CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This research investigated the establishment of codes of exemplary situated teaching in preparing novice teachers for character education. This research is divided into two sections: one is the establishment of codes of exemplary situated teaching; the other is infusing the established codes in preparing novice teachers for character education. James Corner (2003) mentions that character is not to be taught but to be ‘caught’ in a situational classroom setting which the student character development is very much depending on the teacher’s practices and dispositions in class. Hence, it is essential to know the exemplary dispositions and practices in a situational classroom setting if we were to prepare novice teachers for character education. This is supported by Dawn (2008) for identifying the expert characteristics and practices in the respective field to enhance teacher education. In addition, this study also describes the ‘learning to teach’ experience of novice teachers to know what factors impact their learning throughout the preparation of novice teachers. It is important to know from the learner’s perspective in order to facilitate a more effective programme in preparing novice teachers (Jennifer, 2009).

For the purpose of this study, a number of important areas of educational research needed to be examined in order to underpin the theoretical framework and conceptual framework of this study. In this review, the researcher organizes and synthesizes what is a broad and comprehensive body of interdisciplinary literature into an approach-based synthesis.

The chapter begins with the explanation of the background on character education. Then, follow by the principle of character education and the description of general framework of Moral Education in Malaysia. Next, the elucidation of understanding embedded knowledge of exemplary teachers and consolidating the research on effective
teaching. The subsequent section presents the approaches and theories to prepare novice teachers. The chapter ends with a review of past methodologies related to the theme of preparing novice teachers.

Before going in-depth, the researcher organized and synthesized what is a broad and comprehensive body of interdisciplinary literature into an approach-based synthesis. The main journals include, Journal of Research in Character Education, Journal of Moral Education, Journal of Education in Teaching and Journal of Teacher Education. After scrutinizing the literature of different areas related to this study, the researcher has constructed a mind map Figure 2.1 (p.25) to illustrate the synthesis of literature review. It divides into five major sections, namely background of character education, effectiveness of character education, embedded knowledge of teaching and learning, research on teaching effectiveness and preparing novice teachers for character education.
Figure 2.1 Synthesis of literature review of this study
2.1 Definition of Character and Character Education

Before we begin to introduce character education, it is necessary to define character. Different people term character education differently. It is essential to first define what character education means by the researcher. To certain extent, some people simply think a person who has good character means following rules. He or she who abides to rules or those who possess good character such as completing homework or graduate from school, having a decent job and be a person who complies to all rules and regulations. This is related to character, but is just the tip of the iceberg. According to Battistich (2008), character includes a person’s desire to reach their highest potential and being concern with others; equipping intellectual capabilities which include moral reasoning and critical thinking, responsible behaviours and holding principles firmly; also having the interpersonal and emotional skills to explicitly externalizing the instilled values in order to contribute to the society. With such, character is the development of a person’s intellectual, emotion, social and ethical (Berkowitz, 2005). To be person who has sound character, it is essential for one to give in the best and be the best of whom he or she self-perceive. Knowing what is the definition of character; next, we shall understand and comprehend what character education is.

According to Battistich (2008), character education is to nurture next generation who internalize and externalize core ethical values such as diligence, integrity, compassion and fairness in their daily life that create a democratic and productive society. People who have sound character are committed to give in their best and do the right thing who live with their life purpose. Campbell (2003), stresses that contemporary society focuses on individualism while sacrificing the welfare of others. In this context, character education re-establishes the value of caring which benefit oneself and the community as a whole,
without religious orientation, but to build a caring environment allow our next generation to have the compassionate to help one and other.

Character education is a crusade to nurture responsible, ethical, and caring young adults. It is the process of exhibiting and shaping good character with this the focus on inculcating values at school. Core ethical values such as responsibility, fairness, caring, honesty and respect need to be instilled through the school intentionally and proactively (Character Education Partnership, 2013). This explanation also matches with the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (2013) which defines character education as the teaching of basic human values such as equality, kindness, generosity, courage, freedom and respect. The main objective is to nurture children to be self-disciplined citizens, morally responsible young adults. From a general perspective, character education is a deliberate effort to develop sound character with core values that benefits the society, nation and human kind as a whole with the daily life application (Lickona, 2005).

Character education is essential to personal success. It facilitates daily life, affecting relationships, conflict management, decision making and cooperation (Catalane, Haggerty, Oesterle, Fleming, & Hawkins, 2004). A significant number of body literature of character education is fairly effective to develop emotional and social proficiencies in refraining from behaving negatively (Durlak & Wells, 1997; Wilson, Gottfredson, & Najaka, 2001), which also include drug use including (Tobler et al., 2000). In addition, it is also a good predictor of academic result outcomes (Elias et al., 2008; Shriver & Weissberg, 2005). Each of the solution has been attempted to be solved with different approaches and some have been found practically effective though many have not (Grossman, 1997; Flannery, 2003; Greenberg, 2004). This is also the reason why character education has been so popular in the recent decade Williams & Guerra, 2007; Bren-nan & Foster, 2004; Dahlberg &

2.1.1 Character Education Trends

A decade ago, America has already established Character Education. Based on the comprehensive and longitude research duration, it is justifiable to scrutinize by employing this country as the fundamental understanding of character education. It has sufficient research evidence to prove its degree of effectiveness. As outlined by Hunt and Mullins (2005), four examples of character education programmes are described. The programmes are currently available for adoption by school today which include the Centre for the Advancement of Ethics and Character (CAEC), Character Counts, Character Education Partnership, and The Developmental Studies Centre (DSC).

Kevin Ryan is the founder and director emeritus of the Centre for the Advancement of Ethics and Character (CAEC) which centred at the Boston University of Education. Along with adopting character education, in-service teacher development, and stimulating national dialogue on character education, the mission statement of the CAEC propose is to serve as a resource platform for different stakeholders such as administrators, teachers, and parents. They also play a part to fulfil their responsibilities as moral educators (CAEC, 2013). Their programmes reflect the neoclassic character education tradition expounded in earlier writings by Bohlin and Ryan (2001).

Similar in orientation and approach, six specific values form the “pillars” of the Character Counts! These values include trustworthiness, respect, responsibility, fairness, caring, and citizenship are seen as transcendent beyond any boundary of race, creed, politics, gender or wealth. In 1992, under the supports of the Josephson Institute, the Character Counts! Coalition in Aspen, Colorado began with a declaration that explained the

Character Education Partnership (CEP) focuses on The Eleven Principles of Character Education which also emphasizes heavily on values and virtues. The CEP believes that virtues such as fairness, respect, honesty and compassion can be instilled in the school learning environment and that such education should involve all three aspects which include thinking, feeling, and behaviour. Emphasis is also put the school staff to exhibit sound character (CEP, 2013).

The Developmental Studies Centre (DSC) is to facilitate school to become a ‘Caring Schools Community’. The key principles of this organization advocates are: respectful, caring among the community; frequent opportunities to collaborate and learn including tutoring and community service, opportunities for autonomy and influence, including the right to have speech freedom; and the importance of purpose to lead their life (DSC, 2013).

To reiterate, these descriptions of various character education programmes are not meant to be the exhaustive listing of programmes available at the present time. However, it does represent trends that are indicative of the character education programme content which is similar among each other. Character education is perceived to solve many social problems arising from normal biological, emotional, psychological, and social maturation. We adults or caring educators have the moral duty to provide such opportunity to resolve the problems to a certain degree of effectiveness. Any type of growth brings change. Character educators can give instruction and create a real life application platform so as to offer stability and moral guidance through such change (Cohen, 1999; Cole, 2007; Elias & Bruene, 2005; Zins, Weissberg, Wang, & Walberg, 2004).
Although there has been rapid growing interest and implementation of character education, it is imperative to know its effectiveness, what it achieves and how it is implemented. In the following section, it provides this information and thus allowing the treasure about the importance of such education.

2.2 Effectiveness of Character Education

Character education can be effective when it is implemented with the right approach and method. There must be indispensible reasons of why the researcher has chosen character education as the field of content but not other subject areas of education such as Science, Mathematics or Languages. Researchers suggest that superior and comprehensive character education does not only develop good character effectively, but also a promising way prevent a wide range of social problems. These include aggressive and antisocial behaviours, criminal activities, drug abuse, academic under-achievements, sexual activity and school failure (Corrigan et al., 2007; Kaminski et al., 2009; Miller, 2009; Billig et al., 2008; Derosier & Mercer, 2007; Flay et al., 2009).

According to the report of What Works in Character Education (WWCE) conducted by Berkowitz and Bier in year 2005, 88% (64 out of 73) of the scientifically studies were reported in this review because they showed programme effectiveness (Berkowitz & Bier, 2007). In addition, it presents an extensive research that was done to examine the most common effects of such educational and the most common shared practices of those programmes (Berkowitz & Bier, 2007). The reason why the researcher utilized the report of WWCE was the comprehensive research done in two essential aspects, namely the illustration of the dimensions and their effective outcome of the researched-based character education, also the typical implementation strategies that influence the development of
character that were most commonly used across 33 programmes. The following sub-sections review the two stated aspects.

2.2.1 Effective Outcome of Researched-Based Character Education

Table 2.1 shows the most commonly found outcomes of character education. The following report, *What Works in Character Education (WWCE)* represents an effort to reveal and synthesize existing scientific research on the effects of K-12 character education (Berkowitz and Bier, 2005). The researcher of the present study was aware that the said report was dated 2005. Nonetheless, the purpose of the researcher to illustrate this report was to exemplify the effective outcome of character education. According to Berkowitz and Bier (2005), the most commonly reported effects of character education are socio-moral cognition, pro-social behaviours and attitudes, problem-solving skills, reduced drug use, reduced violence/aggression, school behaviour, knowledge and attitudes about risk, emotional competency, academic achievement, attachment to school, and decreased general misbehaviour.

Although Berkowitz and Bier (2005) identified 33 character education programmes as well as synthesizing the significant outcome effect as stated in Table 2.1 (p.32), it is yet to be appropriate to conclude that character has its full effectiveness though with the scientifically credible evidence. However, it is more appropriate to claim that character education can work. The researcher has also personally done a detailed investigation on character education based on past researches and gained lots of insight from different journals. The core journals include the *Journal of Research in Character Education* and *Journal Research of Moral Education*. 
Table 2.1: Most Commonly Found Significant Outcome Effect

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Effective Outcome Effects</th>
<th>Positive Findings</th>
<th>Total Tests</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Socio-moral cognition</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pro-social behaviour and attitude</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>167</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problem-solving skills</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drug use</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Violence/aggression</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School behaviour</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge/attitudes about risk</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional competency</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic achievement</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attachment to school</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General misbehaviour</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal morality</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Character knowledge</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

[Based on Berkowitz & Mier (2005), p.38]

The researcher divides into two aspects of the character education implementation, namely dimensions and outcomes. According to Table 2.2 below, character education implementation dimensions include character development measurement, school climate, educational attitudes, student’s background, family, community and school leadership; character education implementation outcome includes cognitive (knowledge and reasoning), affective (motive and emotion) as well as behaviour (skills, pro-social and risk).

Table 2.2: Character education implementation dimensions and outcomes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimensions</th>
<th>Outcomes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Character Development Measurement</strong></td>
<td>Cognitive Knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Concern for others scale</td>
<td>• Understanding values</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Moral character</td>
<td>• Risk prevention</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Performance character</td>
<td>• Interpersonal knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Self-perceived character elements</td>
<td>• Intrapersonal knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Misconduct at school scale</td>
<td>• Academic Content</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Altruism scale</td>
<td>Cognitive reasoning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Family</strong></td>
<td>• Moral/Ethical reasoning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Parent’s Involvement</td>
<td>• Critical thinking/Decision making</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Parenting Practice</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Home Atmosphere</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Dimensions

**School Climate**
- Sense of school community
- Victimization at school
- Liking at school
- Loneliness at school

**Educational Attitudes**
- Student motivation
- Academic self-esteem
- Trust in teachers
- Trust in Principals
- Student perceived teacher efficacy

**Student’s Background**
- Gender
- Socioeconomic status
- Race/Ethnicity
- Risk Status
- Prior test scores/grade

**Community**
- Social engagement

**School Leadership**
- Understanding values
- Attendance
- Staff morale
- Professional efficacy

### Outcomes

**Affective Motives**
- Pro-social dispositions
- Attitudes towards school
- Attitudes towards risk/health
- Civic dispositions
- Attitudes towards diversity
- Intrapersonal strength
- Internalizing problems

**Affective Emotions**
- Caring
- Reflectivity
- Bonding

**Behavioural Competencies/Skills**
- Resistance
- Responsibility Integrity
- Respect
- Leadership
- Communication

**Pro-social Behaviour**
- Service
- Kindness
- Trustworthiness
- Justice
- Positive Participation

**Risk Behaviour**
- Sexual risk-taking
- Violence
- Absence
- Discipline Issues

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[Based on Battitish, 2008, Flay, 2009; Berkowitz and Bier, 2005; Ann-Marie, 2010; Watson, 2006; Corrigan & Shapiro, 2010]

### 2.2.2 Common Implementation Strategies

The researcher presents some descriptive explanation about the implementation strategies that were commonly employed among the programmes which showed high effectiveness of the past researchers had identified. Table 2.3 (p. 34) reports the most
commonly reported implementation strategies in ‘What Works in Character Education’ (2005). The common implementation strategies for character education included professional development, family/community participation, interactive teaching strategies, classroom management, direct teaching strategies, school wide strategies and community service/service learning (Berkowitz & Bier, 2007). Each implementation strategy for character education has its simple description as shown in Table 2.3.

**Table 2.3: Common Implementation Strategies for Character Education Programmes**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategies</th>
<th>Descriptions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Professional development</td>
<td>All effective programmes build in structures for ongoing professional training experiences for those implementing the character education initiative or elements of it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peer interaction</td>
<td>Likewise, all effective programmes incorporate interactive peer learning strategies. Certainly peer discussion (usually at the classroom or small group level) fits this bill, as do role-play and cooperative learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Direct teaching</td>
<td>It is common to include direct instruction about character.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skill training</td>
<td>Many of the common strategies are forms of promoting the development of and often the direct teaching of social-emotional skills. These fall into both the categories of intrapersonal and interpersonal skills (e.g., self-management and conflict resolution, respectively).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family and/or community involvement</td>
<td>This common strategy involves the inclusion of families (especially parents), community members, and local businesses. This includes strategies that range from sending newsletters establishing community partnerships for designing and implementing their character education initiative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Providing models and mentors</td>
<td>Many programmes incorporate peer and adult role models (both live and literature based) and mentors to foster character development.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

[Based on Berkowitz & Beir, 2007, p.38]
To develop good character is the primary reason proffered in the character education. According to Table 2.3 (p.34), the common implementation strategies require teachers as the change agent to implement the character education programmes. Teachers go through professional development programme to improve on certain content knowledge and pedagogical skill (Eun, 2008). The goal of professional development is to enhance students learning through strengthening teachers’ professional knowledge, skills and attitudes (Guskey, 2000). Hence, this depicts the importance of having teachers who possess good content knowledge and pedagogical skills to impact on students’ learning.

The second strategy stated in Table 2.3 is peer interaction. This strategy requires teacher to be the mediator or facilitator to ensure the learning process occur among students (Eun, 2008). Cognitive development occurs when the interaction between individuals involved in constructive social interaction (Donato, 1994). Only actual social interactions entrenched in directed intentional activities to achieve specific goals will lead to development throughout the process which includes character development (Hal, 2007). When students involve in a discussion by scrutinizing the common problems that required to be solved in a collective effort such as role-play, cooperative learning strategies, the directed efforts by teacher at finding solutions within this social interaction context enable students to develop character (Vygotsky, 1981). Hence, teacher plays a significant role as a mediator in the process of learning.

The third strategy is direct teaching as stated in Table 2.3. Direct teaching involves teacher in giving the content knowledge to students. The most dominant person in the class is the speaker who gives instruction or demonstration (Berkowitz and Bier, 2005). It requires teacher to have good content knowledge in order to deliver the message and allow students to comprehend. When teachers do not have a deep understanding of the subject matter, they are not able to clearly express their ideas and subject matter to their students.
(Kane, 2004). Also, if teachers could use different methods to present the subject matter to their students to increase interest level and taking into account needs of different learning approaches of students, this able to maximize the students’ learning (Stiggins, 2001). Balanced instructional presentations benefit students and strengthen their learning potential when teachers plan and organize their instruction around Multiple Intelligence learning preferences (Gardner, 1983). Teachers play an important role to personalize educator for student, especially in character education as each student is unique and shaping character individually needs skills to manoeuvre.

Next, it is the skill training strategy. Referring to Table 2.3 (p.34), direct teaching of social-emotional skills involves the learning of both intrapersonal and interpersonal skills. According to Howard Gardner (1983), the definition of interpersonal skill is to understand and interact with others effectively. It has verbal and non-verbal communication which includes the sensitivity to the moods of others. People who acquire high interpersonal skills even have the capability to perceive from different perspectives. They can visualize and understand the feelings and motives of others. Referring to the definition of character education (p. 26), compassionate, kindness, caring and respect are some of the several universal values which such education would like to instil in our children. Students need to acquire interpersonal skill in order to internalize the value and externalize through their expressions and actions (Battistish, 2008). Next, the definition of intrapersonal skill is the capacity to understand oneself and the judgements and feelings in order to plan and direct one’s life. Individuals appreciate themselves in all aspects and always aware of their own feelings and are self-motivated (Gardner, 1983). Once again referring to the definition of character education given by Battistich (2008) on page 26 of this thesis, character includes a person’s desire to reach their highest potential and being concern with others; equipping intellectual capabilities which include moral reasoning and critical thinking, having
responsible behaviour, and holding principles firmly; also having the interpersonal and emotional skills to explicitly externalizing the instilled values in order to contribute to the society. It explains the importance of intrapersonal skill to have the desired outcome of character education. Hence, teachers once again are the bridge between the students and the desired outcome of character education in equipping students with interpersonal and intrapersonal skill.

The fifth implementation strategy needs to involve family and community in order to implement the character education initiative. Much of what they are asked to do in school seems to have little or have no relation to their daily lives. With such, it is not startling that many students are unable to shape their character and apply in their daily lives (Battistich, 2008). This can be done by engaging students with their families and community members in relation to the learned skills and values at school. Parental education is an effective mode of strategies that can meet the objective of nurturing sound character individuals (Berkowitz & Beir, 2005). Teachers once again are important persons to coordinate, notify and manage the events or related programmes to ensure the participation of parents.

Providing models and mentors are the last common strategy listed in Table 2.3 (p.34). The integration of literature heroes or adult role models allow students to comprehend the personality and traits of a sound character person. Children assimilate their understanding of good personality or character trait through what they have observed and pick up from those whom they associate the most with (Midle, 2008), therefore we need teachers who exhibit good character and personality allowing students to model. For example, ‘Facing History and Ourselves Programme’ employs historical figures who influence and impact the society positively through making significant differences of people’s lives. ‘Students in Teen Outreach Programmes’ creates a platform for teenagers to
work with volunteer from the community and also adult staff. ‘Learning for Life Programme’ involves society role models to facilitate students to identify and advise them with necessary skills of chosen future career (Berkowitz and Bier, 2005). The programmes many involving adult and role model in the community. With such, teachers also play the imperative role as a role model to the students in the classroom. Skoe (2010) argues that teachers are the model exemplar for student’s character development.

This section of literature has highlighted the importance of the teacher as an agent to develop sound character in students, hence putting greater impetus to ensure the quality of character educator, which justifies why the researcher has had so much passion in conducting this research. The researcher would like to emphasize on teacher development instead of students as they (teachers) are the agent of change.

2.2.3 Aligning Theoretical Approaches to the Principles of Effective Character Education

According to Battistich (2008), numerous character education’s theory and research suggests that well implemented programme is an effective approach of reaching educational goals. Knowing the character education effectiveness enable the reader to be confident and value the importance of such education. In addition, it provides a window of comprehensive researches with the principles of character education that have been laid by many past researchers (Berkowitz, 2005; Battitish, 2008, Flay, 2009; Berkowitz and Bier, 2005; Ann-Marie, 2010; Watson, 2006; Corrigan & Shapiro, 2010). Among all the character education programmes, the researcher selected the Character Education Partnership (CEP, 2013), an organization that has identified eleven broad principles as defining a comprehensive approach to character education, namely CEP’s 11 Principles of Effective Character Education. Table 2.4 below presents the eleven principles extracted
from the organization of Character Education Partnership. The researcher has attached the detailed explanation of each principle in Appendix A.

**Table 2.4: CEP’s Eleven Principles of Effective Character Education (CEP, 2013)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Principles</th>
<th>Principles of Effective Character Education</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CEP 1</td>
<td>Character education promotes core ethical values as the basis of good character.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CEP 2</td>
<td>“Character” must be comprehensively defined to include thinking, feeling and behaviour.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CEP 3</td>
<td>Effective character education requires an intentional proactive and comprehensive approach that promotes the core values in all phases of school life.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CEP 4</td>
<td>The school must be a caring community</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CEP 5</td>
<td>To develop character students, need opportunities for moral action.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CEP 6</td>
<td>Effective character education includes a meaningful and challenging academic curriculum that respects all learners and helps them succeed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CEP 7</td>
<td>Character education should strive to develop students’ intrinsic motivation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CEP 8</td>
<td>The school staff must become a learning and moral community in which all share responsibility for character education and attempt to adhere to the same core values that guide the education of students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CEP 9</td>
<td>Character education requires moral leadership from both staff and students.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CEP 10</td>
<td>The school must recruit parents and community members as full partners in the character-building effort.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CEP 11</td>
<td>Evaluation of character education should assess the character of the school; the school staff is functioning as character educators, and the extent to which students manifest good character.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From past research, the researcher has compiled and found several theoretical approaches in developing sound character among students that are aligned with the CEP’s Eleven Principles of Effective Character Education stated in Table 2.4. Hence, the researcher divides the related theoretical approaches into the following three subsections namely Moral Reasoning Process, Creating Classroom Context, and Nodding’s Role Model Exhibition.
2.2.3.1 Moral Reasoning Process

Moral reasoning is a process to assess personal values in a systematic approach and thus able to develop a set of applicable moral principles in daily life consistently (Lumpkin et al., 2003). As illustrated in Figure 2.2 below, the moral reasoning process divides into three stages. The first stage of Moral Reasoning Process is Moral Knowing. It is a cognitive phase to learn about moral issues and find ways to resolve. Moral Valuing is the second stage. It is what the individuals perceive and believe about themselves and also others. Moral Acting is the third stage. This is when individuals act upon in real life according to what they have internalized – what they know and what they value.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage 1</th>
<th>Knowing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Learn the difference of right and wrong</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Making decisions</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage 2</th>
<th>Valuing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Internalizing and reinforcing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Modelling</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage 3</th>
<th>Acting</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Take courageous actions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Willingness to make good choice</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 2.2: Moral Reasoning Process [Based on Lumpkin, 2008]

Moral knowing is the first stage which teachers facilitate students to differentiate between right or wrong. Students tend to justify their actions by saying, “There is no rule against it, everyone else does it too”, or “I have no choice in such situation”. Teachers should encourage students not to justify in such a way, instead of employing the moral reasoning process to make decisions in accordance to the self-structured moral principle. This is imperative for teachers to inculcate such thinking (Lumpkin, 2008). This is aligned with CEP’s Principle 2 - “character” must be comprehensively defined to include thinking, feeling and behaviour (refer to Appendix A for detailed description). Character comprises several aspects of moral life such as emotional, cognitive and behaviour (Myyry et al.,
Positive character means comprehending and acting upon the values such as understanding and caring. Hence, the aim of character education is to nurture students to know what the values are, appreciate it and take action in daily life (CEP, 2013). It is not just about knowing, but the reasoning process of why and how allow students to logically differentiate what is right and wrong.

Teachers must constantly put emphasis on the moral knowing so student not to justify wrong actions by manipulating it during class lesson or personal interaction with student. Advancing from Moral Knowing to Moral Valuing, teachers facilitate the internalization process through modelling and constantly emphasizing the good values (Lumpkin, 2008). The continuation reinforcing and modelling the moral virtues by teachers are aligned with CEP’s Principle 8 - *The school staff must become a learning and moral community in which all share responsibility for character education and attempt to adhere to the same core values that guide the education of students* (refer to Appendix A for detailed description). Teachers have the responsibility for character education who need to uphold and model the core values in their behaviour throughout the process in guiding the students (CEP, 2013). For example, teachers demonstrate respect for students regardless of their ethnicity race, gender, socio-economic status, or individual characteristic and abilities. Teachers who model respect will in turn gain respect from students and a respective learning environment is to be created (Noddings, 1992). Teachers should also show they accept the consequences of their deeds. Example, teachers also should admit their mistake and accept the consequences of their deeds. This increase teacher’s credibility and trustability as moral acting allow students to learn that teachers not only talk about virtues, but have incorporated these into their day-to-day actions. This is supported by Zhao (2010) who affirms that in cultivating global competence among students, teachers should also model behaviours in their students.
Besides, teachers have to involve students in a meaningful conversation about the meaning to be a caring, fair, and responsible individual if they are to shape as a sound person with understanding and skills (Battistish, 2008). In the course of activities in class, there is social and moral issues conflicts. Teachers should take advantage of these ‘teacher moments’ to further inculcate suitable social values and further explain the importance of those social values (Meuwissen, 2005). Students are vigorously striving to understand themselves and the world in which they live, and they undoubtedly need supervision to achieve this (Bandura, 1997).

Moral acting requires courage because it takes a person to stand out from the crowd and be different. Teachers need to reinforce students’ readiness to make upright choices even when faced with peer pressure to act unethically. Teachers can assist students learn the significance of knowing right from wrong, individually valuing what is right, and acting according to knowing and valuing (Lumpkin, 2008). Vygotsky suggested that teaching means relating to the students’ daily life (Wink & Putney, 2002). By giving them the opportunity to resolve their own dilemmas, students may find that the knowledge and skills learned in character education make a positive difference to their lives. This is aligned with CEP’s Principle 5 - *To develop character students need opportunities for moral action* (refer to Appendix A for detailed description).

In the intellectual domain, students are constructive learners. They learn best by engaging and doing. In everyday interaction, many and varied opportunities are needed to apply those values in order to develop good character (CEP, 2013). By coping with real-life challenges such as discussing in a cooperative learning group, reaching consensus, carrying out a project, managing conflict, enabling students develop practical understanding of the requirements of fairness, teamwork, and respect. Through repeated skills and behavioural habits that make up the action side of character.
Stroll and Beller (1998) emphasized, moral reasoning does not promise behavioural change, but it does promise individual soul searching and reflection on personal beliefs, values, and principles. Cognitive moral growth will not increase without this process, thus behaviour change will never occur, and the possibility for consistent moral action becomes little more than unattainable. In the moral reasoning process, teacher with character serves as role models living a moral life (Lumpkin, 2008). They can assist their students to recognise what their values are, have faith in in these values as an integral part of which they are, and carry their life in alignment with these values. Hence, teachers play a vital role in assisting students learns and apply a moral reasoning process.

2.2.3.2 Creating Classroom Climate

The climate comprises social structures that include the aims and aspirations of the group, obvious and concealed systems, as well as the incentives and disincentives that regulate behaviour (Narvaez, 2010). More specifically, climate relates to how members of the group work together, treat one another, encourage and discourage particular feelings and behaviours (Hogarth, 2001). In this study, climate is defined as a context of collective expectations, habitual ways of acting and responding that have been explicitly and implicitly supported initially by the teacher and then enforced by the students. Climates provoke specific behaviours from members often without their awareness. People learn from the reactions their actions elicit in an environment (Narvaez et al., 2009).

The creation of positive classroom and school environment has received increasing attention in recent years (Narvaez, 2010; Alder, 2002; Noddings, 2010). Caring climates embolden social and emotional bonding. This serves as a grounding to promote positive interpersonal experiences which is necessary for the formation of character (Schaps, Battistich, & Solomon, 1997). This is aligned with CEP’s Principle 4 - The school must be
a caring community (refer to Appendix A for detailed description). The school setting can be formed to help students in becoming a caring individual and further form a group and community which all treating each other with care.

Researchers have theorized that the development of a warm, caring community within a school might diminish student behavioural problems. Several independent relationships between climate and problem behaviours have been discovered (Battistich, Solomon, Watson, & Schaps, 1997; McEvoy & Welker, 2000; Orpinas & Home, 2006; Williams & Guerra, 2007). Caring schools and classrooms environment provide numerous benefits for students. Caring school climates create social and emotional bonding as well as increase positive interpersonal experiences, providing the minimum grounding necessary for the formation of character (Schaps, Battistich, & Solomon, 1997).

Research by the Developmental Studies Centre (2012) also provides convincing evidence that a caring sense of classroom and school community is positively related to have high empathetic, conflict resolution skills, altruistic behaviour, intrinsic motivation, and trust in and respect for others (Battistich, Solomon, Watson, & Schaps, 1997; Schaps, Battistich, & Solomon, 1997). In addition, schools characterized by a strong sense of community report reduction of discipline problems, delinquency, and bullying; conversely, they also report higher attendance and improvements in academic performance (Lapsley & Narvaez, 2006, Berkowitz & Bier, 2005).

In this study, the researcher emphasized on the situated teaching for character education. Hence, the literature analyses in depth on the classroom climate instead of school climate as a whole. This begins with the in-depth looking of a classroom teacher, who needs to establish positive, personal relationship with each of his or her students in the classroom setting. Character formation begins with a caring relationship. A caring relationship forms the bridge from adult to child through mutual positive influence can
arise (Greenspan & Shanker, 2004). Teachers are highly encouraged to create a caring classroom climate. These caring relationships will foster both the yearning to learn and the desire to be a good person. Students are more likely to internalize the values and expectations of groups that meet this need, thus externalize in the daily life of classroom (Solomon et al. 1996). The daily life of classroom must be imbued with core values such as concern and respect for others, responsibility, kindness, and fairness (Weinstein, 2006). This is aligned with CEP’s Effective Principle 1 - character education promotes core ethical values as the basis of good character (refer to Appendix A for detailed description). This is tough, but even with very delinquent students it can be attained, (Watson & Ecken, 2004) and it establishes the foundation for positive development in a caring classroom climate.

It is known from social and motivational literatures that the classroom climate primes and promotes particular behaviours (Battistich, 2008; Solomon et al., 2002). According to CEP’s Principle 7 - character education should strive to develop students’ intrinsic motivation (refer to Appendix A for detailed description). Teachers create context for learning and the mutual commitment to working together and influencing one another positively (Masten, 2003). Wired for emotional signalling and motivation (Greenspan & Shanker 2004), students motivation to learn also comes from a caring supportive teacher who can foster empathy and caring behaviour in students (Wentzel, 1997). Constant high support and high expectations for achievement and behaviour produce positive results (Zins et al., 2004).

How people treat each other, the norm of how a group works and makes decisions is the results from the environmental structures (Narwaez, 2010). Due to the influence of environments (Hogarth, 2001; Sternberg, 2001), teachers can scientifically predict the types of institutions and cultural expectations children would achieve because teachers design,
engage and guide closely of how students behave in that environment. Educators play the role in ensuring the environments are instilling and creating good intuitions which promote mastery learning, pro-social relationships and active citizenship development.

2.2.3.3 Nodding’s Role Model Exhibition

Teacher modelling is always the most imperative element in character education as students will consciously or unconsciously emulate teachers’ actions and behaviours (Bier, 2005). As Noddings (2010) puts it, regardless of good or bad teachers, they are always being observed by the students. In Nodding’s Role Model Exhibition (2010), the teacher exhibits as a role model through the process of modelling, dialogue, practice and confirmation that is illustrated in Figure 2.3 below.

![Figure 2.3: Nodding’s Role Model Exhibition [Based on Noddings, 2010]](image-url)
Noddings (2002) sees modelling as the first component of character development. This is supported by Fenstermacher (1990) poses that the purpose of teacher modelling is first to be imitated and later to be influencing in guiding student development. Modelling facilitates identification with others, contributing to identity formation (Bandura, 1986). In the context of the classroom, students are attuned to teacher’s action and behaviour through observation. The observation leads to a reflection and develop understanding in relation to the nature of the society or community which they live in. Observing others is considered central to the development of one’s individual character development (Berkowitz & Fekula, 1999). Therefore, it is vital for teachers to exemplify positive character traits to students. This is aligned with CEP’s Principle 9 - character education requires leadership from teachers who champion the effort of upholding values as a role model (refer to Appendix A for detailed description). This is supported by Skoe (2010) claims that teacher is the person who contribute to the development of good character of students as a character model. We need our teachers to be good models or examples in exemplifying certain character traits and dispositions so that students observe, pick up, internalize and acquire them through application.

Teachers take their actions and behaviours seriously because they understand the impact which they might create. This eventually also increases teachers’ commitment to their own character (Hauer, 2003). Model positive behaviour, by walking the talk but not just simply talk the talk. They are aware of the reciprocity concept. We cannot expect honesty without exemplifying honesty; we cannot expect generosity, without exemplifying generosity; we cannot expect diligent, without exemplifying diligent. Just as to skills development, if teachers were to develop students’ critical thinking skills, it is necessarily for teachers to think critically in their presence. Teachers must exemplify values and virtues in order to elicit them from students. They must catch attention of what they are doing and
why they are doing, further hold it and exemplify with consistency enable students to observe and understand, thus follow along. This is aligned with CEP’s Principle 8 - *The school staff must become a learning and moral community in which all share responsibility for character education and attempt to adhere to the same core values that guide the education of students* ((refer to Appendix A for detailed description).

The Manner in Teacher Project (Hansen, 2001; Richardson & Fenstemacher, 2001) was conducted in two schools to discover what influence teachers might have on students. The study found that in addition to modelling manner, the methods that the teachers use in the life of the classroom, entwined in their modelling, brings about the influence they desire in developing their students. Similar results were found qualitatively looking at five teachers identified as good teachers for developing character in their students (Laud, 2000). Both studies point to a combination of characteristics and behaviours that go beyond modelling, including social and emotional competence and the ability of teachers creating the learning environment within the classroom context. This relates to the next component in the Noddings’s Role Model Exhibition (2010).

Besides modelling, dialogue is another vital element. Teachers need to engage students in a meaningful dialogue and not only focusing on intellectual discourse (Noddings, 1992). It is the connection and bonding between teacher and the students. It is when teacher gives attention and care for the feelings of students (Noddings, 2010). This signifies the importance of building a caring relationship. This is aligned with CEP’s Principle 4 - *The school must be a caring community* (refer to Appendix A for detailed description). Dialogue is an understanding or appreciation to exemplify caring Owens & Ennis, 2005). It is the open communication which enables teachers to have deeper understanding and vice versa, thus reduces the gap in between.
Nonetheless, it is important to bring modelling and dialogue to a further enhancement level which is through constant practice (Noddings, 2010). The classroom setting serves as an excellent platform in allowing students to develop virtues and skills before embarking to the real world (Davis, 2006). Wentzel (1998) asserts that teachers who support their students with care and diligent enable students to develop social skills and sound character. In addition, cooperative learning should be highly employed as a teaching tool to foster good relationship and create wide opportunity to allow students to apply their learned skills and instilled values in the classroom setting (Howes, 2000). Students are required to practice what they have learned. With practice, this aligns with CEP’s Principle 5 - To develop character students need opportunities for moral action (refer to Appendix A for detailed description).

Lastly, confirmation takes place when the teacher reckons the actions by students. However, there is a condition to the effectiveness of confirmation. Confirmation can only be effective if there is a good relation between the teacher and the student (Noddings, 2002). If the relationship and understanding between the students and teachers are positive, only then confirmation is valid when the teachers approve the positive actions by the students (Noddings, 2010).

In Figure 2.3 (p. 46), the researcher illustrates Nodding’s Role Model Exhibition (2010) by connecting the process occurs to develop student’s character through modelling, dialogue, and practice and confirmation. Teachers are required to model positive behaviour, at the same time narrow the gap between themselves and students through dialogue. Teachers can influence students’ social and intellectual experiences to instil values in children (Davis, 2003). The classroom setting serves as a platform to develop moral competence and intellectual skills. Students are also required to practice the learning among them to foster good relationship. Teachers are required to create a cooperative learning
environment as well as a positive classroom context. To further internalize value in students, confirmation is the last step to recognize and appraise students’ positive act. The reason why the arrow is thickened as it strengthens student’s character development through appraisal and recognition. However, the confirmation process is only valid when the relationship of student and teacher is good.

Students look for role models to facilitate the understanding of themselves and also formulate the meaning of a good person and active citizen throughout the process of developing their own identities. Their teachers are very influential in this learning and development process. Hence, teachers play an important role, as they are the adults around students who affect students’ development proactively. The continuous cycle of Nodding’s Role Model Exhibition is aligned with CEP’s Principle 3 - *Effective character education requires an intentional proactive and comprehensive approach that promotes the core values in all phases of school life* as it is an intentional and proactive approach plans deliberate ways by teachers to develop character, rather than simply waiting for opportunities to occur.

### 2.2.3.4 Summary of aligning the theoretical approaches to the principles of effective character education by CEP

To summarize this section, the researcher has tabulated the discussion alignment of theoretical approaches that include moral reasoning process, creating classroom climate and role model exhibition to the principles of effective character education by CEP in Table 2.5 below.
Table 2.5: Alignment of theoretical approaches that include moral reasoning process, creating classroom climate and role model exhibition to the principles of effective character education by CEP

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theoretical Approaches</th>
<th>CEP’s Effective Principle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Moral Reasoning Process</td>
<td>CEP 2, 5, 8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creating Classroom Climate</td>
<td>CEP 1, 4, 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role Model Exhibition</td>
<td>CEP 3, 4, 5, 8, 9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Looking at the alignment, the 11 Effective Character Education established by Character Education Partnership (2013) has shown the underpinning theoretical approaches that is supported by many past researches. Hence, instead of further scrutinizing on the effectiveness of character education, the researcher affirmed the importance of teacher education in preparing novice teachers for character education. Classroom teachers who are the implementer of character education need to know what to implement, how to implement and importantly able to create the suitable learning climate for students to learn. Research has shown repeatedly that incomplete or inaccurate implementation leads to ineffective programme outcomes (Battistish, 2008; Eun, 2008; Jennifer, 2009). Hence, in order to be certain that the character formation of students will be in good hands, teacher educators need to ensure that novice teachers are prepared and trained to be good character educator who can be the role model to the students.

2.3 Moral Education in Malaysia

Besides looking at the character education trend in America, especially the scrutinizing of the comprehensive studies done by Berkowitz and Beir (2005), it is fairly important to understand the character education in Malaysia as the sample of this study is located in Malaysia. In Malaysia, ‘Moral Education’ term is used.
According to Battistich (2008), character education is to nurture next generation who internalize and externalize core ethical values (such as diligence, compassion, integrity and fairness) in their daily life that create a productive and democratic society. As they have sound character, they are committed to give in their best and do the right thing who live with their life purpose. This matches with the words from Malaysia’s Deputy Prime Minister and Minister of Education.

‘Our goal, and the purpose of education is to equip our students holistically to allow them to succeed in the 21st century, with all of the opportunities and challenges that this new era presents. It is important that our students must be imbued with values, ethics and a sense of nationhood, enabling them to make the right choices for themselves, their families and the country with a view towards enduring and overcoming life’s inevitable challenges.’ (Hussien, 2012, p.9)

Moral Education (ME) is one of the main subjects in the school education system in Malaysia. Only non-Muslim pupils study this subject whilst the Muslim pupils study Islamic Education. The academic year for this subject is from Year One Primary to Form Five Secondary and it culminates with a formal centralized public examination conducted at the end of Form Five by the Examination Board, (Ministry of Education, 2013). The general objective of Moral Education is to nurture individuals with sound character, responsible and able to contribute towards a stable and harmony in the nation as well as global community (Chang, 2010). The main objectives are to enable pupils to (1) understand and internalise positive values that are needed for sound character (2) aware and accept the importance of harmony between mankind and environment and strive to sustain it, (3) enhance understanding and cooperation by sustaining a peaceful and harmonious life in a democratic Malaysia, (4) develop mature thinking according to moral and spiritual values in making decisions and solving problems (5) develop commitment to have the action according to justice and altruism in line with the values of Malaysian society (Ministry of Education, 2010).
2.3.1 General Framework of Moral Education in Malaysia

The general framework of Moral Education (ME) in Malaysia is integrated and holistic. It is fundamentally based on character education (Lickona, 1997) which emphasises on the holistic development of moral thinking, moral feeling and moral action. With the explanation of Lickona (1997), character education integrates three major components that mean,

*To possess virtue of justice, I must first understand what justice is and what justice requires of me in human relations (moral knowledge). I must also care about justice – be emotionally committed to it, having the capacity for appropriate guilt when I behave unjustly and be capable of moral indignation when I see others suffer unjustly (moral feeling). Finally, I must practice justice by acting fairly in my personal relations and carrying out my obligations as a citizen to help advance social justice (moral behaviour) (cited in Chang 2010, Lickona, 1997, p. 46).*

With such, the holistic development of character education can be said to be aligned to the National Philosophy of Education which aims to develop a holistic person in all aspects, namely intellectually, physically, spiritually and emotionally.

Moral Education Syllabus in Malaysia comprises three domains - cognitive, affective and behavioural. It is the same as the learning outcome domains as identified in Table 2.2 (p.32) which the international common used term in Character Education. Moral Education (ME) in Malaysia also reflects an integration of cognitive moral development that emphasizes on development of moral reasoning based on universal moral principles. It focuses on inculcating a fixed set of values. These values are based on various religions, traditions and cultures of different communities and are consistent with universal values. The acceptance of these values is essential in developing virtuous character and active citizens in Malaysia’s plural society (Chang, 2010).

According to Y.B. Dato’ Saifuddin Abdullah (2012), the Deputy of Higher Education Minister, ‘we need to revisit the philosophy of learning and realign ourselves with the objectives of education such as being a good, moral citizen, living in a global
world.’ It is important that education in Malaysia inculcates elements of character building instead of an over emphasis on competency or academic result. In 2013, The Ministry of Education in Malaysia described that there is a strong need in the community for character development, both nationally and locally. Moreover, upon further examination, the needs of nurturing human qualities are also defined in the National Education Objective (Blue Print, 2013).

2.3.2 Implementation of Moral Education Curriculum in Malaysia

It is important to have moral reasoning as it is the heart of moral development (Rajoo, 2013). However, the current teaching and testing practices in our schools run contrary to the principles of moral development. They are at odds with the learner outcomes we hope the subject would achieve. Instead of seeking how can we teach and test moral reasoning effectively, this subject has posed a present dilemma because test and score moral reasoning and analysis, the teaching and learning of Moral Education so simplistic that it has become one-dimensional.

In Tho’s (2008) research, he reported that teachers ‘compelled’ students to memorize the given set of values in the ME syllabus as these values form the basic content knowledge that needed essentially to answer exam questions. Also the public examination at the end of Form 5 Secondary requires the exact memorized words and definitions in order to achieve flying colours. Tho (2008) further added that students were forced to memorize without understanding the values and their application. A teacher even commented that ‘if I don’t force them to memorize, don’t blame me for their results” (p.104). The rote-learning method employed by teachers was found in the posting of ‘How to Score in SPM (Malaysia Students, 2007).
It seems that students are expected to internalize and able to apply the given set of moral values. Each of these values has a specific term and definition that is spelt out in the syllabus and curriculum (Pathmanathan et. al, 2014). In the examination, students are compulsory to use the exact term, definition and elaboration if students were to achieve good result in exam. This shows that both teachers and pupils seem to regard the values definitions as absolute explanation and fixed without any alteration should be done. If students do not comply to write the same answers, they will be penalized from losing marks.

The parties which involve including students, parents and even teachers have expressed their dissatisfaction and annoyance over rigid marking scheme imposed on the Moral Education examination papers in the Sijil Pelajaran Malaysia (SPM or the Malaysian Certificate of Education) examination (Rajoo, 2013). Formulating examination questions and marking schemes, as well as scoring and grading. The scoring and grading are currently done based on scripted answers, and answers that deviate from the marking scheme are viewed unfavourably, even suspiciously. The examiners find it easier and faster to mark down a more critical or analytical candidate rather than figure out how to grade his complex reasoning. Moral Education in Malaysia is therefore nothing but an exercise in memorizing and regurgitating. It is entirely pointless in shaping children’s character (Singh, 2013). This is incomprehensible and certainly unacceptable (The Star Online, 2013). Exact words are compulsory to answer as accordance to the text book. Students are not allowed to answer with their own wordings. This marking practice have been continued even the parents and students filed complaints. ‘I think this is most unfair. Why are we encouraging regurgitation of facts in an examination? It defies logic and common sense’ (Rajoo, 2013).

Kupperman (2005) further argued that whilst the values of good behaviour are essential but ‘blindly’ memorizing without internalizing and having the ability to externalize or apply in real life, the values serve no good. Character education should
consist of the teaching by having the students possess the ability to modify the application according to the situation. Rather than merely just acquire from the ‘memory bank’, the values will not make virtuous behaviour effective’ (p.216). Many students and parents are eluded for scoring or attaining distinction instead of valuing the subject matter and transcend the knowledge into real life application. This has definitely defeat the purpose of education, especially moral or character education which in turn is about carrying one’s life with those values. Hence we see students attaining A’s in Moral Education, but not practicing any of the taught values in life.

Actually, the general framework of Moral Education syllabus is not designed for memorization. It is a holistic and integrated approach to develop individuals with sound character which in turn to contribute towards a harmony and stable nation and global community. Moral values can never be inculcated to young children through formal lessons and examinations.

The described situations on the implementation of Moral Education in schools have indicated the complexity of such education. In Malaysia, it has raised several concerns and implications especially to the Moral Education teachers.

2.3.3 Implication towards Moral Education Teachers

Many Moral Education teachers face difficulties when teaching a diverse groups of non-Muslim students with different religions, cultures and traditions. As Moral Education is only taken up by non-Muslim students who have different faith such as Buddhism, Christianity, Hinduism, Sikhism and several minority groups, it is essential that Moral Education teachers have well-rounded dispositions to manage cultural differences.

Variety of pedagogical approach is needed in such a complex setting as Malaysia Moral Education classroom has different culture and religion background. Due to the
diversity, it is most likely a transformation of culture and school life needs to be altered, suggested by Berkowitz and Bier (2005). It is evidently a great challenge to teach Moral Education in a pluralistic environment where diversity occurs (Vishalache, 2006). Furthermore, the top-down system of a government-mandated curriculum that spells out every detail of the curriculum may lead to inflexibility to address students and social contemporary concerns.

Caring teacher in developing compassion in moral education has turn out to be an exemplary dispositions and practices (Narinasamy & Wan Hasmah, 2012). According to their research, engaging students through the explicit behaviour of caring has become the main traits of a character educator or modeller. This emergent data are seen to correlate to the Ethics of Care propagated by Noddings (2010). Teacher modelling through a caring approach is always the predominant trait in Moral Education (Noddings, 2010). Teachers who offer praise and motivation is also traits of a caring teacher to constantly provide encouragement allowing students to make positive changes and growth (Hayes, Ryan & Zsellar, 1994).

In a culturally diverse classroom setting, it is important to have a caring and emphatic Moral Education (Narinasamy & Wan Hasmah, 2012). Gay (2002) advocated that taking the perspectives of diverse students, caring is an imperative dispositions of a teacher to conduct effective teachings. It is the caring disposition that will encourage the teachers to give their best to act in the best interest of their students’ growth. He equates teachers who practice responsive caring as ‘teachers are an ethical, emotional, and academic partnership with ethnically diverse students. As Gomes, Allen & Clinton (2004) stress, teachers must implement the system with the value of caring. It is seen as the core value in their teaching profession to nurture students in terms of physical, emotional, spiritual and intellectual dimensions in tandem with Malaysia’s National Philosophy of Education. Teachers provide
the motivation, support and opportunities towards students’ character development. Teachers not only need to know the content but pedagogical as well as being the role model to the students with good dispositions. Although caring is the predominant value, building good relationship between teachers and students consume lots of time (Noddings, 2005). It requires an exemplary teacher to portray exemplary dispositions and also conducting exemplary practices.

The complexities and the contradictions in Moral Education syllabus in Malaysia as well as its implementation need to be acknowledged by all stakeholders. However, if the described actual situation of memorizing approach of Moral Education syllabus in Malaysia were to persist, Moral Education will remain to be futile and meaningless to the students. Consequently, the aim and objectives of Moral Education syllabus would not be attained if the current practice are to carry on.

There are numerous approaches in teaching Moral Education that have been developed through many moral education, character education or values education programmes. The researcher has also explained several theoretical approaches which include Moral Reasoning Process, Caring Classroom Climate and Role Model Exhibition. As all these approaches have its strengths and weaknesses, teachers need to be heterogeneous and make professional decisions on how to use or even integrate these approaches when teaching Moral Education in Malaysian schools. Teachers are the key persons to implement the curriculum by translating it through teaching actions, thus achieving the learning outcomes.

Hence, the next section will explain the credibility of learning from exemplary teachers’ embedded knowledge in their learning and teaching experience.
2.4 Embedded Knowledge in Teaching and Learning

Learning practitioners have for decades demonstrated the effectiveness of learning through experiencing in the authentic laboratory setting of their classrooms (Olgun, 2009; Jennifer, 2009; Merriam, 2001; Smith, 2007). It would stand to reason that authentic learning events are more than likely to find active form of experiences that intuitively reprocess their learning and apply in their future classroom (Dickey, 2008). The embedded knowledge about their (teachers) successes in the classroom, their intuitively use to make decisions in their everyday practice of teaching and learning (Dawn, 2008). Torff (1999) defines embedded knowledge in teachers as preconceived ideas, values and belief, stating the importance to determine reasons teachers make certain decisions in their classrooms. Consider that certain key experiences in the classroom may indicate whether learning has occurred or is occurring in students. Teacher’s witness these phenomena have the ability to process relevant information from them and make necessary instructional change. The experienced teachers store embedded knowledge about what learning looks like and under what circumstances it occurs (Torff, 1999).

Some of the underlying assumptions and generalizations of this study stem from principles employing constructivist-learning theories such as experiential, active and reflective learning. Teachers learn how their students learn through their own active experiences of learning in classrooms (Russell, 2005). Action and experiential learning theories provide a credible framework that teachers learn how their students learn through their own active experiences of learning in their classrooms (Olgun, 2009). Teachers who regularly recreate learning situation in their classrooms may consequently validate their practice through the utility of their embedded knowledge (Russell, 2005). Teachers have the ability to process relevant information from the students without ever articulating or documenting as changes made in teaching practice (Dawn, 2008). Teachers embed valuable
knowledge from classroom experience about how to define learning, recognize it when it occurs, and innovate means to achieve it, even if they never articulate or document those valuable understanding (Sternberg & Howarth, 1999).

Action and experiential learning theorists provide a constructivist view of learning. The focus lies on the adaptive development of individuals through situational problem-solving (Cell, 1984; Dewey, 1963; Kolb, 1984). Furthermore, if we can recognize the value of this understanding of teachers’ authentic classroom experience as credible insight into instructional practices or dispositions that achieve learning, we can build upon the embedded knowledge from those teachers. These have credibility based upon experiential learning theory brought forth in the works of David Kolb (1984) and Edward Cell (1984) ideas about experience and learning. These experiences ought to be valuable as a source for preparing novice teachers with those exemplary situated teaching practices for character education.

2.4.1 Kolb Experience Learning

Teachers see feedback from experience as the input for learning (Kolb, 1984). Following this line of reasoning, teachers make choices for their students’ learning during classroom experiences and learn how to do this through what Kolb refers to an integrative use of classroom feedback. He explains that this type of feedback “provides the integrative perspective or integrity that allows for consistent choice about which structure or combination of structures to apply to this particular problem” (p.155). However, in order to achieve that integrative level of perspective, teachers must have developed over time the competence and personal insight to do this, without even realizing consciously about their own cognitive development (Dawn, 2008).
Kolb’s stages of learning and development notably have three (1984). Kolb’s acquisition stage (Stage 1) moves from the acquisition of “basic learning abilities and cognitive structures” to specialization stage (Stage 2) where “symbolic powers achieve total independence from concrete reality in the development of representational logic and the process of hypothetical deductive reasoning” (p. 142). For teachers, this would be the stage they adapt to, generate more of, and grow more deeply into an embedded understanding of the experience as well as of themselves. One initial consideration of this research study is that experience teachers would have a reflective experience potentially influencing a transition from the specialization stage to the integration stage through the process of interviewing into teaching practice because “these consciousness structures govern the process of learning from experience through the selection and definition of that experience” (Kolb, 1984, p. 146).

In addition, this stage theory of experiential learning suggests that experience is created by the individual; therefore, teachers create the kind of classroom experience they learn from and thus, what they learn. Becoming aware of this may help teachers transcend to higher forms of this learning model. The self in this stage is defined primarily in terms of content—things teacher can do, experiences teacher has had, goods and qualities teacher possess. This would explain why, when asked to describe how students are learning in their classrooms, most teachers will tend to speak in terms of what they do in class, rather than what the students receive or learn (Dawn, 2008).

But when moving on to Kolb’s (1984) third stage, the stage of integration, we see “the person who has specialized in the active mode” where “the emergence of the reflective side broadens the range of choice and deepens the ability to sense implications of actions” (p. 145). In this stage characterized by fulfilment and awareness, we should see highly developed teachers confronting the “conflict between social demands and personal
fulfilment needs and the corresponding recognition of self-as-object” (p. 146) in order to make creative choices in the classroom based upon immediate feedback from the learning environment. In Figure 2.4 illustrates Kolb’s stages of learning and development from acquisition stage to specialization stage, finally the integration stage.

Figure 2.4: Kolb’s stages of learning & development

2.4.2 Cell’s Learning to Learn from Experience

The year 1984 was highly productive for experiential learning theorists, as Edward Cell joined Kolb with his text ‘Learning to Learn From Experience’ (Jennifer 2009). Like Kolb, Cell defined a model of experiential learning comprised of four distinct categories: response learning, situation learning, trans-situation learning, and transcendent learning (Cell, 1984). The first three categories, as with Kolb’s first three stages, help to understand and give support to the assumption inherent in this research study that teachers learn about learning from the experiences in their classrooms.

To use the tenets of experiential learning in support of this assumption requires a belief in the principles of Cell’s model, notably, that when individuals learn, they change in some way (1984). For instance, the change individuals experience in response learning is akin to the interests of behaviouristic psychologists. It involves “either adding a new response to the set of responses we have previously learned or substituting a new response for one we have been using” (Cell, 1984, p. 41). This could be noted in the way teachers describe how they discover “what works” with students and “what doesn’t work.” These responses illustrate the “trial and error” characteristic of response learning in the way
positive reinforcement or operant conditioning denotes some behaviour change. In this case, it illustrates a change in a teacher’s choice of learning activity, assessment or teaching method (Russell, 2005).

Situation learning, or the “change in how we interpret a certain kind of situation,” (Cell, 1984, p. 43) involves a deeper commitment on the part of the individual. It requires a kind of value placement, such as that of teachers who have a commitment to the purpose of student success. Cell described this as seeing “some point to being in that situation, something is at stake for us there” (1984, p. 43). The interrelation between these two types of experiential learning (response and situation) echoes that between Kolb’s acquisition and specialization stages, in which assumptions about teacher roles and individual identities develop from those based upon generative cultural and traditional norms to those into which teachers create for themselves based upon the individual choices made in their experiences with teaching. This is to say that what teachers learn about learning in the classroom is twofold: they learn about student learning and they develop as individuals (Cole, 1997). However, this is not to say that they are able to change consciously the interpretations of situations in which they have learned and developed. This requires the ability to reflect and then to determine the value of diverse interpretations autonomously (Bright, 1996).

Trans-situational learning provides a way of defining this ability to reflect. Cell (1984) described the particular change in individuals at this stage as one in which the individual changes his/her “interpretation of a situation” (p. 52). Again, there is consistency between this characteristic and Kolb’s integration stage (Stage 3), in which individuals demonstrate autonomous and holistic response to situations based upon the creative capacity to discover and to choose between various interpretations. Learning reinforced by reflection, collaboration, and action delivers the individual from Kolb’s stage.
of specialization to the integration stage and from Cell’s situation learning to trans-situation learning.

It was most successful when it utilized a transaction rather than a transmission model of learning (Desimone et al., 2002, Knowles, 1980). According to Hampton (1980), in learning activities that are structured for transaction, coach is viewed as guides and content resources while learner is considered as knowledge and experience. The transmission model, in contrast, is focused on relaying information to the learner, in transmitting knowledge between coach and learner, usually in the form of lectures, presentations or other training models that involve little student-teacher interaction or active learning (Olgun, 2009).

2.4.3 Differentiating between reflective thought, reflection and reflective practice

In this section, the concepts of reflective thought, reflection, and reflection practice are differentiated and then examined more in depth as they have been used in the fields of novice teachers and professional development programmes.

According to Dewey (1910, cited in Dawn, 2009), he describes reflective thought as “active, persistent, and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in the light of the grounds that support it, and the further conclusions to which it tends” (p.6). Reflective teachers possess the ability to examine choices they make in the classroom, the willingness to consider implications of those actions, and the openness to hear different perspectives on those actions (Stemme & Burris, 2005). This idea suggests that the very act of thinking on both the origins of a belief or learned construct and the implications of that belief or learned construct is of a critical nature.

This is a different idea than that associated with reflection as conveyed in the work of Osterman and Kottkamp (1993). In Reflective Practice for Educators, they distinguish
reflection as a solitary, introspective act that does not necessarily contain a critical dimension due to what they explain as “the deeply ingrained nature of our behavioural patterns” resistant to authentic “critical perspective on our own behaviour” (p. 6). Their suggestion is that, in isolation, reflection does not enable one to question or critically examine personal belief for the purpose of change. Its value lies bracketed in the phenomenological horizon of an individual’s life world, which is itself vital for self-expression and integral as contribution into collective understanding.

The act of reflecting as it has been used to record teacher stories and their emotional states through creative rumination, can be understood as a tool for personal expression and a means of helping teachers articulate states of being (Bolton, 2005; Jalongo & Isenberg, 1995; Karpiak, 2000; Kelleher, 2002; Rowley & Hart, 1993). In addition, the act of engaging in reflective thought as it has been used with teachers in group discussions, classroom observations and through narrative, teaching journals or teaching portfolios can be understood as a tool for uncovering existing beliefs and drawing out knowledge in an effort to examine causes and effects, inhibiting paradigms and solutions to problems (Cady, 1998; Christensen, et al, 2004; Hooks, 1994; Jalongo & Isenberg, 1995; Stemme & Burris, 2005).

Reflection and reflective thought are finite acts of introspection, confined within a cognitive space that may or may not induce behavioural change (Russell, 2005). Reflection and reflective thought can be either or both individual or/and collaborative. When applied collaboratively, reflective thought becomes a dynamic interrelation of personal reflection and has rich potential for the kind of critical examination required for a framework in which to engage in reflective practice.

Reflective practice is a way of being based upon critical reflections that determine it (Schon, 1983). Hence, reflection and reflective thought should be understood as the
necessary precursors for reflective practice, not as synonymous with it. Reflective practice is the operational engagement of individual reflection as it is brought into collective reflective thought and used systematically for the purpose of positive change. The reason why researcher makes these distinctions here is to avoid the confusion the term used that she has found in the literature. With such, the researcher can clarify the ambiguity of reflective practice in the literature of teaching and learning as well as explain some of the controversial debates involving its use as an effective practice for educational institutions.

The concept of reflective practice has been widely attributed to Schon’s work concerning professional development (1983). He develops the rationale for employing reflective practice as a means of achieving deeper levels of skill in professional practice. His action-oriented premise evolves from earlier work of Chris Argyris (1974) on the use of theory in practice integrated with affective and cognitive learning. Argyris & Schon (1978) demonstrate the importance of all human beings to develop an individual awareness of self through reflection-on-action while simultaneously taking action on that reflection. According to them, if individuals do not critically examine the consequences of their actions, they will be less likely to make behaviour changes in order for learning to occur and more likely to defend even destructive actions in order to preserve ingrained habits.

Reflective practice in this sense is not simply the practice of reflective thought but a way of being that is always already actively engaged in practice enabled through critically reflective thought. The popular concepts of reflection and reflective thought in the professions were often used synonymously with reflective practice. Much of the debate surrounding reflective practice in the field of teacher education may result from ambiguous uses of distinctions between reflective practice, reflection and reflective thought on effective practice. Considerable effort has been made to clarify these terms to inquire more
deeply into their meanings and relationships to fully appreciate their value for generating knowledge from practice (Loughran, 2002; Russell, 2005; Stemme & Burris, 2005).

But there is little reference to the use of reflective thought to draw out embedded knowledge for the purpose of developing specific tools for learning (Robinson, 2008) and establishing codes of exemplary dispositions and practices for character education through reflection. Ritchie and Wilson (2000) pointed out the importance of documenting teacher experience, which increases a teacher’s competence in critical inquiry.

This research contributes to the application of reflective practice as a means for extracting what teachers have learned about learning from classroom experience as a form of embedded knowledge and make it explicit to facilitate the establishment of codes of exemplary dispositions and practices for character education. By scrutinizing the past researches, there are handful of research on effective teaching and effective teachers’ characteristic that can increase learning (Robinson, 2008) although not for character education.

The following section reviews different types of effective teaching as well as the characteristics of effective teachers which give insights of the exemplary dispositions and practices identification for character education.

2.5 Research on Teaching Effectiveness

This section examines the research on effective teaching in order to inform the reader more fully about what constitutes exemplary practices and dispositions though not subject to character education but serve as a good reference to establish the codes of exemplary situated teaching. Because effective teaching is not defined by one type of teaching style or one set of behaviours, good teaching differs by situation and student’s need (Jennifer, 2009). Rather, an effective teaching is most often qualified as such by his or
her vast repertoire of strategies, models, and styles that, when used at appropriate times, best fit the situational needs of the classroom (Dawn, 2008). Also, traits of effective teachers remain an elusive construct to define (Polk, 2006). Hence, the researcher reviews the teaching effectiveness in three different aspects, namely effective teaching approaches, characteristics of effective teachers and teacher self-efficacy.

2.5.1 Effective Teaching Approaches

Three specific paradigms of educational research are reviewed by researcher which includes, process-product research, cognitive science research and constructivist research. Each paradigm has examined teacher expertise and the field of educational research has expanded to incorporate many of the features of each of these teaching approaches. These research paradigms have helped to shape our current view of what effective teaching look like.

The process-product research focuses on finding teacher characteristics that foster improve student learning.Muijis and Reynolds (2002) summarize the main findings in three points. They suggest that the key elements are classroom management, behaviour management, and classroom climate. First, they state, “Get the classroom climate right. Learning occurs when the classroom is an orderly environment” (p.3). Second, they state “Get the teaching right” (p.4). They include teacher practices such as whole class instruction, clear expectations, effective questioning and feedback to students, and the teacher taking an active role in the classroom. Third, they state,

“Effective teaching is not rigid. Teachers need to use a variety of teaching strategies aimed at students with different learning needs. They need to vary the difficulty of questions and explanations to match students’ levels and need to address different learning styles and allow easier transferability of knowledge” (p.4)
Next is the cognitive science approach. Rosenshine (1986) describes three broad areas: first, creating cognitive processing structures for knowledge; secondly, practicing the best process-product techniques, and third, the teaching of cognitive strategies. Carter (1990) summarizes the cognitive view of exemplary teaching, noting that teaching knowledge is highly domain-specific and is tacit. Russel and Martin (2001) provide their view of expertise, noting that ‘expert teachers possess richly elaborated knowledge about curriculum, classroom routines and students that allows them to apply with dispatch what they know to particular cases’ (p.89). In addition, Stough and Palmer (2003) also broaden its scope to examine the affective domain in the classroom, looking at the performance and mastery goals of students and the impact that teachers have on student motivation. Isenbarger and Zembylas (2001) have examined caring, identifying it as one of the moral and ethical aspects of teaching. Berliner (1988) acknowledges in his work that exemplary teachers have greater understanding for students during interactive teaching. Campbell (1991) believe that through his study, the ability of creating a meaningful learning context comes from the content deliver and the positive student-teacher relationship. Smith and Strahan (2004) found that exemplary teachers maximize the importance of developing relationships with students and see their classrooms as ‘communities of learners’. Clearly cognitive paradigm is finding a place for the affective.

The following is constructivist research of education, where teaching is seen as facilitation. Students develop meaning through the interaction of prior knowledge and new knowledge. Fenstermacher and Richardson (2005) hold that teachers need to have a specific way of thinking about student learning and a pre-set of fundamental principle and belief. Students and teachers construct meaning and understanding together in a constructivist classroom and it is very essential to focus on the social relationships among students and teachers. This is supported by the work of Vygotsky (1978), noting that
‘cognitive development is embedded in the context of social relationships’ (p.648). His concept of the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) has become one of the central concepts used today when discussing student learning. Goldstein & Freedman (2003) describes this concept, “as a shared intellectual space experienced by the teacher and learner” (p. 452). It is a space between what the child is able to do alone and what he/she can do with the help of a more knowledgeable other (Lysaker, McCormick & Brunette, 2004). A discussion of teacher expertise within the Vygotsky School of constructivism extends the argument highlight that the zone of proximal development which comprises feeling, emotion and the interpersonal relationship (Goldstein & Freedman, 2003).

These affective aspects of the ZPD are of primary and fundamental importance for teachers to establish trust, caring relationships with learners for those learners to be willing to take the risks required to enter into the ZPD. In other words, interpersonal connection must occur so that learning and growth can occur. If we lose sight of our relationships with our students, their learning will suffer (p. 452).

The constructivist approach combines the traditional acts or behaviours of teaching (logical, psychological, moral) as investigated in the process-product work, but also ask teachers to establish an environment that allows students to develop willingness to and responsibility for learning (Frenstermacher & Richardson, 2005, p.205). The constructivist approach definition of effective teaching as reflected in the Frenstermacher and Richardson (2005) summary includes two key aspects, expert teaching practice and the moral and social skills to create the right kind of learning environment.

Effective teaching has been the topic of considerable research in education. The various paradigms of teaching approaches have examined a broad range of features of expert teaching. In Table 2.6 (p.70), the researcher has summarized the key elements of each researched effective teaching approach to compare its differences and similarities.
Table 2.6: Comparison on effective teaching approach based on three different paradigms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Process-Product</th>
<th>Cognitive Science</th>
<th>Constructivist</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Classroom climate</td>
<td>Create cognitive processing structures for knowledge</td>
<td>Prior knowledge and new knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-classroom management</td>
<td>-curriculum</td>
<td>-student and student co-construct meaning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-behaviour management</td>
<td>-classroom routines</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Right reaching</td>
<td>Practice best process-product techniques</td>
<td>Social relationship in classroom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-class instruction</td>
<td>-decision making</td>
<td>-build trust and caring</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-clear expectation</td>
<td>-develop relationships with student</td>
<td>-help by the more expert others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-effective questioning</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-feedback to students</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flexible teaching</td>
<td>Teaching of cognitive strategies</td>
<td>Establish learning environment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-teaching strategies</td>
<td>-provide meaningful context</td>
<td>-willing to take risk to learn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-difficulty of questions</td>
<td>-understand children during interactive teachings</td>
<td>-responsibility of learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-materials</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-learning styles</td>
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</table>

There may still be no clear consensus on what expert teaching looks like specifically for character education, but there is no shortage of criteria for selection of expert or exemplary teachers for this study. The researcher employed the literature review in this section to identify exemplary teachers for this study to draw their embedded knowledge of teaching experience and practices in their classroom as well as establishing the codes of exemplary situated teaching for character education. The next sub-section shall look into the characteristic of effective teachers.

2.5.2 Characteristics of Effective Teachers

As Kottler and Zehm (2000) noted,

"so much of teacher preparation continues to be focused on methods courses and in areas of content specialty. The assumption behind this training for elementary and secondary teachers is that when you study a subject in depth and learn the proper methods of instruction, presumably you then become a more competent and outstanding teacher. Not included in this simplistic process are a number of other variables that make up the essence of all great educators and infuse them"
The discussion of personality traits by these authors goes on to suggest a few traits that are of utmost importance when discussing teacher effectiveness. These include: (a) charisma, or the ability to inspire others; (b) compassion, or people who are caring toward others; (c) egalitarianism, or the ability to recognize that children need limits and have a sense of fairness and consistency; and (d) a sense of humour, or conveying the idea that learning is enjoyable (Kottler & Zehm, 2000). Other researchers have also identified the traits of smarts, creativity, honesty, emotional stability, patience, ability to challenge and motivate, and novelty as important to effective teaching (Schiedecker & Freeman, 1999).

Stronge (2002) added to the list of teacher characteristics, or dispositions, with the traits of listening, understanding, knowing students, social interactions with students, promotion of enthusiasm and motivation for learning, attitude toward the teaching profession, and the role of reflective practice. “Through examination of several sources of evidence, a dual commitment to student learning and to personal learning has been found repeatedly in effective teachers as their important characteristic” (Stronge, 2002, p. 19).

Similarly, the researcher employed several characteristics of effective teachers from past researches in identifying the exemplary teacher research participants for this study to draw out their teaching dispositions in their classroom as well as to establish the codes of exemplary situated teaching for character education.

2.5.3 Teacher Self-Efficacy

It is critical for teachers believing their own abilities to affect future change. It is imperative to differentiate between self-efficacy and self-esteem. According to Stephen
(2008), self-esteem is a measure of self-worth; while self-efficacy is a measure of capability. Within the context of current research study, the concept of self-efficacy becomes important as it relates to exemplary teachers’ decision making and practices within the classroom setting. Teachers who possess high self-efficacy will have high tendency to feel good about their teaching and can create a positive impact in students’ learning due to their confidence level (Ashton, 1984).

Self-Efficacy comes from the social cognitive theory of Bandura (1997). Perceived self-efficacy is a personal belief that individuals hold concerning their ability to successfully complete a given task (Bandura, 1997). It is important to note that self-efficacy is a perception that individuals have about their capabilities, not their beliefs about anticipated outcomes (Narvaez et. al, 2008). A person’s mentality or beliefs about actions has more influence than the consequences of actions (Bandura, 1986). Means, if a teacher efficacy is high, teacher believes his or her capability to accomplish the desired outcome of students, even among those who are not motivated or difficult students (Tschannen-Moren et al., 2001).

Persistence and effort during instructional giving also highly linked to teacher self-efficacy (Gibson & Demo, 1984). Another characteristic of a high teacher self-efficacy is the style of conducting the class. It is a more democratic classroom learning nature which teachers encourage cooperative learning (Solomon, Watson & Battistich, 2002). These democratic classrooms enable students to equip decision making skill, conflict management skills and problem solving skills. This nature of classroom facilitates the skills and character development (Lapsley & Naraezm 2006). Indeed, exemplary teachers typically demonstrate high self-efficacy (McAdams, 2009; Walker & Frimer, 2009). It is imperative that teachers must have strong belief that they can build the character of the students as well as attempting any challenges especially dealing with difficult students (Milson, 2003).
Teacher self-efficacy belief influences teachers’ choices, effort, persistence when facing adversity (Henson, 2001). Due to the complexities and complications of developing student character, teachers need to be persistent and patience to implement effective character education (Watson, 2003). With such, teachers must have the knowledge, persistency and motivation to develop character in students. The higher the teacher self-efficacy, the higher the ability in facing obstacles throughout the process of developing students’ sound character (Freppon & Allen, 2001). Therefore, the construct of teacher efficacy has clear relevance for character education.

It does not have a clear agreement on what constitutes exemplary dispositions and practices in a situated classroom setting for character education after reviewing the teaching effectiveness by past researches. There remains a societal and professional expectation that teachers would know ‘it’, have ‘it’ and model ‘it’ in their practices or dispositions (Schwatz, 2007). This is one of the identified literature gap by the research in this study. Detailed explanation of this literature gap will be shown in Section 2.7 (p.82).

### 2.6 Preparing Novice Teachers for Character Education

Effective character education engages students to go through the process of potential realization and enable them to achieve vital goals in the suitable classroom and school environments. Russell (1999) reiterated that to enhance or change practically the classroom practice, it must first initiated in teacher education. If the teacher education is enhanced and elevated, then it is possible to uplift the desired learning outcome in the classroom setting (Stofflett & Stoddart 1994).
Learning to teach, primarily is to put heavy emphasis on improving student learning outcome especially being challenged by difficult students. Even the most outstanding prospective teacher found it challenging to endeavour in such learning process (Putman, 2009). From the aspect of instructional giving, novice teachers must comprehend the interrelation of how to employ the right pedagogical as well as the content areas (Hal, 2007), with the establishment of effective and individualized learning environments, classroom management routines (Charney, 2002; Routman, 2000; Putman, 2009), and assessment-driven instruction as well as the types of assessment (Morrow, Gambrell, 2003; Pressley, 2001; Wiggins, 2005). The necessity to understand these intertwining strands that constitute effective teaching creates a multifaceted arena for novice teachers in the process of learning to teach.

Character education and teacher education are interrelated (Narveez & Lapsley, 2012). Teacher education must have a commitment to character education if novice teachers are to value and promote education. It is important to have novice teacher training in reference to character education (Jones, Bohlin & Ryan, 1998; Lickona, 2005). Although there is a growing demand in character education, unfortunately, most teacher education programmes do not include detailed character development for novice teachers (Milson, 2003, Nucci et.al, 2005). With the preparation of future teachers in character education, exemplary dispositions and practices in the situated classroom are needed to develop sound character among the students.

However, most teacher education activities are separated from the classroom. Separation is problematic because lecture and explanation is rather a superficial or an abstract approach to transmit such skills in terms of developing character. With such approach, it is difficult for learners to apply them in concrete, real world setting (Olgun, 2009). This is supported by Sibert (2005), that novice teachers receive too little situated
training and often disconnected from classroom theoretical learning manner (Sibert, 2005). The lack of such an activity setting is a problem that Tharpe and Gallimore called the “choke-point of point change” (1988). By ignoring the situated nature of application, education has definitely defeat the purpose of transmitting knowledge and skills into real life. With such, it poses an immense problem to prepare novice teachers for character education. Nonetheless, for the past two decades, educational researchers have been implementing the concept of situated cognitive learning and cognitive apprenticeship approach to prepare novice teachers for the relevant subject areas.

2.6.1 Situated cognitive learning

Situated cognitive learning arises through active involvement in an authentic setting. Due to the high engagement of relevancy, the effectiveness of transferable learning is much better than conventional information-dissemination methods of learning (Brown et al., 1989). Lieberman and Miller (2004) illustrate how each instance converges to demonstrate the tenet of “learning is experiential and collective; it is context-driven and context-sensitive; and it occurs through social participation” (p.33). Their findings show how teachers learn and make connection between teacher learning processes through a community of practice and student learning more explicit. McLaughlin and Talbert (2006) also make the claim that when teachers emphasize on instruction as well as the specific learning outcome that matches with the setting they teach, ‘it translates into enhanced student learning’ (p. 8).

Another central idea to situated learning is the process of enculturation (Brown et al., 1989). This is similar to the idea of a community of practice, where learners “actively communicate about and engage in the skills involved in expertise” (Collins et al., 1991, p.16). Brown et al. (1989) describe the idea of enculturation and learning as follows:
‘Given the chance to observe and practice in situ, the behaviour of members of a culture, people pick up relevant jargon, imitate behaviour, and gradually start to act in accordance with its norms. These cultural practices are often recondite and extremely complex. Nonetheless, given the opportunity to observe and practice them, people adopt them with great success (Brown, et al., 1989, p.34).

New insights have been developed that build on and expand the direction of research on how teachers construct knowledge and understanding about their practice (McLaughlin and Talbert, 2006; Rogoff, 2003; Wong, 1994; Lieberman and Miller, 2004). In support of situated learning, cognitive apprenticeship was presented by Collins, Brown and Newman (1987) when they proposed this apprenticeship model for use in classroom instruction, specifically in reading, writing and mathematics. There are many other professions or field of studies such as law, medicine, architecture, and business have also acknowledged the cognitive content using the apprenticeship approach to transfer the learning (Kriderm, 2011).

2.6.2 Cognitive apprenticeship

Situated learning and cognitive apprenticeship models have been widely used in the field of teacher education (Alger & Kopcha, 2010; Eick, Ware, & William, 2003; Hernadnez-Ramos & Giancarlo, 2004; Lin, Hsu, & Cheng, 2011; Liu, 2005). According to Collins et al., (1991), apprenticeship has been the most natural way to learn since ancient times. Apprenticeship was the main “vehicle for transmitting knowledge required for expert practice in fields” Risko et al. (2007) found stronger impact with “learning and doing” approaches to teacher education that were coupled with guidance by a more-experienced colleague. In essence, it is believed that cognitive apprenticeship with the term ‘cognitive’ would work within a classroom to support the learning of complex tasks and ‘internal mental processes” (Alger & Kopcha, 2010, p.73) for a novice teacher to learn and teach
from the experienced or the expert. According to Brown, Collins and Duguid (1989), the phases of cognitive apprenticeship begins from modelling, explaining, coaching, scaffolding, reflection, articulation and exploration (see Figure 2.5). It is a linear progressive approach. Each of the elements will be explained in separate paragraph below in relation to the past research studies.

**Figure 2.5:** Model of Cognitive Apprenticeship [Brown, Collins & Duguid (1989)]

Groves and Strong (2008) state a person can learn simply through observation or imitation. However, according to Bandura’s (1986) Social Cognitive Theory, learning happens when individuals gain the opportunities to apply what they have observed in the real life setting. There are four processes that govern observational learning. These are attention, retention, behaviour production, and motivation. Each of these contributes to the strength and endurance of a social model’s influence on the learner.

Learners must first attend to the model and decide what information, if any, they will focus on. Then, the learner must also remember the observed events. This retention involves the transfer of what is observed into one’s memory, in the form of symbolic representation.
Next, the learner must transform this knowledge into an appropriate course of action thus considering present abilities and capacities when determining this (Bandura, 1989). The entire process matches with the cognitive apprenticeship components of modelling, articulating and reflecting. The fourth process of this governs observation learning is motivation. The motivation process is dependent upon many factors. An observer learns new information or skills but may not perform what was learned. There are three incentive motivators that help to determine if the learner will indeed perform the newly observed dispositions and practices. These three motivators according to Bandura (1989) combine to form the basic principles for social learning: (a) people are more likely to perform if they believe it will have a rewarding outcome in some way (b) people are more likely to perform the new learned skills and dispositions if they see the model as similar to themselves (c) personal standards will continue to regulate behaviour and performance is based upon whether the new behaviour is deemed self-satisfying by the learner.

Learning to teach is a meaning-making process which mediated by several factors. It includes time, place, and the relationships that exist between teachers and teacher educators. By embodying the stance that good teaching is dependent on knowledge of knowledge where the novice teachers is and an understanding of where they are ready to move next, experts facilitate the learning of novice (Meuwissen, 2005) through explaining.

Coaching is very useful for learner’s growth as feedback and constant dialogue are needed in the coaching process allowing learners to gain awareness and change (Collet, 2009). Coaching is the process when the more experienced teacher or expert teacher constantly gives feedback to the novice teachers during their teaching and learning (Collet, 2012). Feedback is a means by which instructional support is provided and adjusted in the teaching/learning process. Morris describes the support offered by a coach as “the handing down of a craft” (2003). According to Morris, the role of coach is providing feedback and
guidance. Morris considered the impact of discussions between the teacher and mentor, as they reflected together the instructional needs. Further, Morris explains that through these interactions connections between theoretical constructs and pedagogical action were made.

Support provided in situ, as teachers implemented new practices, allowed for conversations about questions and concerns as they arose and encouraged teachers to think about their own practice. Exemplary teachers assisted novice teachers by sharing best practices, offering suggestions to problems or questions, or sharing helpful resources and advice.

A metaphor developed to reflect the principles underlying the ZPD is scaffolding (Bruner, 1975). Scaffolding means the guidance provided by a more experienced or expert person to facilitate the novice in acquiring the skills and knowledge. With such learning, it is crucial that the teacher educator is able to assess the current and potential levels of development for the novice accurately. The support offered by the more experienced or expert person is accommodated in the process of scaffolding until the novice teacher has equipped the skills, thus the expert person can completely withdraw (Hough et.al, 2008). According to Collet (2012), such experience has the potential for producing lasting change among teachers.

As early as 1933, Dewey identified the need for teachers to reflect on their practices in order to act deliberately and intentionally rather than spontaneously and routinely. Shulman (1987) defined reflection as a teacher’s recalling the teaching and learning experience, reconstructing the events, generating alternatives, and considering the ethical implications of the teaching event. Reflecting on practice (own and others) encourages novice teachers to revisit instructional experiences and maximizes the construction of meaning (Matanzo & Harris, 1999; Schon, 1987). Many factors impact the development process. For example, vicarious and enactive experiences, group and dyadic discussions,
and teacher reflection have been found to facilitate development (Costa & Garmston, 2002; Gaffney & Anderson, 1991; Taylor, Pearson, Peterson, & Rodríguez, 2005). Moreover, these practices have increased effectiveness when facilitated by a more experienced colleague (Toll, 2005). As revealed in the studies discussed below, positive change or development occurs when novice teachers and teacher educators both have dialogue and reflected upon the instructions they observed and involved in. Taken together, Amobi’s (2005) and Dechert’s (2007) studies indicate the value of reflection to support teacher change.

Teachers’ participation in verbal discussions is related to their sense of importance of subject under discussion, its direct connection to what they could do with their students, and the support they feel they would receive for making such changes and improvements that are being discussed (Risiko et.al, 2009). In this cognitive apprenticeship context, it is meant articulation. The effective learning environments include ‘opportunities to talk’ Dialogue with others requires a learner to articulate his or her own thinking, formulate a cohesive understanding in order to articulate it to someone else (Duston, 2007). Hence, this can assist novice teachers in processing their learning and making deeper connections to their own prior understandings and experiences as well as connecting to others’ ideas. Dialogue is seen as a tool for bringing teachers together to help one another (Zwart et al, 2009). Further, Richardson and Hamilton found that teachers often change their beliefs prior to changing their practices or interactively with change in practice. Like Rogoff, Matusov, and White (1996) also mention that when teachers discuss and critically consider their own assumptions about teaching and learning, they adapt their teaching in powerful, positive ways. Discussion, then, plays an important role in implementing sustainable change (Zwart et.al, 2009).
All apprentices or novice teachers must be able to deal and resolve the ill-defined problems in an authentic environment. Instead of only learning through textbooks and exams, learners are unlikely to apply in an authentic environment. In addition, novice teachers who engage in a process of observation, reflection and practices repetitively are more likely to transfer their knowledge and skills in various settings as compared to those as a passive learner (Cooper, 2011). The teacher educators need to have a more solid and goal-orientated tasks to assist novice teachers to gradually move toward full participation and independence (Collet, 2012). The presupposition here is that knowledgeable and experienced teachers and the novices would work together in a productive cycle of reciprocity and mutual growth.

2.7 Studies on Gaps under Various Circumstances

We need students of sound character. With such, we need teachers to be the character models in exemplifying certain traits and dispositions so that students can observe, model and in turn acquire them. The teachers’ practices during their classroom teaching, entwine in their positive modelling, brings about the influence they desire in developing their students (Hansen, 2001). It signifies the shift of researcher in the rationale for emphasizing the importance of focusing on the exemplary dispositions and practices of character educator instead putting the emphasis on the character development of students. Instead of focusing on the character development of students. This is supported by Schwartz (2007), if we were to have active citizens of sound character who contribute positively, we must not only have teachers who have sound character, but also identifying what they do how they do and how they do and why they do certain practices in the process of developing students’ character. However, there is not a clear understanding on what
constitutes exemplary dispositions as a character educator. (refer to Table 2.7, p.84 for literature gap). There remains a societal and professional expectation that teachers would know ‘it’, have ‘it’ and model ‘it’ in their practices or dispositions (Schwatz, 2007).

It is noted that teachers play an imperative role in character education, hence their own education becomes extremely vital (Rajput, 2005). Teacher education is criticized by Enkenberg (2001) because the learning process is separated from the critical real-world. The real world required performance is rather difficult to be explained through lecture. This problem may lead to merely transmitting information of instruction but the learners are ill prepared to apply in a practical context. Brown, Collins and Duguid (1989) claims that by neglecting this situated real life learning cognition, education has defeated its purpose of providing robust knowledge that is employable or usable.

Character development is much complex subject matter as compared to mathematics or science because it requires not only skills development but personal growth (Lickona, 2005). Looking at the degree of complexity, yet teachers typically receive almost no pre-service or in-service training to equip them with skills and character development (Milson, 2003, Nucci et.al, 2005). Also, many teacher educators fail to provide an authentic learning avenue for novice teachers (Collin, 2012). It is the moment when teachers need to seize and instil positive values in the actual classroom setting, thus authentic learning to teach environment is essential.

It is unclear if there are certain learning factors that novice teachers are more likely to be an exemplary character educator during the learning to teach process (refer to Table 2.7, p.84 for literature gap). There has been little research to describe the coaching process provided to novice teachers by coaches (exemplary teachers); description of how coaching changes over time is lacking (Collet, 2012). Factors that affect not only novice teachers learn during the process, but how they learn and how much of what they learned are worth
studying. These factors, specifically novice teachers’ perceptions viewed as most beneficial to their learning to teach experiences and the factors that affected their implementation efforts (Jennifer, 2009).

Table 2.7 shows the literature gap and the intention of researcher to fill the gap in this study. This study has been placed within the locus of this divergence. It was the intention of this study to establish codes of exemplary situated teaching in preparing novice teachers for character education as well as to describe the factors that affect ‘learning to teach’ experience of the novice teachers.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Literature Gap</th>
<th>Fill the Gap</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Not knowing the existing situated knowledge in the classroom for character education</td>
<td>Explore the situational knowledge of exemplary teachers in the context of classroom teaching experience for character education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- No clear understanding or agreement of what are the exemplary dispositions and practices in a situated classroom setting for character education</td>
<td>Establish Codes of Exemplary Situated Teaching Dispositions and Practices for Character Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Not knowing the factors that affect ‘learning to teach’ experience from novice teacher for character education</td>
<td>Describe the factors that affect ‘learning to teach’ experience from novice teachers for character education</td>
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</table>

2.8 Past Methodologies

Based upon the studies done with embedded knowledge in professions such as military leadership, management, and medicine, it would appear that the problem solving opportunities afforded individuals in their lived experience far more beneficial than the practical knowledge afforded them from a theoretical or academic perspective when placed in a situation for which decision-making was integral to the success of the work (Patel,
Professions involving high levels of responsibility necessarily require access to embedded knowledge gained through problem solving experiences, a concept affirmed in an array of studies done with various professions (Jennifer, 2009). Vimla Patel and Kaufman (1999), examined embedded knowledge acquired and used by physicians, contrasting that practical skill (clinical reasoning) with the usability of knowledge gain through textual study (biomedical knowledge).

Dawn (2008) examines the knowledge in teaching and learning of higher education teachers through a process of description, analysis and interpretation. By means of interviewing, this research study was designed to record and analyse the knowledge of seven experienced teachers gained through the lived experience of learning in their classroom. In addition, semi-structured interview, direct observation, artefact analysis was utilized to collect data. Several layers of analysis were conducted which involved inductive content analysis, comparative analysis, progression analysis to establishing best practices in the learning to teach process at the higher education level.

The act of reflecting as it has been used to record teacher stories and their emotional states through creative rumination, can be understood as a tool for personal expression and a means of helping teachers articulate states of being (Bolton, 2005; Jalongo & Isenberg, 1995; Karpiak, 2000; Kelleher, 2002; Rowley & Hart, 1993). The approach to this study, recording interviews to draw out what teachers learn about learning in their classroom experiences, is one way of achieving the suggestions made by Jalongo and Isenberg (1995). First, it enables teachers to uncover valuable embedded knowledge drawn from experiences with student learning. Teachers can also determine the value of time invested in documenting their narratives about their learning. This appreciates both their stories and their thoughts on the process.
Dechert’s (2007) study looked closely at the reflective practices of teachers and found that through cognitive apprenticeship by the experience teachers, who played a coaching role. Written reflection facilitates the reflective process which enable teacher to look into their approach of instructional decision making from an objective point of view. Amobi (2005) studied the reflective practices of 31 teachers in a university clinic setting. She found that teachers who were reflective were more likely to self-correct their emerging teaching skills. Their reflection included not only consideration of the recent teaching episode, but also past teaching experiences. This study similar to Roskos et al (2007) points the need of mediation to encourage meaningful reflection that connects present and past experiences.

In the study by Robinson (2008), an examination of the characteristics of teacher expertise in inclusive classrooms was carried. A series of six case studies were presented that provide a focused look at selected teachers, thus examining their characteristics of these expert teachers. The inquiry was aimed at finding out what it was that made them unique. The interview focused on observed interactions with students as well as their reasons for certain practices in class. The result of analysis indicated that these teachers employ variety of instructional strategies, focusing on engaging all students in the learning process. Characteristics of teacher expertise in inclusive classroom are seen as a combination of teacher practices and beliefs.

Situated learning and cognitive apprenticeship models have been widely used in the field of teacher education (Alger & Kopcha, 2010; Eick, Ware, & Williams, 2003; Hernadnez-Ramos & Giancarlo, 2004; Huang, Lubin, & G, 2011; Lin, Hsu, & Cheng, 2011; Liu, 2005). Researchers of situated learning theory emphasize that learning takes place at cognitive levels through the genuine context surrounding the learning experience (Brown, Collins, & Duguid 1989; Lave, 1996). According to Collins, Brown and Holum (1991), ‘a
critical element of fostering learning is to have students carry out tasks and solve problems in an environment that reflects the multiple uses to which their knowledge will be put in the future (p.16).

Many researchers have made a strong case for the use of situated learning methods and cognitive apprenticeship models in teaching and their ability to enhance pre-service teacher education (Alger & Kopcha, 2011). Various studies have been conducted in pre-service teacher education such as mathematics and science (Eick, Ware & Willias, 2003). They used a situated learning co-teaching model on pre-service science teachers. The co-teaching mode allowed for more opportunities for critical reflection on lessons and teaching and also helped pre-service teachers feel more confident with managing a classroom environment (Eick et al., 2003).

Craig (2004) in his research study, title: ‘Transforming knowledge through mentor-supported cognitive apprenticeship learning methods’. The period of data collection was a fifteen-month period employing data collection methods such as interviews, observations of teacher-mentor work sessions, reflective journals, video recordings of teacher-mentor work sessions, and questionnaire survey tools. Data triangulation was done by utilizing different sources about the events and practices.

In addition, Collet (2012) conducted a study title; ‘The Gradual Increase of Responsibility Model: Coaching for Teacher Change’ allows three coaches and all of the 20 new teachers to go through a coaching process for one semester. Data was collected through observations, interviews and examination of artefacts such as e-mail exchanges and teachers’ reflections. Teachers were observed as they were teaching and field notes were taken. A recursive analysis was used to reveal the patterns or trends in coaching practices. These included modelling at the beginning, scaffolding to probe thinking, providing affirmation and allowing novice teachers to explore teaching individually.
2.10 Chapter Summary

The chapter started with the explanation and description of the background and effectiveness on character education, aligning the theoretical approaches to the principles of effective character education as well as the description of general framework of Moral Education in Malaysia. Next, the elucidation of understanding embedded knowledge of exemplary teachers and consolidating the researches on effective teaching. The subsequent section presented the approaches and theories to prepare novice teachers. It was followed by identifying the various gap of literature review. The chapter ended with past methodologies review in relation to the main purpose of this study - establishing exemplary codes and dispositions in preparing novice teachers for character education.

In the literature review, the effectiveness of character education is shown in Table 2.1 (p.32). It is to demonstrate real convincing data to make believe that character education is a good solution to the societal problems as a whole (Battistich 2008; Berkowitz & Bier, 2005; Munoz & Vandehar, 2006; Ann-Marie, 2010; Daniel & John, 2010; Watson, 2006; Corrigan & Shepiro, 2010). Through scrutinizing the literature review, the effective character education implementation lies in the hands of the teachers who take great responsibility as an agent of change. Research has shown continuously that incomplete or inaccurate implementation would lead to ineffective programmes (Battistish, 2008; Eun, 2008; Jeniffer, 2009).

We need teachers to be good model exemplars in exhibiting good character traits and dispositions so that the students will pick them up and acquire them eventually. Also, the practices that the teachers use during their classroom teaching, entwine in their positive modelling, brings about the influence they desire in developing their students (Hansen, 2001).
It is valuable to recognize the situational knowledge and actual practices emerging from exemplary teachers (Robinson, 2008). Having built this experience evidence, exemplary teachers instinctively draw upon it in the way scientists would to form theoretically-based inferences that, when applied under variable conditions, yield similar results (Dawn, 2008) and thus nurturing children to possess sound character. This understanding will be a credible insight into exemplary practices and dispositions for character education. It will be a powerful guideline that builds upon the situational knowledge of exemplary teachers, their successes in the classroom, and the learning that these teachers use to make decisions in their everyday practice of teaching and learning (Nucci et al, 2005). It expands the current instructional literature and character education especially in such situated context.

We need to nurture more quality teachers if we were to implement character education. Hence, it is important to have a sound novice teacher training for character education by understanding the experiences of learning and teaching among the novice teachers with the exemplary standards that the teachers can work towards in order to deliver quality instructional outcome to their students and to create optimal learning environments and nurture sound characters in their classrooms. Russell (1999) reiterated strongly that if changes were to happen in classroom, the change must first happen in teacher education. If the impact of teacher education is uplifted, only then is possible to uplift the impact change in the classroom (Stofflett & Stoddart 1994).

The next chapter will discuss the conceptual and theoretical framework of this study to establish the codes of exemplary situated teaching in preparing novice teachers for character education.