Developing Quality Teachers in Indonesian Public Schools

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Submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements of the degree of Doctor of Education

June, 2014

Melbourne Graduate School of Education
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Produced on archival quality paper
Abstract

The recruitment and development of teachers is important for student success and the Indonesian public education system has four recruitment pathways: Government Teachers (GTs), Ex-Assistant Teachers (EATs), Scholarship-Bond Teachers (SBTs) and Non-Permanent Teachers (NPTs). Very little is known about the impact these different pathways have on teachers or schools. This study gathered the perceptions of teachers and school and system leaders on: (1) how teacher recruitment pathways impact on teachers’ practice and development, (2) how these pathways impact on how schools induct and develop teachers, and (3) how the pathways impact on school improvement.

Employing a multiple-case design, this study explored one public school from each of the four different levels: primary, secondary, high, and vocational. Forty-nine teachers from the four different employment pathways participated in group interviews, and four principals, sixteen deputies or senior teachers, eight school supervisors, and the head of teacher and staff development division gave voice in semi-structured individual interviews.

The different employment pathways were all perceived to have deficiencies in terms of pre-service preparation. The GTs were by far the most highly regarded teachers in terms of skills, attitude, and potential, followed by EATs, SBTs, and NPTs. Schools play an important role in developing new teachers, but there was an absence of substantial school-based induction programs in all of the schools. Teachers commented that the lack of proper induction was a hindrance to their development as a quality teacher. The differences in pre-service training and support for teachers from the different pathways amplified as the National Examinations (NEs) proved to be a key determinant of teacher assignment within a school. Teachers from preferred pathways (GTs and to a lesser extent EATs and SBTs) were given preference in terms of teaching at the NEs year levels, and therefore, offered more professional support through professional learning programs than NPTs. The pattern was further manifested in the teachers’ segregated contribution to school improvement with pathways, subjects and proximity to the NEs being major determinants of teachers’ perceived contribution to school improvement efforts.

Key words: teachers, teacher employment, teacher placement, professional development, instructional supervision.
Declaration

This is to certify that:

i. the thesis comprises only my original work towards the degree of Doctor of Education except where indicated in the Preface,

ii. due acknowledgement has been made in the text to all other material used,

iii. the thesis is 55,000 of words as approved by the Research Higher Degrees Committee.

Melbourne, June 2014

Ashadi, Ashadi
Acknowledgements

I would like to thank first and foremost the (late) Prof. Jack Keating (†) for his trust and guidance during my early stage of the study. May he always rest in peace.

It is with immense gratitude that I acknowledge the help and advice of my supervisors, Dr. Suzanne Rice and Dr. David Gurr throughout my doctorate study.

I would like to extend a huge thank you to Mr. Munir Asa’ad, for letting me stay in his accommodation when I first moved to Melbourne and for his continued assistance and friendship.

This thesis is dedicated to my beloved family, my wife Kesi, my sons Rakyan, Ahsana and Ikra who have always stood by me and dealt with all of my absences from many family occasions with patience.

It would have remained a dream had it not been supported by the Directorate General of Higher Education (DIKTI) scholarship.

Finally, I wish to acknowledge Tim Flicker, Nick Jackson, Prucesia Silva, Veronica Christamia, Herida Panji, Taufiqurrohman, Bayu Sangka and Nenny Isharyanti for without their support, I would never have been able to complete this thesis.
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List of Abbreviations

BAPPEDA: Regional Planning and Development Authority
BOS: School Operational Funds
DAU: General Allocation Funds
EAT: Ex-assistant teacher
GT: Government teacher
LPMP: Education Quality Assurance Body
MGMP: Subject Teacher Forum
MKKS: Principal Working Forum
MoEC: Ministry of Education and Culture
MoRA: Ministry of Religious Affairs
NCATE: National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education
NE: National Examination
NPT: Non-permanent teacher
OECD: Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PIGP: Novice Teachers Induction Program
PKG: Strengthening the Work of Teachers
PSG: Dual System of Education
SBM: School-based management
SBT: Scholarship-bond teacher
1. Rationale

Under the current perspective on education development, the quality of a public education system is a major contributor to the economic and social success of a society. School success in Pearson’s *The Learning Curve* report (2012), for example, is found to contribute to a variety of socio-economic variables such as gross domestic product (GDP) per capita, labour productivity, employment, and the crime rate, as well as through research output. So success in education contributes significantly to the community. Different factors contribute to a student’s academic success, including individual characteristics and family socio-economic background. But studies on teachers’ impact on students’ performance indicate that, of all in-school factors influencing student achievement, teachers have the greatest impact (RAND, 2012). Therefore, it is not surprising that parents and community members always want the best possible teachers in every classroom for the sake of their children’s education and future. Research has also confirmed that the most important factor contributing to a student’s achievement in school is the quality of teaching (Darling-Hammond, 1997). Thus, it is necessary for any education system to ensure that effective teachers are available in classrooms to ensure school success and to provide them with additional learning to attain the best possible teaching.

In relation to the provision of quality education, there are two main key policy tools proposed by wide-reaching research (McKinsey report, 2007; 2010; The Learning Curve, 2012): the first is ensuring quality teacher candidates are recruited into the profession; and the second is developing them to become effective professionals. These two points represent the major focuses of the current study, which aims to facilitate an initial understanding the impact of teacher pathways on the quality of instruction in Indonesian public schools.
Teacher recruitment is the gateway to the profession, and teacher professional development constitutes the path to school improvement.

To improve the instructional quality of schooling, an adequate supply of competent individuals who are able and willing to teach in public schools is required (Chen, 2009). Information on the supply and demand of teachers in Indonesia is available but, according to the World Bank (2010), overall management of teacher requires an effective quality assurance system that has clear functions for each stakeholder. Hence, as an initial step, Guarino, Santibañez, and Daley (2006) emphasise that sufficient attention is given to reliable empirical research to understand the advantages and flaws of different policies to recruit teachers. Such research can help policy makers to review policies in the light of emergent findings to ensure the best possible supply of entrants into teaching.

After recruitment, professional development is believed to be one of the most effective strategies schools and school districts have to improve quality. Mizell and Forward (2010) define professional development as the approach schools and school districts employ to ensure that educators continue to strengthen their practice throughout their career. Thus, there is a strong relationship between teachers’ practice and the schools’ efforts to develop their teachers. Effective professional development engages teachers and focuses on how to improve student learning. Hence, Guskey (2002) argued that any implementation of professional development needs to be combined with evidence of improved student learning so that teachers can reflect on what they have learned and practised in the classrooms. To improve their practice, teachers require different supports from the school administrators and other stakeholders. Within this perspective, this study explores how Indonesian public schools have worked to develop their teachers in view of the different pathways to teaching.

2. Research Context

Indonesian primary and secondary education covers a large-scale system in terms of human resource management. The World Bank (2010) reports
approximately 3.3 million teachers work in schools throughout Indonesia with 81% of them being under The Ministry of Education and Culture (MoEC), while the rest work in non-government schools under The Ministry of Religious Affairs (MoRA). The current study explores the schools and stakeholders under the MoEC as this is the major public education provider in which different teacher pathways exist. Around 95% of primary and 79% of secondary teachers are civil servants employed by MoEC, the balance being contract or honorary teachers employed directly by the school. Approximately 270,000 contract and assistant teachers had been promoted to become civil servants by the end of 2007. The sheer number of MoEC education staff suggests that their quality is likely to have a great impact on the overall outcomes of the system.

As the policies for schools issued by the Indonesian government have been heavily based on macro educational analysis (Tilaar, 1999), very little qualitative research based on the experience of teachers and school leaders has been conducted in the Indonesian education context (Bjork, 2003; Tilaar, 1999). A significant effort involving the education stakeholders is required to address the knowledge gap for a more comprehensive understanding based on the different contexts of public schools. This study pioneers an attempt to accommodate the differences among schools while at the same time aims to portray the larger phenomena of teacher pathways and development in public schools in Indonesia.

On the basis of occupational status, Basikin (2007) captured three different teacher types in the Indonesian context, namely government teachers, private teachers, and part-time teachers. In contrast to the aforementioned study, the current research focuses on the impact of different teacher recruitment pathways. With regard to their recruitment processes, teachers in Indonesian public schools enter the profession through four different pathways. Some teachers enter the profession after serving as contract and assistant teachers (EATs); others come into teaching from scholarship bonds (SBTs), while most of them complete teacher training and pass a generic government pen and paper test to become government teachers (GTs). In addition, a smaller number teach as non-permanent staff in contract-based employment in schools (NPTs). These different pathways
potentially have different impacts on teachers’ practices, development, and eventually on the school improvement when their quality is barely known.

3. Research Problems

The literature has pointed to two important issues to consider in attempts to improve education. Given the impact of teachers on students’ achievement, the recruitment and development of teachers in the Indonesian public school context need to be examined as the foundation of knowledge for improving schools. Unfortunately, very little research has addressed these two issues in the Indonesian public school context. In fact, the large numbers of those teaching in the Indonesian education system suggests a strong need for further understanding of the nature of teacher quality and the impact of pathways on development in schools. This study, therefore, focuses on the impact of recruitment on teacher development in the efforts to improve elementary and secondary public schooling quality under MoEC.

This study seeks to close the knowledge gap in teacher recruitment and development at the school level in Indonesia and explore the larger phenomenon of quality improvement in Indonesian public schools. Improving the performance of teachers by assessing what they need to become better teachers, according to Broekman (2013, p. 31), will only be effective if teachers have access to several sources and facilities once their weaknesses are identified. Using the lens of the relevant stakeholders’ perceptions, first, this study interrogates the perceived impacts of different teacher pathways on teachers’ practice and development. Knowledge about perceived teacher practice is important as a basis for understanding how teachers develop further in the profession and how the school inducts and develops its teachers.

The first interrogation is followed then by examining the perceived efforts of how schools induct and develop teachers from the four different pathways. DuFour (2004, p.11) claims that the most important element in the school improvement is the commitment and persistence of the educators in ensuring students’ learning, involving collaboration between teachers, removing barriers to
excellence and focusing on results. Finally, it is necessary to address the stakeholders’ perceptions of how the different teacher pathways impact on holistic school improvement (Masters, 2012), particularly in the context of the current accountability movement including high-stakes testing. Variation of perceptions among different groups of school stakeholders in the three questions above becomes the next issue to be addressed. So, the key research questions for the study are:

1. How do teacher recruitment pathways in Indonesia impact on teachers’ practice and development?
2. How do these pathways impact on how the schools induct and develop teachers? And
3. How do the pathways impact on schools efforts to improve?

4. Research Objectives

In order to understand these knowledge gaps, this study utilises relevant school stakeholders’ (principals, leaders, and teachers from different pathways) perceptions because they cope with the daily issues of public schooling in general and teacher matters in particular. Within this perception, Goodson (1991) called for reconceptualising research in an attempt to ensure that the teacher's voice is heard, in strong and eloquent ways. In this way, the uniqueness of the teacher's voice and the special contribution it can make to policy and research can be asserted (Hargreaves, 1996). Taking that into consideration, the study does not merely present stakeholders’ voices, but it also includes teacher voices, critically and contextually. This study attempts to discover the extent to which teacher pathways impact on teachers’ practice, their development, and eventually school improvement.

As it allows ideas to be generated through emergent concepts contextually, there is potential for original and creative thoughts from the participants. This study is, therefore, also generative research (Ritchie, 2003, p. 30) which is concerned with producing new ideas as a contribution to the development of social theory in teacher recruitment and development for school quality
improvement. With these things in mind, this study aims to: (1) understand teacher perceived instructional practice as a result of different pathways in the participating public schools; (2) establish an explanatory proposition about how public schools induct and develop teachers from different pathways under limited authority; (3) generate new solutions to persistent problems in recruiting and developing quality teachers; (4) identify strategies to overcome problems in recruiting and developing public school teachers; and (5) determine actions required to make teacher recruitment, professional development programs, policies, and activities more effective in Indonesia and elsewhere.

5. Thesis Structure

To achieve the above objectives, this thesis is set in chapters and sections that elaborate why and how the research was carried out, what findings emerged from the data and what conclusions can be drawn as well as implications for theory, policy, and practice. The order of the chapters and sections reflects the logic of academic research, stages of the research, and its writing process. The order aims to support readers in understanding the reason, actions, and decisions made throughout the research process.

The first chapter, The Introduction, provides the reader with the main components of the study and a statement of the topic or problem under investigation. Chapter Two reviews the relevant literature including its historical and theoretical overview to locate the pertinent knowledge gaps. A methodology chapter follows to discuss the theoretical framework that informs both the choice of methods and the approach to interpreting the data, and then to link all of these clearly to the research questions. The findings of the study in each case are detailed in chapter four that constructs the stories found in the data. These findings are then synthesized across the cases to understand the larger phenomena in a separate chapter. Chapter six discusses the findings by making connections of the previous synthesis with the existing theory and research and interpretations of the results. The final chapter summarises the conclusive points of the discussion, identifies the theoretical, methodological, and practical implications, recognises
the limitations, and opens up new questions that can be addressed in future research.
This chapter reviews the existing literature relevant to the current research and scaffolds the importance of conducting this study in the Indonesian public education context. An array of research from different backgrounds, scientific traditions, and orientations is discussed and examined to best locate the current study among other relevant studies. The first few subsections attempt to examine teacher quality identification by reviewing the links between teacher effectiveness, professional development, and leadership. The review then moves to the specific context of Indonesian public education which includes teacher development and trajectories, implementation of school-based management, and teachers’ attitudes towards professional learning. All these concepts need to be defined with the guidance of existing theories and literature in order to achieve the research objectives.

Social research is believed to have most value when theoretical insights and social investigation are mutually functioning. When these two elements work together, the collection of evidence can be informed by theory and interpreted in the light of it (Bulmer, 1982, p. 152). Furthermore, an understanding of theory is also required to provide context to and more fully interpret the evidence generated from a certain context. For that reason, a range of theories appears in this study relevant to the topic despite its generative nature. They serve both to give perspective on a particular issue and comprehensively frame the findings of the study. In this chapter, it is the first function that is emphasized and the latter function serves in harmonizing the analysis. To serve that function, an analytical framework summarizing relevant theories and perspectives in the study is presented at the end of this chapter.

A. Teacher Quality Identification

Quality teaching and the recruitment of well-prepared teachers is seen as a key education priority (Darling-Hammond, 2000) because teacher quality matters in terms of student learning (Rice, 2010). Sanders and Rivers (1996) calculate that
students taught by the most effective teachers (highest quintile) have learning gains four times greater than students of the least effective teachers (lowest quintile) in aggregate. Further, Rockoff (2004) estimates that differences in teacher effectiveness account for up to 23 per cent of the variation in student test score performance while Marzano (2003) found that the impact of decisions made by teachers is greater than that of decisions made at the school level. These findings show the importance of having effective teachers to work with students in schools.

Given the importance of teachers to student learning, recruiting and developing high quality beginning teachers should become the main priority for schools and systems. However, there are concerns that this is proving difficult. The problem, according to Ingersoll (1998), is not in the limited availability of candidates, but more in the quality and process of the selection. Teacher quality in Indonesia reflects the consequence of implementing a traditional ascriptive and generic recruitment system (Azriansyah, 2006), which according to Hobby et al. (2004) is unlikely to yield the best mix of potentially effective candidates. In fact, wide scale studies conducted by Watt and Richardson (2007), Barber and Mourshed (2007), and Chen (2009) point to the same suggestion, that is, the need to identify effective candidates early through appropriate recruitment and then to support their development. The identification of teacher candidates early in their careers through a reliable recruitment system is the first step in providing quality teaching in schools.

A.1. Teacher Recruitment as a Means of Identification

Studies in teacher recruitment have largely focused on the supply, demand, attrition, and retention of teachers in the profession. For instance, Turner (1991) and Chen (2009) explored how teacher supply and demand are related, while Müller, Alliata, and Benninghoff (2009) investigated how to attract candidates into the profession, Goldhaber, Destler, and Player (2010) explored the effect of remuneration on teacher entry, and lastly Watt and Richardson (2007) outlined a model of motivational factors that draw people into the profession. These studies
provide a significant comparative methodological and analytical lens to explore the issue. Yet, how recruitment and development occurs in public schools and how the relevant parties involved in a specific educational context make sense of the processes has not been fully addressed.

Young (2008) points to two operational elements of teacher recruitment, namely the identification of potential candidates and motivating them to seek employment in schools. If identification and attraction of candidates is conducted well, this can help minimise the problems of wrong selection and misplacement in the following stages of induction, development, and promotion. Watt and Richardson (2008, p. 428) emphasise the importance of identifying potentially committed teachers at an early stage because they may have different levels of engagement and planned career trajectories. Investigating the world’s best performing school systems, the McKinsey report (2007) notes the importance of identifying the potentially most effective candidates at an early stage because such candidates, according to Hobby, et al. (2004), have certain characteristics which then positively impact on their performance at work. Furthermore, Jackson and Bruegmann (2009) argue that these characteristics of effective teachers influence the drive for quality within a school.

The great majority of research on effective teachers’ impact in education and their recruitment has largely been conducted in developed countries while much less research has been undertaken in developing countries. Reviewing empirical research in teacher recruitment in the United States, Guarino et al. (2006) found differences in gender proportion, academic ability, altruistic desire, salary, commitment, and attrition, as well as issues of mentoring, support, and induction programs in new teacher management. Hirsch’s (2001) report identified similar challenges in teacher recruitment, namely: -a mismatch of teacher supply and demand, an abundance of out-of-field teachers; and low salaries or poor incentives. These findings may not apply entirely to the current teacher recruitment conditions in Indonesia due to differences in the socio-cultural background. Yet, they can be significant comparative points for locating this study among the existing research in the area of teacher recruitment.
Largely carried out through bureaucratic means, teacher recruitment in Indonesia has generally implemented a traditional and generic system with a pen-and-paper test (Azriansyah, 2006). Chen (2009) highlights the necessity of getting the right people in the profession and confirms the urgency of attaining a quality and committed teaching force as recommended by Watt and Richardson (2008) and Barber and Moursheed (2007). Economically, improving recruitment is also considered less expensive than developing in-service teachers in the profession (Hanushek, 2009). The need for more research in teacher recruitment and development to improve teacher quality has been a major suggestion in the aforementioned educational research.

Because there is very little teacher recruitment research in an Indonesian schooling context, this study attempts to lead the way in researching teacher recruitment and its function as a means of teacher quality identification as well as its impact on teacher development in Indonesian public schools. As an initial step, asking those who are dealing with the teachers’ work on a daily basis as well as teachers who come through different pathways is an important means of identifying how well the system is working with regards to teacher quality.

A.2. Effective Teacher Practice

Different stakeholders in schools find it difficult to reach an agreement in defining quality precisely from their own stance. Quality is not a fixed idea and it means different things to different people. For example, while discussing the quality of a school, students may focus on the facilities available and capacity of the school to improve their future employment prospects. Teachers may pay attention to the teaching-learning process they experience personally. School leaders may give weight to the school’s academic and non-academic achievements. Parents may think about what their children can achieve. Each of these parties has a distinct approach to defining quality so that it is difficult to talk about quality as a single concept. Any definition of quality must be distinguished in terms of the context in which it is applied. Therefore, it is equally important to consider that the perspective of a group of stakeholders may be differently
perceived by another party in the same context. Understanding such differences and gaps will help explain why and how these relevant parties define and justify effective practices in the teaching profession.

As public schooling involves a large number of interests and stakeholders, the public has an interest in knowing how effective the provision of education is and how it can be measured. A lack of evidence about teacher effectiveness will create the Widget Effect (Weisberg et al., 2009) in which school districts tend to assume classroom effectiveness is the same from teacher to teacher. As a result, most education policy settings are mainly dominated by indifference toward teaching quality; mediocre or below average teachers are treated in the same way as the effective ones (Weisberg et al., 2009). Research has adopted the term effectiveness as a proxy of quality to examine schooling inputs, processes, and outcomes for students, teacher attributes, and the wider community (Marzano, 2003; Rice, 2010; Rockoff, 2004). However, Kyriakides et al. (2002) note that the limited conception of teaching and disconnection from professional development make it difficult to conceptualize problems of teacher effectiveness in the research literature. In fact teachers’ effects on students’ experiences of schooling, including their attitudes, behaviours, and achievement outcomes have profound implications (Rowe, 2002), therefore researchers and policy makers also agree that teacher quality is a central policy issue in education reform.

Since there has been no agreement on how to define and measure teacher quality in education, research usually employs a range of proxies to measure teacher quality. Murnane and Steele (2007) define effective teachers as those who can raise the achievement levels of their students (as measured on standardised tests), while Anderson (1991) states that an effective teacher consistently achieves goals which focus on the learning of their students. The definitions denote two different lenses for examining teacher effectiveness: students’ achievement and teacher characteristics. Focusing on students’ achievement only (i.e. by standardised tests) is often regarded as narrowing the meaning of education and insufficient to encompass the complexities of both teachers’ mental lives and their practices in classrooms.
Hobby et al. (2004) outline professional characteristics that can drive performance and be measured to form the basis of recruitment and development decisions. However the applicability of these characteristics to educational settings outside developed countries is unclear. Medley and Shannon (1994) argue it is difficult to determine exactly which teacher characteristics contribute to desired student outcomes. Therefore, most teacher effectiveness evaluations rely on their instructional competencies and their students’ performance in a standardized test.

With the limitations of the process-product approach and data as a measure of teacher effectiveness, more contextualized research is necessary to know what teachers and school leaders are trying to achieve and how they do it. Since school leaders are pivotal in improving school outcomes, it is crucial to understand and to give voice to their concerns and to contextualize and make sense of their claims and perspectives on what constitutes sound teaching practices (Larkin, Watts, & Clifton, 2006). According to Smith (2004), such a voice allows research, such as this study, to produce a theoretical framework which may go beyond the participants’ own terminology and conception.

By providing meaningful information about teacher instructional effectiveness, schools are able to answer critical questions or make strategic decisions about their teaching staff, including their professional development. In addition, highly effective teachers can be expected to influence colleagues positively in terms of skills and knowledge. Their effects on peers in education, known as spill-over, has received major attention with regard to students particularly after Jackson and Bruegmann’s (2009) attempt to quantify peer effects between teachers. The existence of such teachers who can effectively teach students and influence colleagues in school is also well recognised in the notion of teacher leadership.
A.3. Teacher Leadership, the Essence of Development

Marzano, Waters, and McNulty (2005) argue that leadership has been closely related to the effective performance of various organizations throughout the centuries. Leadership is regarded as an essential element in the successful operation of many aspects of a school. Long been viewed as a key factor in organisational effectiveness, attention to educational leadership has mounted over recent decades (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2001). This has been driven by issues related to the education policy and reform, such as the implementation of school based management during periods of decentralization. Such practices mean more influence for the school and, therefore, a greater role for the school managers, as powers and responsibilities have been devolved from local or national levels to the schools.

The extension of teacher roles in school improvement together with the principals leads to a greater interest in teacher leadership as a key factor in school effectiveness and success. The focus of school leadership shifts from a single individual (the principal) to a team of individuals. The principal distributes power, authority, and roles to teachers to grow an effective schooling community and develop greater ‘collective efficacy’ (Marzano, et al., 2005, p. 101). This has inevitably led to a growth in the importance of teachers and their additional leadership roles in schools.

An important study by Hargreaves (2006) concludes that teacher leadership improves student outcomes in underprivileged schools. In line with this finding, the McKinsey report (2007) also notes school reforms seldom succeed without the existence of effective leadership both at the level of the system and at the level of the individual schools. These findings demonstrate the importance of teacher leadership in search for quality education because of the spill-over effects they can have on students, colleagues, schools, and their professional environment. It also provides an opportunity to assume that effective teachers are those having leadership qualities in school communities.

Despite a growing demand for teacher leadership, often teachers are left to construct their own description of what it means to them and how it is applied in
their school (Dawson, 2011). Notions of teacher leadership have been discussed and researched for more than a decade. Katzenmeyer and Moller (2001, p.10) define it as those who “lead within and beyond the classroom, identify with and contribute to a community of teacher learners and leaders, and influence others towards improved educational practice.” Beachum and Oentith (2004) argue that teacher leadership occurs when teachers take more responsibility for decision-making and activities outside of their classrooms assisting in changes that influence decisions, processes, and individuals in schools. Teacher leaders are, therefore, those who have the willingness to assist principals to build the school community towards positive and productive changes with or without formal roles. Both definitions focus on the wider roles teachers can play as leaders in improving school quality.

Depending on the context, the roles and activities of individual teacher leaders may vary significantly between individuals even within the one school. What may be seen as normal teacher leader behaviour by one individual may be seen as inappropriate by another either in the same or different contexts. Such context-embedded concepts of teacher leadership give the school an important role in teacher professional development which becomes both a cause and an outcome of teacher leadership (Poekert, 2012). When effectively carried out, professional development serves as the trigger for improved teacher practice and the growth of teachers’ leadership skills in influencing and improving the practice of their colleagues.

In order to attain effective school leadership, principals need to distribute a larger proportion of leadership to teachers (Leithwood, Seashore-Louis, & Anderson, 2004). In a case study of a public school, Lazenby (2010) finds that teacher leadership can only be achieved through consciously creating and coordinating the internal conditions in which distributed leadership can function. Without such conscious creation of opportunities for teacher leadership, Cochran-Smith (2004) worries that teachers who wish to foster school improvement will be forced into educational management roles. Teachers have distinct needs as they move along their career path from novice to experienced teachers (Boyle,
Lamprianou, & Boyle, 2005), and hence it is necessary to see how schools distribute leadership and create opportunities for teachers at different career stages.

Muijs and Harris (2006) argue that the distribution of leadership in the form of role sharing is a mechanism for school improvement. In order to retain effective teachers in the classroom while at the same time allowing them to share their instructional skills and subject-related expertise with colleagues in and across schools, such a mechanism is required. For these reasons, it is not surprising experts like Poekert (2012) and Rhodes et al. (2004) claim that the notion of teacher leadership has a strong relationship with that of teacher development. The comparable ideas lie in the traits, capacities, practices, and outcomes of both concepts in improving teacher and schooling quality.

A.4. The Changing Concept of Teacher Development

The current view of teacher professional development as professional learning has been adopted as a new model and paradigm in the profession. The shift from behavioural to cognitive to contextual in the conception of cognition, learning, and teaching have unavoidably triggered comparable shifts in ideas about teacher learning and development. This shift has been influenced by epistemological shifts in how different intellectual traditions have come to conceptualize human learning (Johnson, 2009). It has also been documented academically from behaviourist, to cognitive, to contextual, social, and shared views of human cognition (Putnam & Borko, 2000). The current view has emphasized the importance of teacher learning that is situative, social, and constructive. Development as a teacher is, therefore, not the clear-cut use of skills or knowledge transfer, but the constant progress from external, social, professional activities to internal reflection by individual teachers, which results in a change of identity and practice. In this sense, teachers’ reflection on their decisions, actions and changes becomes an important tool to understand their aspirations to develop in the profession.
A.4.1 The Impact of Constructivism

The new paradigm of teacher development is rooted in constructivism in which teachers are actively engaged and learning through observation, inquiry, and reflection as previously proposed by Schön (1983). He further theorizes that teachers as practitioners do not only apply theories, but they construct them from their practices, through a dynamic conversation with the materials which constitute their field of action (Schön, 1990). In this sense, professional development can be seen as a process of individual growth because teacher’s knowledge is perceived as construction of individual’s subjective experience. It brings two main implications on the concept of knowing and learning: one is that knowledge cannot be simply transferred from experts to readers, mentors to teachers, or teacher educators to student teachers. The other is the notion that reality is what the different persons involved in the situation perceive and construct subjectively. With these implications, Putnam and Borko (2000) propose the role of teachers as critical interpreters of reform concepts and school agendas rather than passive followers of policies. It is parallel with the current demand for teachers’ reflective action in the profession.

Teacher development, therefore, involves complexities, various aspects and multi-dimensions of the profession, or in a Deweyan sense, it becomes a constant open-ended process of teacher learning from different encounters. A relevant definition of teacher professional development under this paradigm is from Kelchterman (1999, p.183): “a lifelong learning and developmental process resulting from the interactions between teachers and their professional environment.” The significance of environment rather than inner structure is also found in Savickas’s (2005) concept of teacher development. The most intimate environment for teachers in their professional life must be their respective schools with their management staff, colleagues, and students. Schools, therefore, best serve as professional contexts for teachers to develop because of the encounters and dynamics affected by internal and external relations. For schools to produce more significant student learning outcomes, according to Feiman-Nemser (2001), more powerful learning opportunities that are based in a notion of learning to
teach as a constant efforts and designed around a range of teacher learning should be provided to teachers. The following figure describes a model of teacher development in attempt to create changes at different stages.

![Diagram of Teacher Development]

**Figure 1.** Guskey’s model of teacher development (2002, p. 383)

Teacher development in the constructivist perspective emphasizes the importance of specific context or environment where teachers work, collaborate, and learn. Different from the traditional forms of development, the current view of teacher development relate closely to classroom and school experiences (Abdal-Haqq, 1996). The new wave of professional development demands close involvement and collaboration of school leaders, staff, and teachers who handle the day-to-day learning activities. Hence, it is relevant to seek what the schools do to induct and develop teachers with respect to the different pathways and their impact on teachers’ practice.

**A.4.2. The Formation of Organisational Learning and Sense-making**

Forms of collaborative training, mentoring, and networking activities may help teacher learning and improve the students’ classroom experience and increase achievement (Rhodes & Houghton-Hill, 2000). School as a learning institution (for all of its stakeholders) have gained a central function and its leaders and teachers have significant roles to play in school improvement. In Guskey’s (1995) terminology, these leaders’ and teachers’ active learning and collaboration will bring about productive change, leading to organizational learning. It is the inner creative capacity of schools to adjust to the dynamics of educational change (Sleegers & Leithwood, 2010, p. 558). Sleegers & Leithwood
add that research often describes this conception of collective learning in school cultures as a professional learning community which has three strong principles: a professionally oriented culture, a learning focus, and appreciation of teachers’ inquiry and association.

Despite the different indicators and variables to describe and define the learning community, the essential idea of school organisational learning is to help form teachers’ attitudes towards new pedagogies and curricula. The key implication for schools that wish to create learning organisation is that they must provide a range of targeted opportunities for teachers to learn and participate in the organizational learning. Such a view inevitably places schools in a significant role as learning opportunity providers for teachers in this particular study. Thus, knowing how schools make sense of their opportunities, the barriers they encounter and the efforts they make to develop teachers is essential in understanding how to improve schools more broadly.

Sense-making is the process through which individuals select, interpret, assign meaning to, and act on stimulation they perceive from their environment (Weick, 1995). Research has taken into account how organizational theories such as sense-making can help us to better understand teacher learning in schools. The theory highlights the interpretive, social, and on-going nature of constructing understanding, directing away from a notion of learning as simple, properly designated activities. On the contrary, teachers might engage in sense-making any time for instance when they encounter difficulty in understanding a policy instruction or have classroom teaching experiences they find bewildering. Moreover, the interpretations teachers draw from these matters is, to a certain extent, related to their identity, including their knowledge, beliefs, and current practices. Thus, employing a sense-making lens to the study of teacher learning facilitates the study to the conception of why, what, how, when, and where teachers learn for improvement in the profession.

The process of learning from experiences takes time and allows teachers to ponder what they have encountered in their professional experiences. They have impressions, judgments, and interpretations of the particular experiences they
have lived because teachers’ knowledge is mostly formed through narrative accounts of experience in order to construct a shared understanding of their work (Johnson, 2009). Doyle (1997) argues that narratives can locate and link facts to one another and that the real meaning of truth lies in how phenomena are connected and interpreted by the participants. Narrative also enables the unheard, unseen, and undocumented – the ordinary, marginalized, and silenced to give voice (Riessman, 2008). Within this set of assumptions, the exploration of teacher pathways, development, and attitudes can be obtained through rigorously analysing the participants’ stories and school documents which leads to revealing how public schools identify and develop their teachers.

**A.4.3. School based Professional Development**

Unlike the traditional view of schools as a learning organisation, schools are now increasingly approached as professional learning communities or organisational learning (Argyris & Schön, 1996). Organisational learning inherently emerges as a part of the participation of the individual teachers and school leaders in the communities of practice (Johnson, 2009). In these communities, learning and work happen together and the former turns out to be a part of participation in the social process of the latter. This view places the importance of a teacher’s active engagement in his/her respective school sense-making to improve both the process and outcome of instructions.

Assuming that knowing and understanding in teaching comes from active participation in social and professional practices of learning and teaching in specific classroom and school situations, this perspective, according to Johnson (2009), highlights the role of social and cultural factors. It places schools as educational organisations in a pivotal position for change and innovation. In order to do that, professional development that supports creation of a collective vision for the school as well as integrating effective practices is necessarily significant. Relevant to that, this study engages appropriate school stakeholders to share their perceptions and experiences on the studies’ issues.
According to Cummings and Worley (2008) organisational innovation is critically related to the learning organization’s socio-cultural aspects from the perspective of organizational theory. These socio-cultural dimensions push for a continuous organisational learning process that is a collective and collaborative learning process for dynamic and creative decision-making to respond to changes in both internal and external environment of the organization (Argyris & Schön, 1996; Johnson, 2009). Such a learning process eventually promotes collaborative creative practices among the group members, in this case school stakeholders. As a result, it becomes a critical component for innovative organisational knowledge construction and the foundation of organizational change. A supportive learning organisation facilitates its members’ continuous and mutual learning process by providing deliberate leadership and cooperation in an organised learning culture.

As teachers work in schools, they rely on narrative accounts of experience to construct a shared understanding of their work. Little (2007, p. 220) argues that teachers, “interpret and reinterpret situations, identify and name problems, resolve or contain ambiguity and uncertainty, aid or justify decisions, educate novices or newcomers, and solidify social bonds.” Thus, it is important for schools to have a culture of searching for knowledge of internal and external professional change through networks and inquiry. An important aspect in creating such culture is the existence of supportive leadership in schools. From this interconnection, we can examine how close the notion of teacher development and teacher leadership is in search of quality improvement. Both demand the need for role distribution so that authority can be shared among school members with specific qualities. Such distribution may bring about the creation of opportunities among school members which eventually lead to innovation and change.

**B. Teacher Development in Indonesia**

There are two competing views of change that exist in the literature about school improvement and educational change. The first uses insiders’ lenses and focuses on how school capacity transforms the organization into a caring environment to facilitate teacher learning and change. The second view deals with
the implementation of externally designed reform agendas into schools. This study picks the first lens to see how public schools build their own capacity in developing teachers for educational improvement. As suggested by Sleegers and Leithwood (2010), future research should work to understand key conditions in schools and their selected change strategies to add empirical evidence about how schools improve their effectiveness. This sub-section examines how the second view of teacher development has been far more prevalent that the first perspective in Indonesian education contexts, and then presents why the first view is selected.

Nielsen (1998) found exceptional levels of commitment to and investment in teacher development activities by educational authorities in Indonesia. Actions have included elevating school teacher education to the level of higher education, providing re-certification opportunities for employed teachers, organizing teacher working groups for professional support, and providing a career ladder through a credit system towards promotion. However, Nielsen (1998) revealed that more teacher education and professional development did not necessarily lead to better teacher performance. He further found excessive political control based on the concern for national security and a specific national ideology and a reliance on external resources, all of which are inconsistent with quality improvement.

In conjunction with the national education policy, Tilaar (1999) has noted that the policies for schools issued by the Indonesian government have been heavily based on macro educational analysis. Very little qualitative research based on the experience of teachers and school leaders has been conducted in an Indonesian context (Bjork, 2003; Tilaar, 1999), nor are there mechanisms for differentiating between schools. As a result, all schools have received generic treatment and the diverse needs of schools according to their contexts have not been addressed.

The fall of Soeharto’s government in 1998 marked the shift towards democratisation in Indonesia. Through Act No. 22/1999 of Regional Autonomy, a major decentralisation of the country’s policies and management has started followed by the enactment of Local Governance Act No. 32/2004. These acts created a greater autonomy for regencies and municipalities in Indonesia with
political and fiscal shifts of power from central to local governments. The Teachers and Lecturers Act No. 14/2005 shifted government teachers’ employment status from that of being centrally employed to being locally employed but the responsibility for developing teachers’ professional practice is still held by central government. Despite the decentralisation of authority in teacher management to local government, a generative contextual teacher development study is still rare in Indonesian education. It is necessary to explore how schools, under a new wave of devolution, make sense of their conditions, challenges, and potential to develop teachers into effective professionals.

**B.1. Implementation of School Based Management**

In keeping with the new policies, school-based management (SBM), a subsystem of decentralisation in which authority over school policy is shared by the central office and the school site (Gamage, 2003), was introduced to the Indonesian education system early in 2000. With such transfer of authority and a reduction in the bureaucratic control imposed by the educational system, there is a hope that individual schools will be able to tailor educational provision to contextual needs and demands. The SBM concept has spread widely, making “the role of the school principal more pivotal in providing the professional leadership required to provide positive learning environments” (Gurr, 1996, p. 27). Principals are expected to work as school managers with a counterpart body (in the Indonesian context such a body is called the school committee) to bring about improved learning outcomes for students, and this includes a responsibility for determining and developing school curricula, pedagogy, teacher learning, and community relations.

However, Caldwell (2005) notes that SBM has been implemented in different ways and for different reasons and at different rates in different settings including Indonesia. Even the basic concepts of school and management are different, and so are the cultures and values that underpin the work of policy makers and practitioners in schools. Bandur (2012) notes that there is still centralised human resources management in the Indonesian education system as
the decision to hire teachers is still made by the central government. He also points to the importance of having visionary school leaders if SBM is to produce local engagement and improvements in student learning. For this reason, this study will also inquire about school leaders’ concerns as key stakeholders in government teacher quality development in Indonesia.

Heyward, Cannon, and Sarjono’s (2011) study of good practices in leadership, administration, planning, and budgeting, combined with transparency, accountability, and improved parental and community participation can provide the foundations necessary for making learning and teaching more effective and relevant. Experiences in Indonesia also show that the combination of leadership and good governance together with learning and teaching values promoting an enthusiasm for change can transform schools (Raihani & Gurr, 2006). The SBM approach with its distributed authority, according to Borman et al. (2003), can have an impact on student learning outcomes over a long time period though it is difficult to prove in the short term. Therefore, schools as the last unit in the chain in public education play a crucial role in increasing academic and participatory gains through SBM. School planning and organization by the leadership of the principal and school committee become more important especially in improving the teaching-learning process. Consequently, identifying how school stakeholders plan and organise teacher development for a better quality learning process is important in the initial effort to improve their development.

B.2. Stakeholders Involvement

Research in educational management indicates that altering teacher practice is very difficult to achieve (Sleegers & Leithwood, 2010). In order to understand the complex nature of educational change, researchers and experts have tried to reconceptualise teacher change by means of perception in which teacher learning occurs in the school as a key factor in school quality improvement. As a result, the school’s ability to improve the teachers’ professional learning and adapt reform agenda into dependable, learner focused, teaching practices has currently grown to be an important issue in professional
development research. It also inevitably influences the roles of relevant actors in educational institutions or as Sleegers and Leithwood (2010, p. 557) called the inside view.

The word stakeholder was originally used by theorists, scholars, and practitioners in management studies. They recommended that if we examine the relationships between a business entity and the groups and individuals who can affect or are affected by as a unit of analysis, there is a better chance to understand effectively with value creation, ethics, and managerial mind-set (Freeman, 1984). Since then, the stakeholder view has been used in various disciplines, including law, healthcare, public administration, environmental policy, and education. Freeman (1984) defined it as any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of the organization’s objectives. A more recent definition was developed by Dunham, Freeman, and Liedtka (2006) to the mean group that the organization needs in order to exist, specifically customers, suppliers, employees, capital owners, and communities.

In the current context, the organisation is in the forms of schools and their stakeholders are the pre-defined relevant parties, such as principals, deputies, teachers, administration staff, students, parents, superintendents, researchers, teacher educators, and tax payers. Different meanings of the term stakeholder entail consequences concerning the separation among different types of stakeholders according to the degree of authority they have in relation to the school. These identified parties need further breakdown for individuals within them may possess different levels of interest in and access to the organization’s effectiveness. Similar to Sleegers and Leithwood (2010), Hom (2011) divided these parties into two areas, namely in-school and off-school stakeholders referring to their imminence to the day-to-day schooling process. The division shows the level of control between the stakeholder and school interests as well as the differences among stakeholders’ interests and roles.

The current study, however, sees the definitional problem on the basis of how it serves the research purpose. For that reason, the stakeholder in the current study is specifically defined as an individual or entity with an interest and direct
access in the process of teacher development. Such definition enables the identification of the suitable stakeholders who can provide broad and deep information about teacher pathways and development at schools. Principals, deputy principals of public relation who are responsible for the human resources database, and school superintendents, all have a relative proximity to the phenomena including teachers in the respective schools.

However, Botha (2007) argued that it is often challenging to conceptualise the role of stakeholder participation in the school management process successfully due to the difficulty of relating stakeholder participation in management with concepts such as school effectiveness and school improvement. Every school can only succeed (in creating productive change) if it is effective. Thus, all changes at the school level must lead to improve quality and increase effectiveness by means of transforming the state including teacher condition. A school’s management leaders play a vital role in this change process as research findings from different countries and school contexts draw a similar conclusion: schools that can change students’ learning better are led by effective leaders who play a considerable and measurable role in the effectiveness of teaching and administrative staff and in the learning of students (Drysdale, Goode, & Gurr, 2009; Leithwood, Harris, & Hopkins, 2008). With the proximity that particular school stakeholders (leaders) have to teacher development, it is quite reasonable to explore what they do in developing staff and how they do it to yield productive change with regard to the teachers’ different pathways.

B. 3. Indonesian Teacher Trajectory

On the basis of job status and occupancy, Basikin (2007, pp. 4-5) divides teachers in Indonesia into three groups. The first group is those with part-time status which is usually an initial position for most teachers in Indonesia, as teachers commence in part-time positions until they obtain a fixed position either as a civil servant (that is, a government teacher) or as full-time private teachers. The next group, full-time private teachers, is employed by private education institutions. This post is normally taken after serving some time as a part-time
teacher or after failing several attempts at the government teacher registration tests. However, many teachers begin their career wanting to teach in private schools particularly in academically and financially well-established ones that are not in the scope of this study.

The last group is the civil servant or government teachers (GTs) who are recruited by local government and paid by the central government through the General Allocation Fund (DAU). This position is generally the highest status and most-sought after of teaching positions in Indonesia. A candidate can only obtain a government position after passing a document qualification selection process and a pen and paper-based recruitment test carried out every year. Some candidates have to go through the stages numerous times while the others pass them on the first attempt. Other unlucky candidates have to give up trying for a government teacher’s position after several attempts because there is an age limitation for entry to this position.

Neither new recruited teachers nor school principals know in which school the teachers are going to be assigned to teach as it remains a district decision. To some extent, it is against the spirit of devolution because schools do not have the authority to recruit their own teachers. Once a novice teacher is admitted as a civil servant candidate (CPNS), s/he has to undergo probation for around six month to a maximum of the two year period in which they only earn 80% of the full civil servant basic salary. After a series of in-service sessions that constitute generic novice teacher induction, the candidate will gain a letter of appointment as a full civil servant (PNS) and can start the career as a government teacher. Although being a government teacher does not provide for high financial return when compared to other professions, it gives relatively high social status, especially in rural areas (Basikin, 2007). Government teacher positions also offer a lifetime income as well as a retirement package which attracts many candidates to compete for vacant government teaching positions in Indonesia. Among teachers in the third group, there are teachers who entered the profession through service-bond scholarship (SBTs) in the past; many of them have become senior teachers in terms of service.
Based on the pathway to teaching, there are still other teachers who enter the profession through a series of status changes from contract teacher then being an assistant teacher before being promoted to GTs. In the current study, the teachers from this pathway belong to the ex-assistant teachers (EATs). Finally, several non-permanent teachers (NPTs) are still working under contract in public schools. These teachers are recruited by the schools and paid through the Operational School Funds (BOS). Unfortunately, very little is known on the impact of these four pathways into public schools’ quality of instruction, teacher development, and school improvement.

The huge proportion of civil servants unfortunately does not necessarily yield quality in education and criticisms are often made of government teacher quality (Chang, 2010) and commitment (Usman, Akhmadi, & Suryadarma, 2007). Moreover with the endorsement of The National Education Standards (2005), Bill No. 14 (2005) of Teachers and Lecturers and particularly the government regulation No. 16 (MoEC, 2007), teachers’ professional demands have been driven higher by standards-based education reform. In order to minimize the problems, both policy makers and stakeholders need to know what, why, and how effective teachers work in their particular context so that they can have a foundation to recruit and develop them.

To achieve that aim, Shulman (2000, p. 134) makes an interesting analogy: “When we do not have a theory that explains how somebody knows where to drill for oil, we follow experts around for a long time and have them talk to us about what they are doing; then maybe we can develop a model that eventually will lead to a theory.” Given that little is known about the impact of different pathways on instructional quality in the Indonesian public school, then, this study attempts to understand what relevant stakeholders actually do in public schools. It may provide insights into the quality of the selection process, the development of teachers, and how this might be improved in the Indonesian schooling context from the eyes of the actors in the field. Then, it is necessary to ask the perceptions of relevant school stakeholders in order to understand the issue.
B. 4. Teachers’ attitudes towards professional learning

Research into teachers’ attitude towards professional learning worldwide provides mixed results. Ruberto’s survey study (2003) demonstrated no significant relationship between teachers’ attitudes towards professional development and gender, teaching level assignment, certification, and degree attainment. In contrast, Corcoran (1995) and Abdal-Haqq (1996) previously found that being asked to learn and change is stressful for veteran teachers. Regarding the contradictory findings, Torff and Sessions (2008) explained that not all the demographic variables might reasonably be expected to predict teachers’ attitudes about professional development. The research denotes the importance of understanding how Indonesian teachers and school leaders construe to their own conditions, challenges, and opportunities within their particular contexts.

Guskey (1986) argued that teachers adjust their beliefs through changing their practice and reflecting on the result. Criticizing Guskey’s model as linear, Clarke and Hollingsworth (2002) claimed the process as a cyclic with numerous entry points. Their model, called Teacher Professional Growth, considered four different realms that cover the teacher’s world namely: personal domain, external domain, domain of practice, and domain of consequence. The model assumes that principle change happens through the processes of reflection and performance. When teachers act purposively and make continuous reflection on the action, their belief may change as they find an external source of information as stimulus and salient outcomes. Therefore, Torff and Sessions (2008) suggested a different approach of professional development to different phases of teachers’ experiences. In this way, teachers can experience different forms of development and challenge in accordance with their length of experiences and interests.

In relation to teacher change, Guskey (2002) further proposed three major goals of change in the classroom practices of teachers: change in the learning outcomes of students, and change in their attitudes and beliefs. He emphasized the significance of having successful experiences that can change teachers’ prior attitudes and beliefs. When teachers believe it works as they experience themselves, that experience shapes their fresh attitudes and beliefs. Built on the
James-Lange theory of emotion feedback, Guskey’s model of teacher change implies that change in teachers’ attitudes and beliefs is principally an outcome, rather than a trigger, of change in the learning outcomes of students. Without any evidence of positive change in students’ learning, significant change in the attitudes and beliefs of teachers is unlikely to occur. Thus, it is their belief that professional development will increase their understanding and competence, grow their professionalism, and develop their instructional practices to what drives teachers to professional development.

Attitude is believed to be influenced by a belief system and experience, and this is also true of teacher attitudes (Jenkins, 2005). For this reason, Basalama (2010) raises the concern that high job security among government teachers in Indonesia may affect their motivation towards professional learning and thus, their capacity to develop into more effective teachers. Additionally, she argues that it is not easy to maintain a positive attitude towards learning to change across the course of a teacher’s career. Furthermore, Yeom, Acedo, and Utomo (2002) claim that teachers in Indonesia are reluctant to follow directions from the government, as government officials are perceived to lack the background knowledge and skill to provide advice to schools. These impressions of government school teachers’ attitudes towards change and professional learning in Indonesia need to be verified through an in-depth study involving teachers and other stakeholders.

With the varied research results and the lack of information in the Indonesian public school context, an analytical framework needs to be constructed to give a clear direction in the study. A part of this study will focus on exploring public school teacher instructional practices as a result of the different pathways. The study intersects various aspects of teacher development from their early entry into the profession, how they have been inducted and developed by the schools, and how their development contributes to school improvement.
C. On School Improvement and School Effectiveness

Concerns about school improvement does not merely come from common beliefs about the significance of schools in enhancing the quality of life, but also from how school systems can fulfil the public expectations. As it deals with public fulfilment, many interests may have played in schooling agenda. It is vital to ask questions about limitations and standpoints in raising a critical understanding of school improvement. Wrigley (2008) argues that an insightful quest for improvement depends on our understanding about the current state of the world, the kind of future we would like to see, and who will benefit from proposed changes. In the context of the current study, then, it has to be related to teacher pathways and development. A comprehensible and authentic school improvement concept needs to be based on clear fair and political positions because schooling agenda is often set by the desire for economic competitiveness that narrows the meaning of education itself (Ball, 2008). These arguments are addressed to the statistical school effectiveness agenda which often use a specific targeted aspect of schooling to measure effectiveness.

Research in school effectiveness is mainly concerned with assessing the extent to which schools achieve specific government policy and oversimplification of the complex interconnections related with schooling (Gewirtz, 1998; Morley & Rassool, 2000). Further, Gibson and Asthana (1998) argue that school effectiveness studies have reinforced government policies which are concerned with pinpointing schools as the sole agents of success or failure in education. Therefore, it often reduces the meaning of education and differs from the concept of school improvement.

Under constant pressure to improve their performance for accountability, many schools feel the education system limits them to the degree that the context within which they are required to perform is getting more difficult (Byrne & Gallagher, 2004). These conditions are not favourable to forward planning, nor do they facilitate strategies for improvement. The facts of public schooling in Indonesia also suggests that despite the diversity in mission among the schools due to the institutional distinction, competition through open enrolment and the
NEs lead to a narrowed sense of value in educational outcomes. The desired results for all schools have concentrated on a specific set of attainment indicators set by policy makers (i.e. The NE Scores). Diversity in schooling purpose is, therefore, controlled by competition and open enrolment, not the other way around. The key reason, according to Byrne and Gallagher (2004) is because of the interdependence that exists between schools in an educational system. Hence, in the search of teachers’ contribution to school improvement, the current study does not merely view the teacher pathways and school efforts as causalities. It also examines other systemic phenomena and takes into account the interdependencies among schools to provide the big picture for further inquiry and change.

In an era dominated by concerns for accountability and improved student learning, studies of school improvement have become centrally concerned with the role of leadership as the key catalyst for change (Heck & Hallinger, 2010, p. 135). The school improvement is a result of negotiation among teachers, leaders, and supervisors over the goals and strategies. The cognitive perspectives of these parties can facilitate the identification of variables such as vision, mission, strategy, and goal setting which are vital in the improvement process. In attempts to understand the perceived impact of pathways on teacher practice, development, and contribution, the term school improvement does not only involve improving student outcomes, but also in the way schools improve teaching, learning and leadership practices (Masters, 2012). It requires the participation of all school stakeholders in the education processes to understand how much improvement has been made or which aspects need further attention. Moreover, the term is connected to the underlying epistemology and methodology which are discussed in Chapter Three.

D. Conceptual Framework

Conceptual frameworks, at times referred to as grand theories (Ayres, 2008), develop overall explanations for a discipline or body of knowledge. Reichel and Ramey (1987) define a conceptual framework as a range of extensive
ideas and theories taken from relevant fields of enquiry and used to structure a further presentation. The theories and ideas addressed by such a framework are vastly conceptual and cannot easily be operationalized into variables or used in hypotheses. Although untestable, a conceptual framework has potential as a tool to organize relevant knowledge in the research and as a foundation for mid-range theory development (Ayres, 2008, p. 373). Such a frame is constructed by design as an initial point to reflect about the study and its context. It becomes a research tool meant to develop research awareness and understanding of the studied context and to communicate its description.

Research has viewed the conceptual framework as normative, meaning that it describes not the way a discipline is, but the way the discipline should be. Guba and Lincoln (1989) provide a supplementary argument that such a framework can turn to be part of the agenda for negotiation to be examined, reviewed, and reformed as a result of investigation. Thus, the framework provides a description of the research concepts and contexts and there is a possibility to revise and redevelop it as the inquiry proceeds. Similarly, in the current study, the framework serves as the outlines and foundations for further inquiry and development.

This study attempts to understand how Indonesian public schools have carried out teacher induction and development for quality improvement in the light of different teacher pathways into the profession. This framework has been developed through a constant process of literature reviewing. The review has been organized to meet the aforementioned purposes of a conceptual framework and leads to the following sketch. There have been variations in findings and results across studies in the literature review as a result of the different lenses to portray the issue, different research settings, and approaches to the problem. Therefore, it is necessary for the current study to define the boundaries of the study, elements of the analysed aspects as well as specific terminology and to anticipate questions that may arise further. This framework also functions to highlight important facets in this study and to identify structural and factual characteristics that may be
responsible for significant variations in the findings. The conceptual framework for the study can be found in Figure 2 below:

![Research Conceptual Framework](image)

**Figure 2.** Research Conceptual Framework

The real conditions in Indonesia provide insights on (1) the sheer size of the teaching staff in public schools, (2) the generic policy towards schools at different levels and contexts, (3) the actual implementation of education decentralisation, and (4) the schools’ limited authority in teacher management. Combined with the lack of contextualized research in the public schools, these
conditions allow knowledge gaps to emerge. For instance, how do schools make sense of the generic policy with their limited authority in teacher management? Understanding such an issue is necessary in the efforts to improve public schools’ quality.

On the other side, the literature identifies that (1) teachers matter in terms of students’ achievement gain and school quality improvement, (2) it is necessary to recruit the best candidates and then develop them in the profession, (3) early judgement on teacher quality is crucial for teacher development, and (4) the best place to develop teachers is in the real demands of their school contexts. The reviews help to shape the focus of the current study on the recruitment and development of teachers with respect to the existing conditions in Indonesian schools.

In relation to the different pathways to teaching in Indonesian public schools, the literature reviews lead the study to understand the impacts of different teacher pathways on different aspects of schooling. By means of relevant stakeholders’ perceptions, this study provides contextualized answers to the following questions: 1. What are the teachers and leaders perceptions about (a) the impact of different teacher pathways on teacher practice and development, (b) the impact of different teacher pathways on how the schools induct and develop the teachers, and (c) the impact of different teacher pathways on the schools’ quality improvement? 2. Are there differences of perceptions among different stakeholder groups?
Chapter III
Methodology

To base beliefs and assumptions in the study, a research framework needs to be constructed as the building block relevant to the research questions (Grix, 2010) or the foundation of research known as ontology, epistemology, and methodology (Crotty, 1998). Ontological assumptions lead to epistemological assumptions, then to methodological considerations and eventually to choices of instrumentation and data collection. These foundations are important so that the study can have a strong basis in order to meet the objectives of the study. When the foundations are well established, the following task is to choose appropriate methods and instruments for answering the predetermined questions along with the design on how they would best serve the research purpose.

Methodology is the extensive perspective taken on doing research in which there are particular methods regarded as a means to help analyse the participants’ claims and understand the precise steps of how to answer the aforementioned research questions in a systematic manner (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2005). It is essential in research to outline the use of specific techniques and procedures together with the logic behind them in order to answer the research questions appropriately. Thus, the purpose of this chapter is to help readers to understand not only the products of research but also its processes to answer the aforementioned research questions.

A. Theoretical Framework

My ontological position emanated from a contextual inter-subjective reality (Kvale, 1996) in which the social world is to be understood from the point of view of the individuals directly involved in the investigated events. It is not the isolated facts but the perception and interpretation by actors of the events that provide the study with social reality. This stance led to my epistemological position, constructionism, in which “truth, or meaning, comes into existence in and out of our engagement with the realities in our world. There is no meaning
without a mind because meaning is not discovered but constructed” (Crotty, 1998, pp. 8-9). These two foundations allow for the assumption that knowledge and meaning including those in the research are constructed contextually. In this framework, the underlying ideas fit together within the different layers and ensure consistency and conformity in the steps.

The next layer is Denzin’s (1994, p. 313) art of interpretation which state that “in the social sciences there is only interpretation. Nothing speaks for itself.” This study tries to interpret and understand meaningful social actions in context and discover how the stakeholders perceive the issues of teacher recruitment, development, and quality in public schools. These layers of ontological, epistemological, and theoretical perspectives form the basis of contextual, meaningful, interactive research as reflected in the subsequent methodology.

The current study took a qualitative approach. Creswell (2003, p. 18) describes this as a methodology,

“in which the inquirer often makes knowledge claims based primarily on constructivist perspectives .... It also uses strategies of inquiry such as narratives, phenomenologies, ethnographies, grounded theory studies, or case studies. The researcher collects open-ended, emerging data with the primary intent of developing themes from data.”

This fits with Bryman’s (2001) explanation of qualitative research. He describes the core elements of a qualitative approach as: Seeing through the eyes of the participants; being descriptive and contextual; process oriented; flexible in methods and instruments; and placing concepts and theory as outcomes of the research process (Bryman, 2001, p. 264). Qualitative research seeks to describe, understand and explain a situation in its context. Therefore descriptive detail was used in this study so that the community or organisations could be best understood within their integrated background. This consideration brought the study to select an appropriate design that enabled the description, explanation, and theory building.

Under this framework, the research questions were approached to facilitate the participants to discuss their experiences, stories, and views. Teachers have
impressions, judgments, and interpretations of the particular experiences they have lived because their knowledge is mostly formed through narrative accounts of experiences in order to construct a shared understanding of their work (Johnson, 2009). Doyle (1997) adds that narratives can locate and link facts to one another and that the real meaning of truth lies in how phenomena are connected and interpreted by the participants. This sort of study, according to Riessman (2008), also enables the unheard, unseen, and undocumented – the ordinary, marginalised, and silenced - to give voice.

Within this set of assumptions and qualitative approach, the impact of teacher pathways, development, and practices was explored through rigorously analysing within and across the four case studies. In this way, the dilemma of understanding cases and the bigger phenomena or ‘quintain’ as Stake (2006) considered, can be addressed while at the same time enhancing the thick description of the phenomena.

B. Research Design

A good design according to Maxwell (2008) is one in which the components work harmoniously together, promotes efficient and successful functioning. It denotes the notion of ‘fitness for purpose’ in the research design (Cohen et al., 2005), thus the purpose of the research determines the methodology and design of the research. Both Maxwell (2008) and Cohen et al. (2005) emphasised the centrality of research questions among other elements such as goals, conceptual framework, methods, and trustworthiness. With the forms of research questions designed to scrutinise the in-depth issues in teacher recruitment pathways and quality development, this study decided to employ a multiple-case study design. According to Gerring (2004, p. 341), it is an intensive study of several units for the purpose of understanding a larger class of units or, in Stake (2006), these larger units are called “quintain”. Hartley (1994, pp. 208-209) argues the design is a detailed investigation, with data collected over a period of time, of one or more organisations, or groups within organisations, with a view to providing an analysis of the context and processes involved in the phenomenon
under study. With the notions of case, context, and multiple sources of data and methods, this research design is frequently linked to many different theoretical grounds in social science, emphasising social relations and their construction of ‘on site’ meaning. Consequently, this study requires a well-defined but flexible design to anticipate the nature of the phenomena and the dynamics of the fieldwork. Multiple case study design is, therefore, an appropriate choice for its ability to accommodate the established research questions, the variability of cases and contexts, and the numerous data.

The design attempts to engage with and explore the complexity of social trends in order to signify the meanings that individuals in the community bring to and create within their settings. It sees social reality through social interaction of the participants, seeks to identify and describe before trying to analyse and explain. Therefore, it is associated with the underlying principles and values of theoretical discourses such as symbolic interactionism and phenomenology that accentuate interpretation. The design helps to understand individual cases in details without generalising the result to a larger population. Stake (1994) and Yin (2009) support the approach to study cases on the basis of a constructivist paradigm as explained previously.

One of the advantages of this approach is the close collaboration between the researcher and the participants, which enables participants to tell their stories, experiences, and opinions (Crabtree & Miller, 1999). With such opportunities, the participants could describe their own views of reality and it allowed me as the researcher to better understand their choices of action. In addition, there were two notable advantages for novice researcher to use cases according to Flyvbjerg (2006); they could produce context-dependent knowledge and cases helped my own learning process to conduct good research and professional learning. In summary, the chosen multiple case study design had all the benefits of a single case study in capturing the phenomena while its repetitive procedures really enhanced the validity and analytical generalizability of the results.

Despite the benefits, this kind of approach could progress unexpectedly as the study goes underway. It meant the necessity of taking into account the
potential deviation which may arise in the field. This emergent nature was anticipated by learning the common characteristics of a qualitative study which were pointed out clearly in Creswell (2012). These characteristics are among others: the natural setting; the researcher’s role as main instrument; the employment of multiple methods data gathering; participants’ meaning making; and complex and reflective logic throughout the process of research. Moreover, the analysis of this multiple case study was definitely more complex than that of a single case study for more participants and settings were involved in the process. The analysis attempted to trace a chain of evidence, to allow convergence of multiple interpretations, and to enhance confidence in the generalizability of the findings. Thus, Creswell (2012) suggests further that researchers need to have a strong commitment to study a problem and its demands of time and resources. To cope with the demand and to yield trustworthy results, the following details of the design were set in regard to the unexpected processes, dynamics, and problems that could emerge during the research processes.

C. Case Selection and Participants

A case is defined by Miles and Huberman (1994) as a phenomenon of some sort occurring in a bounded context. It is the unit of analysis for this study. Public schools with their specific groups of stakeholders best served as the units to analyse for they could provide contextual voices, descriptions, and answers relevant to the issues under study. As government teachers work in all levels of formal schools in the Indonesian education system under MoEC, this study explored teacher recruitment and development in four schools, one from each of the different levels: primary school (Year 1-6), secondary school (Year 7-9), high school (Year 10 – 12) and vocational school (Year 10 – 12). This sub-group sampling (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2007) considered the uniqueness and complexity of each sub-group and avoided problems with internal generalisation as suggested by Maxwell (1996). Internal generalisation is a tendency in research to draw conclusions from a small section of a larger phenomenon. Additionally,
ease of access in terms of established relationships and location became the primary reason for selecting the participating schools.

Case binding, as suggested by Creswell (2003), Yin (2009), Miles and Huberman (1994), and Stake (2006) was done through reviewing the existing literature and intense discussions with research supervisors in order to avoid topic expansion. The discussions concerning research question formulation, design of the study, instrumentation, school involvement and participant selection have brought a more focused study. Stake (2006) suggested three criteria for selecting cases: whether the cases are relevant to the quintain (a larger unit of analysis), whether they can provide diversity across contexts, and whether they can provide opportunities to learn about complexities and contexts. These criteria showed the way for the design to examine how teacher recruitment, pathways and development interacted within different school contexts. The structure of the sample is described in Table 1 below.

Table 1. Research Settings and Participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>Level &amp; Scale</th>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>Forms of Interaction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Neverland</td>
<td>Primary Year 1 - 6</td>
<td>Principal 3 Leaders 2 Supervisors 4 GTs 4 EATs 4 NPTs</td>
<td>Individual interviews Group Interviews</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A very poor school on the outskirts of the city</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Wilshire</td>
<td>Principal 4 Deputies 2 Supervisors 4 GTs 2 EATs 4 SBTs 4 NPTs</td>
<td>Individual interviews Group Interviews</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Secondary Year 7 – 9</td>
<td>A developing school near public housings.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Berkshire</td>
<td>Principal 4 Deputies 2 Supervisors 3 GTs 3 EATs 2 SBTs 3 NPTs</td>
<td>Individual interviews Group Interviews</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Secondary Year 10 – 12</td>
<td>A well- established school with several achievements</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In each school, relevant stakeholder groups directly dealing with the teacher development and quality teaching improvement were selected purposively to contribute and participate in the study (refer to Table 1 for a summary of participants and Appendix 1 for a more detailed listing). These consisted of the principal, deputies, and two to four teachers drawn from the four different pathways and targeted to include a range of experience, gender, and qualifications as well as the respective school supervisors. These different schools and groups of stakeholders’ participation served as sub-units of analysis in the design. In total, forty-nine teachers, four principals, sixteen deputies, and eight school supervisors contributed to the study. They were asked to describe and explain relevant issues in their own words and their narratives were used to describe typologies of different school stakeholders’ perceptions, the schools’ efforts to develop teachers, and improve teaching quality. This way, according to Patton (2002), could capture maximum variation of information from the participants for a thick description of the phenomena while at the same time binding the case.

As soon as an official letter of permit to conduct the research was obtained from the University of Melbourne Ethics Committee and the local BAPPEDA office (Regional Planning and Development Authority), I started contacting each school for field work preparation. The green light from the district was important to facilitate my access to the selected schools. They officially forwarded my intention to conduct the research prior to my individual approach to the schools. Accessing the research sites and participants was straightforward.
D. Case-Study Protocol and Piloting

Prior to collecting data, a case study protocol (see appendix 2 for details) was developed as guidance for the researcher during the fieldwork. The protocol was more than a list of questions or instruments (Yin, 2009). It contained the general procedures and rules to use the protocol, directed to facilitate the data gathering, analysis and reporting, and it became of crucial assistance in multiple case studies. Having the protocol while doing the study helped me remain focused on the topic, prepared for the anticipation of possible problems, and avoided mismatches in all aspects and processes of the study. The protocol in this study involved outlines of the case study project, field procedures, research, and interview questions, and as a guide for the report writing. The outlines of the project were used as reminders of the main issues in the study so that all focus was directed to the main objectives. Field procedures detailed the fieldwork agenda, order of steps, and contingency plans to anticipate any emergent problems.

Although it was difficult to follow the established protocol, the implementation of the field work was really facilitated by the protocol. Few arrangements needed to be changed from the protocol. First, the plans for the first week in the research site were a bit disturbed by the school holiday. Appointments with research gate keepers needed more time and the protocol proved a great favour with the contingency week allocated. Secondly, direct transcription was carried out but not thoroughly due to the abundant amount of recorded data and limited resources.

Borrowing De Vaus’s expression (1993, p. 54), “Do not take the risk. Pilot test first,” the current study previously attempted to trial the interview questions on few participants before being used in field work. In order to see how the instruments fit to the participants, a pilot study or pre-study was conducted on a small sample of participants. In social science research, pilot studies have been utilised in two different ways (Teijlingen & Hundley, 2001). The first attempts to
examine potential problems before full implementation in the research site that became the aim of this particular pilot study. In the current study, the pilot was not meant to serve the second function as feasibility studies for a small scale version or trials, conducted in preparation for the actual study.

Four secondary school teachers were interviewed individually using the initial list of questions and, at the end of the interviews, asked to comment on the clarity of the questions’ wordings. Their answers were analysed to see if these met with the intended purpose of questioning. Their comments on the expressions used in the interview list were also taken into account to improve the list. Few redundancies were found in the initial lists resulting in the reduction of the number of questions from fourteen to ten questions of prompts and probes (refer to table 2). The more efficient wordings gave opportunities to the participants to have more time articulating their responses and to focus on the research questions.

A group interview rehearsal was also conducted to trial the group interview questions and my moderating skills. Three elementary teachers participated in the rehearsal that lasted for about one hour. The trial provided a genuine description of what might happen in the group interviewing sessions because I never conducted a group interview before. A subsequent discussion after the rehearsal with the participants gave me feedbacks of what improvement I could make in the questioning and timing of the sessions more effective. The feedbacks resulted in improved interview questions to avoid ambiguous questions, as shown in table 3. The pilot study also resulted in revision and improvement of the case study protocol (see appendix 2) so that approaches to the field work became more manageable. Therefore, the trialling of a particular research instrument (Baker, 1994, pp. 182-183) in the pilot study had the advantages of providing advance caution about where problems could emerge in the main research project when research protocol was not followed or if the proposed methods or instruments were inappropriate or too complicated. With such trials, the study managed to get feedback to improve the constructed research protocol and the interview questions.
E. Data Collection and Analysis

Experience from the pilot study taught how to deal with the gatekeepers, participants, and politics in the organisation as well as the logistic of the field work. Despite a bit of reluctance and hesitancy from a few of the leaders and teachers to participate, I managed to assure them eventually. Two teachers withdrew their participation before the interviews in Berkshire due to illness. Another teacher was interested in the study but experiencing a serious personal problem which revoked participation. In summary, the data collection went as expected and planned in the protocol.

Three different data gathering techniques were employed in this study. In the early stage, principals, deputies, and school supervisors of the selected schools participated in a 60-minute individual semi-structured interview. Twenty nine individual interviews were conducted to address the first research question of these school leaders’ perspectives. The individual semi-structured interview questions helped in the co-creation of meaning with these participants by reconstructing experiences and events related to the research topic. This type of instrument also has aided first in the control of the interview course and secondly the participants could respond to the questions in more freedom. The interview could run as previously planned and the data remained in systematic order to maintain comprehensiveness (Patton, 2002). However, as participants in this group were ‘school elites’, Kvale (1996) warned the importance for interviewers to really understand the power asymmetry and cultural backgrounds of the participants. In Indonesia, and perhaps in some other countries, principals hold this elite status in their respective schools and even in their other social environments. With such a social status, they became the gatekeepers to obtain more in-depth information from other stakeholders in each school case. Consequently, interviewing principals, deputies, and supervisors was conducted carefully in their convenience to avoid a lack of respect from these school elites. The following is the individual interview list addressed to school leaders and supervisors.
### Table 2. Individual Interview Questions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Prompts</th>
<th>Probes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Could you share the story how you came to your current position?</td>
<td>Previously? Then?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>What are your specific roles and responsibilities in relation to teacher development?</td>
<td>How do you feel about that?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>As a public school, what does the school do to recruit quality teachers?</td>
<td>What do you think about that? Is it as effective as it might be? Why/Why not?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>From your position as a …………… , how do you see different pathways into teaching in relation to teachers’ practice and development?</td>
<td>Why do you think so?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>What has the school done to induct and develop effective teachers?</td>
<td>What are the rationales? How has it gone so far?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Based on your experience, what do teachers impact on school performance in general?</td>
<td>How have the teachers contributed to the quality school performance here?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>How do you know a teacher is effective or not?</td>
<td>Why/Why not? How have the criteria been understood by teachers?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>If any, what impact do the different pathways to teaching have on the school performance or quality?</td>
<td>How could you say that?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>In terms of improving the quality of students’ education what are the school’s main priorities?</td>
<td>Why?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>What can you suggest to improve public school teacher quality nationwide?</td>
<td>What is your reason? What do you see as the key barriers, and how might they be addresses?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

All aspects of individual interviews were given serious attention to avoid problems in the following stage. The individual sessions were audio recorded with each participant signing their consent prior to the interviews. This ethical issue had been handled with care since the early process of the project. This study tried as much as possible to gain detailed information from each participant but also had the obligation to protect their participation. The location and schedule was determined by each of these leaders to provide convenience.
Four semi-structured group interviews followed the individual interviews in the four participating schools as units of analysis. Two to four teachers with varied demographic backgrounds were engaged in each of these group interviews to give their voices. Group interview according to Fontana and Frey (1994) is the systematic questioning of several individuals simultaneously in formal and informal settings. In this study, a more formal setting was chosen so that I could exercise considerable control over the questioning process using a pre-designed list of interview questions as guidance. This technique can cover a variety of topics in the purpose to collect data from more than one person at the same time thereby it is financially efficient and less time consuming and it seeks the participants’ opinions as individuals (Bryman, 2001). The group interviews with participating teachers became a question-and-answer session which really tested my skills in posing the questions. My role in the group interview was more of as the moderator, facilitator, or leader of a group conversation to obtain multiple views (Watts & Ebbutt, 1987). I needed to manage participants who dominated the group and encouraged the more silent participants to ensure that opinions from all group interview members could be heard. Despite its high demands for organisation skills, group interviews saved time, gave the opportunity for interviewee interaction, and allowed participants to intermingle more actively.

**Table 3. Group Interview Questions**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Prompts</th>
<th>Probes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Could you describe the process through which you became a teacher in this school?</td>
<td>What do you think of the recruitment process you had at that time?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>How do you think government teacher recruitment should be conducted?</td>
<td>What makes you think so?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>How, if at all, has the recruitment process you experienced impacted on how you perform as a teacher?</td>
<td>Why?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Do you find this school a good place to develop professionally as a teacher?</td>
<td>What are your career aspirations? Do you intend to remain here?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>What has the school done to induct and develop</td>
<td>How do you see it?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Question</td>
<td>Answer</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Who is responsible for developing teachers?</td>
<td>Your reason?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 How do you define quality as a teacher?</td>
<td>Why?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 How do teachers contribute to school quality?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 How do you see the relation between teacher recruitment and teacher quality?</td>
<td>Why is it so?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 Would you accept a leading position in this school someday?</td>
<td>What will you do? Why?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In terms of utility, Aubel (1994) confirms that group interviews are valuable in various types of case studies particularly to understand participants’ perspectives of certain matters. With the homogeneous groups such as teachers from a similar pathway, the response trends became repetitive after several sessions so that patterns could be seen more overtly. The group interviews in this study improved significantly in terms of efficiency as the interview data were analysed instantly after every session to give fresh captures of each session. Aubel (1994) even proposes the same day analysis of data after every interview session for example when the interview is conducted in the morning, the transcription is carried out in the afternoon or evening. Such arrangement enabled a process to review the implementation of previous sessions resourcefully but it was really difficult to do due to the limited fieldwork time. Therefore, some transcription work was still carried out after the field work period.

E.1 Transcription

All of the individual and group interviews were recorded, transcribed, and analysed thematically. The audio taping allowed me as the interviewer to focus on the topic and the dynamics of the interview. With a digital audiotape, the interview records could be repeated many times and transferred to my personal computer as a back-up. The storage process was to support data transcription. Transcription is the process whereby recordings of research interviews are turned into textual material (transcripts), which then become the primary data for subsequent analysis (Poland, 2008). The process involved interpretive work that happened early in the analysis phase after each session of interviews.
Transcription as translations from an oral language to written language according to Kvale (2007) was crucial in the process of analysis to avoid a loss of tone of voice, intonations, mimics, and body language. Therefore, the transcription process in this study was also conducted by the researcher for a few reasons. The first was for data security protection and ethical issues so that participants’ anonymity could be kept secret. The next reason was to avoid losing interview aspects for oral and written languages which could decrease the trustworthiness. Finally, as the interviewer, I could learn much about my own interviewing style and recall the interview situations for improvement in the following sessions of interviews. Details of the transcription helped me synthesise and sensitise the points of the interview dynamics which were crucial in the subsequent process of analysis. Bird (2005, p. 227) even considers transcription as a key phase of data analysis within interpretative qualitative methodology for meanings are actually created in this stage. Thus while transcribing the interview records; I tried to search for noteworthy gist.

The transcription was not followed by direct translation for authenticity and effectiveness of the analysis. When raw data are translated immediately, there is a possibility that they can be lost in translation (Kvale, 2007). Such would have had a chain effect on the following process of analysis and interpretation. Therefore, the translation was done in the writing up to establish the checks and balances mechanism with the context from which the data were taken.

Member checking was crucial to ensure the quality of the transcription because it could enhance and ensure the credibility (Lincoln, 1995) of both the data and the process. As transcription scripts were completed, they were sent to the participants for confirmation and correction. The next stage of analysis proceeded after all participants gave their agreement on the transcripts.

E. 2. Coding

The coding process was conducted while data collection was underway in order to save time and to make improvement in the following interview processes.
Most qualitative researchers code their data both during and after collection because coding is part of the analytical process (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 56). The first step in this process was a thorough reading of the transcript to familiarise with the data. As I got immersed, I looked for meanings and patterns from the transcript which involved identifying, analysing, and marking patterns (themes) within transcribed data. It was done before the categories were defined and served as a trigger to begin the analysis. Lincoln and Guba (1985) stated that the categories would emerge as the coding proceeds. The emergent themes formed a pattern or trend that could be seen after some amount of data were coded. This process of constantly comparing expressions and statements within the same and other groups, according to Glasser and Strauss (1967), became the main rule in the theory building. To facilitate this process, a memo was written of relevant ideas to select relevant categories or eliminate irrelevant ones.

The next stage of coding became more selective on the fitness of the categories and subcategories. Here, instruments like tables, spread sheet or matrices assisted in assigning and linking categories (refer to table 4 for a sample of selective coding). This iterative process of data presentation and reduction were initially handled manually and then transferred to the computing device to simplify the display. To protect the participants and schools, their entries in the quotations, figures, and tables were disguised in pseudonyms. The participants’ aliases were consistently structured to assist audit trails as suggested by Lincoln and Guba (1985). It helped data tracing and confirmability due to the abundance of data, codes, and abbreviations. The following table is an example of selective coding process to identify relevant patterns of themes from the data. It was carried out after the open coding and before building the storyline that connected sub-categories.

The third stage was the storyline building that linked and integrated all sub-categories across school cases for a theory generation with explanatory power. This stage was done through eliminating categories that did not have association with the others. In this way, only categories which persisted across the
cases counted to theory building of the larger phenomena or the quintain. Table 4 below is an example of selective coding.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perceptions on:</th>
<th>How does Majuro induct and develop teachers?</th>
<th>Excerpts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Participants:</strong></td>
<td><strong>LEADERS</strong></td>
<td><strong>GT</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ike</td>
<td>COOP</td>
<td><strong>This school cooperate with the district, subject teacher discussion groups (MGMP) and education quality assurance body (LPMP) for trainings and workshops. But, these are not enough so we implement supervision and monitoring, (with the supervisors) as well.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>FORM</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MONEV</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scooby</td>
<td>DIFFER</td>
<td><strong>We don’t distinguish the treatment on teachers but a committee is normally led by a civil servant teacher (GT/EAT/SBT) but the NPTs can still help in it.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>ERMA</strong></td>
<td>AVAIL</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Erma</td>
<td>DIFFER</td>
<td><strong>First, there were trainings and then workshops in every semester related to IT. Therefore, teaching is not the same from time to time. We are facilitated and well supported.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vicky</td>
<td>DIFFER</td>
<td><strong>To be honest, in the curriculum structure, I my subject) belong to local load, so I can’t dream of (the career development).</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nary</td>
<td>DIFFER</td>
<td><strong>I think everyone has the equal opportunity here regardless of their department. But perhaps, we have to do it in turns and share the material to the other teachers</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latria</td>
<td>AVAIL</td>
<td><strong>The demand is very high here. Every teacher has the same chance but in turns. Thus, everyone can develop as a group, not just individually.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>SBT</strong></td>
<td>AVAIL</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nanning</td>
<td>AVAIL</td>
<td><strong>The school has provided me with trainings and workshops to improve my skills. They also develop the school facilities to support learning-teaching activities.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rose</td>
<td>AVAIL</td>
<td><strong>A lot yeah, we have been sent to trainings and workshops. If we want to learn and work hard, the school will facilitate us.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FORM</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Opportunities are available but the chosen staff is the same person from time to time. We (others) tend to have problems with the (principal) permit.

The productive teachers have a coordinator but we, adaptive teachers, must go through the deputy of curriculum. Thus, it’s less accommodated then.

Marty and I teach adaptive subjects which are normally developed through Teacher Discussion Group. Productive subject teachers, in this vocational school, have more opportunities to develop.

Though, there is a slight different treatment, I can keep up with my colleagues’ pace here. I learn and discuss things with them. The school also sends me to trainings and workshops.

It’s not only the GTs but we are also involved in and thus have the training opportunities.

Indeed, I expect the adaptive and normative teachers to be more involved in the Double Education System (school & industry). So far only productive subject teachers are actively involved in the cooperation.

The quintain is the object, target collection, or phenomena (Stake, 2006) in a multiple case research design which is actually the study of cases to understand bigger phenomena. As the design involved some cases under the umbrella of public schools under MoEC, the cases were cross-analysed. This study picked out Stake’s (2006) first track procedure to best maintain the case findings and situationality and then dialectically and constantly comparing one to another in order to comprehend and explain the big picture. Similarities and differences among cases were noted and analysed so that the cases contributed to the elaboration of the bigger phenomenon. Such a constant comparison like in Glaser and Strauss’s Grounded Theory (1967) among cases gave opportunities to build cross-case understanding because some cases really provided clues and insights in understanding the phenomenon while the others might have not contributed as
much. Following Miles and Huberman (1994) and Stake (2006), matrices, mind-maps, and tables were employed to help understand the themes found in the data.

Artefacts dealing with the relevant cases were collected from each participating school voluntarily and from their website if applicable. These included school brochures, profiles, vision and mission, performance on annual national exams, and teacher awards. Such documents according to Bowen (2009) could serve as important contextual information, supplementary data, source of further interview questions, means of tracking change or development, and evidence for corroboration from other sources. In this study, the artefacts were used as complementary data and recited to write rich case studies’ descriptions.

**F. Trustworthiness**

Thorne (2000) argued that the quality of qualitative research rests on the reader’s acceptance or rejection of the given claims. Lincoln and Guba (1985) initially proposed criteria based on the terms: credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability. After receiving criticisms of being post-positivistic, Lincoln (1995) eventually revised the earlier work and discussed emerging criteria in qualitative research including the positionality of the researcher, voice, reflexivity, reciprocity, and fluidity between researcher and the phenomena, and the sharing of the privileges of power. These emerging criteria focus attention on the links between the quality of the research and the form of context in which the research is developed.

To ensure the truthfulness of the meaning making process with all research participants in the current study, every stage of the research has considered trustworthiness issues. First, participating schools were first selected to reflect sub-group sampling while at the same time bind the case so that the study focused on a bounded context (of public schools under MoEC) and analytical generalisation across the cases improves. Theoretically, the case and participants selection embraced the notions of homogeneity (case binding), heterogeneity (of schools and participants’ demographic backgrounds and stance to the issue).
Following that, the participants were purposively selected to add the multiple perspectives from the school supervisors, senior school leadership, and teachers from different pathways. Additionally, the combination of individual interviews, group interviews, and document reviews as multi-method data gathering was the core of this multiple case study. These approaches to cases, participants, and methods allowed for triangulation from multiple perspectives on the phenomenon.

Following these approaches, a checklist of criteria for good thematic analysis as suggested by Braun and Clarke (2006, p. 96) was employed to establish rigor from the transcription to report writing (refer to appendix 2 of Research Protocol). As a tick box, this checklist ensured the analytic processes from transcription to thesis writing had been done completely and supported the trustworthiness of the findings. Table 5 summarises the analytic processes.

Table 5. Braun and Clarke’s (1994) checklist of criteria for thematic analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Process</th>
<th>Criteria</th>
<th>Actions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Transcription</td>
<td>The data have been transcribed to an appropriate level of detail, and the transcripts have been checked against the tapes for ‘accuracy’.</td>
<td>Self-active listen &amp; re-listen, Member checks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coding</td>
<td>Each data item has been given equal attention in the coding process.</td>
<td>Using computer software to form coherent, consistent, &amp; thorough coding process</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The coding process has been thorough, inclusive, and comprehensive.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>All relevant extracts for each theme have been collated.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Themes have been checked against each other and back to the original data set.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Themes are internally coherent, consistent, and distinctive.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analysis</td>
<td>Data have been analysed, interpreted, and made sense of rather than just paraphrased or described.</td>
<td>Constant comparison within each case and across cases by means of tables and figures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Analysis and data match each other, the extracts illustrate the analytic claims.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Analysis tells a convincing and well-organized story about the data and topic.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A good balance between analytic narrative and illustrative extracts is provided.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall</td>
<td>Enough time has been allocated to complete all phases of the analysis adequately, without rushing a phase or giving it a once-over-lightly.</td>
<td>Done via steps of chapter writing</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
When the transcription processes were completed, corresponding participants were asked to check their respective interview transcripts for the purpose of feedback and validation (member check). A computer file system facilitated audit trails so that every bit of data presented in the report could be traced to its original source. Such data management, reviews from colleagues and supervisors, and strict fieldwork protocol and checklist in the analysis inevitably served to promote trustworthiness of the data, methods, as well as the processes of analysis. These ways, according to Denzin (1970), help the researcher ensure that reliable inferences are derived from reliable data and accountable process.

Further on thesis writing particularly, Yates (2004, p. 81) states that “the thesis is being judged on its ability to acknowledge the existing field adequately as well as on its ability to add something new.” This study contributes to public schools’ awareness in developing quality staff under limited access and authority to recruitment. Therefore, methodical, careful, and auditable processes become among the most important factors distinguishing the quality of this study so that the claims can be traced and justified academically. Under such rigor, this study can be a basis for further and larger studies in the area of teacher recruitment and quality development in the Indonesian education context.

G. Limitation and Delimitation

As a reminder, the purpose of this study was not to make generalisation of the result but to establish explanatory proposition on the impact of having different teacher pathways’ in public schools. Despite all the efforts to enhance
the trustworthiness of the study, there were limitations that need to be put forward and acknowledged due to the nature of the study. First, the sub-group sampling needed to be understood as a means to allow each school level and teacher pathways to give voice in the study. While in quantitative studies, a small probability sample aimed at obtaining a representation of a larger population, in the current study, the goal was to achieve more detailed exploration, description and explanation of the phenomena in public schools. Therefore, the sampling selection needed to be seen as a ‘replication logic’ (Yin, 2009) whether confirming or disconfirming the findings in each case. Then, with the limited time of data gathering, the study was a snapshot dependent on the conditions occurring during the time of the research. Therefore, any other conditions after the study that might change the description and explanation resulted from the study were out of my control.

This study identified some boundaries in terms of participants, instruments, and geographical coverage. First, the number of participants involved in the study changed during the fieldwork and therefore showed different numbers across cases. It demonstrate the uniqueness of each school that structurally and culturally different from one another. Despite the effort to balance the profiles of the participating teachers in the group interviews, the actual demography in the participating schools limited that to happen. Further details on this matter are explained in the findings and list of participant in Appendix 1.

The instruments, individual and group interviews, used in the study became another restriction that needed to be accounted for. To avoid misunderstanding and misinterpretation from the participants and to focus on answering the research questions, the interviews were set in semi-structured questions. These questions, improved through the pilot study, consisted of prompts and probes that led to in-depth and relevant responses. Apart from the question framing, the implementation of group interviews required extra attention particularly with the tendency that several participants copied their colleagues’ ideas with some additional information. This additional information, yet, became my tool to probe deeper when copying or agreement occurred among participants
of the group interviews. The probes proved significant in deepening the information from the participants of both individual and group interviews.

As a form of social studies, looking at diverse cultures and community groups such as schools is noteworthy when the purpose of the study is taken into account. In this particular study, the attempt to cover different school levels was limited by geographical area convenience. The four participating schools were all in the same district of Solomon. They were from different levels of public schooling under MoEC as units of analysis that enriched the investigation, narrative and rationalisation of the investigated phenomena. Other schools (i.e. private schools and public schools under MoRA) which did not share characteristics in terms of teacher management and accountability were, hence, not taken into account in the study.
Chapter IV
Findings

This chapter presents the findings from the interviews with the participants in the four schools. The narratives in this chapter are presented on the basis of the research question sequence. However, to provide a rich description, the early parts of every school case describe important historical and sociological aspects of the schools to better understand how teachers have been recruited and developed. These aspects also provide the reason for selecting the cases as rich ones for the purposes of this research. Following that, the main account employs socio-historical themes and categories leading to the answer of the research questions. The comparisons of different stakeholder groups’ perceptions are explained in every school's case findings.

A. Neverland Primary School
A.1. The Rise of Neverland

The history of Neverland Primary School played an important part in its improvement journey to become a new education entity among surrounding schools in the eastern outskirts of Yogyakarta. This school was previously two different schools which merged into the current school (Neverland) through a regrouping process in early 2000. The Ministry of Home Affairs regulation No. 421.2/2501/Bangda/1998 on Guidelines for Elementary School Merger (Regrouping) are aimed at managerial and financial efficiency. When the two cultures assimilated, there were frictions and tensions among the united staff caused by the dynamics of the newly formed school that have brought about changes in the organisation.

Dion, one of the senior teachers, said, “The school almost collapsed. It's always a source of banter. Shame on us that entire students in the school were only 78, that's really shameful. Dami, a long serving non-permanent teacher, described the school as ‘a cowshed’. Its performance (based on grade six students’ results) was in the bottom rank among other schools in the sub-district Depok.
These difficult conditions had led the committed teachers to work harder for the sake of the school’s reputation. Dion and Marsha explained it did not take long for the school to rise to be in the top ten schools in the sub-district of Depok. These facts reflect Neverland’s significant improvement.

The stakeholders’ voices regarding the teacher and school improvement comprised teacher pathways and non-pathway drives. Three themes were significant to explain the impact: the importance of school culture formation, the dilemma of selecting, developing, and managing teachers, and recognition of teacher quality by means of different assignments. Exploring these themes led to understanding the stakeholders’ perceptions on: (1) the impact of teachers’ pathways in their practice and development, (2) how the school inducted and developed teachers, and (3) how these diverse pathways contributed in Neverland’s development.

A. 1. 2 Two Different School Cultures

Departing from the former culture of mediocrity in the post-merger era, the school was fortunate to have a firm former principal, Gio. Despite criticisms by teachers of his scathing tongue, he successfully led the merger era. Most teachers admitted that Gio managed to form a significant culture of teaching/learning discipline and progress in terms of academic achievement. Calling the current person as ‘the female principal’, they also noticed how his character as a man differed from Kay.

Dion, one of the senior teachers, did not only see the former principal as a strict and somewhat cold person but he also thought his stature had nurtured a culture of discipline among teachers. Most teachers experiencing his leadership perceived him as an autocratic leader but believed that such character was required at the time of transition. His legacy was a supportive school culture and more disciplined personnel that supported Neverland’s progress.
The school became more established as some teachers transferred to the school from other schools, new government teachers (GTs) arrived from the district, and a few non-permanent teachers (NPTs) were recruited by the school committee. They brought a different nuance to the school atmosphere followed by the arrival of the current principal from another public school in the middle of 2012. The arrival of this new principal and new staff formation, to some extent, created fresh dynamics within the school as perceived by most of the participants.

A. 2. The Impact of Recruitment Pathways on Teacher’s Practice and Development

The participating stakeholder groups mainly voiced three important aspects related to the teachers’ practices and their potential development. The first and the most frequent expression was the significance of experience in handling children in elementary education, for example in maintaining discipline in the classroom. Following that, most of the participants regarded knowledge and competencies earned from a relevant educational background as another determinant which distinguished teachers from different pathways. Another important facet was the inability of the recent recruitment system to predict teachers’ potential characters in the professional domain as stipulated in the Teachers Act. This subsection tries to present the what, why, and how of these three issues. Table 6 below summarises responses from the Neverland participants on the first research question.

Table 6. Responses to how teacher recruitment pathways impact on teacher’s practice and development

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PATH</th>
<th>Strengths</th>
<th>Weaknesses</th>
<th>Development</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| GTs  | • Work & learn quickly  
• Self-confident & self-motivated  
• Pedagogically knowledgeable | • Fumble in front of the class  
• Still learning to teach | • Faster than other pathways with their information technology mastery |
The table shows the mixed impact of different teacher pathways on their practices and development. Some common features can be drawn from the responses, namely: the importance of experience, educational background, and teacher attitude as major elements influencing teachers’ practices and development.

A.2.1 Pathways’ impacts on practices

Most participants in this school felt that teaching in an elementary school in which most of the students came from lower socio-economic status (SES) families required knowledge, experience, and enthusiasm. It meant more teacher efforts were required to educate the students. Consequently, the teachers needed to work harder to help and develop these young learners. Such perceptions impose on their daily practices particularly in the classrooms and in the school in general.

With regard to the different pathways, the participants from different stakeholder groups found it challenging to relate teachers’ pathways to their practices and development. Therefore, the participants based their response on their own experiences and observations of their colleagues’ perceived practice. These two forms of responses were subject to their individual, professional, and societal encounters with their own pathways, colleagues, and school. Different stakeholder groups obviously showed different patterns of answers according to their pathway experiences. For example, the NPTs obviously voiced the importance of experience in recruiting teachers for it had a significant impact on
classroom performance. A similar voice emerged among EATs who experienced a very similar track before getting promoted to be government teachers.

Meanwhile, there were differences in the views expressed by the leaders and supervisors at the school. The principal and two senior teachers, Marsha and Sue, questioned the mental readiness of newly recruited teachers (GTs). Experience in Early Childhood Education, according to these leaders, played a significant role in determining the quality of teacher performance in the classroom. These leaders shared the view with the EATs and NPTs on the importance of experience in primary teaching. Despite having a relevant educational background, the GTs in Neverland often had difficulties dealing with various classroom incidents and children’s uniqueness. On this, Dami said, “Experience-wise, they (EATs) master better, when there are problems like this, then that would be overcome this way. Whereas the new GTs win on theory, but it is not always applicable for children.” Acknowledgement of the GTs’ excellence but lack of experience also came from Marsha, who said, “Until now as I observe, the recently recruited (GTs) are academically knowledgable. Yet, in front of the class, they are not like long-experienced teachers.” There was a strong indication that newly recruited GTs possess the competencies required in primary school teaching but most stakeholders regarded them as requiring more experience.

But Dion, one of the leaders in the school, voiced a more positive tone regarding the competencies and experiences of teachers from GT pathway. He claimed, “Their ability is clear. And I am sure ones with higher basic competencies will be quicker to become (highly competent), and will develop other competencies more quickly because the basic competencies prevail.” He believed that GTs had more potential to develop than the existing teachers in the school. GTs had recently graduated from relevant programs in teachers’ colleges and easily learnt the best practices in elementary education. They would eventually gain experiences as they did their professional tasks as elementary school teachers. Dion believed these keen and fast learning teachers would
develop well for they already possessed professional skills and academic knowledge from the college.

In spite of these different views, in general there was agreement among participating stakeholders that teachers recruited from the generic pen and paper civil servant test (the GTs) possess the higher level academic qualities than teachers from other pathways. The reason according to Camry, Neverland’s ex-supervisor, was that due to administration selection for GTs “requiring Primary School Teacher Education (PGSD – education background), they are more professional. But the other (teachers from) [a] variety of educational backgrounds, even if they have [the] ‘Akta IV’ (teaching license), (they) are not that good.” Dion, Dre, Camry, and the GTs shared this perception although the other teacher pathway groups’ participants believed GTs’ knowledge was not as important as experience. The former observed GTs administrative work, disciplinary records, and professional learning speed in the school. The latter built the opinion on their daily encounters with GTs’ problems in classrooms.

The dilemma of selecting experienced or well educated teachers in Neverland impacted on how the school treated individual teachers. GTs, including the less experienced ones, held more responsibilities as classroom teachers assigned to a grade while NPTs had to shift from a previous position as classroom teachers and become subject (specialist) teachers to make way for the GTs. This created jealousy among the NPTs for they did not believe they were inferior to teachers from other pathways. The participating NPTs believed that the pathway-based teacher assignment of duties put them in survival mode. Concerning this matter, Wendy, an NPT, complained, “We were previously classroom teachers. But since the arrivals of new GTs who just graduated (from college) and were admitted (as civil servants), we were evicted to subject teachers.” Participating teachers in this pathway group shared the same feeling because they perceived that their professional experiences and skills were not acknowledged due to their pathway. They had to fight for promotion to a GT position to receive acknowledgement in the school community. Yet, competition with new college
graduates in the annual pen and paper civil servant test made it really difficult for them to get a more permanent status.

Apart from the pathway-based teacher management, what mattered in Neverland’s teacher induction and development was how the principal assigned teaching tasks to teachers. Only GTs could act as teachers of a grade and their assignment depended on what the school perceived as quality basis. According to the leaders and supervisors, the pattern of teacher assignment from one school to another was practically identical. GTs, perceived to be top quality in the school, were allocated to grades six or five (levels that were nearing the NEs). The poorer quality teachers were assigned to teach grades Three or Four so that the school’s academic priority is not at risk. Grades One and Two were allocated to experienced but less competent senior teachers because they dealt with younger students who, according to the NPTs and EATs, needed patient teachers.

The school’s academic priority to succeed in the NEs for grade VI students obviously influenced this teaching assignment pattern. It has become a common pattern in schools in the Solomon district since the district only came fourth out of five regencies in the Special Province of Yogyakarta. These teacher assignment arrangements had a significant impact on the development of teachers as professionals in an elementary school like Neverland. Marsha, an NPT who experienced a lack of opportunities for professional development in the previous leadership era, warned:

“Grade 4 teachers should not stick at grade 4. Later, when grade 1 teachers are put in the same grade all the time, their knowledge, would be, what’s it like, ... a never sharpened knife, dumb. This is what I want: teachers of grades 1 – 2 – 3 get rotations also grades 4 – 5 – 6. So in the final national examination, grade 6 teachers do not only teach (grade six portion). (They) can teach grade 4 (materials) because grade 6 subjects are complex. It could help; the grade 5 could become ready (for NEs). Such (rotation) would create development (for teachers).

Dion, who was regarded as the best teacher in the school for his many years of experience in handling Grade VI students, understood the importance of
the quality of teaching in earlier years in achieving success with the Grade VI students. Using the image of himself as a striker in a soccer team, he said, “As I teach in the upper level, I really know. Because if the lower grade (teachers) does well, it is like passed a great ball in front of the goal, just put it in. But when my two lower grades (4 & 5) are not effective because the teachers are not good, oh, it’s really very difficult.” The fact that all teachers need to know and support one another in all levels matched the idea of rotating teachers previously posed by Marsha. This helps teachers to develop and gives them opportunities to learn new learning groups and materials.

Unfortunately, the school did not adopt such a rotation approach and kept the same teaching assignment arrangements. New government teachers as Randy and Landy also complained of the lack of development opportunities compared to their colleagues who worked in other schools. When opportunities come, they complained the school tended to appoint senior teachers in grades four, five, or six. On this matter, Marsha had a different point to explain. “The obstacle is teachers who are not learning. Rarely, (does a teacher learn) when s/he does not take courses. As I said, teaching in these classes (higher grades) without being forced. Let’s say, s/he never teaches grade 4, when s/he does it, s/he improves. If (s/he) remains in that grade, (s/he) can’t do anything.” Thus, without rotation of all teaching staff, it is impossible for the teachers to feel the tension of teaching higher grades and to be involved in more professional development activities. The message is clear: The school priority is to attain the highest possible results for Grade VI students in the final national examination. To do that, the school must prepare students from grade four since the examination materials are taken from grade four to six.

In general, Neverland’s stakeholders saw that recruitment pathways had a patterned impact on teacher practice and development. However, the stakeholders also viewed a teacher’s previous professional training and experience had contributed to different assignment patterns across pathways. For NPTs, their pathway into teacher already put them in second-rate school staffing placements due to the pathway-based teacher assignment employed by the school. As a result,
they had to shift to roles as subject (specialist) teachers when new government teachers arrived. This had limited their potential to develop like other teachers and created pathway-based segregation of teaching staff. At the same time, segregation of quality also occurred among GTs on the basis of teaching assignments. Young GTs felt there was a lack of professional development opportunities compared to seniors and their colleagues working in other schools. Some staff proposed teacher rotation across grades so that everyone could learn new knowledge and skills. This would also allow teachers to gain more professional development opportunities rather than being stuck in the same grade all the time.

A.2.2 Pathways’ impact on teacher development

With the professional knowledge gained through sufficient pre-service training, GTs were well equipped professionally. While teachers from other pathways regarded them as less experienced, GTs earned praise for their knowledge and learning speed from almost all of the stakeholder groups. Dion called the knowledge as ‘potential’ to develop these teachers in Neverland. Other teachers called the quality ‘intelligence’ ‘knowledgeable’ and ‘smart’. Amidst the criticism towards GTs’ lack of experience, Dre argued, “Their performance! When I say that GTs perform well, (I mean) how they master the materials, it’s the main thing. The methodologies are obviously going to develop by themselves. Yet, what [is] questionable are the two earlier aspects, personal and social.” These two quotes show that experience mattered but that this was seen to develop with more teaching assignments. Thus, in their opinions, rather than questioning a teacher’s experience, identifying the characteristics of the teacher was more important. Such early recognition of teacher nature helps in the development of teachers in the profession. The message is to develop and maintain the teacher’s professional attitude to learning.
Teachers from other pathways enter the school from various educational backgrounds. Some of them were not graduates of teacher colleges and, hence, struggled to meet professional demands. Dion even said that a few of them had chosen teaching due to their failures in other walks of life. Yet, not all EATs and NPTs were weak performers, and some were keen to pursue further education and teaching licensure. Dre, the Head of the Teaching Staff Development Centre (P2TK) in the district, declared his preference for candidates with relevant academic qualifications. However, he also warned that such candidates do not always possess the right professional attitudes because their recruitment was based on a generic pen and paper test.

Most of the participants believed that the benefits of experience came with more teaching assignments but, as Dre and Dion argued, teachers also needed to possess professional knowledge and right attitudes. Generic recruitment might have been able to detect intelligent candidates but it was still unable to identify their attitudes in the profession. According to all participants at Neverland, enthusiasm is the main driver of a teacher’s development particularly when supported by a favourable school system. They called it ‘individual character’ and argued that it only emerged through different professional assignments and social encounters.

In almost all interviews with the participating stakeholders, the significance of individual attitude in teacher induction and development was mentioned. Dre and other stakeholders viewed it as the ‘unidentifiable element’ in the generic recruitment pathway. Thus, whether a new GT would fit and could develop further in the school community depended much on his/her attempts to make sense of the problems s/he found in the classroom or school. Cathy, a senior teacher who came from EAT pathway, when asked about what drives development explained, “Aaa ... from ourselves, coming from inability, from ‘why doesn’t it work to teach this way, how?’ From that point, (I) tried to have the ability. Yeah, (it’s) from ourselves.” Such assertiveness, according to most of
the participants, could not be seen in the short time and took time to be identified and nurtured.

In terms of development, teachers from NPT pathway showed a different awareness of the qualities that were expected from them. The NPTs admitted they did not have the relevant educational background to teach in elementary schools despite attempts to get a teaching license. As a result, different standards of practice existed in the school and most stakeholders acknowledged it. Wendy claimed, “As NPTs we are always observed ... Here an NPT should not cross the boundaries. There is a clear margin wall .... because indeed, sometimes discrimination exists.” This statement shows a clarification of quality segregation on the basis of teacher pathway which occurred in the school as discussed in the previous subsection.

Consequently, NPTs who shifted from teaching a grade to subject teacher roles had to find their own ways to learn the new role assigned to them. Wendy, for example, was placed in a computer teaching role following the arrival of new GTs and she had to learn computer science by herself to maintain her position. She added, “If we do not improve ourselves, we fall behind the students (who) learn from outside information. That’s shameful so we must not be over confident but better be a tutor who is one step ahead of the students.” This kind of feeling did not always exist among teachers in Neverland. While a few teachers were still not committed to improving their practice, the NPTs, on the other hand, felt they had to change due to new regulations and fluctuating conditions in Neverland.

A.3. The impact of different pathways on the school’s efforts to develop its teachers

While the teachers’ own initiative to learn was seen as the main driver for further development, participants also emphasised the school’s efforts to create opportunities. “Wendy said that we improve due to the demand. It’s absolutely right, we are responsible for ourselves. Later the (school) environment will influence us, where we want to go, it does include us” (Yeremia). The participants
explained how certain development initiatives within the school had been successful, such as Subject Teacher Forum (MGMP) meetings, training sessions, workshops, supervision, and monitoring. The participating teachers regarded MGMP as the most informative and influential method of development, however, the teacher forum meetings were not held regularly. The monitoring program by the principal and clinical supervision by the supervisors occurred more regularly in Neverland; training and workshops were also available at all levels, but these were not always accessible for all teachers.

A straightforward criticism of school efforts towards encouraging teacher development came from Dion, who had been involved in both the previous and current management era. He claimed, “The current principal has not ... has not advanced the encouragement to improve ... not yet. But the former (principal) was very obvious in encouraging the new young (teachers) to progress.” In line with Dion, the GT group highlighted the lack of PD opportunities for young teachers in Neverland as they knew that there existed more opportunities for development from their external network links. Most stakeholder groups criticised Kay’s lack of courage to take more risks in creating developmental opportunities for school improvement.

The previous perceptions of teacher practice and development potential put the GTs in front in terms of professional aspects of the job, such as administrative preparation, evaluation, and discipline. EATs, already possessing practical experience through their pathways, were able to handle children in more competent ways. NPTs, perceived as the least competent teachers, worked to fill-in the gaps in school roles; as a result, they had a limited role in the learning process, restricted contribution to the school’s priorities, and narrow access to developmental opportunities.

In this way, teacher motivation seems to reflect recruitment pathway and subsequent teaching and professional development opportunities. However, the main driver in teacher development was still seen to be the teachers’ personal attributes to learn. The existing teacher recruitment system, according to the participants, could not identify specific character traits to make distinctions
among potential teachers. The result of this shortfall in the current teacher recruitment system leads to the question about how the school inducts and develops its teachers, which will be discussed in the following subsection.

A.3.1. Generic Induction and Distinct Teacher Treatment

With 20 personnel – including the principal, classroom teachers, subject teachers and one sports teacher – Neverland has emerged as a rising school out of 41 primary schools in the sub-district of Denver. Its students’ performance in the NEs placed it in the top 25% of the 41 schools in the last three years. The previous administration under the former disciplined principal led Neverland to its current status. Kay, as the successor, decided to push forward and encouraged teachers to complete their four-year bachelor education – she was anticipating the upcoming regulation of four years’ minimum education for elementary school teachers. Teacher assignment according to their individual competencies and experience was another component she regarded as important in maintaining the school’s level of accomplishment. As a result, she did not make any substantial changes to the teaching assignment pattern but merely adapted the earlier management’s policies.

In terms of teacher induction, Neverland did not implement any specific course of activities, regardless of pathway. Randy explained, “We just accompanied (senior) teachers giving instruction in the classroom. It’s like observation, you know.” However, similar to other GTs and promoted EATs, she attended a two-week regionally based induction from the Bureau of Local Staffing as a member of the civil servant corps. Another young GT, Ema, added, “Yeah, in the GT pathway, (the generic induction) does exist, but I don’t know for NPT. In the GT pathway, it was detailed during the pre-service induction. It should be like this and that!” This form of generic induction, unfortunately, did not involve the teacher’s role as a member of staff. As a result, classroom observation was the only form of job-related induction these teachers had from the school.
Their experience as assistant teachers prior to their promotion was more than an induction for the EATs, because they engaged in all practical aspects of elementary school teaching. These teachers had previously worked under contract triennially following a minimum service of six months as a non-permanent teacher. After being promoted as civil servants, EATs underwent a similar process of generic induction. They already possessed the practical experience in real classrooms and school settings through their lengthy pathway.

The NPTs experienced a rather divergent path of induction. Each of them came into the school through distinct processes. Yeremia applied formally to the previous principal and had to face a range of tests in her recruitment. While GTs and EATs experienced generic induction in relation to their status as civil servants, Izzy and Wendy of NPTs went into teaching instantly. Wendy received the vacancy information from her neighbour who taught at Neverland and then applied formally to the former principal. She was immediately admitted and assigned to teach grade two. Dami and Izzy, who arrived in the two different schools before the unification, were invited to help teaching by the principals of their respective schools due to impending teacher retirements. Thus, basically all NPTs went into teaching immediately after the recruitment process without any job-related induction.

Such immediate involvement in teaching resulted in the recruits’ unpreparedness to cope with the demand in schools and particularly in classrooms. The EATs and NPTs questioned the ‘mental readiness’ of the recruited GTs to handle young children. The NPTs were criticised for their lack of skills in lesson planning and learning evaluation. Despite their experience, several EATs were unwilling to take the responsibility of teaching higher grade students. These facts, according to Marsha and Dion, forced both of them to remain in their positions as grade six teachers. The reason is that other teachers did not want to hold the burden of maintaining the school’s results in the NEs.
The school’s priority to succeed in the NEs shaped both the opportunities and limitations for teacher development. Teachers of grades four, five, and six had more professional development opportunities because they played important roles in national examination success. Marsha told her colleagues, “If you never teach upper grades, it will be difficult to get access to training sessions. Most of the materials are from upper grades. If you stay in grade 3 all the time, it’s really difficult. (You) don’t know the development of upper grades’ materials, for example, about ‘reproduction’ (you) do not master.” The statement indicates the influence of the school’s priority (in the NEs) in determining teaching assignment policy adopted by Neverland. The burden of responsibility for teaching grade six has become an open secret in almost all elementary schools, according to Surrey, the school supervisor.

Once I had a friend who taught sixth grade for more than twenty years ... always handled grade six. But there were also retired teachers who never teach sixth grade until pension because they did not dare. Not only (one or two) but a lot of teachers who already had decades of tenure but never taught grade six. They were afraid of (teaching) grade six. (Surrey)

More opportunities are available for upper grade classroom teachers including ones from the district because of the focus on the NEs. These positions are definitely held by what the school regards as competent GTs. Marsha argued, “Frankly, now if there are things (instruction/assignment/workshop/training) in the district, (the school) asks the GTs (to attend). Though, in the recent past, some NPTs did some parts. That’s the rule.” The gradation of teachers in Neverland occurred among GTs through grade assignments and between GTs/EATs and NPTs in the separation of classroom and subject teachers.

The division determined the available opportunities for teacher development in each teacher group. Competent senior GTs who handled grade six students gained more developmental opportunities in line with their ‘prioritised’ responsibilities. All stakeholders shared a clear opinion: The public sees these teachers as the ‘output makers’ in elementary schooling regardless of the six year
process. Newly recruited GTs who did not have the courage to teach upper grade according to Dion, Marsha, and Cathy, taught lower grades together with a few seniors perceived to be less advantaged. When all GTs and EATs had been allocated in different grades, the school assigned NPTs for the rest of the positions including ones as subject teachers.

The arrangement of teaching assignments and roles is aimed at meeting the school’s ultimate priority: success in the NE. As a result, teachers from different pathways are treated differently on the basis of perceived status and competencies. Such differential treatment has created segregation of teachers and affected their potential contribution to school improvement. How teacher pathways influence school improvement will be discussed in the following subsection.

A.4. Pathways’ Impact on School Improvement

The difference in teachers’ quality, different treatment of teachers from certain pathways, and the implementation of the NE impacted on what and how teachers contributed to school improvement. The teaching assignment pattern constrained certain teachers to learn different challenges and materials according to Marsha and Dion. The pattern resulted in an on-going form of similar routines and encounters among certain teachers who were either afraid of teaching other grades or unable to access different teaching opportunities.

The consistent pattern of assignment contributed to teachers’ perceptions on what they could contribute to Neverland’s progress. The perceived senior and competent GTs, such as Marsha and Dion, taught grade six students who faced the NE. These teachers held the highest responsibility because of their task’s proximity to the school’s academic priority. The importance of the school achieving score improvement in the NE became the reference and, according to these two teachers, parents normally asked, “Who are the teachers?” As a result,
these teachers were seen as having a direct contribution to the school’s improvement.

Young GTs with their perceived progressive qualities were seen as needing to wait in terms of giving a direct contribution.

“The arrival of these young teachers recruited from the (civil servant) test has contributed substantially. Indeed, we see them as capable individuals but just not experienced yet.” (Dion)

The leaders, teachers from different pathways, and supervisors also recognised and appreciated the contribution of these young GTs. They mentioned the GTs’ contribution through different names such as: advanced technology, discipline, intelligence, and administratively solicitous. Through these forms of influence, the young GTs, according to all of the participants, brought about changes in the attitudes of the other teachers and the school atmosphere.

EATs and NPTs with their experience provided additional value to the learning-teaching process in Neverland. The way they nurtured and educated students of the early grades shaped the younger students’ learning behaviour. It became a critical foundation to help the higher grades’ teachers to increase student achievement. Izzy explained, “It’s true, the end result is the score, but how we educate the children of this nation forward as children who have a noble character is currently being discussed at the higher level. That's it and I agree. Start from the smallest things, familiarise the children with discipline!” Such a transfer of values, according to the NPTs and EATs, is not second to the school’s priority in the NEs. While these teachers were commonly regarded as inferior to the GTs in terms of student achievement, they argued that they could still contribute strongly to the students’ behavioural development.

Voices on the indirect influence of teacher pathways on school improvement were obvious among the groups of stakeholders. Having been in leadership roles in Neverland and other public elementary schools, Camry and Surrey believed that pathways did not have a direct impact on school
improvement. They argued that what mattered was the teacher’s educational training. With the relevance of their educational backgrounds as reflected in the current recruitment, young GTs could learn and work fast and were more professional. Leaders viewed the teachers’ contribution to the school improvement as a matter of attitude and performance rather than pathways. What the teachers did and how they behaved in the classroom and in the school was more important in the eyes of the few senior teachers and principals.

Despite the implicitness of teacher pathways’ impact on school improvement, several themes recurred in the interviews. These themes were important in understanding the contribution of each pathway in Neverland’s progress. School priorities, the teaching assignment, and segregation of teachers by pathway were linked to the type of contribution of teachers from each pathway made to the school’s improvement goals. Table 7 below represents the teachers from different pathways’ contribution systematically.

**Table 7. Impact of teacher pathways on school improvement**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pathway</th>
<th>Contribution</th>
</tr>
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</table>
| **GTs** | • Competent seniors are seen as responsible for academic achievement (achieving & maintaining school’s priority) and often acting as the principal’s board of advisors.  
• The junior ones enhance the pedagogical knowledge, technological aspects, administrative discipline, and networking across the school. |
| **EATs** | • With their experience in different settings and with learner types, they could handle various kinds of children.  
• They could provide examples of righteous conduct in front of the learners and could shape students’ behaviour. |
| **NPTs** | • They help the school in connecting it to local communities.  
• To some extent, they help EATs in fostering young children’s behavioural development.  
• Being subject (specialist) teachers, they can enrich themselves through self-learning and improve the students through extracurricular activities. |

The table shows the array of contributions from the teacher pathways in Neverland. The contribution of teachers from different pathways is related to their roles and involvement in the learning-teaching process in the school. The order
reflects what the participants saw as ‘quality teachers’ in the teaching assignment pattern employed there. Each pathway has a portion of contribution according to their responsibilities. Competent senior GTs, in direct link to the school’s priority, were seen to be the most important in improving and maintaining academic achievement. Junior GTs added to the qualities of the staff through fresh knowledge in pedagogy, technology, administration, and networking. EATs had more varied previous experiences as NPTs. NPTs connected the school to local communities and fostered young children’s behavioural development through aesthetics and extra-curricular activities.

A.5. Clustering Stakeholders’ Views

This study clusters participants into groups of stakeholders to see whether there are differences in the perceptions in the phenomena. In Neverland’s case, there are the three teacher pathway groups, a group of leaders consisting of the principal and three senior teachers, and two supervisors. Table 8 describes the differences of perceptions among the groups and within groups.

Table 8. Representation of stakeholder groups’ views

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Impact on teacher practices and development</th>
<th>Impact on how the school inducts and develops the teachers</th>
<th>Impact on school quality improvement</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LEADs</td>
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<td>√ √ √ √</td>
<td>√ X X X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPVSRs</td>
<td>√ X</td>
<td>√ O</td>
<td>√ X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NPTs</td>
<td>X X X O</td>
<td>√ √ √ X</td>
<td>X X X √</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EATs</td>
<td>√ X √ X</td>
<td>√ √ √</td>
<td>√ √ √</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GTs</td>
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<td>X X X √</td>
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Gist

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>√</th>
<th>Strong perception on an issue with clear explanation on the basis of evidence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>X</td>
<td>Other opinions different from or contrastive to √</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O</td>
<td>Neutral or abstain views without given further elaboration</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There were different perceptions among the leaders about the impact of pathways on teacher practices and development. While Dion believed that GTs learnt quickly and that this was very valuable, Kay and Marsha valued more
highly the NPTs and EATs’ experience-based performance. Sue had a neutral standpoint regarding the issue but expressed her admiration of the recent GT recruits’ professional practices. Recently recruited GTs in Neverland attracted other stakeholders’ attention for their discipline and information technology mastery.

The two supervisors differed in the way they perceived the teachers’ practice in the school. Camry argued that GTs convincingly emerged from their training with a good command of all learning-teaching processes. On the other hand, Surrey compared them to EATs in terms of student-teacher relations. He believed that EATs performed better in this area. He additionally noticed that the expectation for promotion to become GTs drove some eligible NPTs to work seriously and meet the school’s expectations.

The NPT group highlighted their advantages in terms of professional experience despite their lack of extensive training. They admitted that GTs learnt quickly, but emphasised their own experiences had helped a lot in teaching. As ‘subject and extracurricular teachers’ they had to learn new things by themselves. Other than Yeremia, most of them believed they were second to GTs and EATs in terms of their status in the school and their access to development opportunities.

All EATs recognised the superiority of the GTs’ academic learning and technological skills. However, they criticised GTs’ lack of authority in working with children in difficult situations. Similar to NPTs, EATs saw their own key contribution to the school mostly as the transfer of values rather than through increasing academic achievements since the arrival of GTs.

GTs with professional training believed they were superior to NPTs and EATs in terms of administration and discipline. In contrast with other pathways, they believed they had few developmental opportunities in Neverland compared to their colleagues in the other schools. Their broad professional network and access to information informed their ideas about professional learning opportunities in Neverland. Three of the participating GTs expressed their eagerness to find more professional challenges in the future. These views stood in
contrast to the other pathways’ perceptions about the school efforts in developing GTs.

### B. Wilshire Junior School

The second school in the study catered for students of year 7 to 9. The school was established in 1977 as a filial of Vivo Junior School in the City, one of the best junior schools in the city. Built close to public housing and villages in the northern area near the outer city ring road, Wilshire has grown as an emerging entity in the district both in terms of quantity and quality. The school’s national examination results show its increasing performance over the last five years. With 40 staff and more than 600 students, Wilshire continues to grow substantially as an education entity and is an interesting case to study.

I approached the school through a relative who used to work in the school as a member of the teaching staff. He told me that it would not be easy for me to enter Wilshire and conduct research there. His advice was true, I received a cold reception from the principal on my first visit to the school. Even as the fieldwork progressed, the principal was still reluctant to participate in an individual interview. I insisted that his voice and information would be significant in the study. Finally, I managed to interview him, his deputies, the school supervisors, and the groups of teachers from four different pathways.

#### B.1. Socio-historical Characteristics

Different from the previous school case which had many low SES students, Wilshire’s students, according to the participating stakeholders, are mostly from middle SES. Every year, it admits 216 new students divided into six learning groups. The number of students in every learning group is reduced periodically to meet the teacher-students ratio required by the government. The current ratio is 1:16. Hence, it meets the government’s standard of process in the
regulation of national education standards. Almost all of the teachers have completed undergraduate study and 80% of them have already passed the certification programs. These facts confirm the social standing of Wilshire junior school among the other schools in the district.

Until a decade ago, Wilshire was regarded as a marginal junior school in a suburban community. The previous school management took the decision to focus on increasing the school’s academic reputation. However during that period, the school earned a lot of trophies and awards for its extracurricular achievements. According to Daphne, the deputy of students’ affairs, the former principal asked her to collect the arts and sports awards and display them in the school lobby. The current principal, Harry, initiated the shift from extracurricular to academic achievements that drove the school’s increasing academic rank. With the shift, teachers have played a significant role in improved achievement.

B.2. Impact of Teachers’ Pathways on Their Practice and Development

In terms of teacher practice, diverse voices came out of the interviews with school leaders, supervisors, and teachers from different pathway groups. Darryl, the deputy of facilities in Wilshire argued that GTs, with their academic and pedagogic mastery, performed better professionally. The other deputy (of curriculum), Dianne, saw the different period of recruitment resulted in different quality and performance of teachers across time. Similar to the previous school case, NPTs in this school strongly perceived the significance of professional experience in teacher practice. Reflecting on her pathway to teaching through a scholarship bond (SBT), Drew recognised her lack of knowledge, training, and experience at that time. In contrast, one of the interviewed supervisors, Barry, claimed the superiority of scholarship bond teachers (SBTs) in their practices.

These different views on the impact of pathways on teacher practice and development were subject to the participants’ training background and personal experiences. Therefore, even within the same group of stakeholders, there were
different viewpoints. For instance, Vito, a GT, had a different feeling and experience from her colleagues about her initial assignment. Similarly, Barry and Choppy did not share the same opinion regarding the pathways’ impact on practice despite supervising the same school. This subsection clusters the stakeholders’ perceptions on the basis of teacher pathway groups, leaders, and supervisor.

The most interesting responses emerged from the SBT group. Three of the four interviewed teachers, Drew, Amber, and Grit, admitted their unpreparedness to teach after being recruited through the service bond pathway. Drew thought it was very easy to be admitted as a teacher through the scholarship pathway. As a result, she felt she did not have sufficient academic knowledge and teaching skills to teach junior school students. Grit added, “Yeah, we felt the inadequacy (of pedagogical skills and knowledge) so we learnt (to teach) as we performed. It was like a trial and error, you know. We grasped what to do in the classroom.” Another teacher, Amber, felt the same about her first teaching assignments. Comparing to GTs, she considered that SBTs lacked aspects of mental readiness and instructional technology mastery. The three teachers felt that it was due to their short professional training at college which was for two years.

Opinions about the GTs’ readiness and advancement in technology were echoed across stakeholder groups. Dianne and Daphne in the leader group believed the GTs’ performance excelled compared to the other pathways in terms of professional discipline and technology. Most GTs stated their self-confidence as they believed their pathway allowed them to meet the demands of their jobs easily. Stubby (a GT) claimed, “I really enjoyed my first assignment. I felt needed, confident and proud hence did not find any problem in terms of practice.” GTs in Wilshire, as voiced by Heady, believed their strong teaching practices were also driven by the students’ high demand and the school’s academic culture. Praise for the GTs’ advanced technological mastery also came from one of the EATs, Norrie. She said she had developed new skills applying technology to her preparation, teaching, and evaluation through a few active GTs in the school.
Gus, an EAT, viewed that his pathway starting as an NPT had given him sufficient professional experience and skills as a counselling teacher. The promotion he earned in 2004, gave him comfort in terms of job security. “I learned from my previous path as NPT and AT. Now, I know how to deal with teenagers better than I did and as well as my other tasks.” Gus and Norrie (EATS) believed that their current teaching practices had developed through their pathway and their experiences and encounters with colleagues, assignments, and students.

There were divergent voices among the NPTs in this junior school. Debbie, Maggie, and Yuri entered the school after being recruited by the principal. Debbie and Maggie were asked to teach by the principal after conducting a teaching practicum in Wilshire. Yuri, however, had to start as the school librarian before being given a chance to teach social sciences. Debbie and Maggie who had relevant professional training argued that they did not feel inferior despite having moved into the job through this pathway. Yuri, on the other hand, felt he struggled to understand all aspects of teaching during the first assignments as he had not attended a teachers’ college.

Unlike these three teachers, Bandy (NPT) was a well-known tennis coach in the regency and recommended by the previous Head of the District to teach sports in Wilshire. For him, entering the school through this pathway meant he had to actively search for development information in the district. With the information and updates, he found the teaching tasks much easier, in particular how to handle and train students in sports activities at school.

In terms of development, Barry the school’s current supervisor noted how several SBTs had transformed into expert teachers. In his opinion, these SBTs showed significant improvements in instructional practices and curriculum change adaptation. Drew explained that she and her colleagues began to know ‘teaching’ after attending a series of trainings called ‘PKG’ (strengthening the work of teachers) to reinforce secondary teachers’ competencies. This training was
initially supported by UNDP (United Nation Development Program) which ran from 1978 to 1984. This project was then supported by the World Bank after 1984. One of the legacies of the project was the formation of clustered teacher discussion groups at school, sub-district, and district levels.

While three pathways of EAT, SBT, and GT shared similar views regarding the availability of opportunities to develop, NPTs complained about the restricted career prospects for them. Debbie and Yuri were quite vocal about the process of selection of certain teachers both for professional and career development. While they recognised that they were not permanent employees, both teachers demanded equal opportunities for all teachers regardless of their pathways. Details of what and how the school makes sense of the issue will be discussed in the following section.

B.3 How does the School Induct and Develop Teachers?

B.3.1. The Absence of School Induction

Nationally and locally there have been teacher development projects and programs as mentioned in the previous section. This section elaborates what and how the school works within this context to develop teachers with respect to their pathways.

After recruitment, there was no specific instructional induction for teachers from any pathway. SBTs, EATs, and GTs had a two-week general induction as civil servants during their probation periods. The two week general induction program aimed to introduce the recruited personnel (including teachers) to their rights and responsibilities as civil servants. The training does not relate directly to the teaching profession, and therefore instructional matters are not covered.

NPTs in Wilshire did not receive the general induction program because of their recruitment pathway. Maggie, Debbie, and Yuri only had an orientation
program during their teaching practicum as teachers’ college students. As Bandy said, “We (NPTs) must move alone to know what and how it is in the district. I mean we (who are employed by the school) need to know any information up there to match the other colleagues.” All the teachers in this school basically began teaching straight away after recruitment without having any school induction.

Three of the interviewed SBTs, Drew, Amber, and Grit, found the PKG development program for secondary school teachers a form of instructional induction. Unfortunately, they participated in this program after few years of service in the school. Thus, it made sense that teachers from this pathway were struggling to teach students in the early years of their assignments.

EATs with their significant experiences as NPTs and ATs regarded their experiences as their orientation before being promoted to civil servant positions. Gus and Norrie noted the absence of a particular school induction in their initial career had hindered their instructional development.

The absence of school based induction was crucial in the further development of teachers in Wilshire. Drew, Amber, and Grit, for example, felt they lacked pedagogical skills in their first five years of assignment as a teacher due to their short professional training. “I was confused at that time because of the short training (in the college) yeah, only two years with emphasis more on the (content) materials then perhaps still lacked of pedagogical skills not like (GTs) now” (Drew). After five years of service, Drew joined the PKG training program which she considered to give ‘a real pedagogical knowledge’ of how to teach students. Bandy and Yuri had to learn by themselves how to prepare teaching materials, class management and evaluation. In other words, the absence of the school in providing induction had, to some extent, shaped the way the teachers had developed professionally.

**B.3.2 Patterns of Development**
Teacher development in Wilshire junior school was marked by three different factors, namely: the pathways through which they entered teaching, the subjects and the grades they taught. These three forces combined to create a pattern of development that was unique to each teacher. However, they performed differently in relation to the school’s efforts to develop its teachers. The pattern of how the three features interacted in shaping the teaching assignment and ultimately teacher development opportunities at Wilshire is shown in Table 9.

Table 9. Pattern of Teacher Development Opportunities Segregation

| Pathways | Subjects | | | Grades |
|----------|---------|---|---|
| | Nationally Examined | Others | Final year | Others |
| GTs | Most | Less | Most | Less |
| EATs | More | Less | More | Less |
| SBTs | More | Less | More | Less |
| NPTs | Less | Least | Less | Least |

The most distinctive segregation can be seen in the NPTs’ restricted development opportunities. All NPTs regardless of their subjects and competencies were assigned to teach students in grades seven and eight. Although one NPT taught one of the four nationally examined subjects, s/he only had a limited professional learning opportunities compared to teachers from other pathways. Debbie, an NPT who taught English, expressed her disappointment in the interview. “I am involved in the school’s subject teacher discussion group but it’s only discussing small matters. But … when there are external activities, the school always sends Mr. Vito.” Additionally, according to her, an NPT would never become a homeroom teacher in this school due to their pathway. The school principal explained that, for official purposes, only teachers with a certificate of appointment from the staffing bureau could hold the homeroom teacher positions. In terms of pathway differences, such restrictions peculiarly affected NPTs.

The pattern of teacher development was also shaped by the grades assigned to teachers. As students of grade IX have national examinations, teaching for the students’ success in the exam became an explicit priority in
Wilshire. For that reason, the principal valued what he perceived as *composure* and *seniority* among teachers first in assigning teachers to roles. Like his deputies, he believed seniority brought experience and maturity in completing professional tasks especially in trying to increase the school’s academic success. With that in mind, Harry preferred to allocate senior, mature teachers to students of grade IX. As a result, NPTs such as Debbie and Yuri complained about the inclination to select such teachers ahead of them.

Another facet that shaped the pattern of teacher development in Wilshire junior school apart from pathways and grade assignment was the subject that teachers taught. The four subjects examined nationally, Math, Bahasa Indonesia, English, and Science, were seen as more important in the school because marks in these subjects had the potential to increase the school’s rank. Teaching hours and professional development opportunities were abundant for teachers of these subjects. This tendency created discrimination of ‘more important’ and ‘less important’ subjects among teachers, students, and school management. Despite coming through the GT pathway, Dwight (who taught Vernacular) and Stubby (who taught Religious Education) noted the lack of attention from the school management to their subjects. In other words, development opportunities were somewhat limited for teachers of other subjects and their involvement in the school’s main activities were also constrained.

In addition to the different pathways, to a certain degree the school’s main priority in achieving high national exam results influenced the way Wilshire developed its teachers. This priority has narrowed the school’s focus to the four examined subjects and has resulted in the other subjects being overlooked. The examination, given to grade IX, also affected how the schools assigned teaching tasks to its staff. In summary, the pathways impacted on NPTs’ development considerably in comparison to those of other pathways. The school’s academic priority contributed to teacher development segregation according to the teachers’ grade assignments and subject discrimination.
B. 4. Perceptions on Pathways Impact on School Improvement

Considering the different inputs the pathways had on school improvement, Darryl, one of the deputies, argued that “the fine (school) development of, let’s say ... from rank 25 then increasing to rank 5, 6, 7 is more because of the teacher factor, because of the steady teacher management.” Other leaders also viewed the consistency and continuity of staff development became the difference in this school from other schools.

Though most of the stakeholders found it hard to discern the role of pathways on the school improvement, their explanations about the school’s treatment of teachers from different pathways were very useful. For instance, Yuri an NPT who had been in the school for 10 years believed there needed to be rotation of staff through roles at Wilshire. He highlighted the repeated selection of certain staff in the school which he thought limited the capacity of others to participate in its improvement. His colleagues, Maggie and Debbie, criticised the way the principal chose his deputies and other positions without discussing it with the board of teachers. These facts according to these teachers created jealousy among teachers because they perceived the selection was not merit-based.

The principal’s policy to base assignments on composure and seniority had notably created separation of NPTs from the other three pathways in terms of development opportunities. The segregation operated through grade assignments that affected the teachers’ pattern of development and eventually their possible contribution to school improvement. Table 10 below describes how the gradation of teachers and subjects impacts on each pathway’s forms of contribution to the school.

Table 10. Pathways’ contribution to Wilshire Junior School improvement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subjects</th>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Contribution</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GTs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Examined Subjects</td>
<td>IX</td>
<td>School’s main priority</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Examined Subjects</td>
<td>VII/VIII</td>
<td>Indirect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>VII/VIII/IX</td>
<td>Values, Supports, Others</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The contribution patterns of the three pathways (GTs, EATs, and SBTs) look similar and teachers from these pathways normally share similar views regarding development opportunities. The distinction of opportunities that the teachers of the three pathways received was through the subjects and grades they taught. If the principal perceived them to be senior and have composure, they were likely to earn more opportunities and positions. Darryl and Daphne, for example, earned their master’s degrees in technological education with the support from the principal despite missing classes on many occasions.

Moreover, when they taught the four examined subjects in grade XI, plenty of opportunities were available for direct contribution to the school’s academic priority. Teaching the four subjects in lower grades (VII and VIII) for the teachers in Wilshire meant indirect contribution to the school’s academic achievements. The other forms of contribution came from teachers handling the other subjects in all grades. Developmental opportunities were also limited for them compared to the teachers of the four examined subjects.

NPTs, as shown in the table, could only teach grade VII and VIII although they taught one of the four examined subjects. As a result, opportunities for professional development were fewer than for the teachers of grade IX. NPTs’ contribution was, consequently, limited to indirect roles in the school’s academic priority. NPTs who did not teach the four subjects contributed to the school’s improvement through non-academic achievements, values, and other forms of

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>4 Examined Subjects</th>
<th>IX</th>
<th>School’s main priority</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EATs</td>
<td>IX</td>
<td>School’s main priority</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>VII/VIII</td>
<td>Indirect</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>VII/VIII/IX</td>
<td>Values, Supports, Others</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SBTs</td>
<td>IX</td>
<td>School’s main priority</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>VII/VIII</td>
<td>Indirect</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>VII/VIII/IX</td>
<td>Values, Supports, Others</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NPTs</td>
<td>VII/VIII</td>
<td>Indirect</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>VII/XIII</td>
<td>Values, Supports, Others</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
involvement in the school’s agenda. Obviously, NPTs in Wilshire experienced discrimination of treatment due to their pathways as previously expressed by Debbie and Yuri. The inequity limited the NPTs’ contribution can provide to the school.

B. 5. Competing perceptions among stakeholders

Most of the stakeholders were clear about the school’s main priority as captured in the interview with Hardy, the principal. “For school improvement, especially in grade nine, it’s true; there are additional classes for the four subjects in particular for the national examination.” Public demand and limited funding sources led to his decision to focus on academic achievement, particularly the NEs, and trim down extracurricular activities. The priority became the principal’s rationale for assigning senior teachers with a calm demeanour to particular grades. Consequently, the teachers’ voices in the interviews varied regarding the impact of pathways. Table 11 below outlines some of the differences among the stakeholders.

Table 11. Variation of perceptions among Groups of Stakeholders

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Path</th>
<th>On practice &amp; development</th>
<th>On how the school inducts and develops teachers</th>
<th>On school improvement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| SBTs  | • Felt a lack of pedagogical knowledge and skills.  
       • Felt unprepared to teach teenage students. | • Had a generic induction as CSs but had no school induction.  
       • Felt developed after the PKG training programs. | ○ Considered subjects and grades mattered more in relation to the school priority.  
       ○ Perceived themselves as seniors who should exemplify best practices. |
<p>| EATs  | • Already knew what was required by the | • Felt adequately inducted through the previous pathways. | ○ Regarded their contribution to the school as |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School/Students</th>
<th>Gained as many opportunities as GTs and SBTs depending on subjects and grades.</th>
<th>Knowledge, values, and other achievements rather than through test scores.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GTs</td>
<td>Believed that their pathway did not impact on their opportunities.</td>
<td>As fast learning teachers, they became a driving force among staff.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Felt prepared in terms of knowledge, skills, and technology.</td>
<td>Their ability and skills in instructional technology positioned them as advanced teachers in the school.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Their relevant professional training helped in all aspects of the job.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NPTs</td>
<td>Perceived as the school’s rather than the district’s teachers.</td>
<td>Support the students’ academic achievement and extra-hours teaching.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Had to seek assistance from colleagues/seniors on first teaching assignments.</td>
<td>Direct students to upgrade their potential through extracurricular activities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Uncertain about their future development.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School leadership</td>
<td>Saw teachers as being developed through professional assignments.</td>
<td>Calm senior teachers provided ‘stability’ in the staffing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The school already provided opportunities and facilities to develop.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teachers were assigned according to ‘seniority’ and ‘composure’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervisors</td>
<td>NPTs showed the highest learning spirit in their daily</td>
<td>Several perceived-competent GTs assisted the others</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
practices.

- SBTs showed most development over time
- The school conducted team teaching to assist collegial sharing and maintain instructional quality.
- Admitted the distance between the NPTs and the district had put them in an unfavourable position in terms of development.

The school's current instructional technology.

- Current GT recruits showed enhanced discipline and responsibility.
- Academic atmosphere gradually improved by these perceived-competent GTs.

The five individual interviews with the principal and his deputies demonstrated the pride of the school staff concerning the schools’ progress. Harry, whose opinion is shared by his deputies, said, “Any change in the system should pay attention to who is going to play a role at the forefront of implementing such a system, it is teachers, isn't it? Then, the priority should be the teachers.” With such a view, the leaders perceived the school had given all teachers equal opportunities and treatment to develop as professionals regardless of their pathways.

Similar to the views of the leaders, the two participating supervisors argued that teachers had played a crucial role in the recent progress of Wilshire junior school. Barry considered the contributions of SBTs as valuable due to extensive teaching experience in the school. His opinion was based on the current performance of SBTs and a few of them had taken leading positions such as Hardy and Dianne. Chappy believed the learning spirit of NPTs in the school had made them more advanced in terms of teaching practice. Despite differing views on the impact of pathways on teachers’ practice and development, the two supervisors shared the views that the school had treated all teachers from different pathways equally. In their opinion, the teachers’ ability to become effective teachers depended on the individual teacher’s motivation and efforts because the
school had provided sufficient opportunities and that they came from different pathways.

Among the teachers, voices differed within and across the groups of pathways. In the SBT group, three of the four participating teachers believed they initially lacked pedagogical knowledge and skills as they were assigned to teach right after college graduation. Vito was the only SBT who did not feel he was lacking these professional competencies since he had previously been engaged in teaching activities and social organisations.

GTs, EATs, and SBTs were generally positive about the school’s efforts in supporting their development with programs and activities. Most teachers in these pathways believed the school environment, in particular the students’ ability, had forced them to perform professionally well or face being rejected by the students, as had happened to one of their colleagues. However, their opinions diverged on the available opportunities for different subjects and grades. In spite of being a GT, Dwight considered the subject she taught (Local Vernacular) as supplementary since it was not examined in the NEs and therefore not a part of the school’s priority. A similar opinion was shared by Stubby who taught Religious Education which he regarded as a more value-driven subject. Yet, both teachers were contented with the available opportunities and contribution in the school’s improvement through the different forms of influence.

C. Berkshire High School

Established in 1977 as a filial of Sioux Senior High School in the city, Berkshire Senior used to be a popular public school in a rapidly developed suburban area. People from the surrounding villages regarded it as one of the best suburban schools in the northern border area. Mandy, the deputy of curriculum, declared that it was ‘a metropolitan school’ in a suburban area due to its surroundings’ rapid social and physical development. New public housing, stores,
campuses, and entertainment centres had grown quickly around the school, which used to be surrounded by sugar cane plantations and rice fields.

The school leaders argued that the changing environment, to a certain degree, had changed the academic atmosphere of the school. As they observed, the students’ demographic shifted from low socio-economic status (SES) to middle-class SES. It gained the public attention in the early 90s for its academic and extracurricular achievements. The sociological change in its surroundings influenced the nature of the student cohort after 2000s and marked the decline of the school’s achievement. Mandy and her colleague Jackie mentioned that some students were involved in gangster activities and the school’s achievements fell behind several other schools in the district.

Together with these issues, the school management was also unstable with the election of two caretakers before Mackey, the current principal, arrived in April, 2011. Since then, new teachers came in, several transferred, and a few retired or got promoted to supervisors in the district. One of the deputies, Izzet, felt the unsteady dynamics of staff formation in the school had made it difficult to share a united vision among the teachers. As a result, the external and internal conditions created a period of decline in Berkshire.

The new management under the stewardship of Mackey and few middle-aged deputies wanted to drive improvement so the school could regain its place as a top school in the district. Mackey modelled committed behaviour in the effort to renew the school’s academic culture. As the principal, he claimed, “I never arrived after 07.00 am although I lived 40 km away from here.” He also revealed how he modelled punctual examination correction work for his staff despite his workload as a principal. He wanted to develop a new culture in the school where the teachers were disciplined so that the students achieved at a high level.

The participating parties in the study consisted of the principal and four deputies, two supervisors, and twelve teachers from four different groups of teacher pathways. The principals and the deputies provided wide access to contact
targeted teachers for the group interviews. The responses from the participants both in the individual and group interviews were constructive in answering the research questions. Despite the inability of a few teachers to participate due to personal reasons, the information obtained from the teacher groups sufficiently depicted the details of what and how the impact of pathways would be on the teachers and school development.

C.1. How do pathways impact on teacher practices and development?

Groups of stakeholders in Berkshire did not share a similar voice regarding the impact of pathways on teachers’ practices and development. Within and among groups, perceptions were linked to the participant’s own pathway. In the leadership group, for instance, Izzet admired the learning motivation of GTs. Jack, on the other hand, criticised the limited practicum GTs had in college and believed this impacted on their readiness compared to his own pathway of scholarship-bond. A different opinion was posed by Donny, who believed the school’s different involvement in selection for each pathway had an impact. He claimed that as the school management selected the NPTs, “we know what they can possibly do but not with those of the other pathways.” This intra-group variation of perceptions also appeared among EATs, NPTs, and SBTs. Table 12 below summarises the perceived impact of pathways on teacher practice and development in Berkshire.

Table 12. Pathways’ impacts on teacher practice and development in Berkshire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PATH</th>
<th>Strengths</th>
<th>Weaknesses</th>
<th>Development</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| GTs  | o Work faster & learn easily.  
      o Pedagogically knowledgeable. | • Fumble in front of the class.  
      • Still adapt to teaching. | • Faster than other pathways with their instructional technology mastery. |
| EATs | o More experienced in the tasks. | • Less motivated.  
      • Relying on | • Slow learning due to their weaknesses |
The participants from different groups had similar perceptions about the practice and development of GTs in the school. Mary of EAT pathway admitted, “Very often, the current GT recruits can handle the students in the field better than we can.” Dams, who came through the scholarship bond pathway, acknowledged the claim and added, “They can work fast in any aspect of the job. It’s difficult to follow sometimes.” Within the GT group, July argued that the pathway was “influential in the way I believe that I am the right person for the job.” Kate, another GT, believed that her pathway, with a series of practice tests, had helped her to become more prepared for professional assignments. Thus, the impact of pathways extensively ranged from GTs’ increased self-confidence, high learning motivation, and preparedness for the job to their speed of professional performance.

Such positive impact according to Dewey of EATs was due to the professional training experienced by most GTs. He explained, “their loyalty, desire to learn more earnestly, how to master the pedagogy, how to be accepted by the children seems a bit different.” This perception was similar to that of Izzet’s who noticed, “GTs perform better in line with their professional training. The learning motivation is obvious as seen from their assignments.” He also noticed the diminishing performance among EATs after promotion to GTs. Dewey, an EAT, agreed with the claim and defended the importance of relevant professional training as a distinctive factor among his colleagues.
Two EATs, Shaggy and Vijay, believed that their pathway allowed them to learn through experience due to lengthy pre-service periods. Such a pathway provided them with the benefit of facing the real problems of teachers. As a result, they believed they were more prepared professionally. Comparing himself to GTs, Shaggy said, “their pedagogic aspect is brilliant but when facing the children, they often get complaints, How do they teach the students?” Vijay compared herself positively to GTs, who still looked like they were learning, fumbling, and adjusting to things in their practices.

As the school’s new supervisor, Mordancy, knew little about individual teachers but she believed that teachers develop through the professional experience. Her predecessor, Nagy, shared a similar view regarding teachers and their development:

*When we remember our History teacher, we actually recall his/her personalities not the details of [the] subject matter. Therefore, in the spirit of fostering teachers as a source of values, a source of motivation, a source of inspiration for children, we emphasise their (personal) development. Surely, their professional competence will come together with it.*

Both supervisors avoided justifying teachers’ practices as a direct result of pathways due to their positions. They placed more emphasis on the individual character of the teacher as the factor that differentiated between teachers in their practice and development. They perceived that these individual characters could only be seen after a sufficient period of professional experience.

Most SBTs, according to Dams, came through the pathway due to high demand for teachers and financial difficulties among college students around the 1980s. Early in his teaching career, he noted his colleagues’ practices were far from satisfactory, particularly in the way they prepared, conducted, and evaluated teaching activities. According to Jack, one of the deputies, as more experience was gained, SBTs turned out to be the most advanced teachers in terms of practice and development in Berkshire. From a different perspective, Betty felt her efforts
to get the higher rank in the scholarship-bond program needed to be maintained. She was afraid of being transferred to another school when her performance diminished. Thus, her constant learning and hard work was a result of taking the SBT pathway which ranked teachers for assignments. She did not want to be transferred out and perceived as second to the other teachers in terms of professional performance.

The NPTs also expressed a range of views regarding the impact of pathway on their practice in Berkshire. Ariel expressed his authoritative comfort in front of the students because of his prior teaching experience and because he had passed through a tight competition to become an NPT at Berkshire. In contrast, Ninny felt she lacked training early in her career as an NPT, so that she often got fooled by the students. Hasting, in contrast, mentioned “often the NPTs completed assigned tasks faster than the GTs.” She further reflected that the impact was more due to the individual ability and character of the teacher.

In terms of development, Ninny stated her current pedagogical practice had improved significantly since her initial placements. Ariel also underwent a similar improvement through his observation and replication of senior teachers’ practices. Perceiving comparable growth as his two NPT colleagues, Hasting viewed the experience they earned during the pre-service period as a significant positive influence on their current practice.

C.2 How do pathways impact on how the schools induct and develop teachers?

With the four pathways to teaching, the school management, according to Mandy, tried to manage teachers fairly. The school had been through ups and downs in terms of its academic culture and students’ academic achievements in the NEs. The current management which had worked as a team since 2011 showed a positive trend under the leadership of Mackie and his four deputies. In
the eyes of the supervisors, the principal and his deputies played a vital role in the progress in teachers’ attitudes and students’ achievements. The school had been more stable in terms of staff management.

C.2.1. The absence of definite induction

Generic induction for GTs, EATs, and SBTs as civil servants was conducted by the bureau of staffing not by the school. Dewey, an EAT, recalled he was just introduced to the other teachers in a staff meeting and had to learn everything about the school and the job by himself. Julie had an identical experience on her first assignment in this school. In the absence of formal school-based induction, Mary felt lucky for she completed her high school in Berkshire; therefore she already knew a few things about the school. Dams and Betty also went to teaching directly through the SBT pathway. Teachers from these pathways perceived the absence of school-based or job-related induction in the school had caused them to rely on self-orientation.

Betty explained that SBTs had to orientate themselves informally through chats with and observations of senior colleagues in their early assignments. Each teacher experienced different individual encounters to adapt in the school. Though coming through the GT pathway, Julie and Kate experienced different processes of adaptation. Dams and Betty, from the SBT, also had to find their own ways of adapting to the school and job-related tasks.

The EATs also participated in the generic induction as they were promoted. Their previous path as NPTs and assistant teachers helped them become familiar with academic tasks, the school atmosphere, and additional demands of the profession. In other words, their prior path was perceived as school-based or job-related induction because, according to Shaggy, he was still learning all aspects of teaching. With his preceding non-pedagogy training, his claim was in line with Dewey’s statement that some of his colleagues’ “loyalty,
desire to learn more earnestly, how to master the pedagogy, how to be accepted by the children seems to be a bit different.” While teachers with relevant professional training adjusted easily to the school, others from different educational backgrounds had to learn more things and in a longer period.

C.2.2. The school’s efforts in developing staff

With such diverse views regarding the impact of pathways on teacher practices, its impact on teacher development was appealing to see. It became more interesting in the light of the school’s improving academic achievement in the NEs. Izzet, the deputy of public relations, was clear about improvements occurring in the school:

*Beginning in 2011, (the change) appeared obviously. The teachers became more aware of their being a teacher, how to improve performance. The government already gives an ample appreciation through certification and so on. Such awareness is sprouting now.*

The time of resurrection coincided with the change in the school’s top management. Mackie led the school after periods of uncertainties in the leadership structure, with only care-takers who chaired the principal post. He mentioned his beginning era with (1) increasing development opportunities for teachers, (2) involving them in internal and external development activities, and (3) pushing his staff to teacher discussion groups. Adding the school’s stance in the staff development, Mandy, the deputy of curriculum, claimed, “*teachers from any pathway blend into the board of teachers when they enter this school. Thus, we do not treat [a] teacher on the basis of their pathways.*” However, the problem in developing staff, according to Donny, came when the district transferred teachers to other schools while they were in the process of becoming familiar with the school’s operation. The school then had to reorganise its professional development programs.
From the teacher pathway groups, voices regarding the school effort in developing staff were affirmative despite a few dissatisfactions. Among the EATs, Shaggy and Mary felt comfortable with the available facilities and opportunities to improve their practice. Vijay seemed a bit troubled by the sluggish progress in the subject she taught, Civic Education. Yet, she felt supported by the school’s offers of professional learning in instructional technology. Dewey, who was critical towards his colleagues, argued that the school had provided both opportunities and facilities for teachers. He added that it all depended on the attitude of the individual teachers. He even criticised a few of his EAT colleagues with different professional training who seemed to lack the enthusiasm to improve.

In the GT group, Kate expressed her satisfaction as a sports teacher in the way the school provided professional learning opportunities. Her colleague, Julie, gave a more reflective perspective on what the school has carried out in terms of teacher development:

_I still feel [a] lack of things. I mean if you do the workshop, the result is not there. It means the school has tried to design it (a program/activity) but the tangible follow up that we should know seems difficult (to measure). It (program/activity) has actually been provided but the results are never well evaluated._

Jackson, one of the deputies who came from SBT, confirmed this lack of alignment between professional learning and changes in teacher practice. He noticed teachers in Berkshire did not actually change their practice despite many developmental activities and programs. He shared Julie’s perspective that a more structured evaluation of the impact the development activities and programs was needed, as he experienced through his pathway. He admitted his practices had improved a lot due to a very structured program called PKG (Strengthening the Work of Teachers) endorsed by the World Bank in the mid-1980s.

Two other SBTs, Dams and Betty also felt the benefit of the PKG program in changing their practices in the classroom. They wondered if such programmes for teachers would be carried out again to accommodate the change of curriculum
and current pedagogy practices. Seeing the school’s efforts, Dams praised its initiatives to enhance teachers’ competencies though he found it difficult to compete with other teachers in terms of career development.

A rather different opinion came from the NPTs. Hasting stated, “The supervisors never care about us (NPTs) when they come to the school. They only oversee the GTs (including EATs and SBTs), so we just follow what they are asked to do in the teaching-learning process. We just do it.” Despite her two years of service in the school, she was never asked to participate in the teacher discussion groups at any level. Ninny, who had taught in another school, admitted that the treatment she received there was worse. “I often feel undermined because I am never involved in [the] teachers’ meeting. When they are going to hold such [a] meeting, they even ask me to go home earlier.” She pointed the equal work load and responsibility the NPTs had but the school’s treatment towards NPTs was discouraging. **Figure 3** below describes the groups’ perceptions of the school’s efforts to develop teachers.

![Figure 3: Perceptions in the school’s efforts in developing teachers](image)

**Figure 3.** Perceptions in the school’s efforts in developing teachers
The matrix shows the shared and discrete voices from the different groups of stakeholders. Despite the leaders’ and supervisors’ claims that the school dealt with all teachers equally, different treatment according to pathways was obvious particularly for NPTs. Another issue was related to the school’s main priority in the NEs. Teachers of nationally examined subjects had more developmental opportunities because the school tended to give more attention to them. The other teachers who did not teach the examined subjects expressed their concerns. Vijay felt sluggish in her development as a Civic Education teacher and Marie even had to teach sports in some other schools to meet the minimum requirement of teaching hours. How the stakeholders made sense of the school’s priority with regard to the different teacher pathways became an engaging issue.

C.3. How do the pathways impact on school improvement?

The impact of pathways on school improvement could be elaborated more visibly with the school’s main priority of achieving well in the NEs. The following sub-sections show the impact of this priority together with teacher pathways in forming a pattern of teacher development in the school.

C.3.1. School priority

In terms of school priority, Mackie stated clearly, “my priority is academic achievement, regardless of my general responsibility. The public only sees it from the academic side at the moment, the benchmark is the (results of the) National Examination.” The priority was accepted by Mordancy, the school supervisor, as she said, “In high schools, the goal is not the final year, not to enter the job market but to prepare the kids to be able to perform in college well. Unfortunately, we are probably still busy with preparing the National Examination first.” Other deputies and teachers largely agreed this tendency and argued that most high schools faced the same situation.
Mackie justified his choice by claiming that the government intentionally created the situation. As a principal in a public school, he had to play the game although he admitted that it was not an ‘ideal’ choice. Both the government and the public demands forced him to make it the school’s main priority. The school’s ex-supervisor, Naggy, even claimed that the number of students admitted in state universities became the standard of success in almost all senior high schools in the country.

Berkshire’s management, according to Mandy, the deputy of curriculum, focused on mastery of NE material for students of Grade X and XI. With six subjects in each major examined nationally, the focus shifted to intensively preparing students of grade XII to succeed in the NEs. Izzet, who was in charge of the school’s public relations, explained that the academic trend was promising. “There was a decent increase last year, in 2011 to 2012 (academic year). It was obvious, from rank 7 to rank 3 in Social Sciences and from rank 12 to rank 7 in Natural Sciences among 17 public schools in the district of Solomon.” The significant improvement created a morale boost among the school members and, as Izzet said, “The staff condition is getting more solid.”

C.3.2. Pattern of teacher contribution

With such a focus on the success of the NEs, the school arranged teacher assignment on the basis of subjects and grades. The arrangement, to a certain extent, is also related to the teachers’ pathways. Teachers of the six nationally examined subjects were given more teaching hours and development opportunities than the others. Among the teachers of these six subjects in each major, those who handled grade XII were generally perceived as competent seniors by the school management. This portion was normally shared by teachers from GT, SBT, and EATS correspondingly. The rest of the subjects earned less attention and as a result, the teachers of these subjects felt they had lower status. These roles were allocated to senior teacher perceived as less competent and
juniors from GT, SBT, EAT, and eventually NPTs. Table 13 describes the pattern of the teachers’ contribution as a result of their pathways and the school’s priority.

**Table 13. Pattern of teacher contribution in Berkshire**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Grade XII</th>
<th>6 Examined Subjects (in each major)</th>
<th>The rest</th>
<th>Possible Contribution</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GT</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>Direct/Indirect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SBT</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>Direct/Indirect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EAT</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>Direct/Indirect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NPT</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>Indirect</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

GTs, SBTs, and EATs had the chance to contribute directly in the school’s main priority as long as they taught one of the six examined subjects in grade XII. To earn this teaching assignment they had to be perceived as competent and as a senior by the school management. More developmental opportunities were available to them as they could directly contribute to the school’s performance in the exams. Betty, who taught biology in grade XII, for instance, valued the abundant available opportunities both from internal and external sources. Nevertheless, Dewey found it hard to find time for developmental activities due to the current workload demands. Thus, for teachers belonging to this group, the abundant available opportunities also meant higher workloads, responsibilities, and teaching hours. Consequently, they found it difficult to arrange time for developmental activities.

Other GTs, SBTs, EATs, and NPTs perceived as less competent or less experienced held the lower grades of X and XI. Still, those who taught one of the six examined subjects earned more teaching hours than those of the other subjects to prepare for what Mandy called earlier *material mastery*. Teachers in this second group contributed to the school priority achievement indirectly as they did not teach the six examined subjects to students of grade XII. Jackson noted that parents often asked, “Who is the teacher?” and made a comparison after the results of the examination were released. The question and comparison was directly intended to acknowledge the teachers of the six subjects in grade XII.
The last group consisted of NPTs who did not teach the six examined subjects. They taught grade X or XI and never grade XII. It was not surprising when Ninny admitted, “German in this school is just an additional subject. Perhaps, it would be eliminated in the future because we already have a French teacher here.” Teachers like Ninny perceived themselves as trivial in terms of their contribution to school quality improvement. Considering their lower status, Hasting shared Ninny’s view that they could still be creative teachers who contributed to the students’ resourcefulness rather than academic accomplishment.

C.4. Contesting stakeholders’ perceptions

Across the interviews and focus groups, each participant’s and group’s responses varied and was subject to each participant’s position and experience. Such reactions appeared in most interviews with different groups of stakeholders. Table 14 summarises different perceptions within and across the groups of stakeholders. Similarities and differences are described in details in the subsequent explanation.

Table 14. Variation of stakeholder perceptions in Berkshire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perceptions on:</th>
<th>LEAD</th>
<th>SPV</th>
<th>GT</th>
<th>EAT</th>
<th>SBT</th>
<th>NPT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teachers’ practices and development</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How schools induct and develop teachers</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School’s quality development</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X</td>
<td>There are different perceptions within the group</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O</td>
<td>Views are consistent across the groups</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the group of school leaders, Jackson’s and Izzet’s perceptions differed from the other participants’. Jackson’s inclination to favour SBTs was in line with his own teaching pathway from scholarship bond. Similar tendency occurred in the interview with Izzet who believed GTs were superior to teachers from the
other pathways. However, in general, perceptions were neutral among leaders relevant to their leading positions as expressed by Mackie, Mandy, and Donny. Their perceptions were akin to one another regarding the school’s way of developing teachers and the impact of pathways on the school’s development.

The two supervisors shared similar views regarding the impact of pathways on teachers’ practices, development, and school development. They also emphasised the importance of individual character development leading to personal competencies improvement. Both believed that professional and academic competencies came along as teachers’ personal development matured.

Both GTs involved in the interview believed they had high self-confidence in front of the classroom as a result of their pathway. Julie was more critical about the sustainability of the development activities in the school whereas Kate felt satisfied with what the school had done to improve teachers’ competencies in Berkshire. As GTs, they both saw large opportunities to contribute in the school quality improvement.

Dams and Betty were aware of the lack of training they initially received, experienced by most SBTs early in their teaching career in the school. They recalled how their pedagogical skills and knowledge improved through the very structured national development program despite the abundant opportunities in the school. Betty believed she had had to work hard and learn a lot of things to secure her position in the school. With the improvement they made, they remained direct contributors to the school’s academic goals through teaching Math and Biology for Grade XII.

While acknowledging the learning speed of GTs, most of the EATs believed that they had benefited professionally from their pathway. The benefit was in the form of a lengthy pre-service experience which enabled them to learn and identify particular problems in the school. Thus when they got promoted as civil servants, they already knew the detailed demands in the profession. Perceptions concerning developmental opportunities varied in this group
depending on the subjects and grades they were in charge of. While Vijay expressed her pessimism over her development as a Civic Education teacher in the school, Mary and Shaggy sounded positive about the school’s efforts to improve teachers. Dewey was critical of his colleagues’ individual characters which could hinder their development and affect their contribution to the school improvement.

Despite the praise from one of the leaders (Donny), two NPTs (Ninny and Hasting) realised that they could only contribute indirectly to the school’s improvement aims. They perceived available opportunities to develop in the school as ineffective because the school regarded their participation as supplementary. Thus, they looked for an alternative contribution to the school quality in the forms of ‘creative values’ rather than academic achievements.

D. Majuro Vocational School

In contrast to the previous three schools’ cases, Majuro was a vocational high school in the district well-known for its achievements and strategic location. The school prepared students of year 10 to 12 with specific knowledge and skills to be ready for the job market. Built on the northeast corner of the city’s outer ring road, the school developed steadily and even belonged to the Government’s Internationally Standardised School Initiative. Seventy-two teachers from four different pathways handle the daily instructional processes in the school. With around 260 students enrolled in each year level (almost 800 in total) and four accredited departments, the school became the largest vocational school in the district. The fact that the school was only established in 1986 showed how it had improved in terms of quantity and quality.

In response to the demand for accountability in all schooling processes, the school earned ISO 9001:2008 in 2010. Ike, the principal, not only wanted a change in the service and all procedures in the school but he sought behavioural and attitudinal changes among the staff. He encouraged his staff to always meet
the demands of their roles professionally and passionately. He noted that the success to earn the service quality assurance certificate needed to be followed by further improvement in the output in the forms of students’ achievements in the NEs and job market absorption.

The complexity of issues faced by the school seemed broader than the previous school cases. Staff composition was imbalance with almost 85% of the staff being female. According to Ike, the principal, this was a prominent problem in the staff management. Another problem which emerged in the interviews with the school stakeholders was the separation of adaptive, normative, and productive subjects across four different departments. Productive subjects are given to students according to their chosen major such as accounting, programming, and pattern making. Adaptive subjects are the ones which supports their productive skills, for example English, mathematics, science and entrepreneurship. Normative subjects are taught to all students from different majors including religious study, Indonesian language, and civic education. This turned out to be an issue among teachers especially when related to their pathways and development. Majuro was an interesting site in the attempt to understand the impact of pathways on the teachers’ practices, on how they developed in the school, and on the school quality improvement.

D.1. Pathways’ impact on teacher practices and development

The six groups of stakeholders sharing their perceptions in the school were the leaders, consisting of the principal and his five deputies, two school supervisors, and 11 teachers from the 4 different pathway groups. Perceptions among stakeholders varied, even within each stakeholder group. This section describes the perceptions within each group and clusters the impacts as stated by the participants.
In the leader group, perceptions varied among the deputies and principal. Two deputies, Scooby and Hesky, found it difficult to see the impact of pathways on their staff practices and development in the school from their positions. Other deputies, Jetty and Sophie, believed that there was no issue with the teachers’ pathway differences but they shared concern over several transferred teachers. Expressing her anxiety, Sophie said, “These transferred teachers (from non-vocational schools) really struggled to meet our pace. Perhaps, the working situations are different.” A clue on the different practice as a result of pathways was obtained from the interview with another deputy, Hesky. She explained that the curriculum department closely followed how NPTs teach in the classroom. Her statement got clearer as Ike, the principal, claimed that, “the young GTs are highly motivated and keen to learn. They also prepare teaching administration neatly though they may adapt, copy, and then modify it.” The last two leaders’ accounts gave an indication that there were different practices among teachers from different pathways in Majuro. This pattern became more visible as I interviewed the other stakeholder groups.

The two school supervisors involved in the study had different perceptions about the impact of pathways. In terms of practice, Zack argued that “The recent GTs have a fresh mind and are well equipped with information technology. The EATs had a loose recruitment process, so they could not match these GTs.” Sunny, on the other hand, viewed that NPTs’ and EATs’ practices in Majuro were fine. Instead, he noticed how several senior GTs often lacked discipline in their daily instructions, which he attributed to the fact that they were in permanent, rather than temporary, positions.

Perceptions diverged among the GTs in Majuro. Two of them, Erma and Vicky, admitted that they were not ready to teach following immediate placement after recruitment. Erma became confused and was about to cry a few times for she did not know how to handle unexpected classroom situations. Vicky added that she went through such experiences for about three years before she really felt capable of teaching her students well. Two other teachers in this group, Latria and
Nary, who had previous teaching engagements, believed they experienced enhanced motivation as a result of their pathways to teaching.

Similar concerns about unpreparedness emerged from the interviews with SBTs. Admitting that teaching was not her first career choice, SBT Rose recalled how she faced lots of problems in managing the students in the classrooms. Thus, she had to learn how to teach while serving in the profession. Another SBT, Nanning, had a comparable experience of her pathway’s impact on her teaching practice. She thought she already knew what to do and how to deal with any teaching situations because she received sufficient professional training in the college. However, she still felt really nervous and sweated in front of the students.

The EATs experienced different impacts of pathways on their practices and development. Kenny and Marty perceived their early struggle in teaching was because they never expected to be placed in a vocational school. Thus, they had to learn vocational teaching, which was novel to them, as they were assigned to teach in Majuro. Both teachers acknowledged the difficulties of linking the theory and practice of pedagogy in their early placements. They found a huge gap between what they experienced previously as a NPT in an earlier school with what they faced in this vocational school. Their voices suggested a different form of unpreparedness experienced by EATs when they had to learn new curricular matters.

The NPTs in Majuro noticed a rather negative impact of their pathway on their professional practice. Jake and Arty went to classrooms right away after being recruited by the school. Jake as an Art teacher felt the lack of teaching training during the early part of his career. Consequently, he improvised in front of the students and later met with Art teachers from other schools to learn more about how to teach. Arty had an unfavourable opinion regarding her pathway as an English teacher in the vocational school. Graduating with a major in English literature with no pedagogical load, she felt really nervous in front of the class. She believed she had gradually acquired the knowledge and skills in vocational
teaching through interactions with her colleagues rather than induction from the school. Table 15 below outlines the impact of pathways on teacher practice in Majuro.

Table 15. Impact of pathways on the teachers’ practices and development at Majuro

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PATH</th>
<th>Strengths</th>
<th>Weaknesses</th>
<th>Development</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| GTs  | ▪ Administratively competent.  
▪ Self-confident & highly-motivated.  
▪ Pedagogically & technologically knowledgeable. | ▪ Fumbling in front of the class.  
▪ Still adapting to teaching. | □ Able to adapt, copy, and modify knowledge and skills with their instructional technology mastery. |
| EATs | ▪ More experienced in the tasks.  
▪ Adapt faster to new situations.  
▪ Handle students expertly. | ▪ Relying on experience  
▪ Difficult to link theory & practice. | □ Slow learning due to loose recruitment but more experienced. |
| SBTs | ▪ Keen on learning despite limited training.  
▪ Self-confident & motivated. | ▪ Unprepared to manage different students & situations.  
▪ Wobbling on first assignments. | □ Progressed gradually as they learned from assignments. |
| NPTs | ▪ Willing to learn from colleagues. | ▪ Lack of training & reference.  
▪ Unfamiliar with professional demands. | □ Relied much on imitation, sharing, and experience. |

The table shows the strength and weaknesses of teachers’ practices and development on the basis of their pathways. The GTs and EATs possessed more advantages than other pathways. They also had fewer weaknesses compared to NPTs and SBTs. In terms of development, GTs and SBTs were perceived to be more competitive than the two other pathways.

D.2. Impact on how the school inducts and develops teachers

With the advantages and weaknesses of each pathway as presented in the previous section, how the school inducts and develops the teachers becomes vital
in staff quality improvement. This section portrays Majuro’s efforts to induct and develop its teachers with regard to their pathways. To describe the impact of pathways, the school’s plans and priorities come first so that the context of teacher development is appropriately set. Following that, the separation of teachers on the basis of their taught subjects into productive, adaptive, and normative was particularly relevant in this school case. Figure 4 below shows the three issues featured in the interviews with the different groups of stakeholders.

![Teacher Pathways Diagram](image)

**Figure 4. Factors related to school effort to develop teachers**

### D.2.1 The school’s plans and priorities

According to the participants, the school’s plan and priority was central in the development of the school’s academic culture set by Ike the principal. His deputy of curriculum, Jetty, stated, “We have a pre-set program in our Annual School Budget Plan (RAPBS). There, we have posts like teacher coaching and also other staff quality improvement initiatives, every year ... yes we implement it (the plan) annually.” Jetty also mentioned the personal development of the teachers was increased through bi-annual achievement in motivational training conducted early every semester.

One of the EATs, Kenny, added that through the school’s participation in the Internationally Standardised School Initiative (RSBI), a lot of developmental programs were on offer in the school. Participation in the initiative also gave the
school more opportunities to develop its teachers from the district, the education quality assurance body, and teachers’ colleges. Most teachers across pathways agreed upon the abundantly available opportunities which accompanied the teachers’ higher demands and responsibilities in Majuro. The school had strong links with the district, subject teacher discussion groups (MGMP), and an education quality assurance body (LPMP) as sources of training and workshops. Primarily, the principal implemented regular instructional supervision and monitoring, in cooperation with the supervisors from the district. Ike and the supervisor, in turns, visited teachers in the classrooms twice every semester to see how staff performed and if they had difficulties. Using the observation forms established by the district, they believed the supervision was valuable both for them and the teachers’ practical improvement.

As a vocational school, according to most participating stakeholders, Majuro faced a dilemma in setting school priorities. Established to prepare skilled graduates for the industry sector, the school also had to perform in the NEs. It was perceived as the hardest predicament by all of the stakeholder groups because they had to prepare students for both purposes. Holding these two objectives in tension became the main task held by most vocational schools in the country. As a result, the school management and staff needed to find the best solution to succeed in both purposes.

Majuro addressed the tension between the NEs objectives and job market supply through creating more teaching hours for the examined subjects and actively linking themselves with the industry in the form of the Dual System of Education (PSG). The school had to engage with industrial partners to allow the students to link their theoretical knowledge and practical skills with real job training. Scooby, the deputy of public relation, said that the dual system enabled the students to cope with the continuously changing professional demands and to appreciate the range of social and industrial relationships. In terms of achieving the NE, as was the case for the other schools in the study, Majuro provided extra efforts for examined subjects.
D.2.2. Division of subjects

Unlike high schools, which mainly aimed to prepare students for tertiary education, Majuro primarily prepared the students to be skilled workers in the industrial world. Thus, the subjects taught to the students of vocational schools in Indonesia were divided into three kinds of subjects: Productive, Normative, and Adaptive. Productive subjects were to equip the students with skills relevant to the major they took. The Productive subjects offered by the school depended on the targeted skills and competencies in each department. With four departments of Accounting, Sales, Office Administration, and the newly established, Fashion, Majuro had many different productive subject teachers corresponding to their departments. Adaptive and Normative subjects added to the vocational school students’ productive skills. Religious education, Civic education, Indonesian language, Sports, and Arts were all Normative subjects. English, Math, Science, and Entrepreneurship were the Adaptive subjects.

One of the EATs, Dairy, said, “Marty and I teach adaptive subjects and (we) are normally developed through [the] Teacher Discussion Group. (while) Productive subject teachers, in this vocational school, have more opportunities for professional development.” Adding the voice of inequity, Erma, the Javanese language (vernacular) GT lamented, “To be honest, in the curriculum structure, I (my subject) belong to local load, so I can’t dream about that (the professional & career development).” Being adaptive and normative teachers in a vocational school meant that they had to accept different conditions. On this matter, Marty explained that the existence of direct coordinators among productive teachers in each department enabled them to voice stronger opinions whereas normative and adaptive teachers reported directly to the deputy of curriculum. In her view, these teachers felt their voices were not heard because the deputy of curriculum had often been overwhelmed by the number of school issues. As a result, Sunny, the current supervisor, noticed that the other teachers (Normative and Adaptive subjects) were less involved in the school’s industrial partnership activities.
The former supervisor, Zack, declared that disengagement from the school’s industrial link program forced the adaptive and normative teachers to rely for their development on the Subject Teacher Discussion Groups at the school, sub-district, and district levels. Supervising the school before Sunny, she argued that certain teachers in the adaptive and normative subjects had more privileges than the others. Nationally examined subjects such as Math, Indonesian Language, and English gained more attention due to the school’s focus on the NEs. As a result, the teachers of these subjects had more teaching hours, resource allocations, and developmental opportunities.

D.3 How does the school induct and develop the teachers with regard to the different pathways?

D.3.1. The lack of job-related induction

As with the teachers in the previous three school cases, no fixed pattern of induction was found in Majuro. The GTs went into teaching as soon as they gained a position. Induction programs were held for GTs, EATs, and SBTs by the Bureau of Local Staffing related to their status as civil servants not as teachers. As they went in to the school, most GTs, EATs, and SBTs began their teaching assignments immediately. Such conditions, according to Marty, Erma, and Vicky, compounded with lack of previous training led to confusion on the part of the teachers and a difficult introduction to teaching.

All of the participating NPTs who were recruited by the school management went into teaching immediately after being recruited. These NPTs complained about the absence of job-related induction for them. Jake was unaware that he had to prepare lesson plans before teaching. Arty, his colleague from the same pathway, admitted she had to copy other colleagues to familiarise herself with the school’s instructional practices.
However, the school management as stated by Scooby tried to boost staff morale and knowledge with a professional learning meeting at the beginning of every semester. Erma explained, “Every semester, teachers always learn new things related to IT and curricular updates, yeah it's in each semester. We never undergo a similar experience from one semester to the next one; it continuously grows, and not stuck with a certain instructional method.” Such meetings, according to the Principal, included topics such as achievement motivational training, instructional technology workshops, and sometimes professional updates from the districts. The school often invited trainers, lecturers from teachers’ colleges, and even school supervisors from the district to work with staff.

D.3.2. How the school develop its teachers

The division of subjects and the school priorities were important factors in the school’s teacher development. Both factors helped to explain how teacher pathways’ impacted on the way Majuro develops its teachers.

Most deputies and the principal argued that the school did not see pathways as influencing teachers’ opportunities for professional development. They generally believed that equal opportunities were available for teachers from different pathways. A distinctive clue emerged in Scooby’s statement about the school’s effort in teacher induction and development. “We don’t distinguish the treatment on teachers but a committee is normally led by a civil servant teacher (GT/EAT/SBT). But the NPTs can still help in it.” It is in line with Jake’s feeling on how he had been treated as an NPT in the school. “Though, there is a slight different treatment, I can keep up with my colleagues’ pace here. I learn and discuss things with them. The school also sends me to training and workshops.”

The two statements above corresponded to Marty’s claim that, “Opportunities are available but they choose the same person (teacher) from time to time. We (EATs) also tend to have problems with the (principal) permission.”
As an EAT, she felt treated differently although few of the participants (her colleagues) acknowledged her as a potential young teacher. Arty, one of the NPTs, shared her experience in terms of developmental opportunities. She admitted that once she was sent to Jakarta to take part in professional learning because the chosen staff member (a GT) was unexpectedly unable to attend. Nary and Latria, two GTs, tried to neutralise the issue by claiming, that every teacher had the equal opportunity regardless of their pathways. However, they noted that they had to take turns in accessing professional learning and seek the principal’s permission through the deputy of curriculum. From their accounts, NPTs or even EATs in Majuro had to wait for their turn and struggled to gain permission to participate in professional development opportunities.

The voices from NPTs and EATs suggested that GTs possessed a privileged status in terms of access to the professional development opportunities. Two senior SBTs who taught productive skills claimed there were sufficient opportunities for professional learning in Majuro. Yet, they admitted the more competitive atmosphere among teachers in the school also forced them to keep learning despite their seniority. Others like Nanning and Rose argued that it all depended on whether teachers were committed to their own professional learning. They believed the school provided plentiful opportunities for professional development and instructional facilities.

D.4. How do the pathways impact on school improvement?

The impact of pathways on the school improvement in this school’s case could be seen from two perspectives. The first was the level of contribution each pathway group made to the achievement of the school objectives. By considering the school priority and division of subjects, a second parameter of each pathway’s contribution to the school improvement materialised. Table 16 below describes the involvement and contribution of each pathway in the school improvement as perceived by the participants.
Table 16. Pathways’ impact on Majuro’s improvement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PATH</th>
<th>Subjects</th>
<th>Involvement</th>
<th>Contribution</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GT</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Skills, competencies, values</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N &amp; A</td>
<td>High – Med</td>
<td>Knowledge, scores, values</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EAT</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Skills, competencies, values</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N &amp; A</td>
<td>High – Med</td>
<td>Knowledge, scores, values</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SBT</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Skills, competencies, values</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N &amp; A</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NPT</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N &amp; A</td>
<td>Low - Med</td>
<td>Knowledge &amp; values</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

P = Productive, N = Normative, A = Adaptive, NE = National Examination

As previously explained, the school in setting its priorities faced a tension between whether to produce skilled graduates ready for the job market or to succeed in the NEs as a public high school. Compounding the dilemma, the division of subjects into Productive, Adaptive, and Normative split the teachers’ involvement and contribution in each pathway. As a result, teachers from the same pathway group had different levels of involvement and contribution to the school’s quest for improvement.

GTs in Majuro fell into one of the three groups according to the subjects taught, involvement, and contribution to the school improvement. Those who handled productive subjects were highly involved in the Dual Study Programs for their departments. They linked well with the school’s industrial partners and were always in charge of supervising the students’ on-the-job training. Other GTs of adaptive and normative subjects were split between those who taught examined subjects and those who did not. The GTs of the examined subjects had more developmental opportunities as a result of the priority the school placed on doing well in the NEs. The rest of the GTs had to accept their subject merely as a local load in the school’s curriculum structure. These teachers were seen as contributing
more towards students’ values and character development whereas the previous two had more opportunities to help the school reach its improvement goals.

The condition of teachers’ participation and contribution among the EATs in the school was seen as similar to the GTs’, but to a lesser degree. As Marty (EAT) complained, they were seen as second in importance to the GTs regardless of their personal teaching skills. EATs were only rarely given a chance to teach grade XII because the school always assigned the available GTs first. Moreover, normative or adaptive EATs had to accept the ‘next turn’ in accessing professional development opportunities particularly when GTs were available.

The SBTs shared a fairly similar pattern of involvement and contribution to the school. They were highly involved in the school’s first priority to produce skilled graduates. As a result, they felt they contributed significantly in shaping the skills and competencies of the students. However, since all existing SBTs in the school taught productive subjects, the contribution of adaptive and normative SBTs might have to the school’s improvement goals was not clear.

In contrast to the other pathways, the NPTs in Majuro experienced a different pattern of involvement and contribution to school improvement. Recruited by the school management to fill vacant positions, the teachers in this pathway only taught normative and adaptive subjects. This was in contrast to the SBTs who were recruited by the government, who all taught productive subjects. Even those NPTs who taught nationally examined subjects were never given the opportunity to teach grade XII. It was therefore impossible for NPTs in the school to contribute directly to the school’s academic achievement goals. It was equally difficult for them to gain a leading position in the school because, as Scooby said, these were reserved for teachers of other pathways who were civil servants. As normative and adaptive NPTs, Jake and Arty described their contribution as being stronger through the development of students’ values and character, creativity, and cultural understanding rather than on academic achievements.
D.5. Variation of perceptions among stakeholder groups

There were different views among participating stakeholders in the school regarding the impacts of pathways on practices, the way the school developed teachers, and school improvement. In the impact on practices and development, more than half of the participants had the tendency to reflect on their own experiences. Others added their reflections with comparison to their colleagues in the school and the rest found it difficult to see the impact of pathways on the teachers’ practices. Table 17 below compares the perceptions of the stakeholder groups on the three issues.

Table 17. Variation of perceptions among stakeholder groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Impact of pathways on:</th>
<th>LEAD</th>
<th>SPV</th>
<th>GT</th>
<th>EAT</th>
<th>SBT</th>
<th>NPT</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teachers’ practices and development</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
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<tr>
<td>How schools induct and develop teachers</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>O</td>
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<td>X</td>
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<td>School’s quality development</td>
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</table>

There are different perceptions within the group
No differences among group members

Most of the leaders, except Ike and Hesky, found it difficult to see the impact and they declared that it depended on the teachers’ individual characters. Ike argued strongly that GTs were stronger than those from other pathways because they were highly motivated to learn and administratively well-ordered. Hesky believed that the school paid particular attention to the NPTs’ practices in the classrooms.

The disparity of perceptions did not occur in how these leaders viewed the school’s effort to induct and develop the teachers. All of them argued that teachers from different pathways were treated equally. This was in contrast to the teachers, who personally experienced discrimination of treatment. There was a similar pattern in response to how teacher recruitment pathways impact on school
improvement. Leaders found it difficult to recognise the different impact of pathways in school improvement. Fortunately, group interviews with the teachers from different pathways provided more insights.

The interviewed GTs in Majuro experienced different feelings and encounters in their early career as a result of the pathway they took. While Erma and Vicky admitted to struggling initially in their teaching, Nary and Latria felt strongly motivated, which boosted their confidence in front of the students. All GTs believed abundant professional development opportunities were available for all staff, although Nary added that staff needed to wait for their turn. In terms of contribution they made to the school’s improvement, their perceptions varied with respect to the subjects they taught.

SBTs Nanning and Rose differed in perceiving the impact of the pathways on their practices. Nanning felt that with the professional training she had, the pathway had eased her into the classroom with a range of technical skills. Rose, on the other hand, had struggled to handle students as teaching was not her first career option. She joined the scholarship bond due to financial hardship she faced in the middle of her college study. Both were thankful for the large number of opportunities and facilities the school provided to support them. As productive teachers, the two teachers felt they had contributed to the school’s improvement goals through the students’ improved skills and competencies. They felt that winning several students’ skill competitions and seeing the students get decent jobs indicated their contribution to the school.

With their prior experiences as NPTs, the three participating EATs had the benefit of lengthy pre-service teaching in their pathway. However, Marty and Kenny admitted they once had to struggle in matching pedagogical theory with their early classroom practices. Being EATs, in the eyes of Marty and colleagues, meant that they had to accept ‘the next turn’ after the GTs. Even when they taught normative and adaptive subjects, the school tended to assign the GTs ahead of them in teaching placements or when development opportunities were available.
The EATs perceived that the subjects taught mattered in the vocational school, apart from the pathway a teacher took. As a result, the EATs viewed that teachers’ contributions to the school were influenced by the pathway, the subject, and their involvement in the school’s academic activities.

The NPTs shared their concern over the lack of induction after being recruited by the school. Hence, they struggled to learn all aspects of teaching with their limited professional training. They perceived they were treated differently to those teachers in the other three permanent pathways. Moreover, as they only taught normative and adaptive subjects, their possible contribution was limited to the transfer of knowledge and values. They felt they had to wait for ‘the next turn’ after GTs, SBTs, and EATs. For example, among the three English teachers, Latria, Marty, and Arty, Latria had the most access to the professional learning opportunities as a GT, Marty, an EAT, had to wait after her and Arty got the remaining available opportunities after them. Arty and Jake believed this pattern limited their involvement in both of the school’s priorities. They found it impossible to take part in productive skill activities and their participation in the NEs success was marginal due to their pathway and teaching responsibilities.

In the supervisor group, Sunny and Zack differed in their views about the impact of pathways on teachers’ practices and development. Sunny noticed the diminishing enthusiasm among GTs but not among NPTs and EATs. In contrast, Zack perceived the authority of GTs in terms of technological mastery and professional discipline. Both supervisors believed the school had provided ample opportunities and facilities for the teachers regardless of their pathways. However, Sunny had a concern over the lack of involvement among normative and adaptive teachers in the school’s Dual Education Program with the industry world. Believing that ‘personal integrity’ played a significant factor in a teacher’s development, both supervisors argued that teachers in vocational schools need to be developed accordingly. In the case of Majuro, the supervisors placed the key factor of teacher development in their relative participation to the school’s priorities.
A. Different pathways, diverse practices, and development potentials

The pathways’ impacts on teachers’ practices, on each school’s efforts to develop teachers, and on each school’s development exhibited some similarities. Although the participants used different expressions to describe the impact of the pathways on these three studied issues, their perceptions were generally similar. The similarities of the perceived impacts, however, tended to vary to a certain degree in terms of the elements of practices and school contexts.

In terms of teacher practices, most of the participating stakeholder groups from different schools considered the unpreparedness of new recruits to perform well in the classroom a common issue. The SBTs often expressed concern about their poor performance early in their assignments, but felt they improved significantly after attending wide-scale development programmes. Most of the stakeholder groups tended to see NPTs as lacking in professional training and therefore struggling to meet all aspects of their professional demands, such as sound-instructional planning, pedagogy, and evaluation. The beginner GTs, despite their academic strength, often felt unsure while teaching in front of the students. Though regarded as having more experience as a result of their pathways, the EATs admitted to experiencing curricular shock during their first assignments. Table 18 compares the views regarding the impact of different pathways on teacher practice.

Table 18. Synthesis of pathways’ impacts on teachers’ practices

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GTs</th>
<th>Neverland</th>
<th>Wilshire</th>
<th>Berkshire</th>
<th>Majuro</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Academically knowledgeable,</td>
<td>Academically knowledgeable, well-equipped with instructional</td>
<td>Academically knowledgeable, well-equipped with instructional</td>
<td>Academically knowledgeable, well-equipped with instructional</td>
<td>Academically knowledgeable, well-equipped with instructional</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>well-equipped with</td>
<td>technology skills, administratively competent, and professionally</td>
<td>technology skills, administratively competent, and professionally</td>
<td>technology skills, administratively competent, and professionally</td>
<td>technology skills, administratively competent, and professionally</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>instructional technology</td>
<td>disciplined, they fumbled in front of classes and had to learn to teach.</td>
<td>disciplined, they fumbled in front of classes and had to learn to teach.</td>
<td>disciplined, they fumbled in front of classes and had to learn to teach.</td>
<td>disciplined, they fumbled in front of classes and had to learn to teach.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>EATs</strong></td>
<td>Experienced individuals who were ready to cope with any classroom situation but lacked a theoretical basis and were slower to adapt to new changes.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>SBTs</strong></td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>Due to their limited professional training, these teachers felt wobbly during their first assignments and unprepared for the job.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>NPTs</strong></td>
<td>Supplementary staff often without relevant professional training. They struggled to meet professional demands, lacking in theoretical pedagogical knowledge and struggled with curricular and instructional changes.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In relation to teacher development, views on teachers’ potential to develop in schools were proportional to their perceived qualities of practice. GTs, with their perceived superior pedagogical knowledge and professional attitude, were regarded as the fastest learning group among the four pathways. Their still developing skills were viewed either as the result of a limited teaching practicum in their teachers’ college (e.g., Jackson of Berkshire), or a normal process by which young teachers develop in the profession (e.g., Vito of Neverland). Nevertheless, with their pedagogical knowledge and professional attitude, teachers from this pathway generally had the most opportunities to develop across the four schools.

EATs were perceived as a group of teachers entering the teaching profession through a rather loose process of recruitment. Although some of these teachers had excelled in their school, they were generally considered to be second to the GTs in terms of development potential. For instance, Cathy of Neverland and Marty of Majuro discussed how their pathway influenced the school’s decisions regarding teaching assignments and providing development opportunities regardless of their ‘praised’ performance. However, most of the participating EATs across the schools tended to admit the superiority of GTs in terms of academic knowledge and information technology skills. Other stakeholder groups perceived the EATs as relying on the experiences they accumulated through their pathways. Hence, the stakeholders’ perceptions of the
EATs paralleled how they perceived themselves, despite the presence of a few excellent EATs.

Coming to the profession through a scholarship bond at the end of their college study, SBTs emerged as a practical solution to the teacher shortages of the early 1980s. More than half of the participating SBTs attributed their poor early teaching practices to the lack of professional training at college. Most admitted that they had been unprepared to teach immediately following graduation. This lack of preparedness often drove them to work hard to match their colleagues’ practices early in their careers. Most of them believed that their current practices and steady development had been a result of an external very structured development programme, which began in the mid-1980s. The perceptions shared among the SBTs and supervisors indicated that the schools’ had made minimum efforts to develop the SBTs early in their careers. Thus, it is understandable that Drew and Jackson expressed their indebtedness for their external training experiences.

Most NPTs struggled in their daily practices to meet the current demands of the profession due to insufficient pedagogical knowledge and skills in the absence of professional training. The NPTs relied on both the schools’ efforts to address their weaknesses and their own creativity to improve in the profession. As they were recruited by the schools, many of the NPTs felt the gap between themselves and the district. Such perceptions grew stronger when they were less involved in the district’s developmental activities, as the schools often preferred to offer such activities to permanent teachers (GTs, EATs, or SBTs). Even when the NPTs participated in district professional learning activities as substitutes for their permanent colleagues, the implications for their work were often neglected by the trainers or supervisors due to their pathway.

Perceptions regarding teacher performance and development potential in relation to employment pathways emerged from (1) the pathway’s relation to previous professional training, and (2) the individual qualities of the new recruits.
in each pathway. These two explanations seemed to be common responses from the participating stakeholders. Such a pattern of responses emerged among different groups of stakeholders in the four schools.

The GTs, with their superior pre-service education, were highly regarded as the most capable group of teachers. The majority of the participants agreed that the GTs functioned as the ‘motor’ of the school that propelled the professional learning atmosphere. Their technological mastery, professional attitude, and academic knowledge helped to facilitate their development by their fast learning of new skills. Most school leaders and supervisors in the four schools expressed the belief that their GT staff’s performance improved more quickly compared to those of different pathways, as they acquired more experience.

Most EATs and SBTs experienced different impacts of the pathways on their practices. EATs with sufficient experience were perceived to face difficulties in dealing with curricular changes. They needed more time to learn new things in the job and the participants considered this to be due to the nature of the pathway. The SBTs struggled early in their careers due to their inadequate amount of professional training. They had not completed their degree yet when beginning to teach in the schools; this might have limited their subject matter knowledge and instructional knowledge application. Hence, both pathways’ loose recruitment processes and sluggish adaptabilities to current professional demands caused most of the stakeholders to perceive teachers from these two pathways as lagging behind GTs in terms of academic skills and development potential.

Recruited by the schools, the NPTs’ development was largely dependent on the individual school’s policy and the NPTs’ own initiatives. As public schools, the four participating institutions had to comply with the district’s regulations and policy regarding staffing. Although the district was obliged to develop teachers from the other three pathways, the development of NPTs was not their responsibility. The detachment by the district resulted in NPTs’ lack of clarity in their structural relationship with the district. For most NPTs, weak
relations with the district became an institutional barrier to gaining opportunities and potentially limited their developmental participation in the district.

B. The general pattern of teacher development in schools

The four public schools shared several features in terms of how they inducted and developed teachers from the different pathways. First, the participants from all stakeholder groups agreed that there had been a sufficient number of developmental opportunities in their respective schools, despite different accessibility for teachers from different pathways. Next, they shared the view that teachers’ personal characters to some degree determined the extent to which a teacher could develop, while also noting the importance of support from the school and the district. However, the participants from all four schools also revealed the absence of job-related induction in the workplace. As a result, apart from EATs, individuals from the other three pathways experienced difficulties in their early classroom practices. The absence of induction and insufficient professional training helps to explain some of the poor initial practices.

The recruits’ unpreparedness to perform effectively after being recruited and the absence of a pre-set induction program led to the use of informal mentoring, in which new recruits established job-learning relationships with senior colleagues. These interactions were unplanned but, according to the participants, helped new recruits learn practical aspects of the job such as: lesson planning, teaching strategies, and student assessment. New recruits, particularly those who lacked professional training from different pathways, admitted to having ‘imitated’ and ‘improvised’ on the knowledge and skills they had learned from their senior colleagues.

The last shared phenomenon occurring in the four schools was the formation of a teaching placement pattern which distinguished opportunities for teachers from different pathways to participate in development activities. This
emerged as a result of similar academic priorities across schools with regard to the achievement of the NEs results. The priorities, combined with most of the stakeholders’ perceptions on teachers’ practices, created different levels of teachers’ developmental involvement and contribution to school improvement. A synthesis of how these comparable perceptions across schools materialised in the participants’ responses from different school contexts below.

**Figure 5. Shared views on the schools’ efforts to induct and develop teachers**

The fact that all participants mentioned the availability of development opportunities in the four schools showed that the schools’ efforts to support staff development were positively perceived by the teachers. Yet in terms of accessibility, the opportunities were perceived differently by the teachers from different pathways. A clear example of these differences is revealed when examining the responses of the three English teachers in Majuro, Latria (GTs), Marty (EATs), and Arty (NPTs). They shared the view that the school had provided opportunities and facilities for professional development. While Latria found no problems in accessing these opportunities, Marty had to wait to receive permission from the principal before she could take her turn. Arty, meanwhile, voiced her concern over the consecutive selection of staff from other pathways in
preference to her. Hence, the problem in these schools is not the number of available opportunities, but rather how the opportunities can be equally accessed by teachers from different pathways.

Despite the different accessibility of opportunities, the participants emphasised the importance of teachers to have the right personal and professional attitudes to their development. They believed that the schools need to support the teachers and the teachers had to address their own personal barriers. They used different terms to describe the importance of such attitudes, for example, the words *character* and *personalities*, which refer to their responses regarding professional issues. In the four schools, opinions on the type of teacher attitudes needed to develop in the profession were prominent across stakeholder groups.

Another notable issue is the absence of job-related induction for all pathways in all schools. While GTs, EATs, and SBTs only had a generic induction focused on administrative matters as a result of their status as civil servants, NPTs did not earn any induction prior to their teaching assignments. Thus, it becomes understandable why most teachers, regardless of their pathways, struggle in understanding their tasks, roles, and responsibilities.

Last but not least, the impacts of the NE in teacher development in general and teacher assignment patterns in particular were evident in the four schools. In all of the four schools, a generic teaching assignment pattern aimed at maximising student performance in the NE was evident. To achieve that, teachers’ pathways, subjects, and experiences became the main considerations for the school when assigning teaching roles.

With such a teaching assignment pattern, teachers of certain pathways and subjects were preferred to others, because they were assumed to contribute more significantly in relation to the NE. More developmental opportunities were available for these teachers, as the NE is endorsed by the district and the MoEC. As most school efforts were aimed at the NE, other teachers only earned limited opportunities and roles in their schools.
C. The formation of teachers’ segregated participation and possible contribution to school improvement

The generic phenomenon occurring in the four school cases was the similar academic priorities in regard to the NE that shaped the participation and contribution of teachers from each pathway. Although there were some differences in terms of school level and type, all of the schools placed success in the NE as their main academic priority. This tendency led to narrowing focuses on nationally examined subjects and on final year students in each school. The schools then, assigned instructional tasks and developmental opportunities correspondingly with the teachers’ pathways and subjects as the main teaching assignment considerations. As a result, teachers’ developmental participation and academic contributions to school improvement goals varied. There were slight variations among GTs, EATs, and SBTs, but these differences strikingly segregated NPTs from the former three pathways. Table 19 below briefly describes how school priorities that accompany teacher pathways shape the teacher’s development and eventually school improvement.

Table 19. Synthesis of teacher pathway impact on the school improvement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Priorities on the NEs</th>
<th>Roles assigned</th>
<th>Grade given</th>
<th>PD participation</th>
<th>Contribution</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GTs</td>
<td>Home room teachers</td>
<td>Examined/ Non-examined subjects</td>
<td>Final Year (NE)</td>
<td>More accessible opportunites</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EATS</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SBTs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NPTs</td>
<td>Subject specialists/ extra-curricular</td>
<td>Non-examined subjects</td>
<td>Lower grades</td>
<td>Less accessible opportunites</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Across the cases, academic priorities were strongly perceived among the different groups of stakeholders. In Neverland, the academic priorities of the NEs led to the perception that the teachers who were directly involved in the
achievement of its success were of the best quality. Similar perceptions existed among the stakeholder groups in Wilshire and Berkshire. In Majuro, the stakeholders faced the dilemma of targeting results in the NEs and preparing ready-to-work graduates.

These tendencies have resulted in: (1) the narrowing focus on certain examined subjects; and (2) more efforts and resources being spent on final year students. Three subjects in the elementary education level, four in the secondary school, six in the high school and three in the vocational school earned more attention compared to the other subjects. There were extra teaching hours in grade six of Neverland, grade nine of Wilshire, and in grade twelve of Berkshire, as well as in that of Majuro to prepare the students intensively for the NE. The teachers who handled the examined subjects in the final year of each school were perceived as having contributed directly to the school’s academic achievement. The other teachers considered their contributions to student performance as indirect in the forms of value formation and non-academic accomplishment.

The narrowing focus on certain subjects and emphasis on final year students in all school cases created different levels of teacher participation and contribution to school improvement. At this stage, teacher pathways became segregated, because the schools tended to pick permanent teachers (GTs/EATs/SBTs) in the case of preferred assignments and the opportunity to participate in developmental activities. In the elementary schools, these teachers held roles as classroom/homeroom teachers, while the NPTs had to shift to be subject teachers (specialists) or teachers with fewer responsibilities. The NPTs in Neverland, Wilshire, Berkshire, and Majuro never had the opportunity to teach final grade students. Different teacher pathways in all school cases were employed as determinant of possible participation and the degree of contribution in relation to the school's priorities. Across the schools’ cases, the NPTs became the most marginalised group in terms of their limited participation and contribution.
D. Linking the impacts of different pathways on teacher practices, teacher development, and school improvement

Examining the impact of recruitment pathways on teachers’ practices, development, and school improvement, a chain of connections could be drawn from the findings throughout the four school cases. First, the participants perceived there was insufficient previous teacher training across pathways that was unfortunately not addressed by the schools. In fact, new teachers required support and assistance from the schools in the form of job related induction. The absence of induction saw new teachers find their own way in learning the administrative, curricular, and instructional aspects of the job. They got along and chatted with senior teachers who had an awareness of what they needed. These interactions became informal mentoring activities from which both mentees and mentors reported benefitting. Such activities also became common strategies for the new teachers to solve their practical problems, due to the absence of induction. Yet the effectiveness of these activities as induction strategies remains unknown due to their lack of planning, implementation, and evaluation.

The shared pattern of teacher assignment governs several impacts within the schools. Due to the strong focus on achievement in tested subjects, there was a pattern of neglecting other non-tested subjects, as criticised by the participating vernacular and arts teachers. This also created pathway-based segregation, because the district required specific teachers to have legal responsibilities, (i.e., only those with civil service status could hold the positions as homeroom teachers). As such, it disadvantaged the improvement of the staff, as some potential teachers found it hard to make use of the opportunities due to different institutional barriers.

An interesting resolution to this issue was posed by Mandy of Berkshire and Marsha of Neverland in what they referred to as rotation. By this, they proposed that teachers be rotated across roles to experience different teaching assignments in order to boost their development. This, according to them, granted opportunities to all staff equally in both participation and contribution to school
development. The ‘rotation’ would allow teachers to experience different challenges and maximise their opportunities to flourish outside of the staff room, regardless of their pathways. It is, therefore, interesting to discuss the impact of teacher rotation on school improvement with the relevant literature in teacher education. When discrimination exists in a school’s teacher development, it is difficult for teacher contributions to be maximised and consequently, school improvement is compromised as illustrated in Figure 6 below.

![Figure 6: Synthesis of pathway impacts on teacher practices, schools’ efforts to develop teachers, and school improvement](image)

The above figure shows how the schools’ priorities for the NE and perceived impact of pathways on practices and development shape the way in which schools assign teaching roles to teachers. This assignment has become a
common pattern in the four schools in a bid to succeed in the NE. Teachers’ development opportunities and participations follow the assignment pattern accordingly. Moreover, the pattern segregates teachers’ possible contributions to accomplishment in the various aspects of education.

The relevant problems faced by the schools and the varied perceptions shared by their stakeholders need to be addressed in a further discussion. The collective findings and the particular issues emerging in each school offer insights, which lead to certain social and educational theories. These findings require examination in order to locate the case studies in the existing concepts and principles. Such an examination promotes both the practices of teacher management in public schools’ quality improvement, as well as the body of knowledge concerning teacher development. In detail, the synthesis above is summarised in the Table 20 below:

Table 20. The detailed impacts of pathways on practices, development, school efforts, and improvement across the schools.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pathway Letters</th>
<th>Perceived impacts on practices</th>
<th>Development</th>
<th>Placement pattern</th>
<th>Importance on school improvement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| GTs             | Well-equipped with academic knowledge & instructional technology skills, administratively competent and professionally disciplined, but often appeared fumbling and still in the process of learning to teach in front of a class. | * Seen as potentially improving faster than other pathways  
* Often became the ‘motors’ in the schools | * Given privileged positions such as home room teachers  
* Advantaged by the ‘civil servant status’ | Med-High  
Direct-In  
**Scores, Skills, Values** |
| EATs            | Teachers with a significant amount of experience who were able to cope with any classroom situation but lacked a theoretical basis and adaptability to new changes. | * Perceived as second to GTs across the schools in development due to the loose recruitment process | * Had to concede to GTs’ domination in accessing opportunities  
* Relying mostly on experiences | Med-High  
Direct-In  
**Scores, Skills, Values** |
E. Uniqueness in each school case

Within each school case there were distinctive issues that emerged as relevant to the issues under study. These unique issues were related to the nature of each school and its complexities. Therefore, despite the common themes emerging regarding the impact of teacher pathways on practices, school-based teacher development, and school improvement, each school had individual ways of coping with these particular issues. To a certain degree, these issues affected how each school developed its teachers and eventually on how each pathway impacted on the school’s improvement.

In Neverland, as perceived by most of the teaching staff, the absence of administrative staff had placed the principal into a particularly demanding position. Kay, the principal, had to deal with abundant coordination and administrative tasks. As a result, she was often burdened and confused with setting priorities. Fortunately, a few senior teachers supported her in crucial
decision making, such as teacher assignments and development plans. This condition created a circle of decision makers that the other staff envied as ‘preferred in terms of seniority and specific pathway’.

In terms of teacher development, the above condition resulted in (1) categorisation of teachers according to rank and seniority in teacher placement, and (2) the separation of staff into ‘homeroom teachers’ and ‘subject (specialist) teachers’. Being a homeroom teacher was possible only for GTs, EATs, and SBTs, because they were civil servants. Thus, NPTs had to concede these positions and accept the posts as ‘subject teachers’ or specialists.

In Wilshire junior school, the students’ abilities became the main driver in teacher development, according to most stakeholder groups. The more academic student cohort required teachers across pathways to realise that most of these students demanded more progressive classroom learning. The teachers were afraid that the students’ rejection of one of their colleagues would also happen to them when they stopped learning as professionals. As a result, teachers’ attitudes towards learning and their sense of collegiality emerged as the main forms of new culture among the staff in a bid to avoid complacency. In this school’s case, several perceivably progressive GTs voluntarily acted as catalysts in the staffroom and different stakeholder groups admitted these teachers’ instructional and technological sophistication.

Berkshire, with its rapidly changing internal and external environments, showed its uniqueness in the importance of steady leadership in its resurgence. The previous unstable periods prior to Macky’s management proved to be the school's difficult eras. The school’s academic performance in the NEs had not been as expected, which stakeholders attributed to lack of leadership from the previous school management team. Different groups of stakeholders in the school noticed the importance of stable staff formation to facilitate teacher development, as well as the school’s academic improvement.

Majuro was different in some respects to the other participating schools. As a highly ranked vocational school, it had more teachers, more departments, more students, and more social complexities. As the principal, Ike had been aware
that the difficulties he faced at the school were different from the ones he had experienced at previous schools.

First, the composition of the staff’s gender was imbalanced, with more than 80% of the staff being females. According to Ike and several deputies, this disproportion created difficulties in teacher assignments and developmental opportunity distribution. The leaders perceived that the female staff formed cliques, which often created friction. Reflecting on the split-up among female staff in Majuro, several leaders and the two supervisors criticised Ike’s lack of firmness and voiced the demand for a stronger character to lead these groups of teachers. These stakeholder groups saw this as one of the barriers for developing teachers and achieving the school’s agenda.

Another particular phenomenon found in Majuro was that it held two school priorities in tension: performance in the NEs and integration into the job market. All stakeholder groups expressed their concerns over the dilemma which, to a certain extent, had split the school’s focus as a vocational education institution. The Dual System of Education (PSG) was an effort to enhance graduates’ absorption in the job market and became the productive teachers’ developmental domain. The other focus, the NEs, made the school conduct instructional practices in the same way as high schools. As such, its teacher assignment pattern and instructional activities resembled those of high schools.

Last but not least, different stakeholders in the school claimed difficulties in engaging transferred teachers from non-vocational schools into Majuro’s ethos. Learning the school’s characteristics was perceived as ‘not easy’ by several participating teachers (i.e., Erma and Marty) due to the school’s vocational nature. Combined with the absence of school induction, the transferred staff issue had the potential to disrupt the teachers’ development in the school.

These particulars in each school are worth discussion because they shape the specific pattern of teacher management and development in the respective schools. How they contributed to the formation of segregated teacher development might help to understand the phenomenon across all the cases.
Finally, such particularities give a detailed foundation for the analysis of this multiple-case study.

This synthesis has examined the commonalities and uniqueness of the experience of the schools in the study. A narrative can be drawn from the shared and individual phenomena occurring within the schools. The impact of pathways on teachers’ practices is comparable in all schools as recruits from different pathways were perceived to be practically unprepared. However, the areas of unpreparedness were different, as was the teachers’ development potential, which is relevant to their professional training.

How these unprepared practices and development potential contribute to the efforts of the schools to develop the teachers is discussed in the following chapter. The impact of standard-based reforms and accountability (i.e., the implementation of the NE) helps to explain the way these schools develop teachers from different pathways. Pathway-based segregation likely occurs in the way the four schools developed the teachers and amplifies the possible impact each pathway can contribute to school improvement. Relevant issues such as mentoring, institutional barriers, and teacher rotation aid in the case elaboration.
Chapter VI
Discussion

This chapter discusses the findings further with reference to the previous synthesis. Connecting to the relevant literature, the discussion allows the research questions to be answered in a more comprehensive manner. The connection with relevantly current literature enables the findings to be compared and positioned in the body of knowledge in teacher recruitment, teacher development, and school improvement.

A. The impact of pathways on teachers’ initial practices

Several aspects of teachers’ initial practices emerged in the findings which reflect the impacts of pathways the teachers went through. First, there is a relationship between the pathways and teacher professional preparation which impact on both the teacher’s practice and their potential development. Second, context-specific induction is necessary for novice teachers to familiarise themselves with the demands and conditions of their particular school. The absence of such induction created a third issue of informal mentoring as an alternative form of induction which may be an understandable response on the part of the schools but its effectiveness is difficult to measure. With these three conditions, the development of teachers’ Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK) is at stake more over with the current demand for technological mastery.

A.1. Novice teachers’ practices and potential development

The synthesis of findings showed that teacher practice was influenced respectively by their employment pathway, although there were some features common to all pathways such as questions concerning the adequacy of pre-service preparation. There is a shared perception among interviewees that regardless of the pathway, new teachers are not adequately prepared for teaching. However, in terms of development, there is a perceived sense of slightly better potential among
participants graduating from teacher education programs (mostly GTs and EATs) which is consistent with the findings of other studies on teacher education (Howey et al., 1994; Lewis et al., 1999). They revealed that teacher education graduates, similar to the majority of GTs and several EATs in the current study, felt themselves as a bit better prepared throughout their professional training.

How well teachers are prepared is significantly related to their sense of efficacy and their confidence about their abilities to achieve teaching goals (Darling-Hammond, Chung, & Frelow, 2002). Thus, teachers’ sense of preparedness relates to their potential development in the profession. All participants viewed GTs across the schools to have the most potential for developing as effective teachers and leaders, because they had strong academic and technological skills. In the United States, the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) (2001) reported similar views in their report on teacher preparation and technological mastery. These findings, as well as those of Howes et al. (2003), show the importance of teacher preparation programmes linked to relevant higher education degrees in developing teachers to be effective practitioners. GTs with their relevant professional training and better academic degrees were seen to possess the intellectual, administrative, and technological advantages to develop as effective teachers more quickly.

Education policy makers believe that new teachers must be able to provide the quality of teaching required for an effective school education system (OECD, 2005). However, the findings in the current study show that most teachers from recruitment pathways with less extensive preparation were perceived as demonstrating unsatisfactory practices and skills. Despite lacking of classroom experiences, the GTs were viewed as having better academic knowledge and skills than teachers in the other pathways who lacked professional training. More experience in different classroom situations is often considered important for developing the skills required for effective teaching (OECD, 2005). Yet the exact length of time required to master higher quality teaching skills is only partly understood. Several SBTs explained that they began to teach well after three years in the profession, while others varied in their adaptation processes. Thus, the
teachers’ level of instructional practice is undesirably wide-ranging in terms of adjustment due to different teacher pathways, length of tenure, and professional preparation.

Some research has shown that teachers with long tenure may be less effective as they become less attracted to and exhausted by their careers (OECD, 2005). In the four school cases, this phenomenon was heard from different stakeholders, particularly in the case of senior civil servant teachers (GTs/EATs/SBTs). However, Day et al. (2006) found contrasting evidence that there are resilient teachers who remain effective across their careers throughout the difficult process of adaptation and transformation. Relevant research concerning teachers’ effectiveness highlights the significance of teachers’ early years of teaching. Gordon et al. (2006) found more increases in teachers’ effectiveness between the first and second year of their careers than in teachers with longer experience in teaching. However, teaching experience has significant impact on student achievement (Huang, 2009) although the relationship is not linear (Rice, 2003; OECD, 2005).

School leaders emphasised the potential of newly recruited GTs compared to more experienced teachers from other pathways, a finding that stood out across the four schools. Teachers from the other pathways referred to the learning speed and adaptability of GTs making it difficult for the former to match them. These results are in line with the findings of Gordon et al. (2006) that teachers perceived as effective in their early periods of teaching tended to progress at a faster rate than their less effective colleagues. The early experiences encountered by GTs, hence, shape their development throughout their careers, rather than just influencing their effectiveness in the early years.

Given the fact that all recruits, regardless of their pathways, reported feeling unprepared in their early assignments, it is important to provide them with the best learning experiences both through improving the quality of pre-service teacher education and experiencing best practice in the profession. Learning from practice has become a fundamental challenge for the teaching profession, which tries to link the gap between general, abstract bodies of professional knowledge
and situated and contextualised expertise (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1999; Schön, 1990; Shulman, 2004). Such forms of learning will provide an opportunity for teachers to reflect on and learn from their practice. The challenge is how to establish collaborative, effective, and continuous forms of learning for teachers in schools to improve their instructional practices.

A.2. The need for context-based induction for novice teachers

The first year of teaching requires adaptation to the profession and the specific school environment to enable problem solving and opportunity sharing (Youngs, 2002). The theories and teaching methods teachers studied in college need to be applied to the particular needs of the school setting. How Marty faced instructional problems when assigned to teach in a vocational school was an appropriate example of curricular shock despite her lengthy pathway. According to Brock and Grady, “without support and guidance, beginners often grasp the first strategies that work and cling to them throughout their careers” (1998, p. 179). This also happened to most of the teachers in the four schools due to limited Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK) and the absence of formal, specific, and structured induction in their early careers.

Research shows that induction can help retain teachers and improve their instruction as long as content, duration, and intensity are given attention. Ingersoll and Strong (2011) emphasised the positive impact of induction on beginner teachers’ practices in terms of keeping students on task, developing practical lesson plans, using effective student questioning practices, adjusting classroom activities to meet students’ interests, maintaining a positive classroom atmosphere, and demonstrating successful classroom management. With the absence of job specific induction in the studied schools, new recruits rely on their personal relationship with more senior colleagues (informal mentoring). Its effectiveness, however, remains unknown, though several NPTs discussed replicating lesson plans and imitating their mentors’ strategies.

The definitions of induction in various studies are often similar, but what constitutes effective induction remains vague. Bickmore and Bickmore (1998)
define it as an organised process rooted in a dynamic school environment that meets new teachers' personal and professional requirements. The rationale, according to Ingersoll and Strong (2011), is that teacher preparation in the college is considered insufficient and a particular portion can only be learned while on the job. Therefore, new teachers, as professionals, need to be inducted so that they know what and how to effectively perform in their positions.

Research related to teacher induction focuses mainly on mentoring in assisting novice teachers’ adaptation into professional practice, rather than programmes of support that encompass several components (Darling-Hammond, 2003; Feiman-Nemser, 2003). Smith and Ingersoll (2004) found that systematic mentoring and collective induction positively affect novice teachers' transition into and retention in the profession. Thus, any structured form of assistance to new teachers that can help their adaptation, learning, and practice in schools is considered induction.

The lack of induction in the four school cases was similar to situations in Brazil, Lithuania, Malta, Mexico, and Spain, where teachers in schools experience a very limited or unstructured induction process (Smith & Ingersoll, 2004). In fact, measuring the effectiveness of any educational programme becomes difficult when implementation is ineffective, or inconsistent (Hall & Hord, 2006). Bickmore and Bickmore (1998) concluded that the key of an effective induction lies in the fitness of what has been planned and its implementation.

Despite the enactment of MoEC’s regulation 27, 2010 of the Induction Program for Novice Teachers (PIGP), the four schools had yet to implement it. More surprisingly, most of the schools’ stakeholders, including teachers and leaders, knew very little about it. As new recruits were not engaged in specific job-related induction in the schools, they remained underprepared for conducting effective instructional practices. Thus, the early support or assistance earned by newly recruited teachers from their schools was unclear and unstructured. This condition led these teachers to seek work-related information individually and discreetly. They looked for comfortable senior teachers as mentors from whom they could get information and learn instructional aspects without any difficulty.
A.2.1. The prevalence of mentoring

Mentoring at different school levels aims to both moderate the shock encountered by novice teachers and to provide opportunities for expert teachers to lead (Lieberman, 1996). Mentoring has been a prominent strategy for developing new teachers, although this had not been formalised by the schools in this study and was personally initiated by the mentees. With the absence of job-based school induction, most of the recruited teachers informally opted to imitate and learn from their senior colleagues in each school. Jensen et al. (2012) note that, according to an OECD survey, mentoring is the most common form of learning among novice teachers. Though not formally established by the schools, mentoring is also the most common means by which teachers orientated themselves in the four schools under study.

Policy makers and educational experts have called for further considerable participation of schools in supporting teacher learning at their early career stages (European Commission, 2010). At the same time, there has been substantial development in studies on the nature and development of teaching capability through mentoring. Munby et al. (2001) and Tsui (2003) provide broad reviews of mentoring research, using different forms of analysis, theoretical approaches, and empirical data. Bullough (2005) and Moor et al. (2005) report evidence of mentors’ increased confidence and at the same time, mentees’ increased motivation and job satisfaction. The feelings expressed particularly by NPTs in the four schools who learned from senior colleagues indicate that such improvements also occurred among these teachers. Mentors in this study also spoke of the benefit of working with highly rated GTs in terms improving their use of technology in instructions.

Research points to the impact of mentoring on beginning teachers’ behaviour and classroom management skills, and their ability to manage their time and workloads (e.g., Moor et al., 2005). Mentors also play an important role in the socialisation of beginner teachers in learning and adapting to the norms, standards, and expectations in a particular context (Au, 2007). The mentors involved in research conducted by Hagger and McIntyre (2006) appreciated the
mentoring experience because it helped them to reflect on their own teaching. Several leaders, such as Latria, Dion, and Marsha, who often guided new recruits, perceived the reproduction of their teaching practices by younger colleagues had helped them revise and improve their own instructional practices.

While the four schools had different contexts and mechanisms, the impact of collegial mentoring was traceable in all four schools. Participants in all schools reported positive impacts from a range of informal mentoring activities such as teachers’ staffroom chats, subject group discussions, and personal sharing between newly recruited teachers and senior colleagues. Other teachers and leaders expressed the benefit gained from working with the younger GTs, because they learned how to use different software for instructional and evaluative purposes. Conversely, new recruits gained more instructional insights and experience from their senior colleagues. However, the informality of the activities makes their effectiveness difficult to measure.

A.3. Factors influencing teachers’ practices

Contesting the views of school stakeholder groups, this study found shared perceptions on the impact of pathways on teachers’ practices. These perceptions acknowledged the need for beginning teachers to be supported so as to become fully effective in their practice. Therefore, it is interesting to examine how the poor preparation of new teachers occurred in all four school cases in order to untangle the issue from pedagogical, experiential, and pathway perspectives.

A.3.1 Combining content knowledge, technology, and pedagogy

Shulman (1986) argues that research on teaching and teacher education has neglected the content of the lessons taught. He emphasised that teachers have a distinctive way of viewing practice and he encouraged an examination of teachers’ pedagogical thinking. Such an examination would reveal what teachers must know to effectively teach the content of a subject to their students.

In the current study, the stakeholders were required to address questions concerning the significance of teacher pathway experiences and the ways in which
these may influence teaching practices. Most of the participants reflected on their own experiences as teachers to present justifications for what caused their unpreparedness. On this matter, Shulman (1987, p. 13) argues that “Teachers must learn to use their knowledge base to provide the grounds for choices and action… Good teaching is not only effective behaviourally, but must also reset on a foundation of adequately grounded premises.” Most participants admitted the difficulties of contextualising their academic knowledge and instructional skills in specific circumstances. A few others, particularly the NPTs and SBTs, confessed a lack of knowledge and skills for performing well in their early careers, which was a result of minimal training. Jake’s, Arty’s, and Drew’s perceived poor practices following recruitment were a result of their limited access to pedagogical demonstrations and strategies as they were not graduates of teacher education programs. The quality of their practice was therefore linked to their lack of knowledge base, which would otherwise have allowed them to utilise alternative strategies. Furthermore, as added by Marty, a lack of capacity to link general instructional principles to specific classroom settings was also a factor.

Research in science education has highlighted the problems of novice teachers’ content knowledge when they enter the teaching profession (Halim & Meerah, 2002). At this stage, their content knowledge is still limited and may therefore contain some misconceptions (Appleton, 2003). These teachers tried to compensate for their lack of subject matter (content) knowledge by creating effective activities to raise interest among students about particular content. In the current study, most NPTs admitted to imitating and improvising their colleagues’ strategies to compensate for their limited PCK. Such activities, according to Appleton (2003), helped the development of their pedagogical knowledge (PK) through experiences with students.

Hashweh (2003) described the details of the interface between prior knowledge, experience, and new knowledge. More recently, she proposed “a view of PCK as a collection of Teacher Professional Constructions, a form of knowledge that preserves the planning and wisdom of practice that the teacher acquires when repeatedly teaching a certain topic and that simultaneously
integrates this knowledge with the theoretical knowledge in Education” (2013, p. 137). When teaching new topics, experienced teachers tend to draw from their general pedagogical knowledge, which can create a backup context for the development of their PCK. Mandy of Berkshire, Marsha of Neverland, and Marty of Majuro shared the idea with their colleagues that their teaching competence increasingly improved as they gained more classroom experience. These teachers regarded the content knowledge they learned at the colleges as not directly helpful in improving their pedagogical skills until they learned its application with their students.

The ability to draw upon a range of representations and descriptions that allow for different ways of framing a situation is obviously important to creative practice and awareness (Nilsson & Loughran, 2011). As experienced by Drew, practical reflection dealing with the employment of content and content related knowledge is often difficult for new teachers to assemble. Without sufficient experience and basic classroom management skills, the development of PCK as an available and valuable interpretation of content knowledge into classroom practice may be delayed (Kansanen et al., 1997). As such, the feeling of nervousness and helplessness, as experienced by Drew and other SBTs is justifiable, because their insufficient content knowledge prevents them from developing effective pedagogical practices. Fortunately, the PKG training programmes facilitated their PCK development. The structured programmes offered reflection opportunities to review the relationship between the teachers’ subject-matter knowledge and classroom practice.

Mulholland and Wallace (2005) illustrated the development of PCK as a complex pattern of interactions between various pedagogical and academic components, which is experienced with the students in classrooms. With such complexities portraying the improvement of PCK, teachers’ early practices should not become a concern, because they actually learn through their lived experiences with the students (Park & Oliver, 2008). Therefore, the development of PCK that includes teachers’ understanding of how students learn, or fail to learn specific subject matter should be the focus in professional development programmes (Van
Driel & Berry, 2012). With these focuses, how schools can design, provide, and evaluate instructional opportunities for the teachers in order to learn effectively becomes crucial. The reason for this, according to Putnam and Borko (2000), is that teacher learning exists in a situated context with their students in their classrooms and schools.

While teacher education still struggles to combine content knowledge and pedagogical knowledge, Mishra and Koehler (2008) argue that teachers also need to possess skills in utilising technology for facilitating student learning and evaluation purposes. Newly recruited teachers may be familiar with this through instructional technology courses in their colleges, but SBTs and senior teachers in the four schools admitted they had to learn it from young GTs. Shin et al. (2009) argue that in-service teachers’ beliefs about teaching and technology changed as a result of a set of educational technology courses. The difficulties of integrating technology in instructional practices were reported by teachers in the four schools, particularly among senior teachers. In line with Hasweh’s (2013) proposal for teacher professional constructions, the participants in the current study perceived that a more relevant personal approach was more acceptable by senior teachers. That is, the integration of technology into classrooms needs to consider these teachers’ actual practices.

A.3.2 The role of experience

If teaching is a form of learning for teachers, experience plays a key role in the process, because knowledge is created in the transformation of experience (Kolb, 1993). Experience provides a rationale for practical decisions in the classrooms. Kansanen et al. (1997) name this rationale as teachers’ pedagogical thinking, which lays perceptual foundations for teachers to interpret different situations and experiences. Teachers’ different professional training and experiences are presumed to have a role in their ability to make effective practical decisions in the classroom.

Although research has found that experience matters, more is not always better. Teachers demonstrate maximum increase in effectiveness during their first
few years in their career, after which their performance tends to remain at the same level (Boyd et al. 2007; Rice, 2010). More teaching experience, as in the case of EATs, does not always mean better teaching practices.

With the strong impact of teacher experience on efficiency, in the early teaching career, teacher professional development needs to make the most of this period. Novice teachers, as previously discussed, need support and a comfortable environment to create the best experience out of the improvement of their teaching practices. Without sufficient support, teaching any kind of student may become a very difficult task for novice teachers (Caroll & Foster, 2010) and as a result, their instructional impact and productivity cannot be maximised for the benefit of the school and the students. Some of the SBTs’ experiences in struggling to cope with instructional tasks in the first few years of their career demonstrate the necessity of novice teachers having access to effective school supports early after recruitment.

A.4. Pathways as a significant role in teaching practices

Research in unprepared, underprepared, and fully prepared teachers consistently demonstrate that preparation impacts on the teachers’ effectiveness in terms of their students’ learning (Goldhaber, 2007). Research conducted by Howes (2003) showed that the degree teachers earn from college mattered. Teachers with relevant degrees were found to be more effective in their responsiveness and engagement with children in activities that promote language development and literacy than most teachers without relevant degrees. This corresponds to the findings of Laurie et al. (1999), who reported the significance of teacher preparation and qualifications in yielding effective teacher performance. The GTs in the participating primary, secondary, high, and vocational schools had relevant degrees from teaching colleges. Though they may have had lacked teaching experience, leaders in these schools normally understood the experience as a process of teacher learning. If they could find mentors in the early years of teaching for induction, they would be more likely to become effective teachers because of their intellectual advantages.
SBTs’ lack of training posed problems regarding how they coped with classroom activities. Undergoing only a half of GTs’ pre-service training duration, SBTs reported problems with confusion and ignorance in their early careers. Darling-Hammond et al. (2002, p. 290) comment, “recruits who had taken other pathways into teaching felt less well prepared than teacher education program graduates.” With less preparation, it is not surprising that the SBTs perceived their practices in their early careers with a relative lack of confidence. The recruitment processes of SBTs and EATs might be deemed ‘alternative pathways’ under the conditions of teacher shortages (Darling-Hammond et al., 2002); nonetheless, SBTs and EATs differed in terms of the amount of experience and length of process in recruitment.

NPTs were typically assigned to teach subjects that did not match their training or education. They had to learn the subject matter (content) and develop the knowledge and pedagogical skills through imitation and improvisation to simplify and demonstrate concepts to students. Teachers of this pathway group reported struggling to understand the knowledge and skills they needed while at the same time having to perform in conformity with pre-set professional standards. It is therefore not surprising that most participating stakeholders in the four schools perceived NPTs’ mediocre practices as a given.

Ingersoll (2002) concluded that the existence of out-of-field teachers, as were many of the NPTs in the current study, was not primarily due to a deficit in either the quality or quantity of teachers. Out-of-field teaching is a common administrative practice in which unqualified teachers are assigned to teach classes in subjects that do not match their previous training, as in the case of NPTs. In a strong claim, Ingersoll (2002, p. 25) argues that the root of the problem is in “the way schools are organised and teachers are managed.” This claim corresponds to the findings of the current study concerning how the schools assign instructional tasks and develop teachers from different pathways.

Recruitment pathways are, therefore, a significant influence on teacher assignment in Indonesia that strongly influence roles, responsibilities, and access to development opportunities in schools. Pathways matter, because they represent
teachers’ professional training. Knowledge capital, earned from previous professional training, can be a determinant of practices and potential development. Even so, the four existing pathways do not determine teachers’ motivation and attitudes at the individual level, which are also significant in their professional development.

B. Teachers’ potential development

Identifying a teacher candidate’s potential is the first step in recognising the ability in order to provide options for further development. If we assume teachers to be students of teaching, we must therefore see them as leading a potential process, not a result (Coleman, 2003). The development opportunities become a means of ensuring that teachers gain the required support to help them succeed in their professional practice. In this regard, assessing and verifying the teachers’ needs to guide individuals and groups of teachers is vital. The leaders in different participating schools have argued that potentially, teachers of a certain pathway (GTs) possess what it takes to succeed in the profession more than those of other pathways because of their better academic knowledge from previous professional training. The following arguments yield more insights to this claim.

B.1. The importance of identifying the right candidates

Most of the school stakeholder groups declared the inability of the current recruitment process to attract the right candidates into the profession. The four pathways all have their own flaws in terms of selecting candidates, providing induction, and developing teachers to support their practice. As a result, the recruits from each pathway are generally perceived to show different features of less-than-optimal attitudes and unprepared practice. This finding demonstrates the link of pathways and the adequacy of previous professional trainings and highlights the difficulty for schools and districts to identify potential candidates.

In order to improve recruitment efforts, Richardson and Watt (2006) developed a framework to profile the characteristics and motivations for why people enter the teaching profession. Motivations for choosing a teaching career
vary; some of these include the aspiration to work with children and the possibility for academic progress (OECD, 2005), salary, job security, and occupational status (Watt & Richardson, 2008). Fokkens-Bruinsma and Canrinus (2012) found that the key drives for young people deciding to enter the profession are perceived teaching ability, the will to work with children, and the opportunities to have more time for family.

In the Indonesian context, Basikin (2007) has argued that entry into teaching is apparently driven by intrinsic values held by the teachers such as socio-religious beliefs of the society. Understanding novice teachers’ early motivations to teach contributes to the important knowledge base for improving the quality of teachers and their practices. The inability to obtain information on novice teachers’ motivations may contribute to the failure in understanding their attitudes towards professional learning.

B.2. Teachers’ learning attitudes

Attitudes are believed to have a significant influence on teacher practices and behaviours. Richardson (1996, p. 102) states, “Attitudes and beliefs are a subset of a group of constructs that name, define, and describe the structure and content of mental states that are thought to drive a person’s actions.” Positive attitudes to teaching can support in establishing relationships of mutual respect and trust with students, colleagues, and wider communities. The positive relationship between a person’s attitude and his or her performance has been extensively documented (Wilkins, 2008). So, Harry’s lethargic attitude towards school changes and development opportunities, for example, was strongly perceived by most Neverland stakeholders as the cause of his poor teaching practices. The existence of teachers such as Harry coming through the most rigorous preparation pathway, that of the GT, demonstrate the main recruitment system’s inability to identify candidates with the types of attitudes that are likely to support effective teaching.

Effective attitudes and practices of teachers can support positive changes in the achievement of their students. Watson (2003) describes teaching as a
mental process and believes a teacher’s ability to create dynamic classroom situations, motivate students, and make decisions depends on their individual qualities for creating personal relationships with the students. In the current study, most participants often called such qualities ‘characters’, referring to a teacher’s individual qualities in relation to his/her performance in creating effective instruction. Such positive attitudes are equally influential in the teacher’s professional development, because of the on-going demands for change and learning in the profession.

In terms of professional development, Torrf and Sessions (2008) argue that teachers’ attitudes towards professional learning may change over time; increasing in the first two years, steadily decreasing from third to ninth years and then levelling out after a decade in the profession. Their study highlights the importance of suitable intervention in the forms of constant support for each stage due to the different challenges in the career routes of teachers. In relation to the current discussion, relevant support in the first stage is important regardless of the pathway a teacher has taken. Therefore, in terms of improving practices, the early years in the profession are a crucial time for providing tailored and appropriate professional learning.

B.3. Inability of pathways to identify teachers’ attitudes and development

Two points become key factors in examining the teacher pathways, attitudes and practices, namely better professional preparation and an extensive recruitment process. Earlier research by Laurie et al. (1999) and Howes (2003), found that the professional preparation teachers underwent at relevant colleges mattered; this was evident in the perceptions of the stakeholders about GTs. So clearly, thorough and relevant pre-service preparation is essential if schools are to lift the quality of teaching practice and through this, student achievement.

The second point emerged from the recruitment experience of EATs in the study. These teachers underwent a lengthy process of recruitment before being promoted as civil servants in their respective schools. Gordon et al. (2006) argue that by meticulously scrutinising teachers’ early years performance, schools and
districts can identify those who are likely to be or to become committed and effective teachers. Unfortunately, the policy to promote EATs as civil servants (established during the period 2005 to 2008) has been viewed as a loose process rather than having a strong basis in merit practices. As a result, school stakeholders viewed their practices as not distinctive from the other pathways, despite their lengthy recruitment process. This may suggests that, providing schools with time to observe teachers’ early progress does not guarantee the improvement of their motivations and attitudes towards professional learning.

While the four teacher pathways were deemed unable to provide motivational and attitudinal information, most stakeholders tended to see from how teachers had been trained previously. The head of the teacher development division in the district emphasised the importance of teacher training colleges giving extra attention particularly to the individual characteristics of teacher candidates. The reason is that attitudes are learned and that they constantly influence a person’s practical decisions in positive or negative ways (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Hannula, 2002). Because schools in Indonesia do not have a strong role in most teacher recruitment, the best they can do in response to this situation is to provide opportunities for teachers to learn from the schools’ best practices and to argue for an improvement the quality of pre service training in teachers colleges.

The failure to identify teachers’ motivations and attitudes in the recruitment process is therefore systemic. At the policy level, the recruitment which neglects schools’ actual needs and their participation has led to the problems of teacher professional accountability (The World Bank, 2012), to the schools, the districts or the central government. A clear example of this accountability problem comes from the neglect on NPTs’ development due to their pathway as an ‘alternative’ route (Darling-Hammond, 2002).

For teachers of other pathways (GTs, EATs, and SBTs) who were sent to schools by the district, the schools required learning and identifying new recruits’ potential initially through direct assignments. From these initial assignments, the different groups of stakeholders could, for example, identify GTs’ intellectual
abilities and professional qualities because they had been better-prepared through relevant training in their respective teacher colleges. The stakeholders also identified EATs’ experiential advantage among the pathways that enabled these teachers to examine their beliefs and learn the right attitudes for the profession despite their perceived slower adaptability. The SBTs’ lack of training proved a hindrance in their early development as admitted by some of the teachers from this pathway. Therefore, pathways are perceived to have a role in a teacher’s development because these pathways reflect the adequacy of professional training the teacher previously underwent.

C. Locating pathways in the schools’ efforts to induct and develop teachers

C.1. Convergent schooling policy

There was a shared belief across the four different schools that success in the NEs for students in the final school years was the main academic priority. Consequently, pedagogical practices have been driven mostly by the NE, which is considered as a high stakes test (McNeil, 2000) due to its broad impact on different stakeholders and schooling aspects. This study has shown the impact of the high stakes test particularly on narrowing the curriculum and on patterns of teacher assignment and further on how the patterns create segregated and stratified teacher groups within schools.

This overarching emphasis on the NE has generated much criticism and debate in Indonesia due to its impact on NE students, teachers, and even parents. Bernstein, (1971, p. 47) theorised that “Formal educational knowledge can be considered to be realised through three message systems: curriculum, pedagogy, and evaluation.” School stakeholders viewed the implementation of the NE as being against this principle with regard to the present school-based curriculums.

Lingard (2010) has labelled high stakes testing in the Australian education as ‘policy borrowing’, due to its prevalence in overseas education policy. The implementation of such policy highly depends on the internalisation or domestication by local actors at different levels (Phillips and Ochs, 2004). Although this study was not designed to explore the internalisation of policy in
the participating schools, the findings suggest that schools, teachers and students had internalised the accountability policy. Darling-Hammond (2010) has argued that school accountability should put emphasis on the competency of principals and teachers, the quality of instruction, and the capacity of the school system to trigger improvements. In such a policy, one of the programmatic impacts relevant to the current study is how high stakes testing and education policy in general impact on the professional development of teachers.

C.1.1. The impact of high stakes testing on teacher development

The discussion of the impact of pathways on teacher development is closely related to global trends in public education, such as those mentioned. The examination of teaching assignment patterns across schools suggests that the NE, which is a form of high stakes test, has become the main driver of teaching assignment pattern in schools. Teacher developmental opportunities then follow the assignment patterns, creating further gaps among teachers from different subjects, grades, and pathways.

Research on the impact of high stakes testing on teachers and teaching practice has shown a number of negative consequences. According to Marchant, “teachers believe there are too many tests; the results are not useful to teachers and are misunderstood by parents and the public” (2004, p. 4). Moreover, such tests force teachers to adjust their teaching practice to increase student test scores (Cimbricz, 2002). Teachers are also more likely to apply teaching methods and materials that simulate testing and to intensify test preparation (Marchant, 2004). They are also more likely to neglect topics not covered by tests and avoid innovative teaching methods (Cimbricz, 2002). These findings indicate the detrimental effect of high stakes testing on pedagogical practice. In the current study, the different stakeholder groups also voiced similar concerns about the implementation of the NE in the participating primary, secondary, and high schools, as well as in vocational schools.

Dulfer et al. (2012) reported the detrimental impacts of NAPLAN as a high stakes test that narrows teaching practices, student learning, and school
reputation. Au (2007) found that high stakes tests promote curricular alignment to the items covered in the test only to the disadvantage or exclusion of non-tested subjects. With such alignment and content narrowing, the responses of Erma, Yuri, and other teachers who do not teach the tested subjects arguing that their subjects were marginalised by the NE, were justified.

The focus on NE has positioned certain teachers as more important; at the same time, it has relegated other teachers’ role to that of merely supplementary teachers. As such, teachers teaching NE subjects gain more teaching hours and professional learning opportunities in order to achieve the school’s prioritised goal of high performance in the exams. NE-related positions are normally held mainly by GTs, EATs, and SBTs. Teachers teaching non-examined subjects are forced to accept what are effectively lower status roles due to the narrowing curriculum concentration. NPTs often hold these roles together with less highly regarded GTs, EATs, and SBTs. A relatively similar condition was also found by Lobascher (2011), who reported that literacy teachers earned more access to high quality, evidence-based professional development as a result of high-stakes testing. Such conditions in the schools have undeniably segregated teaching staff according to their perceived impact on NE results. Teacher pathways are a major factor in this teacher segregation at school level.

C.1.2. Different pathways, different roles

The varied pathways to teaching in Indonesia have created unexceptional teaching practices and different teacher potentials for development in the profession. Schools are expected to minimise the gap among teachers and help underprivileged teachers (i.e. those with less training and in lower status pathways). Unfortunately, the adopted policies at national, local, and school levels have compounded the gap instead. Because of the national policy on NE, teachers of certain subjects are assumed to play more important roles than others. They normally hold better positions and assignments in their respective schools. In Neverland, for example, GTs and EATs had higher status roles as homeroom teachers, while NPTs had to accept minor roles as subject specialists or extra-
curricular teachers. An almost similar role-segregation happens in junior and high schools, with NPTs again being relegated to lower status roles. In vocational schools, teacher segregation is more complex, because the school has two priorities – achievement in the NE and graduate absorption in the job market.

From a sociological perspective, Ingersoll (2002) argues that the solution lies in addressing the underlying systemic and contextual causes of these structural practices. He claims organisational practices are normally related to job-related status and different occupational members are developed and treated in workplaces relevant to the authority and status of that occupation. NPTs, as school teachers, are in lower status roles and not in strong contact with the district, as explained by Bandy and Debbie. Their pathway reflects their occupational status, which is non-permanent, supplementary, and uncertain. As a result, they have to accept different treatment from their respective schools and be satisfied with limited developmental opportunities.

C.2. Development opportunities creation

The type of professional development most often mentioned by teachers in is informal dialogue to improve teaching, with 93% of teachers reporting this activity during the surveyed period (OECD, 2004). The interviews with various stakeholder groups in the current study led to a similar finding in the form of MKKS (Principals’ Working Forums) and MGMP (Subject Teachers’ Groups) at school, both at cluster and district levels. Many schools also rely on other forms of professional development that arise from structural initiatives. Garvin (1993) argued that most institutional improvement depends on structural change and therefore hardly ever recognises success in individual efforts for improvement.

Teacher learning occurs when teachers treat their own classrooms and schools as research settings for both knowledge production and theory reproduction (Feiman-Nemser, 2003). For that to happen, Washington (1993) argued that both teachers and principals need to be actively involved in initiating, planning, and implementing staff development programmes. Teachers in his study perceived that they knew best what their needs were and believed that their active
participation enhanced the effectiveness of any programmes. In the current study, Drew, Jackson, and Julie noted the lack of evaluation and follow-ups to determine the effectiveness of school based professional learning. What these teachers require is support from the school administrator to link what they learn from developmental experiences to actual instructional practices. Support from the school management for the teacher's active engagement increases the chance of programme success (Hord & Hirsh, 2009). The teachers from different pathways reported the differential degree of support they earned from the former to the current management in relation to development activities.

School principals must employ learning leadership practices, because the creation of opportunities is a collaborative effort shared among teachers, parents, students, principals, and community members (Spillane, Halverson, & Diamond, 2004). These stakeholders have a better impact on student learning when working together than any one of them working separately, as strongly expressed by Dion and Marsha of Neverland. These concerted practices support teachers’ professional learning, knowledge building, and instructional decision making in relation to curricular understanding. Such collaboration allows schools to provide teachers with what Lieberman (1996) calls inquiry-based learning opportunities with which to develop their own understanding of improved concepts as well as the strategies for engaging students for better learning. Thus, learning opportunities are rooted in the teachers’ instructional practices, are aimed at improving their practices, are conducted and shared with their colleagues. For that purpose, relevant support from the school administrator is significant.

C.2.1. Different degrees of accessibility

As the different degrees of support in each school depend on the leadership team in place, teachers perceived access to teacher development differently. GTs mostly viewed all available resources as accessible, depending on the subjects and grades in which the teachers were placed. EATs and SBTs regarded themselves second to GTs in terms of accessing development
opportunities. NPTs had the least access to professional development because of their pathway. Duggleby and Badali (2007) found that NPTs were not included in systemic professional development and excluded from the formal structures of schools. Therefore, they often experienced feelings of helplessness and exclusion (Fang, 1996). Most NPTs had to find access to the district by themselves so that they could keep up with the curricular and instructional updates.

With the structural and institutional barriers faced by NPTs, it is not surprising that school members viewed NPTs less positively. Abdal-Haq (1997) found that students, teachers, and administrators seldom respected NPTs as full professionals who meet accepted standards of practice. These undesirable views, together with low expectations (Appleton, 2003), endorse the perceptions held by stakeholders that NPTs have a lower status regarding their competencies as professional teaching staff. Treated as marginal members of the school professional community, NPTs tend to perceive themselves as professionally weak (Abdal-Haq, 1997). Pietsch and Williamson (2009) argue that this weakening of the professional view might potentially contribute to NPTs’ decision to opt out of or to stay in the profession, a factor that falls outside the scope of the current study. However, it is clear that the different teacher pathways influence role assignment within schools and access to professional development, and may potentially be having a strong negative impact on NPT satisfaction with the contribution they can make in the school.

C.2.2. Segregated participation

Adult education participation, including teacher development, highlights many of the existing inequalities among countries as well as among individuals with different socioeconomic backgrounds (Boeren, 2009). In their International Adult Literacy Survey, Desjardins et al. (2006) found that some groups had fewer opportunities for participation, namely older adults, women, low socio-economic groups, less educated, the unemployed, less skilled workers, immigrants, language minorities, and rural residents. In the current study, NPTs with all their attributes can be categorised into the less educated and less skilled teacher groups. As a
result, they tended to gain fewer opportunities than other teacher pathway groups in the studied schools.

Boeren (2009) argues that adult education participation reflects the Matthew principle. Used firstly by the Columbia University sociologist, Merton (1968), this refers to the general inclination for initial advantages to accrue over time, so that already privileged individuals tend to gain more opportunities, and less privileged individuals have fewer opportunities. Rigney (2010) argues that in certain social systems, including schools, these initial advantages are self-amplifying, so that well prepared and well equipped teachers tend to be given more opportunities that allow them to develop faster and further professionally. The patterns of teacher assignment/placement in the studied schools have led to segregated participation in professional development opportunities. The three English teachers from three different pathways in Majuro perceived their participation differently. Latria, as a GT, saw many development opportunities available for all teachers in the school. Marty, the English EAT, faced institutional barriers in the form of principal permission and coordination. Arty, the NPT, believed she was only supported to participate in professional learning when Latria and Marty were unable to attend a development program. Teachers of certain grades, certain subjects, and of certain pathways had more opportunities compared to others. On the other hand, there were also teachers who lacked development opportunities due to their marginalised roles at schools; in this case, they were NPTs.

In such conditions, most participants voiced the importance of having an exemplary principal with the capacity to attract, retain, and organise staff and resources, as well as to minimise institutional barriers (Youngs & King, 2002). In Neverland, Kay was always compared to the previous strict principal in terms of supporting teacher development. Harry’s support for teacher development was also compared to that of his predecessor in Wilshire. Macky was perceived as bringing a stable leadership structure to Berkshire. Amidst the difficulties of managing the staff tensions, the stakeholders deemed Ike as successful in
improving the school’s instructional process through quality assurance certification.

Despite their own weaknesses, these principals, according to the schools’ stakeholders, have managed to change the culture of mediocrity in the schools towards a culture of excellence. These leaders always asked, ‘How do I contribute to the learning of others?’ and ‘How do others contribute to my learning?’ (Lambert, 2000). Yet they recognised the structural, financial, and personal challenges within the schools in working to minimise the segregation of teachers. These principals were not flawless individuals, but they could sustain high levels of capacity (Youngs & King, 2002) by promoting collaborative teacher learning, regardless of their individual pathways. However, the participating principals admitted the difficulties in combatting segregation practices which Ingersoll (2002) saw as systemic.

C.2.3. The Formation of Placement/Assignment Pattern

School principals have a strong influence on a variety of school outcomes, including student achievement, teacher recruitment, and motivation and teaching assignment (Jacob & Lefgren, 2005). Certain staff may have the power to influence the principals’ decisions, which sometimes occurs, as it did in the four studied schools. Teachers sometimes have their own preferences for certain types of students; as such, negotiations between individual teachers and principals can occur. However, the district’s policies, as stated by Kay, suggest that permanent teachers be assigned to teach certain learning groups instead of the others. In Neverland, for instance, the arrivals of newly recruited GTs shifted the NPTs from being homeroom teachers to subject specialists or extracurricular teachers.

In a more recent U.S. study, Kalogrides et al. (2013) examined a pattern of teacher assignment within schools. They found that white male teachers with leadership experience and better educational backgrounds were assigned higher achieving students. Their study also indicates systematic discrimination on the grounds of race and gender. Their study confirms findings by Dieterle et al. (2012), who established that many schools engage in student grouping based on
previous academic performance for teaching assignment. Kalogrides et al. (2013) also revealed a clear indication that some teachers are systematically assigned to teach lower achieving students in their classes compared with their colleagues. In the current study, however, the segregated assignment happened to the NPTs who became the most disadvantaged group in schools through grade assignment pattern. Also, the system of segregation was not based on race, gender, or ethnicity but more on the teachers’ recruitment pathways and subjects.

The pattern of teacher assignment in the above studies possibly resulted from a complex process of power and interest involving the teachers and the school principal (Bush, 2011), who is trying to balance teaching staff composition, the condition of students, and organisational priorities. Such patterns, according to Kalogrides et al. (2013), can have two impacts. Firstly, they increase teacher turnover; secondly, they can intensify within school achievement gaps. A rather different gap occurred in the four schools as certain teachers were restricted from curricular learning due to the static roles they held. Several leaders, therefore, promoted ‘rotation’ of assignment among teachers. The idea was to allow all teachers to have varied curricular contents and student types that will encourage them to learn new knowledge and broaden their experience.

Public school principals in the current study faced the difficult task of providing quality education programmes with limited resources, time, budgets, and teaching staff. Considering these limitations, principals must make the right decisions in order to meet the assigned priorities imposed by the district. The principals tended to apply Macky’s priority in assigning teachers on the basis of ‘composure’ and ‘experience’. As a result, the most perceivably experienced and competent teachers in each school were allocated to the final year students to ensure success in the NE.

Similar to Harry of Wilshire, who emphasised ‘composure’ and ‘experience’, most school principals did not want to take the risk of changing the pattern of assignment because of the risks it posed to the school’s achievement in the NE. According to Bush (2011), the decision-making of teaching assignment involves micro-political elements of competing interests, conflict, bargaining, and
power exercise in schools. Understanding micro politics can provide meaningful ways of understanding decision-making in educational settings, including teacher assignment patterns. This study demonstrates that the pattern of teaching assignment in the four studied schools reflects pathway-based decisions driven in large part by the pressure of the NEs as a form of high stakes test.

D. The Impact of Pathways on School Quality Improvement

Due to the different roles and participation each pathway has in teaching assignment and professional development, the contribution each pathway offers to school achievement is, as a result, also diverse. The findings of this study demonstrate this divergence as relative to each pathway’s involvement in the process of achieving the schools' priorities. Therefore, it is necessary to discuss how pathway-based assignment decisions may influence school improvement in the forms of segregated participation and contribution.

D.1. Teachers’ Relative Participation

Sergiovanni (1992) notes that research in teachers’ decision-making participation has often been linked to organisational theory, school effectiveness, and teacher empowerment. Research indicates that teachers’ real involvement in schools’ decision-making occurs through various efforts of collaboration (Hallinger & Heck, 2010). Therefore, this trend leads teachers as members of a school community to work collectively with colleagues and the school principal. The establishment of the Principals’ Working Forum (MKKS) and the Subject Teacher Discussion Forums (MGMP) at different levels indicate the trend of staff collaboration in the participating public schools. Such collective work is necessary for increasing teachers’ and leaders’ efficacy, motivation, satisfaction, and encouraging a sense of responsibility and commitment to organisational effectiveness and improvement (Sarafidou & Chatziioannidis, 2013). Unfortunately, the segregated pattern of engagement in such development has limited the opportunities a number of teachers have to participate, particularly those from NPT.
DuFour (2004, p. 9) describes a professional learning community as a group of teachers who “work together to analyse and improve their classroom practice … engaging in an on-going cycle of questions that promote deep team learning.” In all of the studied schools, the activities of MGMP were the most common forms of teacher collaboration at school, cluster, and district levels. Though the scope and depth of the activities may still be limited, participating teachers admitted the benefit of such forums in improving their understanding of the curriculum and instructional practices.

One of the ultimate goals of school improvement is to improve outcomes for students but the meanings of outcomes should not be reduced to limited performance indicators such as achievements in the NEs only. As a learning community involves different stakeholders learning together to enhance their potentials, the meaning should involve other aspects of schooling. For this reason, Masters (2012) defines school improvement not only in terms of improving student outcomes, but also in terms of improving teaching, learning and leadership practices. The definition requires a holistic approach towards the participation of all school stakeholders in the education processes to understand how much improvement has been made or which aspects need more attention.

In this regard, teacher participation in the four schools becomes an area that requires more attention and potentially demeans the school improvement. The attempts to pursue achievements in the NEs through pathway-based teaching assignment prove to limit the participation of certain teachers. In fact, Hallinger and Heck (2010) argue that school improvement requires the role of distributed leadership at school and system levels to support professional learning. As a result, equity in teacher development is at stake and the school success is merely viewed from the NEs’ results which lowers the status of many other subjects and the teachers of those subjects.

**D.2. Teachers’ degree of contribution**

There are questions that often emerge from the processes of school improvement; for example, “What processes lead to improved school
performance?” and “How do school communities successfully contribute to the processes?” Saunders and Goldenberg (2005) claim that both the content of schooling and the processes of school improvement are mutually important; both contribute to the speed and the value of the improvement. Yet, it takes concerted efforts from all of the school stakeholders to make the expected improvements. The efforts for doing this involve the mutually reinforcing characters of different types and settings for professional development (McLaughlin & Talbert, 2006). The current discussion focuses mainly on process, the ‘how’ of the participating schools in developing teachers from different pathways and its impact on the schools' improvement.

Stronge (2006) argues that, in a healthy organisation, a dynamic relationship exists between the teacher and the school. That is, whatever is good for the organisation will also be good for the teacher. Unfortunately, teacher development in the studied schools’ was strongly governed by the schools' priorities with regard the NE, which burdened the institutions. As a result of these priorities, certain subjects and grades earned more attention than others. More teaching hours and development opportunities were available for a limited number of staff, who were assigned to teach the examined subjects to final year students. These were signs of the high-stakes testing effect on instructional activities (Au, 2007; Dulfer et al., 2012). In the current study, the privileges were geared toward competent and experienced GTs. The remaining portion was assigned to other teachers (EATs and SBTs), with NPTs considered last.

Ingersoll (2002) found that this type of segregation has to do with the way in which schools are organised and teachers are employed and utilised. Therefore, the existing pattern of teacher development may not remove the problem of inequality and segregation unless the macro problem of the education system is addressed. The high stakes associated with the NE are in tension with departmental moves towards a school-based curriculum. When the three pillars of education (Bernstein, 1971) do not synchronise with one another, the alignment of curriculum, pedagogy, and assessment is difficult to achieve. In relation to teacher development, McLaughlin and Oberman (1996) argue that successful reform
relies on continuous teacher learning, while effective teacher learning relies on the reform that matches professional teacher development. This mutual relation did not occur in the four participating schools due to the contradiction between curriculum and assessment. Consequently, teacher development efforts are pulled in two directions – follow the curriculum or be driven by the demands of the NE.

In the context of school reform, Lieberman (1995) emphasises the need to expand our understanding of how teachers gain the experience that inspires them to develop and transform. Professional context is not flat and stable, but dynamic and diverse (Scribner, 1999). Eraut (1994) argues that teachers learn and work in three different contexts, namely: academic, school, and classroom, which they face every day. Therefore, how they gain access to professional training, how the school management utilises them, and how they practise in the classroom become significant drivers in their knowledge development. Teachers with different pathways in Indonesia have access to professional learning of different intensity and quality; they also perform different roles and responsibilities in schools. It is therefore not surprising that their classroom practices and contributions to the school’s improvement also vary.

The degree of proximity to the achievement of the schools’ main priorities has become a distinctive factor in the teachers’ contributions to school improvement. GTs teaching final year students in certain subjects at each school level are perceived as having an immediate contribution. They are directly responsible for the students’ achievement in the NE. Other GTs, EATs, and SBTs who do not have such responsibilities are seen as having an intermediate impact in the final year students’ academic achievements. These teachers’ contributions are in the form of preparing the students (in nationally examined subjects) before their final year of study. The weakest portion of contribution is perceived to be carried out by the NPTs, who become subject specialists and who are sometimes responsible for extracurricular subjects. Such a role has the least proximity to the school’s key priorities and a minimum contribution compared to other teachers.
C. Addressing segregation

The impact of teacher pathways begins to diverge as the teaching assignment pattern driven by the NE operates in the schools. The pattern allows the gap to intensify, as different access to development opportunities exist alongside teaching assignments. Participation in development activities increases segregation, as teachers of certain pathways with proximity to school priorities earn more access and opportunities. Eventually, it affects each pathway’s impact on the school's improvement (as measured by performance in the NEs) through high-direct, intermediate-mid, and low-indirect teacher contribution. The issue is therefore how to address the escalating gap in teacher development and contribution with regard to their pathways.

E.1. The Marginalised NPTs

Findings from the current study show that the most disadvantaged pathway in terms of development, participation, and possible contribution is that of NPTs. Some research regards these teachers, together with para-teachers, as volunteers and community teachers rather than contract teachers (Duthilleul, 2006). These teachers are not civil servants and are normally employed in contracts of one or two years with the possibility of renewal. In the Indonesian education context, their pathway serves as a response to the teacher shortage and to lower student-teacher ratios in public schools. Their contribution to increasing students access in all countries, including rural and suburban areas, has been comprehensively examined in research (Duthilleul, 2006). Local NPTs also play a vital role in assisting ethnic minorities of different languages and other marginalised groups and cultures to have access to schooling (Fyfe, 2007). However, there are also undesirable impacts of employing NPTs in an attempt to improve the quality of schooling.

Fyfe (2007) notes the adverse impacts of employing NPTs in several aspects, namely access, quality, and equity. While the literature views access in terms of teachers’ placement in rural and underprivileged schools, the current study shows how the assignment to teaching lower grades, as subject specialists,
and less proximate roles in relation to schools’ priorities is experienced by the NPTs. “Individuals want to be treated fairly and generally seek to create a reliable and secure life plan for themselves, in the absence of which they become less committed to their work” (Gauri & Robinson, 2010, p. 12). In attempts to improve education quality, the employment of NPTs, who have commonly been perceived as lacking professional training and support, is likely to have an unfavourable effect on students’ learning. Buckland (2000) argues that employing low-cost but unqualified teachers can result in significant hidden costs because such teachers need more on-going support and development to become effective. The different rights and responsibilities of teachers in the same school have created gaps that may demotivate teachers and decrease their instructional effectiveness.

According to the findings from those different studies, NPTs do not experience a long-term pathway and keeping them in schools may have severe consequences for their instructional quality and their own development. As an “alternative pathway” into the profession (Darling-Hammond, et al., 2002), NPTs require the right incentives, training, and promotional opportunities to ensure that schools are able to provide all students with a high-quality. Relevant to this matter, Duthilleul (2006) advises policy makers to carefully plan and resource a gradual phasing out of NPTs in order to minimise potentially undesirable effects on teacher development and instructional quality. The experience of teacher management in Indonesia in the 2000s provides a good lesson on the phasing out of EATs. By implementing a time-limit strategy that sets targets for phasing out and sorting quality NPTs, their development could be ensured, similarly to that of current EATs. Gauri and Robinson (2010) believe motivating competent contract teachers with the prospect of career and professional development is a challenge to existing policy. Harry is very keen to have competent young NPTs like Bandy and Debbie remain in Wilshire. However, these teachers also need assurance that they can have a potentially challenging career, fair treatment, and development opportunities in the school.
E.2 Structural barriers to teacher development

Perceived barriers can arise among disadvantaged individuals if they believe they have poorer access to opportunities for skill development, leading to lower self-beliefs, standard, and outcome expectations that may become internalised (Albert & Luzzo, 1999). These individuals, in this case NPTs, may be excluded from the profession because the environment offers them a limited amount of development opportunities. Such marginalised members of a professional institution, according to Weiner (1986), are unlikely to make an effort at addressing job-related barriers. They tend to see such barriers as permanent impediments to career success and satisfaction rather than engaging in activities targeted at overcoming these barriers. Such a condition may lead to teacher attrition. If this happens to competent NPTs, the school’s effort to improve quality education will be at stake.

While personal barriers in the form of motivation, attitudes, and efficacy are in the domain of recruitment, as previously discussed, other barriers also hamper teachers in their development. Barriers to participation are varied and have been identified in research under different categories. Darkenwald and Merriam (1982) mentions four general categories of barriers to participation: situational, institutional, psychosocial, and informational. In his more recent book, Reeves (2008) employs different terms for categories of developmental participation barriers, namely: blame, bureaucracy, and baloney. Research identifies institutional barriers as including the dearth of appropriate programmes on offer and institutional policies and practices that impose inconvenience, misunderstanding, or frustration on members (Cross, 1981). The institutional barriers (Darkenwald & Merriam, 1982) are similar to what has been termed 'bureaucracy barriers' (Reeves, 2008), referring to the failure of hierarchical models within education organisations. Randy and Bandy perceived that they could not merely rely on their schools to develop, but had to establish networks with colleagues and with institutions outside of school. Reeves (2008) argues that organisations, including schools, are not hierarchies but networks. Motivated
teachers normally join relevant networks for collective learning, regardless of the institutional condition.

Cook and Yanov (1996) argue that organisational learning occurs in cultures that allow continuous interaction in an effort to attain collective learning and shared meanings. Rusch (2005) confirms that the cultures and activities of learning organisations correspond to the experiences of teachers who join professional networks. As technology continues to change society, transforming the way people work, communicate, and learn, schools need to accommodate and adapt themselves to these new conditions (Lieberman, 2000). Unfortunately, institutional practices such as scheduling, workloads, permission, and coordination often limit teachers in growing and sharing knowledge. In this regard, networks can offer an important alternative opportunity for teacher development. Networks bring together the interests and needs of their participants for their individual and collective development. In cases where institutional barriers impose limits, as felt by young GTs in Neverland, teacher networks, including social media link, help teachers to learn and share knowledge and information for their development.

E. 3. The proposal for job rotation

In organisational studies, job rotation is a way of providing employees with development opportunities (Cosgel & Miceli, 2000). The rotation is usually a strategy for achieving skill diversity through diverse organisational learning. It gives the employee more opportunities to learn different skills, expand experiences, and gain new knowledge in different types of job assignments. Cunningham et al. (2004) categorise job rotation as being either within and across functional types. In the school context, within functional rotation can be in the form of placing teachers in different teaching roles and other teaching assignments could be used as a mechanism for teacher learning. As proposed by the leaders in Neverland and Wilshire, rotation presents their colleagues with the opportunity to learn various new aspects of the profession including how to deal
with student at different developmental levels, the nature of the curriculum and different levels and in different subjects, and a wider range of teaching strategies.

In this way, teachers are enabled to experience so called lateral moves (Goodman, Fandt, & Michlitsch, 2007), which help them to develop professionally. More experience in different classroom situations is often considered important for developing the skills required for effective teaching (OECD, 2005). Teachers may move to a different student group in the school without changing their salary and rank structure. In such a move, teachers’ roles and responsibilities change, allowing them to gain new development opportunities. Therefore, no teachers will be anxious about handling students of different grades in the school. Rotation therefore helps the schools to improve the teaching staff’s learning potential and opportunities, while at the same time reducing the development gap among staff. The idea is almost similar to teacher looping (Grant, Johnson, Richardson, & Fredenburg, 1996), in which teachers move with their students to the next grade level, rather than sending them to different teachers at the end of the school year.

Schools have reported positive effects on both student academic achievement and parental engagement as a result of the extended relationship developed through looping (Hampton, Mumford, & Bond, 1997). Research also demonstrates the advantages of this approach in the forms of reduced start up time, familiarity between students and teacher, increased sense of stability, greater student confidence, increased sense of community, and increased student achievement (Nichols & Nichols, 2002; Sherman, 2004). Teachers in Ford’s (2010) study also perceived looping teachers as exhibiting a higher level of initiative and more eager to try new instructional methods in the classroom. Despite the danger of “bickering” between students and sometimes a too close relationship with the teacher, looping can be one option for setting a rotation system that offers both teachers and students the best advantages.
F. End Notes

The findings of the current study are in accordance with the identification of the three key supports for new teachers by Johnson et al. (2004). These are the following: (1) an informative hiring process to ensure a fit between the candidate and the teaching position; (2) the assignment of a well-trained and well-suited mentor; (3) the need to learn the detailed standards-based curriculum as strong guidance for effective classroom practices. The first denotes the importance of effective teacher recruitment, the second points to the significance of job-specific induction for novice teachers, and the last one indicates the need for teachers to develop through different curricular learning rather than by high-stakes testing.

Finally, there are two issues worth highlighting from the discussion. Firstly, teachers’ deficiency in their classroom practice following recruitment is closely related to (1) their professional preparation, and (2) the absence of job specific induction at schools. Relevant professional training at the very least yields candidates with better subject matter and pedagogical knowledge. With regard to the disengagement of schools from the recruitment process of GTs, EATs, and SBTs, school-based induction is indispensable for the recruited teachers to learn specific aspects in the profession that directly support their practice within context of their particular school.

Secondly, the schools’ academic priority regarding the NE has, to a certain extent, limited most of the teachers’ curricular learning and instructional experiences. As a result, teacher development in the participating schools reflected the Matthew effect, in which the perceived skilled and trained teachers gained more opportunities for participating in teacher development. In response to this, a proposal for teacher rotation is suggested, which will allow all teachers to learn and experience different curricular issues and instructional situations. For this to happen, the schools need to eliminate structural and bureaucratic barriers and use formative assessment instead of the NE as the driver for teacher change. Such efforts will enable maximum teacher contribution for school improvement.
Chapter VII
Conclusion

This thesis begins with an introduction to the rationale of the study, followed by reviews of related literature, methodology, findings, synthesis, discussion, and eventually arrives to this chapter of conclusion. This chapter draws the inference based on the synthesised findings and the previous discussion. It also provides practical and methodological implications as well as those on policy. At the end, several suggestions for possible improvement in future studies are presented.

A. Concluding Remarks

Considerable evidence of the impact of different pathways emerges from the data of this study. First, the four pathways to teaching in the schools have their own benefits and disadvantages. For example, the GT pathway may yield knowledgeable teachers with relevant professional trainings and technological skills. EATs can sometimes possess more experience due to the lengthy process of recruitment and promotion. However, in relation to teacher practices, all pathways are perceived to provide insufficient preparation to allow teachers to be fully effective. From the participants’ standpoints, the unpreparedness appears in the forms of mental readiness to cope with different situations in classrooms (GTs), academic knowledge (SBTs), instructional skills and preparation (NPTs), as well as capacity to adapt the curriculum (EATs). The analysis demonstrates that these are due to the different loads of previous professional training undertaken by teachers from different pathways.

The differential emphases of previous professional training experienced by teachers from the four pathways also impact on their potential development. With their advanced content knowledge and technological skills, GTs were perceived by participants as able to develop in the profession more rapidly than teachers from the other pathways. In contrast, due to their lack of professional training, NPTs were viewed as struggling to progress. Ironically, NPTs who require more
support to develop their practice receive the least support from their respective schools’ administrators.

The participants commented on the lack and even the absence of early support for novice teachers. The absence of job-specific induction in all pathways has added to the difficulties of teachers from all pathways to cope with the professional demands of being new to teaching. Consequently, they search for senior colleagues as mentors based on their own preference and relevance to improve their practice. Although both parties reported the benefit of informal mentoring, its success is difficult to measure due to the absence of planning, implementation and evaluation.

Each pathway’s practices and potential development become intensified by the schools’ policy in teacher assignment. Endorsed by the district’s regulation, civil service teachers (GTs, EATs, and SBTs) always gain privileged teaching assignments. For instance, they hold the positions of homeroom teachers while NPTs must accept less weighty responsibilities such as subject specialist or extracurricular teachers. The pattern of assignment becomes more segmented in the later years of schooling as performance in the NEs is the schools’ top academic priorities. The schools’ focus and efforts go to the certain examined subjects in the final years of each school level. Consequently, teachers of these subjects and grades earn more teaching hours and developmental opportunities. These positions normally belong to experienced GTs while the some other positions can be shared among other GTs, EATs, and SBTs. The NPTs had to accept minor roles when the other teachers have got their shares.

With regard to school improvement, experienced GTs holding the main schools’ priorities directly contribute to school success through NE achievement. Other teachers share medium to high indirect contribution as a result of the pathway and subject segmentations. Eventually, the NPTs can only contribute in low indirect impacts when the proximity to the NE achievement becomes the parameter. The line of segregation can be seen from the pathways’ impact on practices; it grows stronger in the access to developmental opportunities and the intensity multiplies in the form of contribution. In other words, the pathways and
subjects contribute to the way the four schools develop their teachers, which reflects the working of the Mathew effect pertaining to the schools’ quality improvement.

B. Implications

The findings of the current study have implications on the employed methodology, behavioural theories, teacher management practices, and Indonesian educational policy.

B.1. Methodological Implications

Teacher educators often think about how to facilitate teachers’ learning of general principles, and how to help them apply certain knowledge in the classroom. From the situative-perspective (Putnam & Borko, 2000, p. 13), what appear to be general principles in the current study are actually intertwined collections of more specific patterns that hold across a variety of situations. As a part of the contexts to understand teachers’ knowing and learning, researchers and teacher educators need to consider the teachers’ silent voice. Findings on the segregated participation in developmental opportunities, for example, help to understand and reveal the bigger picture in public school quality improvement. Therefore, employing the lens of relevant stakeholders in understanding an educational phenomenon is worth consideration for its ability to highlight varied perspectives from the real actors in the field.

The choice of multiple case design and of sub-group sampling helped to explore the pathway issue in depth. Yin (2009) argued that each case replicated within a multiple-case design increases the reliability of the results. The significant result of such replication was the development or expansion of theories. Although the degree to which the findings can be generalised to all Indonesian public schools is not fully clear, the findings have revealed several interesting phenomena in public schooling which are worth further investigation and confirmation. A good example on this matter is the generic patterns of teacher assignment that form similar patterns of teacher development across schools due
to the implementation of high stakes testing. In line with the purpose of the study to initiate further inquiry in the relevant areas, this type of finding can stimulate confirmatory research.

B.2. Theoretical Implications

The findings have several important theoretical implications. First, this study confirms the importance of the theories of planned behaviour or reasoned action (Ajzen, 1991) to be accommodated in the teacher recruitment process. Designed to predict and explain human behaviour in specific contexts, the theory regards the centrality of an individual’s intention to perform, including teacher candidates, in a given behaviour. Such intention can help in the identification of which candidates, in a recruitment process, possess the qualities to cope with future assignments. Richardson and Watt (2006) have developed a framework on the basis of the expectancy-value model (Eccles, et al., 1983) to profile why individuals choose teaching. Teachers’ intentions are assumed to capture the motivational factors that guide their behaviour, to be indicators of how hard the teachers are willing to perform in the professional contexts. Their framework has been validated across different socio-cultural contexts (Watt & Richardson, 2012), their framework proves to be a significant development in teacher education. The current study demonstrates the absence of such indicators in the four pathways with consequences for teacher practice and attitudes towards professional learning.

Second, the adequacy of content knowledge does not guarantee the effectiveness of pedagogical practice because the findings show that the latter comes with more experience in classrooms. Hence, pedagogical content knowledge needs to be developed through constructivist and situative theories rather than on behavioural approaches (Van Driel & Berry, 2012). The development of PCK includes an understanding of how students develop insights in particular subject matters so it goes beyond the acquisition of mere instructional strategies and techniques. The improvement of teaching as professional practice assumes that teachers are lifelong students of their subjects who must continue to
grow in knowledge and keep up with changes in their disciplines and own contexts.

B.3. Practical Implications

Research has shown that attracting and retaining effective teachers is important for the improvement of student learning (Darling-Hammond, 2003; OECD, 2005). By attempting to reveal the impacts of various pathways to teaching practices, this study finds that most pathways in Indonesia do not yield ‘ready to perform’ teachers. Teacher preparedness is not merely the schools’ domain; instead it becomes an issue for the teacher colleges as well as the district. However, the findings show that teachers actually learn much about how to teach at schools. Thus it is necessary for the schools to provide teachers with the opportunity to learn effectively. The Induction Program for Novice Teachers (PIGP), enacted since 2010, needs to be implemented more broadly to improve early teacher practice. The reviewed literature also indicates the criticality of early teaching experience as the golden age to enhance teaching effectiveness.

Learning from practice becomes a fundamental challenge for the teaching profession that tries to between general, abstract bodies of professional knowledge and the situated and contextualised expertise (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1999; Schön, 1990; Shulman, 2004). School management needs to establish a collaborative, effective, and continuous form of learning for teachers to improve their instructional practices. Jensen et al. (2012) argue that mentoring is important in teacher development and this is something that could be featured in induction programs in Indonesia. The effectiveness of current informal mentoring is difficult to measure due to the absence and inconsistency of the activities (Hall & Hord, 2006). As the key to effective induction is the fit between what has been planned (to meet teachers’ personal and professional needs) and its implementation (Bickmore & Bickmore, 1998), the schools need to have well-planned programs (i.e. PIGP) to induct new teachers right after recruitment as a form of early support for their effective practice and to facilitate staff collaboration through measurable mentoring.
In order to provide more equal opportunities for all teachers to develop, it is necessary to adopt the idea of ‘rotation’ proposed by some of the participants. Goodman et al. (2007) argue that job rotation enables teachers to develop as practitioners. More experience in different classroom situations is also considered important to develop the skills required for effective teaching (OECD, 2005). Rotation of teaching assignments also allows all teachers to keep learning about different types of students and curricular changes. Eventually, every teacher has opportunities and responsibilities to gain new knowledge for the betterment of their instruction and to contribute maximally to the school development.

B.4. Policy Implications

Different pathways into teaching have created difficulties in terms of teacher management and development at school, district and national levels. It is necessary to establish an effective and rigorous unitary recruitment strategy to attract people into the teaching profession based on the motivation of candidates who will enter teaching careers such as the assessment protocol developed by Richardson and Watt (2006). The unified pathway should allow the identification of teachers’ beliefs and motives on entry to the profession which is useful to anticipate their development in the profession. Such early identification is a remarkable progress in developing a comprehensive and sustainable system which supports teachers, particularly in their early careers. To achieve that, synergy among different parties such as teacher colleges, schools, districts and education quality assurance body needs to be improved.

Reflecting on the initial practices and the development of new recruits from different pathways, there are some other policy implications to be considered. In the beginning, combining university and field-based experiences as suggested by Putnam and Borko (2000) can lead to better teacher learning. Relying on either setting alone results in the unconvincing initial practices as found in the four schools. The efforts to make teachers learn continuously and remain familiar with curricular development and school settings begin from the teacher colleges’ association with the schools. Such juxtaposition allows both
parties to study their own practices and at the same time create new discourse about teaching (Putnam & Borko, 2000). The discourse will benefit both parties and add to the body of knowledge in teaching and teacher education.

Regarding the pervasive impact of the NE, it is necessary to study the real impact of this policy in the Indonesian schooling context. The benefits and the disadvantages of having such high stakes tests on education in general, and on students, teachers, parents, teacher development, and instruction in particular, could contribute to the policy learning and development. It is a continuing change of thought or behavioural intentions regarding the accomplishment (or revision) of the principles of a policy belief system (Sabatier, 1993, p. 19). In organisational learning, Argyris and Schön (1996) call this double loop learning which requires educational practitioners including teachers and teacher educators to rethink and review the current policy for improvement in all aspects of schooling. Their participation in policy formulation and evaluation as part of the education system is crucial in the policy learning.

C. Suggestion for Future Studies

This study identifies a number of variables important to developing teachers in public schools and raises further questions which would benefit from more research. First, it would be useful to explore how high stakes testing contributes to shaping teacher assignment patterns both in Indonesia and in other countries. A survey of country practices could be conducted to identify countries where assignments are linked to testing, and then within country survey and cases studies conducted to explore this further.

Second, this study described how teacher pathways impacted on teachers’ practices broadly, but it lacked detail about the actual practices. It would be useful to conduct study that related how the actual practices of teachers from different pathways varied. In the Indonesian context, the pre-set standards of practice in the Teachers Act (2005) could be used to construct an observational protocol to explore teacher practice. Lastly, it would be important in this study to relate the different practices to both the quality of teacher preparation in the different
pathways, and to the school experience and how this hinders or develops teacher expertise. Related to this, if teacher assignment rotation was used, as participants suggested, a study of how teacher assignment rotation impacts on teacher practice would be worthwhile.
References


Administrators; Practitioners; Teachers; Education Level: Elementary Secondary Education.


Kementrian Pendidikan Nasional (MoEC), (2010). *Peraturan menteri pendidikan nasional no. 27 tentang program induksi bagi guru pemula*. Jakarta: Kementrian Pendidikan Nasional (MoEC)


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<td>Current Supervisor</td>
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<td>Undergrad</td>
<td>M</td>
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<tr>
<td>76</td>
<td>Sight</td>
<td>Former Supervisor</td>
<td>Bahasa</td>
<td>Undergrad</td>
<td>F</td>
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Appendix 2

Research Protocol

*Developing quality teachers in Indonesian public schools*

This protocol helps the researcher to step into research setting, select and alternate instruments, processes and ideas during the fieldwork.

I. Research Objectives:

This study aims to:

- understand teacher quality development phenomena in public schools
- establish an explanatory proposition about how public schools induct and develop teachers under limited resource and authority
- generate new solutions to persistent problems in recruiting and developing quality teachers
- identify strategies to overcome the problems in developing public school teachers
- determine actions required to make teacher professional development programs, policies and activities more effective

II. Research questions

1. What are the perceptions of school leaders and teachers concerning:
   (a) How teacher recruitment pathways impact on teachers’ practice and development?
   (b) How teacher recruitment pathways impact on how schools induct and develop effective teachers?
   (c) How the teacher recruitment pathways impact on school quality?
2. Are there differences in perceptions between stakeholder groups?

III. Interview Questions  
Amendable, subject to pilot study, see the following appendices

A. For Individual Interviews addressed to Principals, Deputies (or senior teachers) and Supervisors
B. For Group Interviews addressed to 4 teachers with different demographic backgrounds in each schools

IV. Pre Field work

After completing ethics amendment approval, a pilot study is conducted to have a review on how the instruments work for the purpose of the study. Subsequent change in the research instrument and design is made based on the pilot review. At the same time a formal letter to obtain permit from the district is sent with expectation its copies are forwarded to selected schools.

V. Fieldwork Agenda and Procedures

Week 1

When official approval is earned from the district of Sleman, Special Province of Yogyakarta, fieldwork can begin at participating schools. Week 1 will be used for introduction, to arrange schedule with all principals in the selected schools and to explain details of the study including objectives, design, consent and plain language statement (ethical issues). Principals are given a week time to arrange individual and group interview schedules and selecting teachers that match the profiles (Age, sex, length of service, education background and occupational status) set for the study. Meeting the deputies and supervisors and selecting a room for the interviews is another agenda in this first visit in order to save time.

Week 2 → School A

General procedure for Interviews

1) As scheduled by the principal, the researcher will be in the site and interview room at least 30 minutes before in order to set up all equipment and room conditions.
2) The interviewer and assistant greet all interview participants courteously relevant to their cultural background.
3) Each interviewee will get plain language statement and consent to read and be signed.
4) They are also given ample time to ask any questions related to the research/interviews.
5) The researcher commences the interview and make sure the audio tape works.
6) During the interview, the interviewer (or assistant) makes notes regarding unspoken aspects of the interview (mimics, gesture, body language of the interviewee)
7) Expressing gratitude to each participant every after interview and make sure they are available to supply relevant documents if required.

Group interview procedures
1. Researcher prepares name tags for each participants
2. The researcher arranges chairs and a table in a U shape
3. The researcher makes a self-introduction as a moderator and a short explanation on the purpose of the study
4. The moderator makes sure the tape works well before the session
5. An assistant helps to note participants’ exchange patterns and other aspects cannot be captured by the moderator in a field interview note
6. The assistant prepares refreshments after interview while the researcher is closing the session.
7. The researcher checks the recording file and save it to a personal laptop for back up.
8. The researcher and assistant thank all participants and remind them of the transcription review for member checks.

VI. Transcription

1) Following suggestion from Aubel (1994), transcription should be done after the interview, for example if the interview is carried out in the morning, the transcription can be done in the afternoon.
2) The reason is to capture fresh picture of the interview events which can be lost or elapsed if it is done later.
3) The transcription is not translated into English to maintain its authentic meaning for interpretation purposes.
4) The transcription scripts must be sent to the participants for confirmation and correction (member checks), before proceeding to further analysis.
5) The researcher then reads thoroughly and repetitively to find recurring themes and mark them for further analysis.

Week 3 ➔ School B
Ibid + Improvement based on field note of School A if any

Week 4 ➔ School C
Ibid + Improvement based on field note of Schools A & B if any

Week 5 → School D

Ibid + Improvement based on field note of Schools A, B, and C if any

Week 6 → Contingency

1) In the last stage of the field work, the researcher makes sure all data have been well gathered and check if any more information is required
2) The researcher reviews all transcriptions, corrects any typographical errors and marked themes in order to build connection among cases. However the focus is still on each school case for in depth and thick description of the cases.
3) To enrich the case description, further supplementary documents can be asked from schools, copied and then scanned to soft files.
4) The researcher organizes different audio files, soft files and documents into coded folders to facilitate further data analysis and retrieval.

VII. Analysis

Despite the multiple case study design, focus on each case should be given attention (Stake, 2006). This will ensure that every case is treated in details to add the rich description of the bigger phenomena. Thus, following his idea, the analysis will be carried out progressivley form School A first, then school B, next School C and finally school D. In such a gradual process, recurring themes that happen across case can be noted, marked, connected and described contextually. This procedure will generate an in-depth and rich explanation of each case and produce what Yin (2009) calls as analytical generalization of the ‘quintain’ (Stake, 2006) or the phenomenon.

By means of the voices in the cases, the analysis is directed to answer the research questions one by one. The question of participants’ perception on how teacher recruitment pathways impact on teachers’ practice and development will be answered first. Then it tries to answer the next questions on pathways impact on ways of inducting and developing teachers and eventually improving school quality. Different stakeholders perceptions in each school case will be grouped to answer question number two Themes related to how recruitment pathways
influence teachers’ practice and development are quoted, discussed (within a case), and then linked to similar themes across cases. Matrices, tables and mind maps will be used in this stage to relate how certain themes happen across cases while others may reside within a certain case. Thus, the uniqueness of each case keeps taken into account in the efforts to obtain analytical generalization across the cases.

VII. Report writing

The writing report actually begins in day one on the field as the analysis progresses. The structure of the report will accommodate the specific details of each case and shared emergent themes from the whole cases. Therefore it will start with findings from individual voices in each case to see the distinctions among stakeholders in each participating school. Then it moves from one case to another following the first one. When all cases have been described comprehensively, the next task is to review and discuss the shared categories across cases to see the big picture. As chapters I – III are not already covered in this protocol, the writing will follow the following structure:

VIII. Trustworthiness

To enhance its reliability, analytical validity and transferability, the study employed 15 point checklist criteria proposed by Braun and Clarke (2006). With the following checklist, every step of the fieldwork

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Process</th>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Criteria</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Transcription</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>The data have been transcribed to an appropriate level of detail, and the transcripts have been checked against the tapes for ‘accuracy’ by all participants.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coding</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Each data item has been given equal attention in the coding process.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>The coding process has been thorough, inclusive and comprehensive and themes have not been generated from a few vivid examples only</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>All relevant extracts for all each theme have been put in a pool of data.</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>Themes have been checked against each other and back</td>
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<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Themes are internally coherent, consistent, and distinctive.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analysis</td>
<td>Data have been analysed, interpreted, made sense of rather than just paraphrased or described.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Analysis and data match each other, the extracts illustrate the analytic claims</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Analysis tells a convincing and well-organized story about the data and topic.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>A good balance between analytic narrative and illustrative extracts is provided.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Overall</td>
<td>Enough time has been allocated to complete all phases of the analysis adequately, without rushing a phase or giving it a once-over-lightly.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Written report</td>
<td>The assumptions about, and specific approach to, thematic analysis are clearly explicated.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>There is a good fit between what you claim you do, and what you show you have done; i.e., described method and reported analysis are consistent.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>The language and concepts used in the report are consistent with the epistemological position of the analysis</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>The researcher is positioned as active in the research process; themes do not just ‘emerge’</td>
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Appendix 3

Consent Form

Developing Quality Teachers in Indonesian Public Schools

Name of participant:

Name of investigator(s): Dr. Suzanne Rice, Dr. David Gurr, Ashadi

1. I consent to participate in this project, the details of which have been explained to me, and I have been provided with a written plain language statement to keep.

2. I understand that after I sign and return this consent form it will be retained by the researcher.

3. I understand that my participation will involve an interview and providing documents and I agree that the researcher may use the results as described in the plain language statement.

4. I acknowledge that:
   (a) the possible effects of participating in the interview and document supply have been explained to my satisfaction;
   (b) I have been informed that I am free to withdraw from the project at any time without explanation or prejudice and to withdraw any unprocessed data I have provided;
   (c) the project is for the purpose of a doctoral research thesis.
   (d) I have been informed that the confidentiality of the information I provide will be safeguarded subject to any legal requirements;
   (e) I have been informed that with my consent the interview will be audio-taped and I understand that the records will be stored at University of Melbourne and will be destroyed after five years;
   (f) my name will be referred to by a pseudonym in any publications arising from the research;
   (g) I have been informed that a copy of the research findings will be forwarded to me, on request.

I consent to this interview being audio-taped □ yes □ no
(please tick)

I wish to receive a copy of the summary project report on research findings □ yes □ no
(please tick)

Participant signature: Date:

J
Author/s: ASHADI, ASHADI

Title: Developing quality teachers in Indonesian public schools

Date: 2014

Persistent Link: http://hdl.handle.net/11343/40997

File Description: Developing quality teachers in Indonesian public schools