was voluntary, recording was undertaken with consent, and participant identities were kept confidential. The source manuscript does not report a formal ethics-committee approval number.

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

The qualitative data contain potentially identifiable institutional and participant information and are not publicly available. De-identified analytical materials may be made available for legitimate scholarly purposes subject to ethical and institutional considerations.

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