AN EXPLORATION OF A TEACHING SCHOOL PROGRAMME IN MALAYSIA: TOWARDS DEMOCRATIC EDUCATION

SABARIAH BINTI MORAD

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Contents

List of Abbreviations

CD	:	Compact Disc
CDC	:	Curriculum Development Centre
CMs	:	Committee Members
EMIS	:	Educational Management Information Systems, a database on primary school pupils' information
EPRD	:	Education Planning and Research Department
ESL	:	English as a Second Language
EteMS	:	English for the Teaching of Mathematics and Science
FGD	:	Focus Group Discussion
HM	:	Hierarchical Management
IPGM	:	Central Teacher Training Institutions of Malaysia
ISO		International Organization for Standardization
j-Qaf	:	Religious Teaching Course
KBSR 1983	:	The New Curriculum for Primary School (*Kurikulum Baru Sekolah Rendah*)
KBSR 1993	:	The New Integrated Curriculum for Primary School (*Kurikulum Bersepadu Sekolah Rendah*)
KPM	:	Kementerian Pelajaran Malaysia (Malaysia Ministry of Education)
KSSR	:	The Standard Curriculum of primary School
LS	:	Lab School (a term used before teaching school =TS)
MOE	:	Ministry of Education
MPIK-UK	:	A twinning programme between a teacher training colleges in Malaysia with 9 universities in UK for in-service English Language teachers.
mTest	:	Teacher Training entrance examination
NBPTS	:	National Board for Professional Teaching Standards
NEP	:	New Economic Policy (DEB- *Dasar Ekonomi Baru*)
NPE	:	New Philosophy of Education
PE	:	Programme Evaluation
PSAT	:	Primary School Achievement Test
RBA 0091	:	Teaching School registered school code
SJK	:	Vernacular School
SJKC	:	Chinese Vernacular School
SJKT	:	Tamil Vernacular School
SK	:	National School
TED	:	Teacher Education Division
TS	:	Teaching School
TSs	:	Teaching Schools
TTI	:	Teacher Training Institution
TTIs	:	Teacher Training Institutions
VD	:	Vice Director

List of Figures

Abstract

The thesis is an exploration of the Teaching School programme in Malaysia. The programme was conceived by the policies of the Government of Malaysia, implemented by the Ministry of Education and realized by the teacher training institutions in Malaysia. It is a school programme that is explored in terms of Dewey's conception of education. In political terms it aspires to be the 'showcase' for the teacher training institutions of Malaysia. In addition, for other Malaysia primary schools it is to be a point of reference in their attempts to modernise and increase the quality of primary schools in Malaysia, as a foundation for making the country more globally competitive.

In the exploration to be better informed of the teaching school programme under study, the stance of the study is qualitative. It mainly used interviews, observation and the study of policy documents as a means of data collection. The thesis draws upon Schostak and Schostak's (2008) "Architectures of the Social" framework in researching the range of alternative visions and rationales to analyse and evaluate the differences between the Teaching School on paper and in practice.

In sum, by using the "Architectures of the Social" framework the thesis explores the relationships between the Conceptual Domain, the Practical Domain and the Material Domain to provide significant insights into the implementation of education innovations. The key insights focus on the development of the democratic potential of the teaching school as a 'social architecture' for schools as a basis for the democratic development of society. It challenges the current practices of schools and argues for a real change towards a more democratic development to create better primary schools in Malaysia. The key to developing schools is the involvement of the 'voices' of the people in ways that involves a clear alignment between the policy vision at the level of the Conceptual Domain, the interpretation of policy in practice in Practical Domain together with appropriate resources in the Material Domain required to fulfill the potential of the teaching school programme in Malaysia. However, it is argued, the visions are not sufficiently understood, nor are the practical mechanisms and resources for its implementation fully appropriate. Furthermore, the democratic potential of the vision has not been realized. This thesis argues that a way forward is to explore the democratic legacies of Dewey and other progressive educators in the context of contemporary democratic theory drawing upon such theorists as Rancière.

Declaration

No portion of the work referred to in the thesis has been submitted in support for an application for another degree or qualification of this or any other university or other institute of learning.

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Alas, I am indebted to too many people to mention and I can only thank all those who made it possible for me to write this thesis. Thank you.

The Author

Sabariah Morad completed her teaching certificate at the Sultan Abdul Halim Teaching College where she obtained her Primary School Teaching Certificate (English Language) in 1987. She worked as a primary school teacher in Malaysia starting from 1988 until she went to pursue her diploma under the Ministry of Education scholarship in the University of Malaya in 1993 where she was awarded Diploma of English as a Second Language in 1994. She continued teaching as a primary school teacher until 1995 where she was awarded a scholarship to do her undergraduate studies in The University of Manchester, United Kingdom where she obtained her Bachelor of Education (Hons.) in TESOL in 1997. She served as a secondary school teacher in Malaysia since 1997 until she was promoted as the District English Language Officer in 2000. In 2001, she was awarded another scholarship to pursue her postgraduate studies at the Universiti Sains Malaysia in Malaysia where she gained her degree of Master of Art in Education in 2003. She later served as an English language lecturer at a teacher training institute in Malaysia and was later promoted as the Head of Language Department in 2013.

She has been a trainer, facilitator, moderator, evaluator, fellow researcher and sat in panels that reviewed the teaching and learning programmes for the pre-service and in service teacher training programme in Malaysia and other Ministry of Education Malaysia programmes conducted either by the Teacher Education Division and/or the Central Teacher Training Institute. For her contribution to the education in Malaysia, she has been awarded The Excellence Service Award by the Ministry of Education Malaysia in 2007. She went on in pursuit of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Education at the Manchester Metropolitan University, United Kingdom after obtaining another scholarship from the Ministry of Education Malaysia in 2008. She presented papers in departmental seminars/ workshops and international conference.

Contribution to Seminars, Workshops and Conferences.

- **14 June 2008: MMU Student Conference**

"Exploring a Laboratory School Programme in Primary Education."

- **12 June 2009: MMU Student Conference**

"Methods of Data Collection in an Evaluation of the Teaching School in Malaysia."

- **3 March 2010:** LAP Lambert Academic Publishing AG& Co. KG

"The Quality of Exposure of English Language in a Remote School", ISBN (978-3-8383-4183-5)

- **17 April 2010: Sharing Issues in ELT Conference (SIELT), Anadolu University, Eskisehir, Turkey**

"An Evaluation of the Teaching School Programme in Teacher- Training Institutions."

- **18 June 2010: MMU Student Conference**

"Teaching School Programme in Teacher Training Institutions in Malaysia."

- **8 March 2011: Student Panel Presentations in MMU (Panel : John Schostak, Harry Torrance, Keri Facer, Jonathan Savage)**

"Hierarchical Management Issues in the Implementation of the Teaching School Programme."

- **17 June 2011: Panel Presentation in MMU Student Conference (Panel : John Schostak, Helen Colley, Yvette Solomon)**

"Literature Domain: An Evaluation of the Teaching School Programme in Teacher Training Institutions in Malaysia."

- **28 June 2011: The International Conference on Humanities, Social Sciences, Science & Technology 2011 (ICHSST'11) at The University of Manchester**

"An Evaluation of the Innovation of the Teaching School Programme in Teacher Training Institutions in Malaysia."

- **9 May 2013: The Teacher Training Institutions Conference: Trainers Intellectual Sharing Programme (PROSPEN) at the Pulau Pinang Teacher Training Institution.**

"An Exploration of a Teaching School Programme in a Teacher Training Institution in Malaysia."

Dedication

To Ariff, Asyraff and Bazli, my unerring sweethearts.

Preface

The Initial Encounter: Becoming Involved with the Teaching School.

I begin with an account of my first introduction to the school. The story of the initial implementation of the teaching school started on Friday, at the end of September 2006.

She has no time to savour the triumph of the concluding remarks of the first hour of the morning lesson. No matter how trivial the topic is, somehow it would always spark heated arguments, creatively debated by team members to support their sides. It's the period on Friday, where tutors of each group stage a controversial discussion during a 'mentor-mentee' session. As for today, the debate is to ascertain who should be saved and who should be left behind should a catastrophe happen. It involves people of different professions in a group of 10 who need to be transferred to an island in a boat managing only to accommodate 6 persons. The group includes a doctor, a religious leader, an architect, an engineer, a businessman, a policeman, a teacher, a farmer, a girl, and a boy. Interestingly, all groups decided to leave the teacher behind and tried to convince the other members about who else should be left or brought with them. At that point, she, the 'mentor' was summoned to the Vice Director's office and urgently requested to hasten. She left the report form for the session and instructed the trainees, 'the mentees', to fill in the report accordingly and hastily walked to the administrative office. She wondered if she had missed any deadline as she hastened towards the Vice Director's den.

The Vice Director was with two senior members of the TTI and invited her to sit. Apprehensively she listened as the Vice Director explained the situation and flatly revealed the plan to direct her to take over the teaching school programme. She was very taken aback as she was not prepared to do so and explained politely to the Vice Director her reluctance to commit herself. She asked about the current lead (a male teacher

trainer) and was told that due to health problems *(hypertension due to heavy workload and work stress)* he had to surrender the programme and had asked to be released of any responsibility on the TS programme.

She wondered why the TTI wanted to have a teaching school in the campus. She wondered why it was now entrusted to her. She wondered whether she would be able to handle her core responsibility as a lecturer, not to mention her co-curricular activities in scouts movement/ uniform units. At that time she was straddled across 3 departments, being a trainer of The Language Department teaching 13 hours a week; a warden of the female trainees, an executive treasurer for the students Welfare Department and the secretary of the Research Department. She not only had to stay back late to finish the tasks, but also at times she had to bring the workload back home. At other times, she would be frequently out-stationed. This was in an outpost from the TTI and a lesser number of days than she would like were thus spent with her family members. So far, she managed to juggle everything and deliver but she wondered with this new development, whether she would still be able have it all and deliver.

Somehow, after some convincing, she feels an obligation to accept the programme and the new responsibilities given. Her core responsibility would be to manage the day-to-day running of the teaching school by providing supervision to the six academic and non-academic staff to achieve the overall objectives of the school. Although she hastened on her way to the Vice Director's office, she deliberately lingered and remained so as to get him to promise to wholly support the programme and not just wash his hands of it, by dumping everything on her. This is a mutual responsibility, her responsibility is to lead the programme, their responsibility is to support in terms of infrastructure and managerial resources. After some negotiations, some promises, among them, to immediately release her other responsibilities in the Perlis teacher training Institution, and letting her concentrate full-time to provide undivided attention, support and concentration on the TS programme, she gave in. Of course, she needed to tie up some loose ends before handing over her duties but she felt lighter in knowing that she now had one of the top administrators on her side. However, on the way out, she sensed a heavy burden of 'something big' that had already been refused by another person was now to be placed to her. She questioned whether she would be able to undertake the challenge of creating the teaching school in time in January. In minutes, as she approached her department, she realised the full impact of the directive: she no longer has to work under the Head of the Language Department, and she now has to lead another unit across all the different multi departments in the teacher training institutions. She anticipated animosity, because she is just an ordinary lecturer with only five years' experience in the teacher training institutions and there are many other more senior

lecturers and some with more senior posts. Taking everything into account, she became very conscious that she actually had to tread very carefully, in carrying out the directive and in maintaining civil relationships with the other colleagues as normal.

Thus, the next day, an ad hoc meeting was called. Nearly 20 committee members from the Perlis the teacher training institutions attended the meeting ranging from the Vice Director to the Heads of Department and representatives from each department. The committee had only up to 3 months left to open the school and settle into business. Several agendas were discussed at the meeting from the administrative, to the implementation issues to resources as well as financial funding. Each member was bursting with ideas and ways on how to go about and tackle almost everything. There was even information on how to open a bank account for the new school. Each and every member vouched to fully support the teaching school programme wholeheartedly. The teaching school programme was obviously very inspirational and had even led some team members offering to go and search for more much needed office work. At the end of the day, a great sense of what to be achieved and great efforts to be made were all listed and appreciated. The fate and direction of teaching school programme relies heavily especially on the lead of teaching school committee members.

A committee member, Rahim said “I found it exhilarating and of a very worthy cause. I particularly enjoy dwelling on the idea of having our own school, this will make our mark”.

Another added “I think if the teaching school is materialised, we’d have a great product and we would be able to use the skills and use it with positive effects on our teacher training”.

After the meeting and the briefing about the programme, the team sets several tasks prior to the opening of the teaching school. One of the first steps was to visit neighbouring primary schools and also the pre-school in the teacher training institution. The objective of the visits was to speak to people about different roles at the schools to gain insights, to find out the ideas, process and procedures of opening and running a primary school. The committee members were keen for all the information about the issue to ensure smooth operation of the teaching school programme. Hence, around 27 teacher training institutions would be directly affected by the programme.

However, delivering the services for a school that people need is one thing but what about making sure people take up the ideas on offer? With so much to do within the limited time and being so driven by the basic groundwork required to open a school and obviously overwhelmed by paper work, I approached the Vice Director with a draft of arrangements and tasks that I thought would be necessary and would need to be evenly

distributed between committee members. However, when arrangements were made and tasks distributed, I was surprised at the lack of people willing to really contribute to the TS programme when everything is really in motion. Excuses upon excuses filled my mail box and some even openly voiced their unwillingness now to be even listed as committee members! This new development created another conflict and I could feel the animosity building towards me.

More positively, I also realised that my own experience in the teaching arena as a primary school teacher, secondary school teacher, a district education officer and as a teacher trainer would prove to be a valuable asset in preparing to open the teaching school. My experience as a primary school teacher for 8 years would guide me to prepare for the physical appearance as well as the basic administration work needed in operating a primary school. Though the experience did not cover certain areas of paper work and red tape, a lot managed to be arranged and planned in the preparation and the running of the teaching school. My experience as a secondary school teacher, however, only helped to make me realise the difference between the two in terms of (primary and secondary school) especially in terms of the school climate and facilities. In addition, my experience as a district education officer gave me access to the network of education officials and provided me with the 'openings' required for dealing with the paper work and red tape. My current post as a teacher trainer then gave me the opportunity to make a bridge between the need for teacher training and the needs of the teaching school. For example, as a result of several discussions with the lecturers in the Social Sciences Department, the trainees majoring in Arts were given assignments to draw murals (which is partly stipulated in their training syllabus) suited to the primary school ambience on the allocated building wall panels. Whilst the building was given a 'facelift', the trainees were given the chance to develop their skills and draw upon the invaluable experience for their future work.

For the duration of the preparation stage in implementing the teaching school programme, I used personal ties to speed up processes instead of following the normal procedures especially in getting approval of the paper work, especially when it involves many parties or Departments. In one instance, the legal paperwork required for the opening of the teaching school in January 2007 was obtained within a month with a little bit of help from my Head of Language Department who was about to retire in a few months' time and has some "politically important" friends, particularly in the State Education Department to really speed up the process. During this time, I was thankful also for all the ties from previous as well as current colleagues and friends across the departments in schools, in the Kedah and Perlis State Education Department, in the Teacher Education Division, that included the clerks, the teachers, the education officers,

the teacher trainers and even my ‘foes’ for their animosity that kept me on track and to be always on my toes.

After 3 months of much paper work, deliberation, arguments, hard work, telephone conversations, meetings (formal, informal and ad hoc), sweat and tears; the teaching school finally opened and 48 six year old pupils were registered as the first batch in Year 1 in the teaching school starting on the 3rd of January 2007. The pupils were offered a place each based on their address, taken from the list of the feeders (after several negotiations with the state education department and from a list of feeder schools, two were chosen) of the neighbouring two schools SK Sena and SK Syed Alwi. Those who are not from the selected feeders may also apply for a place. I was seconded to the school and felt that I could not really call myself a ‘headmistress’; since I was more appropriately a 'school manager'. As a school manager I was managing the school by making sure that things happen as I perceived they ought to happen according to the policy of the teaching school under the wing of the teacher training institution. My management was central to the school system of teaching and learning activities and the discipline of the pupils. Whereas in the role of a headmistress in Malaysia, apart from the administrative work which include finance, planning and supervision, I would need to also be answerable to the head of the state and federal education departments.

Lecturers from each department of the TTI were directed to be attached to the teaching school as Year 1 primary school teachers. The curriculum used was to be the same as other national primary schools in Malaysia, the national curriculum. Textbooks were given by the State Education Departments. However, the process of obtaining the textbook is not as straightforward as the previous statement seems to imply. It took a lot of phone calls, negotiations and many trips to the Education Departments and the neighbouring schools to collect the books.

Finally the TS was implemented. However, on reflection, a significant amount of my time was being spent away from lesson planning and other general teaching duties. I was involved in activities like marking homework, doing clerical work, for example filling in forms like EMIS (pupils’ e-filing profile), textbooks forms, general filing, general appointments, attend meetings, participating in short courses, present papers, respond to telephone queries (the disadvantages of providing a mobile phone number to the admin) about the teaching school which amounted to more than the official eight hours work daily.

In short, I was not able to spend sufficient time on the real intention of the TS as the idea and the intention of the TS are generally as a training ground for the lecturers, teachers and teacher-trainees in Malaysia. It is visualized to be a showcase for the other

national primary schools in Malaysia. Implicit although not explicit in the policy visions is Dewey's notion of the school as a laboratory for social innovation in relation between education and democracy. It is my personal belief that a more democratic approach is desirable and the statement from the policymaker about the labeling of the TS takes after the laboratory school is part of the notion. My intention is to draw from Dewey's democratic approach whether or not it is explicitly stated in the policy visions of the TS. A democratic approach drawing on Dewey is a way of critiquing the implementation of the policy because I would like to explore the possibilities of democratic practice in school. While it is important to have a curriculum or school syllabuses, pupils should also acquire knowledge more than memorizing lists, concepts or scoring in tests. In my view, knowledge should be more of an enhancement of real life skills, a connection to real life in the society. In addition, as according to Divine (2012: 1), "schools are constructed, administered and shaped by adults for children. As social institutions they play a central role in the construction of children's perception of themselves, of the social world and of their place within it". Thus, it is worthwhile to apply the educational activities to be organized around the pedagogic practice and democratic design of the social in the TS. The above narrative shows both the potential for development and the initial difficulties involved in trying to develop a vision. The vision faces the practicalities of trying to make changes as the idea and intentions of the teaching school.

Introduction to the Idea of a Teaching School as Intended by Malaysian Policy and as Developed in This thesis

A letter from the Teacher Education Division, Ministry of Education Malaysia dated 26 September 2006 stated that an agreement has been drawn by Perlis Teacher Training Institution and Perlis State Education Department on 12th of July 2006 to open a teaching school in January 2007. The labeling of the 'teaching school' takes after Dewey's laboratory school. It is more than just an echo as there is something more substantial to connect the two names as both are aiming for democratic education as stated in the interview discourses and in the translated background concept of the Perlis TS to "developed ideas through creative, innovative and higher value initiatives to ensure success via the reformation and transformation of national agendas". The study is to draw upon the historical legacy of the Dewey laboratory school and explore it in relation to the Malaysian initiative, even if that historical legacy is only touched upon implicitly in the policy and in the background discourses of the senior people who set it up.

The letter, as a first step, empowers the teacher training institution to operate a teaching school. Another letter dated 6 September 2006 by the Education, Planning and Research Development (EPRD) of Ministry of Education Malaysia responded to the application to open the teaching school dated 20th of November 2006 (JPPs 1/706/1/Jld.3 (125). EPRD passed the school code as RBA 0091 and officially registered the school as Sekolah Kebangsaan Institut Pendidikan Guru Malaysia (SKIPGM) Perlis with the address Jalan Behor Pulai, 01000 Kangar, Perlis. The teaching school legally operates starting on the 2nd of January 2007 as a fully aided government rural co-ed primary school for boys and girls. The empowerment to open the teaching school is back dated to 10th of November 2006 by the Ministry of Education.

The concept of the school is similar to the concept of a hospital university, a hospital built in the university to cater for the needs of medical educational practice. So, a teaching school is built in teacher training institutions (provided that there is enough space) to cater for the needs of teacher training and classroom practice. In the circumstances of a TTI lacking in space for additional buildings, another option is to 'adopt' the nearest neighbouring primary school as a TS by offering academic support in terms of curricular and co-curricular activities. The TS is developed as an arena to: increase the professionalism of lecturers and trained teachers, explore and do collaborative research, share school training between teachers and parents, train teacher trainees via "residency" courses and to create an interactive relationship between the school and teacher training institutions. Each of these aims for the school provides a basis by which to explore and to promote change and given that Malaysia seeks to be a democracy then those developments can be carried out in such a way as to support the expansion of democracy. This study intends to explore the extent to which this is realisable in practical terms.

Eventually these TSs will be administered by the respective teacher training institution. The feeder pupils from other national primary schools have diverse backgrounds in terms of socio-economic status, first language, faith and ethnicity. As for the teaching school in Perlis, the government has allocated an initial amount of RM 8 million (which is later totalled at RM 9.4 million) to have a school complex consisting of: 12 classrooms composed of two classrooms for each year of schooling (Year 1 to Year 6) with a maximum of ideally 25 students per class, toilets, staffroom, science and computer laboratories, canteen, research room, textbook store, meeting rooms, sports room and an assembly hall. There are also negotiations to build an olympic size swimming pool within the premise of the teaching school to be jointly used by both the teaching school and the teacher training institution.

The teaching school will deliver the same national curricula as used in the other national primary schools. However, the schedule of the school holidays and terms dates will be planned alongside the teacher training institution calendar whilst ensuring the total schooling days is as fixed by the Malaysia Ministry of Education. Below is a translation (italicised) of the Proposal Paper and the Concept Paper of the implementation of the TS in Perlis TTI to provide an initial framework for exploring the extent to make changes that support educational innovation.

The Perlis TS Proposal Paper

A paper has been drafted and presented in a meeting in Year 2006 representatives of TTI, Perlis state Education Department and MOE officers. The aims of the paper are to get the consideration and approval from to implement the TS in Perlis TTI starting the year 2007 session.

Background of TS implementation

The 167th Education Planning Committee of MOE meeting agrees that a clinical training program be executed in TTI via the TS program. This meeting has been attended by representatives from the School Division, Education Planning and Research Development, Human Resource, Perlis State Education Department and Perlis TTI.The TS shall be fully administered by TTI and financially funded by the Teacher Education Division of MOE. A meeting at Gem Beach Resort, Terengganu on the 15 to 17 May 2006 organised by the Policy, Planning and Development Unit of the Teacher Education Division agree to the decision to start the implementation of a TS in Perlis TTI starting January 2007.About 50 pupils shall be offered a place as the Year 1 pupils of TTI.

1. Basic Consideration of the TS Implementation

The establishment of the TS is a step forward in realizing the direction of teacher training as agreed in the The 167th Education Planning Committeee of MOE dated 26 September 2002

1.1 Based on the Education Act 1996, the Education Minister holds the power to open or close a school. Hence, the the decision of The 167th Education Planning Committee of MOE chaired by the Minister of Education Tan Sri Dato' Seri Musa Mohamad unanimously agree to implement the TS in the

TTIs. This decision is the power source to legally register a TS with a valid school registration as the other schools in Malaysia.

1.2 The implementation of the Perlis TS would give the Perlis TTI the platform to innovate especially regarding the area of the pedagogy of teaching and learning where the pilot program can be administered in the TS. In the TS, some variables could be controlled to see the real impact of any proposed innovation.

1.3 The TS would help the MOE to administer few pilot projects that needs immediate supporting data in the real implementation to the other schools nationwide.

2. The Objectives of the TS

2.1 To provide needed clinical experience to the future teachers to facilitate teaching and learning activities in the classroom.

2.2 To implement educational research involving teachers and pupils to increase the quality of the teaching and learning qualities to pupils apart from increasing the understanding of future teachers and teacher education in a educational practice.

2.3 To produce school innovation in handling teaching and learning in the classroom.

2.4 Reinforcing knowledge and practice in the teaching and learning area to the in-service teachers, pre-service teachers and lecturers via research, experiments, inquiry and the implementation of assessment.

2.5 To add to the experience of teacher trainees in the atmosphere of school practice apart from the mandatory practicum experiences

3. Implementation mechanism

3.1 Meeting with the State Education Department

3.2 Meeting Agenda involves school registration, textbooks, food supplement plan (RMT), teachers, pupils' registration.

4. The Structure of the TS Program

4.1 The TS would. apply the syllabus and the national curriculum.

4.2 The implementation of the curriculum is proposed as below:

- *Learning Time : 8.00 a.m. to 3.00 p.m.*
- *Extra subjects : swimming, jQAF, Mandarin and Japanese language*

- *Prayer practice : congregatory noon prayer (Dzohor)*
- *Food : 'Standard Menu'*
- *Textbooks : provided locker*
- *Headteacher :: DG41*
- *Teachers : DG41*
- *Classroom ratio : 1: 2*
- *Class size : 25 pupils maximum*
- *Pupils profile : JERI profile*

4.3 Implementation Plan for Year 2007

- *To modify 4 available rooms from the Technical Department of the TTI for Year 1 and Year 2 available to be used in year 2007 and 2008. Project deadline is October 2006.*
- *The proposal of a model of a 12 classrooms primary school using an estimated RM5 million in RMK9 (the 9Th Malaysia Plan) by the development Division of the MOE*
- *Application of a special management spending provisions for the TS*
- *The TS teachers should be given chances to participate in meetings, courses and workshops organized by the state education departments and other agencies.*
- *Recruitment of DG41 teachers for the TS in future.*

Action plan

- *Preparing a concept paper*
- *Application of approval*

5. Staffing and Financial implications

- *Head teacher DG41*
- *Administrative Assistant Head teacher DG41*
- *Pupils' Affairs Assistant Head teacher DG41*
- *Co-curricular Assistant Head teacher DG41*
- *Counseling Teacher DG41*
- *Subject teachers*
  - *Malay Language DG41*
  - *English Language DG41*
  - *Science DG41*
  - *Mathematics DG41*
  - *Art Teacher DG41*

- *Music* *DG41*
- *Religious Study* *DG41*

6. Financial estimation:

Emolument: RM2497.10 x 9 x 12 = RM269686.80
Allowances: RM485.00 (RM210 + 150 + 125)x 9 x 12 = RM 52380.00
(Housing allowances, public services allowances and living expenses subsidy)

[Note: As the budget above was not applied in the previous TTI budget, the TS staffing would make use of the current TTI personels. TTI lecturers would be involved in delivering the above stated responsibility.]

The paper provides some intial key themes and directions for the development of the TS in Perlis and also for the other TS in general. Two significant themes are to provide the platform to innovate and to offer clinical experience in teacher training. The platform to innovate can be used to move away the traditional hierarchical rote learning to a more democratic Deweyian education. Then, the clinical experience of the TS education may be compared to the traditional schooling in the other national primary schools in Malaysia as a basis for exploring the potential of developing Dewey democratic education in the TS.

The key themes are further highlighted in the concept paper of the Perlis TS. It was presented (based on the minutes of meeting) at Gem Beach Resort, Terengganu on the 15 to 17 May 2006 mentioned earlier. The concept paper of the Perlis TS was drafted and is described as directly translated below:

The Concept Paper Of The Perlis Teaching School

(directly translated from the Kertas Konsep “Teaching School” Perlis)

The purpose of this paper is to propose a TS concept in the TTI system in Malaysia.

The Background Concept

Malaysia is very keen on changes and development in all aspects since more than five decades ago. Thus, Malaysia consistently developed ideas through creative, innovative and higher value initiatives to ensure success via the reformation and transformation of national agendas.

In the Malaysia Education system, there are the existence of several school types such as the cluster school, smart school, premier school and high prestige school. This school excel in academic and co-curriculum. The TS is seen to be another contribution to professional criteria in teaching. This school shall have a similar impact as the university's' hospital in the medical field.

The 165th Education Planning Committee of MOE has proposed that the TS each be implemented in all TTIs and the 167th Education Planning Committee of MOE has agreed on the clinical training programs to be executed in TTI via the TS programme. The TS shall be the national showcase in all aspects of school and classroom management, theoretical experiences, effective teaching and learning innovations. The TS is also known as the Professional Development School, the Laboratory School or the Demonstration School.

The basic consideration to the implementation of the TS is the direct collaboration between the TTI and the TS. This two interactive relationship will provide opportunities to the TS academic staff to develop their professionalism and to the TTI staff, more realisation and work awareness can be increased through;

- *Discussion about pupils' teaching and learning problems and the probable solutions.*
- *Shared teaching in the TTI and the TS*
- *Collaborative research on related problems or educational practice.*
- *Co-operative observation on future teachers*

Definition of the TS

The Teaching School is a product given to the primary school developed by MOE in the locality of the TTI campus. The creation of the TS aims to expand the potential functional scope and role of the TTI as a major lead in primary school education as well as to develop and empower the school as an example to the other schools within the TSs and outside of the TS group nationwide.

Purpose of the TS

1. to provide quality education to the school pupils.

2. to produce innovations in schools in the area of classroom teaching and learning

3. to strengthen teaching and learning knowledge and practice for in-service teachers, pre-service teachers and teacher trainers via research, experiments, inquiry, assessment and the implementation of innovative programmes and effective classroom practices.

4. Providing needed clinical experiences to pre service teachers to facilitate teaching and learning in the classroom.

5. to perform educational research involving teachers, pupils and school activities to upgrade teaching and learning to pupils apart from increasing the understanding of pre-service teachers as well as educating teachers to educational practices.

6. to add to the experiences of teacher trainees to the environment and practices in school apart from the experience of the compulsory teaching practicum.

Impacts from the Implementation of the Teaching School

1. TS can assist in the efforts to upgrade teachers' competency level via multiple activities to develop professionalism. Expert TTI lecturers in various pedagogical content knowledge and content knowledge can share the expertise with teachers, can plan for staff development activities and can discuss together the best approach to assist in the implementation of the teaching and learning activities.

2.TS can bring many benefits to pupils especially in the academic aspects and personality development. In academic areas, pupils are exposed to learning environment that can afford to motivate their learning. The advantage for pupils of learning in the TS is to be taught by not only teacher but also, teacher trainees and TTI lecturers. The variety of the different type of 'teachers' can expose the pupils to a variety of non routine teaching approach. The diversity of TTI activities provides ample opportunities for active involvement for TS pupils. Such opportunities are capable to improve pupils' excellence of mind, emotional and physical growth.

3. The new approach can provide real teaching exercises to teacher trainees. Teacher trainees in the TS not only as the practicum premise but also as a venue for micro teaching in real teaching and learning platform. Apart from that, teacher trainees are able to do research on teaching and learning process s and tie the ideas to learning theories learnt.

4. The creation of various theories, knowledge and innovations in teaching and learning via research

Proposal of TS Steering Committee

1. Director of TTI

2. Head of the TS

3. Head of Departments (TTI)

4. Head of Units

5. Senior TS teachers

6. Head of TS Panatia

7. TS coordinator in TTI

8. Education Department of TTI

TS Criteria

TS need to meet the pre-requisite of:

1. The TS must achieve the standards of excellence based on Malaysia Education Quality Standards (Standard Kualiti Pendidikan Malaysia)

2. Receive various awards nationally and internationally.

3. As a 'showcase', bench mark or model to other schools.

4. have adjacent and active networks with other schools nationally and internationally via various programmes and activities.

5. Develop networks with other institutions nationally and internationally.

6. Develop various theories and modules for teaching and learning.

7. Inculcate research and innovation culture in implementing teaching and learning process.

8. Can produce eminent personalities

School Lead

1. Qualify as an outstanding leader.

2. Can deliver with accountability and credibility in school management.

3. Provide the Annual Employment Target based on the guidelines of School Based Management provided by MOE in the interest of the school, teacher and pupils.

4. To increase the involvement of the TS activities nationally and internationally.

5. Developing teachers and pupils leadership skills.

6. Always ready to be assessed or audited by MOE and other external agencies.

TS teachers.

1. Qualify as outstanding teachers.

2. Can deliver with accountability and credibility in teaching and learning process as well as doing research in school.

3. Preparing the Annual Employment Target rooted on the guidelines of School based management prepared by the MOE based on the increase of the pupils' performance.

4. Assisting in increasing the school's participation nationally and intentionally

5 Developing pupils' leadership talent

6.Always ready to assessed by the MOE and other agencies

7. Proactive in carrying out the reformation and transformation in the teaching and learning process and research in school.

TS Pupils'

1. Responsible and able to do independent learning

2. Able to handle and manage self, programmes and school activities.

3.Able to co-operate in groups and able to communicate effectively.

TTI

1. Can deliver with accountability and credibility in management and the TS

2. Assisting in increasing the school leadership ability, curriculum and co-curriculum

3. Assisting in increasing the TS involvement nationally and internationally

4. Creating the TS as a laboratory in all types of educational research

5. Developng various teaching and learning theories and modules based on research

The Role of TTI teacher trainers in increasing the quality teaching and learning in the classroom

1. Grow and exchange of ideas between TS teachers and TTI lecturers based on academic subjects.

2. Lecturers plan and form the teaching innovation model to be used by teachers in TS.

3. lecturers in TTI as 'buddy support' to TS teachers.

4. Lecturers attached to TS as internship program to teach related academic subjects.

5. Lecturers to carry out micro or mini teaching activities to TS teachers.

6. carrying our courses and related activities in a variety of aspects related to teaching for TS teachers

7.Lecturers are actively involved in classroom teaching involving pupils with discipline problems and/or the low achievers.

8. to carry out lesson study or action research for the improvement of teaching practice

The Role of TTI teacher trainees in increasing the quality teaching and learning in the classroom

1. To carry out teaching for the purpose of reinforcement or remedial in respective subjects.
2. To carry out teaching using innovative, attractive and effective teaching aids
3. Hold innovative pedagogy competition for effective teaching
4.Hold motivation camp/intellectual focus activities for TS pupils.
5. Course work design focusing on the variety of teaching aids to be used in the classroom
6. Assisting in building the conceptual rooms (music room, self-access learning center and other rooms) in the TS
7. To carry out, mini or micro teaching as well as to carry out research (Action Research) in the TS

Commentary on the Proposal Paper and the Concept Paper of the TS

In the paper, the teaching school is visualised to be the reference point of other primary schools throughout the country. However, for the teaching school to be a reference point there were a number of phases to be undertaken to achieve the vision. The thesis will explore what the papers enable as a focus in the thesis such as;

i) the vision as stated in policy

ii) how the vision was articulated in practice

iii) how it could be articulated in relation to the vision of the 'teaching school' of Dewey

iv) the organisational structure of the TS and the potential to move in Dewey's direction

The teaching school on paper of both the proposal and the concept paper are concerned with purposes and intentions usually drafted in ideal forms by a 'think-tank' group, in this case, by several selected officers of hierarchical importance from the Ministry of Education. The Perlis concept paper was the result of the action plan of the earlier proposal paper of the TS. However, in the quest to create a 'showcase', the teaching school in action does not necessarily correspond to the ideal whether in policy or philosophical terms. What actually happens when the teaching school is 'in practice' differs as compared to the 'ideal' teaching school on paper or the discourses of philosophy? The practice includes the complex realities of teaching sessions, administrative work, the activities of learners and all the other stakeholders involved. So, in the thesis I intend to explore the interrelationships of the ideal and the practical experiences of people involved in order to contribute to the development of teaching school as well as the current traditional schooling structure in moving towards the direction of a more democratic Deweyian education. Thus, it is the gaps that will be explored in the following chapters in the thesis.

Dewey's Notion Of Democratic Education And How His Ideas Are Exemplified In The Policy For The Teaching School

For me in this thesis, the 'ideal' calls for a vision of democratic education such as Dewey's but the 'practice' is traditionally largely autocratic in terms of organising schools with traditional teaching practices. The traditional teaching typically involves teacher as the controller of the classroom activities with teaching methods focused on memorisation

and rote learning. Each approach has implications for the kinds of future to which the teaching school might contribute. Dewey's ideas are exemplified as according to Scheffler (1974:244):

> The aim of education, according to Dewey, is first and foremost to develop critical methods of thought. Its task is not to indoctrinate a particular point of view, but rather to help generate those powers of assessment and criticisms by which diverse points of view may themselves be responsibly judged.

This implies that education emphasis upon meaning and purpose that requires proper method to be developed into the notion of the school curriculum. Thus, according to Nathanson (1967:81):

> We are forced to the realization that when we talked about relying on education as a method of democracy, we are talking about reconstructing our institutions.

These in turn have implications for the purposes and practices of primary education and thus teacher training. It is here that we can make a useful distinction between 'education' and 'schooling' (Schostak 2000). Schooling, as used in this thesis, is about moulding and fashioning minds and behaviour that can thus be an instrument for the state or government and the exercise of regimes of power over people. Education in a way, in this thesis, creates the conditions for the forms of thinking that can challenge powers of the state to mould minds and behaviours through the control of such institutions as schools. In realisation to the realisation of the TS, there are spaces to enable such challenges (as shall be explored in the thesis) in the policy documentation as the background concept of the TS as discussed earlier is *to develop ideas through creative, innovative and higher value initiative,*

Parallel to the concept of the TS also, education explores the potential to innovate, experiment; does inquiry based learning and creates the conditions for the challenge to take place while schooling prevents those potentials from developing. Thus, it can be argued, education goes with developing democratic practices that depends on people learning how to think and critically reflect upon the circumstances of their lives. This then has implications for the development of schools. The question then as in Schostak's (2000) terms is whether the teaching school will promote some combination of schooling and/or education. This depends on the nature of the vision being promoted. Hence, this thesis will explore the policy vision in relation to the Dewey's democratic vision in implementing the teaching school in the context of the contemporary school system and teaching cultures and practices.

In the cultures and practices of teaching, primary schools are perceived as the foundation for preparing children for secondary level. The teaching school programme is perceived by policy makers to be a better model of primary school. To this end, it is to be

developed and cultivated as a showcase but what kind of showcase is needed in the TS is questioned. The challenge is to explore whether it is a showcase of the traditional approach of schooling or the exploration of other potentials in education. Consequently the teaching school programme would determine the future development of not only the primary school, but also would contribute highly in influencing the future directions of teacher training education. Subsequently these would determine the development of future 'human capital' in the context of the current challenges posed by globalisation. Furthermore, in the context of a politics of social control, it is argued that "the power of schooling is to create the conditions for manipulation. ... schooling is generalised to all processes through which the minds and behaviours of people are moulded to some externally desired criteria" (Schostak and Schostak (2008:163). Thus, as an alternative a 'democratic' school should, it can be argued, be designed for the preparation of young people to critically engage with the real society outside school. Hence, this study shall also explore the development of the school according to the development of the school according to the extent to which it realises the traditional schooling or the potentials of education such as Dewey's.

Introduction to the thesis

"Education is not preparation for life: Education is life itself." –
John Dewey (1859-1952)

This study is about attempts to come to an understanding of the potential and the practical limitations of a teaching school programme formally labelled as the lab-school in the Malaysia teacher training institutions by exploring the complexities of events from the perspectives of the participants in relation to the educational and organisational context. The potential is explored in relation to the democratic possibilities that Dewey discussed in relation to his ideas concerning the role of the laboratory school in promoting democracy. The practical realisation of the TS school in Malaysia is explored through the experiences of those involved in its execution by making comparisons between the democratic vision and the actual issues involved in bringing about the TS in practice.

The complexities of the events will be presented using interview extracts and narratives to encapsulate the salient points of the key issues in the innovation of the teaching school programme.

The broad purposes of this investigation then are to:

1. explore the concept of the 'Teaching School' and
2. undertake an exploratory study of the practical implementation of a 'Teaching School' in order to increase understanding and facilitate discussion concerning the

design as well as the development of the teaching schools in the Malaysian context.

3. explore the potential of Dewey's democratic education in the TS programme in creating the conditions for the concepts of the TS of democratic practice to take place

Thus, the study is initially divided into two dimensions: theoretical and practical. At a theoretical level, this study explores the different kinds of 'vision' that are held by the policy makers in relation to my reflection on the democratic vision of the school initially informed by Dewey. At a practical level, there are;

a) the implications for practice of the perceived policy issues in relationship to the philosophical issues and to the traditional conceptual views as to what counts as an 'education' or form of 'schooling'?; as well as

b) the practical issues of how to develop the school. That is in terms of organisation of roles, activities, procedures and the resources that are necessary to their functioning. The practical issues will depend on what conceptual views are to be realised in practice. So, which of the views will actually determine what is realised?

The interest to pursue this area of study stems from personal involvement in the programme and does not intend to belittle the other types of schools in the system. I feel however, for any kind of schools to thrive in the education system, an innovation such as the teaching school programme should be explored, to gain deeper insights in the prospect of better primary schools especially the teaching school in Malaysia. However, what counts as 'better' will depend on which vision is the criterion by which to evaluate the practice. I cannot recollect a more significant moment than my memories of a 'story' that I used as a preface to introduce the thesis because it introduces the anxieties, the ambiguities, the lack of precision in definitions as to the nature of the TS to be produced; my personal involvement in the implementation of the innovation of the teaching school in the Teacher Training Institutions that started it all. Throughout the thesis, I will be referring to significant points in the narrative of the teaching school and to accounts of experiences provided by key actors in the development of the school. For this reason I will provide some of the introductory background needed to understand the significance of the use of a narrative style.

The Significance of the Narrative of the Teaching School

> Man is a teller of tales, a spreader of reports. He tells his story in every medium; by the spoken work, by pantomime and drama, in carvings in wood and stone, in rite and cult, in memorials and monument. His beliefs are social beliefs; they are of import because of this fact. (Dewey in Deen, 2012:3)

Narratives display how people relate to each other as they undertake courses of action. Narrative thus provides a way of analyzing social realities according to the key 'dramatis personae' involved in key events. Each member of the dramatis personae provides their own perspective and a way of interpreting their own as well as the actions of others. Hence by identifying the dramatis personae, methods can be employed that are appropriate to gathering data in relation to them: that is, wherever possible interviewing the key members, and/or observing them in action and/or collecting the texts or other artifacts they produce. This in turn implies a methodology that focuses on meanings and interpretations.

In this thesis, briefly the 'key players' or the dramatis personae are as listed below:

- Ministry of Education Malaysia: The ministry is the initiator of educational policies. Where the teaching school is concerned, its main responsibility is to co-ordinate the feasibility to implement the programme.

- Teacher Education Division (TED) aka Central Teacher Training Institutions of Malaysia (IPGM).The task of TED is to create the concept of the TS and direct the implementation. It is also responsible for the monitoring of conduct and progress of the programme.

- TTI (Teacher Training Institution): TTI is chosen to administer, prepare and monitor the TS in the respective premise. However, the TTI does not conduct a study on the TS programme.

- VD (The Vice Director of TTI): The VD previously is one of the 'think-tank' group members responsible in compiling the draft of the concept paper of TS when he was serving as an education officer in TED after graduating from his doctoral study.

- Me: chosen on the basis of some experiences in order to lead the TS programme (in teaching in primary school and coordinating primary school activities)

- Extras: A lot of extras are involved in the implementation of this programme but some of the more significant ones are; the director of TTI, the lecturers attached as teachers to the TS for the first year of implementation, the other lecturers of the TTI, the Teachers of the TS, Education officers of the MOE, the parents of the pupils of the TS and the pupils of the TS

The key players include both organisations such as 'the Ministry' as well as particular individuals. Between them there is a top down hierarchical relationship. Each has their own function and responsibilities. The higher level are involved with generating the vision and the policy that will then be interpreted and implemented lower down the hierarchy. Implicit in this brief description of the hierarchical organisation that provided the context to the innovation are some key structural elements that will be developed in more detail later in the thesis. The relations with the people involved, their initial enthusiasm and later reluctance are all significant elements in the workability of the project. They may point to psychological, social and cultural factors that need to be taken into account as well as the kinds of resources required for effective implementation. In short, what will be explored is the relation between the ideas or conceptual frameworks developed at policy level and their realisation through appropriate organisational structures, procedures; mechanisms and appropriate use of resources to achieve desired policy outcomes (see Schostak 2002).

A Brief History of the TS

In the year 2003 the MOE gave permission to open the TS based on the decision of the Teacher Education Division to have the TS. The initial idea of a Perlis Ts is spearheaded by Dr. Hamzah b. Ihsan, the Vice Director of the Perlis TTI using the concept of the "laboratory or teaching school" has been officially registered in September 2006 under the school Perlis State Education Department coding of RBA0091. Two unused buildings from the TTI's Technical Department has been allotted a temporary location of the TS school building. In year 2007, the two buildings have been refurbished to accomodate the first cohort of the forty-two TS pupils: 22 Year 1 Wawasan and 20 Year 1 Bestari.

Figure 1 The temporary building of the TS

In the year 2007, the school management was led by the researcher herself, Madam Sabariah binti Morad. For the first year, twenty four academic lecturers of the TTI taught as part-time teachers and two supporting staff were placed to assist with clerical work and management of the pupils. Supply of pupils and textbooks were taken from neighbouring schools with the negotiations of the TTI, The Perlis State Education Department and the neighboring schools.

Figure 2 The TS badge

By January 2007, the school badge for the TS has been created by Mohamad Ariff bin Abd Razak dan Mohd Nazrin bin Salehuddin with the motto using the acronym of the IPGM (TTI) initials as 'Ilmu Pemangkin Generasi Mulia' literally translated as 'knowledge as the catalyst of noble generations'.

The school uses the national primary school curriculum and includes some value added subjects which were not taught in the other national primary school which are swimming, Mandarin and Japanese language. When Madam Sabariah binti Morad left in Year 2008 to pursue her PhD in the United Kingdom, Madam Rokiah bt Karim from the TTI took over as the TS co-ordinator from the TTI. The new Headmaster Mister Kamarudin b. Ismail was appointed starting 3rd January 2008 as a result of a meeting in September 2007 in Penang by representatives of the TTI and MOE to approve the appointment of full time TS academic and supporting staff. The first administrative assistant headteacher was Madam Che Rahmah bt. Ismail, Student Affairs assistant headteacher was Mister Zamhari b. Johar, Co-curricular assistant headteacher Madam Hasnah bt. Daim was appointed in March 2008. The other teachers are: Amri b. Khalid, Ahmad Ezzunil b. Aziz. Hawa bt. Ismail and Wan Rusni bt. Wn Choh. Total of pupils in 2008 was 71 with 28 in year 1 and 43 in Year 2. Some of the earlier 2007 Year 1 pupils in left in 2008. In February 2008, a TS canteen has been tendered. In March 2008, The Perlis Religious Department placed 3 religious education teachers in the TS to teach on every Monday, Tuesday and Wednesday in the afternoon after formal class (7.30 a.m. to 1.30 p.m.). In May 2008, the Parents Teachers Association was organised and Mr. Yussuf b. Alang was elected as the first President of the TS Parents Teachers

Association session 2008/2010. Starting 6th June 2008, the construction of the TS building started and estimated to be ready by 26 August 2009. In June 2008, the TS planned for ”Effective TS Teaching” involving lecturers and teacher trainees. In July 2008, the proposal paper has been presented in the TS committee meeting. By August 2008, the estimated planning of TS human resource for Year 2009, 2010 and 2011 and estimated school budget for 2009 and 2010.have been drafted. By November 2008, the first per capita Grant totaling RM16500 is received for the 2008 academic year. In January 2009, another 11 teachers, 1 contract supporting staff and an assistant administrator under the scale N17 were assigned to the TS. In May 2009 a remedial teacher Madam Alina bt. Ahmad was posted to the TS and opened the ’Sinar Harapan’ (Light of Hope) to assist weaker pupils to improve better in reading. Beginning 13 to 15 May 2009, the first school account audit has taken place. In 23rd May 2009, the second Parents Teachers Association meeting has been done, the account opened and received a donation of 25 computers from the Puncakmas company. The TS moved to their own new building (still in the compound of the TTI) by the end of June 2010. The handling of the keys for the new TS was done by 28 of June 2010. The new building accommodates 12 classrooms

In sum, this section provides the description of some background information and the next section shall discuss the organisation of the thesis for the study of the TS.

Key Issues of the Study

In this teaching school study, the programme is evaluated in terms of;

The Conceptual Domain

i. The objectives and the current policy of the teaching school by Teacher School Division
ii. The appropriateness of the programme as compared to the needs of the pupils in the current situation.

The Practical Domain

The effectiveness in terms of management, financial and procedures

The Material Domain

The utilisation of resources such as: the infrastructures, facilities, human resources, quality management and support in achieving the aims of the TS.

Steering Committee

- The Teaching School will be governed by a Steering Committee. The membership of the Steering Committee will initially consist of:

  a. the Director of TTI - Academic (Patron) as Chair;

  b. the Director of State Education Department – Resource (Patron);

  c. a member of each TTI department (nominated and elected by elected annually)

  e. representative of the MOE;

  f. other members as appointed by the TTI/MOE as appropriate.

  g. Sub-committees are to be formed as the steering Committee requires, including PTA and sponsors

- In the absence of the Chair, one of the other members of the Steering Committee will be nominated by the Chair to chair meetings/make decisions.
- The Steering Committee will meet at least quarterly and will meet more frequently as business demands.
- Meeting organisation, agendas and meeting notes will be arranged by the members of the Steering Committee.
- The Steering Committee will provide reports on the activities of the Teaching School on a quarterly basis to the MOE.
- These Terms of Reference will be reviewed by the Steering Committee at the end of the first quarter of the Teaching Schools' operation and shall be reviewed annually thereafter by the Steering Committee and reported upon to the MOE's Advisory Committee.

The thesis will explore the terms of reference for the school employing the research method of analysis that draws upon the 'Architectures of the Social' by Schostak and Schostak 2008, Realistic Evaluation by Pawson and Tilley (1997) and Grounded Theory (Glaser and Strauss 1967).

The Objectives of the Study

The thesis will explore;

A. Theoretical Issues by:

1. Exploring the idea of the teaching school from its democratic conception by Dewey.
2. Describing the theoretical dimensions of the vision of the teaching school as set out in official policy documentation.
3. Discussing the democratic potential of the TS.

B. Practical Issues by:

4. Analysing the differences between the teaching school on paper, the teaching school that people experience and the teaching school in practice. This will involve;
    - Exploring the perceptions of the stakeholders (teachers, pupils, parents, education officials and teacher trainers) on the implemented the teaching school programme.
    - Making an in depth exploration of the implementation of the teaching school programme in a particular Teacher Training Institute (TTI).
5. Reflecting upon my own experience of the practical issues in relation to the experiences of those interviewed and in relation to the possible democratic vision of the school.

Research Questions

The research questions are designed to be more specific in realising the purpose and objectives of what I want to know from the exploration of the TS programme. The research questions that match the purposes and objectives of this study are listed below:

1. What is a TS?

    1.1 What is the vision of the TS?

    1.2 How are the visions in the implementation of the TS program experienced?

2. How may democracy in education be facilitated in a TS program?

3. What are the perceptions and experiences of the teaching and supporting staff of the TS?

4. What form of organization is appropriate to the TS program?

5. How does the development of democratic education facilitate democracy?

The Argument of the Thesis

There are two key connected arguments of the thesis. First, drawing on critical realist approaches, it may be argued that the organisation of the teaching school programme as defined in the policy documentation must be designed to meet the key aims of the initiative itself. That is, the organisational mechanisms, practices and resources must be designed to meet the key aims of the initiative (the teaching school programme). The analysis of the data collected in the course of the study, it will be argued basically shows that many of the critical organisational structures of the system are not appropriate to the smooth implementation of the initiative. Thus there are problems of implementation, which could lead to a failure to achieve the desired outcomes. The second argument has its roots in Dewey. For Dewey, to have a democratic society requires education that is democratically oriented. Thus, he developed his 'teaching school' as a place that could originally foster democratic social innovation. However, the dominant traditional culture of schooling in Malaysia is not democratic. The purpose of the study is to delve into a more democratic form of school initiated by Dewey in order to promote a more ethical and democratic political standpoint. In order to explore what promotes and what inhibits the development of the democratic vision and practice the thesis will analyse and discuss the perceptions and practices of those involved in the implementation of the TS. It may be that there are alternative approaches to the teaching schools that do not focus on the 'democratic' models but it is not the purpose in this thesis to explore them in depth.

Methodologically it is argued, in order to explore the meanings of the policy and its implementation a broadly qualitative approach is required in order to gain more in-depth insights into experiences, discourses and motives. In order to explore the experiences and perspectives of the people involved the study will draw upon the Grounded Theory approach by Glaser and Strauss 1967. Finally, in order to explore the relations between alternative visions and their organisation and enactment in practice an approach influenced by critical realist evaluation will be adopted.

In the argument of the thesis, the narrative descriptive approach is employed as an evaluative aid. The narrative descriptive approach conveys a greater sense of the lived experiences of the events. They can represent the complexities of social processes better than analysis alone since analysis fragments those experiences into separate categories. So, in order to represent the complexity of the experiences some narratives and interview extracts are employed alongside analysis as a basis for critical discussion.

Thus, this is a thesis that links the personal with the formal. It has the aim of describing the situation, mapping the issues through qualitative in-depth methods; and then it has the aim of evaluating the current policies and practices against democratic forms of education. The democratic forms of organisation, it will be argued, provide an ethico-political perspective by which to explore and discuss the sense of moral obligation implicit in policy, professional and organisational practices (as described in chapter 5). It raises the question of how education and its practice in schools can be the foundation of developing a socially just society leading to the question then of the extent to which it contributes to or prevents this from taking place.

Organisation of the Thesis

The content of this thesis is organised into three parts;

Part One: The Context of Research

Part One discusses the policy and ideas surrounding the implementation of the TS programme. Part One will provide the context of the implementation of the teaching school programme by describing the policies, concepts and the different faculties in the Malaysia Education system. The purpose of the chapters in Part One is to provide the background of the study. Part One is divided into three chapters;

- Chapter One provides an overview of the Malaysian school system by drawing on the personal experience of the researcher before outlining relevant aspects of the Malaysian education system. It does so by discussing the role of curriculum and assessment in relation to issues of the relation between knowledge, power and control; as well as discussing issues of educational philosophy and ideals in relation to the realities of contemporary organisation and practices.
- Chapter Two discusses both the policy concepts and the competing alternative philosophical views of education that a teaching school could adopt behind the

policy documents and also in relation to my own educational views based on the 'Architectures of the Social' framework (Schostak and Schostak 2008).

- Chapter Three discusses political concepts in education relevant to the democratic ideology behind Dewey's philosophical view of education as the label of the laboratory school is referred to in the concept paper of the teaching school.

Part Two The Processes and Practices of Research

Part Two discusses methodology and research design. It is an exploration of the art of doing research in order to explore how the ideals in the policies described in Part One are translated into practice as experienced by the stakeholders.

- Chapter Four is a discussion of qualitative approaches to explore the range of experience and issues appropriate to identifying the key issues of the study and also is an exploration of evaluation methodology by employing the approaches to data described in Chapter Four, as a way of thinking about the impacts and significance of the innovation of the particular teaching school.

Part Three The Outcome of Research

Part Three draws upon the analysis of the data collected. This part explores three domains as in the "Architectures of the Social" of Schostak and Schostak's (2008) framework crucial to the development of the overall argument of the thesis; the conceptual domain, the practical domain and the material domain. This approach provides a way of analyzing the issues involved in realising in practice ideas, such as the idea of democratic education by Dewey. Part Three is organised respectively into three chapters;

- Chapter Five discusses the conceptual domain at work in the implementation of the teaching school programme and explores the concept of work, the notion of the TS and in particular the experience of working in the TS. In terms of experience at work, there is a link between the ethico-political purpose of the next chapter and the ethico-political nature of work. The nature of the link is discussed in relation to the practice of democracy in education explored in this study.

- Chapter Six is a continuation of the previous chapter and adds the notion of the practical domain that focuses on morality, ethics and the ethico-political as key

issues in the implementation of the teaching school. Morality as in moral obligation plays an important part in ethics as work. The moral issues sometimes are never addressed directly but play in the background figuratively as shadows following the moves of employees. They may sometimes be used as political management strategies at work. The issue shall be discussed in relation to the ethical political purposes of democratic forms of educational practice in order to understand the connection between democracy and social justice practice at work.

- Chapter Seven deliberates on the material domain discussing the allocation of resources as well as the practice and forms of organisation issues as in the type of management and of the forms of organisation that generates the practice in TS.

Finally, Chapter Eight concludes the thesis. It reflects upon how the research and the thesis has been organised to explore the relations between the ideals or vision expressed at the level of policy with

a) the existence and practice of its implementation,

b) the theoretical and philosophical issues drawn from a reading of the literature in order to provide a critical perspective that questions whether or not the innovation of the teaching school and its influence will create the possibility of future changes and innovations, for schooling practice and for the rights of people.

Note: Throughout the thesis, abbreviations as listed in the list of abbreviations are used as operating terminologies,

Part One: The Context of Research

Part One will introduce the teaching school (TS) programme by describing the policies, concepts and the different faculties in the Malaysia Education system as described in the literature. The purpose of the chapters in Part One is to provide the background of the study through three chapters that explore the ideas and dimensions of the TS concept under study. Chapter One presents the overview of the teaching school programme and the ideals underlying them. Chapter Two sets the broad context based on the 'Architectures of the Social' framework by Schostak and Schostak (2008) and Chapter Three explores the discussion of the political concepts in education based on the ideology behind Dewey's philosophical view in education.

Chapter One

The Background of the Study

"*Each time a man stands for an ideal, or acts to improve the lot of others, or strikes out against injustice, he sends a tiny ripple of hope, and crossing each other from a million different centers of energy and daring, those ripples build a current which can sweep down the mightiest walls of oppression and resistance.*" Robert Francis Kennedy quotes (U.S. attorney general and adviser, 1925-1968

1.0 Introduction

The above quote gives a sense of the ideal. The purpose of this chapter is to set up a tension between the 'ideal' for which one is struggling, and the issues against which one is struggling. In the struggle between the ideals and the realities, would it be feasible to maintain the possible 'ideals' in the context of the contemporary 'realities'? As an exploration of the ideals in relation to the background circumstances, it is vital that the description of the background of the study is grounded in lived experience. Therefore, the first chapter shall partly provide a depiction of the background through the personal experience of the researcher. This provides a biographical narrative as a precursor to the area of study. The review shall be developed in relation to the experiences that have led the researcher to consider significant decisions in the implementation of the TS programme which may not be the case for others.

1.1 The Core Principles of Education in Malaysia

The New Philosophy of Education (NPE) created in 1988 provides the core policy vision of the implementation of any education policies in the Malaysian education system onwards. It resulted from the decision at ministerial level to overcome the previous problems of education that place too much emphasis on content knowledge and rote-learning but neglected the other aspects of development; e.g. spirituality and emotion as the statements of the NPE explicitly states:

> "Education in Malaysia is an on-going effort towards further developing the potential of individuals in a holistic and integrated manner, so as to produce individuals who are intellectually, spiritually, emotionally and physically balanced and harmonious, based on a firm belief in and devotion to god. Such an effort is designed to produce Malaysia citizens who are knowledgeable and competent, who possess high moral standards and who are responsible and capable of achieving high levels of personal well-being as well as being able to contribute to the harmony and betterment of the family, society and the nation at large."
>
> (Curriculum Development Centre, 1990)

The philosophy is implemented in all the educational policies from the primary to the tertiary level in the country. Education in Malaysia emphasizes the humanisation of education (Cabinet Report 1979). With the NPE, it is hoped that through education, the development of individuals or students will be achieved in a holistic way leading to a well-balanced personality comprising the intellectual, spiritual, emotional and physical elements. The NPE also is based on a firm belief in devotion to God in line with the first and foremost principle of the National Ideology (Rukunegara) formulated in the year 1970.

In primary schools, the ideal principles of the NPE are revealed through the implementation of the new curriculum called the New Primary School Curriculum or the KBSR in 1983. In 1983 and 1988 the new curriculum was implemented for the primary and secondary schools respectively. When I was undergoing my teacher training in 1985 to 1987 in one of the teacher training colleges in Malaysia, the new curriculum was part of the core training course. The new education philosophy was introduced in 1988 to form balanced students in terms of physical, emotional, spiritual and intellectual aspects.

Many changes occurred in education legislation that became the core of primary school teaching and learning. The previous Education Act 1957 was replaced by the Education Act 1961 which was later amended as Education Act 1996. As a result, there was also a measure to upgrade the teaching qualification from certificate to diploma. There was also a change in policy of upgrading the universal education stages from nine

years to 11 years beginning 1992, during the implementation of the Education Act 1996, and through the national vision policy of 2001 to 2000. These amendments incorporate compulsory education in primary schools which were implemented in stages beginning with year one in 2003. Moreover, there were additional support programmes such as the 'upgrading teacher scheme' and the development of teaching colleges, the allocation of music teachers in primary schools and the implementation of the teaching of Science and Mathematics in English (EteMS).

In half a decade since Malaysia's Independence in 1957, some of the different types of primary schools legally created in Malaysia are the:

- national primary (SK- Sekolah Kebangsaan) schools to cater for the needs of the majority of the population with the national language (Bahasa Melayu) as the medium of instruction.
- vernacular schools (SJK- Sekolah Jenis Kebangsaan) such as Chinese and Indian vernacular schools to cater for the needs of Chinese and Indians as the other two major ethnic groups in Malaysia.

The national primary or the vernacular schools may operate or select their niche area as:

- religious school/missionary schools to cater for the needs of the multi religious population of Malaysia
- international schools for the international community working, staying, studying in Malaysia as well as for Malaysian communities who have an interest in international education.
- single sex schools such as girls only school like the Convent School and boys only schools like the Victoria Institution.
- private schools for a certain group of the community usually the elites with high paying school fees.
- co Ed schools such as daily national primary school combining girls and boys as learners.
- However, the TS is different and only to be implemented in all TTIs in Malaysia as a 'showcase'.

The development of the national primary schools also creates other models of schools such as the smart schools, vision schools, cluster schools, high-profile schools

and TSs. Generally the aim behind all the legislation is to 'modernise' the school system in Malaysia.

The 'vision school' is a group of three types of school; a national primary school, a Chinese vernacular school and Tamil vernacular school to be located in one area with one shared field. Instead of having the national primary school and vernacular school, the vision school would cater for the needs of all ethnicities in the society. However, based on rejection from partial society to share the vision school as a mutual public primary school, the vision school continues as another national type of primary schools and partial society continue with vernacular schools.

The cluster school is the national school created according to achievement of excellence in academic, extra-curricular activities, and niche areas. Ideally the schools selected are given autonomy to choose head teachers, teachers, support staff, and pupils. However, in terms of the selection of pupils the schools have the authority to choose only 10% of the pupil intake suitable to the niche areas while the other 90% are feeder pupils based on locality.

The high-profile school is also based on excellence in academic, extra-curricular activities, and a niche area. These schools are given a big budget to be spent as a reward of their distinctive performance and are given the autonomy to manage their curriculum, financial and administrative aspects but are not given the autonomy to run the school independently. These are small steps in decentralising schools in Malaysia.

Since 1996 to 2007 a stable enrolment rate of 93% has been achieved in primary education in Malaysia with an increased number of primary schools, 11.5% primary schools in Malaysia from 6820 schools in year 1990 to 7601schools in year 2005 with 33.2 % of the schools being in the urban while the other 66.8% schools in the rural areas (Bahagian Perancangan dan Penyelidikan Dasar Pendidikan, 2000: 25, Bahagian Perancangan dan Penyelidikan Dasar Pendidikan, 2007:29). As of 31st January 2011 there are 7709 registered primary schools in Malaysia with the enrolment of 2,859,921 pupils, and a total of 408764 in service teachers with 232095 serving in primary schools (Kementerian Pelajaran Malaysia, 2011). These figures are inclusive of all types of registered primary school in Malaysia.

When I was growing up, we only had a choice to go either to the national or vernacular school. However in the 1970s, some of my friends did not go to school, some were not properly schooled and some left school halfway through primary education due to poverty or lack of interest in education. Education was more purposeful for the privileged. So, as part of the ongoing commitment to produce better educated people for the society, MOE developed numerous policies and created the different types of schools

as described above to ensure that the children of Malaysia have proper access to schooling, at least for the primary school level.

However, with all the developments, there are still unresolved issues such as pupils not mastering the primary school curriculum, the 3Rs (**R**eading, W**r**iting and A**r**ithmetic). It was also estimated in 2004, 7.7% of Level 1 pupils (Year 1 to Year 3) were unable to master the basic education skills (Kementerian Pelajaran Malaysia, 2006). Though the percentage is small, the real figure is alarmingly 115,000 pupils (Kementerian Pelajaran Malaysia, 2006). UNICEF also pointed out that Malaysia is still facing challenges ahead to improve the quality of primary education (UNICEF Malaysia, 2005). Therefore, measures have been taken to promote better primary education and newer models of primary schools such as the TS in TTIs.

1.2 A Primary School Teacher Experience

My experience of teaching was kick started when I entered a teacher training college in 1985, my cohort (1985 -1987) was the first to be in the semester system (previously term system) doing a three year course. We were trained to teach according to the new syllabus for primary schools at that time, - famously known as KBSR 1983 (Kurikulum Baru Sekolah Rendah) - which was piloted in 1982 in 305 primary schools and thoroughly implemented in all primary schools by MOE in 1983. Subsequently, in 1991, Malaysia under the governance of Tun Mahathir as the Prime Minister visualised the aims to be achieved in Vision 2020. It is a vision to be a competitive nation on a par with the other developed countries in the world market. One of the ways to achieve it is through education. Hence the KBSR 1983 was changed to a New Integrated Syllabus for Primary School in 1993 still using the acronym KBSR (Kurikulum Bersepadu Sekolah Rendah). By 1993, I was already an in-service teacher and was charged to attend several short courses at intervals. Short courses were conducted by education officers and other personnel to update teachers about the changes. By 1993 I also applied to do a course sponsored by the MOE in a local University in Malaya and enrolled to do a Diploma in ESL for a year. I went back to teaching in a primary school upon finishing my course.

Based on my diploma qualification in 1995, I applied for a MPIK-UK (an MOE initiative involving a Malaysia Teacher Training College and nine selected universities of the United Kingdom in a mutual twinning programme) and was offered a place to do a degree at the University of Manchester. The MPIK-UK twinning programme is a programme initiated by TED MOE for in-service English teachers to do a degree in 9 selected universities in the UK. In the UK I was given the opportunity to experience UK

education via formal and informal visits to Manchester primary schools. The formal visitations were arranged by Centre of English Language Studies in Education (CELSE) of The University of Manchester as part of the orientation process and as partial requirement of the degree course work with specific observations to be made and certain tasks to be completed. The informal visits were more frequent as I routinely sent and fetched both my boys (3 and 5 years old) for their early education. In the mornings, I was allowed to be with my youngest to help him settle down in class and also because sometimes on my way back from my own lectures I arrived earlier than the daily end of school time, I was allowed to go into the classroom. When we were residing in Rusholme, the boys went to Claremont Road Primary School for few months but when we moved to Cheetham Hill, the boys were transferred to Cheetwood Primary School and I had the privilege to experience both schools. The experiences are important to this thesis as they provided the background schemata and were perceived as a model in the context of the implementation of the TS. The experience raised a number of questions and issues that would become important in managing the practice of the TS programme such as selected teaching approaches, resources as well as the determination of the ideal class size of the TS.

My degree programme was connected with The Malaysian Education Act 1991. It was later amended by the Education Act of 1996 which brought in the measure to upgrade teachers' qualifications from certificate to diploma. There was also a change in policy of upgrading universal education in stages from 9 to 11 years beginning 1991.

In 1997, I went back to Malaysia and was re-posted to teach in a technical secondary school teaching Forms 4 and 5 (16 to 18 year old students). It was a big jump for me as teaching the lower primary school pupils (the 6 to 9 year old) is actually very different from teaching the upper secondary school students. The approach was different and even a different kind of classroom management needed to be imposed with the secondary school students as compared to the more child-like primary school pupils. Even though the secondary school students sometimes complained that I treated them like small children, they were somehow endeared to me, hanging on to me as to a mother, thus making it easier for me to approach and teach them. Since scoring well in subjects such as Mathematics, Sciences and Malay Language and achieving the pass level in the English language is the minimum requirement to further studies and provides the criterion by which a student is judged especially in terms of the results of public exams in schools in Malaysia, I felt the importance of making sure they, at the very least, passed the English language. Thus, I provided them with large amount of narrative texts (as based on my previous examinations analysis, narrative texts are very popular) for the purpose of the exam and ignored some of the other genres and skills in the syllabus. I

realised that what I had done may not be according to the aims of the curriculum developers in MOE but I was more concerned with the future wellbeing of my students. As a result, a class of 46 of my technical students scored 100% passes in English and the other 3 vocational classes improved tremendously as a percentage of passes in their SPM. That really put me in the spotlight and strengthened my belief about the approach used and reinforced me to use the same approach again the continuing year, once again the results soared. By that time, I was already offered the role of District English Language Education Officer which at first I declined because I was worried about my capabilities to be a desk officer. I had only been trained as a teacher and thus had neither a background nor the interest in the administrative post. By the third offer (written letter), I had follow the directive and to leave school and accept the post.

The change due to the change in post was tremendous. The significance of the change for this thesis is in terms of work management. I no longer directly dealt with pupils or students. Instead it provided me with a network of teachers, the primary schools head master, the secondary schools Principal, the other education officers and the other superior officers in the district within the state and beyond as well as the other officers outside the education boundary. My formal working hours from 8 a.m. to 4.30 p.m. were frequently extended as instructed by my superiors. Apart from the office work, I had to prepare myself for entertainment duties (that is as liaison officer whenever other superior officers needed me, to attend dinner after courses or meetings held) and also 'voluntary' (more like dictated, society of lady education officers or wives of education officers - Puspanita) work. More time was spent at work than at home with my family. Thus, by 2000, I applied to further my study so as to put a 'pause' in the hectic momentum of my work and won a scholarship to do a Master in Education in a local university for two years (2001-2002) during which I gained further insights into education policies and research methods.

Upon completion of my study by the end of 2002, I was reposted, this time to Perlis TTI as a teacher trainer in a language department. During this time, the Teacher Education Division in the MOE needed more English language lecturers especially to train teachers under the policy to teach Science and Mathematics in English (EteMS). Working in the TTI was like combining my three previous job experiences as a teacher of primary school, a teacher of secondary school and a District Education Officer. Apart from teaching in class and being involved in co-curricular activities, my other tasks were to be involved in training, holding courses and meetings. These experiences helped me in fitting into the role of a teacher trainer.

During my post as a teacher trainer, an Educational Development Master Plan (2006-2010) was outlined by the MOE to provide guidelines for educational development

for the Ninth Malaysia Plan (Kementerian Pelajaran Malaysia, 2006). The main aims were to provide quality education for all, identifying six core strategies to strengthen the national education system: Building the nation and people; Developing human capital; Strengthening national schools; Narrowing the education gap; Making Teaching a Prestigious Profession; and Making excellence a culture in Educational Institutions.

According to the blueprint, the first core strategy *building the nation and people* stresses the development of pupils from an early stage of education focusing on characteristics such as being 'glocal' (a combination of being globally competitive whilst still bearing the local identity), being patriotic and appreciating the national culture. In sum, the blueprint aimed to develop citizens with a strong national identity. Citizen is a key term in this thesis, particularly in relation to the distinction between 'education' and 'schooling' between democracy and the elite management of employees and subjects. The second core strategy, *developing human capital,* concentrated on inculcating moral values, while developing pupils to be competent in Maths and Science, and to be innovative and creative as well as possessing marketable value. The third core strategy involved strengthening *the national schools* (SK). The schools were to be well equipped with sufficient good quality resources. The fourth core strategy, *narrowing the education gap,* focused on bridging the education gap among schools in terms of locations, school types, race, gender, socio-economic status, abilities, resources (physical and non-physical), performance and also dropout rates. The fifth core strategy, *making Teaching a Prestigious Profession,* concerned reinstating the teaching profession as 'respectable' (in increasing prestige and respect) since it was to have the responsibility of developing pupils as the future generation. The sixth core strategy, making *excellence a culture in Educational Institutions,* aimed to produce excellence in educational institutions by producing better schools based on academic performance and/or co-curricular activities or their other niche area/s.

Consequently, the relation between the policy demands discussed in some parts of my career as an educationist are relevant and are expected to change society's approach to education. However, a plan would be just a plan if measures are not taken to materialise what has been planned. Thus it is critical to analyse what is involved in the TS innovation. Consequently the next section will describe what is involved in the TS programme.

1.3 The Teaching School Study

According to the concept paper of the TS innovation (Kementerian Pelajaran Malaysia 2003), there are two types of TS programme: first, a TS built in the TTI premises and second, the alternative of taking neighbouring existing primary schools to be adopted by the TTI to run the TS programme. This study will only look at a TS of the first model of the TS programme for two main reasons: 1) my personal involvement in this type of programme and, 2) the expectation that future developments will involve more of these types of the TS programme in TTIs.

The TS is meant to be the showcase of the TTIs. That means it is to be a reference point for the other national primary school in Malaysia in all aspects of schooling: curriculum, assessment, performance, pedagogies and school organisation. It is designed to promote collaboration between the TTI, the TS and with the State Education Department in creating examplary primary school as a reference point to other schools in Malaysia.

In practical terms the TS as a showcase is meant to discover and share ideas, projects, lessons and best practices that have been successfully carried out in the classroom. However, what it is to showcase depends on what is meant by the TS determined in relation to how the policy on paper had been implemented in practice and experienced by people. I argue that there is a democratic interpretation of the policy objectives in the concept paper (see section 2.1.1) which is influenced by Dewey's idea of democratic education (i.e the idea of the laboratory school) as well as a hierarchical, traditional interpretation that intends to showcase measurable performance.

In brief, the curriculum and the co-curricular activities of the TS would keep to the instruction of all the national primary schools to practise the national curriculum. Thus, the curricular and co-curricular activities of the school would be similar to the other national schools in Malaysia. The timetable, the general allocation of all primary school subjects and the number of school days are also similar to the other national schools as prescribed by the MOE. The only difference is that the school holidays of the TS would be synchronised with the TTI instead of following the standard primary school holidays in Malaysia. This difference may be small but indicates that change even in a rigidly administered bureaucracy, is possible. However, there are still some pending changes to be implemented in the TS programme such as, the intention to manage the TS independently under the administration of the respective TTI, the right to hire and fire the TS staff, the development of more TSs and the provision of a reasonable allocation of budgetary and human resources and training programmes from MOE.

As mentioned earlier, the main reason for opening the TS is to have a school under the management of the TTI as a national showcase. The TS should excel in all

aspects of school management, classroom management, learning theories, teaching innovation as well as the practice of effective teaching and learning. The TS according to the concept paper, is inspired by Dewey and schools such as John Dewey's Laboratory School in Chicago (Devendorf, 2013); Zornitza Alternative Educational Model in Sofia Bulgaria, Joachim- Schumann- Schule in Babenhausen, Germany, Schuler/ Innershule des Versins Gemeinsam Lernen in Vienna Austria (Durr, 2005); the Laboratory School at the University of Bielefeld (Thurn, 2012); Sudbury Schools (to name a few; Leeway Sudbury School in California, Sudbury School of Atlanta in Georgia, Eugene Sudbury School in Oregon, Clearview Sudbury School in Texas) in the United States of America, (Korkmaz and Erden, 2014; Korkmaz, 2014) and the Citizen School in Brazil (Apple and Beane, 2007).

Dewey is chosen because his philosophy of education sees the importance of education as a necessity of life. He views education as a preparation and as unfolding through discovery learning. Thus, the expectation is generally pre-occupied with the Dewey democratic conception in education which shall be discussed later in Chapter 3.

In practical terms, another TS was already in operation in Kuala Terengganu which urged this TS to be implemented. However, it is learnt from observations and written documents that the TS in Trengganu is a TS because logistically it is situated in the premise of the TTI there. Apart from that the school progresses in the same way as the other national primary schools in Terengganu in terms of management and schooling processes and practice. Therefore, when a TS was to be implemented in Perlis, determination to visualise the concept of the TS grew even more so as the Vice Director in Perlis TTI was actually one of the think-tank group members when the concept paper was drafted at the ministry level.

Consequently, based on personal preferences added with the Vice Director's influence I had proposed and administered some moves that I believed brought value-added practice to the TS. I would still agree with some of the ideas and these included:

- Swimming classes as part of the co-curricular activities with licensed swimming instructors hired as coaches to the pupils.
- Using English as the main medium of instruction.
- Schooling hours extended to the afternoon session focusing on religious education providing basic religious training as requested by parents (especially working parents)
- Providing school meals such as breakfast and lunch, subsidized by the TTI
- Preparing a dining room with selected specified Malaysian 'healthy' meals

- Inculcating a culture of good behaviour by, instead of a normal roll call, a basic mild morning military style march (as requested by the pupils) is done, providing turns for assisting teacher trainees and pupils to lead.
- Providing pupil centered opportunities in conducting assembly and prayer recital
- School nurse/assistant to assist the teachers in class, to receive pupils in the morning
- Maximum of 25 pupils per class
- The involvement of teacher trainers and teacher trainees
- Picture and written documentation of school activities
- Classrooms painted in contrasting colours (at the request of the staff with the intention to know if there was any discernible effect on pupils' behaviour) with one class of a sombre grey corporate look versus bright prime colours of green and blue in the other classroom.

When a TS is implemented, people's expectations are that the programme will bring educational as well as social benefits. This expectation may be overturned if the programme in question is seen to fail and be irremediable. It is hoped that this thesis will contribute to understanding the issues of success and failure.

In order to do this, the role of this study, then, is to capture the people's perspectives in voicing the real experiences of the TS in practice and if possible to explore some of their ideas in imagining the ideal TS. The realities of practice are always much more complex than the policies and the ideals but nonetheless life is shaped by complexities. Thus as a researcher, the role is to learn and report the complexities as accurately as possible. In order to explore some of these complexities, the TS implementation can be viewed as the product of the collaborated 3 major entities: the Ministry of Education (MOE), the TTI and the State Education Department (SED). The TS is represented as the overlapped area in the middle after the three circles representing the three different entities of the MOE in the diagram Figure 3 below.

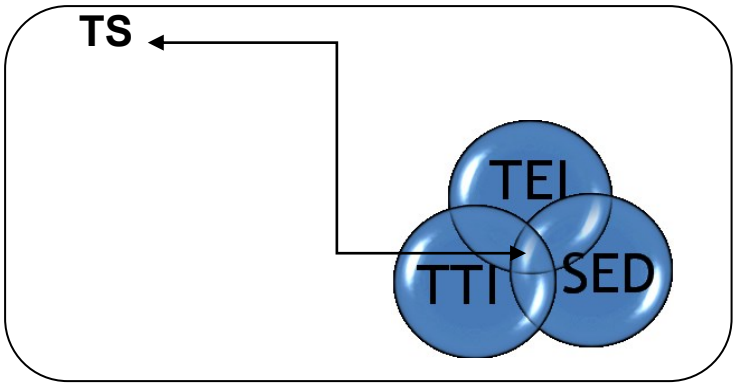


Figure 3 Entities of TS implementation

Of course, there are more complexities to represent, thus the following sections will explore these in terms of the organisational policy demands, educational needs, the curriculum and current teaching and learning practice.

1.4 The Ministry of Education (MOE)

The education policy demands are shaped by the reigning government via the Ministry of Education (MOE). The MOE is broadly in charge of the nation's educational planning: education policies, the national curriculum, the resources and the education assessment system. There are various departments under the administration of the ministry that are directly involved in the implementation of the TS innovation at one point or another such as:

- The EPRD – the Education Planning and Research Division responsible for research on the educational issues and EMIS in collecting data for the Educational Management Information System and analysing them for planning and drafting policies;
- The Examination Syndicate responsible for the preparation of all the summative exams for the primary and secondary schools levels;
- The Curriculum Development Centre (CDC) for the planning and implementation of curriculum and syllabuses for the schools,
- The Textbooks Division in preparing the national textbooks to be distributed to all pupils free of charge;
- The Human Resource Department in estimating and posting teachers and education personnel to all educational institutions such as schools and TTIs.
- The School Division is another department under MOE in charge of all the national and vernacular schools.

- While TEI (Teacher Education institution is the newly re-named TED (Teacher Education Division) also another entity under MOE.

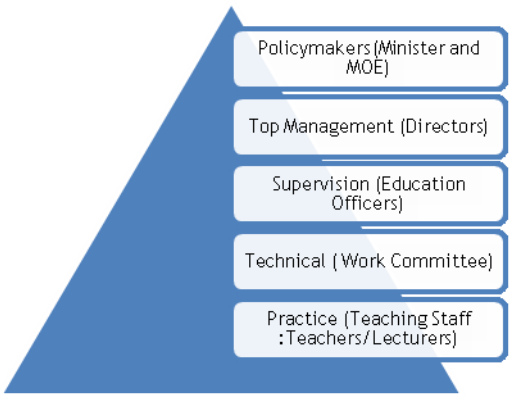


Figure 4 The levels of TEI, TTI and SED in relation to the TS programme

The Figure 4 above and Figure 1.3 below illustrate the hierarchical structure of the MOE organisation in Malaysia led by the policymakers and the Minister of education. The MOE is divided into several professional and administrative divisions. The professional division is led by a Director General while the administrative division is led by a Secretary-General. Each professional and administrative division is led by their respective leader of the organization as the Top Management. As an illustration, the TEI is led by the Rector, the TTI and SED are led by the respective director of each organization followed by other education officers as in the diagram in Figure 5 below.

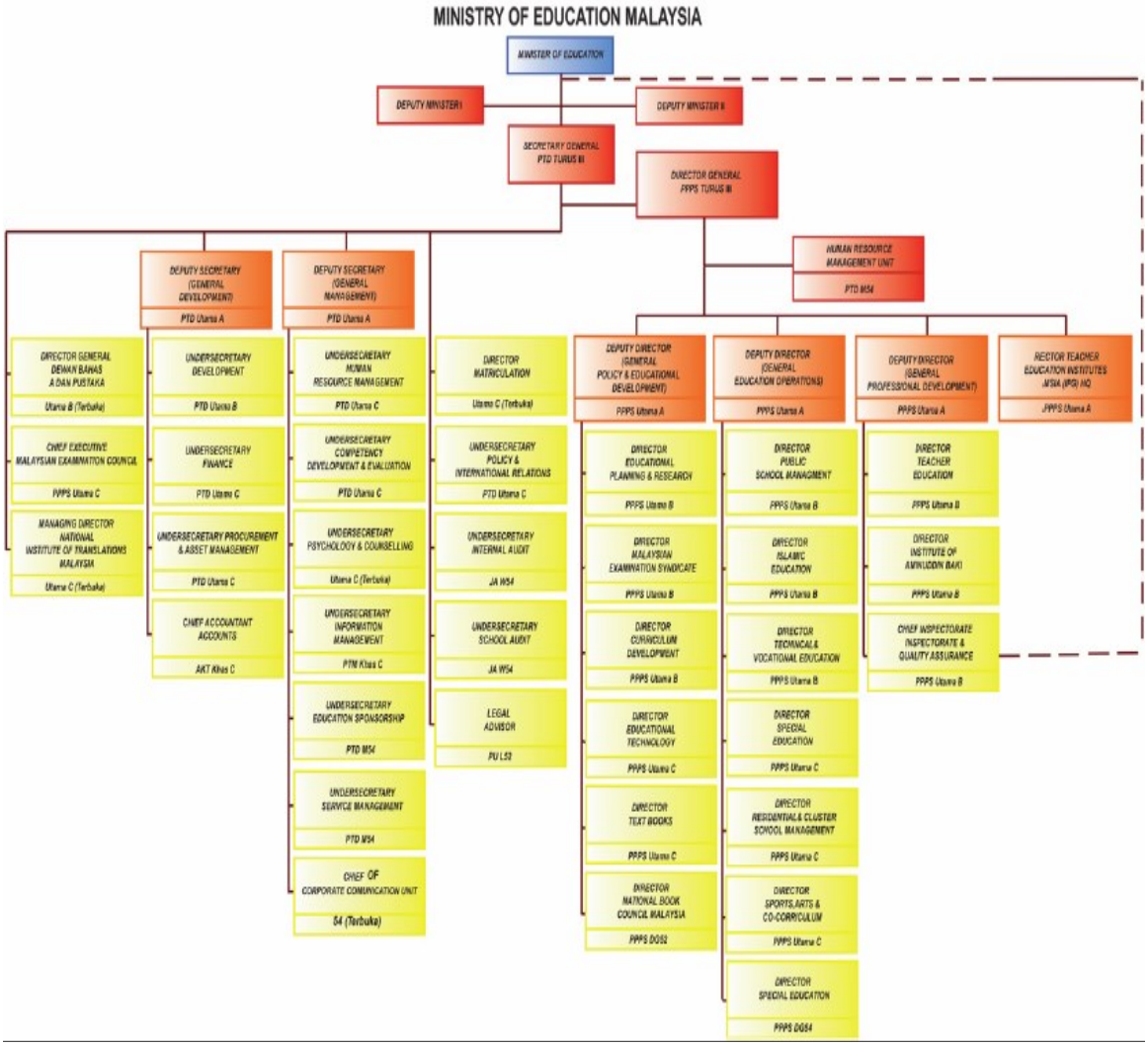


Figure 5 The MOE top management in hierarchy (see appendix 1.4)

Some of the legislation under the governance of the MOE has already been indicated in the discussion above. The later sections focus on some of the appropriate policy demands such as the Education Acts, the free education policy and assessment in primary schools in facilitating the innovations in modernising the education system.

1.4.1 The Implications of the Education Acts on Primary School.

The Education Acts are central to the issues of democracy for the citizens. However, they also generate the issue of workload for the practitioners which are of critical importance in this study.

In Malaysia, compulsory education is required for children reaching the age of six years old. Primary education is for the duration of six years in primary school. Failure of

parents to ensure children enter compulsory education is a serious offence in education law and parents could be fined at a level not exceeding RM 5000 or jailed for six months or both as stated in the Legal Education Act started under the Education Ordinance 1957. The Education Act, 1961 was later amended as the Education Act 1996. The New Primary School Curriculum (KBSR) is implemented in all primary schools in Malaysia and later revised in 1993. In 2003, the revised KBSR 1993 is implemented in all primary schools. In 2011, The Primary School Standard Curriculum (KSSR) is implemented in all primary schools. Summative assessment known as the *Ujian Penilaian Sekolah Rendah* or the Primary School Assessment Test (PSAT) is compulsory for all candidates in primary schools in Malaysia.

1.4.2 Free Education policy in primary school

The free education policy involves education from primary to secondary school for eleven years. The provision from the government includes the infrastructures, supply of the instructional material such as textbooks and CDs, supply of teachers and support programmes, tuition voucher scheme and the supplementary food programme. Only prescribed textbooks and other instructional materials approved by the Textbooks Division or the Information Technology Division of the MOE are supplied. These books and teaching products are locally produced and custom-made for the Malaysian syllabus. The textbooks are expected to be used in all classes in the school, ensuring each pupil is given a free supply of textbooks at the beginning in January and later collected at the end of the academic year. Foreign textbooks or workbooks are not supplied and if needed, it is up to the teachers own initiative to buy them from shops in the major towns or borrow them from the libraries. Bookshops and libraries in the smaller towns especially in the rural areas do not stock textbooks, workbooks or teaching materials.

The Acts described in the previous section together with the free education policy are important background steps that contribute to the development of the democratic right to education of the citizens. The practice of primary schools education aims to provide equal opportunities for the citizens in the society.

1.4.3 Assessment in primary school

Assessment in school is used to gauge the learning and teaching outcomes of the pupils. There are two broad types of assessment in primary schools in Malaysia:

formative tests and summative examination. The formative tests may be in the form of monthly tests, term tests, topical tests and any other school-based tests or teacher based evaluation in order to test the progress or diagnose weaknesses of the pupils in all the subjects offered by the school such as the Malay language, the English language, the Arabic language, Science, Mathematics, Religious Education (for the Muslim)/Moral Education (for the Non-Muslim), Local Studies, Physical Education, Music, Civics, Visual Arts. The information is needed to identify the progress, strengths and weaknesses of the pupils for the purpose of planning the next step for teachers and school administrators. However, judgment by teachers on pupils' achievement is not valid as an entry qualification to residential school (where the better performing pupils are streamed. These schools are the main suppliers of government scholars to local universities and overseas institutions). Only the result of the summative test is valid in the application to go to the national residential school.

The summative examination is done at the end of the primary school syllabus when the pupils are in Year Six, the Primary School Achievement Test (PSAT) or "*Ujian Penilaian Sekolah Rendah*" (UPSR) in Malaysia. Subjects tested in this PSAT are Malay Language 1 (Comprehensive), Malay Language 2 (Writing), English language, Science and Mathematics. The purpose of this achievement test is as the yardstick of the pupils' achievement in the primary school and is also used to stream pupils to the secondary school later. They either go to the residential schools (in creating elites) or daily schools suited to the level of their achievement. Co-curricular or non academic achievement is part of the merit considered for a place in selected schools however the co-curricular or non academic achievement cannot stand alone as a merit to further study, thus creating the conditions for meritocracy. Another side of the assessment also considers the performance of the school and teachers by ranking the schools according to the results of the PSAT. A better school is a better performing PSAT school as compared to the other schools. Such conditions result in schools putting pressure on teachers to produce better results which leads to pressure on teachers to teach to the test, narrowing the curriculum to topics or subjects of testing and ignoring the rest of the other not tested subjects such as Visual Arts and Music. I share the concerns of the teachers as being similar to my case when I was teaching English Language to the Form 5 students in secondary school. I was only focusing on narrative writing and ignoring most of the other skills in the syllabus. It produces good results for them to be used in their application to go to tertiary level and the school was given a better ranking and I was promoted.

1.4.4 The Worth of a School

However, the wider educational, social and cultural worth of a school cannot be reduced to the criteria that are being used to assess it. Despite that, even though a school is worth more than the criteria used in the ranking, one of the negative issues resulting from such testing frenzy has been the narrowing of the curriculum, with teachers reducing time devoted to social studies and other subjects not included in the testing programme i.e. arts subjects and music, in order to devote more time to test preparation (Brophy and Alleman, 2009; Houser, 1995; Howard 2003, Pascopella, 2003: Thomas 2005: Van Fussen 2005) of the tested subjects. Such emphasis on testing at school raises a tension between the Acts (see section 1.1) and the free education policy (see section 1.2) in practice as teaching is more about focusing on drilling exam questions instead of following the curriculum and syllabus provided. In short, the aspiration to modernise and compete through education is carried out in practice at the cost of too much emphasis on testing, resulting in a narrowing of the curriculum. For instance, in primary school, tested subjects like the Malay Language, English language, Mathematics and Science are drilled in formal classroom activities and during private or school tuition classes. Flexible timetable gives more flexibility for the schools for the tested level of pupils and prioritises these tested subjects too. Other subjects such as Music, Visual Arts, and Living Skills are less focused upon until sometimes after the test to give more time for the tested subjects.

In conclusion, the stated purpose of assessment is to evaluate the pupils' performance and to gauge the effectiveness of the curriculum. However, assessment leads to restructuring or modifying the present curriculum and thus as stated by Anagnostospoulos (2003:291), "bureaucratic organisations like schools measure assessment results as the formal indicators of success*".* Thus, the impact of assessment on teaching is that it reduces teaching to being the wash back effect of assessment instead of following the government directive curricular, the prescribed syllabus for primary school (Furlong 2005, Webb *et al.* 2004). Hence the role of assessment as a threat to the autonomy of education needs to be reviewed. Teachers should be given the autonomy to teach and rate the pupils at the level of school based assessment. As an educational reason, the development of pupils' ability and progress is best monitored and identified by the teacher in order to facilitate the concentration of resources, customisation and the creation of positive learning environments.(Dunne *et al.* 2007).

Hence, the effect of the concentration on assessment is that the top scorers or the 'cream' are channeled to the national secondary boarding schools as feeders of government or private scholarships. However, all the other pupils are still given entry to other daily secondary schools irrespective of the results in PSAT. Nevertheless, concerned parents consider the results as very important because better results promote

better chances to go to the more selective schools which usually mean a better network of peers and a better future.

However, similar to the idea of The Prime Minister 2010 budget speech (*www.lawnet.com.my/lawnetpublic/**2010BudgetSpeech**.pdf),* rather than teaching to a test, teaching is to meet the broader democratic purposes of education. So, the MOE with the collaboration of the teacher training institutions (in the handling and administration of the TS, the main human resource needed is the supply of teachers) and the Education Department (in handling schools, in service teachers and pupils) developed the teaching school (TS) programme. Thus, both the entities (the teacher training institutions and the Education Department) collaboratively work under MOE to deliver the curriculum at school. The current school curriculum is the standard document used as guides in schools. Thus, the next section will be about the Malaysian primary schools curriculum and the extent to which it is 'democratic' or fulfilling the aims of government policy.

1.5 The Malaysian Primary School Curriculum

The national curriculum of primary schools upholds the NPE (Malaysia National Philosophy of Education) as indicated earlier in the chapter, in section 1.0. In addition, the education system in Malaysia practices a 'centralised system of education'. This means that education is governed by one single body: the Ministry of Education (MOE) to manage all primary and secondary schools in Malaysia. In the context of curriculum development, the MOE disseminates the curriculum in schools via the Curriculum Development Centre (CDC). The CDC is responsible for planning, implementation and assessment of the schools' curriculum, syllabus and other support materials resulting in a uniformed curriculum shared by all the primary schools in Malaysia. The Textbook Division of the MOE interprets the curriculum and prepares a standard textbook for each year of schooling to be supplied to school. Teachers implement teaching and learning activities based on the curriculum, syllabus, textbooks and support materials supplied to schools.

In 1993, the Primary school syllabuses were changed to The New Integrated Syllabus in order to focus on integration both at an intra-subject level or between the different skills of the respective subjects, and also integration across the curriculum, that is at an inter-subject level between one subject and another or even the integration with several other subjects. In 2003, the New Integrated Syllabus was slightly revised and by 14 October 2010 as in the circular *Bil. 11 2010,* KP (BPSH - SPDK) *201/005/01/ Jld.3 (5),* another modification was made by the MOE to the current primary school curriculum and

was called The Primary School Standard Curriculum. It concentrated on "the integrated approach, holistic development, equality of opportunity and the quality of education for all and lifelong education." (Curriculum Development Centre 2011:9). The Standard Curriculum is modular based and put the emphasis on the standard content for the acquisition of specific knowledge and ability for each level of pupils as well as on measureable criteria or quality indicators for the standard learning activities. The prescribed curriculum is supported by standard textbooks, teaching modules and a creativity reference booklet.

The move to change the curriculum to The Standard Curriculum for the primary school had as its purpose the focus to have more meaningful and communicative syllabuses as well as to be more pupil-centered. The policy of the KSSR (2011) is to overcome the overzealous focus towards the primary school summative examination. It is handled by participating in meaningful interactions such as creating a school based evaluation by their respective class teacher for the pupils as part of students assessment rather than depending solely on the result of their Year 6 summative examination as part of their performance index. It is a move by the government to provide education suited to the need of the current competitive world which still has a bias towards teaching to a test. As Rust (2009:333) indicates

> "in countries around the world, governments have stepped into education at every level setting standards for both learning and teaching and the upshot the world over has been a move towards high stakes assessment of learning outcomes and of teaching effectiveness. For the elementary curriculum this has meant a narrow focus on the testable areas...."

So, the curriculum can be explored in terms of whether it narrows or opens children to creative forms of thinking or closes thinking towards rote forms of learning towards a test. According to Brophy and Alleman (2009:357) the school curricula "are organised to prepare students for life in the present and in future." The question then is, what sort of life? In relation to the innovation of the teaching school inspired by Dewey, other questions are: to what extent do the curriculum address social, economic and political interests? In particular, does it open or close the kinds of curricular processes favoured by Dewey? Does education develop both as an end in itself and for the creative development of people as a basis for democratic engagement argued by Dewey and others? What are the roles of schools then? Is there a critical difference between schooling and education? Does a well-educated pupil differ from a well-schooled pupil?

Accordingly, Schostak (2000:419) considers that:

> "Education has always been rather like viral action. It gets into the system and systematically subverts its genetic order. Schooling has always been the antidote to education, a pacifying of the masses. Both education and schooling has been

> frequently defined in terms of transmission. For schooling it is rather like the radio transmission of a message from the sender to receiver, where the pupil as the receiver is a good receiver only if the message is received exactly as sent."

Schooling is a formal form of learning taught but education could be undertaken even outside the classroom. Teachers direct their schooling activities based on the curriculum and expect the process of this schooling would in turn fulfill the pupils with 'education' as defined by Schostak (2000). Schooling and education issues shall be discussed more in-depth in Chapter Three (Literature, Practice and Issues)

1.5.1 Definition of Curriculum

The term 'curriculum' typically refers to 'a course of study'. According to Dean (2009:124) the usual meaning of the word curriculum,

> "covers all the teaching and learning which goes on intentionally and deliberately within the classroom and elsewhere during the school day. It is the work which those outside the school recognise as what the school is in business to do and is largely covered by the National Curriculum".

Hughes (2002:23) also considers the curriculum as a "planned course of study is also as the official or formal curriculum" as do Tanner and Tanner (1995) who assert curriculum is the planned and guided learning experiences and intended learning outcomes, formulated through the systematic reconstruction of knowledge and experience. For the learners, it is a continuous and willful growth in person- social competence. In addition, Ornstein and Hunkins (2014) describe a curriculum as subjects taught in schools, an educational plan defining the orientation to achieve the aims, goals and objectives of an educational action using certain methods and instruments required to evaluate the success of the action.

All of the above in this section basically see the curriculum as being summed up as the 'total instructional programme'. That is, they are programmes that are imposed by authorities and as seen by Bowen (2010) it is the total instructional programme composed of syllabus or individual course programmes. However, democratic practice in education explores alternative approaches.

For Burton and Brundrett (2005:32) there are three models: a teacher or subject centered ('top-down') approach where a predetermined curriculum is delivered; a learner-centered ('bottom-up') approach, where the curriculum manager determines or designs the curriculum on the basis of student needs; a 'partnership' approach which seek to bind teacher and learners to "a common enterprise combining external expectation and individual needs" (Silcock and Brundrett, 2001:35). The 'partnership' approach may be

seen as more democratic and thus may provide an alternative such as in the case of the TS under study. Furthermore, Kelly (2004:3) argues that,

> "within a democratic society, an educational curriculum at all levels should be concerned to provide a liberating experience by focusing on such things as the promotion of freedom and independence of thought, of social and political empowerment, of respect for the freedom of others, of an acceptance of variety of opinion, and of the enrichment of the life of every individual in that society, regardless of class, race or creed."

However, the elements of a curriculum according to the MOE consist of the:

- teaching plan
- aims and objectives
- listed content, topic and/or learning experience
- methods and activities
- instruments or materials needed to assess whether the aims and objectives have been achieved

Hence, the MOE approach is top down. Although Dewey is referred to, the approach does not meet his expectations concerning a democratic approach to education. Or at least, it is not clear how such an approach would be developed given the top down, test driven approach to the official curriculum. In summary, the description of a curriculum as an education plan created for a specific group of pupils or students to achieve aims and objectives needed is a very limited notion of the curriculum. Yet, in appealing to democratic schooling, the form of schooling may become potentially more open to negotiation and thus become more unpredictable (Moss and Fielding 2011). At one extreme, then, a curriculum can be imposed by policy and at the other extreme it can be entirely open to the interests and curiosities of the individual. Also, the curriculum can be used to engineer the minds and behavior of people in the interests of elites, or it could in terms of critical pedagogy, be a vehicle to facilitate a critical and emancipatory approach to reflection on society.

In sum, from the discussions above, in primary schools, the assessment of the performance of the schools is usually based on the performance of the pupils in the summative exam by Year 6 (PSAT). A good school from this point of view is a school with good results producing more pupils with high levels of achievement in PSAT, putting them in the higher league. A good school is also measured according to the performance in sports and other school competitions. Participating and winning in sports or competitions also places a particular school on the map.

However, Jackson (1968: xxi) states "classroom life is far too complex an affair to be viewed or talked about from any single perspective". Alongside the aforementioned

curriculum, there are three other areas of the curriculum such as the co-curriculum, extra curriculum and hidden curriculum that have a role in shaping the whole implementation practice for academic competencies and social behavior of pupils at schools.

1.5.2 The Co-Curriculum

In the co-curriculum are the supporting activities outside normal learning hours to build the personality and expected behaviour of the pupils. Some of the examples are sports, games and the uniform units such as scouts and cadets. All pupils must be involved in co-curricular activities allotted by the Sports teacher/s or the school. At the beginning of the year, pupils are distributed as members of a certain sport team usually distributed evenly between red, yellow, green and blue sport's team which may also may be labeled according to the choice of school (Satria House for red team, Cendikia House for yellow team, Wira House for Blue team and Bendahara House for green team). Sports preparation and Sports Day are usually held during the first term of the year when the pupils are not so busy preparing for the mid-year term test or the end of year examinations. Pupils are also encouraged to be involved in other subject oriented associations and on each Wednesday, instead of wearing the school uniform, are to dress according to their registered uniform unit.

1.5.3 The Extra Curriculum

The 'extra curriculum' includes the supporting activities determined by the school with a wider notion of education outside class in addition to the co-curricular activities such as debates, drama, school trips, camping and competitions. Some of the activities are done during the weekends or school holidays. Schools from the rural areas for example may plan school trips to go to the major towns such as Kuala Lumpur or other tourist destinations in Malaysia and pupils from the urban areas may plan for camping trips away from home as enrichment for the pupils. Interested pupils are expected to pay for the trips but sometimes the trips are partly sponsored by the school, Parent Teachers Association, private companies, wealthy individuals and/or also politicians.

1.5.4 The Hidden Curriculum

As a contrast to the preceding forms of curriculum, the hidden curriculum is the embedded knowledge learnt or experienced by pupils and are not documented or

planned in the school curriculum or by the teachers. Agombar (2006:133) writes that the hidden curriculum "can be quite difficult to define: if it's hidden, how do I know I am dealing with it? You may ask! And how important is it, if it is not in the 'open'?" This idea is supported by Dean (2009:125) "as soon as we become conscious of it, it is no longer part of the hidden curriculum." However, Kelly (2004:5) defines hidden curriculum as "those things which pupils learn at school because of the way in which the work of the school is planned or organised, and through the materials provided, but which are not in themselves overtly included in the planning or even in the consciousness for those responsible for the school arrangements." Some of the examples are culture, integration, socialization, accidental knowledge or accidental skills and school norms. The hidden curriculum according to Jackson (1968:36) could be identified by

> "...demands created by these features of classroom life may be contrasted with the academic demands — the "official" curriculum, so to speak — to which educators traditionally have paid the most attention. ... as implied in the crowds, the praise, and the power that combine to give a distinctive flavor to classroom life collectively form a hidden curriculum which each student (and teacher) must master if he is to make his way satisfactorily through the school."

These features of the Jackson's informal curriculum are the 3r's of rules, routine and regulations as the coping strategies and control techniques in school.

As such, the hidden curriculum is "picked up rather than learnt" (Hughes, 2002:23). For example, in primary school teaching in Malaysia, teachers are encouraged to think of moral values in their preparation of lessons. The interests of the teacher, the quality and culture in primary school contribute towards the development of the pupils. However, if the curriculum is only hidden to the pupils, the challenge in relation to the hidden curriculum lies on the ability of the teachers and the school administrators to disseminate (as a form of covert control) the values in all the subjects and school activities. Hence, it is crucial for the teachers and school administrators to be aware of the hidden curriculum for the preparation of the teaching and learning activities at school. What occurs though the 'hidden curriculum' has a significant impact on whether or not children learn about 'democracy' and how to practise democracy. For example, if the hidden curriculum is largely about obedience to leaders or experts then it will subvert any policy statements about the development of democracy.

1.6 Teaching and Learning

Teachers are the instruments in the implementation of the policy demands or the 'conceptual domain' (Schostak and Schostak 2008). From the discussion about the

hidden curriculum in the previous section 1.5 above, there is then a conceptual domain that is 'hidden' and a conceptual domain that is 'open' in terms of explicit policy. Thus there is the way in which the curriculum is officially conceptualized and the way in which it is interpreted according to the occupational cultural or traditional ways of doing things in schools. However, there are a lot of controls on what the teacher is able to do in the classroom. The teaching processes are based on the curriculum, syllabus, scheme of work, teaching plan and available resources. The curriculum (KSSR) as discussed in the previous section comprises all the subjects or courses offered in primary schools aims at developing the pupils competency in all the subjects offered in primary schools. The professionalism of the teacher with the close monitoring and controls described above in effect reduce their professional independence.

The syllabuses for each year of schooling are constructed in line with the NPE and the curriculum for the primary schools. The syllabus encompasses the skills, suggested activities and plan for the specific subject. It is a reference point for the teachers in planning the scheme of work as it contains the themes or topics, the objectives, the method, the activities and other additional information such as educational games or songs to be delivered to the pupils for the period of the whole year of teaching.

A powerful way of monitoring and controlling teachers is through the implementation of the routinely updated individual Teachers' Record Book. Teachers record the Annual Scheme of Work, the Weekly Plan and the Daily Lesson Plan progress as appropriate. The Annual Scheme of Work must cover all the skills and topics prescribed by the syllabus as well as taking into consideration other school activities such as monthly tests, sports day, public and school holidays. The Weekly Plan is arranged according to the Annual Scheme of Work, and should be written at the end of the week together with the daily lesson plan of the first day of the future week. For example, the two documents should be recorded on Friday for the preparation of the Monday lesson in the following week, in the individual Teacher's Record Book. Teachers prepare the daily lesson plan according to the scheme of work. The teaching plan covers the sketch of objectives and activities for one period of the specific subject. It is important for the teachers to write the teaching plan as guidance in conveying the lesson. The Record Books shall be checked and signed by the school administrator such as the Headmaster/mistress and handed back to the teachers on Monday mornings. It is an offence if a teacher fails to write a teaching plan before entering a classroom. Failure to constantly update the Record Book may result in disciplinary action against the teacher such as being given a warning letter, fined up to RM1000 and/or suspended from service. These documents are important as they serve as a guide to the teaching and learning

activities in class. Teachers are also responsible to regularly assess and update the record of the pupils' development in terms of academic performance and behaviours.

1.7 Conclusion

Thus in schooling, planning, implementation and assessment plays a significant role in determining about the practice of schooling. However, schools are also more than just schooling the pupils, as stated by Jackson (1968:6)

> "School is a place where tests are failed and passed, where amusing things happen, where new insights are stumbled upon, and skills acquired. But it is also a place where people sit, and listen and wait, and raise their hands and pass out papers, and stand in line and sharpen pencils. School is where we encounter both friends and foes, where imagination is unleashed and misunderstanding brought to ground. But it is also a place where yawns are stifled and initials scratched on desktops, where milk money is collected and recess lines are formed. Both aspects of the school life, the celebrated and the unnoticed are familiar to all of us but the latter, if only because of its characteristic neglects seem to deserve more attention than it has received to date from those who are interested in education."

In reflecting upon, the 'celebrated and the unnoticed' classroom events, the practice of democracy as implied in the implementation of the TS innovation is crucial to be either practiced or refused by the school structures, processes and practices as it determines the kind of society to prepare for. The decision depends on:

> a) Knowledge about the political system, culture and economy. … skills involving critical thinking and system thinking. … values that reflect autonomy, justice and care. (McQuoid-Mason, 2013:1).
>
> b) Awareness on the themes and content on, … what democracy is, how democracy works, arguments for and against democracy, and, cultivating and enhancing democracy (McQuoid- Mason, 2013:5)

This idea is crucial as Hiebert (2013:38) says:

> "Democratic models, on the other hand, work to cultivate the types of citizen characteristics which support a healthy, functional democracy, things like a sense of justice and personal responsibility, as well as autonomy and individual agency."

A more democratic curriculum implies freedom and equality in and outside the classroom activities in the practice of schooling. Its purpose would be to arouse and awaken concern for those aspects of schooling that give shape and voice to individuals, groups and communities in order to bring into debate aspirations and visions of a more

socially just society. Thus, the next chapter shall develop a discussion on the 'architectures of the social' as a basis for exploring how this may be accomplished.

Chapter Two

Exploring Architectures of the Social

The cause of democracy is the moral cause of the dignity and the worth of the individual.
John Dewey, 1946

2.0 Introduction

The TS innovation has implications for not only the individual pupils but also the TTI and the society at large. Chapter One has mapped some of the background of the broader context of the TS under study and this chapter attempts to interlace another dimension to the background of the study by delving deeper into the conceptual framework to provide an analytic development to the study. In order to do this, this chapter will discuss the 'Architectures of the Social' framework by Schostak and Schostak (2008) in evaluating the TS programme.

2.1 The 'Architectures of the Social' framework by Schostak and Schostak (2008)

The TS is the initiative of an educational vision of the Malaysian MOE. For an 'educational vision' to be implemented, there need to be the appropriate structural and organisational mechanisms, resources and interpretations of that vision by practitioners at all levels. Schostak & Schostak (2008:179) argue that first of all that,

> "for an idea to be made real in the world, it is conceptually framed. Questions can be asked in terms of their consistency and the relationship to how the world *is* or *ought to be.* But it is only when ideas - in the form of philosophies, value systems, policy statements, organisational plans and so on - meet the realities of practice and material circumstances that their 'truth', 'validity', 'meaning' can be accessed by those upon whom they impact. Individuals may generate the own theories, explanations, conceptual frameworks by which to explain the experiences of how the theories of the powerful affect them."

This approach can be illustrated in terms of Figure 6 below;

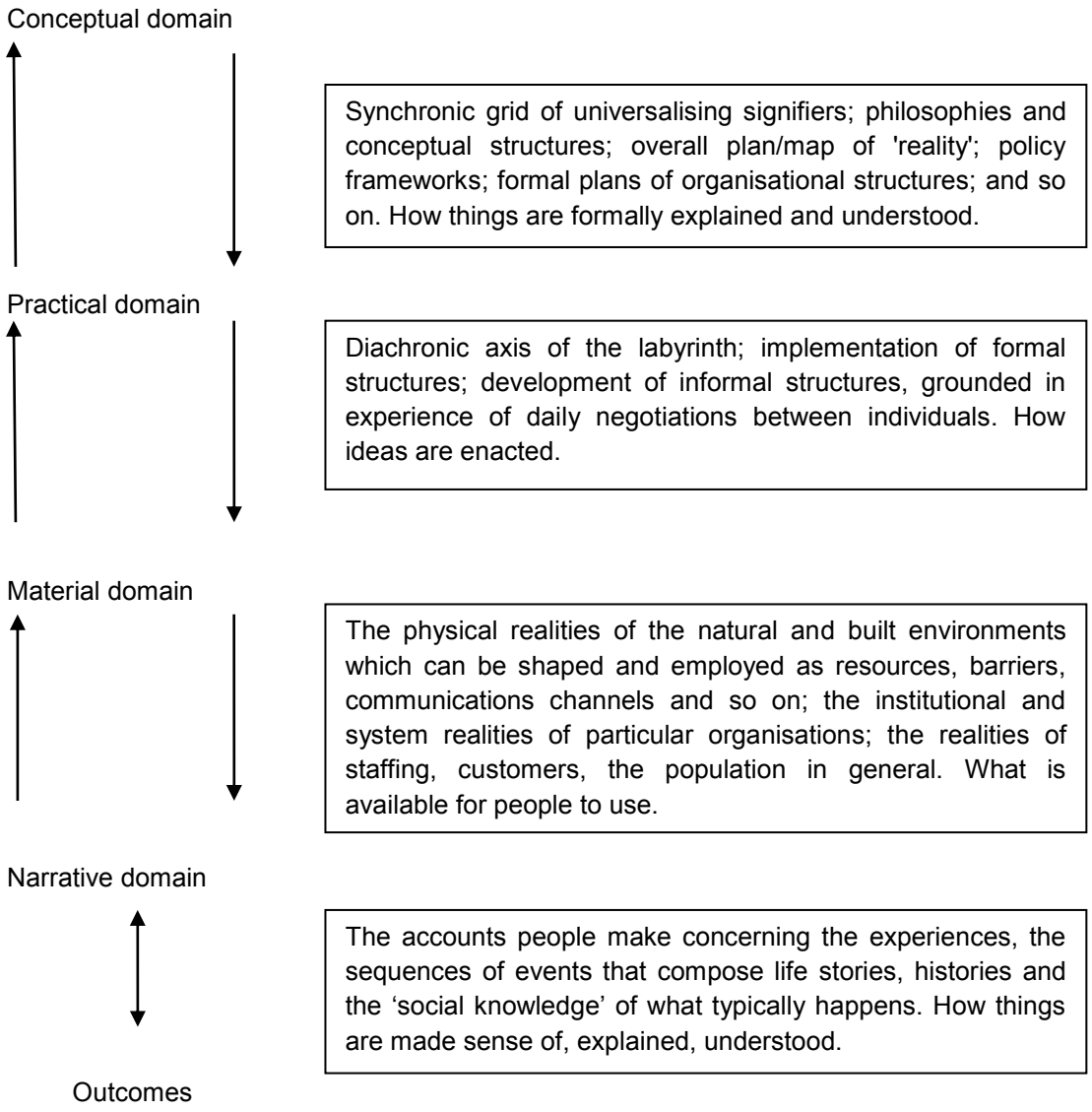


Figure 6 Architectures of the Social (Schostak & Schostak 2008:180)

The diagram, at its simplest, can be read top-down in terms of government policy driving the education system in Malaysia with all the structures, practices and resources organised to deliver certain government defined outcomes. However, the diagram can also start from the 'bottom' where people's experiences and their alternative visions are taken into consideration and brought up to be the conceptual domain of the government.

However, the extent to which any individual or group can do this depends on the relative power of the different actors involved. There is the issue of how powerful or powerless those at the bottom feel which shall be explored later in the Part Three of the thesis.

The 'architectures of the social' framework in this study will be employed to explore issues of evaluation of the TS in TTIs. The conceptual domain, then, briefly would be the government driven policy (see discussion in Chapter 6) in general and in particular as in the aspiration of the TS. It is a plan that arose out of a directive from the Teacher Education Division, Ministry of Education Malaysia. The only person available to interview at this level about the construction of the plan or how the plan articulated their meanings and intentions, was the Vice Director of Perlis TTI (one of the personnel involved as the MOE think-tank group of TS innovation). The plan is taken as the policy expression of the system of ideas that then were to be articulated in practice. Even though, the plan was the result of negotiations and compromises, according to the Vice Director, he felt that;

> "It was a very meaningful move, to have a school of our own. We (the practitioners) now have a say in the school system. The teaching school plays the main agenda now."

The TS was implemented in the practical domain through mechanisms previously discussed in Chapter One, such as the curriculum and teacher structures, as a means for the articulation of policy in terms of the formal structure of the TTI as part of the upgrading of the new status of all 28 TTIs in Malaysia.

Finally, through the narrative domain, that is, through the stories people tell of their views, their experiences, their practices it is possible to evaluate how the TS programme is made sense of, explained and understood in order to achieve the aspired outcomes; or to explain why these 'outcomes' are not achieved, or undesirable according to the people's own alternative visions.

The next section of this chapter focuses on describing views concerning the initial development by a range of key stakeholders in creating the TSs as well as reviewing the concepts, philosophies and discourses and practices that contribute to the implementation of the TS. The questions that shall be explored include: What is the relationship between the TS and the current vision? What is the kind of vision these would end up with? Would it be appropriate to the vision of the practice? If not, what are the other ranges of outcomes? Therefore, the next section shall discuss the key features for each of the domains of the framework starting with the conceptual domain.

2.1.1 The Conceptual Domain-The Vision

When Dr Mahathir was in post as the Prime Minister of Malaysia, he created Vision 2020 (Mahathir, 2008). He visualised Malaysia as a fully industrialised and developed country by the year 2020 including economic prosperity, educational world-class, social well-being and political stability as opposed to the branding of the current status of Malaysia as a developing country. Mahathir Mohamed (2008:11-17) outlines nine challenges to achieve the visions:

> Challenge 1: Establishing a united Malaysian nation made up of one Bangsa Malaysia (Malaysian Race).
>
> Challenge 2: Creating a psychologically liberated, secure and developed Malaysian society.
>
> Challenge 3: Fostering and developing a mature democratic society.
>
> Challenge 4: Establishing a fully moral and ethical society.
>
> Challenge 5: Establishing a matured liberal and tolerant society.
>
> Challenge 6: Establishing a scientific and progressive society.
>
> Challenge 7: Establishing a fully caring society.
>
> Challenge 8: Ensuring an economically just society, in which there is a fair and equitable distribution of the wealth of the nation.
>
> Challenge 9: Establishing a prosperous society with an economy that is fully competitive, dynamic, robust and resilient

The wider notion of the Vision 2020 conceptual domain requires an educated population. However, in a more critical sense:

> "education far from being a mere deliverer of curricula, of syllabi, of social values and so on, has a perspective on the issues of social organisation that are unique. Its role is to facilitate inquiry and encourage an awareness of structures and processes of cultural/social life, and to promote self-expression and action in the world." (Schostak, 1990)

Following this idea, a broader notion of education can be developed by which to explore the implementation of the TS.

There is a view that (Mortimore, 2006; Sun *et al*. 2007) believes that education promotes better generations and societies beyond the economics and is a universal global demand. Bangs *et al*. (2011: 1-2) assert that

> "We live in a global community where education is widely accepted as the medium of economic success. Understanding the process of education reform is vital in how we evaluate the triumphs and failure of governments. Even more vital is an understanding of how the relationship between those entrusted by governments to provide education -teachers and staff on the one hand and policymakers on the other".

Bangs *et al*. (2011) seem to reduce education to the role of promoting economic success in a globally competitive environment. Schostak's (1990) argument has been to expand the notion of education beyond the merely functional.

When it comes to policy debates data may be cited that shows a rising concern between pupils' educational performance and the ability to compete in an increasingly globalised economy (Bottery, 2000, Ball 2007). Globalisation, according to Hall (2004:5) refers to the

> "… social processes that transcend national boundaries. Economic globalisation describes a social change that is fueled by economic activity that is beyond the control of individual nation states."

The question that arises at this juncture is: what kind of school is appropriate to the vision of the nation not just for the elites but the whole range of communities and individuals? Partly, the TS should provide the experience to promote the vision of all the stakeholders and may be considered as an alternative practice apart from the national schools.

In order to contribute to the ideal of a balanced, harmonious, whole and integrated nation of Malaysia with its multi-ethnic society, the education system should create a socially just distribution of resources, fair wages and increased democratic participation in all the organisations that impact on people's lives (A Manual for Human Rights Education, 2013). The contributions from schools start with the equal rights to education for all regardless of age and gender. In reality it may be asked, how easy will this be to realise and more importantly what actually is the meaning of a 'balanced harmonious, whole and integrated nation of Malaysia'? Is such an achievement really in the control of the government?

Equal opportunities promote equal chances as stated by UNESCO (2008:38): "Within countries, governments and people increasingly recognize that unequal opportunities for education are linked to inequalities in income, health and wider life chances". 'Equal opportunities' as a democratic practice means to provide education for all regardless of status, ethnicity and gender. Furthermore, equal rights in education,

does not means just providing access to education, but also means the right to have democratic access to quality education. Access is the assurance to be able to enroll in education and later make the most of the benefits of having education. Quality education means education that caters to the real potential of the pupils as well as preparing them to meet the demands of the real world they live in, in the present as well as in future years as voiced by ”UNESCO (2008:38).

> “Progress towards the equalization of opportunity in education is one of the most important conditions for overcoming social injustice and reducing social disparities in any country.”

On the issues of equality Mithaug (1996:15) argues that people

> “do not want guarantees for the best in life, nor do they want unfair discrimination to frustrate pursuits that may prove successful. What they want is to be treated fairly and to have the same chance of determining their own directions and pursuing their own interests in others.”

His view may not be representative of what people want and thus cannot be assumed to speak for all people. It would be better to create the democratic conditions under which views about social justice can be expressed and acted upon. So, the question is whether the Malaysian policy that shall be discussed next is about creating these conditions or only about creating the conditions for the economy to compete?

The Malaysian National Policy (http://info.mohr.gov.my//dasar awam), is reported every five years in the National Blueprints of policies. The First Malaya Plan was in 1956 and at the time of writing the 9th Malaysia Plan is in its current five year phase starting in 2010. It has been striving first and foremost - especially after the ethnic clash on the 13 May 1969 - for national unity and the integration of Malaysians by indicating the importance of especially primary education. The indication of the importance of education especially primary education can also be seen in The Universal Declaration of Human Rights proclaimed in Paris on the 10th of December 1948 during the General Assembly of the United Nations. Article 26 (in United Nation 2006) states, “Everyone has the right to education... and elementary education shall be compulsory.”

In order to be a productive, harmonious and democratic country, policies are created to upgrade the qualities of living through education for the benefit of the people. However, there are questions on quality in terms of creating a labour force which was both disciplined and cooperative. Is the quality about docility, obedience or critical

debate? Are these policies really about democracy, or about creating a 'disciplined and cooperative' labour force that does the bidding of the elites? Thus, policies should be clear and in line with the democratic approach.

The policies are focused above all on the national education then the economic, social as well as diplomatic affairs. The objectives of the work ethics aim to instill moral values that create a nation that produce quality services without negative attitude in carrying out the relevant responsibilities. The National Education Philosophy in use since 1988 according to the Ministry of Education Malaysia (2003: 9) aspires "to build Malaysia into a developed nation based on its own mould" defined by the government. The nation's aim is to prepare and produce citizens able to face challenges of global communities and demands. This means that if the aim is to prepare the citizens to face future challenges, the education system according to the 'mould' should be prepared to produce such citizens. How the 'mould' would be prepared should be through thorough study and consideration of the nation's capabilities, resources and realistic anticipation of future challenges.

Thus, the content of education or the curriculum should be designed to meet all required necessities by the representing elites of the nation as well as, as a preparation for the global demands. If the 'mould' includes education in its wider definitions (as contrasted to schooling, see section 3.1) then it has the potential to 'equip' with skills as well as contribute to the conditions for democracy.

It has the potential to equip people with the skills, attitudes and norms needed to hold governments to account, to challenge autocracy and to assess policies that affect their lives (Glaeser *et al.*, 2006). Nancy Fraser in Kelly (2003:124) defines democracy as "a process of communication across differences, where citizens participate together in discussions and decision-making to determine collectively the condition of their lives". Then, if schools are to be the training ground preparing pupils for the real world, schools should expose democratic experiences to the pupils. As expressed by Schostak (1990: 5) "schools can provide a useful first model for thinking about institutions in general and the communities or clients they serve"

The Malaysian National Education policy as indicated in the Chapter 1, is a formal document that is a point of reference for education in Malaysia. One of the main means of disseminating the explicit philosophy of producing 'balanced' pupils in terms of intellectual, physical, mental and spiritual development is through primary schools. In the primary school, a key vehicle for realising the policy vision at the conceptual domain (see Chapter 2 for discussion) is through the curriculum which is timetabled in terms of classroom periods. In a curriculum, an integrated, holistic and standard application of

knowledge acquired at school may be applied in the real-world of the daily routines of the pupils as they develop and grow in school as well as being applied in their lives outside of school and later when they are adults. In this sense, school programmes would be a preparation for a 'future fairer word' as defined by 'equality with freedom'; (Schostak and Schostak 2013). Thus, the management roles in the organisation of the TS and the management of infrastructures and facilities are vital to be assessed by the people democratically from time to time to ensure the connection of practice and the 'future fairer world'.

In carrying out the curricular and co-curricular activities, schools act as the mechanism through which the products (pupils) are considered to be the drivers of the future, for the nation. As described earlier (section 1.5.4) how pupils pick up attitudes may be explicitly as part of the official curriculum or implicitly as through the 'unexpressed hidden curriculum' (Jackson 1968) which is learnt not only from what is taught in classes, but also how classes are taught and organised and from the attitudes of the teachers, staff and the wider experiences of the school as a learning environment. Hence, schools are very powerful in shaping the community. Such a vision aligns with ideas that teaching is a culturally and politically ends driven pursuit (Hargreaves & Goodson 1996, Richardson & Roosevelt 2004). Even so, primary school has to be justified and compulsory education should not necessarily be the only approach to forming future generations and there are alternative approaches to conceptualizing the 'curriculum'. Each alternative offers different approaches that may have different political and social implications.

In particular, the National Education Policy as the wider concepts of education can be considered as part of the *conceptual domain (Schostak and Schostak 2008)* that then has to be interpreted and enacted. It is a formal document that in the practical organizational domain the education system of Malaysia should mirror. Teachers are required to embrace the essence of the philosophy and place it at the core of each lesson while delivering the lesson in class and other responsibilities to ensure the realisation of the national aim for example by explicitly spelling out the moral values intended to be inculcated in the respective planned lesson. The implications from the National Philosophy for the school curriculum include creating harmonious and balanced lessons, concentrating on the absorption of moral values, reformation of public orientation in terms of goals and values and perhaps changes in the syllabuses appropriate for the needs of the pupils. The discussion indicates that already there are multiple discourses at the conceptual level. These may overlap or may contest each other. The contestations will have implications for the forms of organisation.

According to the policy vision, schools have to employ more (a greater quantity of) professional teachers involving a positive vision and mission through adjustment of the strategy and techniques of teaching as the core of the standard operating procedure for educationists and/or teachers. Professional teachers are defined by the Ministry of Education in terms of the behaviour or conducts expected from the practitioners in the education system. The practitioners have the knowledge of when, where and how to draw a line imposed by the rules and regulations at work in accordance to the orders of the Public Service Department Malaysia. This calls for forms of school organisation that create appropriate situation/s for not only the pupils but also teachers in potentially developing possible norms of the practice in achieving excellence. The achievement of the policy defined aspirations is crucial for the stakeholders because it reflects how far the philosophy is being applied in the planning and development of schools, in particular the TSs.

The following objectives are explicitly stated in the concept paper by the Teacher Education Division (BPG 2003) of the implementations of the TS;

- To provide clinical experience to the teacher trainees. Clinical experience in this context means gaining exposure in teaching and learning activities with real pupils in a real setting of the classrooms in order to assist them in the practice of teaching and learning in the primary schools.

- To implement educational research that would involve teachers, pupils and school activities in order to increase the quality of teaching and learning for the students as well as to upgrade the understanding of future teachers and teacher training in educational practice via research, experiment, enquiry, assessment and practice.

- To create innovation in school in the teaching and learning practice in the classroom.

- To add more experience to teacher trainees towards the ambience (school climate) and practice in schools apart from the compulsory practical programme for the teaching practice.

As well as defined in the official policy documents as described above (section 1.4) are many possible formal and informal visions as to what counts as a TS programme. Each alternative will provide different criteria as to whether the objectives are being met as the rationale for my thesis which is to inquire into the practice in relation to the alternative visions for the TS. The list of objectives described above is open to interpretation in terms of different philosophies and in terms of different local organizational and occupational cultures. Thus, the three facets (the TS on paper, the TS

in action and the TS that people experience) of the programme will be articulated and realized in practice differently according to the different visions and interpretations. So, the role of this study is to explore the visions and interpretations in relation to the data collected.

The TS on paper is largely concerned to set out the purposes, intentions and reasons for having the programme from the point of view of policy makers. It frames the design phase of the TS and is articulated or interpreted in an organisation's policy statement, minutes of meetings and directives. In the action phase, the policy interpretations are enacted in practice and sometimes overlap with the curriculum that people experience and sometimes represents what actually happened when the TS is being implemented, It includes teaching sessions, the activities of the pupils and the discussion by the other stakeholders in the interest of the programme. These activities may be conducted formally or informally. The task of a researcher is to make a record of these: the different views, the multi-faceted understanding, or perspective of the TS that people experience. The researcher is trying to fathom out whether what is actually observed to happen differs from its appearances and if so, whether there is any way in bridging the gap between the two conditions for the enhancement of the programme.

In sum, the intention of the TS programme is to improve not only the classroom practices, but also consequently to affect the management of the TTI and the principles of teacher training. The TS showcase would also contribute to the enrichment of experiences of teacher trainees as future teachers and partly would closely link teacher training in working with schools. However, to what extent can this be achieved? And, practically, is the current practice of teacher training appropriate to deliver the above vision?

2.1.2 The Practical Domain

This section will explore issues relating to the practical domain focusing on the forms of organisation, roles, mechanisms, procedures and occupational practices through which ideas are interpreted and enacted via the current practice in teacher education, the relationship of teacher training and schools.

2.1.2.1 Teacher Education

In Malaysia, high demands are made on the job of teaching and thus on teacher education in supplying teachers to school. All the accredited 28 TTIs contribute to the education of pre-service and in-service teachers in Malaysia (27 TTIs are involved directly in training while the English Language Teaching College does not have an intake of trainees but focuses more on the resource planning and conducting courses for the in-service teachers and teacher trainers and producing modules).

The teacher education is in line with the instructional policies of MOE in setting the parameters for TTIs standard curriculum and syllabus for teacher training. The policies that specify standards, curriculum and pedagogy provides teachers with greater certainty about what and how to teach (Archinstein and Ogawa 2006, Schmoker & Marzano 1999) which raises the quality of instruction, improve student achievement and promote equality across the educational setting (Slavin 2002). Conversely, there are criticisms that argue that these policies narrow teachers' discretion and focus on lower order learning (Darling-Hammond 1997, McDonald 1992, McNeil 2000) by limiting flexibility and inquiry oriented teaching and learning practices (Berliner 1992, Sykes 1999). Arguably, Rice (2003: vi) considers that, "the evidence indicates that neither an extreme decentralised bureaucratization nor a complete deregulation of teacher requirements is a wise approach for improving teacher quality." Hence, the practices are not considered coherent by Rice (2003) with the TS policy as there are differences in vision. Additionally, teacher education in Malaysia shapes the content of what a teacher should know by following the structure of the policy and the syllabus of teacher education in line with the school syllabuses.

Even though, teaching may be viewed by some (Etzioni 1969, Ingersoll 2003) as semiprofessional because it is not technical enough and meets some but not all the specifications of a professional occupation, the teaching profession is still bound by bureaucratic organisation and teachers are bound by policy, curriculum and syllabus and are not free to express the ideology or challenge the ideology of the practice; i.e. teachers articulating their own vision of education.

Conversely Taylor (2007) views teachers as having some professional qualities but a more general consensus (Beck, 2009; Burbules & Densmore 1986; Coldron & Smith 1999; Friedson, 1994; Hargreaves & Goodson 1996; Wise 2005) regards teaching as a professional profession. In a professional profession, teachers may still be bound to some restrictions of educational policies, but they are freer to articulate an educational vision that is different from the ideologies of the policy makers and the communities. In Malaysia, the freedom is bounded by the policies and visions of the Ministry of education, Malaysia. Bottery and Wright (1996:83) assert that:

> "A well-articulated defense of teacher's professionalism is only possible when teachers are aware of the public context of their teaching, and of the historical, political, and sociological reasons for the current nature of their practice."

Public confidence and support for teachers is an important aspect of the professional label (Wise, 2005). Furthermore, Wise (2005:319) warns that:

> "… if we do not move our field toward a profession of teaching, through increasing professionalization of teacher preparation, we will likely face increasing government regulation that imposes its own brand of uniformity in teaching practice."

Furthermore, teacher trainees selected from qualified secondary school summative examination candidates need to be trained for at least up to five years in Malaysia and need to pass all the exam/modules as well as the two phases of teaching practicum in order to graduate as a qualified teacher. Qualified in-service teachers are also encouraged and offered competitive places and/or scholarships to upgrade their diploma qualification to degree from TTIs and provided with opportunities of some collaborations from local (OUM, UPSI) and international universities (MPIK- UK Training programmes). These improvements are synonymous with the opinion as stated by Berk and Hiebert (2009: 338) that: "we conceive of improving teacher education as synonymous with improving teaching - the students are prospective teachers and the teachers are teacher educators."

Teacher trainees are gradually exposed to the classroom during their training programme as an important part in teacher training (Zeihner 2006) by being given training in a real school during their orientation programme and practicum periods but the experiences they are getting are too limited as they would be sent for practicum for 4 weeks in Semester 5, 8 weeks in Semester 6 and 12 weeks in Semester 7 out of their 4 year teacher training course in TTIs. During these times, trainees are sent to a school and directed to teach in real classes according to their chosen major and minor subjects. The mentoring of those selected is by subject qualified in-service teachers. A schedule three to five 5 teaching practice observations is done by the mentor (in-service teacher) and the lecturers during this period. The teacher trainees spent more time under the supervision mentoring of the experienced teachers and hope to generate good practice with deeper understanding of teaching and learning from teachers in real settings (Schwille 2008). Barnett (1995:45) states that mentoring is "to assist protégées in becoming autonomous professionals, reflect and solve problems as experts". During the practicum, teacher trainees build and maintain relationships with the mentor and other teachers based on teaching professionalism and learning opportunities.

However, studies focusing on aspects of teacher trainees' preparation (Hoffman *et al*. 2005, Kennedy 1998, Walsh *et al.* 2006) such as in teaching reading, writing and mathematics show that the experiences trainees get are limited. Trainees are only trained under the supervision of teachers and teacher trainers as professionals with special knowledge in teaching and learning strategies to tackle the complexities of classroom management as part of a preparation for the pupils of their participation in the community (Darling-Hammond *et al.* 1999; Mc Laughlin & Talbert 2001). It is important to do this according to the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (1999:31) as:

> "… teachers are members of learning communities. Accomplished teachers contribute to the effectiveness of the school by working collaboratively with other professionals on instructional policy, curriculum development and staff development."

However, teachers may simply pass on occupational cultures that are at odds with a more democratic vision, or indeed, the policy vision. In addition, presumably, it is critical to know, in what way are they 'accomplished' and whether the 'accomplishment' is recognised by the administrators or the inspectorates as at least 'the best practice' in classroom instruction.

Nonetheless, for teacher education apart from the organised and planned instruction, there is also a 'hidden curriculum' of teacher training, as teachers learn through experience with and from the colleagues, students/pupils such as during the two phases of practicum, in the environment inside and outside the classroom/school. As an illustration, based on the discussion of the reflective notes of Perlis teacher trainees recorded at the end of each lesson during their practicum, the teacher trainees and their supervisors have discovered classroom management is their hardest task and feel that teacher education should incorporate more 'real' experiences in that area rather than theories learnt in the classroom while practice ensure that the experience remains conservative and thus inhibits change. Sentiments on differing schools of thought of whether the experience would remain conservative create challenges and demands for alternative teacher education programmes. It can be argued that the TS programme should be able to bridge the gap between teacher training and the real-life of teachers in real primary schools as there are implications for the policy defined teacher education, the occupationally defined teacher education and the teacher education that draws upon more philosophical approaches such as Dewey's. Thus, the TS following a Dewey-like approach may be organized as the exploring ground in the creation of more democratic opportunities in primary schools. Thus to create more democratic opportunities, it would be crucial to be able to connect to teachers in schools when they are in-service and also

even during their pre-service, while still in training because practicing teachers may have quite different visions of 'education' and of what teacher trainees ought to know and do.

Hence, the key practical instrument through which the vision is enacted is through the practical domain of teacher education. Teacher training is provided in TTIs to prepare teachers professionally before being posted to schools later. The conservative nature of the experience of classroom teaching could undermine the teacher training unless teachers are shown how to overcome the conservative nature.

2.1.2.2 Teacher Training Institutions and Schools

A TTI is responsible for the training of the pre-service and in-service teachers to be supplied to schools. The lecturers or the teacher trainers work in the TTIs to train teachers. In primary schools, teachers are responsible to teach pupils to finish the syllabus and attain the qualification which befits them. Both TTIs and schools are the mechanisms for the provision of education in Malaysia under the broad umbrella of the MOE. However, TTIs are under the management of a Rector of IPGM while schools are directed under the governance of the Director of Schools Department, as explained in Chapter 1, section 1.3.

During the practicum period especially, TTIs distribute teacher trainees to schools across the country to practise in the classroom what is learnt theoretically. Letters are written to the schools giving the particulars of the teacher trainees as well as the subject majors and minors and the number of classes expected to be given to them. Schools normally comply with the instruction but there are instances where the instructions are denied due to the demands of the administration of the school. For example, in schools with a shortage of teachers, trainees are taken as temporary relief teachers. As another example, trainees may not be given chances to practice their major or minor subject as much as wanted due to the limited number of lessons/classes for the requested subject. Even though the practicum is the transition between the learnt classroom situations to the reality of classroom practice; some practicum experiences may not be representative of another real classroom and real practice as a teacher.

Thus, when TTIs are directed to open the TS under their management, the TTIs have to work with schools by merging the two mechanisms to work as one. This intervention presents a significant challenge (Glennan *et al*. 2004) as implementation of such an innovation will require preparation in terms of finance, facilities and a high degree of implementation support from the top administration to the practice level of the programme.(Berends *et al.* 2002).

So, how do lecturers and teacher trainers in the TTI respond to the challenge of the implementation of the TS? To what extent are the lecturers themselves involved in the creation of the TS? What values, knowledge and skills do lecturers need, in order to work with schools? What is the role of the TTI in qualifying lecturers or teachers to create and manage a TS? How can teacher educators support this process for the pre-service and in-service teachers to work in the TS? On the other hand, how would the teachers react to this new development of the 'merger of TTI and schools'? What are the implications of the TS programme to the policymakers, administrators and teachers? These are some of the questions that may be explored and discussed in the Part Three of the thesis.

Even the lecturers involved in the TS programme had a range of differing points of view. Some saw the TS as affecting the nature of the institutional relationship and responsibilities, others as about how to create a better school or to meet the challenge of creating a TS as a showcase and some even thought of it as being too ambitious in going into unknown territory.

> **Aminah**: "Our post is lecturers not teachers (primary school). The syllabus differs and we have to learn or re-learn again."

From Aminah's perspective, the teaching syllabus in the TS compared with the lecturers teaching in TTI differ and implies added responsibility which is not within her scope of duty as a lecturer of TTI. However, Arissa, below, considers the TS as a ground of opportunity in creating the TTI school model.

> **Arissa**:"It is a challenge! Of course we can! (*Malaysia Boleh!)* We can create our own school, our showcase and our model."

However:

> **Badrul**: "I think we are treading on unknown territory here and to have 2 in 1 (to be both a lecturer and a teacher) is ambitious"

Such statements as these challenge the direction of the development of the TTI, especially challenging the committee members in developing the TS, as the differing perspectives are taken into account and discussed to meet legal and policy requirements. Priorities are set through consensus by the Steering Committee of the TS in the implementation of the TS to ensure conflicts (if any) are resolved followed by a written directive (whenever necessary). For example, in response to Aminah's comments above, her refusal is valid as the new role is not part of her responsibilities as a lecturer in the TTI unless a written directive is produced to instruct her to do so. She can hardly be 'sent away' on that ground and the only implication from the refusal is to be marked negatively on her annual appraisal for 'professional behaviours'. However, this is a powerful control mechanism which will influence her behavior. There are many other instances where

teachers or lecturers are seconded to other institutions with a differing responsibility provided there are directives to do so from higher authorities such as from the director or the director general of MOE. However, professional readiness is also related to the material domain of the institution as shall be discussed in the next section.

2.1.3 The Material Domain

The Material Domain includes the physical and human resources to be employed. It is principally about resources and how those resources are employed to bring about the aims and intentions of a given policy or vision.

In practice, the content of the Malaysian Curriculum is controlled by the MOE Curriculum Development Centre in terms of planning and schools are responsible for the interaction of the practice and resources with teachers playing the role of the curriculum implementer through the prescribed syllabus and the resources created (such as textbooks) and employed in its execution for the respective subjects. Thus, the planning and implementation of the national curriculum is a top-down process and uniformity of the syllabus is established. Den Heyer (2008:253) asserts at length that:

> "Curriculum defines a set of statement questions and concerns about the world that provides a path upon which students and teacher relationships form in the world. Standardized tests, textbooks, schedules and courses not only define which knowledge, questions and representations about the world count, but they also mediate relationships in the social world of schools between students, between students and teachers, and between teachers, administrators and their communities. Interpreted critically, curriculum is a social and political project to render these statements, questions, concerns and relationship 'natural' and thereby 'invisible' as potential subjects of students inquiry."

The view of den Heyer is shared by Apple, 1985, 1986; Giroux, 1983; Popkewitz, 1998 with a highly critical view of schooling arguing that teachers and teacher educators should employ critical pedagogy in the training school to enhance the quality of learners' education by making visible the social and political stakes in developing conceptual tools and the use of resources for the practice of education. According to den Heyer (2008:254);

> "There are several potential benefits for students from situating schooling practices and curricular as objects for student inquiry. Education objectives that

> call for critical and reflective student inquiry are severely curtailed if those skills cannot be applied to the long and often stressful formal education as a historically curious and contested set of concerns, questions and learning relationships."

The implementation of the primary curriculum is later assessed by the national public examination prepared by the National Examination Syndicate when the pupils are in Year Six in the Primary School Achievement Test (PSAT) with the implications of creating the physical human resource for the future. The results would be used to measure the achievement of the pupils. Therefore, schools as a form of material resource in the production of skilled human resource for future employment are schools that produced better results. They are assumed to be a school of better performance in producing better pupils and thus are of better quality or more effective type of schools. (Chapman *et al*. 2005; UNESCO 2008). Better quality or effective schools are accepted as schools that produce excellent results in two or three consecutive years (Charil 1997, Levine, 1990; Zabidi, 2005).

Publications and interests in education especially the interest in terms of creating human capital, namely through primary schooling, have been ongoing for decades and research on primary schools in Malaysia is also done by UNESCO- UIS (2008) as in a 294 page report on A View Inside Primary schools of Malaysia and ten other countries: Argentina, Brazil, Chile, India, Paraguay, Peru, Philippines, Sri Lanka, Tunisia and Uruguay. As a snapshot, some of the core points regarding the primary schools of Malaysia are:

> "Malaysia had the best-resourced schools in this study with typically 80 percent to 100 percent of pupils were in schools that had every resource item." UNESCO-UIS (2008:51); "Malaysia had well qualified heads and staff, good staff stability and a low pupil-teacher ratio." UNESCO- UIS (2008:90); The reading teachers taught about 50 hours per year more than the mathematics teachers. This reflects the curriculum emphasis. UNESCO- UIS (2008:132);*"* In general, the teachers had a 'pupil centered' approach. On the other hand, many pupils had teachers who stressed rote learning by 'repeating sentences', 'copying from the blackboard' and 'reciting and chanting'. The assessment strategies relied mostly on exercises in notebooks, responses in class, and homework assignments." UNESCO- UIS (2008:152); *"*The mean score of the index of *Professional satisfaction* was high compared to most other WEI-SPS countries". UNESCO- UIS (2008:171)

It can be argued then that Malaysia has spent a considerable sum on the resources and facilities of schools in a bid to increase the outcome of the achievement of the pupils as part of the *material domain* (Schostak 2008), since they will be an essential part of the resources for the material domain in the future. In terms of the TS the *material domain* such as the funding, infrastructure and staffing appropriate to a primary school are the basic necessities of the programme. However, is that all there is to primary school

education? Are schools just machines with the resources to produce pupils with 'results'? As Schostak (2011:1) in re-thinking democracy, asked

> "where in our schools is there the space for real experiences of democratic organisation and decision making? When it comes down to it, what real experiences do we have of democratic practices in any of the key institutions and organisations of our everyday lives. How resources are allocated and organized depends on the philosophy explicit or implicit in policy. Schools then can become a political instrument".

In offering alternative political approaches in education, Brophy and Alleman (2009:362) expressed that:

> "Better instructional resources are needed to support the elementary teachers' effort to help their students develop basic knowledge about society and the human condition. Controversy continues over what content is suitable for elementary students to learn, but the focus of controversy has shifted. Current arguments centred less on what is possible to teach children in the early grades than on what is worthwhile, why is this more worthwhile than alternatives, and how it can be taught effectively."

In brief, the whole section indicates that the question is how to organize material resources in order to achieve outcomes that are appropriate to democratic purposes and who decides on what is worthwhile for the TS practice. The material domain plays a very crucial role in promoting the type of education suited to the vision of the TS. For this reason, the content and processes of practice such as in the TS should be critically examined and the perspectives of people effectively involved in the implementation of the programme should be taken into account by the policy makers. For Rancière (1999) democratic decision making should be 'faithful to the disagreement'. That is, the differences and disagreements of people should not be overruled. There needs to be solution that includes disagreements. This is why it is important to explore the narrative domain as the domain where disagreements come to light through the conversations, debates, arguments and disputes of actors.

2.1.4 The Narrative Domain

Narrative is a way of exploring in detail the accounts people make of the processes and practices they undertake. The data from this comes from interviews, observations and texts. That is, stories are a way of articulating the relationships between ideas, practices, and the allocation of resources in the production of outcomes.

Narrative can be woven together or kept apart as people engage in their professional practice. It is also one of the intentions of this study to listen and interpret people's voices based on their experiences and perspectives from data collected. Robinson and Diaz (2007: xii) expressed that even "groups of people who had been excluded from social power could, and did, insist on change." However, there are two levels of the narratives; the stories people tell to make sense of their experience interpreting policy engaging in practice in developing forms of organization and employing resources as well as the narrative employed to make sense of and analyse the multiplicities of stories.

The narrative domain provides an approach to exploring and expounding issues of the programme using narrative interviews transcripts, biography, life story, history and real stories which shall be explained further in Chapter 5, section 5.5. It is the retelling of the situation, occurrences, lived values, state of events or experiences in the practice based on the personal or professional perspective of individuals' understanding, contextualises the principles, explains the moral dimensions and clarifies the actual practices of the TS.

Referring back to Figure 2.0 above, the representations of the 'voices' concerning their experiences and knowledge through the narrative domain particularly indicating the range of discourses and their articulation with practices and resources, would bring up pertinent issues surrounding the area of study. Through exploring the narrative domain, it is hoped that more incisive insights into how outcomes, the desired, the undesired, the intended and the unintended are produced.

2.1.5 The Outcomes

There is a range of alternatives in terms of philosophies, visions, policies concerning education and society. Thus what shall be explored in depth in the coming chapters 5, 6, 7 and 8 are the range of outcomes that can be analysed in terms of the different views and visions of the TS programme.

Consequently, the outcome of the 'critical exploration' of this programme can only be based on the experiences and practices of people closely involved with the TS innovation. However, the outcomes desired by the policy makers, teachers, parents and pupils may be subjective in nature and this subjectivity may cause problems in the quantitative measurement employed in evaluation. However, in what way is it subjective? It is subjective as they may be open to multiple interpretations, may be biased and also they may refer to feelings or intuitions that cannot be observed and thus are not measurable directly. Methods however can be contrasted and perhaps combined with

approaches that focus on process or content, where the evaluation is referring to the process itself or the meaning of subject matter. As an example, there may be a tendency to measure rather than explain and analyse the important real experiences of people involved in the programme as in explorations of the narrative domain. Thus, in the latter approach when reporting the range of outcomes of the TS initiative, it is vital to ensure the 'voices' in the narrative domain are not lost. The narrative approach shall be discussed and developed in a later section.

2.2 Application of 'The Architectures of the Social Framework' by Schostak and Schostak (2008)

The main reason for choosing the 'Architectures of the Social Framework' is that it provides a way of exploring the extent to which there is a gap between the 'ideal' and the actualities of practice and the deployments of resources. It provides a way of evaluating the organisational structures and processes involved in trying to implement ideas. It thus provides guidelines for undertaking evaluations of programmes such as the TS programme. It is a good fit on understanding both large and small scale democratic evaluation on how concept influences practice leading to the outcome pattern via the narratives of the people. This section shall discuss the application of the framework in the TS study as summmarised in Table 2.2 Application Stages of 'The Architectures of the Social Framework' by Schostak and Schostak (2008) below.

Table 2.2 Application Stages of 'The Architectures of the Social Framework' by Schostak and Schostak (2008)

Framework Stage	Dimensions explored	Information sources used	Data Collection strategies/ methods
Conceptual domain	abstract ideas, values, concepts, principles Illustration: TS on paper	government driven MOE –policies, practice, resources, curriculum- The TS Concept Paper -Minutes of meeting	-Document study -Interview (the lead of the Think-tank group)
Practical domain	abstract / concrete levels, role structures the actual interactions, forms and patterns Illustration: TS people experience. The activities they undertake, the forms of organisation they adopt, the sequences of acts undertaken	-lecturers of TTI -teachers of TS - pupils of TS	-FGD -Interview - Opportunistic observation - Document study
Material Domain	both at abstract/ concrete level, equipments, machines, human resource, materials	- Admin of TTI -lecturers of TTI -teachers of TS	-FGD -Interview - Opportunistic observation - Document study
Narrative Domain	the impact on self, dramatis personae words uttered, written of how people account for what they do, i.e., the narratives they provide. Dramatis personae involved in	-all stakeholders	-selected narrative principles and procedures

	a series of events that can be narratively related by actors		
The Outcomes	multiple perspectives lead to different evaluations of consequences, of what is produced	research participants ideas and all stakeholders	-FGD -Interview - Opportunistic observation - Document study

*Note: See **Chapter 4, section 4.2 1nd 4.3 for** further elaboration.*

2.3 The Discussion of 'The Architectures of the Social Framework' by Schostak and Schostak (2008)

Schostak and Schostak's (2008) 'The Architectures of the social framework' is influenced by the philosophical frameworks of hermeneutics, critical realism, and phenomenology and in particular the influence of Spinoza and Agamben (Schostak and Schostak 2013) in thinking through the 'architectures' of a radical democratic practice. That is, in thinking through how ideas are articulated and realised in practice in order to make changes in the material and social world that are consistent with the ideas and ideals of democratic discourses.

In brief, their views on radical democracy or deep participatory democracy seek more than to 'give voice' to multiple stakeholders, they seek a socially just and equitable society similar to the work of Laclau, Mouffe, Balibar and Ranciere. According to Schostak and Schostak (2008:208), "oratory is not about giving a voice to people, nor about representing people; it is about voicing, giving voice, being voice, having voice." The architecture of voice they advocate seeks to facilitate the participation of each and every individual in being able to explore, debate and make decisions in the context of disagreements. It pushes against traditional research analysis (mechanistic coding, data reduction to transparent thematic narratives) and seeks to create the conditions to explore and critique the complexities of social life.

This is articulated at two 'levels': the global and the local. It is articulated socially or globally by exploring the conditions for the emergence of democratic publics as a basis for creating the conditions for the development of social justice. It also is articulated organizationally or locally by developing the principles and procedures that facilitate face-to-face democratic dialogues and deliberations. This is also, they argue, the basis for an evaluation to be democratically shared among participants.

Similar to Schostak's (1991:12) approach of his earlier study, the present framework also is based on five propositions;

1. that individual lives cannot be understood except in the historical context of social and political activity;

2. that social and political activity cannot be understood except as it is realized in the lived experience, decisions and actions of individuals;

3. that social discourse structures mediate between individual and society in a complex of part-whole relationships;

4. that narrative accounts of experience integrate the processes of reflection, decision and action fundamental to producing personal and social change;

5. that education has a central role in the empowerment of individuals in the development of creative relations with others.

These elements bring forth the discussion on the strengths and limitations of 'The Architectures of the Social Framework' by Schostak and Schostak (2008) as shall be presented in the sub-sections below;

2.3.1 The Strengths

The Architectures of the Social framework offers some important advantages in setting out the conceptual framework of the thesis. The framework provides a way of mapping a social terrain that may involve communities, organisations and social networks. However, even though the framework may be crudely interpreted as implying there is a fixed structure for approaching the analysis of forms of social organization, it is not meant to be imposed upon data but as an aid to reflection. It thus provides a way of thinking about the relationship between social phenomena in order to explore the complexities of the social world.

The framework principally provides a way of exploring the relations between ideas and practices, concepts and connections, behaviours and reasons in order to try and understand the exploration of the TS under study. In exploring the value of the changes being proposed or made, processes of evaluation are then brought into debate in order to consider justifiable courses of action.

The approach focuses on evaluation as a way of designing rights with democracy at the core where everyone has the equal rights to public debate. The principles of MacDonald's (1974) 'democratic evaluation' and Pawson's and Tilley's (1997) 'realistic evaluation' inform the inquiry process. It is proposing a bottom up process of evaluation which involves both principles of individuality and equality to challenge a top-down process of evaluation which imposes hierarchical structures.

The framework also suggests a discourse of negotiation. Even pupils are involved in decision-making. The United Convention on the Rights of a Child (1989) has given the legitimacy for children to be treated with a voice to express and be heard. Additionally it is also very important to frame children's perception and capacities actively in the appropriate cultural and social context (Benson, 2001; Bruner, 1996; Cooley, 1902; Connolly, 1998; Harre', 1993; Mead, 1972; Pollard, 1996; Vygotsky 1978; Woods, 1990)

The framework is applied to concur with 4 inter-related properties of the practical application of grounded sociological theory of Glaser and Strauss (1999:237). The four interelated properties are: the theory must closely *fit* the substantive area, must be readily *understandable* by laymen concerned with this area, sufficiently *general* to be applicable to a multitude of diverse daily situations within the substantive area, and must allow the user partial *control* over the structure and process of daily situations as they change through time. In Grounded Theory (this shall be discussed further in the Methodology Chapter), fitness of realities is induced from the diverse data. Data cannot be manipulated or forced to fit as forcing results in distortion of the real phenomena under study. Understanding sharpens sensitivity and usefulness and enables the lecturers and teachers to grasp the reality of the TS programmed based on their own experiences and understanding. Whilst, the generality of the framework is used as a process of developing entity with the flexibility to bend, adjust and quickly reformulate at times of correction of inaccuracies in observation; a close awareness context existing around is a control of how best to counter a situation.

It is also a framework to approach dense and multi-layered data simultaneously at play through various grounded sources. Yet, in the rich natural case of closely linked daily events, the dividing lines of the different phases dissolve and are woven into the whole TS programme. The reality does not segregate the conceptual domain, the practical domain and the material domain. The framework helps to develop explanations and present them in a coherent way through selected narratives. The narratives may not be sufficiently adequate to narrate the whole scenario of the TS program. Thus, some of the outcomes may be hidden and not entirely shared in this study as according to Schostak (2002:115);

> … like any architecture, the model itself is a construction, a fabrication that hides more than it shows. Its complexity is not enough to map all that can be mapped because all maps fail to penetrate reality.

This then leads to an exploration of its limits.

2.3.2 The Limitations

The limitations of the framework are considered in carrying out the study on the TS programme. The democratic stance underlying the framework could be argued to be methodologically difficult to sustain, idealistic and problematic to work with as some of the data overlapped in understanding how concepts influence practice that leads to a given outcome. It is difficult to sustain in anti-democratic contexts. Most if not all contemporary institutions and political systems are hierarchical and constrain the degree to which all members of a given organisation or system can be involved in decision making. This means then that the researcher's processes of critical reflection that lead to particular interpretations must be made clear in discussions of the data. It is not a simple matter of applying a technique. The application of the framework in research is not a linear process. For instance, the framework promotes rich data that sometimes moves beyond researcher's descriptions of TS explanations of 'why' and 'how'.

If the task is to critique the hierarchies, then the principle of égaliberté (often translated as: equaliberty) as Balibar calls it is implicit in the application of the architecture. It is the principle by which to assess the extent to which the social architecture is democratic in terms of enabling the voices of all to be freely and equally heard and engaged in decision making. The extent to which people are unable to voice their views and engage in decision making identifies the boundaries to the democratic process. Part of the objective of the study is to indicate such boundaries in the implementation of the TS and its democratisation.

The other challenge is as with any research the approach can only provide a limited guarantee of protection of stakeholders in the context of controversial and sensitive issues where people are made vulnerable by hierarchical structures of control. This also means that people may not be willing to speak freely to the researcher. There are also issues of ongoing bias by the knowledge and experience of the research participants. Under such circumstances, certain issues may be given greater prominence than others and some issues may be totally ignored and it is actually difficult to get a full range of voices since there are issues of freedom to speak.

The objectivity or the comprehensiveness in this study involves getting the range of voices required to explore the framework. Each voice shall be considered equally as an expression of views in this study as in the principle of equality or égaliberté. According to Balibar (1994) there is a key principle of democracy which he calls 'equaliberty' the process of the extension of rights to all humanity. For Balibar (1994:211), '*equaliberty'* implies universality and:

> "means that politics is founded on the recognition that neither freedom nor equality can exist without the other, that is, that the suppression or even the limitation of one necessarily leads to the suppression or limitation of the other"

Égaliberté refers to the co-extensiveness of freedom and equality. That is to say you cannot have one without the other. If one person has more power (say through wealth, or social position) to act and to make decisions than another, then the freedom of the other person is constrained. Hence, freedom for all entails equality between all. In research and evaluation terms this means that all voices are accorded an equality of status otherwise some voices will bias interpretations of data. This enables a process of exploring those voices that agree with each other and those that do not in order to inquire into what produces the differences.

Another problem lies where the researcher is to avoid biasness in interpreting and selecting the voices while the thinking process is creatively and critically involved. Given this difficulty, it is important then for the researcher to make clear their thinking processes and criteria of selection of interviewees, observations and data extracts.. However, there are always issues to do with what people say, stress, omit or minimize. How then may the researcher deal with these? Where one interviewee may omit something another may include it. The task then is for the researcher to identify who omits, who includes and who stresses. In this way a fuller picture of what is at stake for actors can be described within a framework of the ethical principles and practices underlying the research. The Architectures of the Social framework implies that the researcher has acquired the opportunity and resources in exploring the TS programme. However, actual practice may not be able to accord with the democratic principles underlying the methodology. The task for the researcher is to make clear the extent to which access to people and their views was realised. Power structures restrict access to the kinds of data that are critical of the prevailing organizational order, therefore some of the data are confidential. Nevertheless to explore the framework fully requires access to those very areas of social interaction. Hence, the model poses a problem but does not necessarily provide a solution. The democratic model of research and practice is complicated to apply since it demands access to so many different voices and spaces where action takes place. Thus it could be argued that there are limitations to the application of the model. However, employing the model has the advantage of indicating where those limitations are and where further avenues of research are required.

2.4 The Conceptual Framework of the Study

How the Architectures of the Social of Figure 2.0 by (Schostak & Schostak 2008:180) as discussed earlier in the chapter are incorporated into the conceptual framework of the study is summarized below:

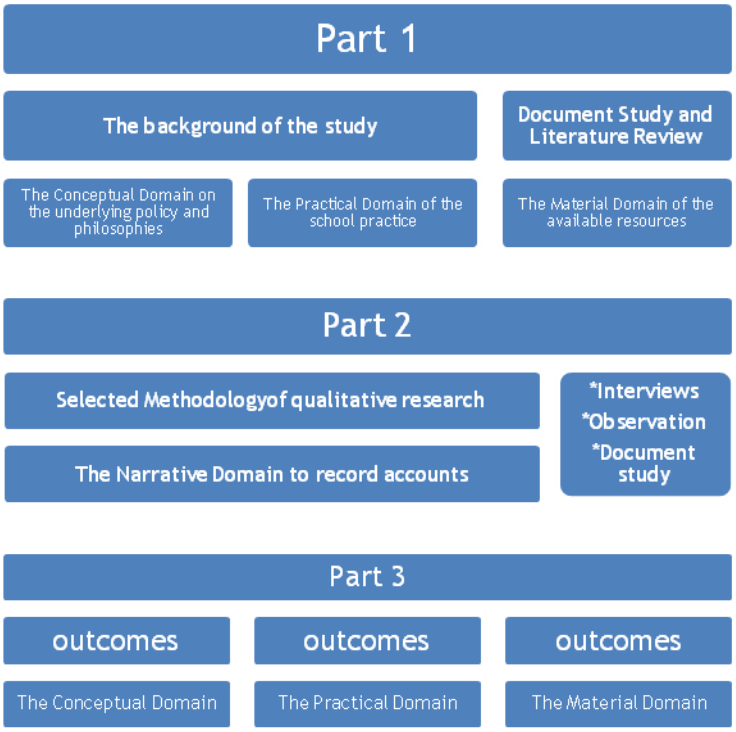


Figure 7 The Conceptual Framework of the Study

In sum, the background and the conceptual framework of the study point to relevant policy, concepts and ideas by giving an overview and scenarios of the issues and the conditions within which the changes take place. The framework of "The Architectures of the Social' discussed above will be further explored via the selected qualitative methodology discussed in Part Two of the thesis. The range of outcomes drawn from the above analyses will be further discussed in Part Three of the thesis in relation to academic discourses relevant to issues involved in furthering democratic educational practice.

CHAPTER THREE-

Literature, Practice and Issues

"Democracy and the one ultimate, ethical ideal of humanity are to my mind synonymous "(Dewey 1888)

3.0 Introduction

This chapter will explore a range of academic discourses focusing on the relation between education, democracy, schools and society with a particular reference to the views of Dewey as the underlying philosophy of this programme under study. This chapter will start by drawing a distinction between education and schooling as partly drawn earlier in section 1.4 before discussing education and schooling and democratic approaches in education.

3.1 Distinguishing between Education and Schooling.

According to Schostak (2006), schools are 'contested spaces'. That is to say, different interest groups have different views as to what they should be for. Different political parties will have different 'visions'. There may even be different visions and views regarding a particular 'vision' in the same political party of a government. Education via schools is a major area in managing the society and an educational vision is articulated in practice through the forms of organization chosen, the processes of organisational management and the mechanisms and procedures for the appropriate allocation of resources in order to produce the desired outcomes for the people. In a sense, there are many desired outcomes dependent upon the 'vision' of education and society. The key question here is, what socially and historically constructed 'visions' of education and the role of the school have there been that impact upon the present teaching school initiative?

In addition, schools and education are interlacingly related but there is a distinction between the two as expressed by Schostak (1983:134):

> "Schooling, as I use it, designates a political instrument with the object of processing and socialising children. In schooling it is part of the forbidden discourse to 'draw out' (or educate) the self as self. It is through education that the forms of reflection, expression and action articulate the self as a source of challenge to the old heroes of the social order whose actions do not liberate. In challenge there are the new heroes of the challenge, the new discourses through which the self is re-written and the course of life re-directed. And there are the narratives of challenge to be recounted."

Some characteristics of schools could be described as not only a place to acquire information but also to be educated and developed to be part of the community. The UNESCO (2008:25) document provides an echo of the distinction between schooling (as information) and education (as questioning):

> "Schools are not just institutions for imparting information. They are a place where children can acquire social skills and self-confidence, where they learn about their countries, their cultures and the world they live in, and where they gain the tools they need to broaden their horizons and ask questions. People denied an opportunity for achieving literacy and wider education skills are less equipped to participate in societies and influence decisions that affect their lives."

Bottery (2000: viii) identifies the link between schooling and education and the nature of society being produced:

> "The result is the production of education systems more than ever, geared to economic and technical imperatives, which lead ever more to the disappearance of debates about the creation of 'good society' , and the place of education in such a project."

This leads to the question of how schools should be developed. One way of looking at it is through school reform. At least, two 'alternatives' are offered either by giving autonomy to communities or to create 'competition' between schools. These alternatives have been proposed by the current UK government in terms of government 'free schools', academies and the marketisation of schools. School based management may be a good start in going for a similar direction as:

> "School-based management, which aims at giving schools and communities more autonomy in decision-making, is one illustration. Another is the growth of education provision models emphasizing the virtues of choice and competition, either within the state sector or through an expanded role for the private sector. "(UNESCO 2008:13)

The above alternatives relate to the Malaysia context in the interest of school reform. Malaysia, mainly consisting of public schools (UNESCO 2008:51) shows that, apart from the standard national primary schools, it was reforming schools through the implementation of the smart schools, vision schools, cluster schools, high-profile schools and the latest teaching schools as described in Chapter 1, Section 1.0. The development of these different brands or types of schools illustrates the continuous quest for school improvement to suit the need of the Malaysian society, at least from the point of view of the ruling parties.

As mentioned earlier in the introduction to the thesis, one of the backbones of the TS is Dewey's philosophy of education as seeded in the concept paper of the TS (BPG 2003). Even the naming of program as a TS program takes after Dewey's laboratory or Teaching School program itself. An MOE officer as a lead of the 'think-tank' group responsible in drafting the concept paper of the TS paper by the Policy Unit of the Teacher Education Division reveals in an interview that,

> "It would nice to have a school like Dewey's in our training colleges. When I was having my PhD in UK, my five boys went to school there (in UK). They love going to school, they can't wait to go to school. It would be nice to have that kind of response to our teaching school in Malaysia."

However, with respect to the 'Confidential (SULIT)' status (It is marked as 'Confidential' as it is still in the experimental stage and not meant to be publicised.), the concept paper cannot be explicitly shown (translated and published in this thesis) apart from the translation of the meeting development concept papers (The Perlis Proposal Paper and the Concept Paper of the Perlis TS as translated in the Preface) meant for the specific TS under study. Some direct translations from The Client's Charter of the TS under study to explore in terms of Dewey's potential in relationship in order to see how it is articulated in practice are;

- To prepare the best formal and informal education to the pupils since the first day of school.
- To ensure teachers and pupils are given chances to move forward and develop their own potentials
- To ensure safety and well-being of each individuals in the TS.
- To provide a conducive learning environment to the pupils of TS
- To ensure each class not to be teacher less (relief teachers to replace absent/sick teachers)
- To ensure high commitments of each teacher in delivering teaching and learning activities in and out of the classrooms.
- To ensure that the school office (staff) is always alert and responsive to the school clients by:
    - ✓ Providing a friendly, efficient and prompt counter service
    - ✓ To reply and respond promptly to letter of appeal or complaint
    - ✓ Always ready and willing to receive ideas, proposal and building/ positive criticism in increasing the performance of the TS education system.

It could be argued that Dewey was more concerned with democratic education rather than the traditional schooling. If Dewey's approach is chosen in the TS, it would introduce an educational approach but to what extent will it be realized? Consequently what does 'education' mean in Dewey's philosophy? Also, what is the importance of Dewey's philosophy for the Malaysian education policy? As Dewey (2007) asserts that, while there is 'the place of formal education' (ibid: 9) as a necessity of life, education is

viewed as a 'social function' (ibid: 13) to provide for 'direction' (ibid: 19), 'growth' (ibid: 36) as well as 'preparation, unfolding, and formal discipline' (ibid: 45). Thus, since education has also a social function, and Malaysia is a democratic country, Dewey's philosophy to provide a model of 'the democratic conception in education' (ibid: 64) is, it can be argued, vital to social development in Malaysia. However, if democracy is embraced in school policy, to what extent is democracy realized in school organization and curriculum practices? Dewey (1897:78) believes that

> "the school is primarily a social institution. Education being a social process, the school is simply that form of community life in which all those agencies are concentrated that will be most effective in bringing the child to share in the inherited resources of the race, and to use his own powers for social ends."

School is often thought of as a preparation but school is more about the present. Therefore, education is a process of living and not a preparation for future living. Throughout this thesis, the term 'education' refers to the more open, challenging, imaginative and creative dimensions of development of all whereas 'schooling' is being used to refer to the social control dimensions that are focused on reproducing society in the interests of elites (Schostak 1983).

Thus, the next section will discuss how the term 'education system' is being used in terms of whether it is synonymous with schooling or whether it aspires to be educative in Schostak's (1993) sense of the terms.

3.2 Politics of Education and Schooling

"A pupil is properly schooled" and/or "A pupil is properly educated".

Is there a distinction between the two expressions above? A pupil that is properly schooled is shaped in different ways for different future job preparation and according to Schostak and Schostak (2008:163): "The power of schooling is to create the conditions for manipulations. … where people are moulded to some externally desired criteria." On the other hand, educating a child is preparing the child to develop their own interest and talents.

The school must represent present life as real and vital to the child as that which he carries on in the home, in the neighborhood, or on the play-ground as the politics of education and schooling as shall be discussed in this section.

The primary school is one of the most important institutions for the development of the society and the development of people in it, schooling is shaped according to the historical background of each country but the historical background for each country is never the same. The direction of the education system should be developed according to the values of the society as raised in the earlier discussion by Dewey. However, the education system in each country is controlled by the government through the implementation of education policies to be administered in the education system and educational organisations such as schools as foundations for the dissemination of ideas and practices. Furthermore, as explained by Phillips (2000:8-9),

> "... what is taken to be knowledge in any field has been determined by sociological forces including the influence of ideologies, religion, human interests, group dynamics, and so forth...?"

The statement expresses that the processes and educational practice are determined by social forces in the world in which we live in. For the school and for social progress, Dewey (1897:78) asserts that;

> "education is a regulation of the process of coming to share in the social consciousness; and that the adjustment of individual activity on the basis of this social consciousness is the only sure method of social reconstruction."

Dewey's notion of 'education' is not identical with Schostak (1993) as it seems to include something of the 'regulation' that could be more compatible with 'schooling'. But Dewey also has a sense of democracy and the powers of individual children that could open the process to 'education' in Schostak's terms in order to bring in vision of schools creating the possibilities for 'social reconstruction'.

And Dewey (1907:79) drafts the charts of the school system to show the relation to the growth of individual children and its social aspects and necessary re-adjustments to the present social conditions. The question here is, is it about adjusting children to the present conditions (schooling in Schostak's term) or about creating the conditions for change (education in Schostak's term)?

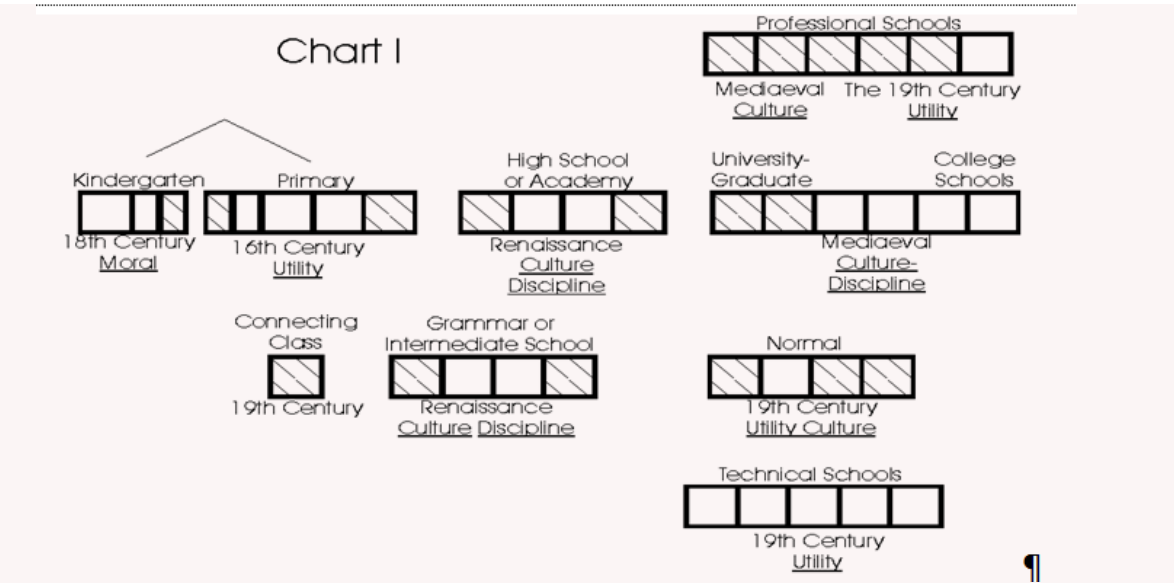


Figure 8 Dewey's Chart 1

As represented on Dewey's Chart 1, there are eight different parts of the school system which arose historically at different times, with different ideals and different methods. However, the continuation indicates that there is a certain interaction between the different levels of schooling from kindergarten to primary and then to the secondary school as part of the preparatory for a college or for tertiary education in later education as a symbol of learning to provide careers in life. However, the difficulty is that the different stages do not form a coherent whole from the start, so, the ideals differ. The problem in education is how to unite these different parts to secure and properly bridge the unity of the whole.

In chart 2, Dewey (1907:87) suggests that the only way to unite the parts of the system is to unite each to life by looking at it as part of the larger whole of social life.

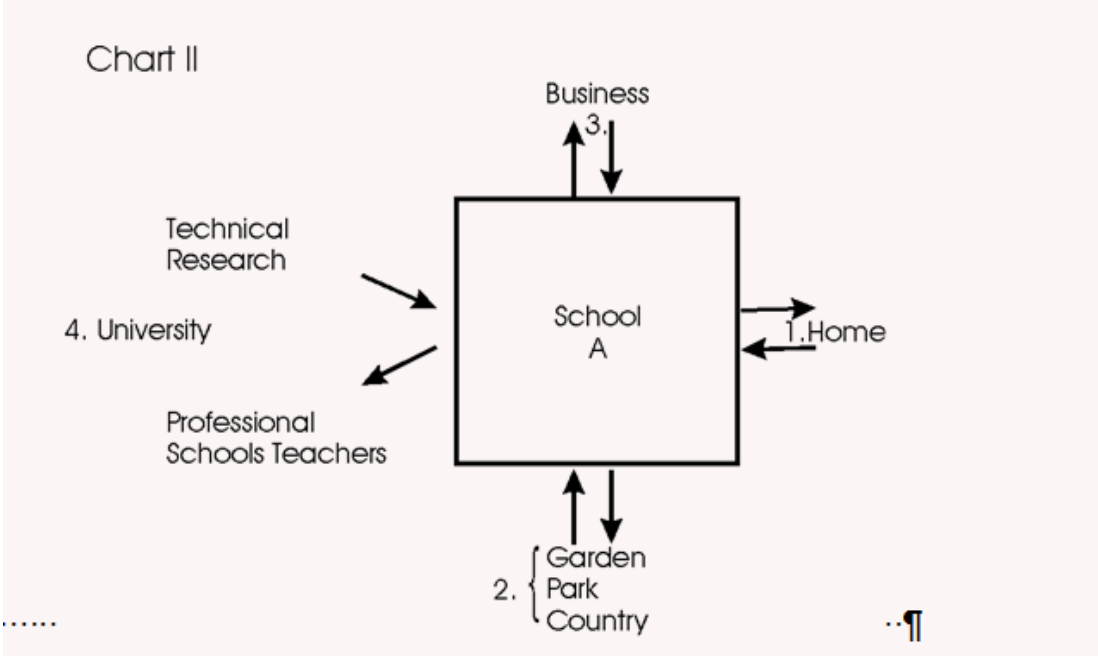


Figure 9 Dewey's Chart 2

Block (A) in the center represents the school system as a whole. (1) represents home and the two arrows represent the free interplay of influences, materials, and ideas between the home life and that of the school. (2) represents the relation to the natural environment, the great field of geography in the widest sense. (3) represents business life, and the necessity for free play between the school and the needs and forces of industry. (4) On the final side is the university. If the school is to be related as a whole with various aims and ideals, culture, discipline, information, utility, must cease to be variants, for one of which to select one study and for another to keep the significance of social connection.

Dewey (1907:109) in producing his experimental laboratory school stated that, "You know that it is an experimental school. They do not work under the same conditions that we are subject to." Because to him, the purpose of performing an experiment freely and securely is so that other people need not experiment because from the experiments they then have something definite and positive as a basis for knowledge. As reasoned by Dewey (1907:110) “we want here to work out the problem of the unity, the organization of the school system in itself, and to do this by relating it so intimately to life as to demonstrate the possibility and necessity of such organization for all education”. Consequently, education in furnishing its goal and standard has to be as a continuing reconstruction of experience. That is to say, the process and the goal of education are one and the same thing.

On the subject matter of education, Dewey (1897:79) states that

> “there is, therefore, no succession of studies in the ideal school curriculum. If education is life, all life has, from the outset, a scientific aspect; an aspect of art

> and culture and an aspect of communication. It cannot, therefore, be true that the proper studies for one grade are mere reading and writing, and that at a later grade, reading, or literature, or science, may be introduced. The progress is not in the succession of studies but in the development of new attitudes towards, and new interests in, experience."

Dewey (1897:80) considers that the question of method as the fundamental method of social reform in the attention and preparation of classroom presentations:

> "is ultimately reducible to the question of the order of development of the child's powers and interests. The law for preventing and treating material is the law implicit within the child's own nature".

This phrase of 'child's power and interest' is significant for later connections with radical democratic forms of education (Schostak 2010). Here the powers of the individual are stressed. A particularly important power is the power of free association as the basis for the formation of mutual organization for the development of social projects. This in fact contrasts with the traditional roles of teachers maintaining 'proper social order'. Under radical democracy, the role of the teacher would be as one who contributes to reflecting upon the forms of social order appropriate to realize the principle of freedom with equality for all, which is Balibar's (1994) equaliberty (égaliberté). So, in this sense radical democracy moves beyond Dewey's conception.

This can be seen in the following quote which seems to emphasise the role of the teacher in maintaining proper social order through the analogy with the artist shaping his/her materials. Children as materials seems to be a persistent theme justifying the work of teachers in traditional views as to the role of teachers in shaping people to 'fit' prevailing views of society.

Teachers should realise the art of maintenance of proper social order and social growth as stated by Dewey (1897:78);

> "the art of thus giving shape to human powers and adapting them to social service, is the supreme art; one calling into its service the best of artists; that no insight, sympathy, tact, executive power is too great for such service. I believe, finally, that the teacher is engaged, not simply in the training of individuals, but in the formation of the proper social life."

The aim of providing education as a social process as the art of giving shape to human powers is to enable people to disseminate not only knowledge but also skills and social habits to individuals as part of the preparation process to 'fit' into the society. In our

communities, in order to get the standard “equal” access to education, formal education is carried out via schools as Richardson (2012:3) states;

> “School plays an important role in our communities. … they are part of the fabric of who we are. Moreover, they remain the places where every one of our kids can go (in theory, at least) to get equal access to an education.”

Children as materials seems to be a persistent theme justifying the work of teachers in traditional views as to the role of teachers in shaping people to ‘fit’ prevailing views of society. In such views equality is being reduced to having equal access to ‘fitting in with’ the available roles of prevailing society as say employees. That is to say, children are to be fitted as subjects of a given society, not as creators of alternative and creative forms of social organization that may challenge the prevailing ‘proper’ order. Equal access is feasible as Rose (2012:185) argues that:

> “… the importance of the economic motive for schooling, our philosophy of education – our guiding rationale for creating school – has to include the intellectual, social, civic, moral and aesthetic motives as well. If these further motives are not articulated, they fade from public policy, from institutional mission, from curriculum development. Without this richer philosophy, those seeking a second chance will likely receive a bare-bones, strictly functional education, one that does not honor the many reasons they return to school and, for that matter, one not suitable for a democratic society.”

Education in Rose’s (2012) view for a democratic society should then, be distributed equally according to the needs of the nation even if the national interest are often defined by those with the most power as well as the interest of the individuals. And after 446 years under colonisation, the government’s long term aim on education would be the proper approach to fulfill the agenda of the new Malaya of the Malaysia government in order to restructure society and abolish poverty by providing equal access to education and economic opportunities. The results may not be achieved immediately and may need other supporting government policies in other areas. Through education, knowledge and values not only can be about creating the conditions for democratic participation in the development of education, also can be expanded and further developed. Moreover, through education the enhancements of social and psychological skills may increase the mortal status and at the same time retain the moral values of the society. Education is a national power in ensuring the future of the people and the distinction of the nation. Thus, there are alternative strategies that follow from having different definitions of education. In one definition education is conflated with schooling when framed by particular elite defined policies; in another it involves an emancipatory

vision and thus is an essentially political agenda of the government and as Kelly (2004:187) states that;

> "it is important to note first of all that education is essentially a political activity, that the education system is a device by which an advanced society prepares its young for adult life in society, a formalization of the role played in primitive societies by all or most adult population. The political context, then, is a major element in any scheme or system of education, and one without reference to which such a scheme of system cannot be properly understood."

Here it seems politics is being equated with government action but it can also be action that is grounded in the agency of ordinary people, and in some cases against government policies. Politics can be top-down or can grow from the 'bottom'. Indeed, there may be a multiplicity of political forms acting within a society which may be compatible with each other. Democracy, in its fullest sense, is a way of dealing with the multiplicities of views, interests and demands from different groups. Democracy in education thus is a training ground for democracy in the fullest sense.

The implication shall be further discussed in the next section under Dewey's conception on democracy and education.

3.2.1 The review of Dewey's Democracy in Education

Dewey's educational theories continually argue that education and learning are social and interactive processes and are a significant principle in the implication of human association in society is "the sphere of social contacts"(Dewey 2007: 67). In his view,

> "The devotion of democracy to education is a familiar fact. The superficial explanation is that a government resting upon popular suffrage cannot be successful unless those who elect and who obey their governors are educated. Since a democratic society repudiates the principle of external authority, it must find a substitute in voluntary disposition and interest; these can be created only by education" (ibid: 68)

Dewey continually discussed the importance of the ideas of democracy and social reform in education. In *My Pedagogic Creed*, Dewey, (1897:78) notes that "to prepare him for the future, life means to give him command of himself; it means so to train him that he will have the full and ready use of all his capacities" and "education is a regulation of the process of coming to share in the social consciousness; and that the adjustment of individual activity on the basis of this social consciousness is the only sure method of social reconstruction". At another level of explanation, Dewey (1916:68) wrote that:

> "democracy is more than a form of government: it is primarily a mode of associated living, of conjoint complicated experience. The extension in space of the number of individuals who participate in an interests so that each has to refer its own action to that of others, and to consider the action of others to give point and direction to his own, is equivalent to the breaking down of those barriers of class, race, and national territory which kept men from perceiving the full import of the activity"

Dewey (1902:13) had discussed two major schools of thought regarding educational pedagogy. The first is centered on the curriculum and focuses almost solely on the subject matter to be taught where he argues that the major flaw in this methodology is the inactivity of the student: "the child is simply the immature being who is to be matured; he is the superficial being who is to be deepened". In his second school of thought (Dewey 1902:13-14), in order for education to be most effective, content must be presented to allow the student to relate to prior experiences and thus, of minimizing the importance of content and role of the teacher "we must take our stand with the child and our departure from him. It is he and not the subject-matter which determines both quality and quantity of learning."

In the capacities which characterise Dewey's democracy in education, where members are educated to personal initiative and adaptability with intellectual opportunities accessible to all on equitable terms, Starratt (2003:91) asks:

> "What kind of a community do we want to be? What do we value most about the prospect of our life together in this school? When a new class comes into our school, what do we want them to know about us as a community? What do we want to be thought of by people in the wider community?"

These questions can only be addressed democratically if all voices are to be included in the discussion. In short, according to Starratt (2003:90),

> "education in this kind of citizenship involves a discussion of the kinds of meaning embedded in the community's understanding of itself. It also involves the practice of those ideals and values in specific and concrete ways within the school setting".

As such the implications for the curriculum, teachers and school practice is as Dewey (1902:16) notes that "the child and the curriculum are simply two limits which define a single process. Just as two points define a straight line, so the present standpoint of the child and the facts and truths of studies define instruction".

Consequently,

> "if Dewey and the pragmatic philosophers are correct, if indeed we learned what we experience, then the only way to guarantee a reservoir of democratic sentiments in the culture is to make public schooling a center of democratic experience" (Wood, 1998:187)

Dewey had not only re-imagined the way that the learning process should take place, but also the role that the teacher should play within that process. According to Dewey, the teacher should not be at the front of the room to impose certain ideas or to form certain habits to the pupils. Instead, the teacher's role should be that of facilitator and guide. As Dewey (1897:79) believes that too much of the stimulus and control proceeds from the teacher and he explains:

> "The teacher is not in the school to impose certain ideas or to form certain habits in the child, but is there as a member of the community to select the influences which shall affect the child and to assist him in properly responding to these Thus the teacher becomes a partner in the learning process, guiding students to independently discover meaning within the subject area. This philosophy has become an increasingly popular idea within present-day teacher preparatory programs."

In assessing the pupils, the forms of assessment must be appropriate to the process described by Dewey. If they are to be appropriate then they should be addressed to such issues as the child's fitness for social life

In terms of democracy in education a key aspect of 'fitness for social life' is based on equal rights to education. Education should be freely obtained with no barriers at least for the basic of primary level. One of the aspects of democracy in education in Malaysia is the provision of chances in education irrespective of social class, ethnic and gender. It is one of the national missions to expose Malaysian to all levels of education which cannot be obtained during colonisation and before Independence. The society would not be able to have the same prospect before independence as schools are classified according to ethnic group, status, curriculum or locality.

However, to address ways in discussing the 'democracy' agenda in education, Fung (2007:443- 457) includes a discussion of four conceptions of democracy (minimal, aggregative, deliberative, and participatory) deciding rules and to show how each conception can improve through reflection on the empirical consequences of various institutional arrangements.

- Minimal democracy has the account that, "democracy is more desirable than are other systems of government because it renders political leaders accountable to

its citizens and because it protects private liberties (Posner 2003; Przeworksi 1999; Riker 1982; Schumpeter 1942)" in Fung (2007:448).

- The aggregative democracy "hold that citizens can and do have rational political preferences and views and that these can be sensibly combined." Fung (2007:448).
- On the deliberative conception of democracy, "policies and laws should not only result from the views of citizens in aggregate, but also be compatible with the wishes of each citizen taken individually." Fung (2007:449).
- In participatory democracy, "citizens engage directly with one another to fashion laws and policies that solve problems that they face together." (Fung 2007:450)

The question is, to what extent does the organization of teaching, learning and curriculum development meet any of these criteria?

In the interest of the public sphere, Fung's (2007) participatory democracy is the most appropriate form of democracy for the people as their involvement is crucial in decision making. Even though involvement in decision making is not for each level or each minute activity, the frequency of involvement must be high enough in contribution. Democracy is a crucial tool in bridging the politic and economic welfare of the people. The task for the programme such as the TS is to provide the opportunity of training the practice of participatory democracy and good governance in the prospective of globally competitive society as the aspiration of the concept paper of the TS.

3.2.2 How Dewey's ideas of Democracy are reflected in the Malaysian policy

In Malaysia, after independence, the government gradually evolved education in Malaysia by providing broad opportunities for people to go to school. Education Ordinance 1957, proposes that all children at least go through formal primary education for six years. Schools are medium of educational discourses in shaping individuals in preparation for the future society of a democratic country. The preparation involves the development of mental, spiritual, behaviour and physical dimensions developing democratic citizens of Malaysia. In criticising the 'transmission learning' as the common practice in Malaysia, Hager and Hodkinson (2009:622-623) argue that the acquisition and transfer of teaching and learning is conceptually under the following three basic assumptions:

> "What is learnt is a product, a thing or substance that is independent of the learner; learning involves movement of this thing or substance from place to place; and what is learnt is independent and separate from the context in which it is learnt".

Along these lines, how might the TS seek to answer this issue? The implementation of the TS is a move that indicates modernisation of education but does modernisation mean democracy? Under neoliberalisation the modernization of educational practices is more influenced by marketization than democracy. Neoliberal practices as argued by Schostak and Schostak (2013) are more about "freedom without equality" than 'freedom with equality'. Equality as co-extensive with liberty is captured in Balibar's (1994) notion of égaliberté, a term coined by Balibar in discussing and critiquing the modern forms of democracy. Equalities have developed in terms of social rights and political representation; and liberty in terms of the degrees of freedom citizens have to contest the social contract in the context of the conflicted relations between humanity and citizenship.

There is a relationship between humanity and citizenship. Humanity and citizenship have different implications for education. For example, to what extent will a notion of humanity lead to demands for a multicultural, multi-faith, multi-linguistic focus where different histories are equally valued? To what extent then will citizenship seek to promote a common identity, history, language, faith and culture? Humanity is the more universal term since all people partake of 'humanity' but citizenship is restricted to rights and freedoms to participate in a particular political system as embodied by a state or nation. Hence the restrictions on citizenships may conflict with rights more widely demanded under the category of 'humanity'. For example, a particular group of 'immigrants' or a religious group, may be denied rights of citizenship or freedom of expression. This denial conflicts with demands that derive from the 'human rights' founded upon a broader conception of humanity and the greater rights appropriate for humanity.

Similarly to Balibar, Rancière's politics is described by Baiocchi and Connor (2013) as a 'politics of equals'. Central to this conception is a division between instances of political contestation that address fundamental questions of equality ('the politics of equals') in distinction to those questions of policy that refer only to being part of the management of the division of resources and positions in society. In explanation, Rancière (1999:32-33) states that

> "A strike is not political when it calls for reforms rather than a better deal or when it attacks the relationships of authority rather than the inadequacy of wages. It is political when it reconfigures the relationships that determine the workplace in its relation to the community." (Rancière 1999: 32–3)

The significance of this for education is the question about whether a teaching school is able to 'reconfigure relationships' that determine the school "in its relation to the community" in implementing a vision of democracy. That is, can the key relationships of all in all forms of social organization be reconfigured towards 'equality'?

If the Deweyian and Radical democratic visions could be articulated in practice in the context of the Malaysian Policy, it would mean broader opportunities with a gradual transformation of education in Malaysia to achieve "Equality with freedom" (Schostak and Schostak 2013) in the sense that people are able to realise their demands in community with each other. The detailed implications for daily practice shall be explored in later chapters in Part Three of the thesis.

So, the more limited final question for this sub section is: to what extent are the policy/infrastructures appropriate for developing the democratic forms of schooling discussed above?

The Education Development Plan 2006-2010 (Kementerian Pelajaran Malaysia 2006) calls for an effective and sufficient infrastructure for the curriculum and co-curricular activities (described in section 1.5 above) in schools. Educational resources such as teachers, financial allocation, teaching aids and facilities, textbooks as well and support programmes are planned to be evenly distributed to all schools in bridging the gap between the 'advantaged schools' such as schools from the urban areas and the 'disadvantaged schools' such as schools from the rural or remote areas. Also, different schools have different strengths and needs and should be treated accordingly.

Lack of qualified teachers is a key issue faced by the MOE. According to the statistics by Malaysia Ministry of Education (Kementerian Pelajaran Malaysia 2006), 61.8% of teachers in 2005 are female and the MOE has a problem in posting them to rural or remote areas or isolated islands in Malaysia. As a result, according to the Malaysia Ministry of Education (Kementerian Pelajaran Malaysia 2010), inexperienced, under qualified or untrained temporarily teachers are being placed to fit the vacancies in these schools. There is also a mismatch in placing qualified teachers according to the training option in schools i.e. as female teachers especially when married have the right to follow the spouse, and be posted to the nearest available school near to the location of work of the spouse. The mismatch creates situations where teachers have to teach not in the area they are trained for, but to teach according to the demand of the school or under the directive of the administrators which consequently may have certain impacts on the standard of teaching and learning activities in schools.

Malaysian policy is calling for 'modernisation'. This modernisation has been influenced by market cultures and by new managerialism that stresses performance in the human capital theory. According to Mercer *et al.* (2010:5) human capital theory

> "assumes that individuals are motivated to increase the human capital by obtaining relevant qualifications and experience, because this will likely increase the competitiveness and global reach".

Narrowly, education therefore provides the relevant qualification and experience needed by the human capital theory as the aspiration of The National Education Policy. Examples of the aspiration include the development of the national schools as well as to provide a common ground to promote inter-racial interaction between young citizens. The education system is using the Malay language as the lingua franca or the main instruction in school subjects as well as standardising the curriculum and summative examinations in all primary schools in Malaysia. The Education Act 1996, states;

> "The national language (Malay language) is to be the main medium of instruction in all education institutions under the national education system except for the vernacular primary schools developed under section 28 or any other institutions exempted by the Minister." (Education Act, Section 17 1996)

The Standard National Curriculum is implemented according to Section 18(1) of the Education Act 1996 which states;

> "The Minister must set up a Standard Curriculum known as the national curriculum under the subsection 3 which shall be implemented in all primary schools under the National Education System "

Also, the Malay language is one of the compulsory subjects in all primary schools' public examinations in Malaysia. In secondary schools and tertiary levels, the status of the Malay language remained the same and each student must obtain a qualification in the Malay language as part of the prerequisite condition of the degrees offered in local universities.

Neither the human capital theory nor the standardisation of practice as in the discussion above allows much democracy, rather it goes with corporate needs and can be used to train people to become a better employee resulting, may it be argued, in a corporatisation rather than a democratisation of society.

In managing the education system, Chapter 11 section 53 of the Education Act 1996 is being employed to exercise legal control over the practitioners in Malaysia. The practice of education since 1980s has been about upgrading the physical facilities and education infrastructure in line with the New Economic Policy of Malaysia in dealing with visible physical geographic communal separation of the main ethnicity in Malaysia (most of the Chinese are in the urban areas, the Malays in the rural and the Indians in the estates). Support programmes such as free textbooks, education television channel, national boarding schools, rural hostels, scholarship, supplementary food and health programmes have been provided by the government. It is a form of democratization. However, it is limited to improving the conditions for people to compete more equally for jobs.

Consequently this is consistent with the view that sees pupils as future employees. In this view a good practice according to Codd (2005: 201) is "a set of predefined skills or competencies, with very little or no acknowledgement given of the moral dimensions of teaching." This is important as it provides a systematic approach to 'schooling' as it sets the same standard to be achieved. The Malaysian education system is very exam orientated sending certain signals to the society in creating citizens of a market system. It set the same standard but the question here is: was the standard itself derived democratically? And if so, under what definition of democratic? As an example of democracy reduced to market needs, learners with good results are considered excellent and deemed to be able to be successful in economic terms in the future. Also, in this view schools are valued according to their performance in producing 'excellent' pupils as described in Australia (Smyth *et al*. 2000), the US (Hursh 2005), New Zealand (Codd 2005), Ireland (MacRuairc and Harford 2008), England (Ball 2003, Perryman 2009). As a consequence, schools are ultimately pressured by the parents, community and society to 'perform' and pupils are pressured to 'excel'. One way of achieving is through drilling of exam subjects and ignoring the other 'not so important subjects' in attaining the required expectations. The intention to acquire knowledge holistically with creativity would be unattainable.

If as Wilkinson and Picket (2009:174) argue "inequality seems to make countries socially dysfunctional across a wide range of outcomes", and then following Fielding and Moss (2010) it can be argued that there is a pressing need to develop social justice in education as a basis for a sustainable democratic practice in society. The fundamental values by Fielding and Moss (2010) offer direction and hope for the ideal processes of developing an alternative democratic "Architectures of the Social" (Schostak and Schostak 2008) to address what is required and what is missing from social structures, processes, and forms of organisation in the interest and aspiration for building a

democratic society. This shall be further discussed in the Part Three of the thesis in Chapters 6, 7 and 8.

While the extent to which education systems can be relied upon as the state's instrument to shape society is a debate in its own right; what is certain, though, is that education systems are a strong reinforcing agent of values and perspectives. There is, in the view of Fielding and Moss, a need for pre-figurative practice so that a kind of utopian vision can be embedded in contemporary everyday practice that anticipates a democratic 'utopian' future. In this view, schools cannot be run like businesses but rather according to Fielding & Moss (2010:108) a school, as a public space, becomes 'a place for ethical and political practice'. In the transformation of school and education, the strategy is to create the conditions of the good society. The 'good society' as discussed by philosophers, citizens and policy makers may not be the same thing in each case. A democratic notion of the good society in Fielding and Moss' terms is not the same as the 'good society' as described in the national policy of the UK government. A good society in Fielding and Moss is exploring a more democratic form of social relation under "freedom with equality" (as argued by Schostak and Schostak: 2013). While a good society in UK government is more neoliberal and market orientated under "freedom without equality" (as argued by Schostak and Schostak: 2013). Despite reform upon reform, the educational experiences and outcomes, is the product of what Fielding and Moss (2010:1) call the "dictatorship of no alternatives" with "distinctive differences" (ibid: 89) between the practice in a certain elite school as compared to some common primary school. Perhaps, according to Schostak (2000:419);

> "Thus the object of schooling is to ensure that nothing of essence is actually changed. The social order should always be reproduced in such a fashion that the basic inequalities of power are never challenged. For education the transmission is rather more like the transmission of diseases, where the disease continually adapts itself to new environments bringing about radical changes in states of affairs."

Since the TS is the latest innovation in a string of different types of schools created in Malaysia, so, in terms of democratic aspiration, what is the TS? Is it the strategy of making no essential changes or is it the impetus for radical change that challenges social inequality? Morally the TS as an innovation goes together with the rights and responsibilities to earn the entitlement as a national 'showcase' in primary school education. However social inequality also places moral restraints on the system as it offers limitations. As social inequality offers a ready-made primary school framework, people's freedom of choice is suppressed. Even though in the name of the public interest, public education

policies are characteristically formulated to produce the best public benefits for the society in the interest of the elites. In terms of the TS, it would only be moral if such worthwhile projects such as those described in Fielding and Moss (2010) be taken into account as an acceptable practice, that is to say given the freedom to conduct according to the 'approach' of the respective TTI. This project is plausible but the only problem is to determine the specification of a morally acceptable primary school programme as needed and also demanded by the public. The distinction between the programme and the practice goes to the heart of the situation and we have to be clear about the distinction between the two. It is pretty evident then, a study such as this research is needed. We owe morally to the public as a social obligation to offer the best programme or practice of the primary school education. This consideration places this research modestly centre stage as a voluntary exploration of the programme with the central task to explore the differences between the vision, the practice and the experiences based on the implementation of the TS.

3.3 Conclusion

Different policies and visions create different types of schools in order to cater to the needs of society. However, each individual in society may differ in terms of needs and wants and may demand a multitude of different systems. A government that proclaims to be democratic should at least offer some choices in fulfilling the range of demands. Thus, would it not be appropriate to consider alternative types of schooling apart from the national school that offers the same standard curriculum for all? Would it not be appropriate to design schools that fit the society that enable the multiplicities of views of people to be expressed? Would it be just enough to have schools for the society to just 'fit in'? After all, would it be wrong to perceive that life is about choices? And who determines 'what' is fit for the society? Again, free and equal expression of voices in the democratic approach is the basis for determining what is 'fit'.

The next part (Part 2) presents a discussion of the different methodology approaches of this research through which such questions may be explored.

Part Two

Introduction to Part Two

Part Two discusses methodology. It is not a recipe of recommended research strategies but an exploration of approaches to research that enable the exploration of how the ideals, the policies and the issues discussed in Part 1 may be translated or realised in practice as experienced by the stakeholders of the TS. It is argued in Part Two that the appropriate methodology to explore the issues that have been described in the previous chapters has to be able to deal with the political complexities of policies, social and cultural organization and everyday experience as people engage in their everyday lives. Thus, Part Two is divided in discussing the qualitative approaches selected (section 4.1 to 4.7) and later to discussion of evaluation methodology (section 4.8 to 4.13) of this study.

Chapter 4

The Quest for a Methodology and Methods

"Never doubt that a small group of thoughtful, committed, citizens can change the world. Indeed, it is the only thing that ever has."
(Margaret Mead)

4.0 Introduction

This section will explore the methods that are appropriate to the aims of the study explored in Part One. It is therefore intended for the study of the TS evaluation as perceived by the stakeholders in the reality of the implementation of the innovation in TTIs in Malaysia. The methodology is based on the belief that the social phenomena that are the focus of research is not necessarily objectively predictable but full of other dynamic entities especially in studying human perspective and social complexities. The methodology should imply that we have the option of independent choices as to what, why and how we research but this choice must be informed. So, this chapter attempts to provide the methodological theoretical perspectives in the exploration of the TS based on the research design and research methods selected.

4.1 Research Design and Research Methods

Selecting an appropriate research methodology is very important and requires the logic embedded in the links between ontology (what counts as reality), epistemology (the relationship between the enquirer and the unknown) and the methodology (the means by which we know the world, or gain knowledge from it) (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000; Gray, 2004).

The research design and methodology are actually a set of decisions but they are the ones that enable me as a researcher to pursue my stated aims. They are decisions on the area of study, the purpose of study, the methods employed, the analysis and the presentation of the writing or report to justify. The research design sets the overall structure or the research map for the plan of this research. It is similar to the analogy of Schostak (2002:10) as “entering a new city, it helps having a map or a local person as a guide.... In research ... It is to find ways of getting your bearings.” The research methods refer to the techniques used to collect, process and interpret data such as the interviews, the focus group discussions, opportunistic observation and the other printed document available. The research design and research method hold the research together. They are set to achieve coherence and practically in order for the research to be worthwhile.

In the exploration of this study, a certain research methodology is chosen. As stated by Silverman (2001:2):

> “Methodology is a general approach to studying a research topic. It establishes how one will go about studying any phenomenon. In social research, examples of methodologies are ... qualitative methodology, methods are specific research techniques, like observation, interviewing... “

The chosen methodology to explore the aims of this research project (The Objectives of the Study in the Chapter Introduction to the thesis) should be capable of addressing each of the dimensions identified in the exploration of the 'architecture of the social' (Chapter 2, section 2.1). That is, it is an approach that can address visions, practices, experiences and the form of organisations through which visions are articulated, constructed and evaluated as either desirable or resisted as undesirable. It should be able to get close to 'lived experiences', approaches that claim to be able to interpret and represent 'such experiences' in the evaluation of the TS. The reason behind using qualitative data, as Silverman (2010:6) emphasises in one of his examples, is that 'voice' and 'subjectivity' show interest in subjectivity and the authenticity of the human experience. To get at people's meaning we have to listen to what they say as their voice is important in gaining insight into subjective experience. Hence, the study has to be able to describe the 'lived experience' and provide a way of using the descriptions as a basis for evaluating the innovations being implemented. Qualitative methods are best in this kind of study.

Therefore, qualitative research that assumes systematic research inquiry to collect qualitative data is conducted. Qualitative data according to Stake (1995:49) is difficult to define because;

> "a considerable proportion of all data is impressionistic, picked up informally as the researcher first becomes acquainted with the case. Many of these early impressions will later be refined or replaced, but the pool of data includes the earliest of observations."

As the stance of this research is exploratory and complex, the methods of choice will be qualitative (e.g., interview, collection of key policy and organizational documents and observation) and based on relatively small numbers of research participants. (Discussion on selected research participants shall be presented in section 4.3.1) An exploratory approach is often used when a problem has not been clearly defined and there are few or no earlier studies to which references can be made for information as in the case of the TS as it is a new programme developed by the MOE. Thus exploratory research is undertaken in order to explore a topic about which little is known (Kumar, 2005). Furthermore;

> "Exploratory evaluations clarify programme goals and evaluation criteria, provide evaluation findings that may be useful in the short term, and help in designing a more definitive evaluation to further inform managers, policymakers, and other evaluation stakeholders." (Wholey *et al*., 2010:98)

The scope covered by qualitative designs ensures that rich useful data is always generated via the interviews, documents study and observations. Even though it is different from quantitative experiments, qualitative methods also require a lot of planning, to ensure that the findings obtained are reliable and valid through processes such as triangulation as shall be discussed in section 4.1.1. Any qualitative research design is usually unique because it needs to be tailored to the particular context and circumstances of the study. One of the differences is qualitative findings cannot be mathematically analyzed in the same way as quantitative results. Triangulation provides a way of reducing biases and thus identifying what is held as valid in common and what is not. It is typically argued that qualitative findings are more about giving a guide to general trends and more open to personal perspective, opinion and judgment, in the observations of events, programmes or situations rather than providing statically defined results as in quantitative research. The role of the qualitative methodology is to formulate ways of reducing such biases of personal opinions, opinion and judgment.

Moreover, qualitative techniques are useful when a subject is too complex (such as in studying human perspectives and social complexities) to be answered by a simple yes or no response as in the case of exploration of the TS under study. Pope *et al.* (2000) view qualitative data analysis as a labour intensive activity, which requires skill to complete. A qualitative paradigm does not view the 'real' as a simple or empirically given human process. Rather, it is typically considered to be 'socially or discursively constructed' (Schostak 2002:130) and thus may lead to a notion of multiple realities or a plurality of views. It is best used in understanding the underlying social mechanisms or the meanings that individuals assign to their perceptions and experiences. In this thesis the focus of qualitative research will be the 'real' and 'natural' setting of a TS in TTI in Malaysia. It involves an exploration of meanings from multiple viewpoints and through the development of a *mutual understanding between the researcher and the respondents* (Denzin 1971:173). Weber (1979) termed such understandings or interpretations of meaning as Verstehen (empathy).

Torrance (2011: xxiii) describes,

> "The use of qualitative research methods has a long and distinguished history in education and social sciences. However, their use has been under sustained pressure from some time now, particularly in research on education, but also across the social sciences more generally. The pressure derives, at least in part, from an increased focus on the utility of research and debates about how educational research and, more generally, social research, might better serve society".

This seems to suggest that in policy terms, understanding only, is not enough. There is a pressure towards 'utility'. However, utility is also not enough since it is typically defined by powerful elites rather than by those of the wider population. Thus, this is where the notion of democratic evaluation (MacDonald 1987) might be useful. Democratic evaluation according to MacDonald (1974) in Murphy and Torrance (1987) gives equal weight to all stakeholders and their views in facilitating the decision making of the system. Consequently, it has to be addressed not only to answer certain policy evaluation questions, but also to include a coherent intellectual effort in understanding the phenomena under study. Perhaps, in a sense it is true as MacLure in Torrance (2010:400) asserts that;

> "Qualitative methods could risk working with the lively disappointments of wonder and, for a while at least, play with the cabinet of curiosities as the figure for analysis and representation".

In the play with the cabinet of curiosities, there is a need to play with meanings, to follow curiosities. It is through this that new paths for exploration might be opened up. For example, in exploring the path of the implementation of the TS, other issues emerged such as of morality, work precarity and other management issues. (These issues shall be discussed in later chapters in Part Three). In this exploration, methods to enable collection of in-depth data such as open ended interviews, observation, and also some analysis of documents shall be employed to allow the people being addressed to provide their own accounts or narratives which enable the researcher to explore the 'lived' quality represented.

More specifically then, the study adopts an interpretive methodology to gain insights into the participants' as well as the researcher's views regarding the TS programme. This aims to provide a descriptive and exploratory understanding of complex social phenomena (Marshall & Rossman, 2006) which are linked to the traditional principles of current practice. This methodology may give an indication to answer questions of how and why but not questions of how often or how many. Rather, the proposed qualitative research study will attempt to develop descriptions and identify reasons or rationales from a multiplicity of perspectives that may provide the basis for 'grounding theory' and explanations (Glaser and Strauss 1967). The aim is to look for patterns, ideas or emerging issues rather than testing, confirming a hypothesis or creating a new product. However, grounded theory does generate theory i.e., theory that is grounded in the processes of gathering and analysing data. The focus is on gaining insights in the exploration of experiences, perceptions and familiarity in the TS for a more rigorous investigation later. The question is as framed by Patton (2002:104):"what are the

meaning, structure, and essence of the lived experience of this phenomenon for this person, or group of people?" surrounding the implementation of the TS innovation?

4.1.1 Triangulation

Triangulation is defined by Banister *et al*. (1994: 146).as "the collection of accounts from different participants in a prescribed setting, from different stages in the activities of the setting and, if appropriate, from different sites of the setting (Banister *et al*. 1994: 146). Triangulation can also involve using different methods i.e. interview, observation, focus group and questionnaire. A comparison of the emerging issues from different research methods was thought to be essential to triangulate which enabled the researcher to identify the differences and similarities between the issues. In the social sciences, triangulation, according to Flick et al. (2004:178) refers to the "observation of the research issue from (at least) two different points". Triangulation is particularly useful as a correlation between what is said and what is seen. According to Schostak (2006:29)

> "Triangulation involves a general process of taking multiple perspectives on the same thing, or the thing that is allegedly 'real', 'objective', 'true' or defined in meaning and is the same under a variety of circumstances. Thus, triangulation can be performed during an interview or between interviews."

As an example of triangulation, the document analysis has been undertaken to provide the framework of understanding of the overall performance of the TS and given a ground basis of analysis wherever it was possible with data from the interviews, focus group discussions and observations. It was found that the exploratory focus group discussions had enabled the researcher to illuminate issues that were pertinent to the research participants with regard to the TS innovation; the interviews and the opportunistic observation had proven to be successful in confirming what had been stated, adding in more issues which had not been covered during the focus group discussions and providing more understanding of each of the issues

Focus group discussions were intended to explore the issues which research participants found relevant or important to them in terms of the TS. However, in-depth interviews have provided more opportunity to discuss each issue in detail, and revealed more insights from research participants. By applying the grounded theory analysis method to the interview data, not only to the main themes for the study was identified but also the significant issues underlying each theme in terms of the context of the study was explored.

Employing triangulation as a process of cross-checking, issues from each of the methods applied were constantly compared for similarities and differences. While one

function of triangulation in qualitative research involves cross-checking measures, the other function according to Schostak (2010:78) is;

> ... triangulation acts as a process of co-ordinating the attentions of individuals to produce a 'shared reality', that is an object held where one subject instructs another subject how to 'see', how to reach, or how to organize their actions in relation to the 'object'. ... as a means to explore difference."

Data similarities are the 'shared reality' issues associated with the TS while the data differences are explored further in depth.

Triangulation is a first step towards identifying what is similar and what is different and thus can lead on to a strategy of 'constant comparisons'. The researcher has successfully identified similarities and differences between the data gathered in the study using constant comparisons between the findings based on the different techniques of data collection. In-depth interviews have contributed a deeper understanding of experiences relating to each issue.

These 'shared reality' and exploration of issues (as in the Part Three of the thesis) is reported as the evaluation of the study in the report writing stage in this case, the thesis. Triangulation is involved in the processes of and develops validity, objectivity and generalisation as shall be discussed in the next section.

4.1.2 Generalisation, reliability and validity

Schutz (1962:42) in Wilson (2002) offered three criteria by which to assess the credibility of a representation; the postulate of subjective interpretation, the postulate of adequacy, and the postulate of relevance in the principles of subjectivism:

I. the postulate of logical consistency, whereby the objective validity of the scientist's constructs are guaranteed and are distinguished from the constructs of everyday life;
II. the postulate of subjective interpretation, whereby the scientist can refer '...all kinds of human action or their result to the subjective meaning such action or result of an action had for the actor., and
III. the postulate of adequacy: that is, the constructs created by the researcher should be understandable by the individual social actor and his/her fellows. Compliance with this postulate ensures that the scientific constructs are consistent with the constructs of common-sense experience of the social world.

(Schutz 1962:42 in Wilson 2002)

The three criteria are significant in this research in interpretation, making accurate descriptions and avoiding false assumptions. In addition, according to Schostak (2002:136), “truth plays at the edges of any discussion on validity.”

Schostak (2002:147) asserts that validity or “the ‘ring of truth’ … generalizes through the readers own experience. … Part of the ‘truth of that reading, that acceptance of that report, lay in the stickiness, the inertia of everyday realities being potrayed.”

According to Schostak and Schostak (2008:239):

> “Trust as validity increases in terms of over determination of viewpoints on ‘the same thing’. Each viewpoint articulates ‘something’ through the intentional relations formed between subjects and objects. Mapping intentional networks that compose the sense of everyday provides the basis for triangulation of viewpoints that construct what is particular, generalisable and, indeed, universal. The intentional network provides the conditions under which validity, reliability and objectivity are established.”

In phenomenology ‘intentionality’ is defined as ‘directedness towards’. In simple terms, when looking at a TS, consciousness is ‘directed towards’ that TS. Similarly, in touching on a subject of a TS consciousness is ‘directed towards’ the TS. The nature of the TS emerges from the multiple ways in which consciousness can be directed towards it. People, when they work together similarly direct their conscious acts towards each other. Each person and each object of work is thus caught within a network of intentions. Teachers are directed towards pupils and pupils are directed towards teachers in relation to some object of work to be accomplished. There is then a network of intentions focused upon particular objects of work in common. The validity, reliability, objectivity and generalizability of the objects of consciousness therefore are established through the cross checking and confirmation that each act of consciousness provides.

It is useful to articulate the common problem of generalisation in qualitative research by discriminating the two types of generalisation drawn by Norris (1993:133-134): "those about a programme and those from the experiences of a programme. Generalisations about the programme concern judgments of its nature, processes and effects. Generalisation from the programme concerns judgments about the transferability or usefulness of the experience and ideas for others. Programme evaluators need to make both kinds of generalisations. In making generalisations from the programme, an evaluator is looking for those things that might help guide or inform future action."

Demonstrating the reliability can also be problematic with qualitative studies as this refers to the replicability of the research study and whether or not the same results would be found if the study was undertaken using the same methods (Ritchie and Lewis,

2003:270). In the context of an intentional network reliability depends on the extent to which people are engaged to make (or directed towards making) something happen. It is rather like reliability defined in terms of a bus time table. Buses are reliable to the extent to which they turn up on time. Buses turn up on time to the extent that the drivers attempt to keep to the timetable, the company provides appropriately maintained buses and the road ways are able to cope with the levels of traffic.

In order to demonstrate reliability for this qualitative piece of research, the research must be robust as it can be by carrying out checks on the quality of the data and its interpretation. Reliability can also be shown by providing reasons why this research method was undertaken to investigate the phenomenon highlighted.

Validity, reliability, generalisability underpin the methods and design of research as shall be discussed in the next section of research plans.

4.1.3 Research Plan

The purpose of the study is neither to map the field nor to generalize, rather to study the current TS in order to better understand, improve and continue (as a "showcase") as commissioned initially by the MOE "think tank group". Thus, a more exploratory in-depth methodology and design of the research is needed as simplified in the diagram below; each of these topics shall be dealt with later on. As for now they are simply noted as in the diagram below;

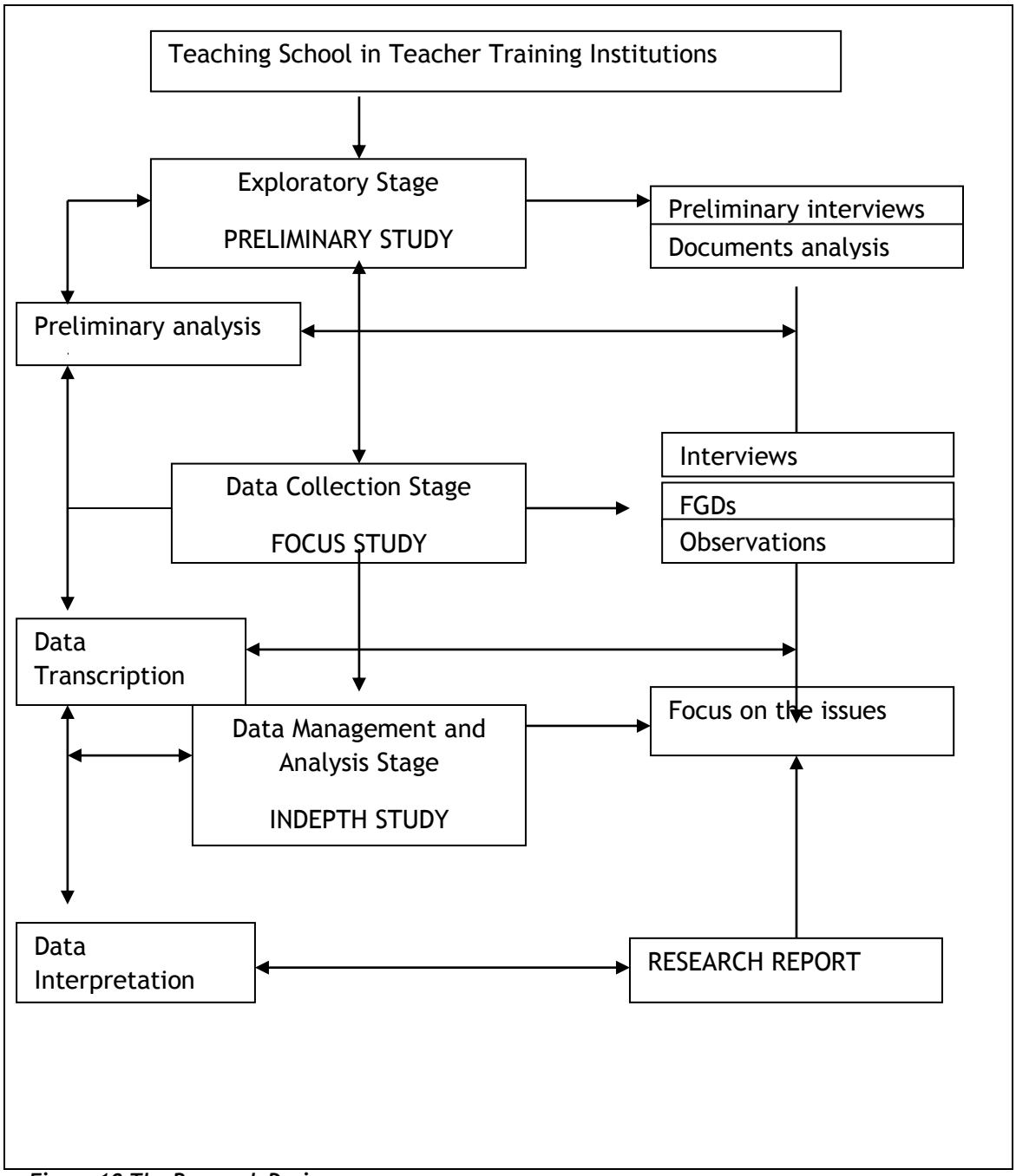


Figure 10 The Research Design

Based on the Figure 10 above it can be seen that the research design has three core stages which will be developed in relation to the processes of democratic evaluation (MacDonald 1987), Grounded Theory (Glaser and Strauss 1967) and realistic evaluation (Pawson and Tilley 2010) :

- The Exploratory Stage, 'the preliminary study' where preliminary analysis was conducted based on preliminary interviews and document study. The study develops the range of voices that would provide the basis of democratic evaluation.

- The Data Collection Stage, 'the focus study' where interviews, Focus Group Discussions and opportunistic observations were carried out as data collection methods before they are transcribed or noted to be used in the research. It is an in-depth approach to the TS that would be the basis of developing Grounded Theory around the case of the TS.

- The Data Analysis Stage, combine the two preceding stages in a realist evaluation approach by focusing on describing and interpreting the issues based on the data collected to be prepared for the report writing as the final stage of the study.

Exploratory Stage, Data Collection Stage and Data Analysis Stage which shall be discussed further respectively in section 4.2, 4.3 and 4.4.

4.2 The Exploratory Stage

Earlier, the decision was clearly made to study the TS in the TTIs in Malaysia. Whilst it is true that a research need to address some questions, nonetheless one does not need to test the questions directly. In this thesis, the researcher has chosen to do a study that includes an evaluation dimension of the programme which commenced earlier in January 2007. To do this, research and

> "… evaluation can either be framed according to the 'god's- eye view' of how the world should be; or it can be framed to address the multiple views of people formed from the street level of the confusing labyrinth of the everyday life." (Schostak, 2008:37)

Thus, adopting the 'labyrinth' or street view, some background reading and exposure relevant to the issue of democratic evaluation (see section 5.3.1) as a way of identifying the range of voices in relation to policies, research methodology as well as the research background are vital. During the exploratory stage, preliminary interviews and documents study are carried out in relation to some personal empirical knowledge of the research participants about the area of study gathered based on issues discussed. It takes the form of literature searches, document analysis, empirical knowledge and discussion with more experienced academia. In many instances, clarification and guidance of the director of study in supervising this research is invaluable.

4.2.1 Document Study

Documents or *agency records* or *administrative records* or *archival records* (Hatry in Wholey *et al*. 2010:243) includes any data formally entered into the agency's record system by representative/s of the organisation. Analysis of these documentary evidences such as meeting minutes, reports, teaching records and other forms of documents will be used to facilitate triangulation of data and to check factual statements from the interviews and FGDs. It is also used to build in the theme of getting at the range of 'visions', rationales and their historical development from autocratic to democratic forms of organisation. The documents alone cannot be considered as enough in shaping the data as pointed by (Rossi *et al.* 1998:211) "programmes differ widely in the quality and extensiveness of their records and in the sophistication restoring and maintaining them". Consent to review the documents will be explicitly sought whenever needed.

Historical research and analysis are essential in order to provide insights into society and events. It includes qualitative narratives, diaries, newspaper reports, minutes of meetings, official documents, official statistics and even oral histories. These documents are picked up where they present themselves, for example, filing cabinets, media archives. In this research, the documents provide background information to the study.

As a technique of data gathering, documents fell under the category of secondary data or as Mann (1985: 67) calls it *'second-hand*' and *never precisely what one wants or needs* (Elder *et al.* 1993:11). Madge (1953: 80) in describing documents as a source in social science describes them as:

> "…the events and process [that] leave their own traces in the form of documents. Such documents not only describe contemporary events, but also help to reveal how these events have appeared to those living through them. Written evidence thus has the indirect function of helping us to project our understanding into other times and other places."

Madge (1953: 92 -95) classifies documents under two broad categories, records and reports. According to him record of transactions and proceedings such as those of parliament, committees, courts and societies are more reliable and creditable than reports. Reports according to Madge (1953: 93) are written after the events and are, "… to create an impression rather than merely to aid memory, and they are less intimate." Merriam, (1988: 109) sees documents as;

> "… a wide range of written and physical materials. Public or archival records, personal documents, and physical traces are three major types of documents available to the researcher for analysis."

To gather documentation I used various approaches such as the library (and interlibrary) search, personal collection, personal communication, e-mail, social networking sites, forum and the internet for official and unofficial documents pertaining to the study. Some of the main documents (mostly in Malay language) are listed as samples in the appendix (see appendix 4.2.1 a and 4.2.1 b). However, I have to be very cautious and selective especially while searching online as the authenticity of the documents may be questionable. Hence, these documents are taken into account only when they are from reliable and trustworthy sources such as trustworthy organisations or websites, colleagues, close friends and family members.

In this kind of research design discussed earlier, participants are needed. The participants are selected through the convenience sampling as shall be discussed in the next section.

4.2.2 Selection of research participants

The approach adopted in this thesis (see Chapter 4/ section 4.5) calls for a range of voices, contrasting ideas and differences in opinions as a range of argumentation in relationship to the TS in order to identify emerging issues based on the data collected from the participants. Where sampling in other research may be selected for the purpose of generalization, the participants in this research were selected for the purpose of the identification of the range of 'voices' relevant to the study.

The participants were selected and called the 'dramatis personae' as described in the introduction chapter based on their involvement in the TS. The dramatis personae are the different members with different experiences in this particular area of the implementation of the TS. The different members from a different kind of background and experiences may have different arguments about courses of actions, impacts, visions and personal preferences and therefore provides a 'map' of the range of arguments for the TS under study. However, there are limitations to the study as the participants were selected also for the reasons of convenience as they are near at hand, likely to be responsive and the most importantly because of their familiarity with the issue of TS. It is purposively done as the participants are mostly involved directly or indirectly with the implementation of TS in TTIs, thus making data collection logistically or topically convenient for both parties (researcher and participants).

Even though convenient, the participants are selected for the identification of a broad range of perspectives from teacher trainers, teachers and other academics or education officers as well as parents in order to obtain in-depth information and to be

flexible in developing and mapping out the emerging themes for the in-depth analysis. The use of purposive sampling in this study matches with the idea that the research process involved is one of "discovery", rather than testing of hypotheses, a strategy which Lincoln and Guba (1985) describe as ‘emergent and sequential’.

Furthermore, a purposive approach in selecting the participants would be appropriate because it allows for a balance of theoretical, ethical and practical considerations in the study (Miles and Huberman 1994, *Curtis et al.* 2000). As not all selection decisions can be planned in advance, participants would need to be reviewed and revised in the context of analysis and through reflexivity in the evolving process (Mason 2005), where themes can be developed and theoretical issues may be adopted (Glaser and Strauss 1967). Thus, issues are selected in the ‘field’, selection made available through the availability of the participants.

Apart from the researcher herself, below are some tabulated details about the participants. The list is arranged in alphabetical order using fictional name for the interviewees for the purpose of anonymity. The name shall be used throughout the thesis when quoting from the respective interviewees.

No.	Name	Age	Position	Salary scale
1	Aminah	35	Education officer	DG 41
2	Arissa*	53	Senior lecturer TTI, previous MOE officer, TS committee member	DG 48
3	Badrul	46	Teacher trainer – administrative duty, TS committee member	DG 44
4	Budi*	40	Teacher in TS, parent	DG 41
5	Danial*	30	Teacher in TS	DG 32
6	Echah	56	Senior teacher trainer – previous Head of Department	DG 54
7	Haji	56	Director of a TTI	DG 54
8	Harizan*	44	Teacher trainer, TS committee member	DG 44
9	Johari	44	Teacher trainer – TS committee member	DG 44
10	Lucy*	28	Teacher in TS, parent	DG 29
11	Malar*	50	EPRD MOE officer	DG 48
12	Mimi	38	Teacher trainer	DG 44
13	Qaseh	50	Vice Director of TTI (one of the think tank group member for the TS concept paper), TS committee member Current a Director in another TTI	DG 52
14	Rahim	55	Head of Department in TTI	DG 48
15	Subalingam	32	Teacher in TS	DG 32
14	Wazi	38	Teacher trainer	DG 44

- *Also respondents in FGD. Arissa, Budi, Danial, Harizan, Lucy and Malar are also involved in FGD.*

Participants in FGDs

a. Lecturers

No.	Name	Age	Position	Salary scale
1	Arissa*	53	Senior lecturer TTI, previous MOE officer, TS committee member	DG 48
2	Harizan*	44	Teacher trainer, TS committee member	DG 44
3	Malar*	50	EPRD MOE officer	DG 48
4	Deris	56	Teacher trainer	DG 48
5	Yati	48	Teacher trainer	DG 44
6	Zul	55	Teacher trainer, TS committee member	DG 44
7	Shikin	52	Teacher trainer	DG 44
8	Faridah	53	Teacher trainer, TS committee member	DG 48
9	Tan	58	Teacher trainer	DG 52
10	Anuar	57	Teacher trainer	DG 48
11	Min	51	Teacher trainer	DG 48
12	Zaidah	52	Teacher trainer	DG 44

b. Teachers

No.	Name	Age	Position	Salary scale
1	Budi*	40	Teacher in TS, parent	DG 41
2	Danial*	30	Teacher in TS	DG 32
3	Lucy*	28	Teacher in TS, parent	DG 29
4	Anis	25	Teacher in TS	DG 29
5	Zaiton	45	Teacher in TS	DG 32
6	Zarina	43	Teacher in TS	DG 32
7	Awang	52	Teacher in TS	DG 32
8	Chik	50	Teacher in TS	DG 32
9	Hasnah	50	Teacher in TS	DG 32
10	Zali	45	Teacher in TS, parent	DG 32
11	Acap	28	Teacher in TS	DG 29
12	Dol	30	Teacher in TS	DG 29

Participants in Pilot Interviews

No.	Name	Age	Position	Salary scale
1	Yanti	40	Lecturer	DG 41
2	Maria	46	MOE officer	DG 44
3	Ah Moi	48	Lecturer	DG 48

The number of participants in this research is small in size but were enough across different roles to provide a wide range of views in order to undertake a more in-depth exploration of the experiences of the interviewees: 16 interviews with education officers, teacher trainers, teachers and parents; two FGDs with 12 teacher trainers and 12 teachers; 5 opportunistic observations including in and outside the classrooms. The smaller size allows the capture of rich in-depth information which may be lost in a larger

group of participants (Wolcott 1994). The larger the participants the more likely it is for the specific responses of participants and the meaning of those responses to be lost or ignored (Banister *et al.* 1994).

4.2.3 Research Ethics

At the time when I started the research, there were no formal structures set up by MMU for ethics clearance. However, I followed the ethical guidelines of BERA (www.bera.ac.uk) and adopted the principles of confidentiality and anonymisation. Ethically the participants were informed of the nature of the research that it is not compulsory to take part in the study and that if they wish to decline; this will in no way affect the future treatment or relationship with the administrator. There would be no consequences for their employment whether they participated or decline to participate. It was made clear that the participants are not tied to the research and may withdraw from the study at any time and can choose not to respond to any questions that are asked during the interview. The participants will be assured of anonymity and although some of the information they divulge during the interview may be quoted within the study, the identity remains confidential. The data collected are kept securely in a locked file.

4.3 Main Data Collection and Processing Phase

As in the diagram (Figure 8) above, the data collection strategies will be looked at in the following sections. During the data collection stage, the main focus is to investigate the issues of the TS in TTI in greater detail. By applying several methods of data gathering in the study, the researcher is enabled to investigate issues that were pertinent to the TS when lecturers and teachers were asked about their experiences during focus group discussions, as well as to probe in greater detail the meaning making and understanding of such issues by the in-depth interviews. Opportunistic observations are done as some situations presented opportunities for the researcher to conduct classroom and out of classroom observations. Not only have the multiple methods facilitated data triangulation during the data analysis, but such strategies also have ensured greater validity and reliability than a single methodological approach (Gill and Johnson, 1997). Document study (section 4.2.1), as a method, was chosen in the early stage of the studies as the most appropriate strategy for an exploratory study (Krueger, 1994) followed by the operationalisation of the in-depth interviews (section 4.3.1), the focus group discussions (section 4.3.1.3), the opportunistic observations (section 4.3.2) and

more documents study (section 4.2.1). These methods suited the research study in terms of its needs, and the nature of the objectives and perspectives chosen for the study.

Data collected in the natural setting of the TS, including the policy documentation, is related to the process of Grounded Theory (see section 4.5.2) (Glaser and Strauss 1967) as people on the ground interpret and deal with the policies within the context of the TS. So it must be carefully planned and justified in seeking rich data from the current practice and resources. Also, during the data collection, it is ensured that the respondents do not give the answers that the researcher wants to hear and therefore need to ensure neutrality throughout the process (Cohen and Manion, 2000). The questions also were open ended and responses were not prompted by comments from the researcher's viewpoints. Issues were probed based on the lead by the responses.

Even though there is no clear cut phase between data collection and data analysis, as they interlace within one another, Figure 8 is designed to show the difference between the two processes. The data analysis phase is where data collected are transcribed, described and interpreted for the purpose of especially the final stage ending with the report writing of the study.

Data analysis in qualitative research is described by Mertens (2005:420) as "...an ongoing process. It does not end at the end of the study as is typical in most quantitative data".

4.3.1 The Operationalisation of the In-Depth Interviews

In-depth interview is the main technique adopted in this study. It aims to probe beneath the surface of responses to obtain 'true' meanings of individual complexities of attitudes, behaviour and experiences regarding the TS.

The operationalisation of the in-depth interviews in this study were carried out in several stages after identifying the reseach participants. They are; the pilot interview, the in-depth interview and the re-organisation of the interview to focus group discussions as shall be discusses in the next subsection respectively.

4.3.1.1 The Pilot Interview

The process of the pilot interviews were started by the selection of three participants. The first meeting was set separately with the participants with brief discussions on how the interviews would be conducted. After obtaining consent from the participants, tentative available dates and time for the interview sessions were set up. The process of these initial interviews involved is one of "*discovery*" rather than testing of hypotheses, a strategy which Lincoln and Guba (1985) describe as '*emergent and sequential'*. Below is an example on some of the key questions for the pilot interviews after establishing rapport with the participants and stating the purpose of the interview.

1. As an education officer, do you think the TS is a good programme and why do you say so?
2. What do you understand by the teaching-school?
3. How involved are you with this TS?
4. What are the advantages of this TS?
5. If, if you have your say on building a TS, what are the issues that you would primarily attend to?
6. What is the proper procedure to open a school?
7. What is the dilemma in the TS?

The researcher follows a trail of clues as according to Robson (1993), almost like a detective leading to a particular direction until the questions are answered and the phenomena explained. Modifications of interview questions are done based on the responses from the three initial interviews, revision of the list of interview questions and reflections of the interviewer style of questioning. For example, some of the questions require further improvements and timing for the three interviews were poor and the responses given provided new insights to the study.

Consequently, these initial interviews have contributed the following benefits to the researcher. They provided a space for reflection on how to manage each following interview according to the time frame, questions asked and note-taking; allowed some practice for the researcher to use the right recording device in the right positioning for better audio output and recording. Apart from that, the interviews indicated some areas for improvement for the researcher who is a novice in doing research, in terms of asking questions that would allow the discussion to flow as far as possible, and to avoid leading questions to ascertain the interviewees to agree to a certain point. Thus, sometimes follow up question were used as to confirm the answers given whenever any ambiguity in the answers arose.

In conducting these preliminary interviews, the researcher learns in three different perspectives; by the experience (doing), from the experience (reflection) and through the experience (acting).

4.3.1.1 a Learning by experience (doing)

Conducting interviews even with the list of questions prepared and rehearsed earlier is easier said than done. As a novice, the researcher needs the practice and freedom to apply and grow skills in experiencing the real situation in research with appropriate safeguard for herself, the participants and the stakeholders against the inevitable errors that might occur in this 'practice makes perfect' or 'trial and error' experience. This should include some self-initiated 'risk-taking' together with the support and supervision of a more experience around to help in gaining relevant knowledge, skills and attitudes. By practicing in these initial interviews, the researcher begins to learn some of the art of interviewing, For example, the researcher realises that there are instances of disagreement with certain point of view of the participant's and instead of pointing the finger to the misconceptions or errors, the researcher should keep calm and should ask more questions to get to the real issues.

As an illustration, in one of the interviews, a participant is confused between the TS and the preschool programme run by the TTIs. Thus she claimed that, not only her TTI is also running a TS but it has been going on for years. The researcher was very taken aback by this claim and there were lapses where there were a few awkward seconds as she tried to recover her composure and continue to make the conversation flow by asking the participant more questions on the TS to understand the participant's view and why it is called a TS. This confusion prompted the researcher to learn more about the key themes and issues of the programme. The researcher then asked lecturers and teachers at random whether they knew about the TS and received mixed responses. This shows that some stakeholders are still not clear about the programme. The realisation of this issue is noted and serves as a point in the criteria of research participants selection conducted later in the expectancy of a more fruitful and richer data.

4.3.1.1b Learning from Experience (Reflection)

I as the researcher was given a great deal of time in supervised and unsupervised practice in conducting research methods mainly interviews. The intention is to create the opportunity to acquire a wide range of skills to be effective technically, interpersonally and in personal- cognitive, affective and behavioural conduct of the interview.

Most of the reflections are done post interview, after the transcription of data and discussion on some of the questions as well as the questioning techniques. Yet, standing back and reflecting is not easy. It is a skill naturally acquired through life, but can be

developed and enhanced through practice or repeated process. It is an opportunity to review and clarify what the researcher might learn from the past, present and future research activities and extend the skills of learning through experience. However, an important part of the strategy is to encourage and structure reflection on immediate ongoing research experience such as through interventions and open questions as well as upon past research activities carried out with the aim of determining new action(s) or modifications for future use in the same or related activity.

Mainly in reflection of the experience, the researcher realises that some of the questions are quite 'crudely' ambiguous and thus refined and restructured for further interviews for a more friendly and natural flow. As an example, in the first interview, the session was started by the question, "As an education officer, do you think the TS is a good programme and why do you say so?" In one situation, the response was "I am not in the position to decide" and on the other situation the respondent question the meaning of "good programme". The researcher also realises that different people react differently to the similar questions. For example, the first question is rephrased to a more general and casual query like "Can you describe for me your roles at work?" A participant relayed about her role in the TS based on her work, the other about her daily routines and the third talked about her philosophy at work. Given these instances, the researcher probe deeper based on the lead put in the picture by the participants and anticipated more divergent and rich data to be explored in her later more in-depth interviews.

4.3.1.1c Learning through Experience

Every individual has an intrinsic tendency to draw upon experience in order to grow in knowledge, develop their values and attitudes and extend their range of skills. Decisions to act at present are based on the existing knowledge with all the conscious and unconscious assumptions, built up from our processing of life experiences in that sense, our current wisdom is limited by our past experience. Thus, the combination of 'doing' and 'reflecting' on past experience is necessary if we are to gain the most from experience. Through the experience, modifications and increased understanding on conducting interviews in research are developed.

In addition to that, the initial interviews prompted the consideration of closely structured interviews in order to avoid a 'glitch' or awkward moments. I felt that standardized interviews might allow data to be collected systematically, and may offer facilitation of comparability among respondents. I reflected on having closely structured interviews but decided they were not appropriate for my purposes. They may be

appropriate when several interviewers are involved in the research in minimizing the variation or differing questions posed. It may also be useful when it is desirable to do comparative study for instance where the same type of information from each interviewee is necessary or when there are time constraints for data collection and analysis. The weakness of this approach is that it does not permit the interviewer to pursue an anticipated surfacing topic or issues. Also, standardized and highly structured interviews limit the exploration of issues with different people depending based on their particular experiences. This reduces the extent to which individual differences and circumstances can be fully incorporated in the evaluation of the 'real' scenario grounded in the TS under study.

Conversely to the closely structured interview, the advantage of using interview 'guide points' as posed in this study i. e. refer Appendix 4.3.3 c, made the interviewing of a number of different people with different backgrounds and experiences more flexible yet comprehensive, by providing a guide to key points to be taken up in the interview. Anticipated gaps in the data collected were closed through semi-structured interview format, while the interviews remain natural and within context. The advantage of this approach was that the flexibility permits the interviewer to pursue topics or issues of interest that are not anticipated when the interview guides are elaborated as they are semi structured and may lead to substantially different avenues of consideration within responses from different persons, thus producing masses of data to be analyse.

I anticipated that while conducting the in-depth interviews with the participants, there would be issues related to 'trust' that the researcher is able to develop with the participants especially in the initial development of the interviews in this study. Due to the fact that these interviews may be very personal in nature and the main concern was to be able to collect rich data, the researcher is aware that the more trust is developed, the more interviewees were likely to reveal about their concerns, and the richer, the data is generated.

4.3.1.2 The In-Depth Interview

In conducting the in-depth interview, the semi-structured interviews are developed with supervisory guidance and some of the 'lessons' learnt from the pilot interviews regarding the nature and content of the questions. Interviews provide clues by asking questions such as based on roles, experience and historical and even cultural practices of the participants. The cues are generated from *guided conversations* (Loffland and Loffland 1995) which are used to probe some issues more deeply for example in the area

of ‘sensitive information’ of the opinions that people cannot reveal without guarantees of confidentiality and anonymisation. Guided conversation involves the provision of particular themes, issues or concerns as cues to stimulate conversation. The study aims to adopt radical listening which is the critical means by which ‘voice’ is noticed (Clough and Nutbrown 2002). According to Reissman (1993:8), “we cannot give voice since we do not have direct access to another's experience.” Thus, in order to have ‘voice’, we have to provide space for the ‘voice’ to be heard i.e. via interviews.

In the beginning, to provide space for ’voice’, perhaps provocation helps. The provocation of voice as viewed by Schostak and Schostak (2008: 213) is:

> “Provocation, thus, refers to calling forth of voice. Voice, as calling, exists only in the possibility that there is another who can reciprocate. Voice demands a listening, and listening demands calling forth of voice as recognition. There is an imbrication of voices, listening, witnessing, recognising that composes a public space of the knowable. “

A key step in doing the interviews is to try and get a sense of the person being interviewed and their ways of thinking, their values concerning education and teaching and their ways of working and also to get a sense of what structures, resources and practices in the schools either help or hinder their approaches and aims concerning teaching. In this sense, the interview is an encounter to a deeper insight where:

> “Each encounter involves negotiations, calculations, interpretations. If we knew what others were going to say, presumably we would not bother to ask them. And if we could trust their words, and if we could ensure ourselves of the neutrality and comprehensibility of their accounts, just asking and just listening would be the simplest of acts “
>
> (Schostak 2006:15)

Even though interviews may not be the simplest of acts, the interview encounters can be structured by a list of clear and straightforward questions which are semi-structured and open in nature that are used as probes and prompts to amplify and explore (Marshall, 2006), in order to allow for anticipated themes and issues to emerge. One of the aims of evaluation is to make comparisons between different approaches, different contexts and different organisations. So to do this the interviewees need to give good descriptions of their everyday work and the reasons why they do what they do

The compilations of questions that guided the interviews were developed from the experience of working on the programme and from the TS policy, the discussion with the supervisor and through literature review on the subject concerning primary school education. The task for the interviewer is always to try and get the experiences, the meanings, the circumstances of everyday working life. So whenever an interviewee uses a particular key term clarification would be asked such as by asking for examples from

their recent experience. Realising that semi-structured interviews would be *time-consuming and labour intensive and require interviewer sophistication* (Adams, 2005 in Wholey *et. al*, 2010:366), considerable effort should be placed in preparing for the interviews and the subsequent task of analysing the interviews. I therefore aimed to be very thorough with all the questions, to get into if possible, all details of teaching style, approaches to learning support, curriculum, school organisation, management, and not to miss the important questions appropriate to this study.

As stressed by Schostak (2006:1) in Interviewing and Representation in Qualitative Research,

> "Don't be misled. The interview is not a simple tool with which to mine information. It is a place where views may clash, deceive, seduce, enchant. It is the inter-view. It is as much about seeing a world - mine, yours, ours, theirs - as about hearing accounts, opinions, arguments, reasons, declaration: words with views into different worlds*."*

During the interview the task is always to ask questions and it is not about correcting mistakes, so even if it is believed that the participants are giving incorrect or false information the interview simply is carried on. Nevertheless, by continually asking for concrete examples, it can be deduced whether what the participants say in one part of an interview 'fits' with another part of the same or later interview. Also, there may be later chances to 'triangulate' (see section 4.1.1) what is said by one person with another in the same organisation or triangulation with other research methods of data collection such as focus group discussions, observations and documents study. Triangulation involves cross-checking data through different research approaches (interview, observation, document study) and/or research participants. In capturing something of the complexity of our subjects, we are attempting to offer something 'true' about them (Hollway and Jefferson, 2004: 156). The interview examines the complexity of human behaviour in the sense of looking at opinions and attitudes towards obtaining personal accounts to enable *thick description* (Geertz 1973), *conversation with a purpose* (Kahn and Carnell 1957 in Marshall 2006) and reflexivity and is associated with qualitative studies as asserted by Clough and Nutbrown (2002). The *thick description* (Geertz 1973) is the interpretation of social meaning by paying attention not just to the behaviour of research participants, also to the symbolic import of the culture of a society by extracting meaning for examples through signs and contexts. Smith *et al.* (2009) suggest that in-depth semi-structured interviews are appropriate to elicit the rich, detailed or *thick description* (Geertz 1973), as a basis for developing critical theories (Foucault in Sheridan 2002). *Thick description* is in contrast with *thin description* which lacks detail and merely reports facts (Geertz 1973).

As argued by Cohen and Manion (2000) knowledge should be seen as constructed between participants. According to Schostak (2006:55)

> "An interview is, in a sense, addressed towards something that one may want to call 'the truth', an 'honest account', the 'reality', 'the hidden'. Finding the key to what to address is not at all easy, yet may appear in unexpected ways."

As the researcher has spent time and is a part of the team in managing the TS in this study, the researcher anticipated more meaningful data from the participants, especially from the pioneer TS personnel. The researcher is also aware about the close relationship that is likely to generate some biases within the data produced. Thus, I need to study and critically understand ways in which this issue could be avoided by first identifying whether there is bias and second by being clearly objective in conducting the interviews.

In interviews, some useful introductory information provides a good start such as the background of the participants. After an appropriate introduction is established and both parties are at ease with the situation, the next step is to try and get a sense of the person being interviewed and their ways of thinking, their values concerning education and teaching and their practice at work. I needed also to get a sense of their working structures, resources and supports and whether they help or hinder the approaches and aims concerning the TS. In so far as possible, this evaluation tries to make comparisons between different approaches, different contexts and different organisations. So in order to do this the researcher needed the interviewees to give good descriptions of their everyday work and the reasons why they did what they are doing. So, in the interviews, after explaining in simple terms what the research is about, and giving assurances about confidentiality and anonymisation, obtaining consent from the participants and gatekeepers, the following kinds of questions based on the TS under study were asked:

1. Can you tell me about your role as you see it?
2. What do you hope to achieve as a teacher/ administrator/ officer? What are the key aims or purposes?
3. Can you give me an example of how you teach, say describe what happened in a particular lesson you gave recently
4. What would help you do your job better? Can you give me examples?
5. What kinds of problem do you face in your work? What helps you solve those problems? Can you give me examples from your recent experience?
6. What sort of resources would help you as a teacher?
7. What sort of resources do the pupils/students need?
8. What do you think is the best way of teaching?
9. What is needed in terms of resources, ways of teaching, and ways of learning to create the best learning environment?
10. What do you think a teaching school (TS) has, if any, that helps to improve teaching and learning?
11. How does assessment take place? Are you able to tailor learning to the needs of the individual? Can you give me examples of how this takes place?

12. Describe a typical day at work... for example; take me through what happened yesterday, you know from when you arrived at school..... to when you left....

These are only examples of the kinds of questions that were asked during an interview conversation. The task for the interviewer is always to try and get at the experiences, the meanings, the circumstances of everyday working life. So whenever an interviewee used a particular key term I asked what they meant by it and to give me an example from their recent experience. For example, in response to question three above (Can you give me an example of how you teach, say describe what happened in a particular lesson you gave recently), one participant (P2) responded as; "Well, I teach as usual and the lesson is OK". So, the researcher nudged by asking the participant to elaborate further by asking whether more can be explained about her usual teaching style and how she knows that her lessons are OK.

Such questions probe to get into details of teaching style, approaches to learning support, curriculum, school organisation and management of TS

4.3.1.3 Reorganising Interview to Focus Group Discussion (FGD)

Two focus group discussions (FGD) were carried out on Thursday 10th of September 2009 as tabulated below in my attempts to re-organize interviews to a more natural conversation as opposed to one to one interview sessions.

Day/ Date	8.30 am- 12.00 pm	2.00 pm-4.00 pm
Thursday 10 September 2009	1. Briefing on the FGD 2. FGD with lecturers/ teacher trainers	1.FGD with TS teachers 2. Closure (TS briefing on cost effectiveness)

The briefing on the FGD to be carried out is given by an MOE officer given the role of the moderator. The first session carried out between 8.30 a.m to 12 p.m, is with the 12 lecturers from TTI. The second FGD with the 12 teachers was carried out in the afternoon after school hours between 2.00 p.m to 4.00 p.m.

A focus group is a group selected for its relevance to be used for evaluation purposes just as it may be used for other research purposes. According to Yarbrough *et al*. (2011:288) a focus group discussion (FGD) may be used for the purpose of "an evaluation that is engaged by trained facilitators in a series of discussion designed for sharing insights, ideas and observation on a topic of concern". The FGD uses group dynamics of the other teachers or lecturers to stimulate discussion in gaining insight and

generating ideas in order to pursue the topic of the TS in depth as according to Krueger and Casey (2009) in Wholey *et al*. (2010:402).

> "Focus group interviews can provide valuable insights in programme evaluation. They can be used alone or in combination with other evaluation methods"

In the composition of the FGD, a careful balance in relation to professions (one group of teachers and one group of teacher trainers) is needed so that participants do not feel socially constrained to contribute freely. The groupings helps to prevent superiority or inferiority in the collection of more democratic 'voices' based on the TS under study. Participants need to *feel that they are an active part of the research process (*Kitzinger 1996) accomplished by stating the importance of their 'voice' in terms of changes (if needed). Thus, two FGDs were organised; one for the teachers and another for the teacher trainers involved in the implementation of the TS.

Krueger (1994) describes a FGD as "a carefully planned discussion designed to obtain perceptions on a defined area in a permissive, non-threatening environment". It is a useful method, which can provide richer (group) insights not available through other research techniques (Dillon and Barclay, 1997). A more elaborate usage of the FGD has been described by Champion (2003: 23) as;

> "a focus group can provide a convenient forum for frank discussion; stakeholder feedback on different aspects of professional development at various stages; form new ideas, draft plans and training materials, policies and requirements; governing structures, electronic learning tools, learning models and full-fledged programmes".

The time the participants need to spend range between an hour to an hour and a half for the FGDs. The participants are asked a series of questions based on their roles regarding the issue of TS in TTI.

In conducting FGD, Patton (2002) proposes a of group 6 to 10 people, Khan *et al*. (1991) suggest 8 to 12 adult members, Dillon and Barclay (1997) recommend 8 to 10 members while Champion (2003) advises 6 to 10 members. Thus, from the literature it can be concluded that an ideal number of FGDs members should be between 6 to 12 members. However, the invitation of the FGD should be aimed at 12 to 14 participants (Champion 2003) to anticipate loss of members from those who refuse to participate, or cannot participate due to last minute conflict of duties.

In this study, two FGDs as mentioned earlier have been conducted, one with the teacher trainers from TTIs and the other with primary school teachers. With the teacher

trainers, out of 28 invitations sent to representatives from each of 28 TTIs only 12 turned up due to last minute conflict of duties. While with the teachers, they are mainly experienced teachers familiar with TS due to personal involvement. They are encouraged to express and share their opinion on the issue of TS in TTIs. They are done separately to avoid dominance of 'voice' of a certain group over the other. The FGDs have been conducted by a co-moderator (a research officer from Policy Division MOE) who is an experienced researcher especially in moderating FGDs. She has also taken notes on aspects of the discussion not captured by the video for example when participants may speak over one another and it is not clear who is speaking, or context information about how the group interacted with one another. I was present at all times. The FGDs have been conducted in a way that encourages the participants to share their differing viewpoints and wherever possible questions raised by members are directed to the group to avoid researcher bias, though participants have the opportunity to ask questions as well.

In this study, the decision to conduct FGDs served two main purposes as follows. Firstly, FGDs served as a preliminary data collection method to explore the general interpretation of "*What is a TS?*" as well as to learn about the respondents' understanding of the TSP in TTIs and their experience at work. The findings highlighted issues that are pertinent to the TS and helped further understanding of the similarities or disparities of issues.

Secondly, FGDs were used as one of the multi-methods in the larger study. The combined qualitative methods, aims to contribute something unique to the researcher's understanding of the phenomenon under study (Morgan, 1997). Furthermore, when little is known about the topic of investigation, FGDs are recognised as an appropriate method (Stewart et al. 2007). Thus, they are highly suited to the current design where understanding of and information needed regarding TS is of interest. Having more than one approach to data collection helped to triangulate data and increase the study's reliability (Rowland and Rubbert, 2001). The findings from the FGDs contributed an understanding of the respondents' perspectives on TS programme. The data helped to build up a list of themes that were thoroughly investigated in or as a follow-up from in-depth interviews.

Having the right participants is a critical factor to be considered in conducting FGDs (Champion, 2003; Dillon and Barclay, 1997; Stewart *et al*., 2007). In this study, the participants for the FGDs were selected on the basis of convenience sampling within TTIs and schools, rather than via a random sampling. It is believed that those involved in the FGDs were individuals who were knowledgeable and interested in the topic. Having this kind of deliberate bias in the sample was intended as emphasised by Foster and Young,

(1997: 66) to lead the study towards even more productive discussions than would a random sample.

The initial decision over choosing the participants was achieved through the following sequence of events. During the meeting to set up the interview when the researcher approached a TTI administrator, she also requested to do FGDs about her request with granted access of area of research by her university. An initial meeting was set up for the researcher and an education officer by the TTI's administrator. Access was granted to undertake a study involving TTI lecturers and teachers with the co-operation from the MOE education officer.

Subsequently, a short presentation regarding the aims of the study was made by the researcher (i.e. a day when the lecturers/ teachers meet together to focus on the TS programme). The field researcher was able to meet the lecturers/ teachers for the first time and was introduced to Arissa (not her real name) - a TTI education officer who acted as the key contact person to provide a link between the researcher and the lecturers/teachers.

Even though **Arissa** invited the particular lecturers/teachers who were to participate in the study, the selection of these participants was undertaken in line with the objectives of the study. The composition of the two groups of participants (each based at a different location in Malaysia) was not homogeneous as the participants were at different stages of service, of different gender, a mix in terms of ethnicity, and with different academic and career backgrounds. Variables such as age, ethnic background, marital status, and social class were considered to be factors that would come to enrich the group (Ressel *et al*. 2002). However, it was decided that the participants should have at least one common trait among them. In this case they were all teachers (even though some may be call teacher trainers) who had been teaching and were actively involved in teaching and learning of school pupils.

The first FGD with teachers (at location A) was conducted on the basis of the availability of the teachers and negotiations made between the groups in the two locations - A and B. The FGD with lecturers in location B was conducted a week after that at location A. Allowing a gap of a few days to elapse between the FGDs allowed time for the field researcher to tidy up her notes and provided some room for reflection before conducting the second FGD. The initial contact was essential for bonding with the participants should more FGDs and/or interviews or other form of data collection is needed. There were 22 participants involved in the FGDs and each group consisted of 10 for Group A (teachers) and 12 for Group B (lecturers/teacher trainers) participants in each location.

Their relatively varied service levels did not cause any constraints as the aim of the FGDs was to elicit the individuals' experiences, their different points of view and perceptions about TSP and its meaning, through an interactive process (Greenbaum 2000, Grudens-Schuck *et al*. 2004, Ressel *et al*., 2002).

At the very beginning of each FGD the participants were informed about the objective of the discussion, the importance of their contributions to the study, and the potential significance of the findings to them. It was essential to eliminate any kind of group pressure that would make some participants give responses that they felt might be most acceptable among the group members. In making sure that all participants were involved in the discussion and to give a fair chance for everyone to participate, individuals who seemed to be relatively timid or quieter than others were called upon to comment by name in a bid to provide opportunities for them to speak. Once in a while, statements given by the participants were repeated back to them so as to confirm their thoughts as well as to invite others to express their views. In terms of non-responding participants, questions were repeated or rephrased for further clarification. The field researcher intervened when it was realised that the discussion was deviating and the participants were reminded about the aims of the study. The field researcher sensed that the participants had no more issues to discuss when they kept silent for some time.

A written exercise was conducted at the end of each FGD to sum up the entire discussion. Greenbaum (2000) advocates that the written exercise (which forces all participants to get involved in the focus group exercise) is one of the most important tools to stimulate discussion among participants, and to minimize or eliminate negative group dynamics. Though the amount of writing that is involved can be as little as a few words, or a short paragraph, it will almost always capture individuals' opinions that might not be expressed openly during the discussion. In fact, it allows the less outgoing participants to take part in the discussion and offers an alternative to stretch the participants' minds by providing different ways for them to think about and articulate their feelings regarding a particular topic (Greenbaum, 2000; 159-160).

The participants were asked to write down their own list of key issues, which they regarded as being the most critical for TSP. They were given 10 minutes to write these down on a piece of paper supplied by the field researcher. Later, they were asked to read their lists out loud in discussion with others and this allowed the researcher to take down notes on any significant points and capture their explanations on tape. From the written exercises, the important themes, which emerged from the two FGDs, were summarised and later compared.

4.3.2 The Operationalisation of the Opportunistic Observation

These observations are neither scheduled nor structured. Observations were used whenever opportunities arose in or outside the classroom of the TS. Five opportunistic observations were carried out during the data collection period. According to Ritchie and Lewis (2003:78) "... either being in the role of the researcher or of research participant, allows a detailed exploration and understanding of the central themes to be discovered".

In this case the observations were done in the classroom and during lectures, or while sitting in the discussion of academic practice and whenever the opportunity arose. The observations were quickly recorded using hastily scribbled notes and mental notes but as noted by Morad (2010:63) "the intention of observation is to record events as accurately and honestly as possible." However, observation requires observing people's behaviour in the chosen organisation such as the TS as (Bogdan and Biklen, 2006: 63) highlight;

> "picking a focus, be it a place in the school, a particular group, or some other aspect,... to take into account the relationship of this piece to the whole, but, out of necessity, narrows the subject matter to make research manageable ".

Thus, these notes are transferred as field notes at the soonest opportunity to avoid memory loss which can impair the reliability and validity of data.

These observations are not similar to concealed observations. Concealment may raise ethical questions in relation to a lack of informed consent from the participants. On the other hand concealment sometimes may be the way to increase realistic knowledge about organisations and everyday practices. The difference between concealment and opportunistic observation is consent, at least from the "gate-keepers" such as the director of the TTI, the TS's headmaster or classroom teacher. For example, during one of the schedules to interview one of the staff in the TS, the researcher passed by a classroom where two teacher trainees and a teacher were conducting a lesson. During that moment, if time is taken to ask permission in the midst of teaching and learning activities while the pupils are engrossed, and teachers unguarded, it is feared that the momentum of the lesson would be disrupted. Here, opportunistic observation is carried out as permission from the "gatekeepers" and the teachers had already been obtained earlier. On the other hand, if permission is not asked for or given but observation is carried in secrecy, then the issue of concealment may arise.

4.4 Data Management, and Interpretation

Data management and analysis was a continuous, interactive process throughout. In GT (Glaser and Strauss 1967), data analysis and data collection occur simultaneously. This notion of continuous and interactive analysis bring together the policy level found through documentation and the GT focus on people's experiences in the 'natural setting', the TS. This enables the exploration of the relation between ideas, practices and the availability of resources and outcomes as the model of Architectures of the Social (Schostak and Schostak 2008) in the Chapter 2, Section 2.1 of the thesis.

Interviews and FGDs are transcribed verbatim and attention is paid to issues of confidentiality and other protection. This is a process that needs prompt transcription by the researcher in relation to appropriate conventions or speech impairments (Bunning 2004). Once the script has been transcribed, a copy is sent to the participant for the approval to ensure the meanings have been portrayed accurately. The written transcripts are straightforward but would the text of the transcripts be as straightforward to be read?

Therefore, a process of analysis and interpretation must take place. However, it has to be remembered that

> "Language, it seems, does not provide a simple way of accounting for the world of experience, but affects worlds of experience by creating contestable ways of talking about experiences, needs, desires and interests."
>
> (Schostak 2006: 30)

During the data analysis, it is important that the researcher engages reflectively with the transcripts. Analysis concerns both the meaning participants' make of the experience and how the researcher interprets this. The use of the written field notes by the researcher aided this process by providing opportunities for triangulation. The analysis followed several stages as outlined by Smith *et al.* (2009). Following Smith *et al.* (2009) the first transcript was initially read a number of times to enter a phase of familiarity and the researcher noted interpretations on the left hand margin. Note interpretation is advocated in GT to develop categories, codes or patterns and to help the researcher to work towards theoretical and conceptual level of analysis. They were re-read and emerging theme titles were documented in the right-hand margin. Similar renovation of the transcript is essential and to ensure accurate and comprehensive transcript of snapshots of event in natural setting ensuring reliability.

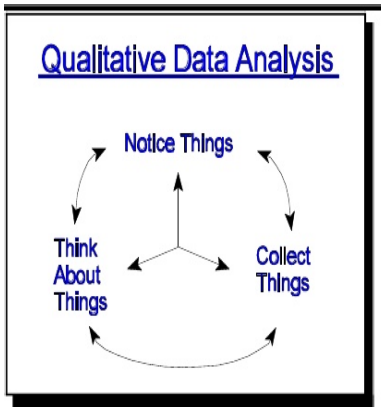
Following this, a list of categories based on the repeated key words, phrases found in the transcripts were created before the researcher engages in more analytical ordering where connections between themes emerge. Some of the examples of

categories would be based on issues of either management, policy, implementation or resources of the TS. Themes are determined and defined by data as explained by Gubrium and Holstein (2009:226),

> "themes are discerned beneath the surface of text of stories. While it is possible for a story or story teller to announce a theme, themes are usually identified by listeners or researchers as underlying patterns of meaning."

The themes were clustered together into other similar themes and it is important for the researcher to continuously go back to the initial text during this phase in order to check interpretations against what was actually said. The remaining transcripts were analysed following a similar process. Initially, management of data especially from the interviews and FGDs realistically make sense through descriptive or exploratory accounts. The rest of data is transcribed into written transcripts and coded using thematic analysis (Cohen and Manion, 2000). New ideas emerge and themes were identified whilst pros and cons are noted. In addition, transcripts of initial interviews and emerging themes are checked with the guidance of the director of study (supervisor).

Thematic analysis is a process of encoding quality information which requires an explicit quote. The themes and analytical ideas can be organised for analysis. Seidel (1998) developed a model to explain the basic process of qualitative data analysis.



(Seidel 1998:2)

Figure 11 Seidel's Model of Data Analysis

As the Figure 11 suggests, the qualitative data analysis process is not linear. In qualitative data analysis, you do not simply Notice, Collect, and then think about things, and then write a report. Rather, Seidel (1998:2) explains the process has the following characteristics as listed below:

- Iterative and Progressive: The process is iterative and progressive because it is a cycle that keeps repeating. For example, when you are thinking about things you

also start noticing new things in the data. You then collect and think about these new things. In principle the process is an infinite spiral.

- Recursive: The process is recursive because one part can call you back to a previous part. For example, while you are busy collecting things you might simultaneously start noticing new things to collect.

- Holographic: The process is holographic in that each step in the process contains the entire process. For example, when you first notice things you are already mentally collecting and thinking about those things.

Thus, while there is a simple foundation to qualitative data analysis, the process of doing qualitative data analysis is complex. The interviews transcribed verbatim by the researcher, allow the researcher to immerse herself in them later and become more sensitive to the issues of importance. Data from all the participants are quoted and then analysed to discover any other emerging themes. In Seidel and Kelle (1998) codes are differentiated in two ways; they can act as “objective, transparent representations of facts” or as heuristic tools to enable further investigation and discovery. The codes also according to them (ibid) may act as collection points for significant data, or acting as markers or pointers to the way we rationalise what is happening or to enable continuation of discoveries about deeper realities in the data that is referenced by the codes. In addition, analysis is an iterative process (Willig & Stainton-Rogers, 2008), which leads to a description of analytic themes and interconnections and finishing with a narrative of the participants and researchers understanding of the meaning of TS in TTI.

The hardest part in data analysis is to read between the lines, interpret and provide explanation based on the emerging themes and working towards the development of a critical understanding rather than laying a thorough description of data collected. Schostak (2002: 156) explains that

> “at first, the researcher sought to overcome what he saw as obstacles to 'get around', to 'deal with' and thus 'overcome'. He was then tempted to add in content by 'reading between the lines' in order to get at the ‘real’ meaning at the back of what is being staged on the surface. Each obstacle, however, through its very resistance, can provide insights into the non-arbitrary structures of ways of thinking and social interaction that are tacitly held.”

In reading between the lines, the researcher has got to be very careful not to jump into conclusions, misinterpret and misrepresent the issues in this study. Thus, it is essential to do triangulation of documentation, interviews and observation in exploring key discourses of the study. The discussion of triangulation is already mentioned in section 4.1.1.

4.4.1 Reflections on Research Design

It is acknowledged that the researcher's role as the lead of the TS programme and her pre-understanding may have some elements of information power and influenced the interpretation of qualitative data. Probable biases were addressed by triangulation and employing a constant comparative strategy in the collection of data. The research method chosen show limitations, and it cannot be assumed that the participants' answers are the truth, which sadly is an aspect of research that cannot be avoided. As with other qualitative studies, it is recognised that the sample size and research participants themselves and also the research context does not prohibits generalisation. The processes of triangulation and of constant comparison identify the extent to which generalizations can be supported. The diversity provides abundance of insight within TTI and TS programme and the envisaged benefit of the ethnographic approach were therefore achieved. The insights provide a rich data complementing the complexities of the real situation. However, in order to explore all the complexities in-depth is an impossible task as due to the limitation of time, space and resources for this research.

4.5 Approaches to analysis

The approaches to analysis adopted in this study shall be discussed in the order of symbolic interactionism, grounded theory, hermeneutics, deconstruction and phenomenology. This sequences more or less accords with the development of my thinking about approaches to analysis.

4.5.1 Symbolic Interactionism

According to Denzin and Lincoln (1994: 124) symbolic interactionism is based on the work of Mead (1934) and Blumer (1969) who developed a theoretical approach that rests on three assumptions:

> 1. Human beings act toward physical objects and other beings in the environment on the basis of the meanings these things have for them.
>
> 2. These meanings derive from the social interaction (communication, broadly understood) between and among individuals. Communication is symbolic as we communicate via languages and other symbols; hence in communicating we create or produce significant symbols.

3. These meanings are established and modified through an interpretive process.

According to Denzin and Lincoln (1994), symbolic interactionism is difficult to summarise as it is informed by varying theoretical positions besides that of Blumer (1969). However, broadly, the observation of behaviour is not enough in symbolic interactions. In order to analyse that behaviour, one has to find out what it means to the person or people undertaking the behaviour. For my purposes here, symbolic interactionism which arises from philosophical pragmatism (Mead) and social psychological theory provides the epistemological framework that underpins my explorations of the experiences of staff engaged in the TS. These explorations do not go as far as to develop theory in the Glaser and Strauss sense (1967) a descibes in the next section.

4.5.2 Grounded Theory (GT)

Glaser and Strauss (1967) explain the grounded theory (GT) method as part of a sociological field of investigation on the awareness of a social problem (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). Glaser and Strauss (1967) drew upon Blumer (1969), Dewey (1922), Hughes (1971), Mead (1934), Park (1967), and Thomas (1966). in order to formulate an interpretive approach to knowledge construction, as an alternative to the traditional quantitative empiricist approach (Glaser, 1992). In analysing the data, Strauss and Corbin (1998:1) state:

> "I agree with the constructivist viewpoint that concepts and theories are constructed by researchers out of stories that are constructed by research participants who are trying to explain and make sense out of their experiences and/or lives, both to the researcher and themselves. Out of these multiple constructions, analyst constructs something that they call knowledge." ".

Therefore, in GT the researcher needs to understand, learn, share and interpret behaviour as participants understand it. This is to say that as written by Marshall and Rossman, (1995:2),

> "in grounded theory the main research interest is in understanding how individuals take and make meaning in interaction with others and in particular the emphasis of meaning-making in social organisation".

According to Strauss (1987) the development of the GT method was connected to the Sociological tradition at the University of Chicago where from the 1920's to the 1950's researchers used field observation and intensive interviews as sources of data for

research. Using this method, the researchers subscribed heavily to the principle of grasping the participant's view on interaction, process and social change (*ibid*., 1987).

GT refers to a process of discovering theory grounded in the data that has been systematically gathered and analysed deriving from the phenomena it represents. It is meant to build theory rather than testing hypotheses or theory. GT focuses on the process of generating theory rather than a particular theoretical content (Patton 2002:125). There is an intimate connection between empirical reality that permits the development of a testable, relevant and valid theory. Glaser and Strauss, (1967:3) explain GT by stating that;

> "Theory in sociology is a strategy for handling data in the research, providing modes of conceptualisation for describing and explaining. The theory should provide clear enough categories and hyphotheses so that crucial ones can be verified in present and future research; they must be clear enough to be readily operationalized in quantitative studies when these are appropriate. The theory must also be readily understandable for sociologists of any viewpoint, to students and to significant laymen. Theory that can meet these requirements must fit the situation being researched, and work when put into use. By 'fit' we mean that the categories must be readily (not forcibly) applicable to an indicated by the data understudy; by 'work' we mean that they must be meaningfully relevant to and be able to explain the behaviour understudy."

GT is very much suited to qualitative methods of study and Denzin (1997:18) believes that the GT approach is the most influential paradigm for qualitative research in the social sciences today. Glaser (2000:7) emphasised that,

> "qualitative data are inexpensive to collect, very rich in meaning and observation, and very rewarding to collect and analyse. So, by default, to ease, costs and growing use by many, grounded theory is being linked to qualitative data and is seen as qualitative method, using symbolic interaction, by many. Qualitative grounded theory accounts for the global spread of its use"

For the purposes of this thesis, I employed grounded theory as described in section 4.4. for the collection and the analysis of data and the exploration of issues (see section 4.6) rather than for the formation of theory.

4.5.3 Phenomenology

The purpose of the phenomenological approach is to illuminate the specific, to identify phenomena in gathering 'thick description' (Geertz, 1973) through qualitative methods such as interviews, observations and document study from the perspective of the TS research participants. Such insights, with the emphasis on the importance of personal perspective and own interpretation of phenomena, overlap with symbolic interactionism to become the focus of the

social phenomenology of Schutz (1976) as discussed in section 4.1.1. A characteristic of phenomenology is the process of 'bracketing' (Ashworth 1999, Chamaz 2006) or suspending judgment concerning the researcher's taken for granted beliefs in the 'truth' or 'reality' of statements about the world. This enables the researcher to explore the ways in which different people construct their commonsense ways of seeing, acting and believing in their everyday lives

Phenomenology seeks to describe, rather than explain, without preconceptions or bias, and emphasizes the importance of making clear how interpretations and meanings have been placed on findings, as well as making the researcher visible in the 'frame' of the research as an interested and subjective actor rather than a detached and impartial observer (Plummer 1983, Stanley & Wise 1993).

The interpretive dimension enables phenomenology to be used as the basis for practical theory, by allowing it to inform, support or challenge issue/s under study. The main purpose of social phenomenology is to study in their natural settings to gather rich understanding of issues through the data collection processes such as observation, in-depth interviews and document analysis (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). For example in this study, the working concepts of the TS programme are generated from the issues raised by the participants and discussed in relation to the categories and concepts of the Architectures of the Social of Schostak and Schostak 2008. The categories and concepts are developed based on the conceptual domain, the practical domain and the material domain in the process of finding out which types of phenomena, context, causal and intervening conditions and consequences are relevant for the TS study.

As the purpose of this study was to gain more knowledge and explore the possibilities of the TS base on the perspectives' of stakeholders in teacher training institution, an exploratory rather than theory building approach was deemed to be suitable for the study of TS innovation.

4.6 Exploratory Research

According to Cohen *et al*. (2007:32) the purposes of education are;

> "... the movement away from authoritarianism and elitism and towards social democracy. … underpins and informs much contemporary and recent curriculum theory"

The move towards social democracy would suggest that the process of exploring the experiences of participants and building theory is then democracy-like. That is, no one voice dominates as a multiplicity of perspectives freely and equally contributes views to the emergence of theory. The process of theory building starts when a research project is focused on an area to be studied as in this case, the TS. The researcher gained familiarity, detected emergent and themes and began the process of theory building by following the process advocated by Glaser (2000:4):

> "Data go to concepts, and concepts get transcended to a core variable, which is the main underlying pattern. Formal theory is on the fourth level, but the theory can be boundless as the research keeps comparing and trying to figure out what is going on and what the latent patterns are."

Throughout the process, this idea of theory building based on GT distracted me from what I am doing for a while. Out of frustration for not being able to come up with or build a theory out of the complexity of the issues, I was tempted to give up but decided rather to continue to engage as a responsible grounded theorist adopting the position that "of course, these situations are very complex or multivariate, and without more data, I cannot tell what is really going on" (Glaser 2000: 7-8). Later I realised that it was never my intention to prove or build a theory. It would be more suited to research that collects data, clusters them to create patterns in order to come up with a new theory or to confirm a theory or theories. My research is thus exploratory in nature rather than theory building in nature. However, I still have to deal with the issue of theory in the sense of the interviewees having theories about what works or why something does not work or happen. Also, I need to be critically aware of and employ not a taken for granted way the application and interpretation of theoretical constructs such as the 'Architecture of the Social' (Schostak and Schostak 2008) that I employ in the framework of carrying out research and the discussion of the research data. How this is done will be explored in the discussions of data in Part Three, chapters 6, 7 and 8.

As for representing my research explorations and fieldwork, I have chosen to employ qualitative methods that adopt a narrative approach (which shall be discussed in the next chapter) because it helps to bring to the surface several key issues of work under the conceptual domain, the practical domain and the material domain pertaining to

the innovation of the TS. My research is grounded in accounts gathered during the data collection phase via interviews, documents study and opportunistic observations, and subsequently presented in narrative analysis. These approaches will be further explored in relation to issues of evaluation and the extent to which an evaluation approach is relevant to this study.

4.7 Evaluation

Evaluation in this study will explore in more depth the final step for the thesis of developing an approach to realistic evaluation based on the notion of the 'architectures of the social'. The purpose of evaluation then is to explore in more detail, approaches to doing evaluations of policy implementations and the extent to which such approaches can be undertaken for the purposes of this study.

Programmes are usually implemented with a set of anticipated outcomes or objectives. In the case of the TS, its objective is to be the showcase of TTIs. The discussions that take place during the TS project will inevitably engage in evaluation of the ideas and propositions are that are being considered. It means that in reality, programme design, evaluation and development are closely interrelated. It can help the process of critique necessary for the TS to be placed on a sound footing, and it can provide evidence of how that design is being translated into practice in the education system. In short, education needs evaluators. Consequently the next section shall dwell on the relationship between evaluation and education as well as discussing reasons why education need evaluators.

4.8 Democratic Evaluation

In Evaluation and the Control of Education, MacDonald (1974) puts forward three categories of evaluation. Firstly, bureaucratic evaluation with unconditional service to government agencies that accepted their values and help to accomplish the policy objectives. Secondly, autocratic evaluation offers external validation of policy with the key justification of 'responsibility of office'. Thirdly democratic evaluation is,

> …information service to the whole community about the characteristics of an educational programme. ... The democratic evaluator recognises value pluralism and seeks to represent a range of interest in his issue formulation. The basic value is an informed citizenry, and the evaluator acts as broker in exchanges of information between groups who want knowledge of each other. ... The key

> concepts of democratic evaluation are 'confidentiality', 'negotiation' and 'assessibility'. the key justificatory concept is 'the right to know'.

Clearly, the *sine qua non* of this type of evaluation is independence in representing a democratic range of views taking even the unpredictable into account as well as opinions drawn from minority views alongside mainstream educational and political ethics. Democratic evaluation then, is guided by the initial direction of the research questions as well as taking into account the direction of later emerging issues.

In principle the way one evaluates a programme will depend on the view one takes both of the programme and the enquiry in general. And as the view of this kind of democratic programme evaluation is to be as realistic as possible, the next section discusses Realistic Evaluation.

4.9 Realistic Evaluation

Robson (2002:6) claims that *much enquiry in the real world is some form of evaluation*. Realism depicts the art of accurate and detailed explanation of nature or of contemporary life based on events, experiences and perspective of people involved or uninvolved. Also, in the realist view of Carter and New (2004:6):

> "what we are advocating is committed to an exploratory model in which the inter-play between pre-existence structures, possessing causal powers and properties, and people, possessing distinctive causal powers and properties of their own, results in contingent yet explicable outcomes."

In short the arena of realism in research adopts an empirical view of truth in a natural setting. The view of 'truth' adopted is empirical, it is a form of correspondence theory where what is represented corresponds with an empirical object.

Realism in evaluation as in realistic evaluation (Pawson and Tilley 1997) or realist evaluation (Kazi: 2003) are introducing scientific realism in evaluation. The only difference between these two according to Kazi (2003:5) is;

> "realistic evaluation implies a tendency while realist evaluation is a more emphatic description of this new paradigm in evaluation research."

Kazi (2000:317) also emphasises that;

> "Realist evaluation research is about improving the constructions of models and, therefore, about improving the content of the practice itself."

Whereas Pawson and Tilley (2010:55-56) state that

> "Realism has sought to position itself as a model of scientific explanation which avoids the traditional epistemological poles of positivism and relativism. Realism's key feature is its stress on the mechanics of explanation, and its attempt to show the usage of such explanatory strategies can lead to a progressive body of scientific knowledge."

Many scholars are interested in the quest of realism in evaluation such as Anastas (1999), Archer (1995, 1998), Bhaskar (1979, 1997), Greenword (1994), Harre' (1978, 1984), Kazi (2000, 2003), Keat and Urvy (1975), Layder (1990), Norris & Kushner (2007), Pawson (1989), Pawson and Tilley (1997,2010), Robson (2002), Sayer (1984), Schostak (1985, 2002. 2008,2010),.

Robson (2002:39) argues that;

> "One of the challenges inherent in carrying out investigations in the 'real world' lies in seeking to say something sensible about a complex, relatively poorly controlled and generally "messy" situation."

It is argued that, a realistic evaluation as Robson (ibid: 39) declares should be able to evaluate "what works best, for whom, under what circumstances".

In this fashion, realist inquiry can be located in every social science discipline. For example, it has found a home in philosophy (Collier, 1994), law (Norrie, 1993), psychology (Greenwood, 1994), economics (Lawson, 1997), sociology (Layder, 1998: Archer 1995), management studies (Ackroyd and Fleetwood, 2000), and geography (Sayer, 2000). Realism in miscellaneous topics clearly shows the strengths that realism is a 'logic of inquiry' that generates research strategies and designs. Theory and the scope for generalisation may be progressively transferred from one programme experience to another.

Tilley in a Founding Conference of the Danish Evaluation Society in September 2000 stated that he and Pawson were influenced by the meaning and purpose of evaluation used by Donald Campbell as well as of Karl Popper by seeing the purpose of evaluation as informing policy and practice development. Both Popper and Campbell saw social policy and practice as an important contributing factor to social science i.e., as a means of testing and/or developing social theory. The difference is, rather than Campbell's mechanically interpreted and applied ideas of experimentation, realistic

evaluation understands causality in terms of underlying, often hidden causal mechanisms generating regularities.

While Campbell's work is termed as 'experimental method', Pawson and Tilley (1997) view the realist approach as being more appropriately used in the formulation and refinement of social policy and practice. Even though they (ibid) provide examples from the field of crime prevention, they do not suggest that realistic evaluation is prescriptive in nature and should follow a certain convention in carrying out an evaluation.

They stressed the backbone concepts for explaining and understanding evaluation by the basic realist formula of;

"Mechanism +Context = Outcomes"

The 'Architectures of the Social' by Schostak and Schostak (2008) draws on this approach. My interpretation of these three components is further developed within the structure of the TS:

- Mechanism - in terms of social mechanism - is about people's choices and capacities with the combination of individual reasoning. Mechanisms include the ways in which people's actions are regulated via procedures, laws, and forms of organization through which decisions are taken (meetings, debates) and work undertaken.

- Context in this study mean the TS introduced into the pre-existing social context of TTI and the Malaysian society. This pre-existing social context includes the discourses, the conceptual structures and traditional systems of beliefs or habits underlying ways of seeing, believing and acting in TTI.

- The Outcomes can then be explained by the patterns, irregularities or the forms of association or social organisation that occur due to the implementation of the TS.

These 'components' are further elaborated in the 'Architectures of the Social" described in Chapter Two.

Realistic evaluation is a multifaceted approach to research with the basic tenet as stated by Pawson and Tilley (1997:71) being "to explain interesting, puzzling, socially significant regularities". In my view, this suited the research questions as outlined in the introduction chapter earlier especially in bridging the policy to practice. Below is the

outline of the description of how realistic evaluation as the philosophy of realism is developed to plan the study of the TS:

1. Part One was to understand and conceptualise the TS and define the objective of the study involving why it was developed, by whom and for what purpose. From this information and some literature, potential Contexts, Mechanisms and Outcomes were anticipated.

2. Part Two was therefore about data to be collected, the collection of evidence to support the arguments with the aim of anticipating some of the interpreted Outcomes in relation to the current mechanisms used to realize them.

3. Part Three was an attempt to explain and make connections between the Contexts, Mechanisms and Outcomes by analyzing the data drawn from interview transcripts, documents and from opportunistic observation.

In the following chapters, the contextual factors and mechanisms relating to the TS innovation will be explored in relation to a range of key themes and categories as illustrated in the diagram below;

Conceptual Domain	Practical Domain	Material Domain
THE POLICY • The TS programme as a 'showcase' for the TTI • Government initiatives • The TS Concept paper • Teacher training ground (TTI administration) • The national curriculum	*THE PRACTICE* • The roles • The routine • Value added activities • Shared responsibility • Targets	• The infra-structure • The teachers and staff • The pupils • Time and skills

Figure 123 Key Themes and Categories

The themes and categories identified in the Figure 12 are employed in the discussions of issues in the following chapters not to assess success or failure but to inform better understanding about the innovation of the TS for further exploration or in depth study in the future.

The programme unfolds over time, it has a range of key people who have specific roles in its implementation and there are phases and events that can be identified. Thus a narrative form for the presentation of data provides a useful way of representing complex processes and events. Thus the next section shall be discussing about using narratives in research as a way of report presentation.

4.10 Using Narratives in Research

Narratives display how people relate to each other as they undertake courses of action. They thus provide a way of analyzing social realities according to the key 'dramatis personae' involved in key events, each member of the dramatis personae provides their own perspective and a way of interpreting their own as well as the action of others. Hence by identifying the dramatis personae, methods can be employed that are appropriate to gathering data in relation to them: interviewing, observation and the collection of the texts or other artifacts that they produce. The dramatis personae is also useful in progressively triangulating viewpoints and in generating strategies for 'theoretical sampling' (Glaser and Strauss 1967:45) and this in turn implies a methodology that focuses on meanings and interpretations.

Using narrative to explore the issues involved in the implementation of the TS is based on Clandinin and Connelly's (2000:19) view that " experience happens narratively ..." and also based on Connelly and Clandinin (1990:2):

> "Thus, the study of narrative is the study of the ways humans experience the world. This general concept is refined into the view that education and educational research is the construction and reconstruction of personal and social stories; learners, teachers, and researchers are storytellers and characters in their own and other's stories."

Therefore, educational experience should be studied narratively. Story telling is a part of life in which people narrate to make sense. For example, there have been a lot of narrative researches reporting on teaching oriented studies (Drake *et al.* 2001; Johnson & Golombek 2002; Kainan 1994; Kosnik, *et al.*2006; Loughran *et al.* 2004; Olson 1995)

According to Sayer (1992:263),

> "to capture the subtleties of actions and actors' interpretations we need a rich vocabulary, not one purged in the interests of scientific neutrality of terms that seem either too mundane or too 'literary' -rather than 'literal'. The objects of natural signs tend to be highly durable, context-dependent mechanism often capable of being studied in closed system conditions. Social phenomena have histories and geographies and the intrinsic meanings can be multiple and transient. In view of this it is hardly surprising that natural scientists can rely upon a more stable vocabulary than can social scientists."

Sayer (ibid) agrees with the use of "thick description" (Geertz 1973) in narrative research, however, he does not dismiss "thin description" totally because although it may not suit ethnographic work, it may remain superior for the explanation of other phenomena, such as economic processes. Clandinin and Connelly (1998:252) feels it is important to move from a simple telling of the story to a retelling and reliving the story "to engage in

retellings that might lead to different social narratives lived out on the professional knowledge landscapes in schools and universities." Furthermore as Schostak (1985:11) explains, a:

> "narrative provides a way of organising the complex forms of experience in ways which can be told, which can be recounted and hence made predictable. It is by being able to tell a story again and again that a sense of stability, identity, recognisability and hence action and learning becomes possible. ... It provides an extremely rich data base capable of being used for a multiplicity of purposes. The major research purpose is the generation of knowledge about practical, social situations and processes in order to improve understanding and the quality of social action. It provides not the fragmented approach of statistical strategies but a holistic approach."

In the olden days of Malaysia, narratives were used widely in the form of folklore concentrating on the characters of animals. Some of the best examples are the series of narration based on "*Sang Kancil dan Pak Belang* (The Mouse Deer and the Tiger)". Usually in the stories, the strong tiger is defeated by the small but wise mouse deer. The mouse deer represents ordinary people with small or no power and the tiger represents powerful people in the society. Folklore while used as entertainment especially for young children, i.e. bedtime stories, also doubled as a critique of the social system during that time. The stories integrated fiction and the real, giving hope to the poor or oppressed people and shaped the mind of the listeners or readers in evaluating the events or situations illustrated. Similarly, in research, the 'voice' represents the people and narrative is a way of reporting the 'voice'.

Bertaux (1995:2) notes that self-reported factual data in personal narratives should be verified for sociological purposes, and analysed for "recurrent patterns concerning collective phenomena or shared collective experience in a particular milieu". This could be done as the phenomenological reduction or the 'unpacking' according to Schutz's three principles of the postulate of consistency, subjective interpretation and adequacy as discussed in the previous section 4.5.5. More specifically, an evaluation narrative is defined by Krueger in Wholey *et al*. (2010:406) as:

> "An evaluation story is a brief narrative account of someone's experience with the programme, event, or activity that is collected using sound research method. The purpose of collecting the story is to gain insight into someone's experience or to shed light on an evaluation topic. These stories can vary in length from a few sentences to several pages and provide insights on a topic designated by the evaluators. Single stories can be useful and provide valuable insights, but multiple stories have an added benefit because they can shed light on patterns and trends."

Narratives can provide insights into personal thoughts, feelings and experiences according to Olson & Craig (2001:670) so that "individuals can tentatively articulate how

they are making sense of situations, explain the own actions, and examine the stories in concert with others" where "tensions are revealed and where insights are offered that enable situations to be the revisited, reassessed, and re-storied" (ibid: 671). However, narratives in evaluation should be separated from narratives in fictions and should provide reflection significant to the participant. Krueger (ibid) in Wholey *et al*. (2010:406) went further by noting:

> *"*the evaluation story is a result of disciplined inquiry. The evaluation story is not an accidental event or serendipitous description. Instead it is the result of deliberate actions taken by the evaluator with attention to the principles of qualitative inquiry. The evaluator uses verifiable collection process. As a result these stories qualify as evidence useful in evaluation study*."*

Narratives are viewed as the best mode of report to portray qualitative information as outlined by Yarbrough *et al.* (2011:291) "qualitative information is representation of experiences, performances, characteristics or other descriptions presented in narrative or other symbolic but not numerical form". Amsterdam and Bruner (2000:115) indicate some major issues in the use of narratives by saying;

> "narrative and its forms do not sit quietly for the theorist bent on portraying them in the abstract. They are too value-laden, too multipurpose, too mutable and sensitive to context ... Narratives do pose interesting questions even if they are unable to yield answers."

Riessman (2008:3) asserts that "the narrative analysis is interested in how the speaker selects, organizes, connects and evaluates events they deem meaningful for the social interaction of an interview". Scholars (Bertaux 1995, Britton 1970, Clandinin and Connelly 2000, Elliot 2005, Geertz 1973, Hollway and Jefferson 2004, Richards, 2005, Rosen 1985, Sayer 1984, 1992, Schostak 1985, Webster and Mertova 2007, Wholey *et al*. 2010, Yarbrough *et al.* 2011) argue that narrative is vital in the learning process and the use of narrative as a research method and may give others better understanding of the previous and current practice. These ideas are logical in the TS evaluation as according to Norris (1993:131) they are set up to address,

> "... certain problems, exploit certain opportunities or develop and test particular ideas, techniques materials. They are unique events. If programmes are to be judged fairly and if judgments about their value are to have some claim to validity, then they must be adequately and accurately represented."

As people have a personal history, another dimension to narrative approaches especially in sociology and anthropology is the biographical perspective (Goodson 1984,

1992; Kruger & Marotzki 1996). Autobiography is a practice that makes it possible for educators to reflect on their current practice and sources (Heikkinen, 1998; Raymond *et al*. 1992). In recent years the autobiographic method has become an important social and educational practice (Griffiths 1995; Heilbrun 1988; Swindells 1995; Witherell & Noddings 1991). Smith and Watson (2001) identify five processes in constructing the autobiographic subject: memory, experience, embodiment, identity and agency as shall be used in the study.

There are four key approaches to writing and analysing the narrative (Schostak 2006): "the mimetic strategy; employing a poetics of the real; the hegemonic strategy; and, plays of position, interest and transgression." (Schostak 2006:156) Mimetic strategy is the 'mime', the act of consciousness to represent the views of individuals by drawing upon their own words, rationales, values and judgment. Through mimesis the representation 'mimics' or 'mirrors' reality. This is an approach that most closely resembles an empirical descriptive approach to representation. Schostak (2006:157) **"**The poetics of the real addresses the symbolic, mythical and latent features of the accounts drawing upon hermeneutic, psychoanalytic, semiotic, and rhetorical strategies of analysis as in approaches to the analysis of poetic text." (Schostak 2006:158) The hegemonic approach to analysis describes how power is organised and the strategies employed to manage conflict and accomplish change. Plays of position, interest and transgression describe the ranges of actions and decisions available to individuals in the context of transgressive and oppositional imaginaries without fundamentally altering the social order. (Schostak 2006:158-159)

These narrative-biographical resources are the basis for exploring the data of the study. However, as voiced by Schostak (2002:231)

> "the project has to be teased. It cannot be pushed nor plan too much. To look for perfection results either in killing the research, or the researcher. In writing up one begins to inhabit one's text, exploring its corners, removing its cul-de-sacs and unwanted implications. A project is never ending. The piece of writing is never finished. It just stops. It has to stop some time. New interests and demands arise creating the occasions for new journeys, new rationales, new messages*"*.

With such conceptions in mind, I as researcher embark on the search for appropriate narrative frameworks to examine, understand, analyse and present the data.

4.11 Conclusion

The chapter and sections in Part Two of qualitative and evaluation methodologies have provided a range of strategies by which to explore the issues described in Part One of the

thesis. It has been argued that the methodology has to be able to deal with the political complexities of the policies, social and cultural organisation as experienced by people. The methodologies relate to the processes of democratic evaluation (MacDonald 1987), GT (Glaser and Strauss 1967), realistic evaluation (Pawson and Tilley 2010) and narrative approaches to the representation of data.

The following parts of the thesis will draw upon these methods in the exploration of findings.

Part Three

Introduction to Part Three

Part Three is devoted to the discussion of issues emerging from a focus on 'work' as central to the implementation of the TS in the dimension of the 'Architectures of the Social' (Schostak and Schostak 2008) as discussed in Chapter Two of the thesis. Work has a narrative structure as well as a political dimension. It is narrative because there are sequences of events that must be realized through deliberate action. It is political because people have debates about who does what, how decisions are to be organized either autocratically or democratically and what the best ways of organisation are.

A story is framed through the focus for the data collection in this qualitative study which draws mainly from interviews, observation and documents study. From analysis of the data, three dimensions of work have been selected in order to develop the main arguments of the thesis concerning what promotes or inhibits the practice of the TS. These are: the Conceptual Domain, the Practical Domain and the Material Domain. In practice, the three dimensions are closely interrelated and interlaced in accounts of the issues. They can be explored in terms of Grounded Theory (Glaser and Strauss 1967). However, each of the three chapters (Chapter Five, Chapter Six and Chapter Seven) emphasise a particular dimension so as to make it more organized in terms of discussion of the issues.

As in the example of my brief personal account in the Preface, narratives identify a range of issues over time describing people's experience and looking at how the experience is shaped and affected by policies, politics, culture and broadly the teaching organisation. Thus, these are significant reasons for using narratives and extracts from interview transcripts and observations as a way of presenting data based on the social realities of people's experiences as a ground for interpretation and for prefiguring the kinds of analysis that shall be discussed in the following chapters: Chapter Five, Chapter Six and Chapter Seven.

Chapter Five

TS and the Conceptual Domain

"There are more things in Heaven and Earth than are dreamt of in your philosophy"!
(Shakespeare.- Hamlet.)

5.0 Introduction

> *"I was seconded to the school and felt that I could not really call myself a 'headmistress'; since I was more appropriately a 'school manager'.* However, as directed by the Director of Perlis TTI (even though on paper my current post is a teacher trainer) I still have to lead and thus while waiting for the real 'head' to be appointed, I was the school manager for one whole year."

The 'Architectures of the Social' as discussed in Chapter Two section 2.1 describes the 'Conceptual Domain' as policy, implicit or explicit in discourses and formal plans of organizational structures. There maybe a tension between the official discourses, the informal discourses and the experiences of people involved. In the above extract from the preface the possibility of the headmistress' experience of conceptual and role conflict in practice, is raised.

The conflict at work has a narrative and a political dimension that will be important to the following discussions in this and subsequent chapters as the experiences of key members of the dramatis personae of the programme shall be explored. They are the people on whom the success of the TS programme is dependent upon in order to 'showcase' the concepts of the TS.

However, insights from the data collected during my preliminary interviews in May 2008 when initially the TS was labeled as the 'lab school' shows that even some teacher trainers were not clear about the TS concept. Even I, when directed to lead the TS was not clear about the concept and I, as narrated in the preface, "wondered why the TTI wanted to have a TS in the campus". I thought TS is a special school to be administered by TTI. But, it was not as simple as it seemed.

Thus, this chapter shall be concentrating on the conceptual domain of the framework that describes what a TS should be at the practice level. The practice level shall be explored in the practical domain of the next chapter as to whether the appropriate procedures and mechanism actually put these ideas into practice. In this chapter, at the conceptual level there is a range of discourses that may or may not be compatible with each other. What will be explored in this chapter includes: the policy discourses of the policy makers; the practitioner discourses of the teachers; the philosophical discourses of Dewey and notions of democracy; and finally the discourses of 'work' through which connects are realised in practice.

5.1 The concept of the policy discourses of the policy makers

One of the policy concepts of the TS is to be a training ground for the teacher trainers, trainees and in-service teachers. The policy concept is parallel to one of the basic considerations (labeled as basic consideration 3.3) of the TS programme as reported in the 167th Education Planning Committee of MOE dated 26th of September 2002 minutes of meeting as translated below;

> 3.3.The implementation of the TS in Perlis would give the Perlis TTI the platform to innovate especially regarding the pedagogy of teaching and learning to be planned and pioneered in the TS. In the TS, some variables could be controlled to measure the real impact of the innovation.

The documents study shows this basic consideration stems from the earlier 165th Education Planning Committee of MOE minutes of meeting (2.1) which states;

> 2.1 The Education Planning Committee of MOE accepts the proposal of the innovation of the TS programme under each teacher training colleges (the previous status of TTI) as a national showcase of educational excellence in all schooling aspects, practice theories, effective innovation of teaching and learning activities.

The concepts were also translated in the objectives of the Proposal Paper of the Implementation of the Perlis TS under study at Gem Beach Resort Trengganu on the 15th to 17th May 2006 organised by the Planning, Development and Policy Unit of The teacher

Education Division MOE attended by representatives from the School Division of the MOE, Educational Planning and Research Division of the MOE, Human Resource Division of the MOE, Perlis State Education Department and Perlis TTI. Based on the meeting, the five approved objectives (similar to the objectives of the TS as the earlier translated Perlis TS Proposal Paper in the Preface) of the TS are;

1 to provide 'clinical experience' to pre-service teachers to facilitate teaching and learning in the classroom

2 to implement educational research involving teachers, pupils and school activities to improve the quality of teaching and learning aside from improving knowledge of the pre-service and in-service teachers towards educational practice.

3 to produce teaching and learning innovations in schools

4 to reinforce teaching and learning practice to the pre-service and in-service teachers as well as lecturers via research, experiments, inquiry, assessment and the implementation of assessment.

5 to add to the experience of the pre-service teachers aside from their mandatory practicum experience

The five approved objectives provide a framework for thinking about and discussing the TS model at a conceptual level.

The 'clinical experience' as mentioned in the first objectives of the TS means the experimental encounter of the real teaching experience such as the teaching practicum sessions and the mini or micro teaching sessions. In both sessions, a thorough three phases of training are approved in delivering a lesson in the classroom. The three phases are the firstly the pre-teaching or lesson planning phase, secondly the while teaching or classroom delivery phase and thirdly the post teaching activities or reflection phase. Lecturers are to guide the trainees in all phases of the clinical experience by discussion on theories and practice of what has been planned and delivered. Trainees are encouraged to keep a reflection journal after each lesson conducted in practicum.

In improving the teaching and learning activities appropriate to the label TS, or the Professional Development School, the Laboratory School or the Demonstration School, the TS acts as a training ground for research, inquiry, experiments and assessment such as; practitioners research such as Action Research and Lesson Study, producing innovations such as teaching aids and other creative inventions. Findings from the activities shall be shared between the trainees, teachers, lecturers and the other relevant stakeholders.

5.2 The concept of the practitioner discourses of the teachers;

This section shall explore the extent to which the discourses of practitioners are consistent with or distinct from the policy conceptual framework discussed earlier in the previous section.

In August 2009, my interview data highlighted that teachers as participants when asked about the concept of the TS in general even though they were not exposed to the objectives of the TS perceived there was no difference between the TS and the other national primary schools in terms of the five approved objectives of the TS discussed above in Section 5.1 except for the locality as suggested by the first cohort of the TS teachers in Perlis.

> "I have no problem adapting to the school. I have more than 20 years teaching primary school. The syllabuses are the same. We go to class and we teach. Pupils learn and do homework and study to pass their test" **(Subalingam)**

> "The only difference is, the TS is in the TTI or else, it is basically the same as the other (primary) schools in Perlis" **(Danial)**

Based on the suggestions above, to these two teachers, teaching are just a repetitive routine and conceptually the same, regardless whether in the TS or the other national primary schools. So, the following discussions on TS as a training ground will explore among others, the extent whether teaching is just a repetitive routine and conceptually the same.

Qaseh, (in a focus group discussion) believed that teacher trainers and teacher trainees should be grateful for the facilities and support of the TTI. He believed that it is the role of the administrator to identify the lecturers in need of future training in the TS. However, he considered there was a low likelihood that this approach is practiced in the TTI:

> "Admin (in TS and TTI) should evaluate what our gaps are and our competence, our background and build on it…and match the need of TS…Do you think they do that? [laughing and followed by other teachers in the focus group discussion]." **(Qaseh)**

According to Wazi, in identifying the lecturers, the administrators of the TTI could;

> "A reliable source would be the service record. Check the service record of the lecturers. Those who never were teaching in primary school should be listed. Then, they should be attached to the TS."

During the initial TS implementation, teacher trainers instead of primary school teachers were placed in the TS to support the programme. The presentation on the teacher trainers' experiences of TS attachment shall be represented in the next section.

5.2.1 The Experiences of the TS attachment

The teacher trainers when asked by the researcher spoke about their personal experiences in the TS. Thus, questions were asked to probe further regarding their experiences and how these helped the teacher trainers in the implementation of the TS. This issue received mixed responses from the participants: while some found it helpful, others felt that some weaknesses occurred when working on different tasks of teacher training and teaching in a primary TS during work.

The majority of the participants valued working on different tasks during their work. **Diana** argued that joining the TS helped her to become more competent. She referred to the suggested attachment scheme from the TTI, which involved rotation of the workplace for lecturers to teach in the TS every six months:

> "It [the attachment] helps you identify gaps (in primary school teaching) and do something about that for your teacher training."

In the attachment scheme, they are able to build up a concept of work that is different from the employment specification of roles for teacher trainers. As an example, in filling in the position of teacher trainers in TTI, a minimum scale of a DG44 on the salary scale or of 5 years experience in school is required. However, TTI is training teachers for primary schools. Thus, some lecturers may have the experience of teaching but not necessarily the experience of teaching in primary school. Therefore, in the opportunity of the full time attachment to the TS, the gap is filled by the gained knowledge and expertise from the TS work experience.

However, in making comparisons with others who were not working with the TS, a participant believed that they were far better off.

> "It is a very good exposure to teach the young kids. I realized how hard it is to really teach especially to have class control and to teach." **(Echah)**

Qaseh shared Echah's view because she had never experienced teaching in primary school and took the attachment opportunity to learn about classroom management for primary school children and learn from others (teachers and lecturers) about how to do things.

Other participants described the attachment to the TS as some training courses that they found useful in helping them to acquire competence. They highlighted a few specific courses (such as classroom management, story-telling skills, child social interaction courses and IT skills), which they agreed, were helpful in making them more competent. In general, these participants perceived professional training courses such as classroom management and storytelling courses to be an important contribution towards building a better primary school teacher. The professional training courses as requested are vital in the construction of the conceptual dimension of the TS as it focuses on the theoretical understanding as being important to becoming a 'better' teacher.

However, there are some who were not happy with the attachment to the TS. While some participants find it helpful to have the chance to work on different tasks there were others who found it upsetting. **Aminah**, for instance, felt let down and was not happy with the fact that she was required to do new things, which took up most of her time. Her complaint was:

> "Well we're quite short staffed at the moment and we… had a new director as well…we need to do work that perhaps we've never done before and because we haven't got anyone new in the department we've ended up doing a lot of it, which often takes you away from your normal job, which you sort of enjoy doing because you do feel familiar with it… and now asking us to teach in TS, it gives sorts of ad hoc tasks to it. You probably are going to do it, so you're not going to be good at it…and sometimes you're not even that interested."

Aminah's hesitance over doing different tasks differed from those participants who valued doing new tasks. She further explained:

> "Well, I think it's because I can't seem to ever get anything finished in a sense of accomplishment. I've got tasks to do but I never seem to get it done. I've always got something else on top of it, like daily new tasks. Information for my job specs is given but...it's very general. I take a few days from doing the core tasks and it stops me from finishing, and getting in and progressing with more upcoming tasks. It's like being thrown in a deeper end and you keep on sinking deeper."

> According to Johari, the attachment is not real as;

> "TS is not a real primary school. We only have 2 classes of year 1. We do not even have a proper school building yet. This is not a real experience of teaching in primary school. We are here just because we are directed to be here"

Mimi added that;

> **"**But it's two different skills (teacher training and teaching in TS). We are having schizophrenia here."

Johari elaborated at length by saying that

> "You cannot have Jack of all trades. That's why specialisation comes in. We (the lecturers) should develop the pedagogy for us and we are not in the position to develop pedagogy for them (teachers in TS). They do have the practical

> knowledge and we have the theoretical knowledge. So dare we go there to teach or to tell them how to teach? We would be struggling there because we don't have the experience. If you tell a teacher what to do, do you think you are better? She has the practical experience on how to handle kids, and they're in better position to develop their own pedagogy knowledge. So if we develop the pedagogy. Can the teacher understand our pedagogy? See, you develop the pedagogy; if teacher knows nothing about it, can you explain to them and so that they can develop and deliver them according to your pedagogy?

Echah counter the argument by sharing her experience in visiting a TS as a training ground in Thailand.

> "Unless... you teach them. I've been to Bangkok and the TS in Bangkok is different. The professors teach there, associate professors teach there. They function as the teachers there. It's a training ground for them also, not just to impose their pedagogy on the teachers. I think perhaps we should use that model, if we were to try out that kind of pedagogy, they work two places."

The above extracts indicate that at the conceptual level concerning the role and purpose of teaching in the minds of the teachers and lecturers, that there is a division of labour. Following Echah's view and the above extracts it may be suggested as proposed by **Qaseh** that;

> "As a team we can give them consultancy, a good consultancy for them, they concentrate on their practical teaching skill, we are on theoretical knowledge, yeah, there's a tandem there. I would see the role that we have are different. We should not be intervening in to the school and develop the pedagogy."

Sebalingam also strongly believed that attachments provided him with opportunities to learn and improve. **Tina** made a positive remark regarding working on different tasks, which she experienced during the attachments. According to her:

> "It is such a big whole thing. You have to move about to feel the extent of all the different things. If you stay in different areas you'll realize there's a lot of different ways of doing things."

Taking the same view as **Tina**, **Mirza** believed that doing new tasks gave one more background to the tasks, and a bigger picture of the teaching process.

Wazi critically questioned the perceived benefits of attachments and he believed that it is highly dependent on the TTI administrator and circumstances. He claimed that he did not learn a lot from working on different tasks at the TS as compared to the previous schools that he had visited. He sees no point in the attachment except "creating more tasks for the already overburdened teacher trainers." Work is a form of burden where performance criteria are multiplies as additional task to employees. And he added that "I had worked hard as a primary school teacher to a lecturer. I had years of sacrifices to upgrade myself. Why should I accept being sent back to school?" His view is shared by **Anita** but questioned by **Echah** whether "teaching in the TS is a down-grade?". According to Wazi, being a lecturer in TTI is hierarchically higher in position as compared to being a primary school teacher even in a TS. And **Diana** highlighted the issue of personality when it came to deciding which attachment best suited a person. There is a

difficulty in matching a proposed attachment to particular lecturer because everyone is different in roles and responsibilities in the TTI. Even the subjects taught in TTI may differ from the subjects offered in primary schools.

Adam responded by questioning;

"A complete cycle of teaching is a year. So why not teach for a whole year?"

Adam believed that working on different tasks during attachments in the TS should last longer than six months to allow some real learning and understanding of doing new things especially for lecturers who never had the experience of teaching in primary school.

The issue of working on different tasks or engaging in job rotation connected with the attachment issue has been the hot topic of discussion amongst teacher trainers. The participants experienced doing different tasks when they went for the six-monthly attachment during the initial implementation of the TS. Most of them perceived the benefits of working on different tasks especially in managing primary school pupils (such as allowing them to become more competent and providing the opportunities to learn). However, some of the participants disagreed and saw little value in doing it. They hence believed that the situation was sometimes troublesome or even a 'down-grade' of their present post. They went because they were assigned to and not on voluntary basis.

In addition, with the implementation of the TS, there are changes in an organisation in terms of routine, procedures or even job expectation in the TTI. Change can be a source of energy to be used in a positive way during the change process. Lecturers are attached to the TS in terms of teaching and learning activities and as a resource support in the TS and this engagement is the change process. Finding out the needs, hopes and fears can highlight knowledge needs and training as well as support opportunities. The importance of managing knowledge based on the need of the change should be explored based on the highlighted needs of the interviewees, training and knowledge management in relation to the frameworks that exist to support senior managers in the process (Armistead & Meakins, 2007).

According to Derranty (2010:183), Dejours defines work as:

> "The activity deployed by men and women in order to achieve the objectives determined by the prescriptions of a hierarchy or by the terms of a contract."

The 'activity' meant by Dejours goes beyond the limits prescribed as in the new tasks involved in the implementation of the TS as according to **Mirza**:

> "You'll also find those sort of brand new tasks gives you more background to begin with, through different parts of the jobs…"

Reflecting on his own experience, **Johari** agreed on the significance of working in different areas and, according to him:

> "I think that I'm working at different levels all the time. Things that you do and things in the past when you're at school then …well I have to kind of manage the accounts like a joint venture, so I'd say anything that helps me, will be working in a primary schools now and picking up little skills…again"

The bigger picture is moving towards the kind of concept of work held by Dejours in Derranty (2010) looping between the practical and theoretical in the centrality of work which cannot consider only the outputs. Work has to do with a sense of accomplishment and promotes the sense of recognition of being 'socially useful' (Derranty 2010). However, accomplishment may differ from the realities of performance at work. Performance at work is the means of productivity linked to the 'doing' (Derranty 2010) of the workers and not just the reduced sense of accomplishment of the end product or output defined by some performance criterion. Thus, performance and accomplishment can also be activities that contribute to the recognition and 'suffering' at work.

This discussion is trying to make a distinction by distinguishing the fuller sense of accomplishment as 'socially useful' from accomplishment as an administrative, organizational or policy demand. In this latter sense accomplishment becomes a burden as some of the following examples seem to suggest.

The discussions above indicate that the experiences of the lecturers and teachers are not being taken into account within the ways that work is officially being prescribed. In order to bring their experiences into account in decision making would require a more inclusive approach, as in the concept of a democratic organisation. The difficulties in establishing a new conception of work appropriate for the TS leads to the discussion of the concept of work in the TS.

5.2.2 The Concept of the Design of a TS

The intention of the TS is to be a national 'showcase'. The TS programme is the added programme of the TTIs as part of the move to be more distinctive (as the objectives of the TS discussed in the Preface) in practice than the other teacher training schools of education in the public and private universities in Malaysia. The TS innovation proposed by The Policy, Planning and Development of the Teacher Education Division shall begin and be extended to the other 27 TTIs in due course. The TS criteria *as a 'showcase', bench mark or model to other schools* idea was used in the concept paper and may be interpreted as the TS to showcase the best practices as a benchmark for the other national primary school in Malaysia.

When the TS was created the different entities merged in order to implement and carry out the programme as described in, Chapter 1. However, only those involved would be most aware about the programme. Whereas, those not involved in the programme may have or may have not heard about the programme or the concept of the TS. (One of the reasons may be because of the low publicity of the TS programme itself.)

5.2.3 Confusion in the notion of the TS

During a preliminary interview, a teacher trainer in Kuala Lumpur TTI responded about the TS programme by saying:

> "I think TS is a school in a campus, which is the school... where we are trained to teach, to be a teacher." (Badrul)

Even though there are only two TS in operation one in Perlis and the other one in Kuala Terengganu, another claimed that even a TTI in Penang has a TS:

> "From what I did understand there is a, a TS in Penang TTI with the concentration on teaching Malay Language" (Johari)

Another teacher trainer confused the TS with the pre-school program which is another TTI programme. Mimi said:

> "The TS was meant for those teacher trainees who specialise on Pra-PM (pre-school) course. So, these trainees who undergo this course, that is, they will do their practical in that particular TS of TTI."

The confusion in relation to the TS implies restricted involvement and limited exposure to the programme by the different entities of the MOE such as the Central Teacher Education Institution (IPGM) in the ministry, the TTI and the roles of the state education department.

5.2.4 The Concept of the Ownership of the TS

The issue of legal ownership is very pertinent in the TS in being able to manage the school autocratically in order to implement policy demands rather than for the teacher to have the confidence to act democratically. Even though the TS was drafted by the central TTI, the real engine running the TS is the support given by the School Division. Thus, conflicts of interest may be expected.

According to the view of some participants, the owner of the TS is the respective TTI as the title holder or the creator of the TS. The policymakers provided the idea and

the TTI for infrastructures of the TS. The TTI claimed that the TS is a showcase of the TTI. **Qaseh,** a significant person in the hierarchy of the TTI affirms that:

> "The idea of the TS is to be a showcase for the TTIs, which are the sort of trademark of what it is to be a TTI" **(Qaseh).**

Participants also associated the meaning of 'owner' with the governing body of the institution in being able to set up a TS in the compound of the TTI and gaining trust from the other stakeholders.

> "Being able to do something up to a good standard and you're able to do things as conceptualized by the ministry." **(Malar**).

> "I used to ask a lot of questions on how to do create TS but now I no longer ask. I guess when you have learned how to do things and be able to do it and then you belong "(**Arissa**).

The 'owner' is also expected to be knowledgeable in answering any queries in general.

> "I also say that if somebody rings you up with a query about TS that isn't a regular task but it's something that you should know and be able to explain if it's yours, and be able to answer that query then I say that is part of the job" **(Qaseh).**

Furthermore:

> "Ownership to me means that you are capable of setting up a TS and you are confident about it as well. For me it's kind of show that the owner is the one who creates the TS."(**Badrul**).

Alongside these definitions, a few participants associated the word 'owner' with personal endeavour on a more psychological dimension, as explained in the following section.

5.2.5 The Concept of Owner as Administrator in Charge of Annual Appraisal

A few participants described ownership as a personal endeavour which contributed a deeper meaning and understanding to the word owner. Their interpretations of the word owner went beyond landowner but administrator in charge of the land, a very complicated concept.

Unlike others, **Echah** in particular has seen the meaning of owner as an administrator concept. According to her, ownership is about being answerable to the party that does the annual appraisal of the teachers. The annual appraisal is the in-service recorded performance of the government servants in Malaysia. It is used as platforms to determine annual pay, scholarships and job promotions. It is clearly understood that such

a deep interpretation of the word competence has some connections with her origin and personal background.

> "Personally I think, not only in terms of TS or whatever institution you have to survive yourself in. For example, if you work as a mechanic who is your boss, the owner or the title holder of the shop or the one who hires you and pays you wages. Sometimes they are the same person, that's fine. In this case they are two persons, so that's different. You have to answer to your boss."
>
> (Echah).

Another participant explained that 'owner' is a very complicated concept which could not be described in a few sentences.

> "That is a fascinating. Well the reason why it is fascinating is because it's a word that a lot of people debate about but I don't think that they really understand what it means. I think you should kind of be able to express it in words as well as on paper. So I feel I know what ownership means but I think it would be very hard to write a couple of concise sentences that really fit the description. It would be very interesting to be able to see what else the dictionary said about it. I may look at it later on. But I would say having the technical ability to decide and to be able to go about a task in an effective manner is part of ownership. Of course, with the effect, with a degree of success."
>
> (Harizan)

In determining ownership according to some other participants (Johari, Haji, Badrul, and Rahim), these questions may want to be answered:

> "Who is in charge of your wages?
> Who is in charge of your posting?
> Who is your director?
> Who is more risky to disobey?"

The discussions as well as questions above reinforce the argument that there are structural factors of ownership that may prevent democratic change. People are made vulnerable by the questions posed above.

In this section, participants have given alternative interpretations of the word 'ownership'. It is understood as being a complicated concept that goes beyond the normal definition of ownership in a dictionary in the case of the TS. Included in the many meanings of the word ownership is the difference in how ownership is acquired. The findings revealed that participants had different interpretations of how ownership is acquired. For example, only a few of them claimed that ownership can be gained and some of them naively thought that ownership can be acquired by merely being landowner/s.

> "I think the owner is the creator. Who creates TS? That's the owner."

(**Wazi)**

In summary, these variations of different meanings and understandings of the word ownership among participants have connections with their experience and perception of the issue. It is important to understand such differences as they could help to identify each individual's needs and responsibility. The implications of the views of ownership are very important for the development of the democratic model of the TS. Ownership should be more than the legal ownership of an institution. It covers the political, moral, ethical and even personal sense of ownership for a more democratic model of a TS to be implemented.

However, what is the nature of a more 'democratic ownership'? An effective public is perhaps one where the members of that public are able to make a given organization their own through their collective processes of decision making that ensure that each person's voice is heard and counted in the process of decision making.

5.2.6 The Concept of the TS as an Agent of Change

Then there is a question whether the TS of this study can bring change? **Mimi** supported the idea by saying

> "It can, it can be done, it works, and it works in Western countries. Yeah, you see firstly, our teachers should be ready for it. We should prepare them to be ready."

Attempting to change the structure will inevitably involve changes of attitude, beliefs and feelings on the part of the employees towards their work and the organisation (Kakabadse, 1988). Change is inevitable and differences are inevitable and good and should be properly seen as growth on learning. However, not all changes and differences are 'good'. There needs to be a critical assessment of changes. The critical assessment can be made according to principles such as that of égaliberté or equality with freedom for all. This slight change of the implementation of the TS in TTI warrants a change in the system.

School is a vital mechanism in creating the conditions for people to be able to develop democratic forms of organization. The implementation of the TS further creates a challenge for the TTI as the TS is an agent of change. Challenges, however are an irrelevance if, the process to be a showcase are not built into its forms of organisation. The new goal should create a difference in perspective and governance if democracy in education according to Dewey's

conception is to be achieved. Creativity and experiment are necessary in stepping into this new programme. Even though school is not new in the education system, the broader discourses associated with the TS has alternative ideologies of democratic experiments that should be able to cultivate healthy, open and competitive education to give the best to the society. Such transformation may be brought about as Moss and Fielding (2011) argue through a radical education with democracy as a fundamental value, care as a central ethic, a person-centred education in the broadest sense, and an image of a child rich in potential. Radical education should be practiced in the 'common school', that is, a school as a public space for all citizens, for all children, focused on depth of learning and based on team working. A school is a collective workshop of many purposes, possibilities, a person-centred learning community, working closely with other schools and with local authorities instead of the current mainstream dominated by markets and competition, instrumentality and standardisation, managerialism and technical practice.

These new ideologies may create uncertainty and may not suit everyone but this climate of experience is necessary for change to take place if the democratic potential implicit in the concept paper of the TS and the government education policy were made explicit.

5.3 The concept of the philosophical discourses of Dewey and notions of democracy in the TS

This section shall explore the TS in terms of the more philosophical approaches to thinking about the relation between schools and education as discussed by Dewey. In this section then we are looking at the potential to create a more democratic form of organisation and more democratic values and practice in the context of the realities of practice which frustrate the realisation of the potential. Reflecting back upon my own experience in leading the TS, even I at that time was never concerned about the Conceptual Domain or Dewey's concept of education. My goal was concentrated more on making the school function as a school as I perceived it. It was built according to my experiences and perspectives and how I, and my team, thought it should be standardized with the other national primary schools in Malaysia along with a few 'safe' value added criteria such as having smaller classes with swimming lessons and afternoon religious lessons. This means that the practices were guided and justified by discourses that drew upon our prior understanding and views about what a school should do.

In the Introduction to the thesis I wrote *I was seconded to the school and can hardly call myself a 'headmistress', rather I should be called the 'school manager'.* The simple conflict may be ignored as I still functioned as a lead of the school regardless of whichever label I choose to use. However, on one side, a parent considers the title 'school manager' is more 'special' and befits the new TS programme. On the other side, the headmaster/mistress of the other national primary schools in Malaysia is formally appointed by the Human Resource Department of the MOE as recognition based on seniority and annual performance score of a teacher. The prospective candidate of this post would be selected from the pool of progressing DG 29 to DG 32 or DG 34 service scale in MOE but my service scale was DG 41 and my license or letter of appointment from the Human Resource Department of MOE state my post as an academic lecturer of TTI. Thus, legally, I was not licensed to lead or even to teach in the TS but my main source of power in leading and opening the TS was from the administrators of the TTI. Looking back, this is just a minor issue and my main concern at that time was what should be in my TS and how do I make that happen. When the TS was in operation without teachers, I was overwhelmed with work and just concentrating on bigger issues of getting the school going, scheduling the class and the lecturers, attending to administering work, taking teaching responsibilities, taking care of the pupils, meeting deadlines, attending meetings, writing paperwork and networking with parents and education officers. At the time, I never thought of drawing upon the philosophical ideas of Dewey to inform the organisational structure, the educational practices to be employed and the development of curriculum in my TS.

Democracy in education, as in Dewey's conception of education as one of the backbones of the TS concept, was an issue that emerged during the research interview with the teachers of the TS and lecturers of the TTI.

> 'We (Malaysia) are a practicing democracy. So our schools are also democratic. Anybody can study in our schools." **(Danial)**
>
> However, another participant argued by asking;
>
> "But are we given choices on our practice? Can the pupils choose their lessons?" **(Mimi)**

There are two types of democracy implicit in the statements, a democracy where choices are real and one where they are managed or even illusory. This difference can be explored with reference to elite (or expert led) democracy and popular or mass democracy. Elite democracy is a system in which elites as the highest social group acquire the power to rule by a free competition for the people's votes in elections and they are given substantial power to govern as they see fit as they are 'the experts'.

Popular Democracy is a system of government in which people participate as much as possible in making the decisions that affect their lives such as basic equality, tolerance and respect for individual rights similar to 'participatory democracy' (Fung, 2007) as discussed earlier in section 3.2.1.

The principle of equaliberty (Balibar 1994) and Dewey's democratic philosophy act as the criteria by which to develop organisational practices that include people's voices in decision making. Thus, there are contrasts between the democratic philosophy and the non-democratic discourses informing actual practice.

Based on that, Apple & Beane, (2007:6) state:

> "one can understand, for example, how claims for democracy could be used to shore up movements for civil rights, expanded voting privileges and protection of free speech. ... Efforts to sharpen the meaning of democracy and extend its meaning throughout society are seen by some of the more privileged people of this country as threats to their own status and power. ... We believe that democracy does mean something and that bringing that meaning to light is critical at a time many citizens are vigorously debating the future course of our schools"

According to Rancière (1995) democracy is 'power without power' and appears only as the 'choice of the good' or the power of chance based on no qualification for ruling. It is possible according to Rancière (2009:119) that

> "Between the contemporary aporias of consensus and this formula it is possible to weave the main threads of a dramaturgy of politics, conceived out of its limits, a dramaturgy of politics conceived as the development of this paradox of 'power without power' in the meaning of 'democracy'

Democracy means that no single person has a right to govern or hold power over another as a king might have or a tyrant might exercise through force. Hence the power of the democrat is the power of democracy itself. That is, in Rancière's terms it is 'power without power' since no one democrat holds or exercises all the power of the democratic system for their personal purposes. This means the elected representative, or the democratic citizen, does not hold power independently. This picture carved between having power without power, he thought, can be taken as the original formula of the democratic scandal: as stated by Rancière (2009:119) "democracy is the world upside down in a dramaturgy of politics". Upside down, here means that power comes from below rather than from the top, in that sense, it is 'upside down'. For Welsh (1985:3):

> "A major concern of political sociology is with the social processes by which political power is converted into authority. This general phenomenon can be viewed dramaturgically since authority is a form of impression management

> attempting to make rational and legitimate a society's distribution of political power, especially when the many are subjugated by the few."

There is thus a problem to the extent that democracy is typically in practice undermined by the 'impression management' that tries to legitimize the authority and expertise of elites over the masses

According to Schostak and Schostak (2010: 177);

> "Democracy offers a space within which protagonists who may never agree with each other may at least find a political space where they can coexist and where they must always seek creative forms of social, political, cultural and economic organisation in order to deal with the differences in ways that are socially just. Democracy then, is the political instrument through which spaces are deterritorialized, opened up and reterritorialized to meet new demands, needs and interests."

The question for the empirical part of the research is whether the kinds of principles of democracy developed by political philosophers can be established in practice. A subsidiary question concerns what prevents the development of democratic practices. On probing the issue of democracy deeper, one of the responses given by Danial is linked to accountability;

> **"**I think because of accountability. In capitalist system is about accountability for policies that are accountable to everything because resources are expensive. The education ministry also has questions or answers to the public, the accountability to the public, how many are doing well? how do you measure that?, the... how many are doing well? how do education progress? so the only thing to measure is through exam result and the best an easy way to measure is true factual. Yeah to assess the facts we should have acquired so that's the most objective way to measure people." **(Danial)**

The above interview extract places the issue politically in the context of 'accountability'. That is, it places it back into the realm of performance measurement and returns power back to the education ministry who have the legitimate authority to impose policies to achieve 'improvement' in education

In sum, the issues so far raised in this chapter are more in terms of the difficulties experienced by the staff based on the conceptual inadequacies of the institutional system and the needs for accountability, empowerment or autonomy at work. Accountability, empowerment or autonomy comes together with the element of trust. The underlying 'trust, is important as overly controlled and supervised system led to the feel of mistrust as pointed out by Day (2004:134),

> "some of the effects of hierarchical school leadership on colleagues are feelings of inadequacy, inability to express oneself, inability to influence anyone, feelings of being shut out, increase in cynicism, increase in destructive feelings, feeling that anyone has either to dominate or be dominated, feeling that to confirm is the safest way forward, failing that in tolerance and exploitation as to be accepted, feeling that those at the top are not interested in these feelings and that there are not easy way of communicating with them."

The issue then is whether a more democratic approach might address some of these problems. Subsequently, a notion of the TS drawing on Dewey's approach as well as other legacies such as Summerhill School to democracy in relation to education shall be explored.

5.3.1 A step involved in describing the democratic reimagination of schools

Dewey's notion is that there is a need to educate democratically so that the public will become sufficiently sophisticated to act as an educated public and thus choose its representatives well.

As Ryan (1995: 25) put it:

> "The problem was to make democracy in practice what it had the potential of being: not just as a political system in which governments elected by majority vote made such decisions as they could, but a society permeated by a certain kind of character, by mutual regard of all citizens for all other citizens, and by an ambition to make society both a greater unity and one that reflected the full diversity of its members' talents and aptitudes".

In exploring the consequences for possible action about individual and group wishes, Dewey (1916: 9) places a great emphasis upon the role of communication to discover common interests by stating, "Communication is the process of sharing experience till it becomes a social possession." This process of sharing promotes a new development of the architectures of the social. That is, creating democratic procedures in organisations where they had not previously existed

Deliberation and communication is a fundamental process involved in deciding collective goals. It is what Dewey (1927) viewed as essential to the formulation of a democratic public. People in general and not just elites are a part of the public according to Dewey's concept of the public. He made the argument that the only way to get to the public, is through content. Thus, people have to deal with everything as part of daily life. Contrastingly, Lippman's (1927) concept of the public is as a phantom, a mirage and not real and thus opens to manipulation through public relations strategies where consent that serves elites' interests can be manufactured. It is just an impression created which

actually belongs to the realm of fantasy. Schostak and Schostak (2013) debated Lippman and Dewey on the issue between a fantasy public and an effective public in order to explore the conditions for the creation of democratic values and practices in all forms of social, economic and political organization. However, the question is, for this section, what is the role of a school in creating the conditions for the emergence of an effective public? What is the role of schools in the education of children if not for their 'public' role in active decision making i.e. the practice of democracies? An effective public is a public composed of people's voices that are counted freely and equally in the arenas of debate and decision making.

According to Dewey, education is the fundamental method of social progress. The community's duty to education is a moral duty that involves a continuing reconstruction of experience where all share the same processes - and the goal of education is best learnt by being members of a group or community that acts democratically.

In communicating and participating in this process of democratic deliberation we learn to view ourselves as social beings with a concern for the common good, and responsibilities to others as a true democrat. As Dewey (1916: 6) put it, 'the very process of living together educates'. Therefore, schooling or any other form of education must be 'primarily a mode of associated living, a conjoint communicated experience' (Dewey 1916: 87). Dewey argued that education failed because it neglected the fundamental principle of the school as a form of community life.

> "It conceives that school as a place where certain information is to be given, where certain lessons are learnt, or where habits are formed. The value of these is conceived as lying largely in the remote future, the child must do these things for the sake of something else he is to do; they are mere preparations. As a result they do not become part of the life experience of the child and so are not truly educative." (Dewey 1897, reproduced in Dewey 1940: 8)

There may be a mixture of debatable opinions on this issue, however, one thing is certain; a TS has been implemented in the TTI, and it signifies change. Thus the question is to what extent can an organisation like a school adopt democratic forms of management?

Nancy Fraser (2008) in an interview by Marina Liakova, asserts her idea that justice requires social interaction on a par with one another in all forms of social arrangements such as politics, labour market and family life. Following Fraser's argument, reimagining an organisation like the TS should involve developing social arrangements requiring participation on a par; which recalls Balibar's 'equaliberty'. Organizationally, it would require that the resources, mechanisms and procedures of an organization were appropriate to a democratic vision founded upon the principle of 'égaliberté' in Balibar's sense.

Hence the next section such principles will provide criteria by which to look at the issues involved in the concept of education in building democratic societies.

5.3.2 The Concept of Education in Building Democratic Societies

In this section, the school is explored as a vehicle for the production of democratic forms of social organization. The potential for the TS is to promote change for the democratic production of an educated and democratic public as argued by Dewey. In this sense, education is potentially a safeguard against authoritarianism and totalitarianism.

Understanding change means "understanding that worlds are constructible means also understanding that they are deconstructible" (Schostak & Schostak: 2008: 136). That is in terms of change, what is considered to be normal in the usual practice can also be deconstructed and be reconstructed. As an extreme example, consider the protests in the Arab Spring.

Dewey's argument is that the forms of education and organization practiced in schools can be seen as a precondition for and critical to the emergence of democratic society. Precisely it is the lack of a history and practice of democratic forms of organization that allows the continuance of autocratic forms. The core of human rights and is synonymous with the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, applicable to all Member States of the United Nations. Article 21 states:

> "Everyone has the right to take part in the government of his [or her] country, directly or through freely chosen representatives…. The will of the people shall be the basis of the authority of government; this shall be expressed in periodic and genuine elections which shall be by universal and equal suffrage and shall be held by secret vote or by equivalent voting procedures.
>
> (United Nations, 1948)

These requirements are elaborated in the ICCPR, Article 25 as follows:

> "Every citizen shall have the right and opportunity, without any distinctions mentioned in Article 2 [i.e., race, color, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth or other status] and without unreasonable restrictions: (a) To take part in the conduct of public affairs, directly or through freely chosen representatives; (b) To vote and to be elected at genuine periodic elections which shall be by universal and equal suffrage and shall be held by secret ballot, guaranteeing the free expression of the will of the electors…."
>
> (United Nation, 1976)

However, will the people effectively get what they are hoping for or will they be passed over to other opportunistic parties manipulating the situation to their own interest? What is interesting here is that the demand for democracy is expressed from individuals like youths collectively. According to Schostak and Schostak (2008:80), "*feeling at home under domination is less to be explained than feeling a sense of injustice and a need to revolt*." The power of governments, of hierarchies depends on the assent of people to use their collective powers for the organisation. However, democratic forms of organization need to be embedded throughout all organisations and especially schools otherwise the forms of authoritarianism can be re-instituted through the hierarchical structures of private and public sector organisations.

So, the point for this section is that the power of governments and administrations of organisations depends on the collective assent of people. The freedom of people depends upon them creating democratic forms of organization that prevent the rise of elite power. Schools, therefore potentially have a major role to play in laying the foundations for democratic practice. Yet, if a school is to prepare people for democratic organisation it must then think about how to produce the necessary public spaces for people to express their views, form agreements and creative solutions to disagreements as in the Radical Research, Schostak and Schostak (2008:151) stresses that:

> "real power resides in the multitude, and it is this power that is set in motion by the 'leveling instincts' of the angry crowd, deconstructing the centralising, hierarchical power of the state."

In terms of the TS, the change in freedom that is just a change to have a voice in deciding the syllabus, the curriculum, the type of assessment and also in general administrative conduct of the TS. The difference requested may not be immense but if it is adopting a Dewey style of democratic approach or later moving to more radical democratic approaches, it is drawing on the same or at least similar principles, the principles of liberty, equality and collective organisation. However, we should not wait until change is forced upon us, as individuals or as organisations because hurried change, is unpleasant and often beyond our control and we should 'learn to love change' as the adage has it or, more positively perhaps, 'learned to keep moving' (Handy: 1993) as changes in our working culture may help meet the challenges ahead. Culture is defined by Handy (1993) as the way we do things at work. Influenced by what we see, hear and deal with every day, culture has a huge impact on the effectiveness of an organisation. However, with the period of change and the inevitable challenges ahead, it is vital that the organisation make some changes of its own. As Handy (1993: 23) commented on politics and change;

> "Change is a necessary condition of survival, but we individuals or organisations, and differences are a necessary ingredient in that change, that never ending

> search for improvement. ... Without politics we would never change and without change we would wither and die."

Hence, some key areas of change need to be identified in order to improve the way we do things at work. As mentioned earlier section 7.4, the question is whether the 'public mind' is simply to be shaped or whether the 'public' enters real political debate and engages in active decision making. That is why at least their tacit consent to the power structure of government matters and schools contribute to the development of the democratic organisation which later would be transferred to the democratic society. The real issue is whether democratic forms of organisation for the key institutions of everyday life can be constructed: one of the more significant of these is 'schools'. This is because everyone goes to school and thus what they experience and learn there about how organisations are organised, matters and will influence them in later life. In order to identify, some autonomy should be given to key stake holders in policy making at school in the quest of change. According to Hayden (2006:14) "*Changing rules and procedures to implement social beliefs about what will make for a good society is usually an important part of policy-making*". If people are deprived of autonomy then they experience an absence of power. The organisational architecture of schools may be designed to reinforce this lack of autonomy and so create experiences of a lack of power.

The essential political task is to create the conditions by which people can replace a previous regime with their own more democratic forms of organization. How to prepare people to do this is an educational task. In what ways may schools seed the values, practices and experiences of engaging and organizing democratically? This is the revolutionary import of Dewey and Neill and those who have been influenced by them like Freire (1970:69) in the Pedagogy of the Oppressed who states that:

> "A revolutionary leadership must accordingly practice *co-intentional* education Teachers and students (leadership and people), co-intent on reality, are both Subjects, not only in the task of unveiling that reality, and thereby coming to know it critically, but in the task of re-creating that knowledge. As they attain this knowledge of reality through common reflection and action, they discover themselves and its permanent re-creators. In this way, the presence of the oppressed in the struggle for their liberation will be that it should be: not pseudo-participation, but committed involvement."

Earlier the distinction of the elite driven democracies that rely upon shaping the opinions of a 'phantom public' (Lippman 2011), as against a concept of a democracy where people are educated to become an 'effective public' (Schostak and Schostak 2013) has been drawn.

In sum, the implications for reimagining TS democratically and its role in the society therefore is creating the conditions for an effective public that is able to organise, debate, make decisions and carry out actions under conditions of freedom with equality. In the case when a tyrant is brought down, there needs to be an effective public to take his place. If there is no effective public, then the elites that ran the tyrant's regime will continue to run society. So, the argument is that the more people learn how to become an effective public, the less elite are able to dominate and fill the spaces of political power.

5.3.2 The process of reimagining the democratic role of the TS in the Malaysian system

From the discussions above and in the structure of work in the TS can be understood in terms of management attempts within the limits imposed by technology and organisation to maximise production or outcomes. This section explores how the conception of school management through the application of performance indicators impacts on people's sense of being pressured that has emerged through the interviews. Workers wishing to retain their job manage appearances so that it looks as if they are shouldering a proper workload, or even one that is on the heavy side (Belbin, 2005). This section shall look at what need to be 'undone' in the system and the organisation of schools and training in order to do the reinvention.

Such concerns about better resources, better performance, better schools, and better education directly creates immense pressure in the work place. The situations lead to bids for recognition, creating further pressure to be endured. This is what Dejours (2000) explains, from a psychoanalytic perspective, in terms of the logic of 'collective defense mechanisms'. His case material is drawn notably from industrial contexts developed by such professions including working in nuclear power stations, business, and railways in response to the specific stress they work under. In his view, the organization of work actually has a real power over minds and "the 'official' description of work as a real power over the minds of all is incomparably more extended than twenty years ago" (Dejours, 1998:75). In the TS, there is an 'official' description which is different from work as 'experienced' and that may well be different at a conceptual level from the ways that teachers and lecturers conceptualise their work and their role.

A lecturer suffering from stress that resulted in high blood pressure cannot continue to endure his responsibility as the lead of the TS as it is a burden to his health condition and him. The management thus decided to shift his responsibility such as in reference of the Introduction Chapter back to my initial account of having to take my role to lead the implementation of the TS:

"You have to take over, he (the TS lead) develops hypertension". **(The Vice Director)**

The demand of the job is indicated as too heavy to be shouldered by Qaseh. Even so, the responsibility of this role remains the same and by shifting the responsibility, would the management not be shifting his stress and his 'suffering' to me? Arguably, this situation can be seen as the implication of an 'instituted lie' as real responsibility is more complex than the official prescribed roles. The prescribed role is to lead the TS. The 'instituted lie' occurs in not fully recognizing or making explicit the real responsibility of leading the TS which demands more complex roles and responsibilities such as those involved in the increased pressures of the installation of a computer programme for administration.

As such the pervasiveness of the 'instituted lie' as part of the reality of contemporary work, dramatically compounds the continued stressful aspect of contemporary work (Derranty 2008). On the other hand, the example from the introduction of this thesis on the issue of 'textbooks' illustrates an 'instituted lie' in the process of work:

> *Textbooks were given by the State Education Departments. However, the process of obtaining the textbook is not as straightforward as the previous statement seems to imply.*

The instituted lie as in refusing to speak the truth about what is involved in executing the work responsibility, camouflages the real anchored suffering which resulted in such an action of completing work. The 'lie' also lies in keeping quiet about the inadequacy of the procedure of the official way of doing work as opposed to real practice such as the reality of the procedure of obtaining textbooks from the State Education Department involves filling in forms and the long wait for the textbook to be sent to school as opposed to the shortcuts and action needed to quicken the process which "*took a lot of phone calls, negotiations and many trips to the Education Departments and the neighbouring schools to collect the books".*

The 'suffering' occurs when employees are pressured and take risks to fulfill the gap at work such as adopting 'procedure breaking' shortcuts due to the time constraints involved in meeting deadlines. There is the institutional lie perpetuated by the performance assessment and then there is the resistance that that might follow because of this, on the part of the staff. The performance assessment is a 'lie' if the assessment instrument does not reflect social justice and lacks the critical consciousness to assess the current context of how employees actually function. In filling in the performance assessment form, as in the issue of obtaining textbooks for the school, the process of obtaining the textbook such as making phone calls or trips are not noted. As an example,

the management is to note whether the textbook is obtained in time for the class to start or otherwise it is used as some sort of ‘demerit’ in the annual appraisal at work. Apart from the lack of recognition by management of TTI, there are also risks which create ‘suffering’ on the part of the employees about the nature of work in the process of obtaining textbooks.

Conversely, successful organisations should be able to identify and overcome these ‘sufferings’ to illuminate and acknowledge the real concept of work process. Furthermore as according to Senge (2006:4), “the organisation that would truly excel in the future will be the organisations that discover how to tap people‘s commitment and capacity to learn at all levels in an organisation.” Whilst, in relation to teaching, Deal (1990:131) argues that "in its wake the decades of change, improvement and reform have left many educators -consciously or otherwise - confused, exhausted and disillusioned".

Conceptually, work is the physical or mental human performance directed toward the production or accomplishment of an occupation or undertaking. Precarity means: dangerously lacking in security or stability at work. Precarious work to Derranty (2008) is a term used to describe poorly paid non-standard employment which is insecure, unprotected, risky or/and cannot support a household. Precarious work suggests both insecurity and uncertainty. This concept of precarious work is appropriate to the teaching context given the emergent sense of pressure already identified in the preceding section which can generate a pervasive sense of anxiety

Derranty (2008) focuses on the writings of Christophe Dejours (The Centrality of Work 2010) to present a new perspective on contemporary debates about the impacts on individuals and communities of the transformations of work and employment. The picture that Dejours draws of contemporary workplaces is one where lying is instituted, reality denied and the result is ‘suffering’. According to him, forms of social injustice are directly rooted and grounded in the centrality of work, both for individuals and for society. Status at work is a state of power in the hierarchical structure of the social structuring at work.

In the neoliberal conception of work, work changes according to the current state of demand in the organisations, institutions and society. A new job is created when enough work content to justify the post is found. Derranty (2008) following Dejours has a much broader notion of what work entails than the form of employment that people typically engage in whether in the private or public sector.

5.4 The concept of the discourses of 'work' through which concepts are realised in practice.

This section shall explore how discourses are articulated through discourses of work as 'work' .The question here is how do people work together to articulate the key frameworks of ideas that they have concerning the realisation of the TS.

So, approaches to work as a way of providing a model of how the TS can be put into practice shall be explored in terms of the Dejours and Deranty concept of work which is consistent with a democratic approach to organisation. The more that work is articulated and practiced democratically the more the TS model can be realised in its fullest sense. In addition, the hierarchical organisational model reduces the extent to which participants feel they are a part of the decision making process, the less democratic, then the less they feel they own the developments of the school. The more precarious their employment, then the less they are likely to engage with the TS concept.

In Dejours sense work is fundamentally co-operative and democratic where each person is involved in decision making. However, in contemporary employment, roles are typically hierarchically prescribed. The work activities in any institution such as a TTI are to carry out the duty given or expected of a certain post in the hierarchy of the organisation. The higher the position in the hierarchy, the more power and pay is given to the role holder. In the implementation of the TS, the roles are prescribed and decision making limited. So, the following in this section will focus on 'employment' as distinct from Dejours' wider conception of work.

According to the National Service (JPA) circular (Bil. 2 , 2007) under the reference number pp07/bil02/pp0207 implemented on the 1st of June 2007, the public working hours of the federal agencies such as TTIs are 43.5 hours per week. The schedule for the normal working hours on the circular is as in appendix F.

Expected work or duties describing the role of the lecturers in TTIs has been formulated under several categorisations such as:

- Teaching: lecturing and coaching the teacher trainees based on the subject and syllabus as scheduled by the timetable. Teacher trainees are the post graduates (KPLI), the undergraduates (PISMP) and the foundation classes for the undergraduates (PPISMP).

- Preparation: planning and preparing for a lesson and lecture in advance such as writing the lesson plan, preparing slides or PowerPoint presentation and making sure of the resources needed and available.

- Assessment: preparing for the appropriate assessment tool for the formative and summative evaluation of the respective paper as well as spending time marking, moderating and writing reports based on the performance of the candidates. Some of the marking is done internally and externally inter TTIs. In the internal evaluation, subject lecturers sit together and moderate the marks for the candidates. For the external evaluation marking activities, subject lecturers of the 27 TTIs (apart from English Language Training Centre as they do not train trainees) also sit together and moderate the marks for the candidates.

- Practicum: coaching, observing and evaluating the teacher trainees during the teaching practicum in schools as part of the teacher training. As Perlis is a small state with limited number of school, at times students are also posted to Kedah and Perak.

- Co-curricular: coaching and advising teacher trainees during co-curricular activities such as student society (subject based society- Mathematics, Science, English Language, cultural society – dance, drama), games and sport activities (swimming, badminton, athletics) or the uniform units (Scouts, Cadets)

- Training: the training of the in-service teachers, the outdoor training experience for the teacher trainees and self-development training for the lecturers.

- Non-teaching contact: duties like warden in charge of the welfare of the teacher trainees outside normal working hours such as during weekends. Taking turns being on duty at night, writing reports and acting in emergencies such as bringing sick teacher trainees to the hospital.

- Individual and professional activities: general, clerical and administrative duties such as writing reports, work papers, submitting claims, corresponding, filing for the benefit of ISO (International Organization for Standardization) and writing papers for research seminar.

- Special duty: being involved in duties for special occasions such as TTI graduation ceremony, camping, Independence Day celebration, examination invigilation duties, seminars and state affairs.

For some lecturers in Malaysia there may be differences in terms of their duties. For example, in the English Language Teaching Centre Malaysia (ELTC), lecturers do not need to train teacher trainers. The lines of responsibility listed above, however, are appropriate for the circumstances of this study. These are understood and known to the researcher and participating respondents.

Teacher trainers in TTIs continued to clock in from 8 a.m to 5 p.m, (Utusan **Malaysia** Online: 23 Mei 2012) five days a week not including work brought home such as marking assignments and report writing *(*Berita Harian Online: 29 April 2010). In total the working hours is more than 50 hours per week. Teachers in Malaysia facing up to 50 pupils per class are in a staggered process of increasing their working hours with several schools already selected as pilot projects for 6 months starting in January 2012 involving 104 schools and 5000 teachers in Sarawak, Melaka, Pahang and Johor proposing that teachers work nine hours a day from 7.30 a.m. to 4.30 p.m. (Projek Rintis Pemantapan Profesion Perguruan di Malaysia KPM 2012). A sense of the situation can be gauged in terms of a brief comparison with the UK. In England, the biggest classroom union (National Union of Teachers – NUT) issued a threat to strike unless the next government cuts teachers' work to go to a 35 hour per week (The Observer, 4th April 2010). Teachers also are reported to demand a 20-hour limit per week as working hours to ensure quality teaching Daily Mail UK, 2 April 2013). As a comparison, teachers in the UK - even though accompanied by classroom helpers - with not more than 25 pupils per class complained that the workload had grown worse and that they took an average of 18.7 hours of unpaid overtime every week. The motion proposed warned that "reducing teacher workload is vital to improve both teacher's working conditions and children's learning conditions." Teachers' unions such as the NUT (National Union of Teachers) and the NASUWT (National Association of Schoolmasters Union of Women Teachers) requested shorter working hours and called for smaller class sizes in April 2013, and September 2013 (http://www. telegraph.co.uk/ education/ education news/10288098?NUT-and-NASUWT-announce-teachers-plan-to-strike-in-October. html) and the latest point of friction on the 17 October 2013 (http://www.bbc.co.uk/news/uk-england-24549604) between teachers and the government. However, it is reported that teachers reacted in fury when the government considered that head teachers needed the power to lengthen the school day so pupils can get more teaching. In the view of the media the union leaders should start thinking about the children instead of their long holidays. (Metro UK Wednesday 19 June 2013).

In Malaysia, an example of a raw timetable framework of contact hours of a teacher trainer set by the timetable master **(Harizan** from the language department**)** in semester two year 2009 is produced as below;

Day :	1 07:30 - 09:00	2 09:00 - 10:00	3 10:00 - 11:00	4 11:00 12:00	5 12:00 - 13:00	6 13:00 - 14:00	7 14:00 - 15:00	8 15:00 - 16:00	9 16:00 - 17:00	10 17:00 - 18:00	11 18:00 - 19:00	12 20:00 - 21:00	13 21:00 - 22:00
Monday		JB PI 2311 L & S2 PPISMP PJ, 2 PPISMP MUZIK			JB TSL3102 1 PISMP BI A, 1 PISMP BI B, 1 PISMP BI C							JB TSL3102 (ISL) 1 PISMP BI A, 1 PISMP BI B, 1 PISMP BI C	
Tuesday				JB TSL3102 1 PISMP BI A, 1 PISMP BI B, 1 PISMP BI C					JB PI 1353P 2 PPISMP BI C, 2 PPISMP BI D				
Wednesday			JB PI 1353P 2 PPISMP BI C, 2 PPISMP BI D										
Thursday	JB PI 1353P 2 PPISMP BI C, 2 PPISMP BI D			JB PI 2311 L & S 2 PPISMP BA, 2 PPISMP SAINS									
Friday				JHEP TUTORIAL 1 PISMP BI A			MESY J/U/LPS 4 kpli						

Figure 4 Raw timetable

Looking at the timetable, it can be clearly seen that the lecturer frequently has to handle 2 to 3 classes per lesson. There would be about 25 teacher trainees per class. As an example, on Monday for the second period between 9 to 10 in the morning, there is a 2311 paper on Listening and Speaking skills for the second cohort of foundation classes (2 PPISMP - Physical Education and 2 PPISMP-Music.). The next lesson, the fifth period at 12 to 1 o'clock, is Methodology of Listening and Speaking (TSL 3102) for the 3 classes of first year undergraduates majoring in English language (1 PISMP A, 1 PISMP C and 1 PISMP C). The last lesson of the day is a continuation of the Methodology of Listening and Speaking (TSL 3102) for the first year undergraduates majoring in English language 1 PISMP A, 1 PISMP C and 1 PISMP C at 8 to 10 pm. In total, by looking at the teaching schedule, the formal interaction for this particular lecturer is 13 hours per week. The lecturer is to teach five papers in this semester. However, the number of classes or teaching periods from one lecturer to another depends on the courses and cohort of trainees offered. There are discrepancies in job responsibilities, creating vast differences between the workload of one lecturer in a Language Department with major and compulsory papers undertaken by all trainees as compared to Mathematics and Science or Technical Department with a different number of lesser papers.

In addition, if a class is to be cancelled on the grounds that a lecturer is for example called to an internal or external training session, a meeting, or practicum visitations, the class will have to be re-scheduled with the agreement of the lecturer, the classes involved, the timetable master and the clerk (the booking of a classroom should be done to avoid clashes with other classes or lecturers). As for the teacher trainers in the

TTI, they also have got to fill in the other columns of the timetable to detail other responsibilities apart from teaching, such as lesson preparation, research, report writing, practicum, co-curricular and other special duties. Thus, an example of a complete timetable of a lecturer may look as below;

TIME / DAY	8.00-9.00	9.00-10.00	10.00-11.00	11.00-12.00	12.00-1.00	2.00-3.00	3.00-4.00	4.00-5.00	8.00-10.00
	FIRST	SECOND	THIRD	FOURTH	FIFTH	SIXTH	SEVENTH	EIGHTH	NINTH
MONDAY	General assembly	JB PI 2311 L & S2 PPISMP PJ, 2 PPISMP MUZIK	Lecture Preparation	Development of Personal qualities	JB TSL3102 1 PISMP BI A, 1 PISMP BI B, 1 PISMP BI C	Development of Personal qualities	Development of Personal qualities	Development of Personal qualities	JB TSL3102 (ISL) 1 PISMP BI A, 1 PISMP BI B, 1 PISMP BI C
TUESDAY	Development of Personal qualities	Development of Personal qualities	Development of Personal qualities	JB TSL3102 1 PISMP BI A, 1 PISMP BI B, 1 PISMP BI C	JB TSL3102 1 PISMP BI A, 1 PISMP BI B, 1 PISMP BI C	General management	General management	JB PI 1353P 2 PPISMP BI C, 2 PPISMP BI D	
WEDNESDAY	Co-curricular (Uniform units)		JB PI 1353P 2 PPISMP BI C, 2 PPISMP BI D	JB PI 1353P 2 PPISMP BI C, 2 PPISMP BI D	Training/ Consultation/ Practicum	Training/ Consultation/ Practicum	Training/ Consultation/ Practicum	Training/ Consultation/ Practicum	
THURSDAY	JB PI 1353P 2 PPISMP BI C, 2 PPISMP BI D	JB PI 1353P 2 PPISMP BI C, 2 PPISMP BI D	Information Technology based Management	JB PI 2311 L & S 2 PPISMP BA, 2 PPISMP SAINS	Research/ Innovation	Research/ Innovation	Research/ Innovation	Research/ Innovation	
FRIDAY	8.15-9.15	9.15-10.15	10.15-11.15	11.15-12.15	2.45-3.45	3.45-4.45			
	Lecture Preparation	Lecture Preparation	Lecture Preparation	JHEP TUTORIAL 1 PISMP BI A	Staff Development Training/ Department Meeting				

Figure 5 Formal timetables for lecturers

The above timetable could mean some classes having more than 50 teacher trainees with just one lecturer in charge. Lecturers are forced to take classes double or triple the normal size because of an inadequate quantity of lecturers. As in the case of the lecturer above, there is a Monday where the lecturer needs to come and conduct a class on TSL 3102 Literature in English to a group of three classes of degree semester 1 teacher trainees for two hours at 8 to 10 p.m. at night (outside the normal working hours). Hence, they are responsible for covering extra responsibilities in teaching as well as marking and preparing the lesson in the TTI as well as contributing to the TS. The question here is, as a colleague, Harizan puts it: "*Do we want to see the standards compromised*"? This question is an indication of a wider notion of what is involved in the work necessary to achieve quality rather than just the performances required to meet performance criteria. But, on the other hand;

> "If you have somebody who doesn't want to do that role, should you force them into it?" (Mimi)

When this question is posed to other lecturers, many share the view as overtly given by a director of TTI as below;

> "No, you send those lecturers back to school" (Haji)

However, rhetorically, would the situation be solved if the action, in this case, of reposting lecturers back to school, is taken? The role is complex, pressured and under resourced. Thus, sending those who object to it back to school is not a solution because it

does not address the underlying problems. Instead of being able to concentrate on the core activities, the quality of these core activities are being undermined by the need to take on 'extra activities' that are no longer just seen as 'extra' but are in effect being seen as 'core'.

As an illustration, the lecturers concentrate on core activities such as teaching and lecturing during working hours. The emphasis has moved away from performing the core activities at work on to the other extra activities that are urgently needed and added from time to time. The extra activities are regarded as another core activity and create multiple assessment criteria at work whenever directed by the administrator. An example of extra activity for a mathematic lecturer is to be attached to two periods of mathematics lesson in the TS in addition of the current responsibility in the Mathematics Department of the TTI. The attachment to the TS is an added core responsibility. Thus, logically more time and effort is needed in preparation to play the role in TTI as well as in the TS.

Another extra activity as an example of employment demands which reduce the capacity to concentrate on the core work is, for example, if a seminar is to be delivered, the lecturers would be concentrating on writing papers, preparing and planning for the seminar. However, the preparatory work is not explicitly counted in the working hours. Even though each lecturer has got a role of their own, the imbalance of workload in terms of fair distribution of working hours and other extra activities creates dissatisfaction especially when working towards a deadline of, for example, keying in marks into a computer system for an examination. The deadline remains the same regardless of the number or length of scripts to be marked. Logically, a lecturer with the scripts of three classes will take less time and would be able to spend more time on other responsibilities as compared to another with 6 classes. However, a lecturer with six classes will take more time and would not be able to more time on the other extra activities. At the end of the day, when it comes to the annual appraisal, those with more 'achievements' of more participations and contributions in the extra activities other than the normal teaching routines are awarded an 'excellent grade' with other entitlements like better pay or given higher role in administration. This suggests that people have to learn to play their roles in order to get the best rewards for them.

Work roles in the TTI, are directed by higher authorities. However, how do people 'play' their role? Playing the role means either playing it to get the best rewards in terms of promotion and pay; or to play the employment role sufficiently well so as to be able to make space to attend to the broader notion of work in terms of quality of work. **Haji**, a Director of TTI commented about his role in the TTI by saying:

> "When you go into that role (the director), you know how to play all the functions. You come in and you fit in, to do what is expected of the TTI's director."

However, he was not formally trained to be a director of a TTI but may have formerly learnt through experience as he explained that:

> "There is no structured guidance but over the years through experience, by discussing with friends rather than being trained formally into the position. The *Fail Meja* (The Director's Manual) is accessible to all but the director keeps it."(Haji)

He also describes his work as similar to those of a fireman

> "What issues cropped up then you spend your time on that issue. You work like a fireman, when there's a thing to do, you concentrate on that. When there is a meeting, you attend a meeting. You don't really check on things like having a schedule." (Haji)

In particular, clerical and administrative duties such as filing for the benefit of ISO (International Organization for Standardization) are mentioned as something which lecturers do not think should be part of the job and they would like to spend less time concentrating on.

> "Sometimes we have to bring the files back (home) to sort it out" **(Johari)**

Instead of taking the workload home, a lecturer is asked during an interview why it should not be done regularly at work. He feels unable to do things which should be part of the job during the normal working hours as:

> "I hold portfolios, must keep that up to date; my profiles (of lesson planning and teaching activities), my Scouts, my research; my HEP (student affairs). That's more than 13 files! Come On**!"(Mirza)**

One particular lecturer confesses that he did not adhere to keeping an accurate filing system for the benefit of ISO.

> "My work is to teach, to train teachers. I do not want to spend my time chasing letters and forms" **(Johari)**

However, one of the chief editors of ISO warns that, "Don't forget, if one person is caught (not properly doing the files), the TTI shall be given NCR or CAR". Nonconformance Report (NCR) and Corrective Action Request (CAR) are risks no institution can take as it reflects bad practice. In avoidance of these, preventive action requests by the administrators are made resulting in a greater workload.

In the implementation of the TS, there are education and skills mismatches. A person trained and educated to be a teacher understands some of the intricacies involved in their daily task of teaching but would find it hard to fill a job requirement that demanded other areas of professional skills such as management, maintenance of such massive clerical demands.

Despite all the demands to conform to administrative demands, the administrators are not able to do anything about it? It seems not to take into account the NCR and CAR. Another lecturer challenges the administrator;

> "If I didn't do it (keep files), what can they (admin) do to me?" **(Wazi)**

Some lecturers feel that the work load rarely or never allows them to pursue personal interests outside work while some others have a different view:

> "It's all about management and discipline, if you manage well and regularly update the files' you'll be fine." **(Badrul)**

> "With all the work and travelling time, by the time I reached home I just want to rest and sleep" **(Arissa)**

> "I love going outstation, I get to see places" **(Mimi)**

Judging by the comments, the list of expected tasks and the long hours of work, it may be concluded that the lecturers have a very heavy workload. Being involved in the TS is another heavy load added to the already heavy workload as pointed out by a teacher trainer;

> "A lecturer with a full and demanding job cannot be expected to take another full (teaching in TS) and demanding job." **(Arissa)**

The transcript extracts from interviews shows the extent to which the TS is demanding. This is indicated by some of the responsibilities of a teacher, as listed by teachers in the TS (Lucy, Budi, Sebalingam):

- preparing and writing the lesson plan (daily, weekly and the annual scheme of work based on the syllabus given by MOE)
- updating the pupils daily attendance.
- marking students exercise books, usually three books per pupil in the class of 45 pupils which equals 135 books per class. If a teacher is teaching five classes, that means the teacher will be marking 675 books.
- handling and attending various meetings; such as staff meetings, sports meetings, subject meetings, PTA meetings, co-curricular meetings, programme meetings (teachers Day, Maal Hijrah, Independence Day, Appraisal Day)
- coaching and being involved in co-curricular activities like games and the uniform units such as Scouts, Girl Guides, Military Cadets and St John Ambulance Unit. Sports practices are done once a week during the evening and sometimes teachers have to come on Saturday for co-curricular activities or to train pupils for competition.

- attending staff development programmes i.e. in-house training and other training courses conducted by MOE or others as directed.
- managing clerical work and filling in forms such as emis (pupils online profile-attendance, examination)/ hrmis (teachers' online data, work plan leading to annual appraisal)/ course record/Flexi UPSR (summative examination) form/discipline record/weekly record / co-curricular report /updating files for co-curricular, society and sport/Head Counting Programme/ KIA2M.
- sending pupils for interschool competition or to the clinic if the need arise
- updating the pupils profile in their personal record book
- decorating the classroom using their own money as personal fund (painting, fixing posters)
- marking exam questions and doing the correction with the pupils: 4 classes of 45 pupils x 2 papers = 360 papers.
- updating marks (monthly or based on topics taught for pupils' profile record).
- In charge of truancy and discipline
- hosting compulsory programmes like The School Open Day, Sports Day, PTA Meeting.
- handling pupils welfare
- extra classes (intensive class, remedial class, enrichment
- preparing teaching aids
- preparing topical test based on the syllabus or monthly exam questions
- special duties like preparing backdrop, banner and stage for special occasion.
- organising weekly assembly, special assembly, fire drills
- voluntary work (Gotong-royong) - tidying classes or the school compound.
- special duty as appointed by the administrator: school canteen committee member, textbook organiser, library teacher, lollipop teacher, first aider, co-op operator.

The long list of expected responsibilities for teachers seems endless.

In brief, there is a disjunction between the official more limited and the actual seemingly 'endless' activities undertaken.

5.5 Conclusion

Chapter 5 explores the notion of the four levels of conceptual domain (the policy discourses, the practitioners discourses, Dewey philosophical education discourses and

work discourses) and how hard it is to bring it into being. A key function of a democratic education is to foster the kinds of experiences that will enable people to collectively become an effective public. In order to become an effective public, clearly demands very fundamental philosophical and political moves as in Dewey's conception of education or as also the Dejours and Derranty democratic work conception to develop the experiences and abilities of people to form democratic organisation as opposed to the work of hierarchies that prevent the emergence of democratic forms and lead to the experiences of stress and precarity at work. The practical domain as shall be discussed in the next chapter is to explore the problems in bringing it into reality.

Chapter Six

TS and the Practical Domain

I believe that the community's duty to education is, therefore, its paramount moral duty. By law and punishment, by social agitation and discussion, society can regulate and form itself in a more or less haphazard and chance way. But through education society can formulate its own purposes, can organize its own means and resources, and thus shape itself with definiteness and economy in the direction in which it wishes to move (Dewey 1897)

6.0 Introduction

The preceding chapter has explored what is conceptually at stake politically and philosophically in taking the proposition of democratic education seriously. This and the

following chapter will therefore discuss the issues and problems involved in trying to realize ideas in the everyday working world of practical and material realities.

Earlier in the Preface, in the story of my initial involvement with the TS programme, I wrote:

> "*She wondered if she had missed any deadline as she hastened towards the Vice Director's" den*; *obligation to accept* and *excuses upon excuses* would suggest a certain kind of political, ethical and moral demand at work."

Work involves political, ethical and moral 'demands' and these relationships shall be explored in this chapter. Work here is as discussed in the previous chapter drawing on Deranty's (2008) interpretation of Dejours. Dejours understands 'work' as necessarily involving ethical, political and moral dimensions.

The moral issues sometimes are never addressed but play in the background figuratively following the activities of employees and sometimes used as office political management strategies at work. The issue shall be discussed in relation to the ethico-political purposes of democratic forms of educational practice in order to understand the connection between democracy and social justice practice at work. In this study, the ethico-political theory would be an ideal pattern of practice in the TS. The task for ethico-political theory according to Lorenzen (1987:140) is "as the preservation and improvement of the normatively ordered community" and thus "as the basis for the practice of politics". As the discussion in the previous chapter the ethico-political space of work is a contested space where change can be demanded as well as resisted by those who do not want change. Change, as seen in the previous chapter, if it is to be democratically organized in the interests of people as a whole requires the development of an 'effective public' (Schostak and Schostak 2013) which is linked to the ethico-political that is open to debate on a free and equal basis rather than a 'phantom public' of Lippman's (2011). The 'phantom public' is linked to the conventional moralities of societies which are not open to debate but are to be obeyed as 'duties' out of a sense of 'obligation'.

There is a distinction between morality and ethic. Ethics in Critchley (2007), involves a process of 'infinitely demanding'. That is to say, that an ethical and political demand for freedom, equality, social justice is not something that is limited to certain circumstances, contexts and periods. With each new viewpoint, circumstance and context the demands will be renewed in an unending process. The demand for social justice is both an ethical demand and a political demand. Moral demands tend to be circumscribed by particular social, legal, traditional, cultural and religious norms. Morality in any given society is broadly defined in terms of the norms, virtues, values or customs of that society. It is derived from the established practice of the society consisting of shared

understandings about behaviour likely to evoke approval or disapproval in a given culture. Morality as in moral obligation plays an important part in the management of the activities of the staff as employees.

The demand for 'equality', especially as in the concept of *equaliberty (*Balibar 1994*),*is an ethico-political demand which underpins 'work' as a politically just form of organization, distinct from employment, where employment is typical of hierarchical forms of management. Such hierarchical forms can be seen in traditional schools. In the case of the TS change is happening but what sort of change, as the TS is implemented by the TTI as directed by the TED, MOE is inspired by Dewey. Hence, at one level it can be argued that there is an ethico-political demand for the school to change from its hierarchical structures. However, to what extent can this demand be articulated in practice? In short, the key issue for this chapter, is to what extent is the experience obtained appropriate for democratic practice and forms of organization? Thus, this chapter is going to explore the practices through the kinds of experience and understandings that are being developed by the teachers. The purpose is to explore the extent to which it is capable of being democratic in the contemporary context of the TS.

6.1 The Practice of Work in the TS as a Training Ground

Some scholars have argued that, "teaching, not teachers, is the critical factor" (Stigler & Hiebert, 1999) meaning the practices that teachers employ in the classroom are more important than 'formal education' (Schostak 2006), experience and credentials. Generally speaking, the emphasis on getting the most experience from doing the job is clearly understood by the participating teacher trainers.

Qaseh believed that doing the job is more significant than just lecturing because: "You learn new things, it helps you. Because you learn more doing the job you do." **Aminah** cited her experience of doing the task and that it helped her to understand work better. She also stressed the emphasis on transferable knowledge and skills:

> "…. The competence is sort of transferable and that just helps. Just bear it in your mind and it just helps your understanding of things. I think in gaining competences, it's still the experience."

Arissa acknowledged the importance of doing the job but found some difficulties, which she felt, were due to the nature of TTI. She said that:

> "Yeah, I think in TTI, you have to get a lot of experience as a whole as a teacher trainer. I think it's quite difficult to be competent in teacher training. You can go to so many different schools; different places and they're completely different. And

> my teaching job is different from another teacher's job. They teach, and that's similar but do they have the same responsibility, duty, routine, practice? In fact, you're never really going to be competent in teacher training. Pupils change too… they are not the same as we were, 20 years ago…

The participants highlighted the importance of doing the job and the benefits gained from the working experience. They also commented about the significance of transferable knowledge and skills that helped them to understand what they do. However, the highlighted skills and competence are only focused on the traditional structures and practices of the authority. So, the following sections will explore the experiences and implications of the focus on the traditional structures and practices of the authority.

6.1.1 Work routine

In the TS, the participants described that one of the ways of acquiring competence was through repetitive routine **Echah** explained that he acquired competence by doing some routine jobs such as lecturing the teacher trainees on a specific paper. He stressed that it was not about doing the same job but having to identify the elements of transferable tasks, which was essential. **Echah** also believed that doing routine tasks helped him to build up his confidence and, as a result, he felt competent. He explained:

> "When you're first doing it, you're kind of scared. Surely, I want to overcome my weaknesses, keep improving my two hour (preparation and classroom teaching) slot. I'm still not good (Malaysian modesty) but I've improved. And that just based on experience."

Aminah explained that her experience of preparing lessons and teaching real primary school pupils helped her to be more prepared and able to predict the questions that trainees were likely to ask her during teacher training sessions. Questions and answer sessions have traditionally been done, but by being at school she can firmly grasp the real situation of teaching in a primary school apart from just theory- based response. She further explained the extent to which she prepared herself with a syllabus (specifying the subject scheme of work, tasks to be done and how to do them) when she went for an attachment, so that she could use it in the future. She believed that having such documents helped her to become more efficient as defined by doing the job traditionally and in making changes. **Jariah** was a bit pessimistic when talking about her work. She explained that she was not sure of what she was doing. She was new to the job as a teacher trainer as she has just been appointed to teach in TTI five months before and blamed this on her lack of experience with primary school teaching:

> "I actually started my job about five months ago, I don't do enough as a lecturer yet…I'm not sure whether what I'm doing is correct. I've got a general idea what

> I'm doing instead of being told how to do it, and I sit and go ahead and do it but I'm completely not confident that I'm always right. But there's the attachment to teach in TS for new lecturers in Perlis, I've never been in primary school, only upper secondary… kind of find it a bit hard."

When asked further to elaborate on the *kind of find it a bit hard,* she explained that she finds classroom management is her hardest hurdle. Standard one pupils are very teacher dependent and expect attention at all times. Pupils are always asking questions and tugging at her skirt. When pupils are talking simultaneously she finds it hard to stop herself from raising her voice and asking them to be quiet. She has to speak in a high pitch most of the time and at the end most lessons, she developed sore throat.

Other participants also agreed that repetitive routines helped them to understand the work better, increased their confidence levels and, as a result, led them to become more competent. However, there were a few participants who expressed concerns regarding doing routine and repetitive jobs. **Mirza**, for example, expressed the view that routine work helped to increase one's confidence but having too much by way of repetitive jobs leads to boredom. **Harizan** claimed that routine jobs or having too much routine caused boredom;

> "A little bit of adventure won't hurt. I don't want to be a machine, doing the same thing, day in, day out"

The idea of the machine by Harizan is important. The repetitive routine and the restricted nature of the work makes it feel machine-like. The machine in this context is an anti-democratic image. It is an image of mechanisms that inhibit the demands for variation, for adventure. The impacts of the routines reinforce traditional hierarchies rather than developing towards a democratic practice. Change at work involves empowering workers in job performance to achieve the democratic targeted accomplishment rather than what is imposed through authoritarian process.

6.1.2 Moral Values across the Curriculum

The curriculum and how it is structured in terms of subject areas, lessons, tests and teaching practices and processes are key mechanisms in the implementation of policy and thus on the prospect of making changes. In the Malaysian curriculum, starting from the kindergarten, primary school, secondary school and tertiary levels, standard moral values of the Malaysian society are instructed to be consciously inculcated in every lesson to help develop the students' moral behaviours and personality. This attempt to

inculcate the social construction of 'morality' and thus a certain construction of morality becomes official policy.

The 16 'moral values' are explicitly spelled out in the Moral Education syllabus. They were compiled from the four main religious and ethnic groups of the country, Malay (Islam), Chinese (Buddhism and Taoism), Indian (Hinduism) and Christians. Jackson (2001:5) states that "The role of the religious ethos is having a positive impact in improving behaviour and conduct." It is positive in developing obedience and conformity. In the syllabus they are known as *Nilai-nilai murni* (the pure, ethical or noble values) and include values such as: compassion, self-reliance, humility, respect, love, justice, freedom, courage, physical and mental cleanliness, honesty, diligence, co-operation, moderation, gratitude, rationality and public-spiritedness. These values, in Critchley's (2007) terms are universal demands and thus in his sense 'infinitely demanding' and to be expressed at all times, in all places as well as in all circumstances by all people. The question for the research in this chapter is how such values are actually defined in practice. Are they practiced as a means of making evaluations of the ways in which the school is organized and the curriculum implemented?

The official policy in teaching and learning activities in primary schools is that these values are to be taught or inculcated indirectly through all school subjects, not only through civic or moral education subjects, but also to be included in languages, mathematics and science subjects. In preparing lessons, teachers must explicitly state the values intended to be inculcated in the lesson/s. However, teachers sometimes are not clear on the purpose of having moral values stated in their lesson(s) and feel it is difficult to connect the topic they are teaching with the moral values. For example, a teacher commented;

> "I am teaching maths, sifir (multiplication table) so how do I explain that to my year 2 pupils that it has moral values. It has value, yes... but moral values... to year 2?"(Budi)

In my view, inculcating values in youngsters needs to be done with zeal and enthusiasm. Children observe and learn from their teachers. They not only imitate them but also imbibe their behaviour patterns based on the social learning theory (Bandura, 1962). Thus, teachers need to become role models (Plato in Rosen 2005:255, Buber 1958, Freire 1970) for their students. As explicitly stated in the syllabus, they must integrate values with the curriculum, highlight the positive aspects of day-to-day issues and inculcate values in children by adopting an indirect and friendly approach in and outside the classroom contexts. Teachers as a role- model can engage in the democratic practices and thus demonstrate what the core values mean. However, it is not clear whether the values typically practiced in the classroom relate to the democratic theories

of Dewey and others as based on observation. In my experience, teachers are typically very autocratic and do not role model the engagement of democratic practices and as the above comment from the teacher indicates, it may be difficult for teachers to see how the values can be relevantly put into practice in their lessons.

As morals and values cannot be imposed, teachers in some subjects as stipulated in the syllabus discuss news happenings and incidents, to create an environment so that children are induced to think, analyse and learn to differentiate between the shared values of the society's right and the wrong. In terms of the list of values to be inculcated the purpose of education in Malaya is to make a person orderly within himself as well as an orderly unit of the family, society, nation and the world. The meaning of 'orderly' is in terms of people doing as they are told; but not in learning how to organise democratic forms of relationship in ways that enable people to order their relationships peacefully and creatively with each other. In Dewey's terms, then, education aims at the holistic development of an individual who is democratically responsible towards the needs of others. To what extent is such a vision possible in practical terms?

In classrooms activities, teachers could take over the responsibility of creating an ideal environment so that qualitative values can be experienced by providing the opportunity for pupils to learn and experience the best of these opportunities in preparation for the future. Even though it could be argued that we can never prepare people for the future due to the dynamically evolving change of societies, perhaps rather than instilling, it is more about creating the conditions under which people can learn to debate the meaning of 'humanistic values' and thus decide for themselves what are or are not humanistic values to prepare them for the change. The question is how do we tackle this issue in the TS?

In trying to answer the question over the long term, the role of teachers and academics can be designed either to be moral agents instilling official policy, or academics and teachers can adopt an ethico-political standpoint by thinking through their own role, critically debating it and thus creating the conditions for young people to engage with them in debate as an educational process through which they learn to work with others to formulate their views on what is or is not of value and what is or is not ethical, moral and politically desirable.

6.1.3 Work while Observing Others

Following on from the previous section, observation stresses that the teachers model their behavior on each other. So, if the norm within the school is to behave in a particular way, the teachers will shape their behavior towards that norm by observing the practices of others. So, if the normal practices that are being observed or experienced are not democratic, then the teachers are most likely to adopt similar non-democratic practices.

The participants did not explicitly highlight the issue of observing others. However, from the discussions the word watching/ observing was highlighted several times. **Sebalingam**, for example, said that he benchmarked his performance by observing how others did their jobs. He claimed that, by observing others doing the job, he learned to pick up the essential things that are valuable for him in teaching in the near future. **Mimi** also explained how she, first, watched and listened to senior lecturers and teachers before conducting the lesson herself.

Rahim reflected on his own experience of dealing with problems at school. He emphasized the importance of social interaction that helped him to become more competent. According to **Rahim**, he observed people during his social interactions with others and this helped him to solve some of his problems at school (dealing with pupils in disciplinary areas). **Arissa**, however, disagreed that observation alone provided much of the learning. According to her:

> "I think it is more about the experience, you have to do it as well as observe. And I think if you just observe you won't really become competent at it because you haven't yet practiced it."

With the exception of **Arissa**, most of the participants did not explicitly mention the importance of experience with regard to acquiring competence at work. **Rahim** specifically referred to his social interactions experience, which had allowed him to observe others and helped him to solve some of his problems at work such as in maintaining discipline of the pupils but not on how to make democracy work in the classroom and the organization of the TS. Modeling current practice is unlikely to bring democratic change because the current practice is not democratic.

6.2The Other Work Procedures in the Implementation of the TS Programme

The previous sections have discussed a very limited view of the political, moral and ethical vision of a TS as expressed by interviewees. The question for this section is how practices are being developed to support and implement either a limited view of the

moral or a more expanded view of the democratic. This question will be explored by reflecting upon the experiences of staff involved in the implementation.

In brief, the directive from the MOE to implement the TS programme was supported by the TTI administrators and managerial decisions were made to implement the programme. Steps were taken to select the board of committee members and meetings were held. Based on the meetings, more internal directives and empowerment were given to the board to carry out the implementation of the TS. After much hard work, the TS managed to be speedily implemented within the given financial and logistic resources of the TTI.

However, the system of allocating staff was not prepared for the new programme. As a consequence, the TS was without supply of staff, that is without administrator, teachers and supporting staff by January 2007. When approached on this issue in the case of the TS an explanation by an education officer is:

> "Teachers posted to schools are the affair of the Human Resource Division (MOE), and posting is based on the figures forwarded in July by each respective State Education Department. In July last year, the previous figures from the Perlis State education Department for new postings for teachers do not include the TS as the TS was not yet implemented or is even in the system, thus figures for TS staffing does not exist.*

One of the solutions to overcome this problem is to direct the teacher trainers of the TTI to be seconded to teach at the TS. Another issue is to have a lead to manage the school. However, there was no authorisation by the Human Resource Department MOE for the manager to be the school head. Thus as a school head at that time, I could hardly call myself a 'headmistress'. These situations create some obligation issues among the administrators of TTI and the TTI lecturers. For example:

> An administrator commented on the situation by saying;
>
> "The parents, the pupils and the school are ready. We cannot cancel the school. We have to continue with the programme and we have to offer a solution. Our M3P (TTI Board of Directives) meeting suggests one lecturer from each Department be seconded to the school for the time being."**(Badrul)**

Another, a Head of Department in TTI was torn between the suggestions to have one lecturer from his department for the TS under the circumstances of having an overload of teaching periods based on the new intakes of teacher trainees:

> "This year we have three lecturers going for Ph.D. and they were not replaced yet. We still have the PISMP (undergraduates) and PPISMP (undergraduates' preparation) classes and the new intakes and now we have to offer a lecturer for the TS. These, put me in a very difficult situation."(Rahim)

Nevertheless, as the decision was finalised by the TTI board meeting, he had no option but to surrender one of his lecturers to be seconded to the TS. However, as there were only 2 classes of Year 1 in 2007, the particular lecturer was also given classes in the TTI. The lecturer in discussion then was straddled between the TS and the TTI. The situation created conflict especially in the TS as the programme was at a beginning stage and teachers were needed full time not only to teach, also to prepare materials, tackle managerial tasks and monitor pupils apart from the need to physically be in the classroom during the formal teaching and learning sessions.

When faced with an arrangement to be a part of the TS team, responses by lecturers differed. A particular lecturer directed by the Head of Department, **Aminah** said:

> "It is uncharacteristic of a person to engage in confrontation especially when faced with a directive from the boss. The only thing you could do is to comply.

Whilst another lecturer **Arisssa** questions the arrangement by saying:

> "When my head (Head of Department) instructed me to be part of the TS team, I was unprepared. I wonder why he had chosen me. Is it because I'm a lady and the most gullible?"

Another lecturer **Johari** responded by saying*;*

> "I am the most unfavourable one in my department. I am always at logger heads with my Head (Head of Department). It is no surprise that she (the Head of Department) decided to lend me to the TS"

What do these dialogues have in common? The dialogues show the vulnerability of people and how those vulnerabilities are exploited by management. Rather than a 'moral' response, it seems to be about compliance due to a lack of power to refuse. The dialogues propose a situation where there are problems that need possible alternative solutions. Among the problems that surfaced here is the dilemma that leads to the acceptance of the responsibility in the TS. This indicates that, when faced with a dilemma, that the academic is adopting subjection to power by accepting the role and that they are reluctantly, even resentfully, submitting to the authority/power. They, however, adopt a moral stance to the subjection.

6.2.1 The informal network at work

Apart from the formal network at work, there is another network. This informal network consists of friends, former colleagues, relatives and other non-formal work related relationship categorized as 'kin' and 'non-kin' by Miell and Croghan (1996:270). The informal network is useful and can create 'short-cuts' as briefly discussed in the

Introduction Chapter of the thesis. In the informal network, according to Miell and Dallos (1996:18) “relationships are characterized by having a history of interactions over time, so that currents interactions are framed by the previous one.” There are several instances when the informal network is useful during the implementation of the TS. For example, when the application form of the TS to be legally registered is submitted, which takes months to be approved, a friend helps in filling the application form (writing the rationale) and uses his political network influence to help reduce the bureaucratic procedure and thus the TS case is given priority and approved in time before the opening of the school.

In another instance, when the unused building is allotted as a temporary TS building, it needs a makeover. I was at my wits end to open the school, to prepare the paperwork, hunting for pupils and getting the textbooks. One morning, during breakfast, some ‘work friends’ offered to draw murals on the allotted school building wall as they have teacher trainees majoring in Visual Arts. Thus, the present coursework of the Visual Arts group is changed to painting wall murals suited to primary schools in Malaysia.

There are many other instances such as during swimming lessons, when friends involving parents offered to be in the pools with the pupils to boost the pupils water confidence as most of pupils cannot swim. There are other friends, former colleagues who are still in the primary school mainstream, coming over and giving ‘crash-course’ on some online software for primary school such as EMIS program for school administration.

The informal network of human networking is not new and yet is an ‘invisible’ part of the formal network at work. It may have no immediately apparent structure and takes a casual turn in a stress free mood in the everyday realities of social interaction. It is not structured as a prime focus in any part of the work system but has an influence of positive and negative impacts. The positive impacts may support the organization whereas the negative impacts may disrupt the process and the order of an organization.

In the case of the TS, it proves to be the positive effects of social involvement in providing assistance as in the examples of supportive behaviour in the instances described above in this section. However, in this informal network there is no certainty of the standard of quality offered such as the product of the murals and the type of water confidence support during the swimming lessons suited to the pupils in need. There is no guarantee that their intentions may prove to be acceptable. In both cases, negotiations on the basis on ‘friendliness’ of what is expected in the reality of the situation especially in terms of material and resources, is crucial to avoid misunderstanding, confusion, dispute and probable relationship conflict or complain. The negotiations and shared understanding shape the actions and meanings of people behaviour over each other’s feeling and thoughts. According to Miell and Dallos (1996:143);

> Through discussions, comments and disclosures the people in a relationship may form a set of a set of shared beliefs, assumptions, explanations and concerns which in turn come to regulate their interactions, producing predictable patterns of actions, emotional responses and thoughts.

The function of the informal network therefore is to balance between work and friendship. In the procedures of the implementation of the TS, the informal network is based around the relationships which need judgment, expectation and understanding of each other. This also shows that academicians at work are not immune to the informal network of 'kin' and 'non-kin' of everyday relationships. Academicians are not only part of the society but also part of the interest groups of society generally and, in particular, as expressed in the complex systems of formal and informal relations at work.

The discussions in this section illustrate the existence of informal or alternative discourses as part of the 'Architectures of the Social' as distinct from the official formal discourses of the organization. However, those who are significant in an informal network may not have the same status in a formal network. The hierarchy of the informal network may differ from the form of the formal network. In order to deliver upon the policy vision of the TS program, the formal 'Architectures of the Social' need to work alongside the informal aspects of the 'Architectures of the Social' to progress upon the outcomes. The informal dimension can be explored alongside the formal dimension in terms of what Schostak (2002:112) described as a 'stealth architecture' where;

> The architecture is organized at the surface and barred levels, that is to say, levels that are repressed, censored, forbidden or rendered illegal. Hence its conceptual organization is likely to manifest one dimension while occluding other dimensions. Equally its practices and resources are split along the dimensions of what can be made manifest and what are to be covered.

The stealth architecture is useful to explore the complexities of organization to address needs, interest and opportunities.

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6.3 The Practice of Academics as Moral Agents

Academics, as any other employees at work, are typically reduced to being the subjects of 'rational' procedures of command or to being subjects of the duties or responsibilities identified by managerial objectives. These managerial objectives could be reduced to machine-like performance but there is a 'moral turn' to take into account. The moral turn comes into view when people are involved in some sort of situation where a judgment is needed with some reference to value criteria such as religion, culture or humanistic values. This moral turn displays a clear distinction between a machine and human behavior when following an instruction as the moral value may differ between one

person to another based on their individual cultural or faith background unlike a machine. A machine such as a computer could be programmed to react in a certain consistent manner given a certain situation. Another example is when an operational production worker is expected to achieve a certain objective at work such as producing a certain amount of product within the time of work allocated. However, academics are always in a position to weigh the situation, analysing the issues with the potential to make optimal decisions to accomplish more than one objective at work in their deliberate course of action.

In one instance, on the rational procedures of the implementation of the TS, a lecturer was particularly concerned about how this may affect the level of current responsibility of working in the TTI by saying that:

> "We are already working and very short staffed. If we are having a school and we're to teach there as well, our workload would be doubled."(Mimi)

Despite the current load of responsibility in teacher training, the new responsibility was accepted by **Johari** and **Mimi** regardless of personal opinion and consequences. Even though it was realised that the nature of the already precarious work would change, irrespective of difficulties ahead, the management were resigned to showing support in response to the decision of the staff such as Johari and Mimi based on the subjection to deliver at work.

However, I felt that academics are usually always sufficiently moral and thus, generous, in the sense that they are always ready to take on responsibility and comply with previous and current directives on work responsibilities in the academic arena. However, this readiness to accept is not out of (based on the responses of lecturers and teachers assigned to the TS) unconditional generosity, but more about the moral obligation of being a good worker. By contrast, the following extract supports alternative approaches that nurture work relationships:

> "Yeah, I was fond of my previous head (Head of Department); she was lovely, really very nice. I think most of us are fond of her, and we work as a team, a very good team then. So, I don't mind when she suggested me to the TS. It's for a reason." **(Arissa)**

Indeed, a good working relationship facilitates communication, trust and the obligation to provide appropriate responses to directives. There is an effective dimension to the relationship which is the feeling of 'fondness. 'Fondness' is an essential ingredient to her willingness to comply. The following is an extract of interview data with a teacher at the TS to show an example of personal affiliations that may give rise to rather a sense of dislike and how this was managed through an impression of 'civility':

> "There was a lady officer from the ministry (MOE) recently. It was something about the way she asked questions that made me dislike her as a person really. But I would never show her that. Regardless, I answered her questions but I was very civil." **(Jariah**)

As the teacher identifies, obligation to a social norm to be polite precedes and overrules her personal feeling. Her resolve is admirable to me and her moral obligation is worthy of note in preserving a sense of social politeness in order to protect one's job. However, there are connections between the better the relationships with the administrator, the greater the sense of moral obligation, the lower the resistance in undertaking the extra work responsibilities. In terms of the official hierarchies, the rational procedures are clear. What is hidden or overlooked are perhaps the moral dimensions and the impacts these might have on practices and outcomes, This is where "stealth architecture" (Schostak 2002:112) is interlaced with the formal hierarchies at work to ensure the desired outcomes are achieved. The formal presentation of a policy, or the presentation of a public relations statement about the working of an organisation does not necessarily accord with what really happens. We have the policy to achieve the wonderful outcome. However, when interviewing and observing to get descriptions of what actually happens, a gap may be seen between what is supposed to happen, or what is supposed to be believed, and what actually happens and is believed to achieve the outcome, interpreting the judgment they are making. The complex interaction of different discourses and values people have, reveals the complexity of the architecture hidden behind the surface of the policy and its desired outcome. In short staff may dislike a given policy or a given form of organisation and thus resist a little bit, perhaps present an impression of compliance to cover alternative practices. All this generates complexity.

In conclusion to this section, moral obligation has a subjective dimension and is dependent on such background factors as culture, religion and upbringing. The moral turn moves to the ethical when the world is a lot more uncertain and cannot be reduced to a clear and stable moral code as in the professional field of the academics being discussed here as they experience significant change in their professional lives. At this point an ethical perspective can be adopted as a means of critically discussing professional frameworks of practice.

6.4 The Practice of Work Ethics

Ethical demands have an infinite quality as in the demand for freedom and for equality. This goes beyond mere convention and moral demands that are based upon say traditional values or norms of behavior in a given culture. Critchley (2007: 62-63) attempts

to relate his understanding of radical democratic demands with ethical demands by defining ethics as:

> "the approval of a demand, a demand that demands approval... The ethical subject is defined by the approval of a traumatic heteronymous demand at its heart. But, importantly, the subject is also divided by this demand, it is constitutively split between itself and a demand that it cannot meet, but which is that by virtue of which it becomes a subject"

Heteronymous demand means the various demands arises from outside oneself, from another. Critchley reflects on these immediate political concerns: torture, terrorism, 9/11, the demand for democracy across Middle Eastern countries to end dictatorship that was partly reflected also in Malaysia on 9th of July 2011 (Bersih 2.0 Demonstration, demands for democratic practice in public elections). In his view, "at the core of politics is the anarchic practice of democratic dissensus articulated around ethical demands that arises in a situation of injustice and inspires the mood of anger, which I see as the first political emotion." Critchley (2007:94)

Even though this study is not immediately dealing with such major concerns, the ability to think and act ethically has to be grounded in the small matters of everyday life. As indicated in the previous section, people's sense of moral obligation may be exploited by management. This lays the ground for a routine acceptance of the many small injustices of everyday working life that lead to a sense of pressure and stress that may also lead to ill health. Thus the small pressures can build up into greater issues. As in the cases described by Dejours, they can lead to suicide. Thus there are critical ethical demands to face. Hence, in this section I will explore the relation between codes of conduct which demand compliance with ethical concerns that may question that compliance in terms of the pressure and stress that they impose.

At work, a theme of ethics and politics is not foreign. In Malaysia, educationists and academics such as government servants are guided by the Code of Conduct (Perkhidmatan Awam 2007). The Code of Conduct *1993 – P U (A) 395 [Kelakuan dan Tatatertib 1993 – P U (A) 395*] is for the overall general government servant and the Code of Conduct specifically for educationists or academicians under the governance of MOE [*Peraturan-peraturan Lembaga Tertib Perkhidmatan Pendidikan 1994 – PU (A) 458*]. The Code of Conduct is amended from time to time (1995, 1996 and on the 20th of June 2002) and delivered in sufficiently detailed information to ensure government servants perform the public service duties in a way that protects them from undue criticism. It laid down principles to be followed by supported standing orders, financial instruction and human resource policies such as the Financial Procedures, Treasurers Act, Confidential Act

1972 and occasional circulars which can usually be found in the administrative office manual. Failure to adhere to this Code of Conduct and/or supporting documents may result in disciplinary measures.

Along these lines, The Code of Conduct does not reflect the kind of ethical perspective that Critchley is advocating. However, the Code of Conduct, if it is to be accepted must at least be consistent with an ethical view point. If it is not, then there is a potential split in the subjectivity of the individual as they experience undertaking their everyday work. On the one side there is the pressure to comply with a code of conduct they see as unjust and on the other their desire to have a situation where their sense of justice is supported. However, employees at work are given certain role/s to play. The orientation of work roles in an increasingly performance led ethos raises the issue of work ethics and sharpens the moral dilemmas they face.

According to the Code of Conduct (2002); all employees have a duty to the employer, clients and the general public to maintain high standards of conduct in the execution of work. These standards are of the following kinds. In the course of their duties employees may have knowledge of, or access to confidential information. It is implicit in the acceptance of the appointment that employs access and use of the information only for the purposes it was designed for and takes all reasonable measures to safeguard such information in line with the Confidentiality Act 1972. Breaches of confidentiality are avoided by maintaining files and information securely at all times. Employees also must maintain the public image in representing the organisation by dressing appropriately in line with the guides for appropriate dress code. Nevertheless, such dress codes will be sensitive to religious and cultural requirements in the diverse multi-ethnic society like Malaysia. Part-time work as a secondary employment is only permitted if it does not affect the employee's performance or results in a conflict of interest. However, they must not conduct any outside work or business which would bring the institution into disrepute, discredit or is pre-judicial to the purpose which would put the employee in a position of conflict of interest with the employment. They also cannot engage in working excessive hours in other employment that could jeopardise the effectiveness in their work. Outside work of any sort should not be undertaken at the employee's place of work on any premises unless with permission or authorisation from the higher authorities.

Employees also cannot accept a significant value of personal rewards, gifts, services or discounts from contractors or suppliers to the institution or which derive from that relationship. Modest hospitality such as offering of refreshment is accepted as an accepted courtesy. Declaration of personal property must be done and filed at least every five years. Employees engaged in handling money must accept the responsibility to

ensure correctness and safe custody. They will be held responsible and may be liable for any failure to account properly for the money until they part with it in authorised way in accordance with the Treasurers Act. Involvement in crime should be avoided and if charged, cautioned or convicted of criminal offences resulted in work disciplinary act. As the employees of the MOE, it is expected that employees uphold the principles and values of the service are uphold in the best behaviour and conduct at work and outside of work. Employee should not use, or attempt to use, the position authority for private advantages from some other person or party.

On the 16 to 25 April 2002, a report from the Secretary-General of the United Nation economic and social Council was delivered in Vienna entitled Implementation of the International Code of Conduct for public officials concerning the seriousness of the problems posed by corruption. In 1998, a survey for the International Code of Conduct for Public Officials 54 States including Malaysia has been carried out. Significantly; a majority of states indicated that their domestic laws or administrative policies that set out clearly and consistently the functions and duties of public officials. Almost half of the responding states pointed out that their national administration provided public officials with training in ethics and professional behavior. Finally, a majority of States replied that their public administration required an oath from public officials when they commenced their duties. Public officials were required to disclose their assets, liabilities and copies of their tax returns in a majority of the states responding to the study.

Consequently in the year 2002, Malaysia set up a Special Cabinet Committee on Management Integrity. The objective of the Committee was to ensure a government and public service that were efficient, disciplined and high in integrity, through the practice of good values and resolution of weaknesses, in particular in the area of financial management and public management, as well as the management of disciplinary cases, corruption and abuse of power (E/CN.15/2002/6/Add.1 11 2002:11)

Most if not all of the above aspects concerning a code of conduct may be accepted by most people as reasonable. However, everyday working situations give rise to many other kinds of circumstances where individuals feel a sense of injustice and a split between what they have to do in public and what they experience and believe in private. For example, when the No Smoking policy was introduced in the public service organizations, there was no chance for discussion and the policy had to be accepted. There are conflicts when uncaring attitudes are displayed such as when a smoking male lecturer says;

> “I know I have to be seen to be ‘good’... Sometimes my behaviour does not reflect my true feelings**.”(Harizan)**

This is another kind of issue. Here the issue of smoking is associated in many people's minds with personal freedoms. On the one hand it is a health issue but on the other it is about personal choice. However, the personal choice and freedom to smoke may impact on other people's choice not to smoke and to be free to be in spaces where they are not forced to breathe smoke that is harmful to their health. It is an example of a case where each side in the debate may feel a sense of injustice due to the action of the other. The question of how to resolve such an issue is a matter for politics as well as ethics.

Similarly, there may be other circumstances where issues may properly be detected within the situation that may appear publically to be unproblematic but are privately experienced as problematic. They usually come to light because of a conflict (actual or anticipated) and require discussion if they are to be resolved democratically. The aims of the ethical discussion could include: identification of the issues at stake; who they affect and in what way with further exploration of morally relevant facts, together with a reasonable attempt to assess the perspective and purposes of all involved; interaction and dialogue to clarify the concept and arguments used between various parties to ventilate feelings as well as their perspectives and analyses of the situation to make sure everyone feels 'heard'.

In the process, a number of further questions may need to be asked such as whether the person or group who stimulated the debate was actually the one with the problem, or whether most points of view have been heard and who else might need to be included. The first step for the organisation to conduct such debates depends on the willingness of all involved to lay aside special time outside or within the working routine to engage in a good and open process of debate and ensure clearly defined outcomes that are acceptable to all.

It is in such debate that ethical demands come to light as 'new objects' for reflection and decision making. Thus in Critchley's (2007:14) terms

> "ethical experience is an activity whereby new objects emerged for a subject involved in the process of their creation... ethical experience is activity, the activity of a subject, even when that activity is the receptivity to the other's claim upon me – it is an active receptivity.... In my view, ethical experience begins with the experience of a demand to which approval is given. "

Such a situation requires exploring the relationship between ethics and power.

6.4.1 Ethics in the Context of Power

Power, according to Schostak and Schostak 2008 (139-140): "defines the perceptual field of a territory, who can act upon its various spaces and what kind of act

can be carried out. Most importantly, the power structure defines who is a person, who is a subject and, thus, who can speak in order to represent their interests and who is an object and thus to be managed, used, disposed of." As an example, during the implementation of the TS, lecturers at the bottom of the hierarchical diagram of the administration of the TTI comply with the request of attachment to the TS of higher hierarchical importance such as from the Director of the TTI. In this situation "justification of a decision is founded on a mixture of experience and the legitimating power that comes with a particular position in the hierarchy" (ibid 2008:145)

As an illustration, a widely accepted social value at work constitutes the context within which we interpret and consider all ethical arguments. There are ethical dilemmas such as the conflict between ethics and power such as questioned by **Harizan** on 'how can we best meet our work responsibilities? He explained that:

> **Harizan**: There are instances when I have to do work outstation. As a lecturer I would just make arrangement with the trainees to replace class whenever appropriate, when I am back. But in the TS, the timetable and the class schedule are fixed. True, I could ask for relief teachers but how frequently can I do that?

Thus, a certain 'border' or limit of what is accepted and what is to be avoided at work is the countermove to define powers and limitations at work. Once we think about ethics in the context of power, we begin to recognise the boundaries and the ethical dilemmas that shape ethics.

Another example is, in carrying out this study during the data collection phase consent is requested not only from the 'gatekeeper' such as the director of the TTI only, but also from the research participants. Ethically, the power to accept or refuse is not hierarchical but individually equal.

Ethical dilemmas at work, in order to meet the responsibilities have both universal and particular components. On one hand, it requires focus and determination upon the particular kind of responsibilities and burdens that pose moral problems arising out of the particular situation in which people find themselves in various processes of work. As an example, a lecturer assigned partially to be involved in the TS programme needs to juxtapose her responsibilities and prioritize tasks according to deadlines. As such, there are times when her period of teaching in the TS cannot be met and was relieved by other lecturers/teachers. Such disruption especially when having to undertake ad hoc relief classes was not welcomed or appreciated by the reliever but surrendered to, for the benefit of the pupils in class. Senge (2006:19) rationalised that;

> "When people in organisations focus only on their position, they have little sense of responsibility for the results produced when all positions interact. Moreover, when results are disappointing, it can be very difficult to know why. All you can do is to assume that "someone screwed up".

In the case of the TS, if the employees only focus on their work position (i.e. lecturer with stipulated responsibilities in TTI and teachers at school) the ethical dilemma lies in the extra responsibilities given to the TTI, thus impacting on teacher trainers especially the core committee members to meet the responsibility of the implementation. No 'strikes' or public demonstration are held to protest or show dissatisfaction about the issue. However, a different form of resistance to power has been indicated in interviews, conversations and observations. As illustrations, they are indicated by: faking a bad health condition, passive reaction to a directive, questioning the validity of the directive, questionable work commitment, handover of work responsibilities to more junior subordinates and last-minute excuses. The issue of power then leads people either to protest or to resist subversively, or to look as if they are complying.

6.5 Conclusion

The key tension in the practical domain has been between compliance to policy, administrative or organizational demands that are experienced as creating pressure and leading to a sense of injustice. The work of reinvention that is needed as Dewey's educational philosophical conception is in contrast with the work of hierarchies which is suited to 'schooling' as opposed to 'education' that prevent the emergence of democratic forms. Hierarchical administrative systems and legislative codes effectively exclude the possibility of democratic organization and debate. In sum people are often split between what they consider that they ought to do and what they want to be free to do.

Chapter Seven

TS and the Material Domain

"*Our doubts are traitors, and make us lose the good we often might win, by fearing to attempt" – William Shakespeare.*

7.0 Introduction

This chapter will explore the experiences of people in different roles in the context of the material domain where decisions about resources are made. Earlier in the Preface, another issue of the TS programme discussed is about resources or the material domain.

> *"After 3 months of much paper work, deliberation, arguments, hard work, telephone conversation, meetings (formal, informal and ad hoc), sweat and tears; the teaching school finally opened and 48 six year old pupils were registered as the first batch in Year 1 in the teaching school starting on the 3rd of January 2007"* This account suggests some of the kinds of resources required in support of the practice of the TS

Adequate resources or the material domain are necessary to support not only the teaching and learning activities but also the TS programme. According to the Education Programme Standards (2014:56) "these resources include finance, expertise, physical infrastructure, information and communication technology, and research facilities." The physical facilities of such as the TS programme according to Code of Practice for Programme Accreditation (2008:23) "are largely guided by the needs of the specific field of study."

In Malaysia, with a centralised education system, the government provides basic resources such as the infrastructure, finance, administrators, teachers, support staff, and instructional materials to schools along with educational support programmes. In the Malaysian context, it is stressed that to be an effective school, the physical facilities should be complete to provide smooth teaching and learning, which would increase pupil's achievement (Charil, 1997). While in running the TS, teachers are the core personnel, and the physical facilities of the Perlis TS building were completed in 2010. Key resources include the staff, the pupils, infrastructures and financial support under the hierarchical management system of the Human Resource Department and the State Education Department. This chapter therefore continues the discussion of power exercised through hierarchies as a means of controlling or managing key resources in the interests of policy makers.

7.1 The Structure of the TS

The TS is ideally perceived by the authority of the MOE as a 'showcase' and a training ground for lecturers, pre-service and in-service teacher. The TS draws a proposed structure of both academic and non academic staff as presented earlier in the translation of the TS Proposal Paper in the Preface. The differences in the structure of the TS from other schools are: the proposed salary and service scale of the Head teacher of at least at DG 41 as compared to the current DG 32 or DG 34 of the other national primary schools; all at least DG 41 teachers at the TS as compared to a mixture of DG 29, DG 32, DG 34 and DG 41 of the other national primary schools; and a request of an assistant to the teachers which never a post in the other national primary school in Malaysia. However, both the new TS structure and the existing structure are as of hierarchical management form. The issues in hierarchical management shall be discussed in the next section.

7.1.1 Hierarchical Management (HM)

Hierarchical management is essentially a command and control structure where those at the top instruct those below them. It is characterized by discipline and obedience. There are many layers signifying levels of authority. Basically, the higher the levels of working positions, the higher the salary, and the higher the authority.

Currently, the salary scale for educationists such as graduate teachers and teacher trainers is clustered under classification of DG by the Malaysia Public Service Department starting with DG 41 as the most junior, followed by DG 44, DG 48, DG 52, DG 54, JUSA C, JUSA B and JUSA A. The basic level of salary scale of a graduate teacher is DG 41 and a teacher trainer in TTIs would at least hold a DG44 (meaning a teacher trainer should have some experience in teaching before applying for the post). The Head of Departments in TTI is a DG 48, the Vice Director a DG 52 (at least) and a Director a DG 54 (at least). The teacher trainers (lecturers) may hold DG 44 to DG 54 and up to JUSA level. The higher the number of the DG, the higher salary is paid. It is an example of a standard chart for Hierarchical Management, to have a person at the top and the subordinates' layers by layers down under. The main reason for using the traditional HM is to ensure compliance. In the chain of command each person is expected to be compliant to the official demands of the superior. For TTIs, the Minister of Education is at the top, followed by The Rector, the Vice Rectors and the directors of all the respective 28 TTIs.

According to Morgan (2006:21) organisational structure is made:

> "to operate as precisely as possible through patterns of authority - for example in terms of job responsibilities and the right if orders and to exact obedience. Patterns of authority served as points of resistant and coordinate activities by restricting activity in certain directions while encouraging it in others."

In HM, power and influence make up the fine texture of organisation in all interactions. In an organisation, according to Foucault (1980:92) power appears in:

> "the multiplicity of force relations immanent in the sphere in which they operate and which constitute your own organisation; as the process which, to ceaseless struggles and confrontations, transforms, strengthens or reverses them; as the support which these forced relations find in one another, thus forming a chain or a system, or on the contrary, the disjunctions and contradictions which isolate them one from another; and lastly, as the strategies in which they take effect, host general design or institutional crystallisation is embodied in the state apparatus, in the formulation of the law, in the various social hegemonies."

Influence is the process whereby a person seeks to modify the attitudes or behaviour of another person. Power enables the modification. In exploring power, Morgan (2006:166) defines power as 'the medium through which conflicts of interest are ultimately resolved. Power influences who gets what, when, and how'. This fine weave of influence is linked to the purpose of the organisation and implies levels, that is, one person over another. Schostak & Schostak: (2008:139) describe;

> *"*Power, rights and the real is coextensive. They define the perceptual field of a territory, how the territory is parceled up, whether clinical area or community, who can act upon its various spaces and what kinds of acts can be carried out."

The examples below are employed as an illustration of how the salary scales define the ways in which people perceive their field of professional action and how confusions arise when structures are changed. In speaking of power, during one interview, a senior lecturer was describing his role in the TTI as;

> "Actually I'm in a different position, I played two roles, last year I was the Head of Education Department, this year I'm just an ordinary lecturer a senior lecturer." (Echah)

The reason given for such a situation is because of:

> **"**There is a change in structure. So when there's a change in structure, we are suppose to vacate the post for 48 (DG 48 salary scale) and so when we are 52 (DG 52 salary scale) so we are supposed to move on and make way for them (DG 48 salary scale)." (Echah)

Echah is in DG 54, two scales higher than DG 48. However, a Head of Department supposedly more superior in hierarchy, is only officially listed for DG 48 which is lower in scale as compared to DG 52 and DG 54. This formed a conflict in the hierarchical management of the TTI. Echah affirmed the statement and responded by saying

> **"**Yes DG 54 in teaching but my post is not permanent it is KUP 54 (specialist post for selected individuals). "*Pensyarah cemerlang*." (The Specialist Post) So I have to do p&p (teaching and learning) so I cannot be the Head (Head of Department) I was the Head... and so starting from this year, I was doing more teaching and I think it's because of the restructuring of TTI at IPGM where we become teacher educationist. The heads of the department are supposed to be DG48, so actually, I don't know who did this work, it's supposed to be a senior post but they give it to DG 48. I think it's a strategy to allow the DG 44 to go up first but when everything is fully implemented the Head should be DG 52." (Echah)

This is quite an anomaly in hierarchical management as he is being positioned under the Head of Department with a DG 48, who is a more junior person in terms of the hierarchy based on the salary scale. The implications of this anomaly raise the issue of whether it can be democratically voiced and debated in terms of power and issues of fairness. However, experienced seniors were always referred to even though being the Head is now reduced to a kind of 'rotation' system. It seems that the anomaly could open up debate but this debate does not take place publicly because of a sense of vulnerability. On the question whether he considers his current position as a promotion or demotion, he responded by commenting that:

> "It depends on how you look at it. If you look at it in terms of pay rise in terms of benefits it's a promotion but if you look at it in terms of status, yeah inverted commas, you lose the kind of power of the Head of Department you are just one of them. So that's the case." (Echah)

Whereas **Haji,** a director of a TTI describes his role as covering many aspects:

> "My role as a director covers many aspects of administration and management. We have the administration, the general administration managing the admin staff, finance, general preparation of teacher training, preparation of the teaching in teacher training, conduct of courses for the pre-service as well as the in-service teachers, being engaged ourselves in the development among our lecturers within the academic interests and the latest one is the development of the TSP."

The director has the position of power or the legitimate power at the top of management in the TTI. It comes as a result of the role or the position in the organisation. The occupancy of a role like DG 48 entitles one to all the rights of that role, the right to order people, to organise, to inspect the work even of higher paid lecturers in the department of DG 52 and DG 54. The top position power in any TTI is the director of the TTI. However all 28 TTIs are under the management of the Rector of TTIs (IPGM)

The director often has resource power to the extent that a promotion or a pay increase can be given to the subordinates with his recommendations. Resources do not have to be material for instance they can also be grant of status as in the examples above, **Echah**, a senior lecturer gained some power in terms of pay rise as he is promoted to DG 54 but lose some power in terms of status when the position is given to a person paid as a DG 48.

In an organisation such as the TTI, one of the organisational problems in exerting power involves people questioning or disobeying the orders. For example, when lecturers are attached to the TS for six months, some protested (verbally and/or in silence) against the idea. Such protests raise the issue of fairness and the issue of 'voice' in terms of being able to raise their concerns. A question that arises at this point is, does authoritarian, hierarchical structure inhibit the development of democratic debate about what should or should not happen?

One of the feedbacks given is;

> "You see there's a problem, we have bureaucracy, we can only take the instruction from the very top, and so that directive doesn't come from the very top. So that's why people say why I should follow the directive. We don't have the direct authority; it must come from the top. If it comes top down from the director of teacher training, it seems that the job specs, post us six-month there full-time, six-month there, take turns, you see, so then you can (decide/evaluate) …." (**Danial)**

Danial shrugged and let the sentence trail.

The basic argument in this section is about how hierarchical structures exercise power and inhibit the development of democratic processes and practices. What happens in organisation is the continuous product of motivated human action. And if we want to see an alternative flatter non-hierarchical management, then structures need to be created where the 'boss' principle would be less important. This may be done by empowerment of a wider range of contributory talents. Hence, the next section shall explore the topic of empowerment.

7.1.2 Power and Empowerment

In response to the question of power whether empowerment in the TS is possible, below is a response from **Echah**,

> **"**I don't think so, empowerment should be in a democratic system, our system is centralised, our system is centralised, so when our system is centralised there's a kind of standardization. How is it supposed to be democratic? So, going back to

> the National School, there's no difference, you take the example of many other schools, you see, why don't you take a look at Malay College or VI (Victoria institution) or you go and take a look at cluster school. Do you find the difference, do you see democracy in any of the school, and do you find any difference? But if you go to this Kolej Tunku Jaafar a private school, in Negeri Sembilan, it's totally different scenario."

To empower, is defined by the Oxford English dictionary as *to impart power, to enable* and by Roget's Thesaurus as *to endow and strengthen*. So, if we talk about empowerment we are talking about enabling workers in some way to make a decision, facilitating it in an un-obstructing and unrestraining way. According to Ward and Mullender (1991:22), empowerment is more than just its commonsense understanding of enabling, instead involves "*a commitment to challenge and combat injustice and oppression, which shows itself in action and in words"* If we ask the question," Can we empower?", in the case of TTI and TS, we are presumably asking whether it is possible to enable lecturers, teacher trainers and teachers to have the opportunities to apply decision-making with regard to the TS.

According to Kennedy (1991), empowerment was the fashionable managerial buzzword of the early 1990s. In organisations it is usually taken to mean increased participation by employees in the enterprise for which they work, with a view to stimulating initiative and entrepreneurism. It has a particular implication for women in eroding the invisible barriers that tend to keep them in mundane organisational roles. Kanter (1979) is the leading exponent of empowerment as an aid to releasing forces for innovation and change within a corporation. Psychological empowerment reflects an active work orientation and conveys the notion that individuals are able and want shape their work role and context (Boudrias *et al*., 2004). According to Zimmerman (2000:44):

> "Empowerment suggests a distinct approach for developing interventions and creating social change. It directs attention toward health, adaptation, competence, and natural helping systems. It includes the perspective of many social problems exist due to unequal distribution of, and access to, resources."

Conger and Kanungo (1988:473) asserts that empowerment also "implies motivating through enhancing personal efficacy". Empowerment is a process that begins in the context of interaction in the work environment with one's personality characteristics to shape the four empowerment cognitions (meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact), which in turn motivate individual behavior (Spreitzer, 1995). The horizon of empowerment in the view of Seashore (2009:133) is broadened with:

> "… the ideas underlying professional community get emancipated and powerful teachers at the core of the reform process, and shifted the focus away from administrative leaders and to all professionals as leaders."

Empowerment means having a real choice of different courses of action. It means having a voice in decision-making, making judgments, and making criticism and the ability to undertake courses of action. In schools, empowerment emphasises providing children with knowledge, and giving them support and guidance should they be needed. Stanton (1990) writes that trying to empower people who use services, without at the same time developing collaborative and empowering culture among staff, is inconsistent and even can be considered as bad faith. A good starting point and training ground for work empowerment would be within the workers in TTI. We have therefore another way of working that is by empowering the teachers at the TS and the teacher trainers at the TTI. In addition, according to Belbin (2005:15) "empowerment requires a high level of commitment and is reached through this process of growing trust." The crucial question is therefore whether the team can develop trust and appropriate modes of decision-making in running the TS? There is also the need for appropriate organizational structures, mechanisms, procedures that support democratic debate and decision making.

The fact is trust has got to be given for two reasons: as a work responsibility and to attend to work needs. To dismiss trust is to allow the system to drop to the lowest level, propped up only by external controls such as regulation, process and procedures. Such controls deny autonomy driven organisations as in the case of Kolej Tunku Jaafar (Tunku Jaafar private school). Further questions probing the issues received responses as below:

> Researcher: How different is it? (Kolej Tunku Jaafar and other schools)
>
> **Echah**: Because they have the autonomy, they're not under the government, they're private schools, they're totally different, and the system is totally different. The students are developed, leadership is developed and the students do well in the exam.
>
> Researcher: Does it come together with social status?
>
> **Echah**: Yeah, of course of course... People who can afford it but I'm just giving an example of how a school should be administered to develop leadership just like Summerhill. Summerhill develops leadership but their mechanism is different and they allow the students to go and search and explore themselves but here we are trying to have a bit of a control to channel them to the kind of leadership we want. Over there, it is totally free for them to decide so I begin to look at all , I don't know, my version is not to try new models, new theories, new pedagogies on the pupils, I don't think we should do that. We are teaching trainees, we should try our current pedagogy on trainees and we should be concentrating on the trainees, on how to upgrade our training skills.

Echah refused to try new pedagogy with the pupils as to her, pupils are not 'guinea pigs' or objects of experiment. She is more comfortable with the 'prescribed' pedagogy of teacher training as documented and suggested by the 'proforma', the

syllabus for teacher training. As mentioned by Echah in the abstract above, the mechanism of Summerhill is different from the mechanisms in national primary schools in Malaysia. Summerhill explores the mechanism of democracy as described in Chapter 6, section 6.7.

The structure of hierarchical management followed the creation of the multi-unit in the MOE and the multi-department in the TTI. The hierarchical management, enables the organisation to function through the delegation of responsibility. However, administrators must become the facilitator rather than the main channel of activity for the purposes of democratic empowerment. A good administrator governs to ensure appropriate practice for the right of employees in a timely inclusive, open, honest and accountable manner. Even the director of a TTI claims that he is assessed through several ways;

> "We have auditing that is always on the financial dealings of the institution, we have process of quality management, recently we have auditing of the accreditation of courses as now we are offering the degree courses and we are also assessed through the letter of complaint." **(Haji)**

He explained further on the letter of complaint.

> "Actually that's two types; well I would like to think of it as two types. We have official customer complain and the form, the complaint form can be filled using hardcopy or online and the second one, this one is what we call poison letters, letters written by anonymous writer and sent in. These anonymous letters usually are from people not satisfied with certain activities or promotion. Sometimes it gets abusive but most of the letters are accepted and the claims or accusation are usually investigated."

The system controls and authorises the engagement, the assignment and the tasks leading to the benefit of both the practitioner (teacher trainers) and the clients (teacher trainees). The forms of assessment seem to be closing down the questioning of the logic of the hierarchical management system. The practice is managed in hierarchical terms in providing direction, while communicating and acting; while giving out and receiving information in taking action and changed course. A hierarchical system specified the roles, competencies, contributions and results as a controlling system of organisation. Hence, from the point of view of the hierarchy, people must be prepared to be part of a successful organization with a positive culture and expected standards of behaviour. The organization is managed through a logic of hierarchy best served by appointed administrators to be in command of the employees in the hierarchical terms. Hierarchical logic involves mechanisms and procedures that include the legal application of power (and at the extreme, force or threat of force). Laws may be democratically developed as in democratically elected governments. But in a given organization, like the TS, the organization through which such laws are applied can still be essentially hierarchical, autocratic and thus anti-democratic.

Democracy involves the logic of equality and requires mechanisms and procedures of debate as a basis of decision making. The issue then is whether hierarchical organisations undermine a democratic society? If so, a further question is whether organisations like the TS can be democratically organized and what kinds of cultural practices, values and beliefs hinder the development of democratic organization.

These lead to the question, are we willing to empower the teachers to be agents of democratic change? Some of the responses are:

> "Maybe the teachers are ready, maybe they won't be ready the first time but are we ready to empower the teachers, and the centralisation is so bureaucratic even though, cluster schools talk about autonomy." (Aminah)

If the system in the organisation is poorly constructed, problems are likely to occur but not seen, or messages from the clients are not listened to. The empowerment of people involves building forms of organization that enable logic of equality, not the logic of hierarchy, so that people do not feel fearful of the consequences of questioning people in power.

> "So firstly, are our teachers ready for it (empowerment) to do all the assessment? Are we willing to empower the teachers? Maybe teachers take time but, because our system is so centralised so bureaucratic sometimes we do not know whether the cluster works, the cluster school talks about autonomy, how much autonomy to be given to the system. See, so here again is the issue of autonomy to the teacher so that means you must revamp those powers of assessment and bring autonomy to the teachers, whether our country is ready for it." (Mimi)

The hierarchies that have been established in the TS are unclear. Thus due to the inappropriate structures this has consequences for the implementation of programmes. A lecturer questioned the way programmes are implemented in the system:

> **"** but the policy here is not research based so when we implement we cut and paste, so when we cut and paste in our system it definitely won't work well so we don't know actually whether the teachers are prepared, whether the teachers understood, whether can we implement it in that kind of a condition the curriculum. So that's why we examine only knowledge and facts. There's a mismatch, they're working in separate ways, they working in separate ways, the unit PEN (assessment unit in MOE) talked in a different language from the unit KUR (curriculum unit in MOE) and unit KDP (training unit in MOE). In fact they should work as a team, so if you move like that, these kinds of situations occurs." (Aminah)

One of the reasons as to why the different units in the MOE are working in separate ways is because they work under their own hierarchy as discussed in Chapter 1, Figure 1.3. Even though, all the units are under the MOE, they have their own respective directors. Consequently, the personnel from each unit work according to the instruction of their directors who are usually very senior and attain the post as a pre-retirement position, promoted according to the seniority in service rather than experience. Thus, this type of

hierarchical structure does not meet any criteria for empowerment as in a more democratic structure.

7.2 Assessment Issues

Assessment in the TS involves two categories; the staff and the pupils. Assessment of staff is done via the annual appraisal and assessment of pupils is carried out via the formative and summative evaluation planned by the school.

7.2.1 Assessment of Staff

Academic and non-academic staff must fill in the targeted annual planning of their work in the given form manually or online. At the end of the year, the administrator assesses the performance by giving scores as the annual performance of the staff. The higher marks display better performance at work. However, there are issues pertaining to the annual appraisal at the TS as shall be discussed in the next section.

7.2.1.1 Issues of the annual appraisal

According to Derranty (2010:185), "all work is, to some extent a challenge to body and mind" but when efforts are recognized according to Dejours terms "suffering can be transformed into pleasure".

Appraisal is a key mechanism and has implications in particular for embedding hierarchical control and power as against empowerment and democratic organization. Moreover, as a hierarchical mechanism there are issues with its implementation. Thus, even those who accept the hierarchical forms of management have criticisms.

Those who understand the importance of the annual appraisal admitted that the frequency of the appraisal was done once a year and this frequency did not contribute any value added to their job.

> "The PK (senior teacher) does the appraisal but then you have the second reviewer, the HM (Headmaster) and I think, personally I think they should have an informal one more than once a year, it tends to add value "**(Lucy).**

Evidence also showed dissatisfaction with the overall appraisal process, which was not transparent but consisted of layers of protocols.

> "For example, if I'm not working in this TS and I'm solely working with another school, the JPN (State Education Department) will consider my performance and would have seen me perform. But here I have an appraisal, from my headmaster; he can say that I'm the best thing that ever happened in the TS, you know, I'm the

star. But he can't do anything with my pay; my melintang menegak (fast track increment) is controlled by JPN (State Education Department)." **(Budi).**

The extra level of communicating between the TS manager and the TTI administrator was found unnecessary and absolutely confusing.

> "So there's a bit of mismatch, I do all the activities designed by TTI for TS, I've been reviewed by my HM (Headmaster), my HM would speak to the TTI Director and would write my appraisal but who would determine the pay (increment). I can see why they do it, there's nothing wrong with it, to them. But they have to do it because they have to control the increment and they have to be quite structured in the way they pay people but it is quite a big difference between being here in TS and working with other school and performing well in your work there." (**Mirza**).

According to the participants, the one in charge of the appraisal should also be in charge of determining increments in their salary.

> "Well I heard people complaining about it, but I don't know why they're complaining about it. I think it works for us. The only problem that I could think of is that whoever appraised should be controlling your pay. The problem is we don't really understand what is being reflected in our pay, what isn't right and how it works." (**Budi**).

The appraisal was used as a tool to evaluate the performance of the government officers including teachers and lecturers, but they were not told about how they could improve. Some complained that they were not informed about the discussions held between the immediate manager (assessor) and the JPN/ TTI Director about their performance.

> "They should have a matrix or guidelines of what we should be working towards. But what I just don't agree with is the fact that I do some work, but it doesn't involve in my SKT (individual annual schedule of work). I couldn't every time say, "Hey, look what I've done, I've done this! Even if it is written, it would be very brief. They don't have a chance of understanding what the work is all about or what level (how great) it was done. I think the best way to do it to have TS headmaster do the appraisal and decide the increment in front of panel of TS from TTI not JPN. But it should be in front of everyone and also the result, we should have the visibility to see that we're okay. "(**Mirza)**.

Whenever the appraisal was done, the teachers felt that they did not receive the constructive comments that could help their professional development.

> "I think sometimes it is quite important for admin to be firm as well. Sometimes I think they all want to get the best of teachers for their school to help them with work, they don't want to be too harsh on you and I think it's good for them to point up your weakness, very frankly. I think probably in our culture, they don't really say something bad to you directly. I think it's good if they say something about your weakness more, rather than keep on saying good things about you. They pointed out your weakness but not that much, maybe they should focus more on weakness rather than saying good things. I think that it may be good if they pointed out our weaknesses on a day-to-day basis and we can learn how to improve, rather than keeping it very polite and not say anything about it" **(Badrul).**

The participants commented on the inconsistency of the administrator in conducting the appraisal, which sometimes contradicted what they were informed earlier. For example, teachers were told that there would be quotas of 5% for fast track increments for teachers. So, only a certain number would be able to go for the fast track increment.

> "Oh, they say that you should wait your turn. Eventually you would get it." **(Mirza).**

As another example, there was an issue of the routine of filling in the standard annual appraisal form which participants felt were just an annual routine form filling activity. The annual appraisal marks the performance of the assessed year by the reviewer at the end of the year. According to a TTI administrator, "the appraisal is done based on the SKT (work aimed outcomes) of the employees. You must write the SKT and submit when requested (at the end of the year".

The form is not able to make a distinction between different circumstances and not appropriate to cover the range of activities undertaken by different staff.

> "Actually I think if you go to Azmi and Faridah (clerks) and ask them, they will show you a form [the form is called Borang Prestasi Tahunan (Annual Apraisal Form)] and every time they'll collect the form and they'll ask you questions like duties handled for the current year, what training you'll need, about your contribution to the institution, society and also awards or any other form of recognition. So every time they will follow the form and answer the same questions. So, how do you mark (the annual appraisal form) if I state that I teach Year 4 as compared to Laila teaching Year 3. Or another teaching both Year 3 and Year 4 also? "(**Budi).**

The form is standard and requested employees to fill in a part of the different sections specified for the current academic year such as: the teaching and learning activities which is based on the individual time table of lecturers, collaboration with other institutions, innovations, research done, non-academic contributions and information-technology based implementation at work. The other part of the form is filled by the two top administrators at the institution such as marks for leadership, punctuality, reliability; inter personal relationship with superiors and co-workers, diligence and pro-activeness. So, there is dissatisfaction for example when Harizan voiced that:

> "We in the language department are over-burdened with extra periods (of teaching because of lecturer shortage). We are struggling to cover the classes and mark papers. Of course we neglect our research, collaboration and innovation parts. So, of course we cannot score there. Please look at our load first."

A Vice Director when approached on this issue and suggested the process to be made more flexible for certain lecturers depending on the teaching workloads declined as to him, "it is a standard document and shall be kept as the record of the employees' performance for the current year." When a lecturer when further and requested that the a

discussion should be made and issue are brought up and solved, the vice director responded by saying, “there are certain things that can be discussed but certain areas are up to the jurisdiction of the executive power in the institution.”

It is concluded that the issues arising from the appraisal process include: the lack of transparency of the process; the unsatisfactory communication between immediate assessors of which the constructive comments were not delivered to the participants; the inconsistency of the way appraisal was conducted and the complicated system of the annual appraisal. All of these dissatisfactions contributed were brought forward when teachers expressed their concerns over the reviewer. This issue is presented in the following section.

7.2.1.2 Inconsistency of the annual appraisal

As identified in this study, the participants’ (Budi, Mimi, Arissa, Lucy, Sebalingam) major complaint was about the inconsistency of the annual appraisal carried out by their immediate administrator towards the end of the year period, and the review done by the second appraiser. Their dissatisfaction about the appraisal process was based on the general method of conducting the appraisal, the approach of the individual reviewer and the technical aspects of the appraisal format.

Assessment is the classification of someone or something with respect to their or its worth. It involves the process of gathering, analysing and reflecting on evidence gauging in measurable terms and documenting, usually knowledge, skills, attitudes and beliefs to make informed and consistent judgments to improve future individual performance.

An officer from MOE describes the impact of assessing teaching and learning practice in the TS.

> “It’s very teacher-centred but I don't blame the teachers. I blame the assessment because the assessment is still very factual, so when you want to examine that fact there is only one pedagogy and that is chalk and talk. Why do you want to use student-centered when you shall be tested on facts, so delivery is a simple one-way method, faster and more efficient where students just memorise the text. It's not based on their thinking skills. So when you're not tested on thinking skills, why waste time doing it.” (Malar)

Assessment of work involves assessment of performance at work. On this issue, a short conversation is recorded as below:

"Mimi: Yes, we're being assessed by our students, with ISO (International Organization for Standardization) it's very client-centered, we have a kind of p&p (teaching and learning) instrument but sometimes we're assessed by the inspectorate so the assessment has already been laid down (specified checklist) but for continuous assessment we are formally assessed by students.

Harizan: So when students are doing this assessment, don't you think there's a danger to it because some lecturers who are popular with students, they may, get good evaluation marks, no matter how bad or good they perform in class. However, if that lecturer is not popular with students they may not give the lecturer marks regardless of how good the lecturer is.

Mimi: There must be an improvement in the sense that the administration of the assessment is done by the lecturer themselves, so... school they may get this biasness, obligation to get the lecturers to collect back the instrument, they may feel that there may be a kind of conflict. That still is the disadvantage so if we can find ways, may be to do it in other ways.

Echah: I went to Bangkok last time, they should be done online, students accessed via the net, go to the instrument and, and then deliver the questionnaire online and then it will be much more reliable and valid and not subjective but here we deliver the instrument at the end of the lesson and we collect back the instruments and then worst still we analyse. That's the bad side of it."

From this exchange, it can be concluded that there is a need to a system of assessment that is more reliable, valid and not conflicting to assess the performance of the lecturers.

7.2.1.3 The reviewer (assessor)

Many teachers have expressed concerned over the issue of the assessor, that is, the person who is in charge of reviewing their performance at work. The fact that the lecturers/teachers were assessed by the reviewer (assessor) who was their immediate manager meant that the way the review was done varied in terms of the person who did it, and in terms of how they perceived each of the review elements.

"Different people assessed differently. One of the hard bits though is you don't have the same person marking….you don't have the same person doing them. Because every time you have a new boss, he's the one who writes it and they don't all mark in the same way" **(Johari).**

Some of the evidence given by participants even emphasized the unsuitability of the person who then became their assessor. Some did not seem to put in much effort and thought when reviewing.

"I think it depends, like this place here I kind of prefer the person that I had before to a new one because this one is just about to retire. He was a bit unstructured, carefree, too informal, so it depends on the individual really. I don't think my boss was into this really. So the whole review was a bit casual."

(Badrul).

In short, participants expressed their concerns over the reviewer (assessor) issue where they claimed that different reviewers (assessors) conducted the review differently based on their perceptions of the review elements. On top of that, a few participants were dissatisfied with the suitability of the reviewers (assessors) who were commonly their immediate administrator, appointed to undertake the review of their performance. Participants in this study also expressed their concern over the technical aspects of the review format which is dealt in the next section.

7.2.1.4 The technical aspects of the review format

The way the reviewer (assessor) interpreted the elements in the appraisal forms varied between individuals and this was confusing for the participants. In TTI, if a head of department was unable to acknowledge the recognition of work done by a certain lecturer as this particular lecturer is attached to a TS, then the fast track increment tend to be overlooked by the Director of TTI. The annual appraisal was then generally poorly done due to misplaced judgment.

> "For example in my department; the first time the annual appraisal form was done, I went through it with my boss, he got into the integrity and trust's box, there's one to 10. Basically one is worst and ten is the best. And he gave me eight, and I hadn't questioned any of them that he gave me so far because they're representative of what I am. But I said, hold on a minute, why do you give me an eight and not a nine or ten, because to me that says that I can show more integrity and be more trustworthy. I don't have a problem if you don't think I'm not as trustworthy as I could be. But what you need to do is to tell me how can I improve and what aspect may be giving me more than eight. I explained this during the discussion with my boss. In fact he thought…"You've got a point but nobody is perfect, so it's safe to put eight'." **(Johari).**

Some of the problems with the differences in interpretation were due to the fact that there were no proper guidelines or control being imposed on the reviewer (assessor) on how to fill up the performance evaluation form. This means that the evaluation system was seen as continuously problematic and subjective.

> "Now the contrast is with my second boss in, the one who wrote up my last appraisal couple of years ago. On the very same area, he said, well, you're either trustworthy or you're not. There's no really kind of grey area, I either trust you or I don't. And I trust you. So he said, right, if I put it in the middle I half trust you and if I don't mark it, I don't trust you. So he put me in the ten coz' for him he gave me it's like excellent achieved. I thought well, it's fair enough because that's the way he looks at marking it and that's fine, I'm happy about that. "(**Aminah**).

The difficulty of using numerical scores to describe one's performance was seen as one of the limitations of the current review format. However, it was thought that there was no better way of dealing with it, and they could offer no alternative method.

> "Well, they're not actually numbers, they're letters, and actually they try to get away from numbers. I don't think numbers are bad and I'll explain why in a minute. The problem with it is, you've got to take into account... there's a lot of subjectivity in there. You've got to take into account who wrote it as well as what they put. So you can't get everyone signing the form and go, that they've got all tens and they've got all sixes he's done better than they are. They've got a better pay rise. You just can't just do that, you really have to define the numbers; otherwise it is very-very subjective "(**Budi)**.

In brief, the inconsistency of the annual appraisal has led to further issues arising from consideration of the review process, problems with the reviewer (assessor) and problems with the technical aspects of the review format. Those problems have resulted in participants feeling a little bit frustrated and dissatisfied with the current review process of the system especially those straddled between TTI and TS.

Apart from assessment for the teachers or teacher trainers, there are also assessments for pupils as shall be discussed below.

7.2.2 Assessment for Pupils of the TS

There are two types of assessment for the pupils of the TS: formative and summative evaluation. Formative evaluations are prepared by the teachers in terms of monthly or topical test. There is only one summative evaluation done at the end of final Year 6 of the primary school, a public examination standardized nationwide known as the Primary Six Achievement test ot the UPSR examination in Malaysia. The test is used to stream pupils later as a control of 'live chances'. All the tests were done formally at school in front of the teachers. The data of test result is used not only to rate the pupils but also to rank schools and in a way as a gauging point to measure the effectiveness of classroom teaching and learning.

7.2.2.1 Formal Assessment

Teachers are so concerned over the exam result of the pupils, and an education officer explained by saying;

> "Yeah, teachers are pressured because their performance is measured by the exam result. But I think firstly these students are selected students, they are bright

> students, they got good grades, and I believe that if our TS can play that kind of a game and we are preparing for leaders, the whole pupils are leaders, you know... "(**Malar**)

The argument is that the TS also reinforces elitism and by adopting such a strategy the process of assessment might counter the policy for the TS to improve the education of all.

The theme of formal assessment received a mixed response from the participants. While some agreed that formal assessment was a good way of acquiring competence in the TS, others believed that the method had several flaws, which required further attention.

Aminah, for example, thought that the formal summative assessment at the end of primary school is a good way of acquiring competence. **Aminah** referred to these six yearly learning periods and highlighted the importance of public assessment by the MOE, which she felt had made pupils become more competent. She described the process in the following terms:

> "At the moment on the teaching scheme, you have the assessment to prepare for. So they [pupils] know how well they think that you've done against the numbers…so I guess you'll get some ideas on how well you've done from the assessment marks." (Aminah)

Echah strongly advised that participants should take on board all the comments from the other teachers and "think positive and move on".

Lucy expressed her dissatisfaction over pupils' assessment, which according to her, was an ineffective way in helping pupils in acquiring competence. She criticised it as follows:

> "I think they (referring to reviews or formal assessments) are supposed to highlight the curriculum and then develop well-identified training which you can go on and things like that…but I don't think that they're especially good at that."

Harizan described his dissatisfaction over the way in which the pupils' assessments were conducted. He preferred project work and discussing on a one-to-one basis rather than sitting for exam and being catagorised on it.

Budi also disagreed with the way the assessment was made when he commented:

> "The lembaga (the Examination Board of MOE) never works with unit KUR (the Curriculum Unit of MOE), they are two separate units.

Lucy added; "But you should test what you teach."

Besides the dissatisfaction about the way in which the assessment was conducted, **Aminah** and **Danial** revealed the issue of bias that existed during the process of assessment.

Danial described it as follows:

> "Yeah, we have Band 1 to Band 6 to rate the pupils (band 1 is the lowest scale) and we rate our pupils and we moderate our marks with the other teachers. We pool the pupils on the Band scale. But there are possibilities of biasness based on behaviours of pupils."

The participants were probed over what they think is best suited to assessment of students performance and **Aminah** believed that teachers and other colleagues should also be included in giving feedback and she thought that giving some feedback is more effective rather than marks of the evaluation.

In general, the participants agreed that formal assessment if carried out well provides feedback for them to move on with their practice. Some of them agreed that the current system could be improved, where teachers and teacher trainers should be able to identify the skills gaps and training needed by the participants. From these issues, it is evident that the participants' dissatisfactions with the formal assessment were due to the ineffectiveness of the current practice, the way it is conducted, the "assessor", and the issue of bias.

7.3 Summary of how change is negotiated and operationalised

The point of departure for the negotiation of change and its operationalization is the conceptual domain which has to be articulated in the practical domain of the implementation of the TS programme. In drafting the conceptual domain such as the proposal or the concept paper of the TS, change is first negotiated by the "think-tank' group through discussion and approval of the highest authority (in meetings) in the Malaysian MOE system. Once approved, the TS programme is directed to be implemented in the TTI. The top administrator in the TTI formed the TS committee members and creates task/s for members to ensure the success of the TS implementation. The TS is thus, implemented.

From the flow of the 'work' it is apparent that it was managed hierarchically from the highest authority to the grassroots level. At the grassroots level there are then further negotiations of and resistance to work demands partly as of the role of the 'informal networks'. However, there are confusions during the practioners' implementation of the policy discourses of the policy makers. Some of the confusions are discussed in Chapter

Five such as the experience of the TS attachment for the TTI lecturers (section 5.2.1), the design of the TS concept (section 5.2.2), the notion of the TS (section 5.2.3), the ownership of the TS (section 5.2.4 and 5.2.5) and the concept of the TS as an agent of change (section 5.2.6). The confusions impact on the negotiations and operationalisation of the policy.

During the practical domain, work in the TS as a training ground is considered as repetitive routine (section 6.1.1) and work are done by observing others (section 6.1.3). Sometimes, 'stealth organisation' of the informal network is interlaced with the formal network (section 6.2.1) to produce the desired outcome.

7.4 Conclusion

Briefly this chapter has discussed concerning the 'material domain' in terms of how the management of resources has been undertaken. Allocation of appropriate resources is needed and appraisal is one way of leading to the appropriate allocation of staff and the development of staff to meet the aims of the TS vision Hierarchical management and other traditional organisational practices are not so easily discarded (O'Reilly and Tushman 2004; Palma and Dunford 2002; Raynor and Bower 2001: Volberda 1998) but alternative forms of organising are very difficult to emerge within organisations such as the TTI and TS. However, a democratic education 'reform' is challenges to be faced as similar to the accounts of Apple and Beane (2007:120) educators:

> … refused to allow the difficult financial stringencies we are all under, the often unwieldy bureaucratic regulations of many school systems, and the immense social pressures and demands being placed on schools to get in the way of building educational experiences that make areal difference in the lives of their students.

Democracy is the tenet of Malaysia and if people are to maintain this democratic tenet, they must be taught or given the opportunities to lead a democratic life. One way is to apply materials suited to the democratic school as a way or architecturing of a democratic social. The material for a democratic school must display conditions a democratic structures and processes. Among such conditions are as listed by Apple and Beane (1999:7) such as:

> 1. The open flow of ideas, regardless of their popularity, that enables people to be as fully inform as possible.

2. Faith in the individual and collective capacity of people to create possibilities for resolving problems.
3. The use of critical reflection and analysis to evaluate ideas, problems and policies.
4. Concern for the welfare of others and 'the common good'.
5. Concern for the dignity and rights of individuals and minorities.
6. An understanding that democracy is not so much an' ideal' to be pursued as an 'idealized' set of values that we must live and that must guide our life as people.
7. The organization of social institutions to promote and extend the democratic way of life.

The list leads us to question, what kind of resources are required for a democratic school? What kind of management is suited to a democratic school? What kind of assessment is suited to a democratic school? What do we need in a democratic school? These questions are answered in the next chapter, section 8.2.

Chapter 8

Final Reflections

By three methods we may learn wisdom:
First, by reflection, which is noblest; second, by imitation, which is easiest;
and third by experience, which is the bitterest.
(Confucius)

8.0 Introduction

Upon reporting back to work on January the 4th 2012 after leaving home for four years, I was very eager to know about how the TS had developed in the intervening years. Hence, on the very first day of work, when the Vice Director and a colleague ushered me into the TS, I was really excited.

We were greeted and accompanied by the headmaster and were given a quick tour of the new school premise, the classrooms, the offices, school canteen and all the other facilities. The TS currently is operating in a new building in the compound of the TTI. It is administered by a headmaster and fully staffed. How the school had changed! A massive building with classrooms and other facilities far removed from what we started with in 2007.

Whilst entering the Year 6 class, we were greeted with the routine greeting of '*salam*'. My pupils, initially in Year 1 are now in the final year of primary school, Year 6. How they have grown! They are no longer my playful little children, my babies, they are all polite school girls and boys, listening attentively to their teachers. Some of the initial pupils have left or have changed school and new pupils are taken due to the vacancy of place. After a short exchange with the subject teacher in the class, our group started to move out of the class. I glanced back at the familiar faces and to my surprise they started to rush to the front of the class, hugging and squeezing me, giggling and not really behaving anymore. I was overwhelmed and the rest of the tour seemed to be blurry after that.

The TS to me is more than flesh and blood. It is full of the sweat and tears of choices made, and action that follows, to continue to learn, explore, understand and open-mindedly commit us especially during the implementation stage. The strengths and weaknesses, clashes of interest, feelings, passions, emotions, and prejudices are all interwoven and managed in a package to create better TSs.

Hence, the visit riveted me back to my study of the TS and my initial question of actually, "What is a TS?"

Ideally, a TS as discussed in the earlier chapters, (Introduction Chapter and Chapter 1) is a school programme initiated by the TTI with the Dewey's democratic conception in practice to be as a "showcase" to the other national primary school in Malaysia. However, as described and discussed, the TS is also a conflictual space where the realities of hierarchy hinder the emergence of more democratic forms to organization and practice in making it such a showcase.

8.1The Significant Contribution to Knowledge

The study is primarily the first to explore the development of the TS in Malaysia. By discussing the implications of the TS for democratic development, it deepens this significance by showing what is at stake in trying to make real changes in practice. In order to explore the question of what is a TS the research employed a qualitative critical realist democratic evaluation of Grounded Theory (Glaser and Strauss 1967) under the framework of the 'Architectures of the Social' (Schostak and Schostak 2008). What has been learnt in doing this provides significant insights into what is involved in implementing innovations in education especially for the primary schools in Malaysia.

The issues although are interlaced with one another, were explored in terms of the conceptual domain, the practical domain and the material domain. Based on the themes, two 'architectures' were explored:

- a structure shaped by elites that is hierarchical and managerialist and is associated with the moral framework
- a structure that is shaped by democratic principles and practices resting on the ethico-political logic associated with equality and universal or infinite demands for freedom, social justice and human rights.

The contribution to the debate is a critical exploration of the implementation of a teaching school (TS) in Malaysia in relation to discussions of democratic forms of education as a way of contributing to the democratization of society. For this it drew on Dewey and other contributors to the debate on democracy. As a result of this research: what has been learnt?

I learnt that, in carrying out the TS innovation it is crucial that the Conceptual Domain at the abstract level of concepts of the ideas, values, policy, Acts and principles in the wider concept of schools innovations are clearly understood in order to

apply the ideas in the practical and physical domains of the cultural system in which a school operates.

There were two contradictory 'architectures' consisting of a) the hierarchical structure of the organisation and b) the vision of a more democratic form of education that drew its inspiration for the TS from Dewey's conception on education. On one side, the hierarchical structure reinforced elite powers that possessed the resources as opposed to the subordinates. While a more democratic structure like that of Dewey, Rancière, Dejours and Schostak and Schostak promotes equality in pursuit of the rights in making decisions. Malaysia, if espousing democracy logically would follow the approach and strategy in line with democracy. However, managing change is difficult and must be implemented with care and precaution.

There were problems in establishing appropriate practice and resources and there were problems in terms of role definitions and the staff's understanding of the purpose and nature of the programme. Problems of establishing appropriate resources derived from lack of power or 'unheard demands' (Schostak and Schostak 2008) during work undertaken in the practical domain of the implementation of the TS. The 'unheard demands' are the result of the practical problems of the implementation of the TS and the contradiction between a democratization and the hierarchical nature of the system on people's working lives, particularly in terms of generating a sense of frustration and a sense of vulnerability. Even though there did not seem to be much opportunity for empowerment, constant communication and encouragement as well as reforming the underlying power structure are ways in creating 'spaces' for the 'unheard demands' such as in the TS programme.

In exploring the issues, it is important to find ways to make sure that the reasoning behind the implementation of the TS is understood apart from just informing the classroom practitioners and stakeholders in and outside of the TTIs of the TS programme. At the very least, a manual that is clear and assessable to all should be set out as guidance, such as in providing guidelines on the process and the procedures of opening a school based on the concept paper of the TS. Thus, when there is innovation such as the TS, it is important to focus on the 'concept' of and at the same time looking at 'how' to handle such a programme given the 'available' resources.

The in-depth exploration and richer explanation of some of the issues and postings of more questions provide multiple dimensions for further research and exploration pertaining to the issues of the TS. or any other programme intended for research. For example, further exploration could be done in improving the type of TS in

existence or a study of this kind of evaluation could be carried out with other programmes in TTIs or other government or private institutions.

I learnt that as a professional, alongside the formal management, there is another web interwoven in the already complex institution of work, the informal management. Formal management may be hierarchical and full of bureaucracies but the informal management does not have to be hierarchical or bureaucratic. This network usually consists of best-friends, family members, previous colleagues or classmates (see section 7.4.1). This informal management network is also important and can play an important part in creating 'short-cuts' to overcome the bureaucracies of the formal hierarchical management or the 'instituted lie' or as the other available 'material domain' such as outside sponsors or participation from the society in executing the practical domain of the TS. The 'instituted lie' where unclear concepts are differently interpreted, seemed to be instrumental in maintaining the sense of vulnerability and precarity at work. As such, employees should be made clear of the policies underlying the TS programme to avoid grey areas that would later encourage an 'instituted lie', a lie to cover the real suffering in executing tasks (such as meeting deadlines) at work.

I learnt that in the current circumstances and implementation of the TS programme, policymakers in primary school education might be able to use the issues explored in the chapters earlier as the framework of key points to design better TS in helping to narrow the gap between the policy and the practice by taking into account the 'narratives' of the stakeholders involved. The policy of the TS is to have research as one of the aims as discussed in Chapter 2, section 2.1.1 of the thesis. If the policy of research based innovation or education is to be realized, then classroom practitioners and researchers should be included as part of policy making decisions in the design of TS or any intended educational programme. One of the options of doing this is through a more democratic form of management, accepting the 'voice' of people at work regardless of their hierarchical level. Drawing on democratic theory and practice such as from Dewey, the TS can act as a laboratory school to inform the practices of democratic citizenship to become better citizens in a democratic society. It should direct us to the politics where discussion of needs and the interests of not just those of elite stakeholders but those where all people are included as part of a public debate. Research can evaluate the contribution of programmes such as TS to the development of a politics of democracy in the context of hierarchy, power and the moral boundaries in the society. Thus, the value of the TS does not derive solely from the pupils' performance in their exams. Its value is also as an ethical practice that can also provide a basis for political practice as democracy.

Personally, I learnt that a PhD is never a straight forward journey as compared to the other levels of study such as a first degree which always is very objectives driven with an expected set of course papers, coursework and assessment. There are so many different options to explore even if the research objectives are never set. It is up to the researcher to choose the research methodology and the area of study. Each one of the different options with different research methods has its own scientific merit, which is neither more nor less valid than the others. Each may have their specific domains for research. They may be valid in one domain but may not be on another.

Drawing upon a critical realist approach provided an intriguing way to map out the contours of 'voice', providing a debate in the quest of evaluating the programme. The discussion of 'voice' shows that even a programme such as the TS is actually connected to a wider domain of work, ethics and even political discourse which shapes the people as characters of the TS. The role of exploring the 'voice' of for example, the staff as the classroom practitioners as well as the other stakeholders ensures that the voice is heard and implies a more democratic kind of evaluation of the TS. The paradigm enables exploration of a complicated web of conflicting and overlapping issues 'placing flesh' on the skeleton of the TS. The exploration of conflicting and subjective issues may show that they vary between one person to another thus making this kind of study 'quite personal' and unique.

I learnt also that by exploring the relationship between concepts, practices, the allocation of resources and the outcomes produced it is possible to identify some evidence based implications concerning the implementation of the TS. However, it is very difficult to bring into being the democratic education ideas in the type of hierarchical organisation that the TS and the TTI are situated. Hence, the purpose of this study was to explore the gap between the democratic ideal and the realities of practice.

8.3 Revisiting the Research Questions

The following provides a summary response to the research questions outlined in the Introduction of the thesis.

8.3.1 Research Question One

1. What is the TS?

The TS is a school innovation programme initiated by the MOE under TTIs and is meant to be a showcase (see Chapter 1, section 1.3) for the other national primary schools in

Malaysia. However, what it is to showcase depends of what is meant by a TS. In this study, there are at least two interpretations of it. The first can be determined in relation to how the policy had been implemented in practice with the emphasis on performance as the findings discussed in Chapter Seven, Section 7.2. In that sense a TS is a showcase for engineering performance improvements in teaching, learning, classroom management and school organization. The second interpretation can be inferred from references to Dewey's concept of the laboratory school as discussed in the Preface and 3.2.1. In that sense a TS is a showcase for change in organizational, occupational, pedagogical and curricular processes in order to promote democratic practices and discourses. There is then a distinction between the TS as currently practiced and what it could become. The TS then provides the opportunity to explore the gap and engage in debate about altenrnative futures for education in Malaysia.

1.1 What is the vision of the TS?

As previously described, there is a distinction between the vision that is reduced to being about improving performance in tests (as in section 1.4.3 and 1.4.4) and the vision the teaching school having a role in the development of a democratic society (as discussed in section 3.2.1). These two visions are in conflict as explored in Chapter Three section 3,2,2. This conflict was further explored (see Chapter 5) in terms of the particular perspective of the policymakers, the practitioners, the writings of Dewey and those implicit in the demands made by work procedures.

1.2 How are the visions in the implementation of the TS programme experienced?

The implementation of the programme is experienced as compliance to policy and organisational administrative demands rather than trying to realise democratic ideas at work in practice (see Chapter 6 and Chapter 7). Thus the democratic vision is largely experienced as being far from realization. The demands for performance and compliance can be experienced as a burden, and as a sense of frustration, anxiety and more generally as a sense of precarity.

However, there are sometimes circumstances when, there are alternative or democratic, non-hierarchical responses to the policy and organizational demands of the TS programme. As an example, in order to meet deadlines or produce outcomes there are alternative channels such as the 'informal network' (see Chapter 6, section 6.2.1) that side step the formal network at work. The informal network or 'stealth architecture' suspends the formal structure and can create 'shortcuts' to help reduce the bureaucratic procedures of a hierarchical organisation. Such experiences could be the basis for exploring alternative organizational structures and practices for democratic purposes (see Chapter 5, section 5.3)

8.3.2 Research Question Two

How may democracy in education be facilitated in the TS program?

Schools are a medium for educational discourses in shaping individuals in preparation for the future society of a democratic country. Schools have an important role in framing and disseminating the key discourses that prepare individuals for active participation in developing the future forms of society. The TS can facilitate this more democratic future by addressing all the key obstacles to democratic practices as discussed in Chapter 5 section 5.2.6 and section 5.3.2. In particular the TS can be an initial step towards democracy in education in terms of operationalising change in school organisation and in including people's voices formally in decision making such as in curriculum choice and forms of assessment. It can further facilitate democratic practice by disseminating research based debate about democratic education in its relation to teacher training programmes.

8.3.3 Research Question Three

What are the perceptions and experiences of the teaching and supporting staff of the TS?

The narrative descriptive approach was employed in order to identify and explore the range of perceptions and experiences of the teaching and support staff of the TS. These are split between those in agreement those in disagreement and those who are just followers. Those teachers who supported the broad democratic vision experienced the TS as a training ground to be a better teacher trainer for primary school teacher trainees (see section 6.1) are supportive in their involvement in the TS even though some are bit scared and some think of the experience as adventurous. However, there are conflicts and confusion in implementing policy to practice especially in the concept and notion of the TS. Some are not clear of the TS concept because of the differing concepts of the policymakers and the practitioners. They also experience hardship in the reality of bureaucracy of work procedures.for example in obtaining textbooks (see section 5.3.2) which involves filling in forms and long waiting duration to receive textbooks. Support staff who supported the idea of the TS give a lot of ideas, share expertise and information even including on how to open a bank account. Those who 'just follow' are typically the new lecturer with no experience in teaching in the primary school

Those teachers who are not in support think that the TS is just another burden at work. Some decline to be involved such as the initial lead of the TS programme (claiming hypertension) and some withdraw when work is distributed (for example, the TS committee members). Support staff who did not support the TS programme do not show up and/or make excuses for not being able to be involved in the TS

8.3.4 Research Question Four

What form of organization is appropriate to the TS program?

If we are just 'schooling' the pupils, the current form of hierarchical organisation focused on performance is appropriate to the TS program. However, if we are to consider the wider implications of the Concept Paper of the TS, then the vision of achieving a more democratic society of the future requires a more democratic kind of organisation. This means that instead of having an hierarchical form of organization, there should be democratic mechanisms, procedures and practices built into the 'architecture' of the organistion.

8.3.5 Research Question Five

How does the development of democratic education facilitate democracy?

In order to facilitate democracy, democratic forms of education can provide opportunities for engaging in democratic practices along with democracy training in all aspects of school life in preparation for a socially just community. In this way, pupils as well as the staff and parents in the community will be exposed to the values, and ways of behaving appropriate to a democracy. This then, ideally, will become a resource for them in later life to draw upon in their dealings with the organisations of their working and social lives because they will be familiar with and experienced in the democratic architectures exemplified by the school. However, it is difficult to promote and sustain in anti-democratic contexts such as in the hierarchical organisations because of the power structures. Nevertheless, adopting a democratic standpoint promotes the principle of 'equaliberty' where the voices of all can be freely heard and engaged equally in decisionmaking (Balibar 1994). If this is possible, then, it is argued, the hierarchical structures of organisation will over time give way to democratic forms.

8.2 Practical Implications and Lessons Learnt

During my course of service, I was often told that, as an individual, I cannot change the situation. The norms, routines and administrative procedures shall remain. However, my inner self has always led me to believe differently. I remember a story of a boy walking to the beach with his father. Upon reaching the beach, they discovered that the beach is covered with countless starfish washed by the waves. Faced with such a situation, the father told the son to accept the situation as they cannot make a difference to it. The son, started to scoop the starfish and throwing it back to the ocean. He explained, "See, I make a difference to that one".

I pursued this study in an earnest hope that this TS programme will be supported and acknowledged appropriate to meet the needs of the effective public and maybe create a difference to primary education. As long as the influence of elite power remains high on the agenda of education, there will be need to change and primary education should be reformed to meet the needs of the nation as the government policy sees education as a way of being able to compete in the global society markets. Hence, realistically I may not find the best solution to the complexities but I may be able to have a better description of what those complexities are.

8.2.1 Implications in Policy Making

The policy to implement the TS in the TTIs have implications for the stakeholders namely policymakers and classroom practitioners in identifying the differences between the TS on paper, the TS that people experience and the TS in practice. There will be quite different practical implications for the development of elite driven organisations from those that are required for developing democratic organisations

It has always been the aim of the MOE to provide a better educational primary school programme in Malaysia. In implementing the TS in TTI, the Ministry is on the track of concentrating more direct involvement not only from the school division, but also from the TTIs. There is a need to have an in depth understanding of the underlying policy concept of the TS and the reason for implementation of the TS in the first place. It is noted that attempts such as a Malaysia national seminar on the TS programme in 2010 and impact study of the TS in 2012 have been made, while writing this dissertation, to provide better understanding of the TS to teacher trainers, teacher trainees and teachers. There is also the need for:

- Broadly speaking, the programme concept must be clear for all participants as discussed throughout Chapter 6 especially in section 6.1, 6.2 and 6.4. It

may be achieved by setting up joint review bodies including academic and practitioner members within the MOE capable of assessing both the academic as well as the 'architectures of the social', in terms of conceptual, practical and materials domains in policy making decisions. This can be facilitated by the involvement of more stakeholders in making better policies to suit the needs of the TS, the community and generally the public and the national primary school nationwide. Engagement of more stakeholders to create a more democratic society involves operating more in consultation with organisations and communities not just to reinforce the views of the elites or the experts. e.g. programme concept must be clear for all participants as discussed throughout Chapter 6 especially in section 6.1, 6.2 and 6.4. It may be achieved by setting up joint review bodies including academic and practitioner members within the MOE capable of assessing both the academic as well as the 'architectures of the social', in terms of conceptual, practical and materials domains in policy making decisions. This can be facilitated by the involvement of more stakeholders in making better policies to suit the needs of the TS, the community and generally the public and the national primary school nationwide. Engagement of more stakeholders to create a more democratic society involves operating more in consultation with organisations and communities not just to reinforce the views of the elites or the experts.

- to advance the democratic potential of the TS, by giving attention to making improvements in decision-making in relation to the vision and concept of the TS and improving the conditions for democracy by listening to the 'voices' from the 'ground' as discussed in section 6.6 Democracy.

- Administrative or organizational demands that fairly develop better schools and to recognise the value and impact of the more democratic organization in the innovation of the TS as the discussion throughout Chapter 7.

- Utilising appropriate funding sources to assess quality education within the major development of the TS in particular through academic and policy value to the government with appropriate and relevant research and TS as the research hub (Chapter Introduction) for primary school education as the vision of the TS to be realized in the practical domain given appropriate resources.

- Some changes to be implemented in the TS such as: the independent management of the TS under the administration of the respective TTI, the right to 'hire and fire' the TS staff, and greater improved reasonable allocation of resources and support from MOE such as in terms of budgetary, human resource and training programmes as discussed in section 8.1 Hierarchical Management and section 8.2

8.2.2. Practical Implications for Practitioners such as Lecturers, Teachers and Managers

Education has a critical function within society for learning and also for social construction. In Malaysia, I have argued that the TS education transformation comes with the new practical responsibilities for practitioners to explore the vision of conceptions of democratic organisation and practice as for example in Dewey's democratic conception in education. In order to achieve it requires changes in practice, organization and resource allocation. This research has pointed to some issues to overcome particularly in the discussions of the Conceptual Domain in Chapter 6, Practical Domain in Chapter 7 and Material Domain in Chapter 8.

Policies need to be conceptually understood by the practitioners. On the practical domain, the new responsibilities and the workload for practitioners need to be reviewed if the TS is to be a 'showcase' for a more democratic form of school organisation. Thus, compromise measures need to be taken by the many parties involved so as not to increase the numbers of 'tasks' and multi-dimensional pressures on the practitioners.

The practitioners of the TS are important mediators of the vision of the TS (the vision of democracy) because they are the 'agents of change' in the implementation of the TS innovations. Their contributions are vital. Based on this study, some practitioners showed commitment and dedication (see for example, Introduction Chapter and section 6.4) to the programme despite there being an additional workload on their shoulders. However, it is unfair (Balibar, 1994, Dejours and Derranty, 2010) in work perspective to place pressure and extra burdens on the practitioners with the new programme without empowering them. Following the chapters on work and democracy this might include, more democratic notion of ownership, more expanded notion of work to include and people being involved in decision making about the nature of educational organization.

These issues suggest a reconceptualisation of the appraisal system is required. This issue is based on the current appraisal system as discussed in Chapter 8 of the thesis. An appraisal system can be developed that is a fairer and more democratic

approach to work assessment to suit the need individual employees in the context of the vision for the TS.

8.2.3 Theoretical Implications

The core theoretical approach that is chosen in the discussions throughout the thesis is democratic education. It has been indicated how exams drive much of the practice of the schools and the extent to which school organization is hierarchical. This practice then seems to counter the democratic philosophies of Dewey and others in the democratic tradition. If democratic theory is to be placed at the heart of the vision of the TS, then the practices will need to change such as using the development of democratic decision making as argued in the thesis.

Theoretically, the TS can be developed to articulate the form of democratic conception discussed by Dewey. However, the argument of the thesis is that the mechanisms that are employed are not always appropriate to the democratic dimension of the vision especially where the mechanisms employed in the TS programme are more appropriate to hierarchical structures. Hence at a theoretical level there is a potential conflict between the democratic and hierarchical forms of organization creating an ethico-political conflict such as in the implementation of the TS. There lies the tension between the machine like administrative procedures on the one hand and the desire by practitioners for more autonomy on the other hand. (see chapter 8).

In order to counter being reduced to machinelike deliverers of a curriculum, the thesis has argued that the teaching profession needs to develop an ethico-political standpoint alongside a democratic vision and practice for change to occur as a professional course of action

8.4 Reflections on Next Steps

A feature of this thesis was the inclusion of a critical realist approach in relation to exploring the Architectures of the Social. The advantage of utilising this method is that the findings explored both issues and practices that conflicted with and those that supported the democratic vision of the TS. Such an approach can therefore be usefully employed to guide next steps.

In particular, given that there are negotiations to open another six TSs in the near future, then a practical next step that should be taken is to ensure all the current and future stakeholders have an equal voice and are able to freely discuss the needs, strengths and limitations of the programme. Furthermore, a greater exposure to the concepts of the TS can be ensured through meetings, open seminars and other types of discussions. In particular, a committee should be created whose members have a clear vision of the ideas of democratic education. Their role would be to create a team to develop the TS programme with the intention to avoid the potential conflict between the hierarchical and democratic education ideologies.

In order to inform such a committee and team some suggested 'next steps' based on this study include;

- The vision and policies of education in relation to the area of studies such as the TS should be reviewed and revisited in order to explore and understand the consequences of a range of different interpretations of the policy documentation. The range of consequences can then be made available for (public) debate about educational futures.

- The relationships and communication between government departments should work collectively to identify and create a set of mechanisms, including world- class classroom practice from ethical and political views that goes well beyond performance on examinations in the TS and promulgate them widely.

- The capacity to ensure a more democratic engagement should be built. These would involve the development of organizational and system mechanisms to empower TS administrators to act as a democratic resource for staff rather than as machines for the control of staff.

- There should be the development of research based policy as a way of formulating democratic forms of organization and practice. For example, in the UK, Action Research and Participatory Action Research have developed as a way in which professionals, practitioners and people generally can research their own practice and develop their sense of empowerment in the classroom.

- As the TS was a response to a perceived political, economic and social need, research, training and evaluation should figure prominently in the future course of the TS development.

- The gap between the practitioners and the other stakeholders in concept and practice should be bridged, to utilize each other's skills, endeavour and technical know how. This may be done through continous consultation and collaboration to resolve the issues of the TS programmes.

Final Words

The research undertaken for this thesis has explored a complex range of issues concerning the TS that focus largely around the disconnection between the policies prescribing an ideal practice and the realities of their interpretation and action in practice in the TS. Although there has been a move towards increasing equality of opportunity as a modernizing step in education, this in itself is not sufficient for democracy. It could be argued that it is a necessary first step. However, if a more democratic future is valued as the 'next step', then there is a continued need to research the conditions under which it may be produced.

The implementation of the TS has a high level of support by the top management In the Teacher Education Division as well as in the TTI. The support came in terms of empowerment, resources as well as decision-making in making sure the TS is implemented. It is recognised that top management commitment is central to the effectiveness of change initiatives (Soltani *et al*., 2007). However, it is crucial that when the decision to implement the TS is made, the concept of the TS itself should be made clear. Research, training and evaluation are likely to figure prominently in the future course of the TS development. The gaps between the practitioners and the other stakeholders are to be bridged by utilizing each other's skills and technical know how. Contionous consultation and collaboration is also needed to resolve the issues of the TS programme as discussed in this exploration study.

In sum, the thesis explores "The Architectures of the Social" as an effective tool in terms of the conceptual domain, practical domain and material domain presented in narrative approach to represent the 'voices' of people involved in the implementation of the TS in TTI. Although this thesis is a modest exploration of the TS programme, the issues raised called for a certain kind of equality in distributing primary school education. The equal distribution, as argued in this thesis, requires a radical shift from the hierarchical management as a model of governance to a more democratic model of governance in primary school education in order to nurture more powerfully a better, more equal society.

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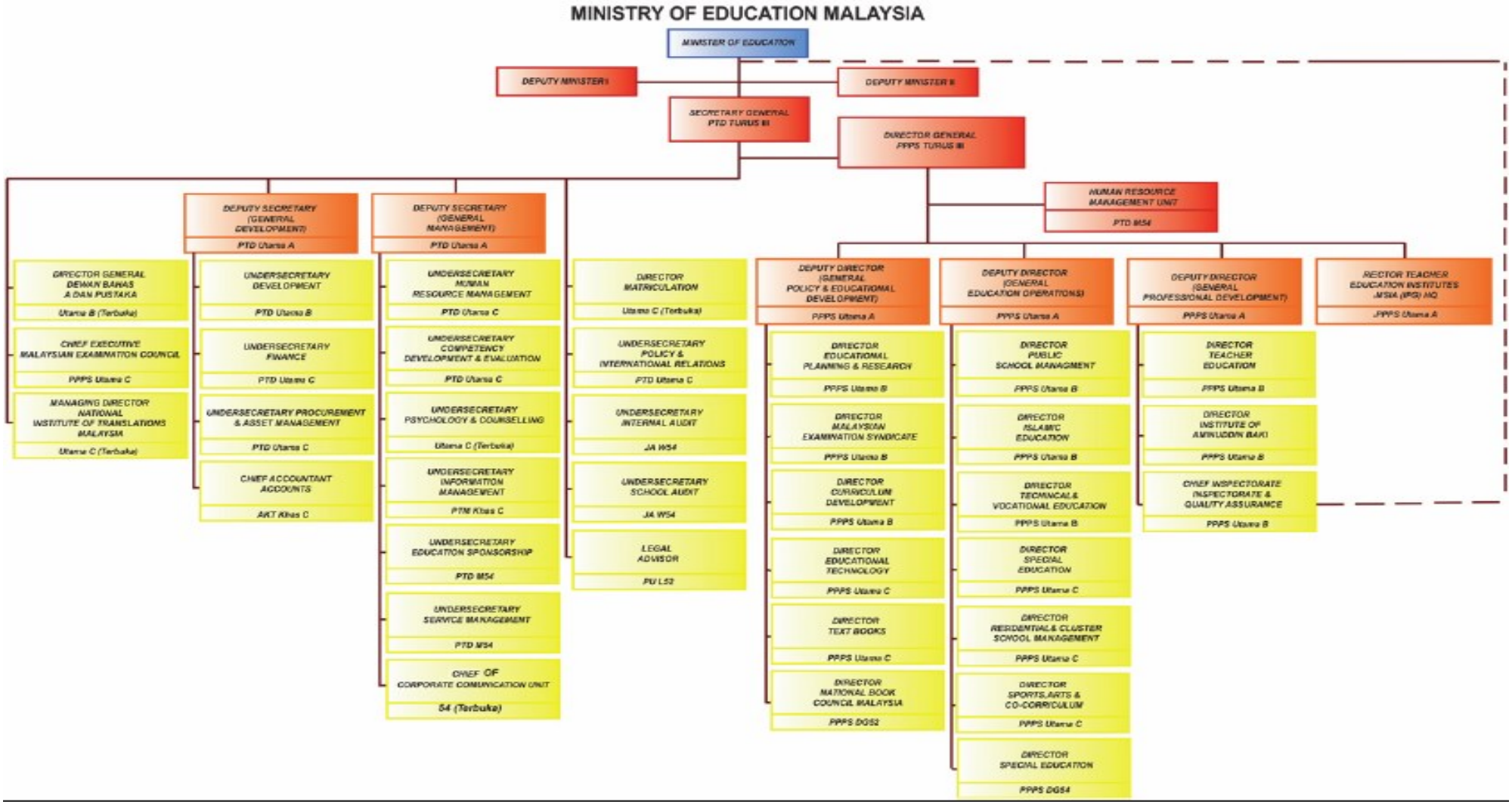
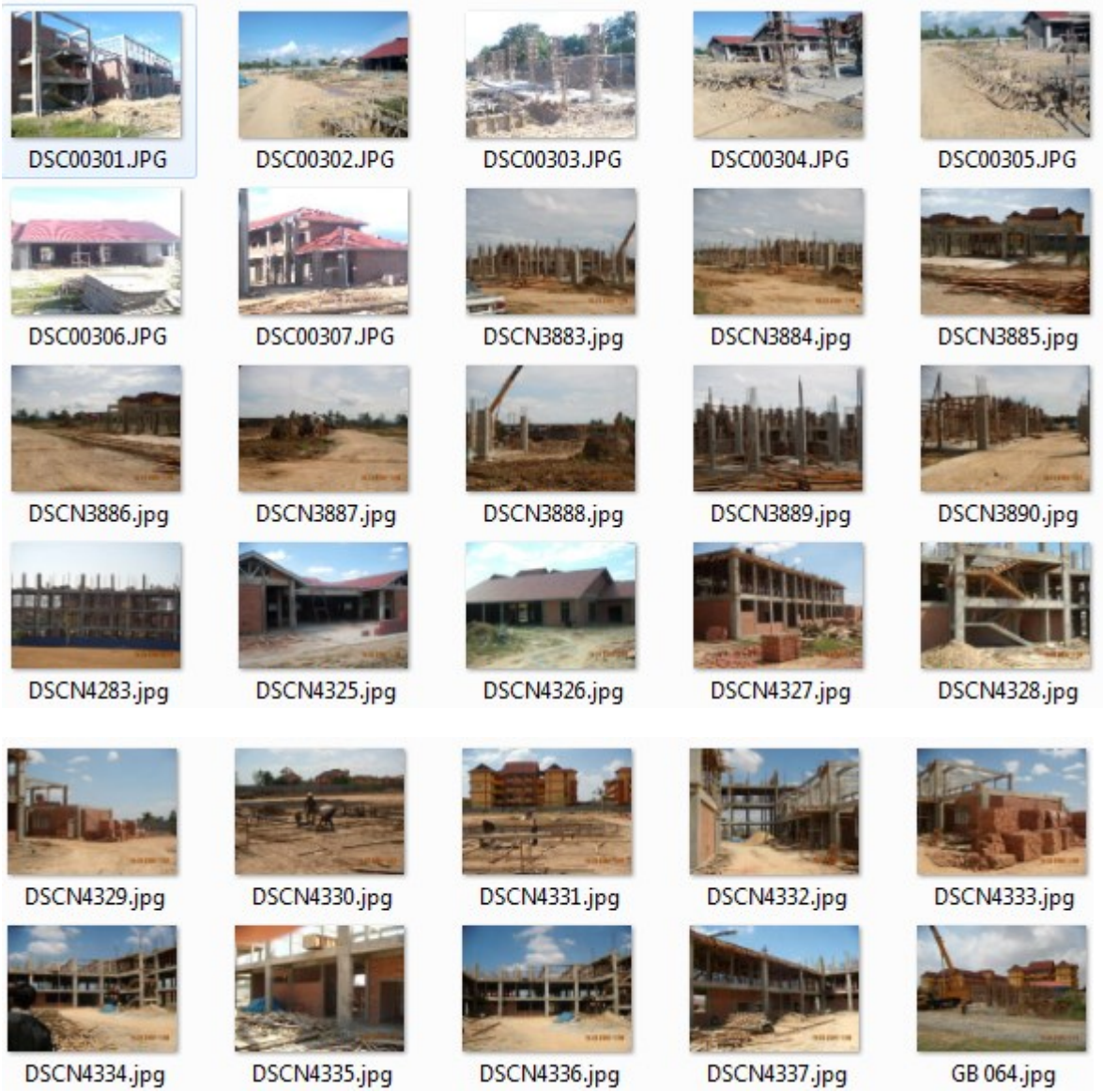
APPENDICES

Appendix 1.4 The MOE Top Management in Hierarchy



Appendix 4.2.1 (a) Photo **D**ocumentation of the TS **B**uildings**.**



Appendix 4.2.1 (b) Samples of Email Exchanges in Getting some Main Documents for This Study

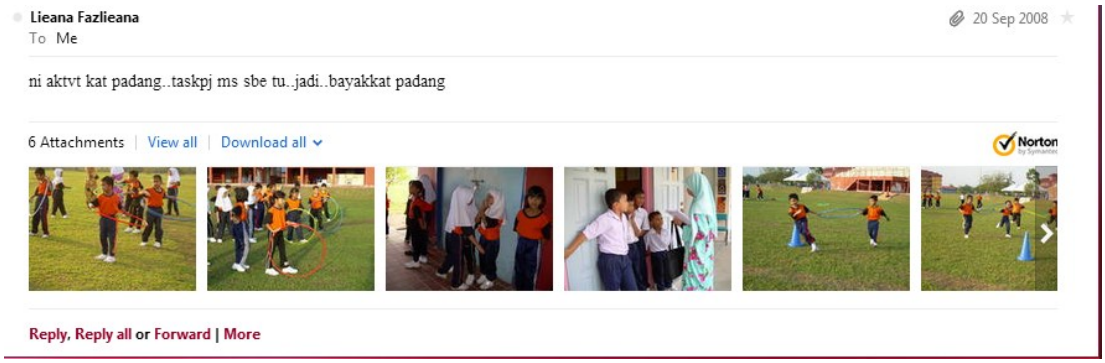
From: hamzah ihsan <hamzahihsan@hotmail.com>
To: Sabariah Morad <karipapa6090@yahoo.com.my>
Sent: Thursday, January 13, 2011 14:23:22
Subject: FW: Pelaksanaan 'Teaching School' di Maktab Perguruan Kuala Terengganu, Batu Rakit, Terengganu

---

Date: Thu, 6 Jan 2011 21:57:45 +0800
From: faridahyakob@yahoo.com.my
Subject: Fw: Pelaksanaan 'Teaching School' di Maktab Perguruan Kuala Terengganu, Batu Rakit, Terengganu
To: hamzahihsan@hotmail.com

Ini kertas kerja TS MPKT yang dulu untuk rujukan Dr Hamzah....

----- Forwarded Message ----
From: Dr. Hj. Mohd Kamal bin Mohd Ali <mkamal@ipgmkdri.edu.my>
To: faridahyakob@yahoo.com.my
Sent: Thursday, 6 January 2011 10:46:06
Subject: Pelaksanaan 'Teaching School' di Maktab Perguruan Kuala Terengganu, Batu Rakit, Terengganu



Appendix 4.3.3 (c) The Research Interview Guide Points

Ref. No.	Notes	Guides	Transcript
001	role	1 Can you tell me about your role as you see it?	
002	key aims	2. What do you hope to achieve as a teacher/ administrator/ officer? What are the key aims or purposes?	
003	probing about role	3. Can you give me an example of how you teach, say describe what happened in a particular lesson you gave recently	
004	work concept	4. What would help you do your job better? Can you give me examples?	
005	issues	5. What kinds of problem do you face in your work? What helps you solve those problems? Can you give me examples from your recent experience?	
006	material domain	6. What sort of resources would help you as a teacher?	
007	material domain	7. What sort of resources do the pupils/students need?	
008	conceptual domain	8. What do you think is the best way of teaching?	
009	material domain	9. What is needed in terms of resources, ways of teaching, ways of learning to create the best learning environment?	
010	practical domain	10. What do you think a teaching school has, if any, that helps to improve teaching and learning?	
011	assessment	11. How does assessment take place? Are you able to tailor learning to the needs of the individual? Can you give me examples of how this takes place?	
012	work experience	12. Describe a typical day at work... for example; take me through what happened yesterday, you know from when you arrived at school..... to when you left	
013	probing	picking up from the issues shared by the participants	