

**THE VOICE OF TEACHERS IN A CHANGING HONG KONG SOCIETY:  
THE STUDY OF THE EFFECTIVENESS OF A SCHOOL GUIDANCE  
PROGRAMME FOR TEACHER DEVELOPMENT**

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## **Statement of Sources**

This thesis contains no material published elsewhere or extracted in whole or in part from a thesis by which I have qualified elsewhere or extracted in whole or in part from a thesis by which I have qualified for or been awarded another degree or diploma.

No other person's work has been used without due acknowledgement in the main text of the thesis.

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All research procedures reported in the thesis received the approval of the relevant Ethics/Safety Committees.

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It has been a learning experience to write this thesis. When I began to explore the possibilities of this journey a year before 1997, the study of the impact of historical change on a culturally mixed Hong Kong society seemed most relevant for teacher educators.

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## **Abstract**

This research study examines the development of a school guidance programme in a teacher education institute in a turbulent Hong Kong environment. The focus of the study is the teachers' awareness of the impact of change, their beliefs in human nature, and the skills gained from the programme in dealing with student guidance issues in their classrooms.

The study describes the political, economic and social changes in Hong Kong society after 1997 and the consequent impact on primary school teachers, educated and brought up in traditional Chinese families now facing student problems in their classrooms that are being addressed using Western humanistic theories and models.

The researcher has used a variety of essentially qualitative strategies. These include: participants' self-reflection; researcher's observation and interviews on campus and in school classrooms; and teaching and learning materials. The effectiveness of the programme is judged to be in the teachers' awareness of the theories imparted, and the relevant skills that they gained, in dealing with these behavioural issues in their classrooms. The study explores how contemporary teachers deliver cognitive knowledge to pupils, but also can learn to play the role of guidance helper to their pupils. Thus, the focus is on affective professional teacher development.

The contribution this research makes to our understanding is in its attempt to relate teachers' values and beliefs to their professional behaviour. It also contributes to an understanding of how Eastern and Western values interact in solving global educational issues. The study enters into the professional reflections of new generation of teachers in Hong Kong's recent period of rapid cultural change.

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## Reference

## **Chapter One**

### **INTRODUCTION**

#### **Purpose of Study**

With the advancement of technology and improvement in the quality of life in the new millennium, people tend to spend more time facing computers and less time for face-to-face communication and so, interpersonal relationships become more complex and distant. People experiencing social isolation are more susceptible to social problems. There are growing global signs of social problems such as hatred among youths and family members (Teachman, 2002; Jackson, 2002; Kwan, 2000; Law, et al., 1995), more school dropouts (Rathman, 2002; Corville-Smith, et al., 1998); gang fights (Cheung, 2001); Lo, 1999); violence (Fox at el., 2002; Wong, 2000) suicide (Harvey, 2002; Lester, 2000; Lau, et al. 1997, Leenarars & Wenckstern, 1991) and teenage pregnancy (Cherry, et al., 2001; Woodward, et al., 2001). Coupled with changing moral and ethical values emphasizing material gain, increased symptoms of anti-social behaviour affect not only out-of-school youths, but also youths and children in secondary and primary schools. Contemporary teachers experience an increase in classroom manifestations of social problems. Some of those problems are disruptive of the learning process in schools. The emergence of developmental guidance and counselling became an integral part of the educational process. It is postulated that teachers' guidance work with pupils could provide a basis for teachers and pupils to develop greater personal and social harmony, and make school life more "satisfying and rewarding" (Myrick, 1997, p. 1).

In response to these rapid changes in society and children's educational needs in schools, the education systems in developed countries have made drastic changes to the learning environment in recent decades (Cheng, Y.C. 1997; Sweeting, 1997; Myrick, 1997). This is particularly the case in Hong Kong. One of the changes felt across the system is that, instead of stressing

students' cognitive development alone, much attention is currently being given to their affective needs which are related to the "values, morals, ethics and other aspects of communal living" (Beane, 1990, p. ix). Teachers, as front line workers in dealing with students' behaviour, know their students and their classrooms better than anyone else (Kottler & Kottler, 2000).

Teachers are expected to be professionals holding the real power to make decisions, taking charge of student learning as well as solving student disciplinary problems. Teachers have consistently expressed their concerns about student disruptive behaviour and school discipline, and student-teacher relationships become the "central issue" of those concerns (Myrick, 1997, p. 48). The main purpose of this research is to examine how teachers develop professional qualities and values enabling them to address the affective needs of children during student-teacher interaction.

This study takes in a group of in-service teachers attending a school guidance module offered by a teacher education institute in Hong Kong. The study focuses on the teachers' values and their beliefs about human nature and about their own professional practice during interactions with pupils, which they exhibited in the module. It explores how participation in the module influenced their beliefs and classroom behaviours and how they reflected during the learning process on their attempts to put theories into practice. The study is an inquiry into participants' values and beliefs in teacher-pupil interaction at key points in their participation in the module. In particular, the study explores the extent to which their behaviours and reflection on their behaviours are congruent with the tenets of humanistic education.

### **Significance and Relevance of Study**

The need to care for the affective needs of students is self-evident and has been promoted by educators from Dewey to Maslow and beyond. There have long been guidance programmes for specific professional helpers, such as counsellors and school guidance officers. However, little attention has been given to the guidance development needs of one important group,

namely, generalist teachers, who have direct daily contact with children in the classroom in the daily routines. The call for meeting the affective needs of teachers is especially obvious in Hong Kong (Tung, 2001). Apparently, most teacher education programmes have spent considerable amount of time on helping students to become experts in their subject contents and management of pedagogical presentation (Kottler & Kottler, 2000). In recent years, guidance and counselling has been introduced as a core subject in the teacher education programmes in most universities in Hong Kong. However, through the researcher's contact with many teachers, some of them still got the impression that guidance and counselling skills were the main tasks for professional counsellors. Nevertheless, studies have shown that the way teachers interact with students could make a significant difference in how well they learned (Flanders, 1970; Purkey & Novak, 1996; Myrick, 1997). Indeed, using different guidance skills can help improve teacher-pupil interaction and facilitate teaching and learning. This research study addressed how teachers employed different guidance skills during classroom interaction after their attendance at a school guidance programme.

A significant contribution of the current study is its contextual relevance in the cross-cultural society of Hong Kong. It offers an opportunity to examine teachers working at the interface of the two dominant cultures of East and West, Chinese and British, socialism and capitalism, and the challenges and opportunities that arise in the design and development of programmes such as the guidance module being investigated.

At this unique period and setting of social change, the data arising from the study gives a voice to teachers reluctant to speak openly. They are participants in the turmoil of a changing political, economic and cultural Hong Kong with mixed values. They are professionally required to participate in changes, wanted and unwanted, impinging on the culture of their own classrooms and teaching strategies. An understanding of the unique features of this changing social dynamic and its overt and covert educational problems suggests why participants are reluctant to share their struggle with "an outsider". The researcher, being a subject lecturer, has encouraged the

teachers to be active agents and to make critical reflections on their teaching and learning. On the one hand, the researcher was an “outsider” knowing little about their daily routines, but on the other hand, she was also an “insider” who could have the opportunity to share with them about the ideology of teaching and learning during classroom discussion and hear their voices and difficulties encountered (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1993, p. vii).

## **Contextual Background**

Hong Kong is an Asian city undergoing widespread change. “Turbulent environments create bewilderment and are characterized by drastic changes” (Chow, 1994, p. 346). Hong Kong can be considered as an example of a “turbulent” society. Politically, 1997 witnessed historical change when the Chinese government resumed sovereignty over Hong Kong after one and a half centuries of British rule. Socially, there have been changes in family structure with closer ties to the Chinese “motherland” and a continuous influx of new immigrants from China. Economically, Hong Kong has been regarded as an affluent society but has experienced the Asian economic crisis. These rapid changes have created a great impact on Hong Kong society and its education system impacting on curriculum development, student learning and teacher development (Morris, 1996; Postiglione, 1996; Sweeting, 1995). These issues will be examined in further detail in the next chapter.

## **The School Guidance Module for In-service Teachers**

Teacher professional development, enabling teachers to reflect the values and meet the needs of society and achieve the goals of education in democracy (Tung, 2001; Day, 1999; N.S.W. Department of Educational and Training, 1998; Eraut, 1994) is one of the foremost and crucial tasks in the broader educational context. Whilst cultivating the minds of learners to be democratic young citizens, teachers were the key instruments in the education process (Kottler & Kottler, 2000; Bruner, 1977). Teachers as role models, set the stage for many aspects of classroom culture (Wiest, 1999, p. 265). In addition to classroom teaching, teachers who perform the guidance

and counseling role in the classroom have to help students solve their problems, organize or implement developmental programs, or make referrals. Teachers also have to manage classroom disciplines in the learning context (Wolfgang & Glickman, 1995). As an active agent, the teacher's role is more developmental, proactive and educational in helping students to develop as a whole person. Since few teachers can escape from their pastoral responsibility in the classroom, guidance and counselling skills have become essential elements of the interpersonal repertoire of teachers, especially those who have to handle discipline, guidance and welfare functions in the schools (Hall & Hall, 1988; Rogers & Freiberg, 1994).

In response to the government white paper on "Primary and Pre-primary Education" issued in 1981, the colleges of education in Hong Kong, in collaboration with the Education Department, has since 1982 offered a teacher professional development programme known as "Primary retraining course for primary school teachers". The course was designed for teachers who have served in Hong Kong primary schools for five or more years and was offered on a full-time block release basis. The subject contents included recent developments in educational theories, reflective teaching and critical analysis of current issues. Completion of this retraining course satisfied one of the criteria for career promotion.

### **Relationship of the Researcher with the Issue**

I, the researcher, am one of the module lecturers involved in the review, design, development and teaching of the in-service guidance programme for different cohorts of primary school teachers since 1996. I was brought up and educated in Hong Kong, a society in which the cultures of East and West mingle. I received my university education and completed my post-graduate studies in Western countries, namely, Canada and Australia. After having taught in primary schools and secondary schools in Hong Kong, I worked as a student counsellor for a decade before joining the teacher education institute to become a lecturer to teach the school guidance programmes including the one under study. With this background, I appreciated the problems that were



arising in the changing society of Hong Kong and the growing demands in addressing the affective needs of children of this generation. I also saw the obstacles to the current education reform movement and the difficulties encountered by the primary and secondary school teachers in attempting to respond to educational change.

Most importantly, I understood the challenges and the clashes embedded in the beliefs and values of the dual traditions Chinese Confucian communal culture and Western democratic and individualistic culture. As I began my field research, the reactions of the teachers being interviewed taught me to be more responsive to myself as an interviewer. One male teacher refused to be recorded in the interview and let it be known that my formal dress and manner appeared to him intimidating. I thus learned another implication of cultural difference and how it affected my ability as ethnographic researcher to gain access to the internal world of my subjects. The participants taught me to reveal my own authenticity, formal dress style as well as my professional role as a teacher. Attempts were made to break the ice with more self-disclosure and change in the quality of the interviewer-interviewee relationship. In gathering their stories as essential data for this study, my own skills as a qualitative researcher and an ethnographic recorder of their voices were sharpened. I am pleased to report that most participant teachers were friendly, cooperative and genuine in sharing with me their views, experience and concerns related to their teaching and working life.

My contextual background and cultural perspectives in both worlds helped me realise that a person's cultural value and belief system determine his/her approach to human interaction, and that a more humanistic approach would ultimately empower human potential. I was also aware that quite a number of teachers today still adopt an authoritative role in their teaching and that this is quite common in traditional Chinese culture. Through a study of the guidance module, I aimed to reach an understanding of the participating teachers' behaviour, the discrepancy arising between beliefs and approaches and the consequent difficulties encountered. The study helped me in the ongoing review of the guidance module and affected improvement in my

teaching of it.

## **Research Questions**

The central issue of the research is to understand how teachers' values and beliefs in teacher-pupil interaction affect their approaches in solving student problems through the school guidance module. Specifically, the research questions are:

- (1) What are the contextual factors and resulting problems influencing the evolution of the guidance module designed to support teacher development in helping children in a changing Hong Kong society from both the researcher's and participants' perspectives?
- (2) How do participating teachers describe the way they relate their beliefs in human values to the approaches they use when interacting with pupils and handling disciplinary problems in the classroom?
- (3) How do participating teachers actually conduct teacher-pupil interactions during school visits and classroom observations of their practice?
- (4) How effective are (a) the guidance programme in effecting teacher development and (b) the researcher's pedagogical skills in the implementation of the programme.

To address the above, the researcher attempted to identify contextual factors in the changing society of Hong Kong, the conflicting values from East and West, the underlying social issues, the resulting student disciplinary problems and the pressure all these exerted on teachers. In responding to educational change and the needs of society, the evolving design of the guidance module under study would help teachers understand and articulate the values and beliefs that affect their classroom practices.

The major research issue was to find out the values and beliefs influencing

teachers' approaches to interaction with pupils and whether teachers could use the alternative approaches discussed in the module. The teachers' voice, their views and practice, and most importantly, the difficulties they encountered were elicited through discussion, questionnaire and class work. Evidence was collected through, classroom observation, of actually "practice" in the school context. This information was sought in order to throw light on the primary concern of effective teacher development – whether it is possible to effect the use of alternative strategies.

The study also investigated the researcher's own pedagogical skills in support of the needs of teachers in the current educational change. Further research could be conducted to investigate whether this school guidance model, focusing on the development of participating teachers and the processes involved in the evolution of the module could be helpful in other Asian or global learning contexts undergoing rapid social change.

### **Conception Formation and Clarification**

In order to facilitate the readers' understanding of the conception formation of this research title and research questions, some key words would be defined and clarified specifically confined to this study. As this research study entitled "The voice of teachers in a changing Hong Kong society: The study of the effectiveness of a school guidance programme for teacher development", the researcher attempted to define the key words of teachers' "voice"; "effectiveness" of the "school guidance" programme; and "teacher development" as below:

#### **(1) The voice of a teacher**

"Voice" is "an expressed wish, choice, opinion, utterance or expression" (Agnes, 1999, p.1601) and it is the opportunity to express "a choice or opinion" (American Heritage Dictionary, 2000). The "voices" of the teachers in this study are their own reflective comments on their attempts to develop these new understandings and skills. While many deeply felt experiences were recorded during the research, using mostly hour-long

taped interviews, the “voices” have been grouped in the reporting. This is an attempt to get beneath the reported descriptions of formal answers and understand more about their inner world of work.

In educational research, “voice” can be articulated in many ways. To name but a few, Winter (1998) interpreted “voice” as a way of expression, and teachers were encouraged to find a voice and think with others as a conception of action research. “Voice studies” can also be related to ethnography and narrative inequalities studies (Hymes, 1996); suicide and the inner voice of the “at risk” (Firestone, 1997); the teaching voice in the voice culture of studying and teaching (Martin & Darnley, 1996; or a case study of class meetings in a primary classroom (Dukes, 2000). It could also be finding the missing voice of the principal in a teacher preparation and development study (Johnson, 2000), or the minority voice in the education reform (Castenell & Tarule, 1997).

In this research study, thus, “teacher’s voices” was elaborated as “the participant teachers’ expressions of their views, ideas or opinions from their own perspectives during teacher-pupil interaction” overtly and covertly especially throughout the research period. Their voices could be heard overtly in the one-hour in-depth interview, classroom discussion, follow-up discussion after teaching observation; or covertly in a self-reflection report.

In changing times, systems face challenges of structure. Personnel can often feel powerless in having their experiences heard. Their voices are either unheard or not expressed. The teachers in this study were given the chance to reflect and express their struggles in oral and written forms to a listener and sympathetic instructor, not an impersonal structured data-gathering instrument. This research showed the power of teacher inquiry and reflection in a meaningful way for teacher development, and congruent to the current education reform (Fox & Fleischer, 2001)

(2) The effectiveness of a school guidance programme

The “effectiveness” of a programme is related to its “desirable outcome or results”. Congruent to this research study, programme “effectiveness” was defined as:

a) The effects of the teaching module in meeting the module objectives through participants’ responses in the 5-session module evaluation (to be described in Chapter Seven under the topic of Module Evaluation and Programme Effectiveness); and

b) The participant teachers’ awareness of the guidance and counselling theories learned and the possibilities of using alternative strategies in practice during teacher-pupil interaction through the participants’ responses and reflections in questionnaire, interview, self-reflection report and follow-up discussion after teaching observation.

(3) School guidance programme

The term “guidance” has been used in a confusing manner because of its imprecise meaning and usage and it has been mixed with the word “counselling” for more than 50 years (Myrick, 1997). “Guidance” is defined as “the process of helping individuals to understand themselves and their world” (Shertzer & Stone, 1981, p. 40). It is perceived as a pervasive force within the school curriculum and teaching process aiming at the maximum development of the human potential. Guidance can also be used as a helping or instructional process. “School guidance” encompasses the services related to personal, social and career development and school adjustment of the students. It is a term used to imply personal assistance to students, teachers, parents and administrators. Thus, there are guidance programmes, guidance activities and guidance services. Many school guidance programmes designed and organized by school counsellors or teachers, are for students (Gybers, 2000; Myrick, 1997; Radd, 1993).

On the other hand, “counselling” is a professional practice by a trained and certified person, with a view to helping an individual develop one’s

potential and make social adjustment. Counselling in school is broadly defined as, “a process of helping students, parents, or teachers learn about themselves; understand how their personal characteristics, make choices to solve current problems while planning strategies for optimal development” (Schmidt, 1996, p. 127).

Instead of relying on general interpretation of information and services, “counselling” focuses more on personal awareness, interest, goals and attitudes of a person (Stone & Bradley, 1994). However, guidance and counselling are often implemented simultaneously. The school guidance theoretical framework would be elaborated further in Chapter Seven.

In this research, the “school guidance” programme was a teacher development programme confined to a group of in-service teachers for teacher development. Basically, the fundamental counselling models and skills were introduced, and the terms of guidance and counselling were inter-changeably used when applying to the classroom and teacher-pupil interaction contexts.

#### (4) Teacher development

Meaningful professional development included teachers’ understanding of the social change, and their awareness of building new knowledge and skills through experiences, reflection and discussion to improve the pedagogical skills in teaching (Fox & Fleischer, 2001). The issues and importance of teacher development have been long debated and not to be discussed in details here (Tung 2001; Day, 1999; Eraut, 1994).

In this research, “teacher development” was confined to the affective role of teacher development and defined as “the teacher’s abilities to develop professional qualities and values through their beliefs in human nature to address to the affective needs of children”.

(5) The concept of a teacher's beliefs

The concept of the "teachers' beliefs" in "human values" and the "approaches" they used when interacting with students in Research Question (2) and how the participating teachers actually "practice" in the classroom in Research Question (3) were "inter-related" and can hardly be defined in isolation.

A teacher's belief in this study is defined as "the teacher's principle, proposition, idea, opinion, conviction, trust of a confidence in a student as a person, or a student's abilities to handle his or her own matters, with the acceptance of certain things as true or real".

In the philosophical debate, the commitment to something involves intellectual assent. Beliefs can be active or passive, a matter of will, or faith or a habit of action. Those norms showed the mental acceptance of the truth, and the actuality of something as a statement. For instance, a teacher may or may not be aware of his or her own beliefs in a student's inner potential, or having such a belief without knowing it or proving it to be correct or not.

Ellis (1973;1994) considered a person's thinking affected one's behaviour, and a teacher's belief often affects his or her classroom behaviour. Through the method of personality change, people had to change their irrational beliefs first. The rational-emotive approach was an advance and practical way to help teachers understand their own beliefs (Weinrach, Ellis, et al., 2001; Dryden, 1995)

In educational research, a person's belief can be studied in various fields, disciplines or contexts, including attribution theory (Hewstone, 1990) social transformation theories (Jackson, 2002), or social-cognitive theories (Dweck & Leggett, 1988). For instance, attribution theory deals with how people believe and explain social behaviour. Hewstone examined the causes of event, the causal attributions or common sense explanation from cognitive processes to collective beliefs. He identified

the fundamental “attribution error” in concepts like “success” and “failure”, “merits” and “blame” based on the beliefs in personal determination of behaviour and the ideology of our society (Hewstone, 1990, p. 212). In connection with attribution theory in social psychology, Forsterling (2001, p.206) contended that the basic assumption of attribution theory suggested that “(1) individuals strive for a realistic understanding of events and (2) that such a realistic understanding leads to functional reactions”. For instance, if a student who fails in a test believes that he has low ability, he or she may withdraw from the study.

Fang (1996) considered that the study of teacher beliefs and practices was related to the connection between teacher behaviour and student achievement for decades and a new line of research has shifted to focus on the study of teachers’ thinking, beliefs, planning and decision-making process. Ross (1995) contended that teachers’ beliefs in their effectiveness consistently predicted desired student outcome. In this research, teachers’ beliefs were referred to their understanding or choices of human values during teacher-pupil interaction.

In connection with teachers’ beliefs, the terms “teachers’ perspectives” meaning teachers’ views, opinion or mental outlook (The American Heritage Dictionary, 2000, p. 1311); “teachers’ opinion” meaning “a belief, a judgement, a prevailing view or conclusion held with confidence but not substantiated by positive knowledge or proof” (p. 1223); or “attitude” meaning “a state of mind, or feeling or disposition “(p. 116) would be used inter-changeably in slightly different circumstances.

#### (6) Human values

“Value” is the worth people give to something that increases their pleasures or resources (Hon, 2000). According to the American Heritage Dictionary (2000, p. 1900), “value” is defined as “a principle, standard or quality considered worthwhile or desirable”. It is the worth, utility or merit in usefulness or importance to the possessor. Value is an ideal accepted by an individual or group, ideas people believe in that



influence them to decide on what is right or wrong and the actions they will take. Values are an individual's deepest and most sincere statement of what life is about, what one "believes, aspires to do, bring about and become" in the education process (Prescott, 1957, p. 412).

Value can be used in many ways. In pastoral care related to this research, people can use value as the "tendency of any living beings to show a preference, in their actions, for one kind of object or objective rather another" (Rogers, 1983, p. 257). The higher values people find are free choices in good situation, or freedom to learn and express. People would feel strong if they are free to choose "the true rather than the false, good rather than evil, beauty rather than ugliness, integration rather than dissociation, joy rather than sorrow, aliveness rather than deadness, uniqueness rather than stereotypy" (Maslow, 1968, p.168).

"Human values" examined in this research studies are the "worth people have that increases their pleasures or resources, or the quality of life considered worthwhile or desirable". The quality of a good teacher and a list of human values such as "caring", "trust", "love" and "respect" were elaborated under the topics of "Humanistic education and human values" and "Teachers' descriptions of a good teacher" in Chapter Seven, and not to be described here.

#### (7) Approaches, behaviour or practices

In this research study, "teachers' approaches" was not a technical term, but rather "methods used by the teachers to solve a problem, or ways that teachers used to deal with or complete a task". In connection with teachers' beliefs in certain human values, the "approaches" teachers used could be: "teacher-student interaction", "teachers' classroom behaviour", "manner or ways teachers behaved", "teaching practice", "teachers' act or process of doing something in the classroom", "teachers' responses to students", or "the action teachers taken", most of which were used inter-changeably.

(8) “Teachers’ beliefs” in “human values” and the “approaches”

In this research study, “teachers’ beliefs” was confined to his or her beliefs in “human values” and the “approaches” adopted based on the western psychologists of Carl Rogers, William Glasser and B. F. Skinners. They were classified as three schools of thoughts (Wolfgang and Glickman, 1995). It was assumed that a teacher’s belief about how children learn was related to his or her approaches during teacher-pupil interaction in the following way:

Firstly, if a teacher believed that a child developed from an inner potential—the human values elaborated by Maslow (1999) and Rogers (1995), the teacher would take a student-centred approach. In this connection, the human value was the inner potential, and the approach was student centred.

Secondly, if a teacher believed a child was affected by both inner potential and the external environment (Glasser, 1969), the teacher would use an interactive approach.

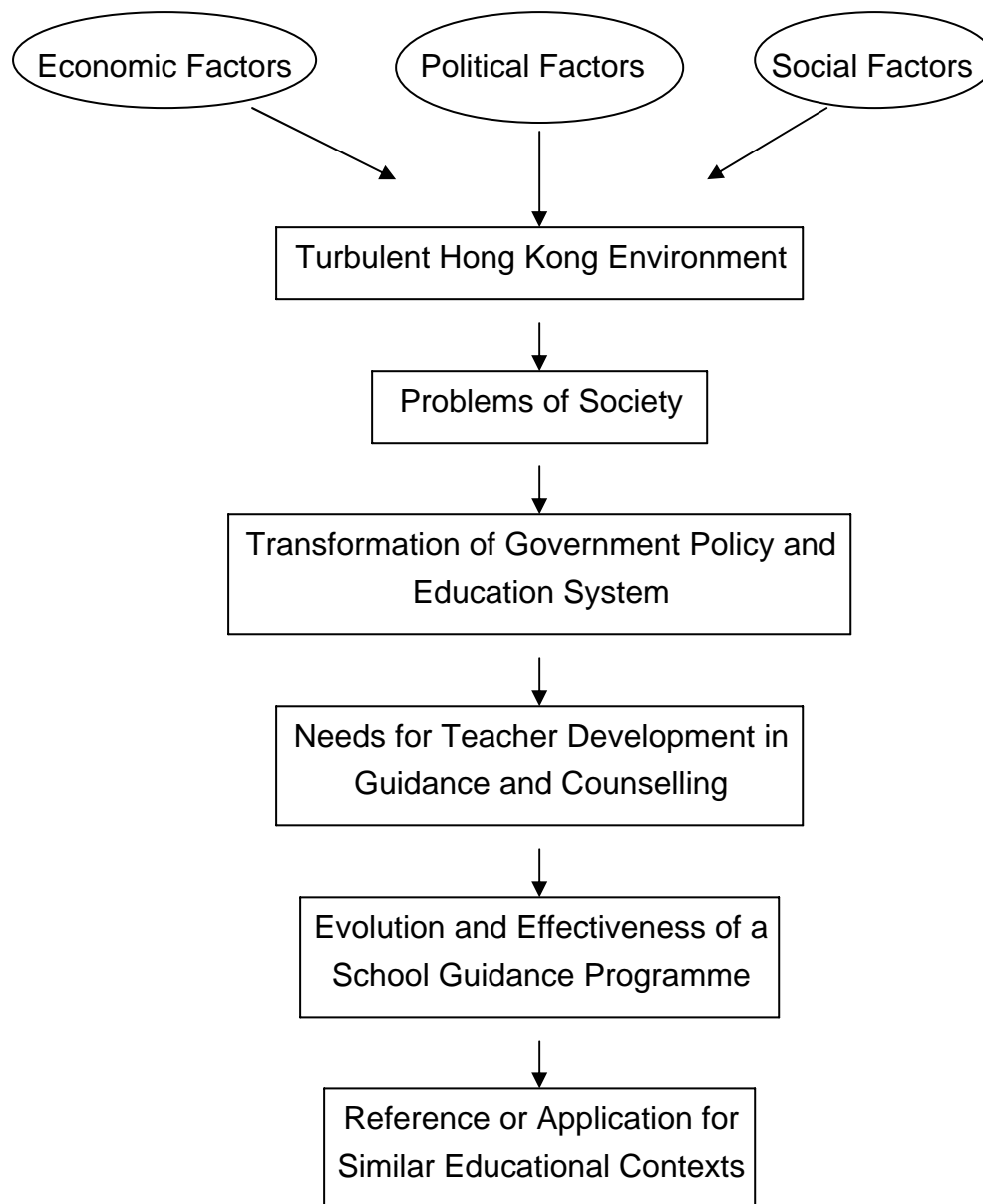
Thirdly, if a teacher believed that a child was under the influence of the external environment and behaviour could be changed (Skinner 1974; Wolpe, 1990), the teacher would use a behavioural approach.

The assumption formed the basis of this research and observation. However, it must be reiterated that teachers formed their “beliefs” or conceptions as “true” statements, proving or without proving them whether they were “right” or “wrong”; knowing or without knowing whether they were there as elaborated in the “belief definition” above. The beliefs and practices could also be “consistent” or “inconsistent” depending on the individual teacher, the student character, the event, and the classroom contexts. Through an in-depth interview, each teacher was asked to describe his or her views about the changing society, his or her own teaching style and the ways he or she interacted with students. Followed by direct questionnaires, class exercises, assessment

assignment, and classroom observations, what the teachers said they believed in human nature of students and how they approached the students were recorded. Classroom observation on their behavioural approach and practice was a triangulated process. This formed the “trustworthiness” of the research study.

## **Conclusion**

To facilitate readers to have a clear conceptual framework of this research design, the researcher has developed the multi-level concept map on the evolution of this intensive qualitative research study in Table 1. It started from understanding the impact of the changing contextual factors in the turbulent Hong Kong environment in the background, to the arising problems of society brought to the classroom in the fore ground; linking the educational reform, or the transformation of the government policy and education system to the responding need of a school guidance programme for teacher development to cope with the changes. The effectiveness of the programme under study depended on the participant teachers’ reflection, or voices on the application of the counselling theories learned in meeting with the affective needs of children. The major research study focussed on understanding a group of participant teachers’ values and beliefs in human nature and their approaches used during classroom and teacher-pupil interaction as affected by the changes.



**Table 1: Development of a School Guidance Programme for Teacher Development in a Turbulent Hong Kong Environment**

(Elaine Y. L. Cheung Tung, 2002)

## **Chapter Two**

### **CHANGING HONG KONG SOCIETY**

#### **Introduction**

The changing Hong Kong society forms the context of this research. The brief historical outline offered here attempts to unravel and reflect upon the very deep forces at work. While all contemporary societies wrestle with their social responses to change in the education system, Hong Kong has come under particular stress because of a unique combination of factors. History demanded that the political and social system reverted to Chinese sovereignty. Culturally, there has always been a mixture of opposites, with dominant Asian and Western values and practices struggling to adapt to one another. This study attempts to relate the contemporary social context to the development of a pastoral programme in which teachers develop skills to deal with the products of this upheaval in their classroom—children under stress. The study will demonstrate how the system and the teachers themselves face difficulties in the implementation of their learned understandings.

#### **The Classroom as a Laboratory and Student Problems**

Teachers have always faced an imperfect audience in their task of teaching and socialising their pupils. All traditions, East and West, have norms of behaviour for the classroom. Forms of discipline, among other cultural practices, vary and both East and West have found it hard to understand each other's criteria for acceptable classroom behaviour. Western and Eastern educators under the influence of their respective cultures seem to have mutually exclusive core values. The question arises as to whether any cultural norms can be found clearly and purely expressed any more in either East or West.

Common classroom problems among primary school children include poor academic performance, failure to hand in assignments, lack of punctuality,

disciplinary and behavioural problems, emotional stress or poor relationship with peers (Apple Daily, 2002, March 5; Hong Kong Teachers, 2001, May 5). In Hong Kong, the Education Department (1990) identified student problems a decade ago. Reed (1989) also researched similar student classroom disciplines in the United States more than ten years ago.

To a wider extent in recent years, these may be linked to more serious social problems and family related issues worldwide, such as suicide (Harvey, 2002), teenage pregnancy (Woodward, Fergusson, and Horwood 2001), school absence and dropout (Rothman, 2002), stealing and robbery (Lo, 1999), drug abuse (Cheung Man Kwong, 2001), and gang violence (Lee, 2000) as well as other criminal behaviour.

Harvey (2002, p. 136) revealed that in the past four decades in the United States, teens and young people ended their lives by suicide at an ever-increasing rate. The family problems, such as divorcing parents, chaos and conflict in the homes, drug use by children, early sexual experimentation were the central factor and roots of the problems. Hong Kong is facing similar problems. Lau, Chan, Lau, and Hui (1997) studied a group of 6,340 primary and secondary students aged 9 to 15 in Hong Kong. Results showed that loneliness and depression were the strongest predictors of suicide.

The desire for materials gains and expansive consumer goods among high school girls was linked to the increase in prostitution in Japan, and likely in Hong Kong (Cherry, Dillion and Rugh, 2001, p. 114). Woodward, Fergusson, and Horwood (2001, p. 1170) found in a study in New Zealand that the risk of any early pregnancy was related to a range of “social background, family, individual, and peer relationship factors” during the period of childhood and adolescence. In Hong Kong, the rapid rising cases of divorce from 5,650 in 1992 to 13,129 in 1998 were alarming figures affecting the livelihood of school children (Chan, 2000; Law et al., 1995).

Wong (2000) in his study of the juvenile crime trend and responses to juvenile

delinquency in Hong Kong since the 1970s found that Hong Kong has a relatively low crime rate, when compared with Japan and the United States. A campus violence happened in October 2002 at the Monash University in Melbourne of Australia involving a gun shooting killing two students from Hong Kong was a sad news (Apple Daily, 2002, October 23). In Hong Kong, more illegal organizations or “triad societies” have extended their influence in schools (Apple Daily, 2001, September 23). It was reported that the Hong Kong police had smashed a triad gang and arrested twenty-five people, including boys from three schools in East Kowloon for drug trafficking (South China Morning Post, 2001, March 10). This is perceived to be the tip of the iceberg in the manifestation of youth problems that are likely to bring to the classroom in the turbulent society of Hong Kong.

According to a report from the Education Department (1990) mentioned earlier with an annual survey of unruly and delinquent behaviour of pupils in secondary schools, there were about 212,000 incidents of unruly behaviour in the school year of 1989-1990. The most common categories of unruly behaviour were a) habitual failure to hand in assignments, bring textbooks or stationery (35% of incidents); b) habitual lateness (16%); c) disciplinary offences to attract attention and d) insolent or rebellious behaviour (10%). Although the survey was conducted in secondary schools, these categories are quite similar in primary schools. A recent student discipline survey report of 236 people from 188 schools revealed by an education group in March 2001 indicated that student disciplinary behaviour included a series of problems, namely: a) having no intention to learn (87.7%); b) failure to listen to teachers' instructions (66.9%); c) bullying other pupils (54.7%); d) violent behaviour (18.2%); e) vandalism of public property (11.4%) and f) gang misconduct (10.6%) (Apple Daily, 2001 March 5).

Children's behaviour often relates to moral and ethical issues and is a matter of personal choice and value judgment that can be addressed in school by teachers. Other than a remedial approach where the school guidance officer or social worker takes charge, it is necessary to have preventative and developmental activities for pupils, positive teacher-pupil interaction, and

more importantly a school guidance programme for teachers as the key instrument and change agent. The researcher as a module lecturer in the classroom is also a tool to facilitate change. The classroom thus becomes a laboratory for change and adjustment.

## **Teacher Stress**

Teachers in the process of social changes in Hong Kong today are severely under stress (PTU News, 2001, September 20). According to the Hong Kong Professional Teachers' Union (HKTPU) Survey, 70% of the respondent teachers, or 2779 teachers from 715 primary and secondary schools being surveyed found that work pressure was great, and 30% of them have worked over 12 hours per day. Approximately 80% found that the pressure came from the every changing education policy and the heavy teaching load.

The impacts of "educational change" and teaching on teachers, linked to work-related stress and its effective management, coupled with the economic crisis and employment uncertainty, are the subject of debate and discussion, particularly in the agenda of many primary secondary schools (Brown, Ralph & Brember, 2002; Troman, 2000; Woods, et al. 1997).

Studies on teacher stress showed in many western and Asian countries, like Australia and the United Kingdom; Singapore and Hong Kong, that teaching has been identified as one of the most stressful occupations (Kendal, O'neil & Murphy, 2001; Troman, 2000; Chan; Lai; Ko & Boey, 2000; PTU News, 2001, September 20). Teacher stress were related to teachers' workload, pupil misbehaviour, lack of resources, poor professional relationships with colleagues, inadequate salary, difficult communication with parents and expectation of other staff (Thody, Gray, Bowden & Welch, 2000; Vanderberghe & Huberman, 1999; Griffith, et al., 1999).

Recent research on teacher stress (Kendall, et al. 2001; Troman, 2000) has advanced from the studies of individual, the job to the complex interactions between the teachers, the workplaces and the economic and social contexts.



Researchers found that social support at work and the coping responses predicted job stress (Griffith, et al., 1999). Understanding teacher stress and supporting teachers in the workplace for more job satisfaction and teacher development can bring about a less stressful and more positive outlook for the teaching profession in the era of quality education (Cosgrove, 2000; Daniels, Creese & Norwich, 1999; Huberman & Vanderberghe, 1999; Travers & Cooper, 1998; Rogers, 1992).

In Hong Kong, policy makers in coping with change are calling for a whole school approach that draws the support of all parties concerned (Gybers, 2000). Teachers' primary tasks are still classroom management and completion of the syllabuses for examinations. Large class sizes, heavy teaching loads, never ending extra-curricular activities for pupils, preparation for the ever-changing curriculum, coupled with recent language and information technology competence tests and the drastic education reforms, have exerted significant pressure on almost all teachers.

Unruly pupils calling for more attention to their affective needs give additional pressure to the teachers who necessitate new skills. There is evidence to indicate that pressure to "improve" has been adding to teacher stress. Competency tests in English, Information Technology and Putonghua, the Chinese official national language, imposed on teachers have added to the pressure. As one teacher wrote to the editor of the South China Morning Post (2001, March 10) "Don't dictate to teachers how they should improve":

As a teacher, I am disappointed at the...recent reform measures. Firstly, the launch of the Quality Education Fund (QEF) has been described as creating room for teachers. How can the QEF relieve teachers who already have a tight schedule of classes and heavy administrative work?... Secondly, the introduction of benchmark tests for language teachers has imposed further pressure and damaged the image of teachers. The best cure is to reduce class sizes so that teachers can have more direct contact with students, and room to improve themselves. Teachers should be encouraged and supported rather than dictated to and directed.

My own experience recognises this unheard plea for reduction in class sizes as one that has stressed teachers for decades (Ip, 2002). Although the official class size is 35 students, it is still common to have oversized classes.

In one of my observation visits in one popular primary school in the New Territories, I found most classes had over 40 students. Such large numbers of pupils pose a challenge to the teacher commitment and create additional stress.

### **Changing Contexts in Hong Kong**

Whilst the classroom is viewed as a microcosm of the wider environment, a more macrocosmic analysis is required in order to help educators gain more understanding of the visible and invisible origins of the resulting classroom scenario. Problem classroom behaviour does not occur as a single incident, in particular in the Hong Kong context. Winter (1995, p. 53) viewed it as an "outcome of a complex set of factors operating at different levels". For instance, there are societal factors such as crowded housing conditions. There are also economic factors such as both parents having to go out to work to support the family, giving little care and attention to their children. The environmental pollution factor leads to poor health among the children. The curriculum may fail to stimulate the children and this can also account for unruly behaviour (Education Department, 1990). These social changes highlight the need for the development of a school guidance programme for teachers as a proactive approach to help the children grow and adjust in society.

The setting for the current inquiry and the context of the problems being addressed lies in the Hong Kong context. It is therefore necessary to describe this background in respect of its physical, historical, political, economic, social and cultural contexts (Stake, 1994) as well as the complex levels of classroom problems (Winter, 1995) and external forces of change (Sweeting, 1995) affecting the education system.

### **Physical Structure: Setting the Scene**

"Change is endemic to modern Hong Kong" and the characteristic of Hong Kong has been "adaptability and readiness to change with the times"

(Sweeting, 1995, p. 233). In the discourse of historical and political changes in Hong Kong, Sweeting and Postiglione have critically examined education and society, educational policy, social change and development during the transition period (Postiglione, 1996). Youth and children, teachers and pupils have to adapt to a culture of rapid change and problems were often created by this rapid change brought about by urbanization and “future shock”, such as facing political uncertainty and the search of national identity, changing employment patterns and family structures, rapid increase of unemployment rate, the fluctuation of land and housing costs, and the Asian and global economic crisis.

Geographically, Hong Kong is located in the south of China. Hong Kong has few natural resources and could hardly be self-sufficient depending heavily on China as a feeder area. However, Hong Kong is a safe haven and business centre for the East and the West. Hong Kong has seen rapid growth of trade and industry a century of industrialization, urbanization and modernization, and has created tremendous stress among its youth. Hong Kong is an international city, yet the vast majority or over 95% of its population is Chinese (Information Services Department, 1999), with only 1.1% or around 80,000 of local residents originating from U.S.A., Canada and U.K. Language usage in a bilingual society using English as a medium of communication in an international city, or using Chinese as a mother tongue for ease of expression, has always been a subject of debate. The need to meet the language demands of an international city poses additional pressure on pupils. Children are growing up in a utilitarian, materialistic and competitive world that emphasizes monetary gains and quick returns. In this context, children can easily be at risk and need guidance support from teachers.

Hong Kong has seen rapid population growth and is now one of the most densely populated parts of the world with an area of 1095 square kilometres accommodating about 7 million people. There was a rapid and massive expansion of primary education in the 1950s and 1960s including the development of “bi-session” schools—a. m. schools and p. m. schools in the same premises to cope with the demand. Now, a considerable number of

these schools are reverting to whole day mode of operation. Currently, with increased intake of students in tertiary education, the government has promoted life long learning, adult education, and supported the need for the working population, including teachers, to continue to learn in this changing context.

In a study conducted in Kwun Tong (Lu et al., 1995), Lu found that many students considered over-crowding a major source of stress, coupled with other study and family problems. "Inadequate housing may hinder students' attempts to study at home and interfere with their progress in school" (Winter, 1995, pp. 53-54). A recent example was that of a thirteen-year old girl who committed suicide by jumping from the staircase of the nineteenth floor of a housing estate in February 2001 where she and other teenagers used to play owing to lack of space at home and other family problems (Apple Daily, 2001 February 22).

### **Historical Setting and Political Change**

Historically, Hong Kong experienced an era of colonization in the past century that ended with the 1997 handover. According to the 1842 Treaty of Nanking and the 1898 Convention of Beijing, China ceded the island of Hong Kong together with Kowloon, and the New Territories to the north of the Kowloon peninsula, to Britain for a period of ninety-nine years. "The 1997 issue" was the people's major concern when the Chinese government resumed sovereignty over Hong Kong, a change from democratic to authoritarian rule. As Frank Ching in the Far Eastern Economic Review (1997 pp.1-2) wrote:

For one thing, it marks the beginning of the end of European colonial rule, not only in China, but in Asia...How China handles [it] will be fraught with significance, not only for the people of Hong Kong, but for the 1.3 billion people in China, as well as internationally. China's initial decision, made in the early 1980s, was to leave Hong Kong basically unchanged for 50 years.

Politically, the past Chinese leader Mr. Deng Xiao-ping first formulated the concept of "one country two systems" for Hong Kong under which the "prosperity and stability" of Hong Kong would remain unchanged for fifty years.

Both the capitalist and the socialist systems exerted influence in the formation of the new government in the Special Administrative Region (SAR) under the leadership of the Chief Executive Tung Chee-hwa (Tung, 1997).

Political and civic education was enhanced during the transition period. There were minor revisions in some school textbooks and the singing of national songs was more evident, but a mass scale patriotic socialization was not envisaged. Civic education was taught across all subjects in the curriculum to promote “good citizenship” (Morris, 1996). The issues of national identity and understanding more about China were introduced in the civic education curriculum in schools after 1997. According to the 1996 Civic Education Guidelines, the topic of National Community was included, in the hope that teachers could systematically implement nationalistic education in their classrooms. Ng (2000) examined the impact of promoting nationalistic education on 112 primary school teachers who were attending an in-service Bachelor Degree programme. He found that a lot of them had not read the guidelines and “more than 50% of them lacked knowledge of the political dimensions of their motherland” (p.48). Although issues of national identity and understanding more about China were introduced in the civic education curriculum after 1997, Morris and Chan (1997, p. 262) considered that Hong Kong education, in the three cases they investigated (civic education, social studies and liberal studies) followed a depoliticised, decontextualised and abstract academic curriculum where changes were only symbolic. Nevertheless, the Government set up the Committee on the Promotion of Civic Education in 1986 to promote civic awareness. The Education Department has consequently organized civic education classes for school principals and teachers to boost patriotism, with lessons offered from time to time on China and the Chinese political system, geography, civic rights and international relation.

### **Legal Perspective, Academic Freedom and Educational Autonomy**

When the red flag with five yellow stars of the People's Republic of China was hoisted in Hong Kong to replace the Union Jack, it symbolized the actual

political transition. Since 1997, the one country two systems policy has been challenged on a number of occasions. The Basic Law had been set up to regulate the system. However, under the SAR legal system, the Secretary for Justice Elise Leung Oi-sie had to seek reinterpretation of the Basic Law regarding the right of abode problems. The Falun Gong movement caused concerns about religious freedom in Hong Kong. Under Chinese control, Hong Kong people have begun to express serious concerns about loss of political freedom, open and fair elections, freedom of expression (including public demonstration), freedom of the press and academic freedom.

Perceived threats to preserving academic freedom in Hong Kong were first revealed in the “Robert Chung Affair” in July 2000. Here the suggestion of government interference in academic freedom resulted in the resignation of the Vice Chancellor, Professor Cheng Yiu-chung, and the Pro-Vice Chancellor, Professor Wong Siu-lun, of the University of Hong Kong. By and large, however, the culture of obedience and pleasing the senior members in family, school and organization (including political leaders) is still dominant in Hong Kong. As Petersen (2000, p. 175-176) commented:

The simple and inescapable truth is that Hong Kong is now a part of a country that does not generally allow criticism of the government. Although the Basic Law promises that Hong Kong will enjoy that freedom, it would be naive to assume that any law will be sufficient on its own.

Fortunately, educational autonomy granted under the Basic Law for the Hong Kong Special Administrative Region has remained unchanged for the past four years. The Article 136 of the Basic Law spells out that:

On the basis of the previous education system, the Government of the Hong Kong Special Administrative Region shall, on its own, formulate policies on the development and improvement of education, including policies regarding the education system and its administration, the language of instruction, the allocation of funds, the examination system, the system of academic awards and the recognition of educational qualifications.

## **Economic Change and Crisis**

Hong Kong's rapid economic achievement has attracted the curiosity and

admiration of Western countries in the past century. The economic success of Hong Kong in the post-industrial period is attributed to the combination of western managerial ability and Chinese entrepreneurial effort. Modernization is another word for economic development, industrialization, westernisation and also urbanization (Lee, 1991). This is particularly the case in Hong Kong where youths have experienced tremendous stress during the period of change. Basically, Hong Kong, like the other four “Asian dragon” countries, Japan, South Korea, Taiwan and Singapore, has gone through the process of modernization. With the improved economy, there has come expansion in education. There are over 800 government and aided primary schools, mostly operated on a half-day basis, where schooling is free. The government intends to enable 60% of these schools to become whole day schools by 2003 and virtually it is planned that all children could enjoy whole day schooling by 2008 (Information Services Department, 1999).

Even during the worldwide recession, Hong Kong has been able to maintain an average annual growth rate of 10% of GDP in the last two decades. However, 1998 was one of the toughest years in decades for the Asian region and also many other parts of the world. With the decline of the stock market and the collapse of the property market, the unemployment rate has risen from 2.3% in 1994, 3.5% in 1995, 2.6% in 1996, 2.2% in 1997, 5% in 1998, 6.1% in 1999, 4.4% in 2000, 5.3 % in 2001, according to the “Hong Kong”—the Government annual reports (1994-2001) (all figures were quoted in the third quarter except the one in 2000). Unemployment rate jumped to a record high of 7.8% in the second quarter of 2002, but slightly declined to 7.4% in the third quarter the year. Some participant teachers found that rapid changes had greatly affected the livelihood of students in schools and more of them have applied for government or textbook allowances. On the other hand, wealthy families can continue to send their children to exclusive schools with high tuition fees.

### **Impact of Change on Education**

With the implementation of free and compulsory nine-year education, the

British tradition of elite education and the Chinese tradition of examination-oriented selection for advanced study or employment positions (Postiglione, 1996) both persist. The education system has been dominated by public examinations and academic achievement; and educational assessment is “to select” rather than “to educate” students (Biggs, 1995, p. 168). This exerts great pressure on pupils who have to excel through specified syllabuses and examinations. Although there has been a radical change with abolition of the aptitude tests as a hurdle for primary school students to enter secondary schools, reform of the examination system at the secondary school level is still distant.

As Morris (1996, p. 121) has pointed out, the root of the problems lies in the examination system:

Both the CDC (Curriculum Development committee) and HKEA (Hong Kong Examination Authority) produced syllabuses.... The high economic returns for educational qualifications in Hong Kong put schools and teachers under substantial pressure to obtain good examination results.... Examination syllabuses and approved textbooks are the primary determinants of the content of school subjects and teaching materials.

English is still the major medium of instruction through Hong Kong's historical legacy. During the colonial period, a Euro-centric academic curriculum dominated in schools, paying no attention to national sentiments and overlooking the mother tongue. Bray (1996, p. 85) pointed out that most people thought that English medium improved pupils' career prospect. Pressure of study or motivation to learn was aggravated by the use of English as a medium of instruction for those students whose English proficiency was not up to it. After 1997, Chinese, instead of English, was made the first and official language. In 1998 one hundred and fourteen secondary schools out of four hundred were allowed to continue to use English as the first medium of instruction. This was seen as a form of neo-colonialism, to maintain the British system to prepare an elite class in Hong Kong. This divisive policy has been slipping recently and it is interesting to note that, in 2001, around three hundred Chinese secondary schools were allowed to choose English as the first medium of instruction for some classes in Form Three and Four and two hundred others indicated their interest to doing so. In some



circumstances, students are neither good at English, nor Chinese and the language policy seems to be a ship sailing without a captain and leading children to nowhere.

A further pressure on language teachers is particular in the requirement to sit for language benchmark competence tests in order to improve language teaching. Even the expatriate teachers found the first English benchmark test difficult as published in the media in 2001 (Cheung, G., 2001). The Professional Teachers' Union launched several street demonstrations to protest such policies and tried to promote a boycott. The new Chairperson of the Education Commission, Dr. Rosanna Wong has attempted to negotiate with all parties concerned about the issue and the possibilities of studies in higher educational institutions.

The increasing pressure to learn Putonghua, the Chinese national language, and sit for the Putonghua competence test for teachers who teach Putonghua in classroom intensifies teachers' stress. Some schools have promoted Putonghua as the medium of instruction for Chinese language teaching, but there is a shortage of Chinese language teachers competent in Putonghua. Thus, the introduction of Putonghua in recent years created additional pressure to both pupils and teachers.

Another source of stress for teachers comes from information technology. The government's aspiration to establish Hong Kong as an advanced financial and international city necessitates the introduction of information technology even in primary schools. This is another hurdle for both children and teachers to pass. More and more teachers are able to use technology in their classroom teaching. Teachers again have to sit for computing competence tests if they are to teach computer subjects. However, recently the Alliance of Childhood (2000) formed mainly by a group of American educators pointed out in a "Statement released on September 12, 2000" that the application of IT and use of computers among young children would do more harm than good. They insisted that there were potential physical, emotional, social and intellectual hazards when children were prevented from

outdoor and experimental activities. In the current education reform, most teachers have little choice but to face these competency tests in languages and information technology, but they provide added pressure to teachers, in addition to solving teaching and student disciplinary problems in their daily work.

### **Social Change and Changing Family Structure**

To meet the needs posed by rapid population growth, the government has provided more resources in housing, medical care and schooling. However industrialisation, modernisation and urban development, have brought changes in family structure. It is common to see children in class coming from single-parent families, dual working families, families which have seen divorce and remarriage, families headed by grandparents, aunts, uncles or other relatives and homes for “latchkey children”. Rapid social changes have created many family and relationship problems. Working parents rely heavily on Filipino domestic helpers to take care of their children. The largest group of foreign passport-holders in Hong Kong, 136,100 or around 2% comes from the Philippines (Statistics from Information Services Department, 1999). These are the Filipino domestic helpers who support Hong Kong’s working families.

Another variant Hong Kong family structure is the “Astronaut” family where one parent migrates to an overseas country and the other one is still in Hong Kong. Common among such Chinese families is the scenario where the father is the Hong Kong resident who while doing business in China, lives with another woman or “mistress”. The prevalence of extra-marital cross border affairs have caused many unfortunate events and broken families. There are also separated families, where usually the father is Hong Kong resident and mother is a Chinese citizen living in China. Their children usually lack support from both parents who may be struggling to have the family united in Hong Kong.

It is envisaged that the influx of new arrivals from China will bring new needs

for language training. Schools were awarded large sums of money for admitting migrant children under a package of measures. According to the Government Budget, twelve secondary and six primary schools would be built after 1997, most of which would be designed to meet the demands posted by new immigrants from China. Schools would receive extra funding per new migrant student—HK\$ 2,000 for a primary student and HK\$ 3,000 for a secondary student. The money would go to some special programmes, such as English language courses for the immigrants so that they could adapt more easily in society. Some of the children live in China and owing to economic and visa status demands, must travel across the border daily to Hong Kong for their schooling.

### **Cultural Context: A Cross-cultural Perspective**

With the change of regime, the new government attempted to cultivate a sense of identity and belonging in the community or functional constituency. Political, civic, language and cultural education was enhanced to some extent. Since 1 July 1997, the Chinese national flag, badge, logo and photograph of the significant figure replaced the British ones as the symbols of sovereignty.

Troops of the Chinese People's Liberation Army were stationed in Hong Kong. To raise students' political awareness and alleviate some psychological barriers during the transition period, some schools helped students understand more about the political and education systems in China. Pupils were expected to know the late Party Chairman Mao Zedong and to be able to draw the flag of China. However, research studies indicated that they preferred to be "Hongkongese" rather than Chinese owing to threat of the loss of national identity and the general lack of confidence in China, which had been common to a prolonged period of time. As Postiglione (1996 p. 30) stated:

Hong Kong Chinese society differs from traditional and modern Chinese society in a number of ways: its high degree of modernization, industrialization, and urbanization; its dominance by market forces; the erosion of tradition; the adapted changes in family and other primary and quasi-primary structures; the lack of a moralizing elite; and the

dominance of an economic elite. Furthermore, the values embodied in the Hong Kong Chinese elites differ from their counterparts in China.

Thus, Hong Kong students experienced an identity crisis arising from strains between cultural tradition and modern education. The Chinese cultural heritage called for a national cultural identity while the Western cultural tradition in Hong Kong engendered a “non-identity” since the real ties to the West have never been substantiated.

### **Cultural Values and Learning**

The study of Hong Kong is unique because it challenges established wisdom for “good learning” in Western countries. According to Biggs (1996, p.45):

Good learning involves the use of deep approaches to learning, by which students engage in appropriate tasks; they use abstract frameworks for conceptualising the tasks and for illuminating the data, they are meta-cognitive in planning ahead and in monitoring their own progress, they achieve well structured and integrated outcomes, and they actually enjoy the learning process.

Furthermore, an environment for good learning including varied teaching methods, meaningful content and context, small classes, warm and non-threatening classroom climate and high cognitive level assessment is rare in the classrooms in South East Asian countries including Hong Kong. These countries are known as “Confucian-heritage cultures (CHC)” and include China, Taiwan, Singapore, Hong Kong Japan, and Korea. Biggs (1996, p.45) recorded a remark from a dentistry student that “students from Malaysia, Singapore, Hong Kong appear to be much more inclined to rote learning” and such an approach would not help problem solving. Nevertheless, as Asian cultures attribute success to effort and failure to lack of effort, Hong Kong students will generally work hard and study irrespective of the learning environment, teaching content and context.

Social changes are interwoven with the demographic, economic and political changes in the post-war period in Hong Kong (Sweeting, 1995). Gybers (1994) described how society’s changes led to changes in children, their

schooling and their behaviour. He argued for the construction of a comprehensive school programme at the middle level. This could be connected to the central mission of the school to achieve the outcomes of high achievement, good citizenship and strong self-concept based on attainment and productive behaviour. Gibson et al. (1993) called for attention to counselling in the primary school and argued for a comprehensive approach as a way of helping children cope with changes. Luk (2001) promoted the inclusion of personal and social education in the primary and secondary curricula. A policy document released ten years ago by the Education Commission Report No. 4 (1990) suggested that it was necessary to modify curriculum areas like civic education and sex education in schools according to the needs and interest of children.

### **Change of Educational Aims in Hong Kong in the New Century**

In the past century, the educational objectives of Hong Kong changed radically since 1990s, taking into consideration of the political, economical, social and cultural factors (Lee, 1991). The early objectives included the training of priests and interpreters, helping problem children, protecting girls from being kidnapped and serving the country of China. By 1971, according to the document of the Education Department, World Survey of Education, education should fulfil the functions of culture transmission and skill training to ensure economic viability. In the 1973 Green Paper, Report of the Board of Education on the Proposed Expansion of Secondary School Education in Hong Kong, it was explicitly described that (cited in Lee, 1991, p.59-60):

In our view, public education has these traditional areas of responsibility: to the individual, to his society and to the cultural heritage of people... Inherent therefore in our overall aim of education is the efficient development of intellectual, vocational and inter-personal skills relevant to the individual as he takes his place in Hong Kong.

The Board of Education has developed from the traditional responsibility of education to the three-fold educational objective, namely, the development of

intellectual, vocational and inter-personal skills. The Report of Llewellyn (1982) also reflected this trend that, "Education in Hong Kong was predominantly a highly utilitarian means to economic and vocational ends". At first, the education objectives brought in the training of future leaders and offering alternatives to the manufacturing workforce. Nevertheless, the emphasis on human values concerning personal and social, moral and civic education began to emerge in the three major "aims of education" documents in 1993, 1997, and 2000 respectively. Some of the core values related to humanistic education will be discussed in the following chapters.

## **Conclusion**

To conclude, the contextual background of Hong Kong outlined above, including the physical, historical, political, economic, social and cultural factors and their implications on local education policy and development, provides an essential foundation for an understanding of the problems and stress that the teachers are facing. Since Hong Kong is a culturally mixed society, it is necessary to understand more about the philosophy of education in the Western paradigm, mingled with the cultural values and influence of the Confucianism in the Eastern paradigm that may affect a teacher's values and beliefs when handling student problems in the classroom. This will be discussed in the following chapter.

## **Chapter Three**

### **THEORETICAL FRAMEWORKS AND LITERATURE SOURCE**

#### **The Use of Literature**

The description of the theoretical framework is formulated through the context of the relevant literature and the details have been in the appropriate sections and chapters of this research report. The search for documentary data commenced with ERIC and PSYINFORM in Hong Kong and Australian university libraries. Close reference was also made to government policy reports, educational guidelines, journal articles, books and local daily newspapers. Documents are mainly divided into three categories, namely: historical, educational policy, and school guidance theories. Teachers' voices and experience gathered from interview data formed the major source of data, and the researcher's views and personal experience contributed further to the contexts for the study.

The introductory chapter related global social issues to family and youth problems, violence, suicide and school dropouts through the work of the authors in Hong Kong (Cheung, 2001; Law, et al. 1995; and Lau, et al. 1997) and abroad (Teachman, 2002; Jackson, 2002; Rathman, 2002; and Corville-Smith, et al. 1998). Responding to the needs of children, Myrick (1997), among many other counter parts, gives a practical approach to developmental guidance and counselling in schools, and Kottler and Kottler (2000) directly imparts the counselling skills for teachers. Beane (1990) stresses the importance of affective education including values and needs in the classroom. This is the key to the central questions in this study.

In Chapter Two, the literature throws more lights on the student problems (Lo, 1999; Cheung, 2001) leading to stress of teachers (PTU News and survey results released on 2001 September 20) in the Hong Kong school setting. The use of media reports, such as South China Morning Post and Apple Daily is to grasp the latest daily incidents. References have also been made to the

government survey reports including Education Commission Reports, “Hong Kong” Government annual reports and the Hong Kong Professional Teachers’ Union reports. The historical documents bring to life the times in which educational practices and values are being challenged, and heightening teacher stress. Recent research on teacher stress also includes the work of Kendall, et al. (2001), Troman (2000), Griffith, et al., (1999) and Wood, et al. (1997).

To understand the contextual background of the changing Hong Kong society related to her physical, historical, political, economical and social changes, the work of Postiglione (1996) and Sweeting (1995) have been examined in details as the focus of study in Chapter Two. The impact of these changes on education in this cultural mixed society leads to the Government’s change of “educational aims” including taking care of the affective needs of children, and it becomes the background study of this research work.

In Chapter Three, the mixing of the cultural opposites of the East and West described the heritage of modern Hong Kong is in the work of Plato (elaborated by Kelly, 1987) and Dewey (1993) as well as Confucius (Chai & Chai, 1973; Smith, 1973; and Cheng, 1993). The work of Maslow (1999) and Rogers (1995) on humanistic education becomes the main theme of this study as the design of the teaching module on school guidance follows the western theorists’ thoughts. Contemporary educators, such as Sadker and Sadker (2000) have elaborated the practice of education under the influence of different schools of thoughts from behaviourism, essentialism, perennialism, progressivism, existentialism and humanism that co-exist in modern classrooms. To elaborate the influence of Confucius, particularly the deep structure of Confucianism and the balance between individual and the social system, the recent work of the Taiwanese practitioner Professor Kwang-Kuo Hwang has been included (Hwang, 2001). The core values involved in humanistic education in textbooks and the “aims of education” in Hong Kong have also been discussed. The impact of the philosophical and theoretical contexts of education and major schools of thoughts in the East and West will be elaborated in details in the second part of this chapter.



In the research methodology chapter, the researcher examines the features of qualitative and quantitative methodologies (Bogdan & Biklen, 1998; Stake, 1994; Denzin & Lincoln, 1994) and describes how the methods which are ultimately chosen to understand the teachers' beliefs in their responses to student problems. With reference to the ethnographic inquiry through the work of Garfinkel (Dobbert, 1982; Hammersley, 1990); action research (Elliot, 1991; Noffke and Stevenson, 1995; Winter, 1998); and grounded theory (Glaser and Strauss, 1967), the researcher has finally used survey study, in-depth interviews and classroom observations to answer the research questions.

The bases of understanding and interpreting teachers' beliefs are generated essentially from the writing of three education philosophers: Carl Rogers' Client Centred Theory (1995), B. F. Skinner's Behavioural Therapy (1974) and William Glasser's Reality Therapy (1969). Wolfgang and Clickman's (1995) model is used as the basis for discussion, survey study and observation regarding the three schools of thoughts in Chapter Five and Six. Shapiro's (1983; 1986) humanistic value studies contributed to the study in offering a list of basic components for formulating a meaningful examination of what is too generally termed as humanistic values—a key contribution to Chapter Seven.

The development of guidance and counselling service in Western countries such as the U. K. and the U. S. A. (Longman Hong Kong, 1994) and in Hong Kong (Education Department, 1986) is documented in historical terms in Government and other reports. The affective needs of students and the required skills for teachers to cope with the changes led to the evolution of the School Guidance Module is well documented in the institutional reports.

The school guidance theoretical framework is based on the work of some contemporary Western humanistic practitioners (Gibson, et al., 1993; Gybers, 2000; Shertzer & Stone, 1981; Miller, 1978; Corey, 1995; Purkey & Novak, 1996). These contemporary practitioners give support to the foundation of affective education, pastoral care, invitation education and school guidance. They generate interest as well as resistance in the Hong Kong setting. Some of the ideology and global human values, such as care and respect are

incorporated in the “Aims of Education” in the Government policy reports. They lead to the descriptions of these struggles depicted in Chapter Nine and Ten.

### **Philosophical and Theoretical Context**

The second part of this chapter explores the relevant philosophies and psychological theories in details. They throw some lights on the complex developments that lie at the base of the East-West theoretical divide that this study examines. The research focuses on the need for a guidance programme for teachers who are facing the effect of this “turbulence” in their own classrooms (Chow, 1994). How teachers experienced this period of rapid upheaval depended on their teaching contexts in the society, and what they understood would be congruent with their own ethnocentric set of meanings.

In an attempt to bring clarity to the following theoretical section, it can be said at the outset that the philosophical systems underlying the conflicting educational traditions are embedded in cultural history. They arose in the different “worlds” of East and West, which developed, unknown to each other, centuries ago. They left unresolved a tension between individualism and communalism. The tension was further crystallized in the political systems known as “capitalism” and “socialism”. These tensions remain and are being resolved today in the laboratories of cultural community like Hong Kong. Here, as in other settings like South Africa, is a contemporary “culture of opposites” in teaching and learning which is analysed from the philosophical, theoretical and practical bases of the original cultures.

The School Guidance Programme under discussion in this study arose from the philosophies and values of the “western” tradition, some counselling models and self-theories with emphasis on humanistic education. However, the teaching-learning context in which the programme was developed was also within the worldview of traditional Eastern, or Chinese cultural values and practices. An understanding of the influence of Western philosophy in a culturally mixed society like Hong Kong helps to explain why the teachers sometimes practiced what they deeply believe; yet on occasions do not practice

what they believe which is an essential focus of this study.

### **Philosophy of Education from the Western Paradigm**

This section examines how major Western humanistic philosophies of education are mingled with some Chinese Confucian values in Hong Kong. It serves to explain how the “culture of opposites” is sometimes more deeply buried, if not dormant. Once again, it addresses in part the central research question concerning the teachers’ ability to use strategies based on essentially Western philosophies in the culturally mixed society of Hong Kong.

Its philosophy of education affects how a school solves its problems, why, what and how children learn in classrooms and how and why educational change takes place. As Sadker and Sadker (2000, p.408) elaborate:

Behind every school and every teacher is a set of related beliefs or a philosophy of education that influences what and how students are taught. Philosophies of education are based on the way the schools and teachers resolve the various philosophical questions that have puzzled Western and Eastern thinkers since the time of the ancient Greeks.

Wringe (1988) also urged teachers to spend more time in thinking about the nature, significance, social and political role of a lifetime’s work in the field of education. Kaminsky (1993) contended that people could view education from a broader perspective:

Education philosophy can be understood by references to the broader intellectual, social and political movements that were related to the practice of the discipline and to the individuals who were a part of or contributed to those movements (Kaminsky, 1993, p. xi).

The philosophy of education in Hong Kong primarily adopted mostly the Western culture, but mingled it with Chinese ideology in a unique way. On the side of the Western philosophy of education, the following schools of thought are among those which share and struggle with many Asian values: behaviourism, essentialism, perennialism, progressivism, existentialism, and humanism.

Behaviourism as presented by experimental psychologist Pavlov in the early 1900s and popularised by Skinner in the 1950s asserted that environmental forces primarily shape human beings and that free will or autonomy does not exist (Skinner, 1979). Applied to classroom teaching, learning is a physical response to stimuli and the curriculum is programmed as teacher-centred learning. Teachers become experts in conditioning students with rewards in achieving desirable behaviour and punishment for undesirable responses according to the school objectives. The popularity of using directive approaches to solving student discipline problems in primary schools will be examined in this study.

Essentialism, under the U.S. educational leadership of William Bagley in the 1930s, took a back-to-basics approach to education. Students have to learn the essentials of academic knowledge, traditional core curriculum, and character development through reasoning (Bagley, 1941). Teachers should be the models who instil respect for authority, perseverance, fidelity to duty and consideration for others and students become intelligent problem solvers and model citizens. This philosophy is quite similar to the traditional classical Chinese teaching of Confucius. For instance, respect for teachers and teachers' knowledge is very important in the classroom. The teacher is the figure of authority. Even today it is almost universal in Hong Kong schools for all students to stand up to greet the teacher before the class begins and to say good-bye to the teacher when the class finishes.

Perennialism under the leadership of Adler (1977) and Hutchins (1962) promoted in the early the twentieth century, urged that some ideas found in great books of ancient days based on universal truths are still relevant today. Students who appreciate the philosophical concepts that underpin human knowledge will become true intellectuals and problem solvers. These ideals of thinking deeply and learning to learn are incorporated in the aims of education in the 1997 education reforms in the mixed cultural society of Hong Kong.

Progressivism under the socialist reformer John Dewey in the 1890s, considered that the physical world is the basis of reality and would change and

progress over time. Change is inevitable in a democratic nation and education is an ongoing process of growth (Dewey, 1966). The rationale is that students learn best from meaningful life experiences, scientific experimentation and social interaction. Teachers have to be creative and provide guidance activities for students so that they can enjoy learning in flexible curriculum and become free thinking intelligent citizens. This lays the foundation for humanistic education, linking experience with education. In recent decades, some primary schools in Hong Kong have practised the “activity based approach” as an alternative to more traditional method. This approach stresses experiential learning based on students’ needs, interest and ability.

Existentialism, represented by Kierkegaard (1954) and Sartre (1971) spelt out creative anxiety, authentic being, individual responsibility, choice, freedom, searching for meaning, isolation and existence preceding essence, meaning that we are free to determine our essence. Educational essentialism, as promoted by Neill (1960), emphasised human free will and individuality. Reality is what each individual determines and students could choose what to learn in classroom activities at their own pace. A teacher has to create a free, open and stimulating environment and students have to accept responsibility for their own lives and courses of action. This signifies the development of an ideology of humanistic and affective education in schools. To understand what a teacher believes about a child’s own human potential becomes part of the central research question of this study.

Among these five fundamental educational philosophies, essentialism together with the related perennialism is popular in the construction of core curricula in the Hong Kong context. Behaviourism is also commonly used as a basis for conditioning students with positive reinforcement to achieve desirable learning outcomes. Nevertheless, progressivism and existentialism also play a part as students’ need, ability, interest and providing them with free will, autonomy and responsibility to learn are also indispensable to the current educational reform in Hong Kong which also depends greatly on the theory of humanistic education, the focus of this study.

This study explores the recently promoted student-centred learning, autonomous learning or happy learning that are embedded in the educational aims in Hong Kong, in contrast to prevalent teacher-centred learning approaches. It explores those issues from the perspective of the teacher. It represents two contradictory forces at work. This has been debated for centuries and now regains the attention in the current educational change.

### **Two Contradictory Views of Philosophy of Education: Plato and Dewey**

Since the Greeks, Western psychology has treated affect and cognition as separate faculties, states, or processes, and through history cognition has been valued more positively than affect. Emotions tend to be seen as irrational and reason as affect-less.

(Rosch, 1997, p.197)

Modern scholars tend to view cognition and affection as interdependent. However, there is the need to look at two contrasting historical views of the philosophy of education in the western world related to the acquisition of knowledge and affective learning and the influence they have on our educational systems and classroom management. The traditional view is that the physical world is the basis of reality; education is intellectual development, and the acquisition and transmission of knowledge. This view is based on the work of the classical Greek philosopher, Plato (428-347 BC). The knowledge-based, teacher-centred and experimental learning are associated with the identification or development of essentialism, perennialism and behaviourism. They have a long and unhappy history over centuries. All along, politicians have considered the interest of society rather than the individual. Although Plato's views of ideology are based on "knowledge and truth", with little or no account of the other aspects of human development, such as emotional development, they still affect our education and examination system today (Kelly, 1987).

However, there is an alternative view in education based on progressivism and existentialism in respect of humanistic education that motivated the researcher to explore teachers' value and beliefs on student learning in this study. The

enlightenment challenged traditional assumptions of the theory of knowledge. Since Jean Jacques Rousseau (1712-78), the “progressive movement” in education has paid more attention to the process of development, which meant a non-interference with children's natural development.

The followers of Rousseau, like John Dewey (1859-1952), viewed knowledge as a state of continuous change and the education of children was a humanistic and pragmatic process. His dynamic theories and belief in pragmatism related educational theory and practice. Dewey's interest in experiential learning and more individualistic involvement of the learner became popular even in China in the early twentieth century (Dewey, 1993, Su, 1995). Dewey considered education as a necessity of life, renewing process and experience; as a social function and interaction; and as a sense of direction and growth, with natural development and social efficiency. According to Dewey's democratic ideology, the aim of education is:

To enable individuals to continue their education – or that the object and reward of learning is continue capacity for growth. Now this idea cannot be applied to all the members of a society except where intercourse of man with man is mutual... And this means a democratic society.

(Dewey, 1966, p. 100)

The fundamental differences between the above two views are that the former regards human knowledge and values as fixed and rational and the latter as tentative and continuous; the former regards education as cognitive; the transmission of knowledge or intellectual development and teacher-centred learning, but the latter as affective, a process of development and very student-centred orientation. The former could apply to elitism and the latter underpins the creation of more equal opportunities for the general public. Both perspectives co-existent in teaching and learning today.

## **Educational Reform**

The recent educational reform in the Hong Kong context is gearing towards a more humanistic approach as the public is calling for more “happy learning”,

“learning to learn” and “lifelong learning” instead of “examination-oriented learning” (Education Commission, 2000). Given the historical tradition of placing more emphasis on cognitive learning, teachers have to struggle to maintain a balance between cognitive and affective education in the changing society. The focus of this research is to listen to teachers’ voices in this process of struggle, finding out their values and approaches to solving student disciplinary problems and the possibilities of bringing harmony and pleasant learning in the classroom through humanistic education in a culturally mixed society.

### **Humanistic Psychology and Self-Theories: Maslow, Rogers**

Having discussed the values of Western philosophies of education adopted in Hong Kong, the researcher would like to discuss further the theoretical concept of humanistic education that underpin the design of the School Guidance Programme under study. Humanistic psychology, developed amongst other educational philosophies, is considered a third wave in psychology after Behaviourism and Freudianism. Maslow (1968, p. iii), an influential humanistic educator, regarded the ‘humanistic’ trend in psychology as:

A revolution in the truest, oldest sense of the word, the sense in which Galileo, Darwin, Einstein, Freud, and Marx made revolutions, i.e. new ways of perceiving and thinking, new images of man and of society, new conceptions of ethics and of values, new direction in which to move.

Maslow believed in human potential and that an individual would seek for excellence, goodness and perfection to become a self-actualised person. He considered that through personal experience and self-perception, a person with good will could be given the trust to add “rich meaning to one’s own life and to others”. He described the characteristic of a self-actualising person as “more efficient perception of reality and more comfortable relations with it” (Maslow, 1999, p. xi). Of equally important influence is the work of Rogers (1999), who stressed person-centred learning, personal experience, self-development and “freedom to learn”. In building up the relationship with the clients or pupils, Rogers put more emphasis on respect for the individual, care, love and a



positive perspective. It is this new trend or a “rethink” that drew the researcher’s attention to study the humanistic values of teachers.

Maslow and Rogers are the key players who attempted to help people bring out their inner nature and personal potential of the person through the understanding of self, basic needs, human values and emotions, self identity and capacity, self-actualisation and self-achievement (Maslow, 1999, Rogers, 1995). Nevertheless, Rogers is more interested in indicating that self-concept is based on social expectations and may be in conflict with the drive for self-actualisation. “Thus, the self-concept is an image of a socially approved and ideal self that may thwart the organism's natural strivings” (Strauss and Goethals, 1991, p.5). Rogers later claimed that he had bridged Eastern and Western thoughts through the teaching of Buddhism, drawing on the listening skills of Zen, and Taoism with Lao-tse’s non-action, or “wu wei” which is a teaching recommending non-intervention between teachers and learners, an intervention that may cause harm to life (Rogers, 1995; Rogers & Freigberg, 1994).

Self-theories have been significant in analysing children’s social interactive behaviour. To name but a few, by the 1900s, Cooley (1902) identified that the self grew out of the social-self as the “looking glass self” and later Mead (1934) developed the social-psychological model of self, which is more flexible in solving social dilemmas when taking others into consideration in making decisions. While Rosch (1997) identified the private self and meditation, Watkins (1995, p. 132) introduced the multi-facets dimension of self development through the notion of the “holistic self” as a bodily self, sexual self, social self, vocational self, moral self, self as a learner, self in the organization through the personal and social education of the recent decades.

At the developmental stage, Erikson has contributed much in understanding child behaviour. At the primary school level, children should be industrious, with autonomy, identity and independence to learn and teachers should understand their psychological needs at this stage. In the 1950s, Erikson found the balance of ego identity and the development of a person as a whole

(Graafsma, 1994). The identity crisis arises when a person's needs at different life stages are not fulfilled. However, Eriksonian ego identity theory in a deep-seated psychological western culture has been challenged in the post-modern era for not taking into consideration female, minority or ethnic groups, for the self is conceptualised in many different ways and across many cultures (Slugoski and Ginsburg, 1989; Neisser, 1997). That was a topic for the subjects of the present study to debate.

The importance of “self-theories” in education in western societies in bringing out human potential, is congruent with the notion of “self” under the Chinese Confucian influence that focuses on the development of a person. For instance, a holistic person could develop at four levels: first the “self”, then for the “family”, the “nation” and then the “world”. In this regard, primary school teachers have to be aware of the child as an individual self as well as a self in the family and the nation. Deviant behaviour often arises from a child when individual needs grounded in different values are not satisfied. As one of the major purposes of this research study is to examine teacher’s values and beliefs, it is necessary to understand to what extent the participant teachers could interact with children in a humanistic and respectful way under both the Western and Eastern influence of “self”. As the notions of human potential, self-concept and self-actualisation are some of the basic features required in the understanding of child development at the primary stage, the curriculum contents of the guidance programme have introduced the work of Maslow, Rogers, Erikson and the like. Furthermore, participants have to be aware of the school guidance theories to facilitate pupils’ personal growth and development and solve disciplinary problems.

In the above section, it is argued that Hong Kong has always managed to adapt to philosophical change in some ways, without doing violence to her traditions. On the other hand, there has always been a tug or tension keeping Hong Kong teaching practice from losing its traditional anchor. It is in studying the impact of humanistic education on the practices of teaching in the current “turbulence” of Hong Kong that is of central interest to this study. Here the potential conflict between the East and West, the “culture of opposites” affects teachers’ practice

most pointedly. For a teacher's discipline to be challenged, the solution may be found in Western philosophical models that challenge Hong Kong teachers and their instructors as never before. The "opposites" to be fused, in their starkest forms, are the ideologies of socialism and individualism. In the following section, the researcher attempts to analyse the Confucian influence in education and the competing values of the two worlds with reference to the Hong Kong context.

### **Asian and Eastern Cultural Values**

While the dominant philosophical bases to Hong Kong teaching practice have been western reflecting the colonial culture, there are some values to be shared with what is the deeper cultural heritage of China (Bray, 1997). "Values", as defined in the first chapter, is the conceptual framework or schemes, plans or blueprints, or even goals of human life, can guide behaviours towards uniformity. Value is one of the key factors in the belief system and attitude formation affecting the behaviour of a person, including a teacher's behaviour towards a student. Asian cultures, in some ways, differ from the West and they vary among themselves owing to several factors, such as the cultural dimensions of collectivism, power distance, structural tightness, and the basic concept of the person including one's values and identity (Crittenden and Bae, 1994).

"Are values universal?" In the philosophical debate, the question of the universality of value can form the common bond of mankind. Raz (2001, p.3) considers that the belief in "the universality of value is vital for a hopeful perspective for the future" and yet it depends on the diversity of values, arising out of partiality. When people are all differently attracted to similar values that improve the quality of life of mankind, such as Rogers' humanistic values in the West and Confucius values and ways of humanity in the East, the universality of value is respected. Details of some of those common values, together with the core values in the "aims of education" will be discussed in the later part of this chapter.

Different people will identify the importance of values orientation differently. For instance, in Hong Kong, Lau (1985) studies a group of 1,463 university students with the Rokeach Value Survey Instrument (Rokeach, 1968) and found that they identified four most important terminal values as “true friendship”, “wisdom”, “self-respect”, and “happiness”. In Taiwan, Yang (1989) applied a Paths of Life Questionnaire to students and they expressed a strong preference to “preserve the best that man has achieved” and “show sympathetic concern for others”. Zhao, Chen and Liu (1993) applied Rokeach Scale to 483 secondary students in China and found that the more important terminal values expressed were “a sense of accomplishment”, “national security”, “self-respect” and “true friendship”.

In contrast to Western cultural values associated with learning, the diversity appears in that Asian and Eastern cultural values stress being in harmony with nature, obedience, relationships, enjoying group participation and co-operation (Huang, 1990) rather than competition and interdependence (Merrriam and Mohanmed, 2000). Value changes not only in Europe and North America, but also in Asia, more from collectivism to individualism as the economic conditions improved (Ester, Halman and Moor, 1994). In Lee’s study (1997) on the impact of change in China, the social and economic changes have opened up opportunities to have moral and value changes from bottom-up direction (Chinese Culture Connection, 1987).

Cultural values can be interpreted in many ways. Cheng (2000) considered that “culture” as a system of shared assumptions, values, beliefs and behaviours in a given group, community, or nation. In a cross-cultural study of school effectiveness, Cheng identified four multi-level contextual cultures: national culture, community culture, school culture and classroom culture that influence the performance of principal, teachers, students and educational outcomes. In this research study, how teacher behaviour and approaches are affected in these four cultural contexts, from national, community, school to classroom will be reflected through teachers’ voices.

Teachers often expressed the values they find important and they should be

aware of their own preferences (Veugelers, 2000). Teachers' values and beliefs expressed are often under the influence of the Confucian values, such as respect for teachers, harmony in class and obey the rules. "An understanding of Confucian cultural traditions is crucial to a comprehensive understanding of Chinese social behaviour" (Hwang, 2001, p. 179).

### **Influence of Confucianism in Education in the Eastern Paradigm**

At this point, a brief description of teaching practice in Hong Kong, from the Confucian point of view is offered so that readers can have a more thorough understanding of teacher beliefs and behaviour in the culturally mixed society. Most scholars in China regard the thinking of Confucius or Mencius and Hsun-tze as two opposing theories for understanding human nature (Bao, 1986 cited in Hwang, 2001). Hsun Tze conceptualised human as a biological being and human nature as the innate tendency of a biological individual. The mind therefore controls the five senses and selects emotions by which it is moved. However, in the traditional worldview of Confucianism, harmony is achieved through maintaining a balance between the individual and the social system, and the psychological processes of an individual are operated through the mind of discernment. According to Hwang' (2001) deep structure of Confucianism: a social psychological model, the Confucian cosmology takes both the Way of Heaven (tiendao) for scholars favouring ordinary citizens and Way of Humanity (rendao) for ordinary citizens respecting the superiors ruling the country, with the ultimate aim of benefiting the whole society with the Way of Humanity. The Confucian worldview is elaborated in more details because of its broad and significant influence in education in China and the Asian countries; and its missions and values are compatible to the study of humanistic education in this research study.

In recent decades, the economic success in the East, commonly known as the rise of Four Mini Dragons in East Asian societies, namely: Hong Kong, Taiwan, South Korea, Singapore and also Japan calls for global attention (Lee, 1991). The success of Eastern or Asian societies has been attributed to their common cultural heritage-Confucianism. Chinese civilization has been pre-dominantly a

Confucian civilization and Confucian teaching influences not only China, but also the social and political life of Hong Kong, Japan, Korea and Indo-China.

Hong Kong is a meeting place of East and West. Although it was under the influence of British culture in the past century, more attention has been given to Chinese values and Confucian ethical and moral virtues for holistic child development in public education under the administration of the Chinese political leader Tung Chee Hwa after 1997 (HKSAR/PRC, 2000; Education Commission, 2000). To understand Chinese values and teachers' values, readers have to begin with the Confucian values because the teaching of Confucius or K'ung Fu Tzu (551-479 B.C.) has dominated Chinese thought for the last twenty-five centuries (Chai & Chai, 1973; Smith, 1973; Chen, 1993).

The significance of education in Hong Kong is rooted in the Confucian philosophy of China and Asian culture before the British arrived and after they departed. As the "Three Character Classic" reads:

Men, one and all, in infancy are virtuous at heart.  
Their natures are much the same, the practice wide apart.  
Without instruction's aid, our instinct grew less pure.  
By aiming at thoroughness only can teaching ensure.

(Cited in Lee, 1996, p.26)

According to Confucius, education is not only important for personal development, but also for societal development, and students should devote their leisure to learning. Similar to Plato's philosophy that the nation should be ruled by wise and learned people, the supreme aim of education according to Confucius, was to produce the perfect sage, or holy perfect person, a very rare being. Confucius was honoured as the Divine Teacher or Perfect Sage as he concentrated his attention to produce the "gentlemen" or *Chun-tzu*. Confucius also presumed that education was for all and that all human beings are potentially educable. His ideal is far reaching and still persisting to-day for it helps students cultivate their *innate virtue* to the fullest and qualifies them to serve the people by applying virtues in real life as officials of state, making future rulers of moral excellence (Young, 1989).

The Asian people grow up with a set of values, mentality and work ethic that drives them to economic success. King (1996, p. 272) described the value or nature of Chinese as:

The intense motivational drive of the Chinese for material wealth and social status has created in them a pragmatic and instrumental or rationalistic attitude toward traditional values in dealing with men and economics.

Traditionally, Chinese people have placed high value on education. Even though the economic climate has changed and is much improved nowadays. King argues that modern Hong Kong Chinese may not think uncritically about the Confucian family. The Japanese, under the Chinese Confucian and Buddhist influence, also consider that success in formal education is almost equivalent to success in life. The Koreans also traditionally regard education as the “most reliable property”.

The fundamental ethical concepts of the Confucian education system concentrate on righteousness, peace and harmony. For instance, the virtue of “*Jen*”, translated as love, goodness, benevolence, man-to-man-ness, human-hearted-ness, kindness, is the greatest of all virtues (Smith, 1973, p.66). Then, there is the “*I*” or righteousness or justice. It is a cardinal virtue that life can be given up for the sake of righteousness. It requires the courage to be genuine, wise, just, temperate, humane, sincere, constant and so forth. The virtue of “*Li*”, translated as propriety, or rules of good behaviour or social regulations, means proper ways of doing things or good manners and behaviour that underpin human institutions. It is common for the Chinese to include all habitual, customary and socially accepted rites. The virtue of “*Hsiao Ti*”, meaning filial piety and brotherly love or honouring one's parents and elders begins in the family and a happy relationship with family members means unity, harmony and happiness for individuals and ultimately, good government.

Traditional Chinese beliefs diffused in the classroom in Hong Kong today are affected not only by the “core values” of Confucianism, but also Taoism and Buddhism. These are also influential in other East Asian countries (Hayhoe, 1997, p.99). Confucianism focuses on “*li*” or ceremony to contribute to the

overall harmony of the socio-political order of the country, while Taoism promotes a good and harmonious society in a spontaneous, “*wuwei*” or unintentional way. The teaching of Buddha further promoted mediation, listening, reflection, inner peace and mindfulness. It is common to find the content and context of Confucian, Taoist or Buddhist philosophies, particularly the Confucian ideas embedded in the curricula and classroom culture in both primary and secondary schools, not only in Hong Kong, but also in the Chinese cultural heritage countries. One of the subjects of the current study is teaching in a Buddhist primary school, explained that in her school, children were taught to be kind and tolerant, according to the Buddhist teaching.

Confucianism appears to promote proper social relations, a harmonious society with filial piety, brotherly harmony and wifely submission. As such, the key virtues and humanity brought out in Confucius education are quite similar to the human values of affective education that adopted western culture. The major difference is that Confucian ideas emphasize the importance of individual development with the ultimate aim of serving the state, whereas western culture focuses more on individuality or personal development and fulfilment of life. The values and ethics of the Confucian culture are still influential especially in Chinese Language and General Studies subjects in primary schools in Hong Kong. Common examples are seen in the way pupils are taught to obey their parents, respect their teachers and not to challenge the authority, formerly the Heavenly King.

### **Competing Anglo-American and East Asian Values in Education**

This section highlights the implications of the above in understanding how the deeper conflicts rise to the surface in the practical settings of education. The question of teachers’ capacity to understand how to apply theory to practice, and what they understand of these underlying factors will be addressed later in the study.

Values have been defined in the early chapter as conceptual framework, or schemas, plans or blue prints, or even goals of human life. Values can guide



behaviour towards uniformity. They provide a picture of the world that is economical, comprehensive, logical and psychologically satisfying (Heffron, 1997). For instance, Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of needs differentiates the lower physiological needs from higher post-material needs for better quality of life in a structured value system. Children do not learn if their physiological needs are not satisfied, or they can do better if they can actualise themselves in a more spiritual or intentional manner (Maslow, 1999).

When serious discussion of social and educational problems arises, it would easily lead to consideration of the quality of life and nature and the human experience (Barrow and Wood, 1994). Students' problem behaviours could shift to the moral and ethical values and their personal choices and actions in the areas of guidance and classroom interaction. Student problems are also related to the conflicting values of the children in the social context where they are brought up. This is particularly the case when children in Hong Kong are brought up in a culture mingled with the values of East and West. As Deaxu (1992, p. 3) remarked, "Typically, Western individualist views of self are contrasted with more collective, often Eastern, versions".

Children's stress comes from adjustment to modernization and urbanization and the chase of paper or academic qualifications in the competitive capitalist as well as socialist Hong Kong society (Elkind, 1988). Value shifts between individualism and collectivism, self and family, independence and dependence, home base and mobility, globalisation and nationalization, capitalism and socialism create disturbances in the minds of young people. The multiplicity self, such as the independent self as a characteristic of Western culture and the interdependent self more common in Asian culture, and the interface between them are worthwhile subjects for further scrutiny.

There is a global discourse on the competing as well as complementing Asian and Western values that children in the classrooms are subject to nowadays (Markus, Mullally and Kitayama, 1997; Montgomery, 1997; Luk, 2001). Some values are better for some purposes than others, particularly for academic achievements, economic development and political democracy, and teachers

must be aware of them. First, we have to look at what values are particularly related to children learning.

Although it is hard to define values, the meaning attached to children's action often reflects the values they espouse. For instance, if a child fails to hand in homework on time owing to very low self-esteem and inability to meet high parental expectation, the teacher needs to understand the underlying competing values in order to understand better the child's undesirable behaviour in the classroom. In this case, the child gave up due to inability to meet both the individual needs and family needs. According to Heffron (1997, p. 7):

Values preferences are not simple rational choices between competing, equally plausible, alternatives. They also reflect embedded social considerations, structural and institutional restraints and opportunities.

There have been numerous research studies undertaken to explore difference between values and expectation of parents regarding the raising of children in the East and West. For example, Montgomery (1997, p. 41) considered that Asian countries, like China, Japan and Korea, "favour loyalties to the family and the community more than respect for the individuals claims", when compared with European and American countries, like United Kingdom and United States. Deaux (1992) revealed that independence and separation from social context are important in U. S. or Western families, but not so in the East.

Harold Stevenson and his colleagues, in comparing parental attitudes in Japan, Taiwan and United States, found that children's attitudes and parental expectation played a significant role in children's academic success in the Asian countries. The case is quite similar in Hong Kong especially when children are young and in primary schools. Stevenson and associates revealed that (cited in Glazer, 1997, p. 55):

Children (of Japan and Taiwan) are more responsive to the authority of the teacher, are more committed to working hard, and are readier to assume it is their own responsibility if they do not succeed. Their parents expect more from them, and even though the children do better than American children, academically, their parents are less satisfied. On the American side, parental satisfaction with modest results is certainly consistent with so many criticisms of our current values, their slackness, their falling away

from any idea of rigor, their adoption or immediate pleasure for long-term satisfactions, their minimization of responsibility to family or state.

Markus, Mullally and Kitayama, (1997, p. 16) established “self-ways” as a “self system” including key cultural ideas and influences, values and understandings of what a person is and how to be a “good, appropriate, or moral person”. For instance, in the United States, it is important to be an “independent, positively unique individual”. In Japan, the core cultural values require inter-dependence and foster emphatic connections with others. Many Japanese, Korean and Chinese people, under the influence of Confucian tradition, give explicit attention to the all-important social order, whereas Europeans and Americans reconcile social order with individual order. In a study by Chao in 1993 (cited in Markus, Mullally & Kitayama, 1997, p.37) regarding Chinese-American and North American mothers’ beliefs about what is important for raising children, Chinese-American mothers stressed the importance of obedience, respect for others, getting along well with others, and maintaining the Chinese culture. On the other hand, the European-American mothers’ identified building of self-esteem and confidence, creating an environment in which the child felt loved and safe, dealing with emotions with the child, independence, fun and enjoyment for the child. The Chinese-American mothers scored higher on scales of parental control and authoritarianism.

Asian success has been attributed to the traditional culture of hard work, savings, investment for children’s education and advancement of the family. These values are seen as something that needs to be preserved. Western culture has undermined the Confucian or traditional family values that have paved the way to successful economic development in Asian countries. A child who cannot work hard and live up to the expectation of the school and family will have a sense of guilt and shame. News reports appear from time to time of a child who commits suicide after being accused by parents or teachers of not doing well. In such a scenario, the teachers may be exposed to blame and they have to be aware of this eventuality.

Another important issue related to Asian values and democracy also surprises

Westerners. In contrast with East Asian culture, Anglo-American culture stresses capitalism, individualism, freedom, independence, legality, balance of power, leisure orientation, Catholicism and Christianity, impersonal enterprise, and competition. These values are contrasted with socialism, familism, equality by age and seniority, heritage, loyalty, moral suasion, work orientation, Confucianism, Buddhism and Taoism, and so forth. In Asian societies that protect cultural and social change, where the professional or middle-income bracket groups grow and mass media can gain access around the world, people still accept authoritarian rule without much protest. The Chinese believe in harmony and consider excessive insistence upon personal rights may lead to confrontation and disorder. Collective decision and group decision, communication with others with hospitality and human emotions, and distinction between “insider” with strict rules and “outsider” with politeness are common Chinese culture under the influence of Confucianism.

In the era of change and rapid economic growth, Asian leaders would prefer to maintain the existing political power and authority, as well as certain values relating to family structure, sexual behaviour and citizenship in the process of westernisation, industrialisation, urbanisation, modernisation and globalisation. Preserving Asian cultural values for social harmony could hardly be undermined. It is no surprise that the former U.S. President Bill Clinton incorporated “Character education” as a major educational item in his 1997 State of the Union address to the United States Congress (Cheng, 1997). Modern Confucian harmony and family values are more than a reflection of an elite mentality, but also the sources of moral order (Tu, Hejtmanek. and Wachman, 1994). The current study has taken an initial step to understanding teachers’ beliefs in human values and their approaches to solving student problems in the culturally mixed society of Hong Kong, and the problems which arise from the conflicting values between self and family, individual and society, dependence and independence, obedience and resistance that are manifested in the classroom.

## **Core Values and Aims of Education**

In the process of change, the values embedded in the government documents also change as reflected in the government policy documents, educational guidelines and school textbooks. Primarily, the education service called for the development of the “potential” of a child and a “full life” as below. Firstly, the School Education in Hong Kong: A Statement of Aims (Education and Manpower Branch, Government Secretariat, 1993, p.8) reads:

The school education service should develop the potential of every individual child, so that our students become independent-minded and socially aware adults, equipped with the knowledge, skills and attitudes which help them to lead a full life as individuals and play a positive role in the life of the community.’

In a similar vein, the Education Commission Report No.7 on Quality School Education (1997, p.8-9) also aimed to foster the holistic development of a child thereof:

- (a) An all-round development covering ethics, the intellect, the physique, social skills and aesthetics;
- (b) Bi-literacy and trilingualism;
- (c) Self-learning ability and an inquisitive mind;
- (d) A sense of responsibility towards the family, the community, the country and the world;
- (e) A global outlook;
- (f) The ability to assimilate modern technologies and ideas, and to appreciate Chinese values;
- (g) Strength of character, a spirit of enterprise, the desire for continuous improvement, and the versatility to cope with the changing needs of the community; and
- (h) Respect for the rule of law in the pursuit of personal interest.

Furthermore, the Aims of Education Consultation Document, Education Blueprint for the 21<sup>st</sup> century (Education Commission, 1999) and the final document (Education Commission 2000, p.4) have spelt out the overall aims of education for Hong Kong as follows:

To enable every person to attain all-round development in the domains of

ethics, intellect, physique, social skills and aesthetics according to his/her own attributes so that he/she is capable of life-long learning, critical and exploratory thinking, innovating and adapting to change; filled with self-confidence and a team spirit, willing to put forward continuing effort of society, and contribute to the future well-being of the nation and the world at large.

The quality education documents stressed the “all-round”, “independent mind”, and “socially aware” development of a child with “full and individual potential”. It was essential to develop a “self” in the family, the country and the world with a “global” outlook, ready for continuous “self-learning”, thinking, exploring, innovating and filled with “self-confidence”. Much emphasis was on the strength of character and sense of responsibility including the five aspects: “ethics”, the “intellect”, the “physique”, “social skills” and “esthetics”, and the desire for continuous improvement. These aspects are reiterated as they are related to the Chinese cultural values especially to Eastern ethics. The ultimate aim is to strive for freedom, democracy and the future well being of the nation and the world.

### **Value Orientations in Textbooks**

The value components can best be reflected in textbooks. Lee (1997) examined the impacts of values and changes in beliefs structure through content analyses of textbooks and curricula from a study of the value orientations in the old and new Chinese Language Curriculum, (Leung, 1966, cited in Lee, 1997, p. 126). It was found that there was an obvious change in the presentation of gender equality, father image, national pride, moral virtue and sociological values. The new curriculum has been presented in a more expressive and positive manner.

Lung, Poon and Luk (2000, p. 374) used “Au’s Value Orientation Scale” designed with the reference of various value scales including the “value survey” of Rokeach (1968) and the “Chinese Value Survey” of the Chinese Culture Connection (1989) to examine the primary Chinese curriculum. Five

groups of values were identified, namely,

- a) Self-oriented values, such as values related to individual's character traits, abilities and talents.
- b) Group-oriented values, such as values related to the relationships between and individual and his or her group and family.
- c) Society-oriented values, such as values related to arrangement of society, social standing and social welfare.
- d) Nation-oriented values, such as values related to one's nation, patriotism, national security and achievement,
- e) World-oriented values: such as values related to the world, care for the environment and international affairs and relationship.
- f) Non-identified value themes.

The results showed that self-oriented values are more important than group, society, nation and world-oriented values in the textbooks studied. In the development of self, to be Knowledgeable, Perseverance, Intelligent, Diligent, Enthusiasm in learning, Prudence, Respect, Self-determination, Willingness to correct mistakes, and Health were found to be more important than other values. Whether the choices of such values are related to the Chinese culture or Confucian ethics in particular is subject to debate and further research.

### **Humanistic Values**

In brief, the human values examined in this chapter included the humanistic values based on the school of thought of Maslow (1968) and Rogers (1995) for the development of human potential; and the influence of Confucian values on teachers' beliefs, and some text book values as a background study. The human values and qualities of a good teacher through the studies of Shapiro (1983) and Moheno (1996) on the humanistic value orientations will be discussed in details in Chapter Seven; and the values embedded in the "aims of education" of the government policy paper for a whole person development and the association of "humanistic values" in meeting with the "educational aims" will be discussion in Chapter Eight. Now, the teachers' belief systems are discussed.

## **Teachers' Beliefs in Solving Student Disciplinary Problems**

Given the contradictory views of the philosophy of education associated with human nature in the West and East, from behaviourism to existentialism, collectivism to individualism, the researcher attempted to examine the *major* research question on the understanding of the teachers' values and beliefs in human nature from the influence of both worlds.

Whilst there are many ways to interpret teacher behaviour during teacher-pupil interaction, Wolfgang and Glickman (1995) established "three schools of thought" based on the psychological interpretations of child development. They considered that a teacher's behaviour towards a child could be affected by his or her beliefs about a child's *inner* potential to improve; or the effect of both internal and external factors on a child; or the influence of the external environment on a child. For analytical and research purposes and to facilitate discussion, the principles of behavioural modification, humanistic education and interactive approaches, on which the in-service programme was designed, are articulated under the topic entitled, "Three beliefs and approaches to solving student problems". It is hypothesised that a teacher's beliefs about how children learn is related to his or her approaches used during teacher-pupil interaction.

This concept is used throughout this research study and is explained as follows: Pupil-centred Approach is based on the values and belief that a child develops from an inner potential that needs to find one's expression in the real world as represented by Maslow (1999) and Rogers (1995). Wolfgang classified it as a "relationship-listening strategy". With effective communication and relationship building with the teacher, the pupil is helped to become more "self-directive, self-fulfilling and self-actualised". This leads to a non-directive, student-centred approach with least evidence of teacher power. It offers more open and democratic interaction with children, and stresses human values such as love, care, concerns and unconditional positive regards. The process is self-directive and communicative.



Interactive Approach is based on the belief that a child's development is affected by individual inner force and external environmental force, both of which are of equal importance. Wolfgang interpreted it as a confronting and contracting approach. The child is challenged or confronted, and has to take the initiative to plan and learn with negotiation and guidance support of the teacher as represented by Glasser (1969). Given successful identity and recognition, children could be more responsible, respectable and realistic. This leads to an interactive, teacher-student approach with certain teacher power. It is a communicative and dynamic process.

Teacher-centred Approach assumes that external conditions and the outer environment affect child development. Human behaviour can be modified as represented by Pavlov and Skinner (Skinner, 1974; Wolpe, 1990). Wolfgang considered it as rules and rewards and punishment strategy. Learning may have occurred through stimulus and response with the use of both rewards and punishment. Positive reinforcement and encouragement are often employed while the child must follow classroom rules and authority. This leads to a directive, teacher-centred approach with strong teacher power. The process is immediate and teacher controlled.

The research findings of the teachers' beliefs will be discussed in Chapter Six.

## **Conclusion**

To sum up, this chapter establishes the theoretical framework of the study from philosophy of education to teachers' beliefs in human values. It explores the influence of western philosophies of education and the development of aims of education for whole child development in Hong Kong using an eclectic approach. It also scrutinizes the contrasting views of the work of Plato and Dewey; the humanistic psychology and self-theories after Maslow and Rogers; and the similarities and differences between Western American and Asian Confucian values that affect both teachers and children. Children and youths unable to adjust in a culturally mixed society with conflicting values will bring their problems to schools.

As a teacher's values and beliefs shape his or her classroom behaviour, the provision of a school guidance programme helps teachers understand themselves and use different strategies to solve pupil disciplinary problems. Through a study of the guidance programme, we can reach an understanding of teachers' values and beliefs, and this becomes the focus of the current study. Based on different human values and three schools of thoughts, teachers can address their classroom problems in flexible way and bring out the potential of the pupils. Such understanding juxtaposed with the "aims of education" and "humanistic education" to have whole child development and happy learning in the current educational reform. The next chapter will elaborate on the research methodology.

## Chapter Four

### THEORETICAL FRAMEWORKS AND RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

#### Research Methodology

In establishing the historical and theoretical contexts of this research, the study has to move beyond the description of the development of humanistic and affective education from the *macro* level to focus more on how the in-service teacher development programme, based on humanistic education principles, is carried into the teachers' classroom practice in Hong Kong. Few research studies have been conducted on teacher behaviour and beliefs regarding human values in daily classroom teaching as related to the aims of education for the holistic development of a child on the affective side. This study addresses this deficit. Set in the context of social problems as they are manifested in the classrooms of Hong Kong primary schools in the era of social and historical change, this study is concerned with understanding how teachers "manage" classroom problems as they occur.

The central research question is to "understand teachers' values and beliefs" as they are expressed during their classroom interactions. However, it is important to alert readers that this theme becomes the core category of inquiry regarding teachers' beliefs and classroom practices only after raising the wider subsidiary research questions. How much do teachers understand the historical, political and economic contexts they are living and working in? To what extent do the teachers, after attending the in-service guidance programme, bring this wider picture into consideration in their decisions in dealing with problem classroom behaviours? To put another way, if causes of classroom problems lie in the wider cultural context of rapid change, to what extent are the teachers' observed and self-described responses a reflection of their skills generated from this wider and more complex knowledge?

The methodology chosen to seek answers to these questions is a mixture of qualitative and quantitative strategies. There is a common movement in using

the eclectic qualitative methodology for analytical purpose (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994). This research study is qualitative essentially, in that I, being the researcher, am able to take advantage of my long experience in the social and professional world of Hong Kong, in a sense that I could witness the historical and social changes throughout the past decades, and could have more sensitivity in the design, collection, evaluation and reflection of the data. However, a collection of the ethnographic data, such as lunchtime chats, casual and formal class discussion, photographs, video-tape recordings were kept as raw data, to be extracted when needed in answering the major research questions. As reported in previous chapters, some official documents yielded data pointing to the ways education policy makers paved from colonial times to the period of transition to revert Hong Kong to China. An examination of these documents has found their decisions based on mingled Western philosophies.

By putting the development of the in-service programme under scrutiny, the researcher found that data was easily obtainable from interview reports, class work sheets, surveys, evaluation questionnaires and school visits. Data was gathered relating to the curriculum, the objectives of the module, the profile of the participants, their relationship to the researcher as the module lecturer, and the researcher's access to the classrooms where the teachers were observed. The subsequent evaluation interviews and observations were two major possible windows into the complex world of the guidance programme in its implementation and the teachers' reflections on their choice of behaviours as they tried to put into practice what they had learned.

### **Qualitative Research Work**

The researcher attempted to gather evidence that would reveal the qualities of teachers' working life, or their reflection of various realities of specific educational context from participant teachers' perspectives. The study sought answers to questions on how social and teaching experience created meanings and facilitated development for and with teachers. It examined the constraints and challenges of everyday school life for the teacher in a cultural mixed society. The research study captured the individuals' viewpoints as action research data

for reflection and improvement. Furthermore, this research accepted post-modern sensibilities in respect of human values. The person is “positive, active, and purposive” as viewed by Carl Rogers (Cohen & Manion, 1992, p.28). This helped me gain confidence in attempting to understand such ideas as teachers’ values, beliefs and practice during teacher-pupil interaction for solving student problems and shaping whole child development in the current educational movement.

## **Research Approaches**

In searching for the appropriate research methodology for this study, the researcher, in the first instance, attempted to use a positivist approach to study the “effectiveness” of the Guidance Programme. The initial plan was to observe a group of participant teachers to see if they had any changes of values and beliefs before and after attending the programme. However, this was found to be problematic because of the complexity of human nature and interaction, particularly involving attitudes, values and beliefs (McGuire, 1985). The research methods required a mix of survey and interview data gathering in order to elicit information about their contextual background as well as their individual thinking. The survey data revealed the scope and types of guidance activities being practised in their schools. The survey also asked direct questions concerning their beliefs about humanistic values in the classroom. Complementing this information, a long open interview attempted to get beneath the boldly stated belief to the in-depth understandings, feelings and conflicts being experienced by the person whose role was the teacher. What appear to be potentially weakness and conflict in these types of data, they have, in fact, complemented each other and a truer picture emerges from the subjects of the research, that is teachers struggling to professionally integrate their own values in the work they can be proud of.

The choice of a variety of research methods is potentially a risk in that qualitative and quantitative data offer different information about the teachers and their work. However, in view of the fact that the context itself is a focus, not just a background of the study, and the participants are speaking from this

context, a complementary form of data gathering is necessary. Furthermore, the study seeks to understand the internal elements of teachers' reflections or their learning. Only a sensitive dialogue in the form of a long-interview and observation can hope to glimpse this important subjective data. The survey data and other documentary material cannot hope to catch this dynamic, changing, feeling and experience of the practising teacher, but does reveal the particular school activities, the range of such activities and other workplace givens, like the style of communication, administration and the school curriculum. Both these viewpoints are important because the study is attempting to understand a profession adapting itself as a system, and seeking to monitor the preparation the teachers are being given to cope with both the particular school setting and the outside forces of social changes.

The overall research design was to examine the teachers' beliefs through the surveys; observe their practice through classroom visits and observation; and clarify the deeper, unexpressed feelings of the teachers through open interviews. The research study will search for confirmation and trustworthiness in both the qualitative and quantitative data generated.

### **Interpretative Approach: Phenomenology, Ethnography and Symbolic Interactionism**

The qualitative aspect of the study adopted an interpretive approach involving phenomenology, ethnography and symbolic interaction with some interaction between approaches. Phenomenology, as represented by Husserl, is "a belief in the importance of subjective consciousness" or "how things appear before us" (Cohen & Manion, 1992, p.31). In the real world, each participant in the study is a unique individual with a set of values and beliefs developed before attending the programme. Such values and beliefs, depending on the individual, may be stable or changing and a participant's attitude may or may not be affected by study of the programme. However, the programme helps the researcher and the participants understand more about their beliefs and practices about teacher-pupil interaction. During and after the implementation of the programme, the researcher heard what the participants said and

observed what they did and how they interpreted the phenomenon. All along, the researcher was an active research instrument in the play, in the design, implementation and evaluation of the programme, with much self-disclosure in class discussion, motivating participants to talk and discuss, and finding areas of improvement of teaching and learning. As the human world is not pre-determined and knowledge is not fixed, the phenomenological world of teachers is open for inquiry and the creation of new directions and undiscovered significance according to their perception and experience.

Ethnographic inquiry, as represented by Garfinkel in the 1960s, is concerned with what happens in the common daily activities. It helps the researcher to see things with the participants and uncover meanings and perceptions of things mainly through interviews, classroom discussion and school visits (Dobbert, 1982; Hammersley, 1990). Ethnographic method aims:

To treat practical activities, practical circumstances, and practical sociological reasoning as topics of empirical study, and by paying to the most commonplace activities of daily life the attention usually accorded extraordinary events, seeks to learn about them as phenomena in their own right.

(Garfinkel, 1968, cited in Cohen & Manion, 1992, p. 32)

The researcher observed participant behaviour, visited participants at their schools as follow-up visits and triangulated the data thus gathered with what they said during the course of study. Some participants were visited twice to monitor their consistency and change of behaviour if any, a half-year after the completion of the school guidance programme. The researcher also took the opportunities to talk to the participants; school heads and school social workers to see and observe how counselling activities were supported. Although the arrangement of the site visits imposed certain constraints, the discussion and reflection of their daily school life and activities during interview and class discussion yielded rich information about real practice (Spradley, 1979).

Symbolic interaction, the attribution of meaning to objects through symbols and language is a continuous process and in the social context, individuals continue to construct, interact, modify, change and adjust when acting (Crotty, 1998). As

such, pupils and teachers, participant teachers and the researcher, continued to adjust and change in the classrooms and the environment during the learning process. Participant teachers' perception on human values and teacher-pupil interaction would continue to change during and after their course of study (Blumer, 1969).

## **Action Research**

Action research is a research methodology used to improve the quality of teaching and learning (Elliot, 1991; Mishler & Elliot, 1990; Noffke & Stevenson, 1995). To a certain extent, the participants are researchers and the researcher can be the facilitator doing the research *with* the participant for the enhancement of the quality of teaching and learning. Action research approach allowed participant teachers' voices to be heard. They could then operate more effectively as teachers when they understood the contextual change and identified their own problems. Giving open opportunities for discussion and partnership with the researcher and other participants, research data and ideas were shared rather than collected from the top down. As such, this educational research could be perceived as a continuous dialogue involving classroom discussion, school practice and relevant counselling theories through teachers' voices and perception. The most important of all, participant teachers were given a voice to articulate their own experience. Teachers were encouraged to express themselves freely. As Winter (1998, p.53) stated:

Action research is about seeking a voice with which to speak one's experience and one's ability to learn from that experience. It is also about helping others (teachers in this case) to find their own voices. Action research is decentralizing the production of knowledge.

In the complex research processes of this research study, action research is one of the multiple methods used. Participant teachers would be encouraged to reflect on their assignments, write self-reflection reports, prepare module evaluation, and participate actively in class discussion with regard to the improvement of teaching and learning, and most importantly, in connection with their capabilities of using different guidance skills learned from the school guidance programme. The improvement of teaching is considered as a broad



objective by and large. The researcher would also use action research to reflect on her pedagogical skills and improve programme design and implementation. In this research study, action research is used as a generic approach to improve teaching and learning for reflection purposes only, rather than a strict causal relationship of a particular event and problem, and finding solution to such an event.

### The Research Practice

Participants were encouraged to practice action research or ethnographic research, constantly reflecting on what they had learned and find to ways to improve themselves. Upon completion of the programme, five participants out of thirty-five indicated their interest in having the researcher visited them for class observation. They were also invited to share in follow-up discussion and write self-reflective journals as a way of effecting improvement in their teaching and learning. In this regard, they took the initial step towards putting action research into practice in a continuous process. Details of the classroom observation schedule are listed in Table 4.1 below:

**Table 4.1 Class Observation and School Visits**

<u>Teacher participating in follow-up Reflective Practice</u>	<u>Date of Class Observation by Researcher</u>	<u>Meeting with School Personnel</u>
Mr. Lee	(1) 6 Jan 2000 (4B Math) (2) 15 June 2000 (3D Chinese)	Meeting School Head
Ms. Young	(1) 21 Feb 2000 (4A Math) (2) 14 June 2000 (4A Math)	Meeting School Head
Ms. Sung	(1) 12 April 2000 (3A Math) (2) 14 June 2000 (3A Math)	Meeting School Head and School Guidance Teacher
Ms Chiu	15 June 2000 (1A Math)	Meeting School Head
Ms Cheng	13 June 2000 (5D Math)	Classroom observation only

In addition, the action researcher herself talked to participants in their schools after class observation and consulted school heads and school social workers to reach a better understanding of the school context. These observations and interviews were recorded using field notes or audio-tapes. To improve teaching, the researcher recorded and observed her own programme sessions and invited peers to observe her teaching. This was followed by interview with recorded tapes and field notes. The researcher reviewed her performance using a formative evaluation questionnaire collected after each session and wrote a self-reflection report after the programme. She interviewed the module coordinator of the guidance programme on future developments, and collected relevant data as evidence to support the research study.

### **The Participants of this Research Study**

The subjects were in-service primary school teachers who had taught for five years or more. Most of them had no school guidance or counselling experience. They were recommended by their school heads to attend the School Guidance module, a retraining course run by a teacher education institute for primary school teachers in Hong Kong. The five-week overall retraining course covered various elective subject studies including the school guidance course.

The module was not an intensive counselling course, but the participants were given basic school guidance and counselling concepts, in the hope that they could handle daily student problems better. There were six cohorts of participants in the 1999/2000 academic year. Each cohort had two to three groups of participants, and altogether there were twelve groups. These formed the sample for the distribution of the survey questionnaires described below. Basically, this research study initially selected a target group of forty primary school teachers as “key participants”. They were enrolled in the second cohort of the programme taught. The name list of the participants is found in Appendix 1. The names of the participants have been changed and remained anonymous on confidential basis.

## **Case Study**

Forty key participants formed the inner or major boundary of this case study (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994). The researcher invited each participant of the group to give his or her story in a tape-recorded interview. All accepted except three of them. Significant points observed in the interview or class discussion were elaborated in general with the combination of individual responses when addressing the major research questions.

The researcher analysed participants' case study assignment in the guidance module. This provided a practical reflection of how the participant teachers handled his or her pupil problems in school. This case study assignment was quite comprehensive as it reflected the family background of the pupil under study, the problematic classroom behaviour, and the guidance and counselling techniques the participant teacher had learned and applied. These will be elaborated in more detail in the following chapter.

## **Major Research Method: Guided Interview Approach**

The qualitative interview model, the major research method used in this study, involved listening, hearing and sharing social experience between the researcher and the researched in a flexible and continuous process. As Rubin and Rubin (1995, p.1) put it, qualitative interviewing is "a way of finding out what others feel and think about their worlds".

The current study mainly adopted qualitative interviewing. At each step of the interview, the participant teacher brought new information and understanding and opened windows into the experiences of his or her school lives. The ten questions were used as a guide rather than a script, in the hope that the participant teachers could be "conversational" and "knowledgeable" partners and could express themselves as freely as possible (Rubin & Rubin, 1995, p.66). The topical or guided interview in the study aimed at getting the specific and required information within a specific time, with the design of "10 guiding questions" elaborated in Table 4.2 below to generate discussion.

**Table 4.2 10 Guiding Questions for Discussion**

- 
1. After the handover of Hong Kong to China in 1997, what major changes do you think have occurred in the Hong Kong education system?
  2. Social problems in Hong Kong are getting worse. People say that troublesome kids came from problematic families. What social problems affect children's family and their performance in school?
  3. In growing and learning, what do you think are the greatest needs of young people?
  4. Teachers' educational beliefs and their values can affect their interests and enthusiasm in teaching. What views and beliefs do you have to support your teaching work?
  5. In teacher-pupil interaction, do you think it is more important for students to learn to obey rules and regulations than to make their own decisions? Why? Consider especially the primary school setting.
  6. What methods do you use to communicate with students?
  7. Do you easily accept others' and your own strengths and weaknesses? Why?
  8. In teaching and dealing with problems in students, do you feel alone? How can you gain more support from your school?
  9. How does this School Guidance Programme help in terms of guidance principles, education beliefs and values, attitudes and techniques?
  10. What support do you expect from the teacher education institute in terms of teaching and guidance?
- 

During each interview, each participant was asked questions regarding his or her understanding of the contextual background of social, political and economic changes in Hong Kong, the social problems brought to the classroom, the implementation of the guidance programme, and most important of all, the teacher's values and beliefs during teacher-pupil interaction. Putting together the information as the major source of this research, it formed understanding, explanations and theories that were

*grounded* in details, evidence and live examples of the interviewees (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

After active data collection with tape recording, data was formalised for analysis in transcript form, organised across the ten original topics in categories and sub-categories, and then indexed with the name of the participant changed. The research study relied heavily on recording interviews on audiotapes with material transcribed in an accurate and retrievable form. Although the tape-recording process caused some sensitivity at the beginning, the interviewee would soon relax once a more natural involvement was created by the researcher's self-disclosure. With the vast amount of data materials embedded in the interviews, themes and concepts developed in the data analysis.

### **Survey Study**

Other than qualitative data, a substantial amount of information came from surveys. The researcher has designed a small-scale survey with a self-completed questionnaire— Primary School Student Guidance Approaches Questionnaire in Appendix 2, with a view to understanding the current situation of student guidance in primary schools from the participant teachers' perspectives. The main objectives were to know more about the background of the primary schools they taught, their training in guidance and counselling, how they handled student guidance problems, and the difficulties they encountered in doing school guidance work.

A total of 190 questionnaires were distributed to seven groups of teachers who attended the Guidance Programme among six cohorts of participants. Eventually, 134 questionnaires were found usable and the return rate of the questionnaire was 70.5%. The respondents were experienced in-service primary school teachers coming from various types of schools and across various districts in Hong Kong (provisional figure of total number of primary schools amounted to 822 as reported in Hong Kong Annual Report, 1999). Details of questionnaire distribution are found in Table 4.3 below:

**Table 4.3**  
**Number of Questionnaires Distributed in Academic Year 1999/2000**

Cohort/ Class	Class duration	No. of questionnaire delivery		
		Group 1	Group 2	Group 3
1	6/9/1999 – 11/10/1999	21	N/A	N/A
2	12/10/1999 – 16/11/1999	40	0	N/A
3	17/11/1999 – 21/12/1999	24	0	N/A
4	14/2/2000 – 17/3/2000	30	0	N/A
5	20/3/2000 – 9/5/2000	0	30	N/A
6	15/5/2000 – 19/6/2000	0	30	15

The survey finding was summarised in Appendix 2(a) and details would be discussed in the later chapters.

### **Documents from Class Participation**

To address the research questions relating to understanding teachers' beliefs in human values and approaches to pupils, the participant teachers of "Cohort 2", whom the researcher taught, provided the major sources of data because they were selected as the research group. It must be stressed that the inventory and class work sheets were some general statements that facilitated class discussion but they were by no means the subjects of testing. The "descriptive" data was used to summarise a large amount of information on a list or table that could easily be understood by an observer (Burns, 1994, p. 32). They complemented what the participants said and how they behaved in order to facilitate discussion.

The multi-methods used are ethnographic and reflections of the phenomenon (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994). They are listed below and will be discussed in detail in later chapters:

- (1) Teachers' beliefs and approaches summary worksheet

- (2) Participants' assignments on case studies
- (3) Worksheet on student problems
- (4) Shapiro's humanistic scale exercise
- (5) Programme evaluation of Five Sessions

### **School Visit and Classroom Observation**

To further understand how teachers put their beliefs, learned theories and skills into practice in their classrooms from different perspectives, the researcher arranged follow-up interviews with five participants, as mentioned under the topic of Action Research in earlier paragraphs. Selected participants' actual dialogue and interaction in the class were recorded and some participating teachers wrote a one-page reflection on the application of their learned skills in the classroom. Follow-up discussion with the school guidance officer and school heads was also arranged to see the actual support given to the teachers.

### **Documentary Data**

For content analysis, the external forces of social change appropriate to this study were analysed from government policy reports, essentially publications concerning the "1997 issues" during the handover period. At another level, official educational documentation yielded data reflecting the departmental responses to these social forces in the form of consultation documents, curriculum directories and guidelines. Some documentation, like media and newsletters from professional teacher associations revealed critical responses to the bureaucratic documents. At the third level, data analysed from participants' responses to the research protocols, revealed the quality of their understanding and sensitivity to these social forces around them. The most important of all, teachers were given a voice about the changing context, increasing social problems and the pressure they had when handling pupil problems in the classroom. As the researcher, my interpretation came from my understanding of the literature, media reports, public documents, exposure in seminars and observation of participants' behaviour.

## **Data Collection Processes**

As the study was essentially a self-reflective one from the participants for their own teacher development, data elucidated from discussion and self-reports of the participants would reflect changes of differing extents in the teachers' guidance skills, understanding and practice. Interviews and survey were the two major methods to collect data. Other methods included observation of class behaviour by videotape recording, worksheets, and student assignments.

Other subsidiary data collection methods included follow-up interviews with participants from different schools regarding their self-reports on their changes after taking the School Guidance Programme, interviews with school heads; peer and a professional counsellor; use of researcher's diary, module evaluation questionnaires and follow-up interviews with available participants.

The research process began in September 1999 at the commencement of the school term. Data was mainly collected from all forty participants of Group 1 of the Second Cohort of the Year 1999/2000 who enrolled in the School Guidance and Classroom Management Module. During the five sessions programme from 15 October to 12 November 1999, classroom behaviours were video-taped; the one-hour individual in-depth interview was audio-tape recorded; as class work sheets and assignments were collected and evidence.

Upon completion of the programme, a questionnaire was distributed to whole Cohorts of the same academic year. The school heads, social workers and peers were interviewed. Classroom observations were arranged within one year after the completion of the programme from February to July 2000. Triangulation was made possible with the participant teachers' consent to let the researcher visit their schools and have classroom observations. The purpose is to see whether they have practiced what they said and how much guidance skills they have applied. Such a perspective may be differed from what they said how they practiced. Details of the research processes are recorded in Table 4.4 below:



**Table 4.4 Data Collection Processes**

Target Course: School Guidance and Classroom Management

Key Participant: Cohort 2, Group 1 – 40 participants

Other Participants: Cohort 1-6

Period: September 1999-July 2000

Date	Description	Data Analysis	Theme/Category
September 1999 – June 2000	How to implement counselling activity in school	Survey Questionnaire (134) (from Cohort 1 to 6) <i>Survey Data</i>	School background, guidance work, participants' value and belief, student problems, participant's support from school, and so forth
October 15 – November 12 1999	Observation of key participants attending the module	Video-tapes (5 x 3-hour sessions) Session One-Five <i>Observed Data</i>	Session 1-5 Theory and practical examples with participants' voices expectation, and feedbacks
October 15 – November 12 1999	Tape recording of the dialogue of the directed hour	Audio-tapes (35 x 1 1-hour semi-structured individual interview) <i>Key interview data</i>	10 initial guiding questions with participants' own voice, values and beliefs
October 15 – November 12 1999	Other data collection from key participants	<i>Class data</i> generated from classroom tasks: 1. Student case study assignments, 2 Summary work-sheets: Teacher's beliefs and approaches 3. Work sheets from Shapiro's humanistic scale 4. Work sheets: Student problems revealed in priority ranking, 5. Module evaluation, diary, field notes	Themes related to affective teaching, teacher pupil interaction, student guidance, case study and so forth
October 1999 – January 2000	Interview peers, past participants and counsellor	Audio tapes with <i>interview data</i>	1. Peer observation and session evaluation

			2. Development of the guidance programme
February-July 2000	Follow-up visits to 5 schools and interviews	Interview 5 school heads: <i>field notes</i> and <i>interview data</i>	School heads' views of current student problems, guidance support, educational reforms
	Interview School Guidance Teachers (SGT)	<i>Field notes</i> <i>Audio-tapes</i>	Ways SGTs handle student problems and school guidance activities
	School based visit and classroom observation	Reports from school-based classroom teaching <i>Observation data</i> of 5 participants: audio tapes/field notes	Use of counselling techniques in classroom teaching
February-August 2000	More interviews with peers, and participants	<i>Interview data</i> from video-tapes, field notes, etc <i>Document data</i> : Hong Kong educational aims and reform, survey reports, humanistic education and so forth	Peers' responses on current education reform catering for affective needs of students, upgrading of the module as part of professional teachers development
October-January 2000	Continued data collection and literature search	Data analysis	Triangulation: classroom observation, Interview, Questionnaire

### Analysis of Interview Data

As the major data was generated from the qualitative interview, a sample of the coding process is elaborated in Table 4.5 below:

Sample Interview Question:

**“After the handover of Hong Kong to China in 1997, what major changes do you think have occurred in the Hong Kong education system?”**

**Table 4.5 Coding of Interview Data**

Theme: Changes

Participant	Sample Dialogue	Sub-category	Category	Core Category
Ms Wai Ms Cheng Ms Yuen Ms Mei,	"I don't think that there is much difference."	None	No change	No change in general
Ms Man Ms Shui Ms Chun	"Also, the curriculum has changed rapidly since 1995. There is more Putonghua, Information Technology... since there is more emphasis on computer usage."	Curriculum in Putonghua, Information Technology	Curriculum change	Educational reform
Ms Wah Ms Kuen Ms Tai Mr. Sze	"Like the Fifty Anniversary Celebration National Day...we celebrated it, raised the national flag, sang the National Anthem, and had talks in school."	The National Day Celebration	Idea of nation, Patriotism	Political change
Ms Yung Ms Man Ms Mui Ms Young	"But from the number of applicants for book allowance... the number has been increased greatly."	Book Allowance	Financial assistance to pupils	Economic change
Ms Chiu	"There are many new migrants in my school"	More students from mainland China	New migrant problem	Social change

On the first question of the guided interview related to "Change" as a theme, all participants would have different responses and therefore give different answers. For instance, some were unaware and said there was little or no change, whilst others anticipated the use of more Putonghua may imply a

change in the curriculum in the education reform. Research findings will be grounded. In view of the above data process strategy, the interpretive work has been integrated to form the understanding, explanation and development of the central theme of this research study. It is hoped that teachers will ultimately be equipped with more flexibility to solve pupil problems if they are more aware of the changes around them. The finding and discussion are elaborated in the following chapters.

## **Ethics**

Ethics in research is associated with right and wrong that a particular group accepts. Before this chapter closes, I would like to elaborate on the ethical issues as ethics is emotionally related and surrounded by hidden meaning (Bogdan and Biklen, 1998). Professional associations have their own codes of ethics that protect their own members. With the ethic approval and ethic protocol listed in Appendix 3 and 3(a), participants in this research study entered the project voluntarily. The researcher sent the invitation letter with the consent notes for participants to sign and return at the commencement of the project in November 1999. Please refer to Appendix 4 and 4(a) for details. Teachers were assured of confidentiality in the study. They were assured that they would not be exposed to risks, their proper names would not be used and their schools would not be identified. All data collected was kept in confidence for a period of time, and to be destroyed upon completion of the project.

## **Conclusion**

This chapter outlined the research methods used in finding answers to the research questions. In understanding teachers' values, beliefs and behaviour during teacher-pupil interaction through the implementation of a school guidance programme, the researcher has used an eclectic, interpretative qualitative research approach involving phenomenology, ethnography and symbolic interaction.

The research participants came from a group of thirty-five teachers who chose

to attend a School Guidance Programme in 1999/2000. The major data came from the One-hour In-depth Interview of each individual participant, Class Worksheets, Case Study Assignments, and Module Evaluation Questionnaire. To collect more information from a wider context, Survey Questionnaire was distributed to 134 participants of other cohorts of the same programme. The government policy reports, media news, books and journal articles formed the supporting documents. To enhance the “trustworthiness” of the data, five participants gave their consent to have follow-up school visits and classroom observation. This enabled the researcher to have the triangulation and observed whether what the teachers said was compatible with how they actually behaved or practiced in the classroom. Action research in this regard, was one of the multi-methods used to help the researcher and participants to do self-reflection especially after attending the programme and classroom observation for improvement of teaching and learning, with the application of different guidance strategies learned.

Although a large amount of information was collected through class observation, field notes, lunchtime chats, photo-taking, video and tape recording that formed the “thickness” and “richness” of the pool of data, only a considerable portion of the data was used as evidence to answer the research questions. The remaining data, other than helping the researcher and participants understand the contextual background and psychological states of the researcher and the researched during the research processes, provided vast areas for further research.

## **Chapter Five**

### **UNDERSTANDING STUDENT PROBLEMS IN SCHOOLS**

#### **Introduction**

Given the contextual background and cultural values of a changing Hong Kong society described in the early chapters, it is necessary to learn from what participant teachers say in respect of their awareness of both the impact of social change in the background and the common problems encountered by students in the foreground. In this and the following chapters, the major research data were drawn from three major research methods described earlier in the methodology chapter: 1) the one-hour “guided interviews” with individual participant teachers, 2) the class work sheets and 3) the survey questionnaires, where teachers reflected on the process of change and the adaptation of their beliefs and classroom management strategies. Supporting evidence was also drawn from the researcher’s visits to selected participants’ schools and interviews with peers and the student guidance workers and school heads.

#### **One-hour Qualitative Interview: Teachers’ Voice**

A voice in this research study is defined as “an expressed wish, choice, opinion”, “the right to express one’s wish, choice, opinion” or “something that is expressed and made known”, extracted from the Webster’s New World Dictionary (Agnes, 1999, p. 1601). The one-hour interviews generated the major data in this research. In order to hear the teachers’ voice in their preparation for change and the ways of handling student problems, I had arranged a one-hour interview with each of the forty participants in the guidance programme under study. Most of them were very open, receptive and co-operative. They gave consent to have the interview session recorded with audio-tapes and interview notes were taken for a few who preferred not to have their dialogue taped. The data were transcribed and the subsequent analysis generated the rich context base of the research study.

As described in the methodology chapter, a list of ten guiding questions was prepared but the participant teachers preferred to be less formal and talked freely about their concerns. Most of them gave a general picture about the evolution of change in the current education reform, the common approaches they used to handle student problems and the difficulties in improving the situation. Some responded to one or two questions in detail, others brought in new issues for discussion. Their life experience was quite vivid, so their responses threw more light on the problems and challenges. The following paragraphs summarise the themes that emerged concerning student problems and the pressures brought by contextual change, which led to the teachers' approaches to handling student problems.

### **Political Changes Reflected by Participant Teachers**

Although Hong Kong has witnessed drastic historical and political change, a small portion of the forty participant teachers themselves did not feel much difference in the education system as a result of the 1997 takeover (as expressed by participant teachers Ms Wai, Ms Cheng, Ms Yuen, Ms Chui and Ms Mei). Typical responses from the teachers were:

“I have not noticed much difference before and after 1997...”(Ms Cheng), or “This is not very obvious in our school.”(Ms Mei)

On the other hand, many teachers expressed their views in the interviews that they were quite sensitive to the political changes that affected their teaching environment. They were aware of the changes in national education, teaching approaches and the curriculum. At the same time, these changes were felt to have placed great pressure on them.

A sense of patriotism, requiring them to show loyalty to the People of Republic China (PRC) was immediately felt as a major change after 1997. This implied that teachers had to learn or teach something about PRC. Apparently, a quarter of them did show that there were changes in explicit political activities, teaching approaches and the curriculum. Eight teachers (Ms Yung, Ms Sui, Mr. Kwok, Ms Wah, Ms Mui, Ms Li, Mr. Sze and Ms Chun) expressed their awareness of

the political changes in schools, such as the increased singing of the national anthem, the national flag raising exercise, using the Hong Kong Special Administrative Region (HKSAR) logo in government publications, the introduction of the weekly discipline theme encouraging “patriotism” into assemblies and the idea of “Nation” and the National Day Celebration. One teacher (Ms Wah) indicated the difference in this way:

“Before the handover, there was no such thing....”

Civic education was given more weight than before (Hui & Yeung, 2001). In primary schools, the syllabus of civic education has permeated a range of subjects (Ms Bo). It could also be integrated into the subject of General Studies (Ms Man). There is also an independent subject called Civic Education (Ms Li). A teacher (Ms Mui) explained that:

“Teaching of students is affected, especially in civic education. As I teach civic education, we may teach them the Basic Law, or more about China. We don’t have any lessons on civic education. However, we do have a civic education group staffed by teachers. We may take two or three classes out of the class teacher periods and give kids worksheets on civic education to do.”

Putonghua, reinforced as a Chinese national language, has caused teachers a lot of stress. As an initial response to changes in Hong Kong related to the education system after 1997, fifteen out of forty teachers indicated in the interview session that Putonghua, as distinct from most people’s mother tongue Cantonese, had been or would be introduced in their primary schools. A number of them revealed that it had been taught earlier and some indicated that it had been extended to upper primary classes only recently. In this regard, teachers had to sit for the Putonghua competency tests if they were to be qualified to teach the subject. Furthermore, although English is no longer the first medium of instruction, teachers worried that they had to sit for the English competency test if they were not majoring in English.

Computer competency was also required. Teachers have been obliged to use information technology in recent years. Similarly to the English teachers, they had to sit for the competency tests in information technology, if they were to be



qualified to teach computer subjects. As a teacher (Ms Yuk) of a government school remarked in 1999:

“Actually, I entered the government school over four years ago. The first year I was in this school, I was forced to learn computer.”

Concerning the teaching approaches, a teacher (Ms Man) said that she could feel changes in the teaching environment. She had to start the up-grading degree course and everything seemed to new to her. It seemed that all the changes had to take place all at once. Furthermore, another teacher (Ms Liu) remarked on these changes with a degree of acceptance of the process:

“Changes... I sensed that in the past few years, not only in my school, but also in the whole place all schools and teachers became busy studying. Everybody was like that.”

### **Economic Changes Observed by Participant Teachers**

After a prolonged period of political stability and economic prosperity, Hong Kong had suffered from the economic crisis of 1997. With the slump of the property market and the ups and downs of the stock market, the difference between the rich and poor became more intensified and the unemployment rate increased rapidly from 2.2% in 1997 to 5% in 1998. During the interview, teachers reported that more children were applying for a textbook allowance (Ms Sui, Mr. Kwok, Ms Man, Ms Mui and Ms Young) and more single-parent families and new migrant families applied for public assistance. However, there were not too many cases of severe financial difficulties in schools in general but a few cases were reported according to location of the school, as is indicated by the teacher Ms Cheng:

“There are lots of parents with problems. Because parents in my school come from lower socio-economic background, not many of them are educated... There were some serious cases.”

As the new migrants were either very rich or very poor, some poor migrant families from China had to depend on government subsidy. A teacher (Ms Cheng) reported that some new migrants were taken care of by their fathers only, because their mothers were still in China. Some of their parents did not

work at all due to family problems and they had to rely on the Combined Social Security Allowance. In general, some teachers interviewed reflected an experience of dealing with children at school whose livelihood and behaviours were affected by declining economic conditions of their families.

### **Social Changes Felt by Teachers**

It is noted from what the teachers said that some teachers did not notice any deterioration in children's economic situation or classroom behaviour. A few teachers were not aware of the social problems that affected children's families and their performance in school, as revealed in the one-hour discussion.

However, most teachers were aware that in this period of rapid social change, family issues and problems did affect children's performance in the classroom and they had to handle them at school. As one participant teacher (Ms Kit) remarked:

“It is actually in the family of the student where the problems appeared first.”

Many teachers expressed an attitude that “troublesome kids came from problem families, particularly those from separated or newly arrived migrant families from China.” The most common family problems arose from “separated family”, “single-parents”, “divorced or separated parents” in the opinion of nearly half of the participants during the individual interviews. The following expresses a view that was shared among some other participants:

“In my school, there are lots of families like these, single-parent families, separated or abnormal families. This is because many kids left the mainland with their fathers to Hong Kong but mothers still live on the mainland. Some of those fathers are really old... they are so old that I thought they were grandfathers. But mothers are really young.”(Ms Cheng)

Other than those deprived families coming across the border from China, there were still problems of divorced, separated parents or extra-marital affairs in early settled families in Hong Kong and some of them could not even manage their basic living. Under those circumstances or unusual phenomena, the

parents could not take good care of their children.

In addition, teachers reported families with both parents working and parents who did not know how to look after their children and there was even an incident of child abuse, a manifestation of family difficulties in the children's lives. Teachers also reported that, sometimes, those parents who needed assistance did not want to meet and discuss with teachers willing to offer help. This added to the teachers' concerns.

In view of the above dialogues, the teachers revealed that they were more concerned about the changing contextual background directly related to their teaching and they were exposed to immense pressure in coping with the changes. They expressed views frankly that shed light on some potential problems that children brought to schools. As a researcher, I have also learned the importance of having teachers prepared to be aware of their students' world and family pressures and of considering how to introduce these skills into their in-service courses.

### **Common Student Problems Identified from the Interview**

During the individual interviews, most teachers indicated that, although there were serious social problems involving children, like gang fights, youth suicide and family violence, as published in the media from time to time, those cases were rarely handled by teachers in daily classroom situations. Some participants (Mr. Kwok, Ms Kwan, Ms Mui and Mr. Sze) stated that there were not many student problems and that they were not too serious in schools. It depended on individual schools, such as the location, prestige and establishment of the school.

As described by several participant teachers, children's misbehaviour in class may be "naughty", "attention seeking", "talking a lot", "not following school disciplines", "under undue peer influence" or "influenced by the media". An example from participant teacher (Ms Sui) was:

“However, they are naughty. They are not used to discipline in the classroom. During class, they may be eating, walking around the classroom, totally out of your control. Even if they studied in kindergarten in our school, they still do not behave well.”

“Emotional and behavioural problems” related to family issues were suggested by eight participants (Ms Wai, Ms King, Ms Lan, Ms Bo, Ms Kit, Ms Tai, Ms Young and Ms Mei). They revealed that some parents spoiled their children, so the children did not listen to teachers in school. Owing to the unstable family conditions, students’ emotions were unstable, too. As a result, there was violence involving fighting, not paying attention in lessons and not handing in homework occurred.

“Poor learning”, such as “missing homework”, “lack of motivation to learn”, “unable to cope with study” are quite widespread in the responses and as many as eight teachers thought that they were related to “the family” (Ms King, Ms Lan, Mr. Lee, Ms Li, Ms Shui, Ms Kit, Ms Young and Ms Mui):

“The main problem is not only handing in homework. And sometimes, there are some students having behavioural problems. The main problem is not handing in home work... maybe it’s because of the family problems... the families do not have time to take care of the students... so sometimes if they have things, they don’t understand, they don’t know how to do...that’s why they don’t do the homework...” (Ms Mui)

In summary, the responses showed that most participant teachers considered that the influence from families was very important but there were no great problems in the classrooms if the teachers could control the children. However, they needed new skills to communicate with parents with problems and help the maladjusted students.

“Adjustment” to primary school life and “cultural adaptation” of new migrants from China, as well as the minority groups such as the Indians, also caused some concerns to teachers:

“I usually teach P.1 and P.6 and P.1 students have fewer problems but their ability to adapt is hard to deal with. I had a few cases for the past few years where they had trouble adapting primary school life from kindergarten.” (Ms Chun)

Some teachers revealed that children from different ethnic origins made cultural adaptation in different ways. The educational levels and types of work that their families engaged in were also influential. Children from families of lower income groups, or lower education levels or whose parents have to work for long hours would not have enough time to take care of their children. Academically, the most difficult adjustment for new migrant students is English, as one teacher (Ms Li) disclosed.

### **Common Student Problems Expressed in the Teachers' Work Sheet**

During the 5-week guidance programme, a class work sheet (Appendix 5) with student problems classified in three major categories, namely A) Study Problems, B) Discipline Problems and C) Emotional Problems was given to the key participating teachers for completion. Responding to the seriousness of the three major categories of student problems on a 5-point scale, 35 participants with valid data ranked Category A: Study problems (928 counts) as the most common features, next was Category C: Emotional problems (887 counts) and Category B: Student Discipline Problems (704 counts) ranked the third. Table 5.1 records the findings of this exercise:

**Table 5.1**

#### **Category A: Study Problems (928 counts)**

Item	Count	Percentage
Inattention	130	14.0%
Lack of Motivation	128	13.8%
Failure to Submit Homework	125	13.5%
Incomplete Homework	120	12.9%
Against New Ideas	100	10.8%
Failure to Carry Stationery	98	10.6%
Copying Others' Homework	96	10.3%
Cheating in Examination	61	6.6%
Absence from Class	56	6.0%
Others	14	1.5%
Total	928	100%

In this category, the majority of the participants considered that inattention (14%), lack of motivation (13.8%) and failure to submit homework (13.5%) were the most frequent problems among their primary school pupils.

**Category B: Discipline Problems (792 counts)**

Item	Count	Percentage
Rude Behaviour	103	13.0%
Fighting	81	10.2%
Damaging Property	79	10.0%
Bullying	75	9.5%
Foul Language	73	9.2%
Bodily Assault	70	8.8%
Theft	64	8.1%
Intimidation	57	7.2%
Absence from School	53	6.7%
Gambling	49	6.2%
Triad Society	44	5.6%
Criminal Offence	44	5.6%
Others	0	0%
Total	792	100%

In this category, most participants remarked that being rude (13%), fighting (10.2%) and damaging property (10%) were the most frequently observed discipline problems in class. Furthermore, bullying other school mates, speaking foul language, bodily assault, theft, intimidation, absence from school, gambling, joining triad society or following the “big brother” to commit a criminal offence were not uncommon in primary schools, as indicated by the participant teachers’ responses.

### **Category C: Emotional Problems (887 counts)**

Item	Count	Percentage
Lack of Confidence	130	14.7%
Sense of Failure	116	13.1%
Hyper-activity	116	13.1%
Attention Seeking	113	12.7%
Rebellious	109	12.3%
Isolation	93	10.5%
Loneliness	89	10.0%
Depression	72	8.1%
Suicidal Tendency	49	5.5%
Others	0	0%
Total	887	100%

In this category, the majority of participants considered that the lack of confidence (14.7%), sense of failure (13.1%) and hyper-activity (13.1%) characterised most of their pupils. It is interesting to note that emotional problems are more serious than discipline problems as in Category B.

The above analysis reinforced the general impressions of what the participants described in the one-hour interview. Pupils' study problems, personal and emotional problems as well as the discipline problems were still the major issues teachers had to handle daily in the classroom.

### **Common Student Problems Expressed in the Survey Questionnaire from Different Cohorts**

Further data to support the identification of student classroom behaviour came from different cohorts of teachers responding to the survey questionnaire. Table 5.2 showing students' major problems was extracted as below:

**Table 5.2 Main Student Problems**

Main Student Problems	Failure to Submit Homework	Lateness to Class	Behavioural Problems	Emotional Problems	Others
No. Chosen	95	17	113	53	5

The total number of respondents was 134 in-service teachers and respondents were able to select more than one answer. On the issue of the main student problems encountered, 113 respondent teachers considered that “behavioural problems” were one of the most serious student problems and 95 teachers agreed that “failure to submit homework” was the next most serious student problem, followed by “emotional problems” and “lateness to class” (Please refer to details of the survey distribution in the methodology chapter).

### **Discussion of Teachers’ Concerns**

In view of the above participant teachers’ responses, student problems could be related to study, emotions and disciplines. The teachers expressed the need to have direct and specific answers to handle real-life classroom discipline problems and that they were in need of a staff development or school guidance programme. Most teachers were concerned about pupils’ inattention and lack of motivation to learn, leading to their failure to submit homework. They had tight syllabuses to follow, with not enough time to follow through or chase after students for submission of homework most of the time. Some teachers indicated the lack of skills in settling students’ emotional disturbances characterised by the lack of confidence and low self-esteem, a strong sense of failure, hyperactivity or a rebellious character. Students had undoubtedly developed internalised problems such as shyness, fear, anxiety, depression and the feeling of hopelessness and helplessness. When the internalised problems were externalised, they became classroom discipline problems, such as being impolite to teachers, fighting, damaging property, bullying, speaking foul language, theft and absence from school. Teachers also suggested that



drug abuse cases among youths were on the increase, though this was less common among primary pupils in Hong Kong. Furthermore, teachers found that rudeness and fighting were common student discipline problems.

In the discussion session on solving student problems, teachers felt that it was not a simple task. They realised the importance of developing a positive attitude about themselves, understanding the characteristics of children, using interesting teaching materials and strategies and establishing a more receptive classroom atmosphere as recommended in the guidance programme. However, they found the large class size, the tightness of the syllabus and the examination-oriented system the biggest obstacles to getting a break-through. They needed the support of the parents, school and community and most importantly the education policy makers if they were to put the ideology into practice. Pupil problems could be widespread and related to various personal, family, school and societal factors (Meares, 1995).

The widespread causes of these problems as identified by the group of primary school participant teachers could be summarised as follows. Firstly, there were new migrant children and maladjusted low achievers in class. Individual difference in children could arise from biological inheritance and psychological innate or learned patterns that affected human behaviour and characteristics. Secondly, the family factor, as repeatedly stressed by the participant teachers, played a key role that affects the livelihood of a child at home and the child's study in school. The changing family patterns and associated problems such as the trends from large to smaller nuclear family, working parents, single parents and broken families, owing to reasons such as urbanisation, industrialisation, decolonisation and migration have already been identified and analysed in the previous chapters. Thirdly, the school factors, including educational policy, the examination-oriented system, the lack of interesting curriculum and so forth, as reflected by some teachers, deterred some children, particularly the low achievers from active learning. Fourthly, the societal and cultural factors also affected child learning. For instance, a participant teacher revealed that her pupils' aggressive behaviour in class originated from imitation of television programmes. Some mass media that promote material gains

rather than the moral and ethical values of society often set poor examples for children, particularly those without parental guidance. As the participant teachers, being frontline workers, reflected genuinely what really happened in the daily classroom, they responded spontaneously and gave a clear picture of what has happened to the children and Hong Kong society and indicated that the solution to problems needed the concerted efforts of all parties concerned (McCord, 1991; Ng, 1980).

## **Conclusion**

To sum up, teachers expressed the view that although violence and serious crime were rare or isolated in primary schools, it was disturbing to find trivial but disruptive behaviours that posed frequent and perplexing problems in the classroom. Children's disciplinary problems continued to be one of the most serious problems that bothered teachers in primary schools. Teachers felt the need for the support and co-operation of all parties concerned. As more disruptive pupil behaviours were reported in schools, teachers found pupils more difficult to handle and the school guidance programme offered was seen as providing them a source of classroom management skills to help them handle the situations which arose. What the most effective methods may be is an area deserving further research (Reed, 1989; Hall, 1988).

Gybers, in a "whole school approach" seminar at the University of Hong Kong in 2000, elaborated one of the solutions to the problems discussed. He found that youths in Hong Kong and around the world were facing many challenges and problems. They included "academic achievement, family problems, peer relationships and peer pressure, stress, self identity, the future, low self-esteem and being accepted" (Gybers, 2000, p.5). These genuine problems and challenges affect young people's academic, personal, social and career development and they demand the support of all parties concerned. In the education process, teachers play an important role in communicating with pupils effectively, not only in solving the immediate classroom problems but also in facilitating their personal growth and development ultimately.

The voices of the participant teachers revealed their worries about handling student problems and maintaining classroom discipline. Through the one-hour interview, class-work questionnaire and survey questionnaire, their voices were sought and indeed heard. Following this process, it is time to examine how teachers handle student problems and what their values, beliefs and approaches are during teacher pupil interaction, as the main theme of the next chapter.

## **Chapter Six**

### **TEACHERS' BELIEFS AND APPROACHES IN SOLVING STUDENT PROBLEMS**

#### **Introduction**

Having discussed the contextual changes and associated student problems in the last chapter, the researcher focuses on the teachers' understanding of the problems and their classroom behaviours in the face of the problems they encounter. As teachers' own values and psychological orientations directly affect pupil learning, it is essential for them to understand their own values and beliefs through their reflection in this stage of their professional teacher development. This section investigates and observes the connection between teachers' theoretical understanding of how pupils learn and what behaviours they would use in the classroom.

#### **Teachers' Reflections on their Practice**

As the central research question is to understand teachers' beliefs about human values and their approaches during teacher-pupil interaction, the series of research methods to show how the participant teachers interacted with pupils included:

- (1) The "three beliefs and approaches to solving student problems" concept, with responses on the summary worksheet from 40 key participants;
- (2) A Survey Questionnaire embedded with questions on "teacher beliefs and approaches" during teacher pupil interaction from 134 teachers of 7 groups of the same academic years, who chose to attend the guidance programme;

- (3) One-hour qualitative interview and discussion with 40 key participants commenting on the three main categories of teacher beliefs about human values and approaches to solving discipline problems during teacher pupil interaction;
- (4) Case study analysis on how key participant teachers handled their own pupil problems in accordance with their beliefs and approaches written in their assignments; and
- (5) Classroom observation on how the three key participants practised their beliefs and approaches in their classrooms.

### **“Three Beliefs and Approaches to Solving Student Problems”**

In establishing the theoretical framework of this research in Chapter Three, it was hypothesised that “a teacher’s beliefs about how children learn is related to his or her approaches used during teacher-pupil interaction”. For instance, if a teacher considers that a child is motivated to learn by external factors based on stimulus and response, he or she would use the teacher-centred or reward and punishment approach to handle the situation. On the other hand, if a teacher believes that a child has his or her own inner potential to learn, he or she would use the pupil-centred or relationship-listening approach. Thirdly, if a teacher believes that a child is affected by both the internal nature and external environment, he would use an interactive or confronting and contractual approach.

In this connection, the “Three beliefs and approaches to solving student problems” concept based on human values and beliefs in solving student problems has been developed. Before the participants could identify their own teaching strategies, a “Beliefs about Discipline Inventory” designed by Wolfgang and Glickman (1995) was used for class discussion. It consisted of “Relationship-Listening”, “Confronting-Contracting”, or “Rules, Reward and Punishment” strategies with forced situations. For example, in a question of the Inventory shown, a respondent teacher had

to choose between a) and b) below:

- a) Because students' thinking is limited, rules need to be established for them by mature adults.
- b) Each student's emotional needs must be taken into consideration, rather than having some pre-established rule imposed on all.

(Note: Adapted from Wolfgang, C. H. & Glickman, C. D. (1995) (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.). *Solving discipline problems, Strategies for classroom teachers*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, p. 9-11.)

The choice of a) belongs to the Rules, Rewards and Punishment group whereas b) belongs to the Relationship-Listening group. The more responses the teacher has relating to one group, the more he or she is inclined to use that strategy. (Please refer to Wolfgang and Glickman, 1995, p. 9-12 for details of the 12 questions; the teachers were free to complete the exercise on their own as background study.)

Having understood Wolfgang's grouping and how the three teachers' beliefs and approaches were interpreted in the teaching process, participants had a thorough discussion about self-theories, respect for human values, individual and collective values of East and West, the authoritative roles of teachers and their beliefs about human nature. Instead of using forced situations, the participant teachers could then show their preference in the "Three beliefs and approaches to solving student problems" in the summary work sheet in Appendix 6.

The results showed that 15 participants or 43% of them were using the directive teacher-centred approach, or rules, reward and punishment strategy to solving disciplinary problems. Nine participants or 26% were found to be in interactive category, that is using the confronting and contracting approach and 11 participants or 31% were found to be in the non-directive pupil-centred category, where the relationship and listening approach was applied.

Although the responses came from only one group of teachers who were the key participants, the results generated direct and genuine reflection upon the teachers' behaviour and approaches in teacher-pupil interaction after thorough discussion in class. Hence, these results are summarised in Table 6.1.

**Table 6.1**  
**“Three Beliefs and Approaches to Solving Student Problems”**

<b>Category</b>	<b>Three Beliefs and Approaches</b>	<b>Total Counts</b> (Please choose one category below)#	<b>Percentage</b>
(1)	Pupil-centred Approach (Relationship-listening*)	11	31%
(2)	Interactive Approach (Contracting-confronting*)	9	26%
(3)	Teacher-centred Approach (Rules-reward and Punishment*)	15	43%
	Total	35	100%

\*Grouped by Wolfgang and Glickman (1995)

#Note: 35 participants responded.

This summary table has provided some points for discussion. The teacher-centred or behavioural approach was the most preferred type of strategy that the primary school teachers used. Whether a teacher's belief is congruent with his or her approach and classroom behaviour opens areas for discussion in the survey questionnaire and in the later part of this chapter.

### **A Survey Questionnaire on Teacher Beliefs and Approaches**

Another set of data to identify teacher beliefs came from a survey questionnaire, distributed to include 134 participants who chose to attend the guidance programme in the same academic year (see the research methodology chapter on survey approach).

Participants were directly asked about their “beliefs” in human values. The first key question was: “What are your beliefs in teacher-pupil

interaction?" Participants were allowed to make more than one choice. As the results illustrate in Table 6.2 below, (1) 50% respondents believed that "people are affected by the external environment", (2) 52.3% respondents believed that "people have internal and external interaction" and (3) 12.7% respondents believed that "people are affected by inner potentials". In other words, more teachers believed in the influence of internal and external factors, rather than merely the internal potential of a child, during the process of learning.

**Table 6.2**  
**Beliefs in Teacher-Pupil Interaction**

Beliefs/ Theories/ Models	People are affected by external environment	People have internal and external interaction	People are affected by inner potential	Total counts
No. Chosen	67	70	17	154
%	50.0	52.3	12.7	134

Note: 134 participants responded.

However, when the participant teachers were asked to choose one of the three approaches, the ranking was different. The second key question was: "When you handle student problems, what are your common methods?" As illustrated in Table 6.3 below, 55.2% of the respondents cited "rules, reward and punishment" was one of the common methods for handling student problems. About 28.4% of the participants selected the "confronting-contracting method" and 45.5% of them chose the "relationship-listening approach" when communicating with pupils.

**Table 6.3**  
**Common Methods and Approaches**

Common Method/ Approach	Rules, Rewards and Punishment (RRP)	Confronting- Contracting (CC)	Relationshi p-Listening (RL)	Total no. of Counts
No. Chosen	74	38	61	173
%	55.2	28.4	45.5	134

Note: 134 participants responded.



## Interim Results and Discussion

In view of the results obtained from the “Three beliefs and approaches to solving student problems” exercise and the Survey Questionnaire in understanding teachers’ beliefs and approaches during teacher pupil interaction, the following points were noted:

- (1) In both of the key participant groups (35 teachers) and the mass groups (134 teachers), almost half or around 43% of the participant teachers chose teacher-centred or behavioural approach to handle pupil problems.
- (2) In both groups, more than one-third of them (31% and 45.5% respectively) took the pupil-centred or relationship-listening approach in communicating with pupils. Only one-quarter of them (26% and 28.4% respectively) chose the interactive or confronting-contracting approach. In both cases, the choices of approaches were quite similar.
- (3) In the teachers’ belief and approaches exercise, it is assumed that the approaches are congruent with their beliefs. In reality, their choice of approach may or may not be congruent with their beliefs.
- (4) In the Survey Questionnaire, when teachers were asked about their beliefs in human nature directly, more than half of them or 52.3% believed that people were affected by both external and internal factors. Half of them or 50% believed that people were affected by external factors, whereas only 11% believed that people had inner potential to learn and grow. It is interesting to note that the results were in contrast with the approaches they had given in the same questionnaire.
- (5) In view of the above responses from the participant teachers, it is found that teacher behaviours were either compatible or incompatible

with certain beliefs or psychological theories. For instance, the participant teacher who chose a behavioural strategy with pupils may or may not be aware of the underlying psychological belief and consequence of that choice. The “Three teachers’ beliefs and approaches” exercise and Survey Questions have just opened two “windows” to show how the teachers initially responded to the given questions and situations as initial points of discussion.

- (6) To understand more fully what the teachers believe and how they interact with pupils, it is necessary to hear what the teachers say as frontline workers in the “One-hour qualitative interview” as the focus of this research elaborated in the second part of this chapter. It opens up vast areas of teachers’ concerns and development for analysis and further discussion.

### **One-hour Qualitative Interview**

The third and most important set of data to understand teachers’ values, beliefs and approaches in teacher pupil interaction came from the one-hour qualitative interview with the 40 key participants. The name-list of the participants introduced in the methodology chapter could be found in Appendix 1. Data came from the teachers’ self-reports and their “voices” were analysed. A sample index generated from the participants’ responses to the guiding questions was listed in Appendix 7.

During the one-hour discussion, one of the key questions (already listed in the methodology chapter) related to teacher-pupil interaction was:

**“In teacher-pupil interaction, do you think it is more important for students to learn to obey rules and regulation than to make their own decisions? Why? Consider this especially in a primary school setting.”**

- (1) Directive, teacher-centred, rules and rewards and punishment approach

Most participants considered that rules and regulations were important. Some of them thought that young pupils should not be given too much freedom or else it would be difficult for the teachers. Some details are given as follows (Ms Yung, Ms Man, Ms Wah, Ms Yuk, Ms Li, Ms Shui, Ms Kuen and Mr. Sze):

“Of course. I need to talk about these rules first... I am not their class teacher but I tell them what my expectations are. I would ask them under what situation they would learn better.” (Ms Yung)

“I think they [rules] are important. If student-centred or client-centred are really used or if they [students] are given the right to do whatever they like, they would really do whatever they like. I think being nice is one thing. But when I enter into a classroom I have a set of rules. They are my rules or rules set by students and me together. We have an agreement together. If you step over certain limit, you will be punished or I will be very firm but there must be a bottom line.” (Ms Man)

“Our school puts great emphasis on discipline first, followed by teaching. So at the beginning of P.1, I will teach them a set of classroom rules.” (Ms Wah)

“Human rights or self-esteem? I think that depends on the age of students... and the [educational] level...I think students shouldn't be given too many [human rights or self-esteem]...Yes, too hard. It's hard for teachers... sometimes teachers have to say things carefully. They are not allowed to punish students physically. This poses great pressures on teachers.” (Mr. Sze)

Classroom rules were particularly important to those holding such functional posts as disciplinary master or mistress or who were members of the discipline team, when they had to handle many student problems. Some considered that different students should be treated or punished differently because they behaved differently. At the same time, tolerance and justice were of equal importance. The following is a common example.

“Maybe because I'm one of the members of the disciplinary team, so I think it's necessary for students to follow [the rules]... So when students see us when we are patrolling, they know that we are very just and thus respect us... I don't think that [punishment] can be

applied to all. Different students have to be treated differently.” (Ms Yuk)

To a number of teachers, punishment should go with care and encouragement and pupils must listen to teachers first and good relationships must be developed, if teachers want pupils to listen to them. For young children, they must listen to teachers, but for older children, they would be given more freedom to express themselves. Authority, respect and good relationships could go hand in hand and this is a good indicator of the mixed culture of the East and West described in the contextual chapter (Ms Li, Ms Shui and Ms Kuen).

“I think care and punishment should be used together. But care and encouragement should be used more than negative methods, such as not allowing students to do certain things... Talking about primary students... I think primary students cannot be given too much power, because they cannot control themselves very well.” (Ms Li)

“They [students] will regard you as the authority and respect you...the kids... Oh, sometimes we do that (i.e. the teacher told the students that the teacher won’t punish the students if they remember to hand in all their homework tomorrow). That is you must have a very good relationship with the students. Then they will listen to you.” (Ms Kuen)

## (2) Interactive, Teacher-student, Confronting and Contracting Approach

In response to the same research question above, some participant teachers did introduce the concept of an interactive approach by assuming that pupils knew they had a responsibility to do things on time and were capable of distinguishing between “right and wrong”. So the teachers would not scold the pupils directly, they would ask the pupils to think what happened if everyone in class was like that (Ms Yuk and Ms Tai).

“...But I have to say that although arriving at school and handing in homework on time are what a student should do, if the students really forget their responsibility, say only once a week, I won’t scold them seriously.” (Ms Yuk)

“Actually even though they are only in Primary 1 or 2, they know what is right and what is wrong. But if we tell them directly not to do this or that, they are reluctant. They don’t like the way you tell them... Yes. It’s very difficult to scold the students, punish them or beat them. But now I use a method, which is quite good. I ask the students to distinguish (good or bad). (I’ll ask) “When you want to do one thing, what do you think about the result if the whole class does the thing as you do?”... I don’t scold the students directly.” (Ms Tai)

### (3) Non-directive, student-centred and relationship listening approach

During the one-hour interview, the researcher did not ask the participant teachers whether a non-directive or student-centred approach was important directly, but instead, they were asked about the pupils’ needs and the methods they used to communicate with pupils from classroom and beyond as a relationship listening approach during teacher-pupil interaction. The interview question on children’s need was:

**“In growing and learning children, what do you think their greatest needs are?”**

“Care” was the major concern of the following participant teachers: Ms Cheng, Ms King, Ms Yuen, Ms Bo, Ms Yuk, Ms Li and Ms Mei.

“I think the most important thing is that there should be people around, who can let the students feel that there is someone caring about them, standing by their side, thinking for them.” (Ms King)

“I think caring [is the most important].” (Ms Yuk)

“Caring, encouragement, patience and love. Make the students know their responsibilities to learn from the bottoms of their hearts. Basically, the most important thing is the psychological side.” (Ms Li)

“Actually, I think they need to have care from others most. As I said before, students have family problems... no one takes care of them, no one talks to them. But if you talk to them, know more about their inner worlds, they will think that you are talking to them, but not

scolding them, you are not being mean to them...” (Ms Mei)

Other related issues considered as important that were raised by the participant teachers included “self-esteem”, “sense of achievement”, “morality”, “freedom of movement”, “improving English”, “parental support” and so forth.

The second question related to pupil-centred or relationship listening approach asked by the researcher was:

**“What methods do you use to communicate with students?”**

Some participant teachers liked using “friendly methods” and “having fun” as a way of communicating with pupils. They talked to students “individually” and showed “genuine care” for them (Mr. Lee, Ms Chiu, Ms Yung, Ms Man and Ms Kuen).

“Then I think it’s better to use friendly methods... I have begun to do that [to communicate with students during recesses] since last year. Recess... especially within the period when the school term started...the first two weeks... Also, every month I would give birthday presents to students. At Christmas, I gave them cards”. (Ms Chiu)

“They [Students] like you to care for them very much...but it must not be fake caring. Some teachers have good techniques to sooth the students...They will discover that. Because now some [graduated] students visit me, and they talk about teachers at that time, ‘Oh! He is very fake!’ ” (Ms Man)

“...On the other hand, we have a board entitled ‘Voice from the Heart’ in the classroom where they can write or post anything they want to say.” (Ms Kuen)

Most participant teachers expressed the feeling that they would like to “communicate with pupils during break or recess” while on duty (i.e. responses from Ms Wai, Ms Cheng, Ms King, Ms Yuen, Ms Chiu, Ms Pui, Ms Mui, Ms Li, Ms Shui, Ms Kuen, Ms Tai and Ms Mei). There was neither

enough time nor space to communicate with the students. Therefore, the class period, recess, before or after class or having lunch with them were common times to see students. Teachers usually communicated with students informally in the playground, the staff room, the corridor, the hallway or one of the school function rooms. Teachers also shared information between colleagues about student problems. Time constraints were a common limitation cited by teachers. Some examples are quoted below:

“When I am on duty on the playground, the students come to talk to me automatically... Yes. Yes. [I think it’s easier to talk to students at recess] They [students] think that you are concerned about them. You are interested in them. Then, they will talk to you.” (Ms Li)

“I don’t have any [functional] activities because I am the class teacher. We have a class teacher’s session...25 minutes... Before class begins, besides doing administrative things, I may talk to them. Actually, they like talking to me individually...” (Ms Wai)

“There is usually no time even talking to them (students)... Yes. (My school is a whole day school.) Mainly I talk to them during class. When I’m teaching something interesting, I talk to them. Usually when there is something interesting in the curriculum, I discuss and ask them questions about themselves.” (Ms Kit)

“Actually, it’s very busy especially this year. There is too much miscellaneous stuff that makes you unable to complete them. (We)...sometimes have to extract time from some lessons for doing some administrative work. So in comparison the talking time with them (students), not for some individual talks... even (I) want to deliver some idea during lesson, the time is little. So I may manage this way. (I)... speak more in the beginning of the semester. (I)... may focus on teaching in the middle of the semester.” (Ms Young)

The government’s whole day school policy has helped to improve the problem of “time” and communication with pupils in a way, as some participant teachers (Ms Pui and Ms Shui) explained:

“Sometimes during the break, I am busy. Now my school is a whole day school, so it’s better... In terms of time available...whole day [school] is harder, but there is more time for students. They would enjoy the lunchtime available. Some told me that they love having

the lunchtime, because they could talk to me. There are also more interactions between students. However, it takes more time.” (Ms Cheng)

## **Case Study Analysis**

In order to understand more fully how the participant teachers dealt with pupil problems, they were requested to recall an actual case they handled in the past and discuss the methods and approaches they used in accordance with their beliefs and approaches as one of the written assignments set below:

### **Assignment Question (Case Study)**

Select a case you have handled in the past, discuss and analyse the approach you have used according to the counselling models you have learned in the module.

An analysis of the participant teachers’ case studies revealed that most of them have used all three approaches in handling student problems. Close examination from 35 participant teachers’ case study assignments did show that most of them, 32 teachers or around 91%, have used relationship listening methods to communicate with their pupils at the beginning of the dialogue when handling the disciplinary problems. Nevertheless, 31 participants or around 86% of them have used the teacher-centred or rules, reward and punishment approach as their major method. Pupils were often rewarded when they fulfilled certain required tasks. In the guidance process, 22 participants, or 63% have also used the interactive, confronting and contracting methods, especially when students were encouraged to take responsibility and make plans to improve.

Apparently, participants have used the eclectic approach to handle



student problems in their assignment exercises. In the case studies, most participant teachers have used the pupil-centred approach, so as to communicate with pupils. Details of the teachers' beliefs about human values and humanistic education and the approaches they used in handling student problems will be further discussed in the next chapter.

To give a more comprehensive view of how they interacted with pupils, the researcher chose at random four case studies for elaboration. In Case Study One, the participant teacher (Ms Pui) virtually used all three approaches. She applied rules, reward and punishment approach by telling the problem child his incorrect behaviour, making some agreement with him to follow classroom discipline and arranging model students to sit next to him. Then, the teacher also used relationship listening approach by meeting the student and discussing with him his problems and asking his father not to use corporal punishment and foul language. The teacher also used the confronting and contracting approach by asking the pupil to take the initiative to work out a plan to correct his own misbehaviour and ensuring that he would be punished openly.

Similarly in Case Study Two, the participant teacher (Ms Bo) was able to use all three approaches. She ignored the problem child if he misbehaved but praised him if he behaved well. The teacher also cared about the pupil's development and arranged a meeting with his mother to discuss his problems. A contract was made, so that he could not go to the football training session if he was not doing well.

In Case Study Three, the participant teacher (Mr. Lee) designed some classroom rules and extra-curricular activities for the pupil but he also used a student-centred approach to understand and accept the pupil and encouraged his mother not to use punishment, but to improve her communication with her child.

In Case Study Four, the participant teacher (Ms Sung) used punishment to detain the pupil at recess in the first instance. Then, she made a contract with him by giving him a small gift if he could hand in homework on time. The participant teacher also used the relationship-listening approach to talk to the pupil at recess and phoned his parents and discussed with them their child's problems.

In summary of the above four cases, most participant teachers have used teacher-centred or behavioural approach including punishment, reward and encouragement to handle pupil problems. Positive reinforcement was a common strategy, such as making agreements with pupils that a reward would be given if they performed well. During teacher-pupil interaction or to engage the dialogue, most participant teachers have also used pupil-centred or relationship and listening approaches to communicate with pupils at recess or contacted their parents to discuss their children's problem. The interactive or confronting contracting approach, to most teachers, started with establishing friendly relationships with pupils and a contract or agreement was made so that the pupil would make a plan and agree to perform well. A few teachers challenged pupils directly by giving them the responsibilities, to differentiate right from wrong and to behave well of their own accord. Given the constraints of time and resource support, teachers found it a challenge to use the confronting and contracting strategy. To sum up, most teachers were able to use alternative approaches to handle student problems encountered.

### **Classroom Observation on Directive and Non-directive Approaches**

This section attempted to respond to the third major research question and find out what the participating teachers actually do in practice during teacher-pupil interaction with the researcher's school visits and classroom observation of their practice. To support what they said and what they

wrote, the researcher paid visits to five participants who gave their consent; twice (for consistency) to three participants and once to two more participants at their schools, and observed how they actually practised in the classroom.

Participant teacher Mr. Lee was visited twice at his school. The first visit was on 6 January 2000, while he taught Class 4B Mathematics. The primary school was a standard government subsidised one. The school campus was situated in a quiet residential environment. Having met the school headmistress, the researcher visited the classroom where the participant teacher was in charge of the class. The teacher's desk was in the front and the pupils' desks were all arranged in rows. The classroom was neat and tidy. All pupils (around forty) in uniform stood up and greeted the teacher and the researcher when they entered the classroom. I was led to sit at the back of the classroom as a silent observer. Although the researcher's presence caused some anxiety to both teacher and pupils at the beginning of the class, they soon settled down and listened carefully to the teacher. He was kind, friendly but firm when he talked to his pupils. The children were quiet and responsive when the teacher asked questions. The researcher attempted to observe the teaching strategies that he employed after the completion of the guidance programme. An extract of the participant teacher's classroom dialogue and behaviour is listed in Appendix 8. This gave a more comprehensive picture and visual evidence to support the previous data and provided the "trustworthiness" of situations in the triangulation processes. Some of the dialogues extracted for the purpose of analysis and identification of the teaching approaches were as follows:

- (1) The directive Approach was used in the participant teacher's dialogue quite frequently. Pupils were directly pointed out the "right" and "wrong", or "correct" and "incorrect ". Common examples were:

"Correct!"

"That's not correct."

"This question is wrong."

"This question is right. This question is right."

“The solution is correct. But the calculation is wrong.”

The teacher also had absolute power and knowledge to determine what was right and wrong as follows:

“I say it’s wrong before looking at it.”

“I say it’s wrong without looking at the figure.”

“Impossible.”

“Nope! It’s impossible.”

“Speak louder. Speak louder.”

Owing to the shortage of time, pupils were urged to answer quickly.

“Come on!”

“Hurry up for those not finished.”

“Wow! Hurray!”

The teacher was also judgmental and sometimes gave negative comments.

“That’s great! The handwriting is good.”

“The handwriting is terrible.”

“I said he could write well. Very pretty and very fit.”

“I think there are many people like that. Don’t laugh. (I) do remind you this.”

“All correct! This question is the best.”

(2) The Interactive Approach was used but less frequently than the Directive Approach in the classroom. The teacher invited pupils to think. Examples were:

“I’ll let you think about it.”

“Let’s see if it’s so.”

“Let’s work it out together.”

“How do we omit it?”

“What should I do next?”

“Let someone tell me how to do it now.”

“We’ll work out (the solutions) altogether.”

Pupils were also given the opportunities to think and solve the problem:

“I’ll let you think yourself.”

“You try to think about whether (the solution) will be smaller if multiplied by 24.”

“What is the first step you have to do?”

“I’ll give you a chance.”

“What is their difference?”

“You tell me. Wong Man Kai (name changed). What did you say just before?”

Sometimes, close-ended questions were asked.

“Is it correct? Is it suitable?”

“Can it be changed to A plus 4?”

“Is it equal to this formula if writing is in reverse order?”

“Impossible? Is it really not possible?”

“Other than that, a lot of “what” questions were raised.

“What is it left after minus B and plus B?”

“What should I do after working out this step? Lai Ka-wing. Let me ask you again.”

“What’s up?”

“What is it?”

“What is left?”

(3) The non-directive Approach was also used by the participant teacher.

Pupils were usually praised as “good”, “smart” or “quick”. This approach could be identified in the following remarks:

“Good!”

“You can realize so quickly.”

“Tang Shui Ning (name changed) was very smart then.”

“I presume Chan Kai Man (name changed) was so smart that she knew how to do it. But she was quite smart that she could calculate a little. She knew how to calculate before I taught (you guys).”

“You have all guessed!”

“Just leave it. A bit irregular. Err. Give him 80 marks. (He) can answer correctly but writes a bit wrong there.”

“100 marks.”

To sum up from the above classroom observations regarding the teacher’s use of the three approaches, the directive, interactive and non-directive approaches, evidence showed that the teacher has used mostly the directive approach or teacher-centred approach. It implied that the teacher was competent, had absolute knowledge and power to determine what was right and wrong and so he gave and expected direct answers. The interactive approach was considerable where pupils were asked to think together with the teacher. They were also given opportunities to think for themselves and solve the problems. Many of the “what” questions were posed for children to think about and some closed questions were used to guide pupil thinking. Finally, data showed that the

non-directive approach was rarely used. A number of positive remarks, such as “good”, “ smart”, “quickly”, “100 marks” and so forth were used. This was probably owing to the constraint of time and rarely would the teacher give pupils opportunities to raise questions or express themselves freely.

The second session was 3D Chinese language class observed on 15 June 2000 six months later. The classroom phenomenon was quite similar in terms of the seating arrangement and classroom culture, but there were more teacher-pupil interaction related to the Chinese language subject contents. For the remaining four participant teachers being observed in their own classroom situations, there were different interactive strategies but, basically, the direct question-and-answer method or teacher-centred approach was the most common type of strategy teachers employed.

As action researchers focus on the improvement of teaching and learning, the researcher and the participant teachers had thorough discussion of the teaching strategies immediately after class observation. The issue of the difficulties of using more pupil-centred teaching in class after the completion of the programme was discussed. The participant teachers also wrote the self-reflection reports afterwards. Further details will be examined in later chapters.

## **Results, Discussion and Conclusion**

This chapter has addressed the two central research questions of the thesis: 1) to understand from what the participant teachers “say” about their beliefs in human values and the approaches they use when they interact with pupils and handle disciplinary problems; and 2) to find out how the participating teachers actually “practise” during teacher-pupil interactions through school visits and classroom observation.

In responding to the first question, the researcher identified teacher-pupil interaction by means of class exercises to distinguish three teacher-pupil

interactive strategies; a survey questionnaire to differentiate teachers' beliefs and approaches; a one-hour discussion to hear what they say about how they interact with pupils and a written assignment to understand how they solve pupil problems. Attempts were made to discover how teachers understood the principles of human values and whether what they believed was transferred into classroom work sheets. The interview was able to probe for more nuances. Complicated responses revealed that teachers used different approaches for different children, rather than one approach for all. In answering the second research question and supporting what teachers said in the first question, the researchers actually visited the participant teachers to see what they actually did in practice. Only a few of them were willing to give their consent to the researcher, owing to various personal reasons, time constraints and the school culture. After all, most participants indicated their interest in responding to questionnaires rather than to have their classes observed.

Although each of the above research methods used was unique and phenomenological, the results were interesting and showed the teachers' own pattern of teaching approaches. From the "Three beliefs and approaches to solving student problems" summary worksheet and the Survey Questionnaire, it is found that nearly half of the participants have chosen the teacher-centred or behavioural approach. This was also congruent with participants' voice or dialogues in the one-hour interview and the researcher's classroom observations that were in favour of the teacher-centred approach.

The second popular approach chosen by the participants was pupil-centred approach, with 31 % and 45.5 % responses recorded on the beliefs and approaches summary worksheet and survey questionnaire respectively. From the class worksheets and one-hour interview, teachers revealed much care and concern about the pupils. Almost all teachers reported the use of relationship-listening methods in communicating with their pupils in the case study assignments submitted by the end of the

programme. It showed that they had acquired different strategies to interact with pupils when classroom problems arose. Some teachers revealed that they could not use the pupil-centred approach sometimes, owing to the time constraints in school.

About one quarter of the participants chose the interactive approach, as 26% and 28.4% responses were recorded on the beliefs and approaches summary worksheet and survey questionnaire respectively. From the class assignments and the researcher's class observation visits, participant teachers showed that they had used the interactive approach considerably.

In understanding teachers' beliefs and approaches from the above research outcome, the researcher finds that the teachers' beliefs about human nature may or may not be compatible with what they practise. It was presumed in the beliefs and approaches summary work sheets that the teachers practised what they believed. For instance, the teacher who believed in a person's inner potential would choose the pupil-centred approach. However, it is interesting to note that although 45.5% chose the relationship-listening method, only 12.7% of the participants believed in the child's inner potential to improve, when they responded separately in the survey questionnaire. Even the same teacher who said she would use a pupil-centre approach in the one-hour interview and class assignment would reflect that she could not do so in a large class. In practice, it really depends on each individual teacher and the particular situation she or he has to handle. In view of the above, the relationship between teachers' beliefs and approaches could be summarised into the following four categories:

- 1) Beliefs and approaches are in harmony: Teachers practise what they believe.
- 2) Teachers do not practise what they believe: For instance, teachers believe in care and concern about pupils but they have to punish the pupils.
- 3) Teachers practise what they do not believe: An example is that



teachers do not believe in children's inner potential to learn but they still care for them.

- 4) Teachers practise whatever they think as appropriate, without thinking of the beliefs and approaches.

While the teachers' behaviour and approaches were observable, the results in the data gathered showed that they inclined to take a teacher-centred approach. Whether teachers' beliefs were congruent with their approaches was another issue subject to debate. Teachers who believed in one approach would practise another one or some who did not believe in certain approach would practise it or they would use different or eclectic approaches at different times and towards different pupils. If the teachers could not practise what they wanted to do, such as giving more care to pupils, this imposed great challenges not only to individual teachers but also to the education support as a whole (referred to D. W. Chan, 2000; See et al., 1998).

To sum up, the majority of the participant teachers tended to use teacher-centred approaches to solving student problems. Teachers were also aware of the pupil-centred approach by showing care and concern for students during teaching-pupil interaction. Most of them used relationship-listening approaches to communicate with pupils, as revealed in the case study assignments. An interactive approach of making contracts and agreements with pupils was also used by a significant number of teachers in classrooms. Participant teachers found it difficult to differentiate beliefs and approaches and they used an eclectic approach to handle student problems in different situations.

The following chapter will outline the evolution and finer points of the rationale for the implementation of in-service programme. More detailed evaluative strategies would be recorded. Teachers could respond in a systematic way through the course evaluation work sheets that helped pinpoint the effectiveness of the module, as well as teachers' understanding of the skills of teaching and learning in the classroom. The

researcher will further examine the development and the impact of the guidance programme for teacher development in the Hong Kong contexts (Gybers, 1994). In this project, the study of the effectiveness of the guidance programme depends mainly on whether teachers are aware of the human values and can use alternative approaches or experience a change of attitude as an essential process of career development in their teaching profession.

## **Chapter Seven**

### **HUMANISTIC EDUCATION AND THE GUIDANCE PROGRAMME**

#### **Introduction**

This chapter brings out the evolution and rationale for the in-service guidance programme and records more detailed evaluative strategies. Teachers respond in a systematic way through course evaluation, which helps pinpoint the effectiveness of the module as well as their understandings of their teacher-pupil interactive skills. It also elaborates the humanistic education and some human values that underpin the design of the guidance programme.

#### **Evolution of “Retraining Course for Primary School Teachers”**

In response to the Government white paper on “Primary and Pre-primary Education” issued in 1981, a former teacher’s college in collaboration with the Education Department ran an 8-week course on “Retraining Course for Primary School Teachers” for teacher development in 1982. The government sponsored the course for teachers who had served in Hong Kong primary schools for five or more years on full-time block released basis. The subject contents included recent development in educational theories, reflective teaching and critical analysis on current issues. The following briefly describes what the programme aims to achieve in the context of current Hong Kong’s educational transformation.

With about 20,000 primary school teachers, the yearly intake on average was only about 700 from 1982 to 1988. To facilitate the retraining service, a distant learning mode with the availability of videotape on self-learning packages was first developed. In 1995, the course took on both teaching and distance learning mode in five weeks and became credit bearing at the teacher education institute. The “University Grant Committee” allowed five credit points for participants taking the course. Each participant takes about 5 to 6 one-credit point modules. It is repeatedly run for six cohorts with 600 intakes

annually. Each cohort consists of about 100 teachers grouped in three or four classes. The School Guidance and Classroom Management course is one of the elective modules that participants are able to take. Participants who are interested in taking the module have the option to do so, so they are the ones who are more eager to learn about this subject.

### **The Effectiveness of the School Guidance Programme**

This research mainly studies teachers' beliefs and approaches during teacher pupil interaction through the participants who attended the one-credit point 5-week module on "School Guidance and Classroom Management" under the "Retraining Course for Primary School Teachers". The effectiveness of the School Guidance Programme to be examined is determined on two levels:

- (1) The effect of the teaching modules through participants' responses in the 5-session module evaluation; and
- (2) Participant teachers' awareness of and ability to use different approaches during teacher-pupil interaction through their reflection in interviews, class work and case study in class assignment during the course of study as discussed in earlier chapters and further elaborated in this and the following chapters.

### **Programme Structure**

The following paragraphs addressed the module structure and evaluation on the first level. As the module is repeatedly run six times a year, data can be collected from participants from different groups and across different years. It is elaborated as follows:

- (1) Course Aims: According to a teachers' training circular of the teacher education institute in 1995, one of the aims of the Retraining Course in general is to acquaint in-service teachers with new concepts in curriculum development and modern teaching methods and approaches at primary

level.

(2) Module Objectives: The objectives of this school guidance module under the Retraining Course are listed out for reflection and evaluation purposes.

Upon completion of the course, participants will be able to:

- 1) Appreciate some basic assumptions of human values and beliefs and the rationale for guidance in classroom teaching;
- 2) Identify needs of children in relation to self-actualisation;
- 3) Understand the personal qualities of the teacher and its influence of children, including self understanding and professional development;
- 4) Identify student behaviour problems in the classroom;
- 5) Differentiate directive, interactive and non-directive approaches of human interaction;
- 6) Compare various classroom management strategies; and
- 7) Implement whole school approach activities.

(3) Programme Themes: They are related to joint efforts in providing guidance for pupils; common behaviour problems; counselling techniques; changing concepts in teacher-pupil interaction; maintaining desirable learning environments; and classroom management skills.

(4) Mode of Learning: There are institutional learning through lectures, group discussion, case study, tutorials, seminars and independent self-paced learning by means of viewing video programmes, reading course materials and completing assignments.

(5) Programme Assignments: Participants are required to do a “Case Study”

or “Analysis of the guidance role of a teacher in a whole school approach”. These assignments are valuable research data to show student performance and feedback on the programme, as elaborated in the last chapter.

- (6) Course Evaluation: It is a common practice of the Primary Retraining Course to seek the views of the participants at the end of each course. Individual lecturers also conduct their own classroom evaluation. There are at least three sets of evaluation questionnaires to invite suggestions from participants. In this research study, only the module evaluation of the five sessions on the elective subject entitled “School Guidance and Classroom Management” will be closely analysed. These data have formed some of the basic information for the research.

### **Module Evaluation and Programme Effectiveness**

In order to understand participant teachers’ responses after attending each of the five sessions of the one-hour module and also for the researcher’s self-reflection for teaching, a module evaluation form was designed, as in Appendix 9. The questionnaire was distributed to all 40 key participants and the results were recorded in Appendix 9 (a) and interpreted as follows:

- (1) On the whole, most participants felt that there was overall satisfaction with the module. Their responses indicated that 61% considered the module was conducted quite satisfactorily, 8.5% considered it very satisfactory and only one person considered it to be unsatisfactorily done.
- (2) All 40 participants thought that the module was useful, with 17% grading it at a level of very useful. None felt that it was not useful.
- (3) When the participants were asked how they felt about the module, they considered the module helpful, innovative, lively, interesting, orderly, fruitful and so forth. A few isolated participants considered it impractical and difficult.

- (4) When participants were asked what they liked most about the module, they reflected that they liked the notes, discussion and module content. They also expressed their support for the counselling techniques, case study and experience sharing.
- (5) As for what the participants disliked, some found the counselling theory boring, the content tedious and that there had been insufficient time for discussion. The researcher observed that those participants who volunteered to join the programme, showed interest in pastoral care themselves or had had guidance training before were more interested to learn and respond; some with fewer incentives to learn provided some negative comments.
- (6) For those who found that the module was useful, the useful elements involved the module materials, discussion, course contents, videotapes and assignments.
- (7) When participants were asked what they had learned from the module, they appreciated the counselling techniques, module content, communication techniques, participant feeling, handling students, child psychology, respect and experience sharing.
- (8) With regard to areas for improvement of the module, participants felt that module content, counselling techniques and discussion time needed to be improved.
- (9) Some participants considered that the success of a counselling module depended on the presentation of the module, module content, counselling techniques, ways of handling student problems and case study.
- (10) Upon completion of the module, participants had set themselves the following goals:

The majority of participants would try to understand and care more about students (22.9%). They also wished to apply counselling techniques to correct negative behaviours (16.7%). They would like to learn more about counselling techniques, use counselling techniques to solve problems and to improve counselling communication (12.5%). Some (10.4%) really wanted to use different theories to handle student problems. Some would like to handle more counselling cases and even wanted to become a counsellor (6.3%)

On the whole, on the first level, the teaching module has been shown to be effective, through the above module evaluation. On the second level, the researcher will go on to scrutinise the participant teachers' awareness of a repertoire of human values. In understanding teachers' beliefs and approaches, as the major research question discussed in last chapter, the researcher will review participants' ability to use different approaches during teacher-pupil interaction through their reflection in interviews, class work and the case study in their class assignment during the course of study. In the following paragraphs, the researcher first brings in a broader perspective of guidance and counselling service development in Hong Kong and abroad, together with the guidance theories and models and human values that underpin humanistic education as an ideology in the philosophy of education for improvement of teaching and solving student disciplinary problems.

## **Guidance and Counselling Development**

### **(1) Development of Counselling Services in Western Countries**

“Effective functioning in the school processes draws attention to the affective values and decision making components that school counsellors can contribute to the overall education mission recently” (Herr, 1984, p.219 cited in Gybers, 1994). Perhaps we can review the development of school guidance services in United States, United Kingdom, Australia and Hong Kong (Longman Hong Kong, 1994).

While USA guidance services developed from post-World War I resettlement



vocational guidance and mental health, UK guidance services were generated from teachers' struggles with social upheaval and disciplinary problems among pupils. In contrast to the American counselling and professional services, the tutoring system has played an important role in the development of guidance and pastoral care in the UK. "Pastoral care" is the common term to describe the guidance activities, or non-academic side of the teacher's role in the UK. In the past decade, Watkins (1995) developed a well-acknowledged pastoral care model or "whole school approach model" to help the students. Australia followed a similar responsive pathway to change in the school and social environment. This is evident, from the Education Department, New South Wales document on "Self-disciplines and pastoral care: The Thomas Report" to the current Key Learning Area on Personal Development, Health and Physical Education. Hong Kong school guidance service is modelled after the UK but has a strong American flavour.

## (2) Evolution of Guidance Service in Hong Kong

The evolution of guidance in Hong Kong is juxtaposed to the wider context of societal change. From a historical review, the development of guidance services in Hong Kong schools began in 1950s and the Hong Kong Association of Careers Masters was formed in 1959, being closely associated with the Careers Section of the Education Department and the Labour Department for careers related activities.

With the provision of nine years compulsory education for all students in 1979, the white paper on social welfare into the 1980s stipulated that the school social work service should be provided to all secondary schools. School social workers or guidance teachers mainly handled school guidance services. The Education Department trained the student guidance officers (SGO).

In 1986, the Government published a suggested guide on guidance work in secondary schools leading to a further development of the guidance service (Education Department, 1986). It was suggested that class teachers had an important role to play in the early detection of and intervention in student

problems.

In 1988, the Education Department established the Guidance Teacher Resources Centre. In 1990, there was the call for a whole school approach to guidance and the merger of team approaches. The team members usually comprise trained school social worker, guidance teacher or officer, all teachers and school heads (Education Commission Report No.4, 1990). In both primary and secondary schools, guidance work has taken a more developmental and proactive role in recent years.

### **School Guidance Theoretical Framework**

Guidance is defined as the process of helping individuals to understand themselves and their world and make appropriate choices (Gibson et al., 1993; Gybers, 2000; Shertzer & Stone, 1981). Within a school setting, guidance aims at helping students arrive at self-understanding, self-direction and self-development as a whole person. The helper is often the teacher. The participant teachers in the retraining programme take up mainly the role of class teacher and often perform the guidance role to help the students.

Miller et al. (1978) listed the basic principles for guidance, with the focus on developmental and preventive approaches to helping pupils. They elaborated that "Guidance" is for all students of all ages and encourages self-discovery and self-development. It enhances the cooperation of students, parents, teachers, administrators and counsellors. It is an integral part of any education programme and must be responsible both to the individual and to society.

In general, school guidance is more educational and developmental, while counselling is more therapeutic and remedial. Caplan (1964) proposed three levels of prevention in the field of mental health, namely: reducing disturbance, prevention and treatment and rehabilitation. Usually, participant teachers do not carry out counselling, psychotherapy or medical intervention at school. However, they can identify seriously disturbed students and consult

professionals for advice in handling such students and make referrals for professional support.

Corey (1995) gave a comprehensive coverage of the basic guidance and counselling theories applicable in school contexts. Amongst all counselling theories and models, self-esteem is regarded as the soul of guidance or pastoral care for people (Hall & Hall, 1988; Maslow, 1968; Purkey & Novak, 1996; Watkins, 1995; Wolfgang & Glickman, 1995). Reference materials on the guidance or pastoral roles of a teacher and the development of self-esteem came mainly from the great work of Carl Rogers (Roger & Freiberg, 1994) and have been manifested by people like Purkey in the USA and Watkins in the UK. In the past decade, personal and social education and pastoral role of a class teacher have become popular in schools (Watkins, 1995, Best, 1995). Inviting education as promoted by William Purkey and associates (Purkey & Novak, 1996) stressed a positive atmosphere in the learning environment and contributed significantly to humanistic education. All in all, the soul of humanistic education or counselling psychology is manifested in the respect of human values in the teaching profession (Carducci & Carducci, 1984). As such, understanding a teacher's appreciation of the basic human values that underpin the quality of humanistic education, such as respecting the child as an individual with inner potential as an alternative approach rather than using punishment directly, becomes the focus of this research, as this is also congruent with the education trends in the new century.

### **Humanistic Education and Human Values**

Where do the universal human values find expression across cultures in education? For centuries, educators have given their attention to human values in the philosophy of education, guidance and counselling and instructional psychology that have been embedded in different academic subjects across the paradigms, in order to improve human interaction and the quality of life (Patterson, 1977). Sometimes, some basic human values are entrenched in moral, civic and value education promoted in schools. In the Asian paradigm, they could be promoted in any academic subject, including

the Chinese cultural studies. In the helping profession, they are implanted in the process of guidance and counselling or instructional learning during human interaction.

The development of humanistic education has played an important role in classroom teaching in America. The Confluent Education Program at University of California, Santa Barbara, was one of the humanistic programmes that had success in increasing the humanistic value orientations of its students in recent decades. The qualitative change could be reflected in humanistic classroom behaviour with a personal-growth oriented impact, improved general and academic self-concept, relationship-oriented effects, classroom environment effects and effects on school and teacher achievements (Shapiro, 1983, p. 89). Both Shapiro and Moheno attempted to identify the humanistic components through surveys and interviews with significant people and develop the instruments to measure student orientation to humanistic values. Gestalt's (Perls, 1980) "here and now" approach and Rogers' (1995) client-centred approach were incorporated. Moheno has also adapted Flander's (1970) techniques of analysing teaching behaviour in the classroom in his model. Having found that "humanistic education has strikingly positive effects upon student educational achievement", Moheno (1996, p.64) developed a quantitative research instrument in the humanistic educational paradigm after interviewing different groups of people. He identified the major essential "value" components as "process-orientation, self-determination, connectedness, relevancy integration, context, affective bias, innovation, democratic participation, personal growth, people oriented individualism, reality, evaluation and variety-creativity". These components serve as the key features, yardsticks or variables to measure or observe a teacher's preference or behavioural development in the humanistic education paradigm (Moheno, 1996, p. 9-22; Shapiro, 1986; Shapiro & Reiff, 1993).

In order to contain this inquiry within the realm of teachers' exposure to humanistic expression and values in the Hong Kong classroom, the researcher has adopted some common values for teachers to choose in one of the class work sheets based on the components developed by Moheno and Shapiro on

humanistic education in Appendix 10. It was given to the participant teachers to complete and the responses were listed in Appendix 10(a). As a result, teachers prioritised “innovation”, “evaluation”, “reality”, “self-determination”, “process-orientation”, “variety-creativity” and “context” during teacher pupil interaction in descending order. Furthermore, teachers also valued “democratic participation”, “personal growth”, “integration”, “affective bias”, “individualism”, “connectedness”, “people orientation” and “relevancy”. From the teachers’ voice and preferences, it is interesting to note that they gave priority to innovation, evaluation and reality rather than process-orientation or people-orientation during teacher-pupil interaction. These values are quite pragmatic, judgmental, realistic and unique and they may be related to the Asian Hong Kong context. However, such values may deter teachers from exerting other values and establishing the more open humanistic atmosphere of happy learning where the guidance programme needs to address this.

### **Teachers’ Descriptions of a “Good Teacher”**

In spite of the above findings, there was evidence that the participating teachers have widened or changed their idea of professionalism to include western expressions of humanistic values when they were asked to give a priority list on human values for a good teacher Appendix 10(b). They ranked, in descending order, “autonomy”, “maturity”, “co-ordination”, “individual difference”, “harmony”, “compassionate”, “empathy”, “unconditional love”, “understanding”, “acceptance”, “love”, “communication”, “positive regard”, “respect” and “genuine” during teacher pupil interaction. From this, it is evident that, these teachers were aware that autonomy, maturity and co-ordination were important when handling student problems.

### **Teachers’ Beliefs about Human Values and their Approaches to Solving Student Problems**

Research studies (Moheno 1996) have shown that humanistic education is one of the most effective ways to enhance students’ personal growth. Since guidance work relates to human lives and human values, students have to be

approached with knowledge, respect and care in order to promote their personal growth. Evidence of participant teachers' awareness of using the humanistic approach in their case study assignments has been collected from the participants who claimed that they have used the humanistic approaches in the assignments. Four cases have been selected arbitrarily from that group for reader's easy reference as follows:

Case Study 1 When the participant teacher (Ms Yuen) handled a pupil with emotional disturbance problems, she used the relationship listening approach first, so that the pupil could feel being "respected, understood and accepted". After that, she used positive reinforcement and tokens to encourage the pupil to obey classroom rules.

Case Study 2 When the participant teacher (Ms Man) found a pupil with incidences of no motivation to learn, failure to submit homework on time, fighting and stealing, she used the client-centred approach with genuineness, respect and empathy to establish a relationship with the child first. Then she used reality therapy to make a plan for improvement with the pupil. Working with parents to help the child was also indispensable.

Case Study 3 The participant teacher (Ms Chui) used the client-centred approach directly for a low achiever in class. In the guidance process, she was aware of the values and beliefs, confidentiality and the guidance role of a teacher. She applied the "two-way communication and relationship-listening" approach with "acceptance, respect, empathy, positive regards and self disclosure". The participant teacher has also employed behavioural methods by making contracts with pupils for them to improve step-by-step,

Case Study 4 The participant teacher (Ms Sau) started with a client-centred approach to establish a relationship with a pupil who was often late and absent from class. Eventually, she used reality therapy as an interactive approach to help the student make plans to improve and change.

In summary, most of the teachers or 91% as previously described were able to

use relationship-listening, non-directive or pupil-centred approach, mingled with other approaches, when handling student problems after attending the guidance programme.

## **Conclusion**

This chapter has examined the effectiveness of the guidance programme on two levels. The first level, based on module evaluation, has been shown to be helpful and effective, to the participants' satisfaction. On the second level, most participants were aware of the human values involved and were able to use alternative strategies as described earlier and in the final chapter. It is interesting to note from participants' class assignments, one-hour interview and classroom observation and discussion that a considerable number of teachers used the behavioural approach and reality therapy to handle student problems. At the same time, however, most of them still considered caring, acceptance and listening to be essential qualities of a good teacher, as reflected in their assignments and discussion. To this extent, the programme was effective, in the sense that they could use alternative strategies to handle the disciplinary problems.

Although most teachers are aware of the importance of humanistic education, they sometimes could not practise what they believed or could practise it only in limited situations. One of the major difficulties the teachers encountered is the large class size teachers have to face everyday (PTU News, 2002/9/16). Although the president of the Professional Teachers' Union, Mr. Cheung Man Kwong (2002/11/26) had urged the Government to adopt a small class policy with an ideal size of 25 pupils per class, but it was turned down at the Legislative Council Meeting by the Secretary for Education and Manpower Arthur Li Kwok Cheung on 27 November 2002 for reasons of the lack of financial resources (Wen Wei Pao, 2002/11/28). Disregard of the continuous appeal by parents, education bodies and teachers to have smaller class size so as to reduce teachers' workload and improve the quality of education, the policy makers seem to turn a deaf ear on the issue. To practice humanistic education as an ideology is a very complicated matter. It involves not only the

concerted effort of individual teachers, children, parents and schools, but also relates to the change of the total education system as a whole. In the next chapter, more evidence will be provided about the difficulties encountered in practising the humanistic approach from the teachers' voice or perspective.



## **Chapter Eight**

### **TEACHERS' REFLECTIONS ON THEIR PRACTICE: "Yes, but..."**

#### **Introduction**

As revealed in the last chapter, most teachers have appreciated the importance of pupil-centred or relationship-listening methods in handling student problems. Humanistic education for the development of the whole child is congruent with the current education reform in Hong Kong but sometimes teachers may not be able to practise it. This chapter opens other windows to the responses of the participants to materials in the programme and their learning from the local documented aims of education. The materials in these documents again bring the teachers face to face with the principles and practical implications of humanistic guidance language. In these documents, the principles are developed from Hong Kong's own evolving educational policy making. Reflecting a radical change over the years, there is an implied challenge to teaching practice in demanding professional standards that reflect the philosophy of western humanistic education and eastern Confucius ideology of whole person development. Teachers at the frontline feel the pinch in the process of change, because they can no longer use one single strategy, such as punishment, to handle student discipline problems but rather need to consider alternative strategies and to meet affective needs of the students as well.

#### **Some Teachers' Voices Unheard**

Teachers are active agents in shaping their own values and identity (Day, 1999; Eraut, 1994). They have their own competence and development and can provide valuable insights for discussion in the current educational reform in Hong Kong. However, some teachers feel that they are often excluded or devalued and their voices are unheard or untouched in the formulation of educational policy. The teachers' demonstration against the language competence test and the appeal for smaller class sizes are two typical

examples in the year of 2001. The appeal for reduction of class sizes has been dragging on for decades but is rarely heard and conditions have only slightly improved. It is still common to see classes that are overcrowded with pupils, above an average of 35 students in the local stream primary schools. Comparatively speaking, the international primary schools have an average of 24 students. As a consequence, Hong Kong pupils do not have the opportunity to learn effectively and teachers could hardly meet the individual needs of children. “No wonder all the education reforms that have been put forward by educators in the recent years...are unlikely producing any beneficial effect.” (PTU News, 2002/9/16) The reduction in the number of children in each class is important for the effective implementation of holistic education. As explained in the last Chapter, on the one hand, the president of the Teachers’ Professional Association Cheung Man Kwok has been pledging for it with supporting documents from parents and educational bodies (Cheung Man Kwong, 2002/11/26) and on the other hand, Secretary for Education and Manpower Arthur Li doubted about the effectiveness of small class teaching in the recent years of enormous government budget deficits (Wen Wei Pao, 2002/11/28). While the issue of class size reduction is still under heated debate, teachers are under continuous stress and need time and space for professional teacher development.

The guidance programme context is necessarily a bridging format between the reality of traditional classroom culture and the hoped-for outcomes of current aims as documented in policy documents. This chapter attempts to elicit responses as further depth of data about what “the voices” of the participating teachers have to say. Does a change in employer policy transmit to a cohort of teachers in a way that changes their beliefs and professional practice? Do the inherent tensions between East and West resolve themselves in the teachers’ minds and behaviour as effectively as they do in the policy documents? Is there a residue of learning that falls to the programme to include in bridging the gaps so the teachers can attain the professional growth that is required of them in these times of rapid change in expectations? What roles do teachers; parents; educators and students play in the process of educational change? It is hoped that through the windows

of the teachers' world, some clues can be found for the improvement of the quality of education.

### **Teachers' Responses to Educational Aims**

As the design of the school guidance programme was responding to the educational needs and holistic development of students as spelt out in the "aims of education", the participant teachers were invited to give their views on the Government's published educational aims earlier described. From the participants' responses to the achievement of educational aims in the Survey Questionnaire in Appendix 2(a) with 134 participant selection, as described in the methodology chapter, about 62.6% respondents found that school guidance work "partly matched" with the aims of education for bringing out students' potential and whole person development. Only 26% of them responded that it "matched" with such an aim. Similarly, 59.5% of the respondents selected the option that school guidance work "partly matched" with the educational aim of instilling positive attitudes and values and only 29.4% of them believed it "matched". About 58.3% respondents considered that school guidance work partly matched with "active learning" and 33.9% of them believed it matched with such an aim. In other words, the analysis implied that about two-thirds of the participant teachers considered that pupil-centred learning, relationship listening, self-directive or non-directive approaches only partly matched with the educational aims in the current educational reform.

### **Humanistic Education and Educational Aims**

The educational values and beliefs in whole child development according to individual potential underpin the "aims of education" and form the official Education Blueprint in 21<sup>st</sup> Century Hong Kong. As a major part of this educational research, the project examines teachers' appreciation of educational policy and understanding of human values through this guidance programme for teacher development in the new century. In Maslow's theory of self-actualisation and the hierarchy of human needs, it is stated that a

human being, especially a child, needs to be supported and accepted with not only a sense of security but also love, belonging and self-respect in order for it to become a fully actualised person. According to Maslow, the child must be recognised and motivated as a healthy, learning child for its “peak-experience” to be brought out with the “Value of Becoming” or “B-values” as Maslow called it, such as “wholeness, perfection, completion, justice, truth, honesty and righteousness” (Maslow, 1999, p.94). These qualities are clearly advocated as character requirements in the quality school education document.

Similarly, Rogers (1999, 1995), author of “Client-centred Therapy” and “A Way of Being” stressed that, in bringing out human potential, it was more important to establish human relationships through empathic understanding, genuineness and unconditional positive regard. These values, beliefs and attitudes are applicable to teachers performing the guidance role during teacher-pupil interaction. Today, humanistic education with some of Rogers’ values and Maslow’s insights is expressed implicitly and written explicitly in the Hong Kong educational policy documents, as analysed above. They are particularly important and have been incorporated in the design of the guidance programme under study.

In order to investigate and understand teachers’ acceptance of these values based on Rogerian beliefs and self-concept, a simple work sheet was designed as programme materials for the forty key participants to complete with “Yes” or “No” answers. The list of questions was shown in Appendix 11.

As a result, 35 participants provided usable data and the majority (over 30 of them, except for questions 3 and 15) accepted the humanistic educational doctrine. It is interesting to note that all thirty-five participant teachers agreed with the need for “respect, empathy, positive self-evaluation, praise and recognition” during teacher-pupil interaction. There were three teachers who disagreed that students were “self-directive, experimental and had changeable self-esteem”. Almost one third or ten of the participant teachers disagreed with “giving respect to students unconditionally”, eight did not

consider that “human nature is positive”, and five disagreed that they had reached “self-actualisation”. The results were shown in Table 8 below:

**Table 8**

**Self-Concept and Human Values**

<u>Question No</u>	<u>Human Values</u>	<u>Class Respondent</u>
Q2	Respect	35
Q4	Empathy	35
Q9	Self—positive/negative	35
Q10	Self—evaluation	35
Q13	Praise and recognition	35
Q1	Self-directed, adjustable	34
Q8	Experience self	34
Q11	Distorted self-concept	34
Q12	Changeable self-esteem	34
Q14	Self-directed behaviour	33
Q5	Interactivity with others	32
Q6	Interactivity with the environment	32
Q7	Self-actualisation	30
Q15	Life-direction	27
Q3	Unconditional respect for others	<u>25</u>
	Total Response	490
		=====

In the later cases, there was an indication of deeper conflict between cultures. In traditional Chinese culture associated with obedience and parental and authoritative expectations (Chai & Chai, 1973; Chen, 1993), a child should be obedient, behave well and listen to parents’ or teachers’ instructions. Teachers could hardly respect the child if he or she was disruptive in behaviour. To some teachers, individual development and unconditional respect for students were too radical for them to agree to. However, hints given in other data including case study assignments and one-hour discussions showed that participant teachers had some mixed feelings and conflicts in beliefs about human values and approaches to solving pupil problems. The results indicated that they sometimes believed some humanistic values but were unable to practise them or vice versa. These questions remain to be investigated in more depth than this study’s

methodology allows.

### **Teachers' Responses to the Goals of Pupil-centred Learning**

The philosophical educational goals discussed above have been written into the documents and have informed a series of educational structural changes in the educational reform process. The implementation of the Target Oriented Curriculum (TOC) and the abolition of the public examination system related to the Academic Aptitude Test (AAT) on teaching and learning in primary schools all pointed practitioners towards a more student-centred learning environment in the classrooms. To what extent were these policy developments congruent with teachers' own beliefs or personal goals? To what extent did the resulting behaviour reflect a belief in these principles?

The following questions from the "one-hour qualitative interview" already described in the methodology chapter gathered data to understand teachers' beliefs and identify their approaches:

**"Teachers' educational beliefs and their values can affect their interests and enthusiasm in teaching. What views and beliefs do you have to support your work on teaching? (e.g. student-centred learning, teacher-centred learning as related to the educational goals)"**

Here, most obviously, the responses below revealed a resistance to those changing requirements. The Target Oriented Curriculum (TOC) imposed by the government was seen as the intrusion of an external agency that required the schools to implement it as the "official interest", which teachers could hardly avoid. Although the idea behind this student-centred curriculum was to cater for individual differences and encourage student-centred learning and, as such, was laudable, these teachers still considered that they had absolute authority to teach and give information. They thought that both students and teachers could not change easily and that the Education Department should do things step by step. Although the TOC appears to

have been implemented in different formats in recent years, the spirit seemed to be the legacy of the past education policy. Teachers interpreted the situation to mean that the Government was switching the education reform from one to another mass scale project year after year. Another example is the Quality Education Fund. As a teacher (Ms Chun) remarked at the one-hour interview:

“They switch to one thing after another and throw too many balls at us, we don’t know what to do but only receive one ball after another”

In answering the above question in the interview, even though a few participant teachers said that it was feasible to have pupil-centred learning, there were more constraints and puzzles (Ms Yung, Ms Bo, Mr. Lee, Ms Kai, Ms Young and Ms Chun). Teachers found that they were afraid of change and student-centred learning was sometimes equated with more active listening. They considered that it was time consuming and listening needed more time. Activities needed space and resources and the free space available to the children was too limited and not developed in the crowded school settings prevailing in Hong Kong. Besides, there were not even enough copies of books for children to borrow, if they were asked to do projects on their own. Although there were some facilities available, the environment was not friendly for students who did not have free access or even the opportunity to move around or touch the equipment. Teachers mainly found that the curriculum was too rushed and it was under this pressure that the schools had to force the teachers to finish the whole curriculum. As one teacher (Ms Bo) quoted:

“I think they (school-based activities, TOC) can be feasible *but* humans have a touch of laziness at times. They are afraid of changes. Also, they block the idea as a knee-jerk reaction (to anything new)... If you don’t organise activities for them, then it’s not student-centred. ... The barrier is time and resources. ... Yes. (There are too many lessons.) Yes. (Too many students, too few teachers)... Maybe because the curriculum in Hong Kong is in too much of a rush.”

Time, teacher motivation and beliefs, the number of students and class size were the key obstacles repeatedly named. The results were not effective as the teacher Mr. Lee said:

“This (New education goals) can be done *but* there are lots of restraints...”

time, teacher motivation, size of students in class. They are always the same problems. If the Education Department forces us to do the new thing, we can do it. It's only the outcome of what we have done that matters. ... This (New education goals) can be done but there are lots of restraints. Time, teacher motivation, number of students..."

Occasionally, there were a few teachers who attempted the student-centred approach by giving them more encouragement. They found it effective and it gave satisfaction to the students, as well as to the teachers themselves. As the teacher Ms Mui said,

"I use more optimistic methods...encouragement, concrete encouragement. Once the students have tiny improvements, I will spell it out, such as: 'You performed well today.' I think this is very effective. They are very happy. If you praise them, they will go home happily and tell their mothers that the teacher praised me. I think this is very effective." (Ms Mui)

Most teachers thought that a more student-centred curriculum was not possible because of external constraints. Time constraints and a heavy teaching load formed the key factors, followed by the large number of students in each class, pressure from parents as well as pressure from the top, such as rigid school rules and a tight curriculum. Hence, teachers found it very hard to follow the student-centred learning and individual differences could not be improved much:

"Very hard...very hard to implement. ... The idea is very good. I support it very much. But it is impossible to implement in Hong Kong. It's a full time school. When you arrive at school, the class starts at 8:30. I arrive at around 20 minutes or 7:45. Initially I think I can do some work as the arrival time is quite early. But in fact it cannot." (Mr. Kwok)

A number of teachers did indicate that they would use the directive approach or teacher-centred method, because of the tight syllabus. Besides, teachers needed more control and it is not easy for those who have taught for one or two decades. A participant teacher Ms Yuk remarked:

"I think I would prefer the teacher-centred method. I will finish all the topics first; after that I will give time to students to ask questions. ... If we can cut the syllabuses, I will have part of the time for student-centred activities because when in the process of asking questions and answering questions, the students are more impressed (with the topics). I will decide (whether student-centred or teacher-centred to be applied) according to the syllabuses." (Ms Yuk)



Furthermore, Ms Kit has showed another example of why the teacher believed student-centred learning was good *but* could not practise it as illustrated by the following statement:

“Actually, I think the idea (like student-centred) is good, as students are individually cared for. But in reality, these policies are not implemented at all... If you ask me to tell the truth...I don't think these (taking care of students differences and having special curriculum for them) work. ...” (Ms Kit)

## **Conclusion**

Teachers' responses in relation to the achievement of a more student-centred approach in achieving the educational goals hinted at the pressure they were under and yet they were unable to articulate their resistance. Although they were suggesting the restraints of the pressure of time and content knowledge to be delivered, there was a capacity to implement a change in the curriculum. Half of the participant teachers were positive about the feasibility of such a change but they had reservations. The major obstacles were time constraints, large class size and the attitudes of teachers, including the lack of motivation and being afraid of change. They considered that the rate of success in curriculum reform was not high and that changes had to proceed gradually. Teachers felt strongly that the educational policy was being delivered from the top down and they were often excluded in the policy-making stage. The large size class teaching against the wish of the majority of teachers was a typical example. Some teachers wished the Education Department would hear their voices and that there should not be so many resources used up in large-scale projects, such as the recent Qualitative Education Fund Projects, which have given teachers so much additional workload and pressure. All these were regarded as the intrusion of external forces, which were imposed on schools and teachers. Furthermore, with the abolition of the aptitude tests, it is hoped that the examination-oriented education policy could change and alleviate the roots of some of the educational problems as a long-term goal.

In the process of educational change, teacher development is one of the

primary tasks to improve the quality of education. The school guidance programme offered by the teacher educational institute is one of the available sources to help teachers cope with the changes. The study of the effectiveness of the programme in this project goes beyond programme evaluation and it depends on the teachers' self-reflection and insights for improvement of teaching and solving student problems based on human values. In the next chapter, the researcher will examine the extent of participant teachers' professional development after attending the school guidance programme.

## **Chapter Nine**

### **TEACHER DEVELOPMENT AND SCHOOL GUIDANCE SUPPORT**

#### **Introduction**

Teacher development is for improvement of teaching, professional development, personal growth and lifelong learning (Day, 1999). It also has required professional standards (Department of Education, 1999; Parker, Mowbray & Squires, 1998). The major research question in this study is to understand the effects of the guidance programme on teacher development. In order to find out more about what teachers said, how they actually performed in practice in school and, more importantly, how they reflected on their practice, the researcher visited five teachers who agreed to participate in the follow-up study of the programme on a voluntary basis. The majority of participants were willing to respond to telephone enquiry or survey questionnaire only and most of them were not willing to have follow-up school visits for personal or time-constraints reasons (Field notes of follow-up telephone requests referred). Their teaching approaches related to their beliefs during classroom observation have already been discussed in Chapter Six. The participants' Self-reflection Reports and researcher's school-based classroom observation with field notes for improvement of teaching will be further discussed in this chapter.

#### **Self-reflection Report of Participants for Teacher Development**

In order to see how participant teachers practised the learned guidance skills in school, the researcher visited five of them who gave their consent for her to observe their classroom behaviour. They were also requested to write a self-reflection report for the purpose of improving affective teaching and case handling. During the school visits, the researcher took the opportunity to solicit views from school heads and guidance workers regarding school guidance support for teachers. The interpretation with the researcher's observation and teacher's self-reflection to find out teachers' beliefs and approaches in human interaction was thus based on data from different perspectives.

From January to June 2000 immediately after completion of the guidance programme, the researcher visited three participants, Mr. Lee, Ms Young and Ms Sung, twice to observe the teachers' actual practice in the classroom. As described in the methodology chapter, the purpose of visiting the same participant twice was to see whether there was any significant difference when the participant performed affective practice immediately and six months after the completion of the programme. No significant difference in teacher behaviour between two observed lessons among the three teachers was observed. However, the difference in subject matters between a mathematic lesson and a Chinese language lesson did provide the participant teacher an opportunity to organise the learning activities differently. Two other participants Ms Chiu and Ms Cheng agreed to let the researcher visit once and Ms Kwan and Ms Lui preferred not to be visited but provided their own reflection reports for improvement of teaching.

A summary of some of the participant teachers' behaviour from their self-reflection reports after class observation is listed in Table 9 below:

**Table 9**  
**Classroom Observation, Self-Reflection and**  
**Teacher Development**

<u>Participant</u> <u>Teacher</u>	<u>Date of School</u> <u>Visit by</u> <u>Researcher</u>	<u>Classroom</u> <u>Observation/</u> <u>Follow-up</u> <u>Discussion/</u> <u>Approach</u>	<u>Participant's Self</u> <u>Reflection Report</u>
Mr. Lee	1) 6 Jan 2000 (4B Maths) 2) 13 June 2000 (3D Chinese)	Mainly directive interactive	Teacher's diary: used mainly directive and interactive approaches Case handling: used an eclectic approach; showed respect to and concern for students

Ms Young	1) 21 Feb 2000 (4A Maths) 2) 14 June 2000 (4A Maths)	Mainly pupil-centred and interactive	Teacher's diary: could highlight skills such as empathy, self-concept communication and encouragement Case handling: used the pupil-centred approach and reality therapy
Ms Sung	1) 12 April 2000 (3A Maths) 2) 14 June 2000 (3A Maths)	Mainly teacher-centred	Teacher's diary: used mainly a teacher-centred approach in class. Case handling: used rewards and punishment, was concerned for students.
Ms Chiu	15 June 2000 (1C General Studies)	Eclectic	Teacher's diary: used interactive and behavioural approach Case handling: used an eclectic approach; showed respect and concern for students
Ms Cheng	13 June 2000 (5D Maths)	Eclectic and teacher-centred	Verbal report with field notes only. Used mainly an eclectic approach

Teachers' approaches and interaction with pupils, with the example of Mr. Lee, have already been discussed in Chapter Six. The first three participant teachers' actual practice and responses will be elaborated in finer detail below.

### **Mr. Lee**

The researcher visited Mr. Lee's school in the New Territories twice and

observed how he put the learned guidance skills in practice in class. The first visit was on 6 January 2000 when he taught Class 4B Mathematics. The researcher observed that Mr. Lee was well organised. He was competent, could encourage pupils to learn and gave instructions clearly, particularly when doing the collective work in class. He was familiar with the pupils, could call out their names and pupils were smiling, willing to ask questions and supportive by raising their hands very quickly when asked. As Mr. Lee had good classroom management, pupils could learn in a smooth, orderly and pleasant environment. On the whole, the researcher was impressed that Mr. Lee was aware of the pupils' needs and respected the pupils. She let him know that he had used the directive and active approach during teacher pupil interaction. The researcher had arranged an immediate follow-up session with Mr. Lee after class to discuss his teaching behaviour. He was satisfied with his own teaching performance and wished he could give more attention to individual pupils if he had more time (Data was extracted from field notes of researcher dated 6 January 2000). The data of class observation of Mr. Lee was used to demonstrate a participant teacher's classroom behaviour during teacher-pupil interaction in Chapter Six.

The researcher paid her the second visit on 13 June 2000 early in morning to observe a Class 3D Chinese language lesson. The topic taught in that lesson was "Ping Pong" ball competition and the theme was to try the best and prepare for the worst. Mr. Lee had demonstrated the action of the ball game in class as a motivation to learning, which fascinated the students. A student forgot to bring his textbook and the teacher asked him to share with a classmate. Students could learn to co-operate and work in a non-threatening atmosphere. Their life experiences were shared. There were smiles on the children's faces when the teacher showed his sense of humour or asked them to read the text dramatically. The teacher had good classroom management and made good use of chalk and talk. In the follow-up discussion immediate after class, some of the teacher's teaching strategies were reviewed. As the subject matter of this lesson differed from the Mathematics lesson, the participant was able to use more varied strategies in language use and expression. He was pleased with the ways he interacted with students in an eclectic way (Data was

extracted from field notes of researcher dated 13 June 2000).

In the Self-reflection Report with a postal date of 2 June 2000, Mr. Lee indicated that he preferred to use a directive approach, give clear instructions to pupils, ask direct questions and let them know what was right and wrong. He considered that this approach saved time and was effective. However, he also used humour, reward and encouragement to establish good relationships with pupils and create a supportive learning environment. Mr. Lee was aware that he could use more humanistic skills such as active listening, rather than punishment of pupils directly. As Mr. Lee revealed that he was a discipline teacher with an authoritative role, he was afraid that pupils would become defensive and that this would affect their joy of learning. However, Mr. Lee said that he could improve affective teaching by giving more time for pupils to think when answering questions, with fewer negative comments, such as “no” or “wrong”.

With regard to case handling skills mentioned in the self-reflection report, Mr. Lee used the eclectic approach, especially to contact parents of the child with problems, helping the child to identify problems, accept self and others and find ways to solve the problems. He made agreements and negotiated with the child so that he could plan and improve with the sense of responsibility. On the whole, Mr. Lee was able to apply the learned skills in solving pupil problems effectively in school. In the second visit that the researcher paid to Mr. Lee on 15 June 2002, the researcher observed a similar pattern of teacher-pupil interaction but with a different orientation in presentation. In the Chinese language lesson, Mr. Lee became more active in using a variety of examples and activities.

In this research study using Interview, Case Study Assignment and Classroom Observation, Mr. Lee's classroom behaviour was quite constant. From his Case Study assignment, Mr. Lee stated that he had designed some classroom rules and extra-curriculum activities for the pupil. For communication purpose, he had used the skills of a client-centred approach to accept the pupil and even encouraged his mother not to use punishment. This was true for case handling.

In reality, Mr. Lee was using a teacher-centred and eclectic approach for instruction purposes. In an interview earlier on (dated 8 November 2002), Mr. Lee had said that moral education was important in primary school and it was difficult to use the student-centred approach curriculum catering for individual differences, owing to time constraints and many other factors. In this regard, what he said was consistent with how he behaved from Classroom Observation during teacher-pupil interaction.

### **Ms Young**

Ms Young was a supportive and outspoken participant in the guidance programme under study. Similarly, the researcher visited her school on the Hong Kong Island twice to observe how she practised the skills learned in class. The first visit was on 21 February 2000, when she taught Class 4A Mathematics. The class was quiet and attentive. Ms Young was able to use a soft tone to communicate with pupils. The lesson was interesting to pupils for Ms Young could use a variety of methods, such as story telling, asking students to pose questions and choose a friend to answer (Field notes of researcher dated 21 February 2002).

The researcher paid her the second visit on 14 June 2000 early in the morning to observe the same Class 4A and the same subject of Mathematics. It was a revision lesson and Ms. Young was able to use different methods to help children learn. Those methods included the reward of star stickers for correct answers and the responses were active. The instructions were clear and inviting. Most importantly, Ms Young encouraged pupils to be independent learners and take responsibility to learn and discover ways to do the revision. She also showed concern for pupils' academic achievement and hoped that they could all succeed in not only passing the examinations but also in achieving good results. To indicate the consistency of the approaches used, Ms Young was again amiable. On the whole, the researcher was impressed that Ms Young was familiar with the school guidance skills learned and was able to use them in class quite naturally. She was pleased to learn from the researcher that she had mastered some communication skills such as the "I"



message, care and concern or encouragement, without knowing it. The researcher found that Ms Young had mastered some basic guidance skills and was competent to use them in class freely, even though it was the same subject and same class taught (Data of classroom observation and follow-up discussion on 12 April and 14 June 2000 were recorded with tapes and field notes respectively).

In the diary of Ms Young' Self-reflection Report dated 22 December 2000, she was able to list the basic humanistic communication skills in understanding a child's problems: empathy, self-concept and communication, encouragement, helping self and others.

For comparative purposes, Ms Young's study assignment was used. In the assignment, she stated that when she handled her pupil problem, she employed flexible approaches: the pupil-centred approach for initial communication. Then she applied reality therapy to interact with pupil and ask him to make plans. Encouragement and rewards were also used. Eventually, an eclectic approach was used. From the researcher's classroom observation and self-reflection report, what Ms Young said was consistent with how she interacted with students.

### **Ms Sung**

Ms Sung was a responsive and co-operative member in the guidance programme. The researcher first visited her school in the New Territories on 12 April 2000 and then again on 14 June 2000. She taught Class 3A Mathematics on both days. She was enthusiastic, competent and familiar with the pupils and the topics taught. Ms. Sung had a clear voice with a flexible intonation. She showed concern for pupils and was aware of individual pupils' behaviour in class. Instruction was clear. She could use different teaching aids such as cups and pictures for demonstration in class and pupils found them interesting. Ms Sung adopted mainly the question-and-answer and interactive approaches in classroom teaching. The researcher got the impression of a crowded and hurried environment, especially in the last lesson taught, as children had to

rush to the school bus. Student class size was 42, even though the official one was 35, owing to the popularity of the school in the district (Data was extracted from field notes of 12 April 2000 and 14 June 2000)

In the Self-reflection Report of teaching dated 30 June 2000, Ms Sung admitted that she used mainly at the teacher-centred approach. The following diary by Ms Sung dated 30 June 2000 expressed her views:

“I am a class teacher of Class 3A, I am quite familiar with them and I like to call them by their first names instead of surnames. This shows a more amicable relationship. In the two lessons the researcher has observed, my teaching method was teacher-centred. However, I used humour and activities to draw their attention. I also respected students’ self-esteem. I would not accuse the students or tease them if they have made mistakes. If they gave the right answer, I would encourage them...”

Ms Sung wrote that owing to the shortage of time and her own tension in the presence of an observer, when a student gave an answer such as “did not like any of the four seasons of the year” in the topic of “season” taught, she was not pleased and considered that he was giving negative answer. She thought later that if she thought more from students’ perspective, the answer was acceptable. She could also show her feelings by using the “I” message taught and other body language to establish a better relationship with students.

In the follow-up discussion with Ms Sung, the researcher appreciated the difficulties that had arisen in her lessons. It would take her extra time and patience to clarify some alternative views raised in class. When handling a pupil’s problems in her case study, Ms Sung revealed that she would use rules, reward and punishment methods.

In handling the behavioural problems of a pupil named “Siu Fai” in her class, Ms Sung used a behavioural approach at first and became slightly disappointed after using the humanistic approach, as it did not work out explicitly. As Ms Sung wrote:

“Siu Fai has a lot of unfinished homework. Very often, I have to handle other students’ problems, on duty during recess, busy to finish other tasks and so forth. So I could not stay behind every day to help him. Even if I want to see him, he has to see other teachers. I recalled that I

was genuine and showed respect and empathy to student but my enthusiasm has diminished, as student has not improved. I have contacted his parents who were both working and could hardly help because they were too busy. Student was still inattentive and did not hand in the homework on time.”

In reviewing the above case with Ms Sung, the researcher as participant observer and module lecturer ascertained that she has acquired the learned skills from the guidance programme. However, whether pupils' behaviour would necessarily improve is unclear owing to complicated backgrounds of the pupils as individuals. It was to be expected that it would depend on the concerted effort of the student himself and the participant teacher, but also other teachers or peers, parents, school and even the curriculum and examination system as a whole.

For comparative purposes, Ms sung' case study assignment was used. She employed a directive approach, with the use of some punishment in handling student problems in the first instance. She attempted to give rewards, or gifts to the student to improve the situation but eventually gave up. Basically, Ms Sung believed in using teacher-centred approach during teacher-pupil interaction and how she behaved was consistent with what she said.

### **Ms Cheng**

Another two participants who gave their consent to having the researcher visit them once were Ms Cheng and Ms Chiu. Ms. Cheng taught Class 5D Mathematics on 13 June 2000. Her school is situated in a housing estate. The environment and the classroom were a bit noisy on the day of the visit. She took some time to settle the class when the researcher entered. The atmosphere was a bit tense, probably owing to the presence of the researcher as a visitor. She taught the subject of “Dollars and Cents” with clear explanations and mostly question-and-answer techniques. There was a student who did not bring his textbook and another one was talking very actively at the back of the class. In the follow-up discussion after class, Ms Cheng admitted that she used a directive method of teaching and that it was

difficult to cater for individual differences (Data was extracted from field notes of 13 June 2000).

### **Ms Chiu**

The fifth participant teacher the researcher visited was Ms. Chiu who taught students of Class 1C General Studies in Kowloon. That was a revision lesson and students were asked to review what they had learned. Basically, it is a directive question-and-answer lesson with clear instructions given. The introductory dialogue has been extracted:

Teacher: Don't need to worry. You just have to look at the whiteboard.  
Okay, you all look at the board. Since we have covered so many chapters and the examinations are coming, let's revise together. Now I will ask you some questions to see if you can answer them. If you want to answer the questions, raised your hand. Then I will ask the student to come out and write out the answers... Let me ask you a question then... There are several things here. Can they allow light to pass through?

Student: No, they can't.

Teacher: Right, they can't...

In the follow-up after class discussion, Miss Chiu admitted that she has used directive methods to teach, owing to tight curriculum design and lessons to be finished in the curriculum. However, Ms Chiu has shown concern for students and attempted to apply different guidance techniques to help students to improve on suitable occasions during the school year. (Data extracted from audiotape record and field notes of 15 June 2000.)

In the research study, it was interesting to note that from Ms Chiu's case study assignment shown as a sample of using humanistic education in Chapter Seven, she had used the client-centred approach directly for a low achiever in her class. She was aware of the values and beliefs about human nature and applied the "two-way communication and relationship listening methods" and asked students to make plan and contracts. Nevertheless, she revealed in the early interview (dated 19 October 2002) that she has also employed behavioural methods in scolding students if they were naughty under special circumstances. Ms Chiu was aware of the guidance techniques but found them

difficult to practise because of various constraints.

## **Conclusion**

To sum up, this chapter answers two major research questions. The first is to understand the effects of the guidance programme for teacher development regarding the teachers' awareness about using different teaching approaches. The second is to find out more about what teachers said, how they actually practised in school, and more importantly, how they reflected on their practice. The researcher visited five teachers who agreed to participate in the follow-up study of the programme on a voluntary basis. Most classroom observation was audio-taped for record purposes and ease of reference. The recordings and field notes were used as raw data. The finding showed that what the researcher observed in the classroom in respect of how the participant teacher behaved, as compared with what he or she said in the case study assignment, and the previous one-hour interview were quite consistent.

School guidance is an education process. One of the purposes of the guidance programme for teacher development is to help teachers acquire multiple skills, so that they understand the wider contextual backgrounds and experience of students in the lifelong learning process. To enhance professional teacher development, participant teachers were encouraged to use action research to improve their classroom teaching through self-reflection and discussion with the researcher as observer.

Concerning the use of the school guidance skills learned, participants have demonstrated certain understandings and skills. Many other interesting classroom follow-up studies suggest themselves. The participants demonstrated the use of different approaches, including showing empathy and respect when communicating with pupil; making plans and contracts with them to solve the problems identified and using rules, reward and encouragement. These findings provided some evidence that the programme had had a positive influence on the participating teachers' practice in schools and that teachers were able to choose specific alternative strategies learned from the programme

for their classroom practice. The aim of the programme was to improve teaching and handling pupil problems as a significant step in teacher development and both participant teachers and the researcher contributed to the overall positive affirmation.

## **Chapter Ten**

### **DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSION**

#### **Complexity of the Challenge**

This research study began in 1996 when Hong Kong was undergoing the dramatic historical change, facing the impending takeover by the People's Republic of China (PRC) from British colonial rule in 1997. It was anticipated that there would be turbulent changes affecting the livelihood of every individual in the society of Hong Kong and definitely the schooling of children. The first research question examined the contextual changes in the Hong Kong environment, the cultural values of the East and West and the related social problems that were brought to the classroom in the post-1997 period. The importance and needs of a school guidance programme for teachers to equip them with the necessary skills have been highlighted.

Teachers as frontline workers play an important role in helping children learn and grow and in solving the disciplinary problems in the process of learning. The phenomenological world of teachers opened by the inquiry uncovered various areas of significance, from the goals in education to the difficulties in implementing their own ideology. How they understood and implemented the humanistic principles in their workplace revealed how complex the challenge was for them.

#### **The Need for Staff Development**

While the study focussed primarily on one cohort of teachers and one presentation of a guidance programme, the context of the target group of this study extended to over one hundred and forty primary school teachers of different cohorts, found to be from schools evenly distributed in the three main districts in Hong Kong: New Territories, Kowloon and Hong Kong Island. Most of them were from co-educational schools and half of them were from religious schools. According to the participants, the class teacher was the

most common person to carry out student guidance work, followed by the school social worker and discipline master. Most of them were not members of the school discipline or guidance team. The primary schools usually implemented informal school guidance activities to be shared among teachers, such as in the morning assembly but school guidance was not a formal curriculum area of study. This school guidance context is quite common among primary schools in Hong Kong and so the participant teachers themselves feel the need for staff development programmes. The system also is now responding to this need by implementing more in-service guidance programmes for teachers.

### **School-Based Guidance Support**

The researcher interviewed a School Guidance Teacher Miss Ng at a participant teacher's school in the New Territories on 3 July 2000. She confirmed that teachers were being offered a staff development day and provided with guidance support to help them in their pastoral care responsibilities. This provided further evidence that in-service teachers were in need of the school guidance programme to teach them the guidance skills for the classroom and how to handle problem cases. The researcher's visits to the school heads of three participant teachers (Mr. Lee, Ms Young and Ms Sung) dated 6 June 2000, 21 February 2000 and 14 June 2000 respectively also confirmed similar school-based guidance activities. Most importantly, these school heads realised the need for staff development and lent their support to the school guidance programme under study by sending their teachers to the educational institute, giving support to the researcher to perform classroom observation and follow-up discussion activities with the school guidance teachers.

### **Programme Improvement**

The programme itself has been improved at various levels. Firstly, the module evaluation provided the researcher with more focused aims, cohesive content and practical methods of delivery for future planning. From the peer



review (with the module lecturer, Ms Ngan, dated 5 and 20 November 1999), the researcher learned that her presentation style was itself a model and could facilitate participants to explore different guidance approaches. Teachers had learned to use self-reflection and diary writing as tools in their own professional development.

### **Political Changes and Teachers' Concerns**

The main research was conducted in December 1999 when Hong Kong was designated as a Special Administrative Region (SAR) of PRC, two years after the takeover of the colony from the British. Politically, as assured by the Chinese government in its promises of “stability and prosperity” for Hong Kong, the research findings from the participant teachers showed that there were no drastic or major changes in the life of the ordinary citizen. This contrasts with the concerns raised by scholars in the pre-1997 documents described in the early chapters. On the whole, primary school teachers were not so concerned with the political changes, other than the symbolic change of the national flag and anthem, more use of Putonghua and some minor changes in school curricula. Some of them considered the change or pressure came from educational reform rather than political change. This revealed that teachers were more concerned about the daily routine to complete their teaching tasks rather than to view the changes or events historically.

The economy of Hong Kong was hard hit by the economic crisis after 1997, followed by a slump in property markets. The unemployment rate in Hong Kong has risen from 2.2% in 1997 to 6.1% in 1999 and 7.4% in 2002, which has affected some children's family income and study opportunities. Research findings showed that participant teachers noted, through their daily contacts with pupils, that there were more children applying for the textbook allowance and some pupils' parents were unemployed or receiving government subsidy. However, the participants seldom raised the issues of unemployment, under-employment or cross-border employment as an economic issue that intervened in their ways of living.

Socially, there were changing family structures taking place due to migration

and closer linkages with China. Many participant teachers found that family problems were related to student problems in the classroom. New migrant children were on the increase and needed adjustment in the classroom. Although there were incidents such as suicide, gang fighting, trafficking, rape cases and other serious crimes published in newspapers and media from time to time, most participants considered that disruptive behaviour in the classroom was not serious. Common student problems encountered were mainly related to behavioural problems, failure to submit homework, emotional problems and some lateness to class. From their dialogue with the researcher, it was observed that teachers were already too exhausted to tackle pupils' problems in addition to their heavy teaching load. They often viewed them as social issues and solved the classroom problems from the remedial and micro-perspective.

### **Understanding Teachers' Values and Beliefs**

The central research question attempts to understand teachers' beliefs in human values that affect their approaches in handling student problems. The responses of the teachers through discussions, class worksheets and student assignments showed that they were aware of the three approaches or schools of thought they were exposed to. That is, if teachers believed that the external environment affects pupils, they would use rules, rewards and punishment or teacher-centred approaches. If they believed that pupils have inner potential for change, they would use relationship listening or pupil-centred methods. If they considered that pupils are under the influence of their inner potential *and* external forces, they would use an interactive approach to handle pupil problems.

In this research study, findings were obtained from the participant teachers' responses, self-reflection reports and the researcher's classroom observation. From the research outcomes, the relationship between beliefs and approaches as reflected by the participants during teacher-pupil interaction can generate three major categories as below:

- 1) Belief in human values matched the approaches: teachers could practise

what they believed. For instance, those who believed in the influence of the external environment used the teacher-centred or rules, rewards and punishment approach to handle pupils' disciplinary problem. Teachers who believed that pupils had inner potential to improve used a humanistic approach to interact with pupils consistently.

- 2) Belief in human values did not match with approaches: teachers did not practise what they believed. For instance, those who believed in external forces used a humanistic approach and teachers who believed in a person's inner potential used a behavioural approach. For example, a typical case was represented by the "Yes, but..." answer. As a teacher said, the "Target Oriented Curriculum" catering for individual difference was very good "but" she could not follow it because of the time constraints.
- 3) Eclectic beliefs and approaches: teachers sometimes practised what they believed and they did so with or without awareness of the beliefs and approaches. It depended on the situations. They simply took a pragmatic way to solve the instant problem of maintaining an orderly classroom environment.

Whether teachers' beliefs aligned with their resulting approaches also depended on how the question was investigated. After the study of the belief inventory by Wolfgang (Wolfgang & Glickman, 1995) and follow-up discussion about the three approaches, about half of the participant teachers indicated their preference in using a teacher-centred approach or rules, rewards and punishment approach with the beliefs in external forces. About one-quarter of them used interactive approaches or the confronting-contracting method, as associated with teacher-pupil interactive forces. About one third of them used a pupil-centred approach or relationship-listening approaches as associated with the beliefs in inner potential. These approaches have been aligned with the beliefs in human values described above. The responses were considered as genuine and direct, particularly when the "Teachers' beliefs and approaches summary worksheet" was administered at the beginning of the school guidance programme.

Participants' preferences in belief became more distinct when they were asked about their beliefs and approaches in separate questions in the survey questionnaire. Only about one tenth of them opted for the beliefs in pupil-centred learning. Half of them chose the teacher-centred approach and almost half of them also opted for interactive approach. Apparently, they did not practise what they believed, for some of them did not believe in the pupil-centred approach but they also used relationship-listening strategies during interaction with pupils, as appeared in the eclectic category.

From the one-hour interview conducted in the middle of the programme, the data suggested that most participants considered that it was impossible to follow the student-centred approach based on people's inner potential, because of time constraints, the tight syllabus or curriculum to complete and the lack of skills to do so. They preferred to set up rules with rewards and punishment for effective classroom management. However, when they were asked to evaluate methods of communicating with children effectively, they considered that caring and concern for pupils were the most important components. It implied that they also treasure humanistic values of care and concern. Findings from the one-hour discussion were also consistent with the participants' self-reflection report and the researcher's school based observations.

### **Beliefs and Practice in Reality**

From participants' case study assignments, submitted at the end of the programme, most of the teachers reported using a behavioural approach, mingled with an interactive approach, as well as the communication skills of the relationship-listening approach. Apparently, teachers used the eclectic approaches irrespective of their beliefs, so long as the pupil problems could be solved. Nonetheless, they could describe the approaches they learned from the programme. These approaches were also consistent with what they said and how they operated in practice.

During the researcher's school based classroom observation of five

consenting participants, carried out twice for three of them and once for two of them after the completion of the programme, evidence showed that most participant teachers used a very teacher-centred approach with question-and-answer techniques, especially in the mathematics lessons, within a formal classroom setting. In a Chinese lesson observed, the participant teacher was more active in quoting live examples. However, in another lower primary General Study revision lesson, the participant teacher still used a directive approach to complete the instructional tasks.

Among the teachers observed, some demonstrated that they had used some interactive responses, such as inviting questions from pupils, praising them for correct answers, encouraging them to think over the wrong answers and showing worry and concern about their revision studies. Most participants offered to have the mathematics lessons observed, probably owing to the fact that it was more straight forward. Thus, the teachers' use of the teacher-centred approach became prominent, while the language lesson showed a greater variety of learning activities revealing a more interactive approach. On the whole, however, they had a very structured lesson in the context of a tight syllabus to follow, and a full daily regime from recess duties to school bus duty at the end of the day.

### **Factors affecting Teachers' Behaviour**

In this study, participant teachers have demonstrated that they had learned different counselling theories through the guidance module. From the researcher's observation, participants' self-reflection reports and the research findings, it is concluded that most teachers preferred to use teacher-centred or directive approaches in handling student problems. Although some of them did not believe in student-centred learning, they did use eclectic approaches including interactive and relationship-listening strategies in dealing with student problems, as reflected in their case study assignments. The discrepancies between participants' own beliefs and approaches are probably due to the following factors:

- 1) Traditional Chinese values lead them to think that teachers must be

respected. A typical example is that students must raise their hands and stand up to answer the teacher's question. Teachers found it hard to accept "unconditional positive regard" for disobedient pupils. Although teachers think that it is more appropriate to have teacher-centred learning, they also consider that the role of teachers should be kind and humane. The teachers themselves sometimes do not realise the stress they are exposed to in a dual culture and they try to solve the problems in an effective way.

- 2) The external environment is too pressing and does not have the space and time for them to do more student-centred teaching and interaction but they have to practise or listen in order to understand more about the root of the pupils' problems. They often want to solve the problems in the most pragmatic and rapid way.
- 3) They have acquired the theories and skills learned from the guidance programme and found that an eclectic approach was the most effective. They have either used such approaches formerly without being aware of them or they considered that these were appropriate new skills to be used. Future programme planning could take into consideration the cultural factors; time constraints and educational policy issues the participants are exposed to when introducing the use of different teaching strategies.

### **Programme Effectiveness and Teacher Development**

In this study, programme effectiveness is interpreted as the ability to use alternative strategies during teacher-pupil interaction. Most participants were able to do so in different situations. During an interview with the module co-ordinator and module lecturer, Ms Yi, dated 22 December 2000, she revealed the usefulness of the school guidance module under study and suggested that it should be upgraded to a higher level learning with additional credit hours, catering for the needs of different teachers in future.

As this programme is for helping teachers grow and learn, they can acquire

some basic skills to help children develop their personal growth. Thus, teachers have become active participants in their own professional development (Day, 1999). In addition to routine daily classroom teaching, teachers have to understand their own behaviour and interact with pupils with alternative strategies; know their ways of learning to learn and improve themselves in the teaching profession through life long learning (HKSAR/PRC, Curriculum Development Council, 2000).

### **Strengths of this Research Study**

The study contributed to the exploration of the impact of contextual changes on education; confirmed the need for a school guidance programme for teachers; led to a better understanding of teachers' beliefs and practises and provided an evaluation of the effectiveness of the programme under study for teacher development.

This research study represents a comprehensive and trustworthy voice of teachers. It pictures what a group of teachers believe and how they practise. As most participant teachers have taught for five years and more (from the survey data and self-disclosure during interview), they are quite competent at knowing why and how they act in certain ways. Through a repertoire of research methods: interviews, survey, class work and school visits, the findings delivered a consistent result: most teachers used mainly teacher-centred approach. The data also captured some of the teachers' feelings that point to the structural difficulties and contradictions in their workplace that the policy makers need to hear. The teachers expressed a passive acceptance of their frustration in a positive way. Although some teachers believed in a more humanistic and affective approach as elaborated in the programme (Moheno, 1996) that was corresponded to with the educational goal of the joy of learning, they could hardly practise it because of the existing constraints in the education system. Thus it is crucially important for the educators to rethink "what went wrong?" and "how it can be remedied?"

The research design has taken a macro perspective to view the political and

social changes, the impacts on education and the need for the school guidance programme for teachers in solving student disciplinary problems. It has also taken a micro perspective from the teachers in the foreground who have participated in the programme and whose voices, difficulties and challenges are seldom heard. Both the researcher and participants benefited from the discussion and viewed the educational issues from a more holistic perspective of the process of educational change.

### **Limitations to this Research**

#### **1) The Research Questions**

The last research question on improvement of the researcher's and the participants' pedagogical skills are not elaborated enough because the data suggested a further direction in the research rather than integration with the other major research questions.

#### **2) The Participants**

This research study contacted, as key participants, forty in-service teachers who attended the school guidance module for the period of 12 October 1999 to 16 November 1999. Data was mainly taken to represent this group of participants with very different backgrounds. Most had little training in guidance but a few had attended or were attending degree courses in the specialist area of guidance and counselling. Participants from the same cohorts may have given answers from different perspectives. Even the responses of the same teacher simply reflected his or her responses at one point of time and it may not have been consistent within a teacher himself or herself at various stages of development and in different situations. As the module lecturer was the researcher, participants may have manipulated the data, especially in the case study assignments, in order to suit the module objectives and please the module lecturer. The responses from the survey questionnaire included members from other study cohorts and their understanding of the three approaches as presented by another module lecturer might have been different. Some questions were also subject to the participants' interpretation, because they may use different strategy at



different times.

### 3) Research Setting

A decision not fully exploiting the potential of ethnographic data gathering and reporting was made in the light of the cultural setting. The usual problems of accessing sensitive data are exaggerated in this setting because of the cultural reticence of traditional and current Chinese culture to engage in writing and recording of reflections. Participants were more sensitive and required privacy, secrecy and non-publication of any data of their own because of the fear on certain consequence. Psychologically, they feared and lacked the trust to speaker to an “outsider”. Economically, they were facing an uncertain future owing to low birth rates and reduction of a number of primary schools and the government budget deficit. There were a couple of incidents that participant teachers refused to have their dialogue tape-recorded. However, they were quite happily shared verbally, giving field notes a bigger value as data than any detailed conversation transcripts. Among the thirty-five participants in the group, only five were willing to give their consent and agreed to let the researcher have follow-up visits to their classes. Given the heavy workloads and time constraints on the teachers in general, it was no surprise that the participants were not willing to have “extra work” as they had finished the programme with the Institute. Further sensitive qualitative research is required to bring to the surface the elements of this strong emotional resistance.

### 4) Research Methodology

The challenge of using both qualitative and quantitative research methods provided a complementary way of understanding the situations and yet, each area can be explored with more intensive inquiry from the richness of the education context and the subjective experience of the teachers in the field.

To enhance the “trustworthiness” of the research study, a triangulation method was used. It was found that most observation results were consistent with the case study assignment and interview results but the observation sessions, mostly happened to be in mathematic classes limited the use of different

guidance skills.

Action research in this research was only one of the many research methods used to enhance teaching. The main purpose was to help the participant teachers to have more self-reflection in order to improve teaching skills and for the researcher to modify the programme design. It was not within the scope of the action research for the participant teachers to take the initiative in designing and interpreting the research activities, nor could the researcher plan for the micro-skills necessary to improve the teaching strategies.

### **Implications during Educational Change**

While the progress of the educational reforms responded to the needs of society, the development of the school guidance programme for teachers was simultaneously responsive to this educational and social change but with a consciously humanistic emphasis designed to follow the philosophy that children deserve to have their potential realised. Despite the education policy of promoting affective curriculum (Wood, 1996) and more student-centred learning with joy, most teachers in this research cohort thought that it was not possible to do so because of the constraints they had experienced.

This research study exhausted the data from various perspectives to capture the nuances of the teachers' collective voice and opinion. In the current education reform, if a teacher was not expected to choose but simply to practise whatever others had dictated, the quality of education could hardly improve. The lack of teachers' voices in relating their difficulties encountered in teaching to those involved in the decision-making processes, has indeed been unfortunate. There can be little concerted progress if their voices are either not heard, or priority in government policy is focused away from the real, experienced need identified by the practitioners.

It is time for the policy makers to ponder the difficulties encountered by teachers, as the guidance programme under study could only serve as a

temporary “bandage” to check the bleeding. An interview with a school headmaster (Mr. Man of a primary school in the New Territories on 14 June 2000) supported the view that educational change must be related to the educational policy, the examination system, expectations of parents, the availability of resources and children’s own learning needs. A concerted effort by all parties concerned, including the management personnel, school heads, parents, students, student guidance teachers and Government officers was needed (Fullan & Hargreaves, 1992; Lam, 1998).

Questions that need all stakeholders to consider include: Have the policy makers listened to the voice of the teachers such as the class reduction so as to give teachers more space to have professional development? Have the school heads followed the examination-driven system under public or parental pressure, or facilitated educational reform catering for individual difference? Do parents go after the “elite schools” and imposed their values on the children to learn what they do not like? Are teachers reluctant to change, putting the blame on school, and the school on the parents, and the parents on the children, making a vicious circle of status quo? Are the employers looking for the paper qualifications as the primary or absolute standard in the recruitment exercises? Are the educational policies changing too fast without going to the root of the problems? All these need far and extensive research and debate. As such, teachers should not have to fight a lonely battle in developing children’s potential for the well being of the nation as a whole. This research study can only indicate the tip of the iceberg in understanding and helping teachers to cope with change for their professional development.

## **Further Research**

### **1) Cultural Studies**

The context for this study is the changing social world of Hong Kong. It has been examined from many perspectives: from the external political, social and economic forces to student problems, cultural values and classroom teaching with theories learned from a guidance programme designed to help the

teachers. Some questions that suggest themselves for further inquiry include whether such a programme can or needs to emphasise the study of these cultural shifts. The influence of the Confucian philosophy and many value orientations embedded in the primary school textbooks have affected the thoughts of not only the pupils but also the teachers. To what extent do the Asian cultural value orientations serve as a supporting force to the Western humanistic values in improving the quality of life? The whole world is in a state of reaction to globalisation in one form or another and cultures are being thrown together. Are teachers and pupils in need of special preparation and, if so, what form would it take, to help minimise the stress in the schools and to enable teachers to function effectively? Facing the increasing global violence and student problems, the study of the Asian cultural values and social harmony represents an interesting area for further research. Cultural studies and humanistic education are areas for further exploration. Humanistic education is trans-cultural and universal, but much work needs to be explored when it is applicable to different cultures, especially in the Asian contexts.

## 2) Longitudinal Study

In the process of inquiry, it is important to observe whether the teachers have used different strategies and the rationale behind these in their own resulting classroom behaviour. This opens up further research challenges regarding the internal process of choosing a method of management in the constricting environment of an active classroom. Does it come with experience? Does pragmatism give way to purposeful strategies “chosen” according to internalised humanistic principles over time? Some participants did say explicitly that they had changed, that they now understood more about children’s needs and one even wanted to become a counsellor in future. Most of them expressed the view in the programme evaluation that they had learned and changed. Because of the various “windows” into the teachers’ classroom behaviour, the richness of the data collected could hardly be elaborated in detail. This suggests that further patient ethnographic research in the school setting would be valuable in understanding and describing how teachers feel and wrestle with decisions and pressures in these times of

social upheaval. This opens another vast area for action research, ethnographic case study and longitudinal study to improve the pedagogical skills of teachers in affective education and the joy of learning. In-depth and prolonged interviews, focus groups and journal keeping might bring to the surface valuable teacher experience that would contribute to the fine-tuning of programmes and policy. This is a significant step for their professional development in teacher education in the new millennium.

## **Conclusion**

One of the goals of educational practice is to develop the joy of learning in pupils, according to the Government policy report in Hong Kong (Education Commission, 1999). A review of literature source has shown that humanistic education is one of the effective ways of happy learning and encourages the whole child development. It is important for teachers to understand human values and have unconditional positive regard so that children are helped to learn and develop their potentials. This quality is fundamental to professional teacher development. Teachers will be more enthusiastic in their teaching career if they believe they can be agents for furthering human potential.

Through the introduction of the school guidance programme for in-service teachers, this research study aims to understand the teachers' beliefs in human values and how they use different guidance strategies to bring out human potentials. It is found that the majority of the teachers are aware of different guidance models taught. Teacher-centred approach is still the preferred type of teacher-pupil interaction. Among all other factors previously discussed, the pre-dominant influence comes from the policy makers. Some teachers want to practise the student-centred approach, but they could not because of the large class size, the tight syllabus and the examination system that are repeatedly mentioned by the teachers. The policy makers should provide more resources for teachers to practise the student-centred approach and achieve the educational goal of the joy of learning.

On the other hand, there seems to be an inability at this time for a considerable number of teachers as stakeholders to take up the responsibility to change and participate in some form of education research project as a vehicle for change. Unless teachers are willing to put forth their views in public, their voices will remain unheard. They could enhance themselves by involving more actively in the educational change and acquire new attitudes and skills in understanding themselves and others. As such, they could contribute more to the solution of the global education problems in the changing society of the twenty-first century.

## **Appendix 1**

### **LIST OF PARTICIPANTS**

<b><u>Participant Teachers</u></b>	<b><u>One hour Interview</u></b>
Ms Yung	26 October 2000
Ms Sui	2 November 2000
Ms Wai	8 November 2000
Ms Cheng	9 November 2000
Ms King	2 November 2000
Mr. Kwok	4 November 2000
Mr. Shing	4 November 2000
Ms Yuen	8 November 2000
Ms Lan	9 November 2000
Ms Man	21 October 2000
Ms Chiu	19 October 2000
Ms Bick	9 November 2000
Ms Sau	25 October 2000
Ms Pui	25 October 2000
Mr. Wing	2 November 2000
Ms Wah	25 October 2000
Ms Bo	8 November 2000
Ms Shuet	25 October 2000
Ms Yin	26 October 2000
Ms Liu	9 November 2000
Mr. Lee	8 November 2000
Ms Bobo	28 October 2000
Ms Kai	4 November 2000
Ms Kwan	26 October 2000
Ms Yuk	19 October 2000
Ms Yee	19 October 2000
Ms Mui	26 October 2000
Ms Li	20 October 2000
Ms Yip	22 October 2000
Ms Sung	25 October 2000
Ms Shui	21 October 2000
Ms Kit	9 November 2000
Ms Kam	4 November 2000

Ms Kuen	21 October 2000
Ms Tai	19 October 2000
Ms Mei	2 November 2000
Ms Ying	22 October 2000
Mr. Sze	19 October 2000
Ms Young	4 November 2000
Ms Chun	9 November 2000

### **CLASS OBSERVATION & SCHOOL VISITS**

<b><u>Participant Teachers</u></b>	<b><u>Date</u></b>
Mr. Lee	
Observation One	6 Jan 2000
Observation Two	12 June 2000
Ms Young	
Observation One	21 Feb 2000
Observation Two	14 June 2000
Ms Sung	
Observation One	12 April 2000
Observation Two	14 June 2000
Ms Chiu	
Observation One	13 July 2000
Ms Cheng	
Observation One	13 June 2000



**Primary School Student Guidance Approaches**

The purpose of this survey is to collect information on student guidance and counselling approaches of primary school teachers. Please answer according to your knowledge. I believe that your professional assistance would contribute to school guidance work. Please give a tick '☑' in appropriate box.

**Section A: School Background**

The school you teach ☑

Q1 School established: a. Less than 5 years ☑ b. 5 to 10 years ☑ c. 10 years or above ☑

Q2 Belong to: a. Boy school ☑ b. Girl school ☑ c. Co-educational school ☑

Q3 Religious background is:

1. No religion ☑

2. a. Buddhism ☑ b. Christianity ☑ c. Catholic ☑ d. Moslem ☑ e. Taoism ☑

f. Confucianism ☑ Others: \_\_\_\_\_

Q4 Type of school subsidy:

a. Subsidized school ☑ b. Private school ☑ c. Government school ☑

Q5 Location: a. Hong Kong Island ☑ b. Kowloon ☑ c. New Territories ☑

**Section B: School Guidance Work**

The school you teach ☑

Q6 How can student guidance work be carried out? (Can select more than one item)

a. School social worker (school guidance officer or school guidance teacher) ☑

b. Discipline master ☑

c. Class teacher ☑

d. Discipline and guidance teacher ☑

e. Teacher-parent association



f. Others



Please specify \_\_\_\_\_

Q.7 How many teachers participate in the discipline and counselling team?

1. a. one b. 2 to 3 c. 4 to 5 d. 6 or above

2. Are you a member of the team a. Yes b. No

Q8 What kind of guidance and counselling training have you received?

(Please give a tick '' in appropriate box)

Training received	You	Other teachers (No.)
a. Less than 15 hours		
b. Certificate course		
c. Bachelor degree course or above		
d. Others		

Q9 What kind of approaches do you use to counsel students?

(Can select more than one item. Please list the subjects/ activities.)

a. Independent subject (e.g. guidance and personal growth, ethics, class teacher lesson)

\_\_\_\_\_

b. Permeable subjects (through Chinese, General Subject, Arts and Crafts)

\_\_\_\_\_

c. Integrated curriculum (together with other courses, such as ethic education, life skills integration)

\_\_\_\_\_

d. Informal curriculum (e.g. whole school approach, assembly, extra-curriculum)

\_\_\_\_\_

e. Other approaches: \_\_\_\_\_

Q10 Student Problems

1. When you handle student problems, you have to do individual guidance and counselling.

a. Very often b. Always c. Occasionally d. Seldom e. Never

If yes, how many times do you spend per week

a. 1/2 hour b. 1 hour c. 2 hour or above

2. Please list the main student problems:

- a. Failure to submit homework ☐ b. Late ☐ c. Behavioural problem ☐ d. Emotional problem ☐ e.

Others \_\_\_\_\_

Q11 Interaction between teacher and pupils

1. When you handle student problems, what are your common methods?

- a. Rules, rewards and punishment ☐ b. Confronting-contracting ☐ c. Relationship-listening



2. What are your beliefs in teacher-pupil interaction?

- a. People are affected by external environment ☐

- b. People have internal and external interaction ☐

- c. People are affected by inner potential ☐

3. Please list out 5 most common student-centred communication skills (e.g. care, acceptance) \_\_\_\_\_

Q12 Can student guidance and counselling in schools match with the 'Aims of Education' in the

Education Blueprint printed by the Education Department? (Please give a tick '☐' in appropriate box)

Aim - Help student:	Perfectly match	Match	Partly match	Not match	Not applicable
a. Potential and whole person development					
b. Establish positive attitude and value					
c. Promote active learning					
d. Other objective (please specify)					

Q.13 The following list some problems encountered, have you encountered similar problems when doing student guidance and counselling?

	Always	Occasionally	Seldom	Never
a. Not compatible with school educational aims				
b. Lack of teachers properly trained in school guidance & counselling				
c. Teachers not willing to change teaching methods				
d. Teachers too busy; no time to counsel students				
e. Lack of teaching resources				
f. Students not intended to improve				
g. Parents not willing to cooperate				
h. Lack of Professional support				
i. Others (please specify)				

NOTE: If you are willing to strengthen student guidance and counselling work, continue to participate in

this research work, share your experience and knowledge, and have your support and cooperation,  
please leave your:

Name: \_\_\_\_\_ Contact Telephone No.: \_\_\_\_\_

Correspondence Address: \_\_\_\_\_

-End

## **Primary School Student Guidance Approaches Questionnaire**

### **Aim**

The aim of the questionnaire was to investigate the current situation of student guidance and counselling in various primary schools; the general attitude of primary school teachers towards student guidance and counselling; and their behaviour and beliefs. The questionnaire was to provide a general understanding of the teachers' contextual background in handling guidance matters in their schools.

### **Objectives**

- 1) To learn about participant teachers' school background;
- 2) To appreciate individual and peer training formation related to student guidance;
- 3) To understand how participant teachers handle student guidance problems;
- 4) To find out problems encountered by participant teachers for future planning on student guidance

### **Design of Questionnaire**

The questionnaire was designed to investigate some general student guidance situations in various primary schools from the participant teachers' perspectives. It consisted mainly of two sections. Section A was about their school background and Section B was related to participants' training in guidance and counselling, their beliefs, approaches and experience in handling student guidance problems.

### **Target Respondents**

This questionnaire was sent to random groups of primary school teachers who chose to attend an elective school guidance module at a teacher education institute in Hong Kong. Participants normally have taught for 5 years or more, and they were recommended by the headmaster or headmistress of the serving school to attend. According to the circulation documents of the Education Department, primary school teachers are strongly encouraged to attend the course if they want to be promoted to a senior position.

In this survey, the responses were trustworthy for several reasons. Firstly, they were in-service primary school teachers with several years of experience and most of them were class teachers. Secondly, they were familiar with the student problems and guidance situation in their own schools. Thirdly, participants came from various primary schools, different districts and levels of achievement across the bands. For instance, 134 participant teachers coming from different schools did give substantial views of the current phenomenon and have their own rights and representation. Fourthly, they seldom attended the course twice within several years, so no repeated sample would be collected and corrected.

## Investigation Process

After deducting the error questionnaires such as, blanket, serious missing and broken, totally there were 134 successfully counts. The rate of return was 70.5%. There were 190 questionnaires delivered to 7 groups of primary school teachers, who attended the module on School Guidance of Classroom Management – Primary Retraining Course for Primary School Teachers from September 1999 to June 2000.

Totally, there were 353 primary school teachers present in the School Guidance of Classroom Management module. There were 6 cohorts in 1999 - 2000 academic year. In order to deliver the questionnaires throughout the whole academic year, 1 to 2 groups were selected randomly from each cohort. A total of 7 groups were selected as follows:

Number of questionnaires delivered from 1999 – 2000 academic year.

Cohort/ Class	Class duration	No. of questionnaire delivery		
		Group 1	Group 2	Group 3
1	6/9/1999 – 11/10/1999	21	N/A	N/A
2	12/10/1999 – 16/11/1999	40	0	N/A
3	17/11/1999 – 21/12/1999	24	0	N/A
4	14/2/2000 – 17/3/2000	30	0	N/A
5	20/3/2000 – 9/5/2000	0	30	N/A
6	15/5/2000 – 19/6/2000	0	30	15

## Questionnaire Analysis

In general, each question was undergoing descriptive statistic analysis by using Statistical Packages for Social Sciences as an analysis tool.

## Strength and Limitation

Firstly, the rate of return was quite satisfactory. Secondly, the sample size was large and sampling error was small. As there are around 830 primary schools in Hong Kong, and every primary school teacher could represent his/ her school, such that the sample size was nearly 15% of the population size and sampling error was less than 0.08 under 95% confidence ( $Z = 1.96$ ).

Sampling error:

$$e = Z \sqrt{\frac{p(1-p)}{n}} \sqrt{\frac{N-n}{N-1}} \quad N \text{ (Population size)} = 830$$
$$n \text{ (Sample size)} = 134$$

<sup>1</sup> Mark L. Berenson. & David M. Levine (1992). Basic Business Statistics: Concepts and Application. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall (Pg. 350)

The possible value of sampling error in different proportion:

P	0.9	0.8	0.7	0.6	0.5
1-p	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.5
E	0.047	0.063	0.071	0.076	0.078

Thirdly, the participants were voluntary, experienced in service and well educated with sufficient knowledge and ability to reply the questionnaire. Moreover, most of the questions were asking about the general situations of students guidance work in schools. They were not to investigate their opinions towards any statements, nor to determine their strength or weakness. Therefore, they could give the true picture of their work situations.

As the project investigated the general attitude of primary school teachers towards student guidance, quantitative data in this survey provided background information to understand the general situation, but it was inadequate to study the case in-depth. Therefore, qualitative surveying, such as, personal interview, classroom observation, documentary analysis and so forth was carried out to establish and enhance the representation of the project.

## Results of Questionnaire

### Section A: School Background

Q1 The school you teach: School established year

Years	less than 5	5 to 10	10 or above	Missing	Total
Frequency	8	30	95	1	134
Percent	6	22.4	79.9	0.7	100
Valid Percent	6	22.6	71.4	N/A	100

There were 71.4% of the participants working in a school established 10 year or above; 22.6% of them selected 5 to 10 years.

Q2 The school you teach: Belong to which kind of school

School	Boy	Girl	Co-education	Missing	Total
Frequency	0	6	119	9	134
Percent	0	4.5	88.8	6.7	100
Valid Percent	0	4.8	95.2	N/A	100

There were 95.2% of the participants coming from Co-education school.

Q3 The school you teach: Religious background

Religions	No	Buddhism	Christianity	Catholic	Taoism	Others	Missing	Total
Frequency	66	8	35	20	2	1	2	134
Percent	49.3	6	26.1	14.9	1.5	0.7	1.5	100
Valid Percent	50	6.1	26.5	15.2	1.5	0.8	N/A	100

Half of the participants came from schools of no religious background and 26.5% of them came from Christian schools.

#### Q4 The school you teach: Type of school subsidy

School	Subsidized	Private	Government	Missing	Total
Frequency	112	2	19	1	134
Percent	83.6	1.5	14.2	0.7	100
Valid Percent	84.2	1.5	14.3	N/A	100

There were 84.2% participants working in subsidized schools and 14.3% working for the government.

#### Q5 The school you teach: Location

Location	Hong Kong Island	Kowloon	New Territories	Missing	Total
Frequency	27	36	67	4	130
Percent	20.1	26.9	50	3	100
Valid percent	20.8	27.7	51.5	N/A	100

Half of the participants' schools were located at New Territories.

### Section B: School Guidance Work

#### Q6 The school you teach: How can student guidance work be carried out?

Carried out by	School Social Worker	Discipline Master	Class Teacher	Discipline and Counselling Teacher	Teacher Parents Association	Others
No. Chosen	111	102	118	47	16	8

Class teacher was the most common person to carry out student guidance work with 118 selections, then, followed by school social worker with 111 selections. The least common way was teacher-parents association with only 16 selections. Most respondents reflected that class teacher was the key person for student guidance work in a primary school.

#### Q7.1 The school you teach: How many teachers participate in the discipline and counselling team?

No. of teacher	1	2-3	4-5	>=6	Missing	Total
Frequency	11	46	29	37	11	134
Percent	8.2	34.3	21.6	27.6	8.2	100
Valid Percent	8.9	37.4	23.6	30.1	N/A	100

There were 37.4% of the participants' schools with 2-3 teachers participating in the discipline and counselling team.

#### Q7.2. Are you a member of the team:

	Yes	No	Missing	Total
Frequency	17	44	73	134
Percent	12.7	32.8	54.5	100
Valid Percent	27.9	72.1	N/A	100

Most of the respondents were not the team members of the discipline and counselling team. Hence, they have to attend the school guidance programme.

#### Q8 What kind of guidance & counselling training have you received?

No. Chosen	Less than 15 hours	Training received by Certificate course	Bachelor of Degree Course	Others
Interviewee	45	8	0	7



Other teachers at school	18	24	15	3
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Presently, a substantial number of primary school teachers did not receive Bachelor degree in guidance and counselling training and some teachers may think that the teacher's role is still more confined to teaching.

#### Q9 What kind of approaches do you use to counsel students?

Approaches Uses	Independent	Permeable	Integrated Curriculum	Informal Curriculum	Others
No. Chosen	80	82	23	110	8

Only 23 selections chose integrated curriculum as an approach in counsel students. There were 110 selections were in informal curriculum. It implied that guidance and counselling was still not a formal curriculum in most of primary schools.

#### Q10. Student Problems

##### 1) Individual student guidance and counselling

##### a) When you handle student problems, you have to do individual counselling (including guidance)

Individual Counselling	Very often	Always	Occasionally	Seldom	Total
Frequency	65	58	10	1	134
Percent	48.5	43.3	7.5	0.7	100
Valid Percent	48.5	43.3	7.5	0.7	100

Majority of primary school teachers would have to do individual guidance and counselling. About 48.5% of them managed students' problems very often and 43.3% always arranged individual guidance and counselling meetings with students.

##### b) If yes, how much time do you spend per week:

Hour Spent Per Week	1/2 Hour	1 Hour	2 Hour or Above	Missing	Total
Frequency	62	48	19	5	134
Percent	46.3	35.8	14.2	3.7	100
Valid Percent	46.3	35.8	14.2	3.7	100

Nearly 50% of primary school teachers spent half hour or less per week for student consultation, individual guidance and counselling. About 37% of them preferred an hour for a week.

##### 2) Please list the main student problems:

Main Student Problems	Failure to Submit Homework	Late	Behavioural Problem	Emotional Problem	Others
No. Chosen	95	17	113	53	5

There were 113 out of 134 primary school teachers considering that behavioural problem was one of the serious student problems, and 95 out of 134 teachers agreed that failure to submit homework was one of the serious student problems.

#### Q11 Interaction between teacher and students.

##### 1) When you handle student problems, what are your common methods?

Common methods	Rules, Rewards and Punishment	Confronting-Contraction	Relationship and Listening
No. Chosen	74	38	61

There were 74 out of 134 interviewees thinking that “rules, reward and punishment” was one of the common methods for handling student problems. About 28 out of 134 participants selected “confronting-contracting” as one of the frequently used methods. There were 61 out of 134 candidates choosing “relationship and listening” as one of the popular methods in interaction between teacher and students.

## 2) What are your beliefs in teacher-pupil interaction?

Beliefs	People are affected by external environment	People have internal and external interaction	People are affected by inner potential
No. Chosen	67	70	17

There were 67 out of 134 primary school teachers believing that people were affected by external environment. About 70 out of 134 participants believed that people were affected by internal and external interaction. Only 17 out of 134 them believed that believed people were affected by inner potential.

## 3) Please list out five most common student-centred communication skills (e.g. care, acceptance)

Grouping List		
Group	Subject	Subtitle
1	Caring	Caring/ to show concerns as their friends
2	Acceptance	Acceptance
3	Listening	Listen/active listening/patient silent listening/ careful listening
4	Encouragement	Encouragement/ praise/ appreciation/ pat/ reward/ encourage positive concern/ appraise/ advice/ sense of achievement
5	Respect	Respect
6	Empathy	Empathy/ sharing/ understanding forgiveness/ understanding/ generous forgiveness/ understanding fully from others position/ sharing other person's feeling/ sympathy/ understanding each others/ forgiveness/ coverage
7	Patience	Patience/ enduring trouble
8	Trust	Trust/ reliable/ mutual trust
9	Love	Love/ concern/ friendly/ regard/ kindness/ love and be loved/ smiling and easy going/ mutual love/ love and caring/ love and protective care
10	Support	Identity/ support/ satisfaction/ helping/ comfort
11	Trustworthy	Trustworthy/ genuineness/ honesty/ frankness/ sincerity/ empathy trustworthy
12	Communication	Converse/ journal writing/ communication/ talk/ chat/ eye-contact/ attention/ observation/ consoling
13	Eagerness	Open/ open minded/ model example/ never give-up/ follow-up/ eagerness/ thanks giving/ expected/ objective/ optimistic/ giving suggestion/ teaching
14	Participation	Playing ballgames together/ participating in their birthday parties/ writing letter/ contracting/ negotiating agreement
15	Analysis	Analysis
16	Fairness	Fairness

No. Chosen	Caring	Acceptance	Listening	Encouragement	Empathy	Love
First	24	2	18	2	8	4
Second	14	16	7	9	5	5
Third	9	16	8	5	4	3
Forth	5	10	7	10	9	5
Fifth	1	6	2	6	2	2
Sixth	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total	53	51	42	32	28	19

No. Chosen	Respect	Eagerness	Patient	Trustworthy	Trust	Support
First	1	1	3	2	3	2
Second	4	-	2	1	4	-
Third	3	2	2	5	-	3
Fourth	-	5	1	1	1	1
Fifth	5	3	3	2	2	1
Sixth	-	1	-	-	-	1
Total	13	12	11	11	10	8

No of Chosen	Communication	Participation	Analysis	Fairness
First	2	-	-	-
Second	-	1	-	-
Third	2	2	-	-
Fourth	-	2	-	-
Fifth	3	-	1	1
Sixth	1	-	-	-
Total	8	5	1	1

'Caring' was the most common and important student-centred communication skills. There were 53 participants choosing caring as the common student-centred communication skills, with 24 replied it as first choice, and 14 responded it as second choice. Acceptance was also the common student-centred communication skills, as 51 primary school teachers answered. However, listening was more important than acceptance, 18 out of 42 primary school teachers answered it as their first choice. Encouragement, empathy and love were also the common student-centred communication skills. Apparently, most of the primary teachers understood that caring, acceptance, listening, encouragement, empathy and love were important in communicating with students.

Q12 Can student guidance and counselling in school match with the 'Aims of Education' in the Education Blueprint by the Education Department?

Aim – Help student		Perfectly match	Match	Partly match	Not match	Not applicable	Missing	Total
Potential and whole person development	Frequency	8	32	77	5	1	11	134
	Percent	6	23.9	57.5	3.7	0.7	8.2	100
	Valid percent	6.5	26	62.6	4.1	0.8	N/A	100
Establish positive attitude and value	Frequency	8	37	75	5	1	8	134
	Percent	6	27.6	56	3.7	0.7	6	100
	Valid percent	6.3	29.4	59.5	4	0.8	N/A	100
Promote active learning	Frequency	5	43	74	5	0	7	134
	Percent	3.7	32.1	55.2	3.7	0	5.2	100
	Valid percent	3.9	33.9	58.3	3.9	3.9	N/A	100
Other objective	Frequency	0	1	1	0	2	130	134
	Percent	0	0.75	0.75	0	1.5	97	100
	Valid percent	0	25	25	0	50	N/A	100

About 62.6% interviewees selected that school guidance work "partly matched" with the aims of education for bringing out students' potential and whole person development and only 26% of them responded that it "matched" with such aim. Similarly, 59.5% interviewees selected that school guidance work "partly matched" with the aim of education for instilling positive attitude and values and

only 29.4% of them believed it “matched”. About 58.3% interviewees considered that school guidance work partly matched with “active learning” and 33.9% of them believed it matched with such aim.

Q.13 The following list some problems encountered, have you encountered similar problems when doing students guidance and counselling?

Teaching Resources		Always	Occasionally	Seldom	Never	Missing	Total
Not compatible with school educational aims	Frequency	12	63	38	7	14	134
	Percent	9	47	28.4	5.2	10.4	100
	Valid Percent	10	52.5	31.7	5.8	N/A	100
Lack of teachers properly trained in school guidance and counselling	Frequency	59	57	11	1	6	134
	Percent	44	42.5	8.2	0.7	4.5	100
	Valid Percent	46.1	44.5	8.6	0.8	N/A	100
Teachers not willing to change teaching methods	Frequency	29	66	29	1	9	134
	Percent	21.6	49.3	21.6	0.7	6.7	100
	Valid Percent	23.2	52.8	23.2	0.8	N/A	100
Teachers are too busy, have no time to counsel students	Frequency	66	31	27	4	6	134
	Percent	49.3	23.1	20.1	3	4.5	100
	Valid Percent	51.6	24.2	21.1	3.1	N/A	100
Lack of teaching resources	Frequency	42	68	14	0	10	134
	Percent	31.3	50.7	10.4	0	7.5	100
	Valid Percent	33.9	54.8	11.3	0	N/A	100
Students not intended to improve	Frequency	42	69	13	0	10	134
	Percent	31.3	51.5	9.7	0	7.5	100
	Valid Percent	33.9	55.6	10.5	0	N/A	100
Parents not willing to cooperate	Frequency	51	63	12	2	6	134
	Percent	38.1	47	9	1.5	4.5	100
	Valid Percent	39.8	49.2	9.4	1.6	N/A	100
Lack of professional support	Frequency	58	57	9	1	9	134
	Percent	43.3	42.5	6.7	0.7	6.7	100
	Valid Percent	46.4	45.6	7.2	0.8	N/A	100
Others	Frequency	1	0	0	0	133	134
	Percent	0.7	0	0	0	99.3	100
	Valid Percent	100	0	0	0	N/A	100

About 51.6% of the participants always felt that they were too busy and had no time to counsel students. There were 46.4% of them always feeling the lack of professional support when handling student guidance and counselling and 46.1% of them felt that they always encountered the lack of teachers with proper guidance training in primary schools. Over half of the participants occasionally found that school guidance work not compatible with school educational aims. Similarly, over half of the respondents occasionally felt that teachers were unwilling to change teaching methods, lacked teaching resources, students not intended to improve and nearly half of the parents were not willing to cooperate when they were doing student guidance and counselling.

Ethic Approval



AUSTRALIAN CATHOLIC UNIVERSITY  
Office of Research

TO: Ms Elaine Tung  
Dr Peter Hancock, Mount Saint Mary Campus

CC: Executive Officer, University Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC)

FROM: Mark Berlage, Administrative Officer (Research and Grants)  
Office of Research, Mount Saint Mary Campus

SUBJECT: Application for Ethics Clearance of a Research Project: N2000- 55  
*The study of the effectiveness of a school guidance program for teacher development in a changing Hong Kong society.*

DATE: June 22, 2000

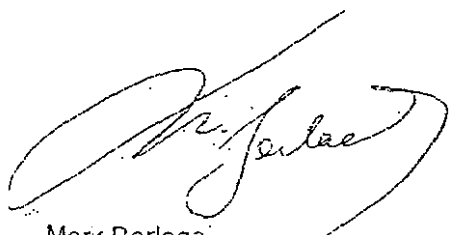
Déar Elaine and Peter,

I am pleased to advise that your application for Ethics Clearance for the project N2000 – 55 has been approved by the local panel of Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC), pending ratification by the full committee at its next meeting scheduled for 18 July 2000.

Please note the conditions detailed in the attached approval form and sign and return this form with any requested material to the Office of Research as soon as possible so that your approval is confirmed. It is recommended that you retain a copy of the approval for your files.

Thank you in advance for attending to this matter and best wishes with your project.

Regards,



Mark Berlage  
Administrative Officer (Research and Grants)



AUSTRALIAN CATHOLIC UNIVERSITY  
Office of Research

HUMAN RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE  
ETHICS CLEARANCE FOR A RESEARCH PROJECT – APPROVAL FORM

Student Researcher:	Ms Elaine Tung, Mount Saint Mary Campus
Supervisor:	Dr Peter Hancock, Mount Saint Mary Campus
HREC Number:	N2000-55
Project Title:	<i>The study of the effectiveness of a school guidance program for teacher development in a changing Hong Kong society.</i>

Ethics clearance has been provisionally granted for the project:

For the period: 16/06/2000 to 31/12/2000

subject to the following conditions as stipulated in the *National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Research Involving Humans, 1999*, issued by the National Health and Medical Research Council (NHMRC) in accordance with the NHMRC Act, 1992 (Cth).

- b) that principal investigators provide reports annually, on the form supplied by the Institutional Ethics Committee, on matters including:
  - security of records
  - compliance with approved consent procedures and documentation
  - compliance with other special conditions; and
- b) as a condition of approval of the protocol, require that investigators report immediately anything which might affect ethical acceptance of the protocol, including:
  - adverse effects on subjects
  - proposed changes in the protocol
  - Unforeseen events that might affect continued ethical acceptability of the project

and subject to the following condition(s) as stipulated by the HREC local panel:

**Information Letter**

- It was noted that the information letter is not written strictly in accordance with HREC guidelines. However, the principles of ethical conduct in the guidelines are met. Account was taken of the extenuating circumstances, cultural difference and issue of distance of the student from easily accessible advice and supervision.

However, the Letters should include a statement that the project has been approved by the Australian Catholic University Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC). They should also include contact details for the HREC.

**Consent Form**

- Comments in relation to the Information Letter also apply to the Consent Form.

**Security**

- HREC guidelines require that data must be retained by the Principal Investigator in secure storage for 5 years. Please clarify the data storage arrangements for this project to meet this requirement.

**Other**

- Please provide the HREC with an English translation of the interview questions.



AUSTRALIAN CATHOLIC UNIVERSITY  
Office of Research

The following comments were also noted in relation to the application:

- Applications should be typed for ease of review by the HREC. However, the extenuating circumstances surrounding this application are acknowledged. Therefore, this requirement and some of the other usual technical requirements have been waived in this instance. They should be noted for future applications.
- Due to some of the data recording methods, the participants would not, as stated in the application be anonymous to the researcher. However it is noted that confidentiality will be maintained.
- The anticipated duration of the project was from 1/1/2000 1/7/2000. However, approval for contact with participants is only provided from the HREC provisional approval date of 16.06.2000

***A Final Report Form will need to be completed and submitted to the University Human Research Ethics Committee within one month of the completion of the project.***

***Please sign, date and return this form (with any additional information or material, if requested by the Committee) to the Administrative Officer (Research and Ethics) to whom you submitted your application, for approval to be confirmed.***

Signed:.....

Administrative Officer (Research and Ethics), HREC

Date: June 22, 2000

(To be completed by the Principal Investigator or Student and Supervisor, as appropriate)

The date when I/we expect to commence contact with human participants or access their records is: .....

I/We hereby declare that I/we am/are aware of the conditions governing research involving human participants as set out in the Human Research Ethics Committee's *Guidelines for Researchers* and agree to the conditions stated above.

Signed:.....

(Principal Investigator or Supervisor, as appropriate)

Date:.....

Signed:.....

(Researcher, if student)

Date: July 20, 2000

Participant Information Sheet: Ethics Protocol



AUSTRALIAN CATHOLIC UNIVERSITY  
Office of Research

**TITLE OF THE PROJECT:** *"The study of the effectiveness of a school guidance programme for teacher development in a changing Hong Kong society."*

**SUPERVISOR:** Dr. PETER HANCOCK  
**RESEACHER:** ELAINE TUNG

This project is my doctoral research work at the Australia Catholic University in Sydney. The aim of the research is to understand teachers' beliefs of human values and approaches to solving student problems. The goal is to investigate teachers' use of student guidance theories through a retraining programme for in-service primary school teachers offered by a teacher educational institution in Hong Kong. This is in relationship to the effectiveness of the school guidance programme for teacher development in the changing Hong Kong society. Your participation in this project would contribute significantly to understanding a teacher's practice and the use of alternative approaches during teacher pupil interaction in the school context for similar future programme planning.

For the research purpose, individual interviews, survey questionnaires, class observation, school visits and the use of class work sheets and assignments will be necessary and demand your time and effort. Interviews will be taped and transcripts of the interview will be forwarded or provided to you for clarification any time as requested.

Results of this study and some general data may appear in publication and under no circumstances will your name or the name of your school be identified in any way. Your identification will be protected by the privacy and confidentiality of research that will include disguising the identity of you and all other participants. The interviews will be kept confidential and data will be securely locked and used for research purpose only.

The research procedures for data collection will take place for twelve months from October to November 1999. During the implementation of the school guidance programme, participants will be interviewed. Questionnaire will be distributed by the end of the programme. First school visits will begin in December 1999 and second visits will be in May and June 2000.

Through your participation, you are given an opportunity to express your voice and needs from the school context. Your participation is voluntary and you are free to withdraw and discontinue participation in this research project without giving a reason for doing so. You are welcome to ask any questions



about the procedures of this research. Your questions can be directed to:

Researcher: Elaine Tung  
Telephone: 97635004  
Supervisor: Dr. Peter Hancock  
Telephone: 97392326

The Australian Catholic University Research Projects Ethics Committee has approved this project study. In the event that you have any complaint about the way you have been treated during the study, or you have any queries about the investigation, you may write to the Office of Research. Any complaint will be treated in confidence and investigated and you will be informed of the outcome in due course. The contact address is:

The Chair, University of Research Projects Ethics Committee  
C/o Office of Research  
Australian Catholic University  
Mount Saint Mary Campus  
412 Mt. Alexander Road  
Ascot Vale VIC 3032  
Tel: 03 9241 4513  
Fax: 03 9241 4529

Should you agree to participate in this project, please read the explanatory letter and sign both copies of the Reply Slip attached to Consent Letter (attached). Please retain one copy and return the other copy to the researcher for record purpose.

**PARTICIPANT'S CONSENT NOTES**

親愛的老師:

本人素來對輔導及教師之專業發展甚為關注，現正進行一項“輔導與教師發展”的研究工作:

- (一)研究目的:
- 了解“輔導”與小學在職教師工作的關係
  - 明白“輔導”如何影響在職教師的個人專業發展
  - 探究教師在教學情境中所產生的情緒和以往生活經驗的關係

(二)研究方法: 透過面談作資料搜集.

- (三)研究程序:
1. 十月至十一月期間，在學院內作個人訪問(已完成)
  2. 十二月中到貴校觀察課堂一節作初次課後跟進(詳情容後宣佈)
  3. 五月中再到貴校作第二次課程跟進(詳情容後宣佈)

本人對閣下較早前能參與面談非常感激，現再誠邀閣下參加此課後跟進研究。如蒙答允，請將回條交回本人，謝謝合作。

董張伊麗  
研究員

-----  
回 條

本人\_\_\_\_\_ ( )願意/不願意參與董張伊麗女士的“輔導與教師發展”的課後跟進研究計劃。本人願意接受的跟進方法:

- ☐ 觀課
- ☐ 電話訪問
- ☐ 回答問卷

簽署:\_\_\_\_\_

日期:\_\_\_\_\_

注意: 所有資料，一概保密，只供研究用途。研究完成後，將會銷毀。

**TRANSLATION LETTER - PARTICIPANT'S CONSENT NOTES**

Dear Teacher,

I, the researcher, am interested in guidance, counselling and professional teacher development. My research project is on “student guidance and teacher development”:

1. Research aims
  - Understanding the work between “student guidance” and the work of in-service teachers
  - Understanding how “student guidance” affects professional teacher development.
  - Investigate the relationship between the participant's emotions and life experience in the school context
2. Research methods: Interview/ classroom interaction/ school visits
3. Research procedures:
  - 1) October - November - Individual Interview
  - 2) December - First School Visits
  - 3) May - Second School Visits

I am grateful to you if you could participate in the interview.\* I am now inviting you to participate further in my research. Please complete the consent notes and return it to me. Thank you for your cooperation.

Elaine TUNG  
Researcher

(\*Ethical Protocol read to participants beforehand.)

**REPLY SLIP**

I \_\_\_\_\_ ( ) am willing/ not willing to participate in Ms Elaine TUNG's 'Guidance and teacher development research project' and any other follow-up activities.' The methods I prefer are:

- ☐ School Visit
- ☐ Telephone Interview
- ☐ Questionnaire

Signature: \_\_\_\_\_  
Date: \_\_\_\_\_

NOTE: All personal information is kept in confidence and used for research purpose only. It will be destroyed after the completion of the research project.

## **Student Problem Questionnaires**

The following is a questionnaire for survey, and the aim is to find out the general problem of primary school students. Please indicate the level or degree of occurrence in your school regarding the following student problems:

**5 - Occurred Frequently**                      **1 - Occurred Very Rarely**

Grade \_\_\_\_\_

Location \_\_\_\_\_

### **Category A: - Study Problems**

Failure to Submit Homework	5 4 3 2 1
Incomplete Homework	5 4 3 2 1
Failure to Carry Stationery	5 4 3 2 1
Absent from Class	5 4 3 2 1
Lack of Motivation	5 4 3 2 1
Inattention	5 4 3 2 1
Against New Ideas	5 4 3 2 1
Cheating in Examination	5 4 3 2 1
Copying Others Homework	5 4 3 2 1
Others	5 4 3 2 1

### **Category C: - Emotional Problems**

Isolation	5 4 3 2 1
Lack of Confidence	5 4 3 2 1
Sense of Failure	5 4 3 2 1
Hyper-activity	5 4 3 2 1
Loneliness	5 4 3 2 1
Rebellious	5 4 3 2 1
Attention Seeking	5 4 3 2 1
Depression	5 4 3 2 1
Suicidal Tendency	5 4 3 2 1
Others	5 4 3 2 1

### **Category B: Discipline Problems**

Rude Behaviour	5 4 3 2 1
Absent from School	5 4 3 2 1
Foul Language	5 4 3 2 1
Fighting	5 4 3 2 1
Bodily Assault	5 4 3 2 1
Damaging Property	5 4 3 2 1
Intimidation	5 4 3 2 1
Theft	5 4 3 2 1
Bullying	5 4 3 2 1
Gambling	5 4 3 2 1
Triad Society	5 4 3 2 1
Criminal Offence	5 4 3 2 1
Others	5 4 3 2 1

## Appendix 6

### **“Three Beliefs and Approaches to Solving Student Problems”**

<b>Category</b>	<b>Three Beliefs and Approaches</b>	(Please choose one category below)
(1)	Pupil-centred Approach (Relationship-listening*)	
(2)	Interactive Approach (Contracting-confronting*)	
(3)	Teacher-centred Approach (Rules-reward and Punishment*)	

\*Grouped by Wolfgang and Glickman (1995)

**SAMPLE INDEX GENERATED FROM PARTICIPANTS' RESPONSES TO  
GUIDING QUESTIONS (1- 3)**

***(Note: Each SN number represents the voice of one participant whose name will not be identified. The SN number starts from SN1 to SN 41.)***

1. After the handover of Hong Kong to China in 1997, what major changes, do you think, have occurred in the Hong Kong education system?

Not aware of changes

SN3, SN4, SN8, SN11, SN37
---------------------------

Changes

Teaching approach	SN2, SN6, SN10
Curriculum	SN10, SN31, SN41
Patriotism	SN16
Study	SN20
Economic change	SN31
Nation	SN34
Political change	SN36
Buddhism involvement	SN39
Computer learning	SN25

More students from mainland

More / increasing	SN2, SN3, SN6, SN9, SN10, SN11, SN28, SN36, SN40, SN41
Not many	SN14, SN25, SN27, SN39

Mandarin teaching

SN1, SN2, SN4, SN5, SN7, SN8, SN9, SN14, SN16, SN25, SN28, SN36, SN37
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Flag raising/ National anthem/ National day

SN1, SN2, SN3, SN5, SN6, SN9, SN14, SN16, SN17, SN21, SN25, SN27, SN28, SN31, SN34, SN39, SN40, SN41
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#### Civic education

SN17, SN27, SN28
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2. Troublesome kids come from problematic families. What social problems affect children's family and their performance in school?

Not aware of social problems or could not relate them to 1997 issues

SN1, SN32
-----------

More children applied for textbook allowance

SN1, SN6, SN10, SN27, SN37, SN40,
-----------------------------------

#### Family problems

Separated families	SN2, SN4, SN5, SN6, SN6, SN10, SN16, SN21, SN34, SN41
Single-parents, divorced, or departed parents	SN4, SN5, SN7, SN8, SN37
'Mistress village' problem	SN3, SN17
Parents with lower socio-economic background	SN4
Not manage basic living of kids	SN7
Not know how to teach the kids	SN17
Child abuse	SN25
Not noticeable	SN17, SN28

#### Economic problems

General speaking	SN2 (the financial situation was not good in the past) SN3 (the immigrant families are either very rich or very poor) SN4, SN28 (Some applied for Combined Social Security Allowance) SN31 (hard for the foreigners to get a visa because of the poor economy) SN39 (the problem is unavoidable)
Slightly affected	SN6, SN8
Not significant	SN4, SN7, SN21, SN27, SN28, SN31
Not noticeable	SN3, SN9, SN10, SN14, SN16, SN34, SN37, SN40



### Common student problems

Naughty	SN2, SN11
Emotional problems	SN3, SN5
Family problems	SN5, SN9, SN17, SN32, SN36, SN40
Behavioural problems	SN17, SN37
School orders	SN5, SN8, SN27 (attention seeking) SN14 (school orders) SN16 (talking)
Learning	SN5, SN10, SN28, SN37 (homework) SN9, SN34 (lack of motivation) SN21 (unable to cope) SN28, SN31 (English) SN31 (poor learning due to lower prerequisite) SN32 (variable progress) SN40 (academic problems) SN41 (adaptability from kindergarten to primary school life)
Others	SN31 (cultural adaptation) SN34 (lack of making own decision)
Not serious	SN6, SN27, SN39

3. In growing and learning kids, what do you think are their greatest needs?

No idea but to teach

(SN1) "I never thought about this question deeply, however each time I enter the classroom I think what should I teach this lesson. If I can teach thoroughly and students are enjoying learning then I am very grateful. I think my responsibilities are over. I don't think about anything else."

English

(SN2) "You have multiple tasks to fulfil, especially English, because they have pretty poor English. None of them did English before."

Care

(SN4) "From time to time, we need to take care of them (socially), as many of their fathers are truck drivers, so they see very little of their fathers...They seem to need to be cared of by others. They want to be accepted by others."

(SN5) "I think the most important thing is that there should be people around, who can let students feel that there is someone caring for them, standing on their side, thinking for them."

(SN8) "They need more people to care about them."

(SN17) "Maybe the problem comes from students themselves trying to attract attention. They need attention and care."

(SN28) "Caring, encouragement, patience and love. Make the students know their responsibilities to learn from their bottom of hearts. Basically the most important thing is the psychological side."

(SN37) "Actually I think they need to have care from others most. As I said before, students have family problems. No one takes care them, no one talks to them. But if you talk to them, know more about their inner worlds, they will think that you are talking to them, but not scolding them, you are not being mean to them..."

#### Self-esteem

(SN10) "Important, important, important."

#### Time

(SN14) "The most needy...I don't know... I think all these things are needed...but in most cases there is not enough time."

#### Motion

(SN16) "I think P.1 students need to move around."

#### Morality

(SN21) "Developing morals is important. Knowledge can be gained from self-study; you can do it on your own. But developing morals...I think this cannot be learned from books, you need to experience it yourself before you can learn."

#### Sense of achievement

(SN25) "I think sometimes we should give them (the students) things to do, letting them to have a sense of achievement."

#### Parents' support

(SN31) "The thing they need most...I think it should be parents' support."

(SN34) "Yes, I think so. The parents' time. Both kids of students need their parents' time."

## **Extract of Classroom Observation Report**

### **Visit to School One**

**Participant Teacher (T)** (Mr. Lee)

(Date of Recording: 6 January 2000)

(Class: 4B Mathematics)

(NOTE: \*Names of participant teacher and students have been changed.)

Dialogue recorded:

### **Directive Approach**

- T: "This question is right. This question is right."  
T: "The solution is correct. But the calculation is wrong."  
T: "Correct!"  
T: "I say it's wrong before looking at it."  
T: "I say it's wrong without looking at the figure."  
T: "This question is wrong."  
T: "Impossible."  
T: "Nope! It's impossible."  
T: "That's not correct."  
T: "This question is not correct."  
T: "Right!"  
T: "Yeah!"  
T: "Come on!"  
T: "Speak louder. Speak louder."  
T: "Good!"  
T: "It's correct!"  
T: "Hurry up for those not finished."  
T: "I do know there is some classmate using this calculation method. You need pay more attention."  
T: "The handwriting is terrible."  
T: "That's great! The handwriting is good."  
T: "Fit!"  
T: "I said he could write well. Very pretty and very fit."  
T: "As you know what it is for 0 plus a number, you can save these steps."  
T: "I think there are many people like that. Don't laugh. (I) Do remind you this."  
T: "All correct! This question is the best."  
T: "Wow! Hurray!"

### **Interactive Approach**

- T: "Let you think about it."  
T: "Is it correct? Is it suitable?"  
T: "Let you think yourself."

T: "You try to think about whether (the solution) will be smaller if multiplied by 24."

T: "What is their difference?"

T: "Let's see if so."

T: "Can it be changed to A plus 4?"

T: "Is it equal to this formula if writing in reverse order?"

T: "Impossible? Is it really not possible?"

T: "What is it left after minus B and plus B?"

T: "If I put this stuff into another side and also put that stuff into this side... Is it equal to B plus 4? Is it? Are they the same?"

T: "What should I do after working out this step? Lee Tai Man. Let me ask you again."

T: "How's the way?"

T: "What should I do next?"

T: "Is it correct to put it into (the equation)?"

T: "What's up?"

T: "We work out (the solutions) altogether."

T: "Let's work out together."

T: "Let's look aside."

T: "What is the first step you have to do?"

T: "If encountering the substitution sign at the back for subtraction and division, what do we omit for the first step?"

T: "How do we omit it?"

T: "So what about this side?"

T: "What multiplies? What multiplies D?"

T: "What is it?"

T: "What is it left?"

T: "Finally, is it similar with those calculations we learnt yesterday?"

T: "What way can I do so?"

T: "Give you a chance."

T: "Let someone tell me how to do it now."

T: "How to get the first step?"

T: "How to do?"

T: "What's next?"

T: "What's the following step?"

T: "Is it hard to calculate? Let lend you some fingers."

T: "Do you know how to do the previous equation?"

T: "When you are doing (the questions) onto your (exercise) book, have I mentioned that the equal sign has to synchronize?"

T: "You can refer (to the question) if you have any problems."

T: "Need we use this method?"

T: "Do we need that method for calculation?"

T: "There isn't any problem. Right?"

T: "But it gets 90 marks. How is the ten-mark missed out?"

T: "You tell me. Lee Ming Ming. What did you say just before?"

T: "You guess what A plus 0 is."

T: "So if you know beforehand that 0 plus B equals B, need you work out these so many steps?"

### **Non-directive Approach**

- T: "You can realize so quickly."
- T: "This classmate remembers what I said yesterday."
- T: "Wong Siu Ming (name changed) was very smart then."
- T: "I presume Lee Tai Man was so smart that she knew how to do it. But she was quite smart that she could calculate a little. She has known how to calculate before I teach (you guys)."
- T: "You have guessed all!"
- T: "Need you use this method if you encounter the addition and multiplication questions having the substitution sign at the back? Needn't. I saw some classmates using this method for calculation. They calculated (the steps) very long. You are wrong if you did so."
- T: "I know some of the classmates not finished yet. (They) still leave the last one. But I don't do it as time is almost finished. Let stop calculating. Wong Hong-man. Stop calculating. Let see how I teach on the blackboard. Let calculate later. I can't have enough time to teach if waiting for you. Stop first. Tang King Hang, Luk Ka Yan, Luk WaiYee. Ok! Let's listen first."
- T: "Just leave it. A bit irregular. Err. Give him 80 marks. (He) can answer correct but writes a bit wrong there."
- T: "Well, his steps are correct. But (he) didn't consider in mind whether he should write these down."
- T: "100 marks."

## Appendix 9

### How Do I Feel About the Course

Course: \_\_\_\_\_

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

I consider the course is                      Very satisfactory 

--	--	--	--	--

 Unsatisfactory

I consider the course is                      Very useful 

--	--	--	--	--

 Not useful

How do you feel during the course ? Please circle as appropriate :-

Difficult    Enjoyable    Pressure    Disappointed    Interesting

Impractical    Lively    Boring    Exciting    Happy

Helpful    Innovative    Easy    Confused    Puzzled

Kind    Harmony    Orderly    Fruitful    Abstract

Others \_\_\_\_\_

What I like most in this course ? (1)\_\_\_\_\_ (2)\_\_\_\_\_

What I dislike most in this course ? (1) \_\_\_\_\_ (2) \_\_\_\_\_

I think      course materials              are very useful      


 Not useful

discussion

course contents

video tapes

assignments

What I get most from the course : \_\_\_\_\_

I think the area of improvement of the course include \_\_\_\_\_

I consider that a successful course should be : \_\_\_\_\_

Upon completion of the course, I set the following goals :\_\_\_\_\_

**Hong Kong Institute of Education  
School Guidance of Classroom Management  
Course Evaluation Report**

**Question 1 : The overall satisfactory of the course**

Session	1	2	3	4	5	Total
Very satisfactory	3	1	5	3	5	17
Quite satisfactory	20	21	26	29	26	122
Satisfactory	17	16	9	8	9	59
Unsatisfactory	0	1	0	0	0	1
Very unsatisfactory	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total response	40	39	40	40	40	199

61% of the participants consider the course is conducting quite satisfactory. 8.5% consider very and only 0.5% or one person considers unsatisfactory.

**Question 2 : The usefulness of the course content**

Session	1	2	3	4	5	Total
Very useful	6	4	10	4	10	34
Quite useful	23	20	23	29	23	118
Useful	11	14	7	7	7	46
Not useful	0	0	0	0	0	0
Very not useful	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total response	40	38	40	40	40	198

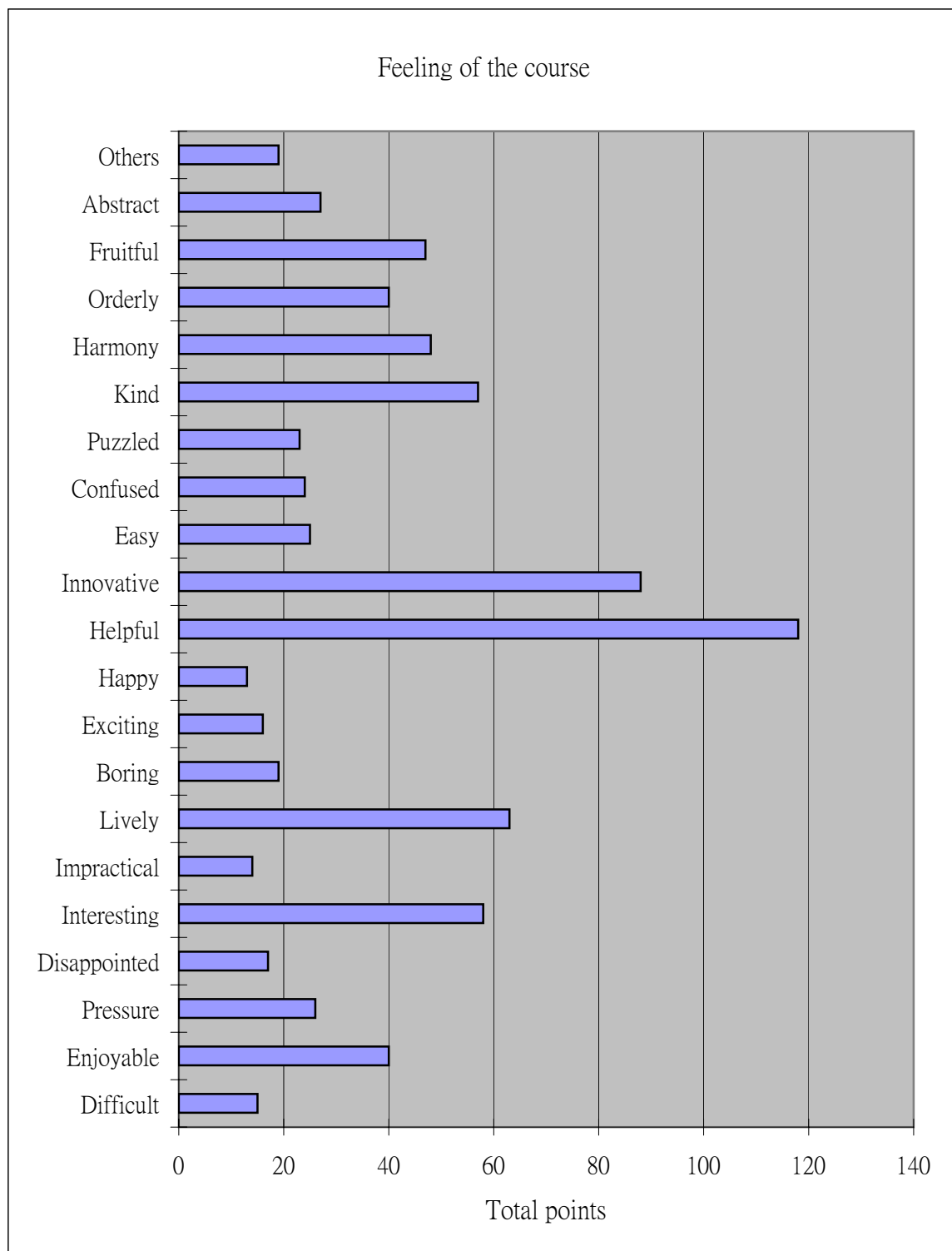
100% of the participants think the course are useful. 17% graded it at a the level of "very useful" them feel the course is unuseful.

**Question 3 : How do you feel during the course ?**

Session	1	2	3	4	5	Total
Difficult	1	1	0	3	10	15
Enjoyable	8	8	9	10	5	40
Pressure	9	5	1	1	10	26
Disappointed	4	0	1	0	12	17
Interesting	12	11	14	16	5	58
Impractical	0	0	0	1	13	14
Lively	14	12	18	16	3	63
Boring	3	1	3	2	10	19
Exciting	1	1	4	1	9	16
Happy	0	0	0	0	13	13
Helpful	30	30	28	29	1	118
Innovative	21	22	24	19	2	88
Easy	2	3	6	6	8	25
Confused	6	4	1	1	12	24
Puzzled	7	2	2	1	11	23
Kind	16	10	12	13	6	57
Harmony	8	12	12	10	6	48
Orderly	6	4	15	11	4	40
Fruitful	5	9	12	15	6	47

Abstract	5	3	0	6	13	27
Others	1	5	5	0	8	19
Total response	159	143	167	161	167	797

The majority of participants ( 23%) consider the course are helpful (14.8%) and innovative(11% thought that the course is lively (7.9%) and interesting (7.3%). Only 3 participants consider the impractical (1.8%) and difficult (1.9%). Details can be shown in the following chart:



#### Question 4 : What I like most in this course ?

Session	1	2	3	4	5	Total
Notes and visual aid	1	9	6	2	6	24
Discussion	4	5	4	7	3	23



Role play	0	5	0	0	0	5
Counseling techniques	2	4	4	5	2	17
Self value	0	3	1	0	1	5
Atmosphere	5	2	1	1	0	9
Course content	11	2	3	5	0	21
Questionnaire	0	2	0	0	0	2
Study problems	1	2	1	2	1	7
Experience sharing	4	2	2	0	3	11
Creativity	2	1	1	2	0	6
Tutorials	3	1	1	1	0	6
Case study	1	0	6	2	5	14
Total response	34	38	30	27	21	150

Most the students like the course notes(16%), the discussion (15.3%) and the course content (14%) also expressed their support for counseling techniques(11.3%), case study (9.3%) and experience (7.3%). They do not prefer role play (3.3%) and questionnaire (1.3%).

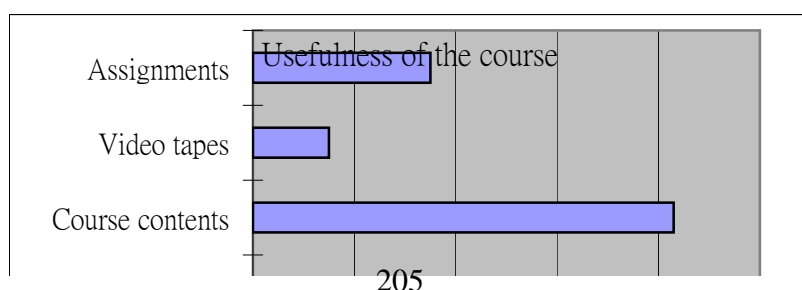
#### Question 5 : What I dislike most in this course ?

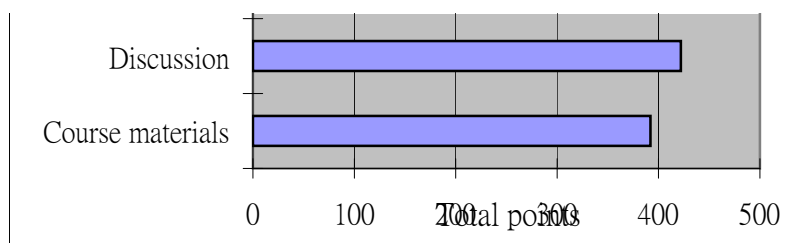
Session	1	2	3	4	5	Total
Counseling theory too boring	0	1	0	1	0	2
Content too tedious	1	1	1	1	1	5
Insufficient time for discussion	1	1	1	1	1	5
Course impractical	0	0	1	1	0	2
Questionnaire too tedious	0	1	0	1	0	2
Questionnaire uneasy too answer	0	1	0	1	0	2
Too many activities	1	0	1	0	1	3
Too many transparency	0	1	1	0	1	3
Total response	3	6	5	6	4	24

Very few student ( maximum 6 in session 2 and 4, and minimum 3 in session 1 ) respond to this. Those who responded consider the content is too tedious (20.8%) and the time for discussion is insufficient (20.8%).

#### Question 6 : What I think is the most useful :-

Session	1	2	3	4	5	Total
Course materials	93	79	72	71	77	392
Discussion	93	90	85	69	85	422
Course contents	98	80	79	76	82	415
Video tapes	8	2	6	48	11	75
Assignments	34	39	32	37	33	175
Total response	326	290	274	301	288	1479



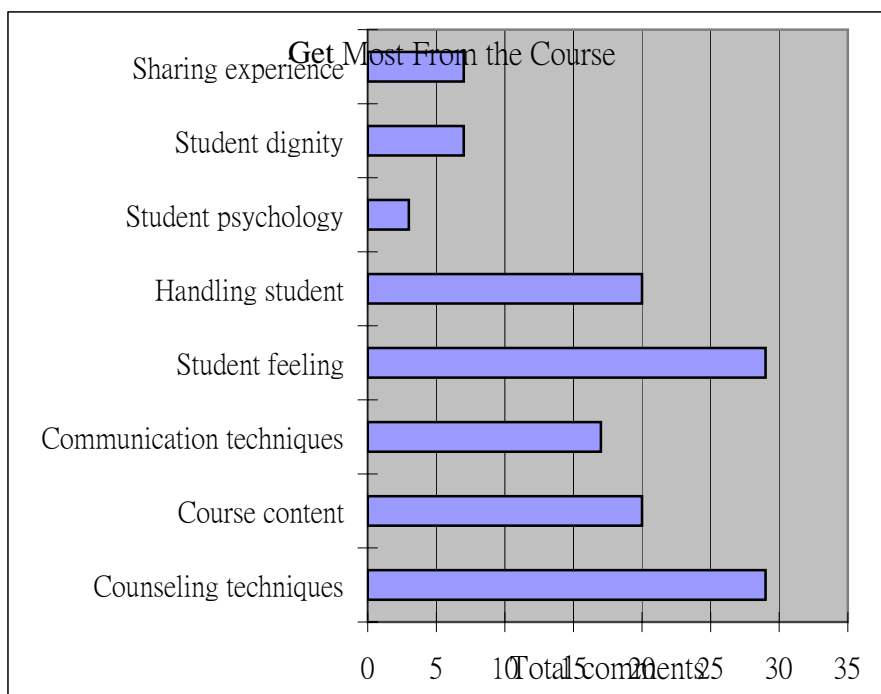


The majority of students thought the course contents, discussion ( both 28%) and the course materials ((26.5%) are useful. The video tapes are less useful (5.1%).

#### Question 7 : What I get most from the course ?

Session	1	2	3	4	5	Total
Counseling techniques	8	5	2	4	10	29
Course content	3	2	2	8	5	20
Communication techniques	1	3	5	6	2	17
Student feeling	0	11	11	2	5	29
Handling student	1	5	8	4	2	20
Student psychology	0	3	0	0	0	3
Student dignity	0	1	6	0	0	7
Sharing experience	7	0	0	0	0	7
Total comments	20	30	34	24	24	132

Only half of the participants answer this question in the five sessions. Amongst those students a they felt that the most they got are counseling techniques and student feeling (both 22%), see C below:



#### Question 8 : The area of improvement includes :-

Session	1	2	3	4	5	Total
Discussion time insufficient	4	0	1	1	1	7
Group activities	2	0	1	1	1	5
Too theoretical	0	0	1	1	1	3
More case study	0	0	1	2	2	5
Counseling techniques	1	2	1	1	1	6
Course content	3	0	1	2	2	8

Course speed	0	0	0	0	1	1
Student relationship	0	1	0	0	0	1
Self study	0	1	0	0	0	1
Self understanding	0	1	0	0	0	1
Contacting student	0	1	0	0	0	1
Atmosphere	1	0	0	0	0	1
Video tape	1	0	0	0	0	1
Total comments	12	6	6	8	9	41

The participants consider the areas that needs further improvement are course contents (19.5%) ; counseling techniques (14.6%) and more times should be given for discussion ( 17.1%).

#### **Question 9 : What I consider a successful course should be ?**

Session	1	2
Course conducting	3	0
Course contents	1	0
Counseling techniques	1	2
Handling student problems	1	0
Case study	1	0
Total comments	7	2

Only 7 students in session 1 and 2 students in session 2 responded to this question.

#### **Question 10 : Upon completion of the course, I set the following goals :-**

Session	1	2	3	4	5	Total
To be a counselor	0	1	0	1	1	3
To learn more on counseling from what is learned from the course	1	2	1	1	1	6
To use counseling technique to solve problems	0	2	0	3	1	6
To understand and care more about student	1	5	2	2	1	11
To set up more counseling case	0	1	1	0	1	3
To improve counseling communication technique	2	1	0	1	2	6
To use different theory to handle student problems	1	2	2	0	0	5
To apply counseling technique to correct negative behaviors	1	2	3	1	1	8
Total response	6	16	9	9	8	48

Upon completion of the course, the majority of participants would try to understand and care more about student (22.9%). They also wished to apply counseling technique to correct negative behaviors and to improve counseling communication (12.5%).

**lix 9(a)**

Percentage
8.5%
61.3%
29.7%
0.5%
0.0%
100%
y satisfacory

Percentage
17.2%
59.6%
23.2%
0.0%
0.0%
100%

". Non of

Percentage		
1.9%	Difficult	15
5.0%	Enjoyable	40
3.3%	Pressure	26
2.1%	Disappoin	17
7.3%	Interesting	58
1.8%	Impractica	14
7.9%	Lively	63
2.4%	Boring	19
2.0%	Exciting	16
1.6%	Happy	13
14.8%	Helpful	118
11.0%	Innovative	88
3.1%	Easy	25
3.0%	Confused	24
2.9%	Puzzled	23
7.2%	Kind	57
6.0%	Harmony	48
5.0%	Orderly	40
5.9%	Fruitful	47

3.4%	Abstract	27
2.4%	Others	19
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100%		

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Percentage	
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Percentage		
26.5%	Course ma	392
28.5%	Discussion	422
28.1%	Course co	415
5.1%	Video tap	75
11.8%	Assignme	175
100%		

Percentage		
22.0%	Counselin	29
15.2%	Course co	20
12.9%	Communi	17
22.0%	Student fe	29
15.2%	Handling	20
2.3%	Student ps	3
5.3%	Student di	7
5.3%	Sharing ex	7
100%		

answered,  
chart

Percentage
17.1%
12.2%
7.3%
12.2%
14.6%
19.5%

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 10.4%  
  
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 ore about  
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## **Humanistic Education**

**I Humanistic Education (Shapiro):** (以學生為本的人民教育工作者的價值取向)  
Shapiro (1986) 的研究發現 15 種人文教育較重的價值的元素，可應用在教學上 #。請以你的看法，將其在小學課室中推行的可行性，再以 1 至 15 列出，1 為優先，15 最後。

1. process-oriented, 過程導向而非知識導向 \_\_\_\_\_
2. self-determination, 自行決定學習及負責 \_\_\_\_\_
3. connectedness, 與人聯繫 \_\_\_\_\_
4. relevancy, 適合學生需要 \_\_\_\_\_
5. integration, 綜合知識和技能 \_\_\_\_\_
6. context, 課室及學校文化 \_\_\_\_\_
7. affective bias, 表達情緒 \_\_\_\_\_
8. innovation, 教育、文化和政廣治的改革 \_\_\_\_\_
9. democratic participation, 公平參與 \_\_\_\_\_
10. personal growth 個人成長 \_\_\_\_\_
11. people oriented, 以人為本 \_\_\_\_\_
12. individualism, 獨立思考 \_\_\_\_\_
13. reality, 現在和現實的事情 \_\_\_\_\_
14. evaluation, 評估的權威性 \_\_\_\_\_
15. variety-creativity, 創意教學 \_\_\_\_\_

(還有其他主要因素嗎？如有，請列明：\_\_\_\_\_)

**II Quality of Good Teacher:** 要建立良好的師生關係，教師須具備下列素質。請以你的看法，將其在小學

課堂中應用的可行性，再以 1 至 15 列出，1 為優先，15 最後。

- |                                   |                                      |
|-----------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| 1. genuine 真誠 _____               | 9. empathy 同理心 _____                 |
| 2. unconditional love 無條件的愛 _____ | 10. communication 溝通 _____           |
| 3. positive regard 積極的關懷 _____    | 11. helping 協助 _____                 |
| 4. respect 尊重 _____               | 12. autonomy 自主 _____                |
| 5. understanding 瞭解 _____         | 13. maturity 成熟 _____                |
| 6. acceptance 接納 _____            | 14. love 愛心 _____                    |
| 7. reflecting 共鳴 _____            | 15. individual difference 因人施教 _____ |
| 8. sharing 同感 _____               |                                      |

(還有其他主要因素嗎？如有，請列明：\_\_\_\_\_)

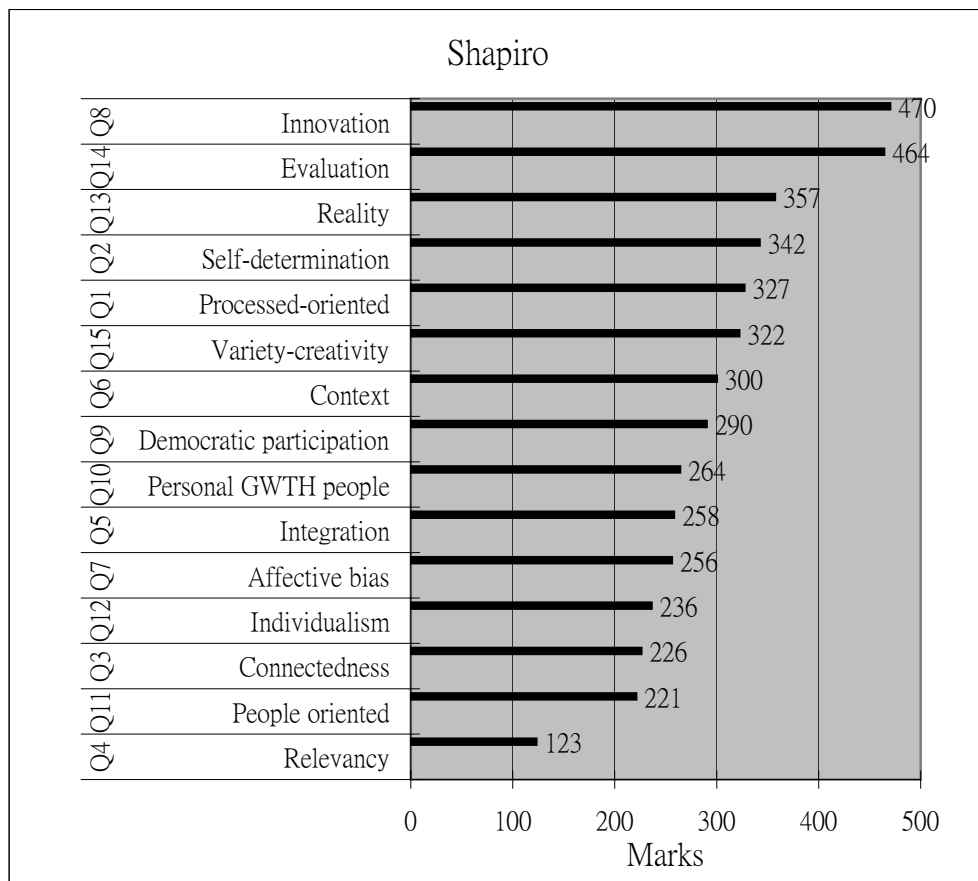
(# Moheno, 1996, Educating our 21<sup>st</sup> Century Adventures, In search of a Humanistic Paradigm of Teaching, p.6-22)

**Shapiro and Humanistic Values**

**Questionnaire on the application of Shapiro method of study**

No.	Elements	Marks	Percentage
Q4	Relevancy	123	2.8%
Q11	People oriented	221	5.0%
Q3	Connectedness	226	5.1%
Q12	Individualism	236	5.3%
Q7	Affective bias	256	5.8%
Q5	Integration	258	5.8%
Q10	Personal GWTH people	264	5.9%
Q9	Democratic participation	290	6.5%
Q6	Context	300	6.7%
Q15	Variety-creativity	322	7.2%
Q1	Processed-oriented	327	7.3%
Q2	Self-determination	342	7.7%
Q13	Reality	357	8.0%
Q14	Evaluation	464	10.4%
Q8	Innovation	470	10.6%
TOTAL		<u>4456</u>	<u>100%</u>

Participants are asked to give ranking for the 15 elements in Shapiro study. Rank 1 for the most important and rank 15 for the least important element. The majority of the participants considered that relevancy (2.8%) and people oriented (5%) are the most important elements.

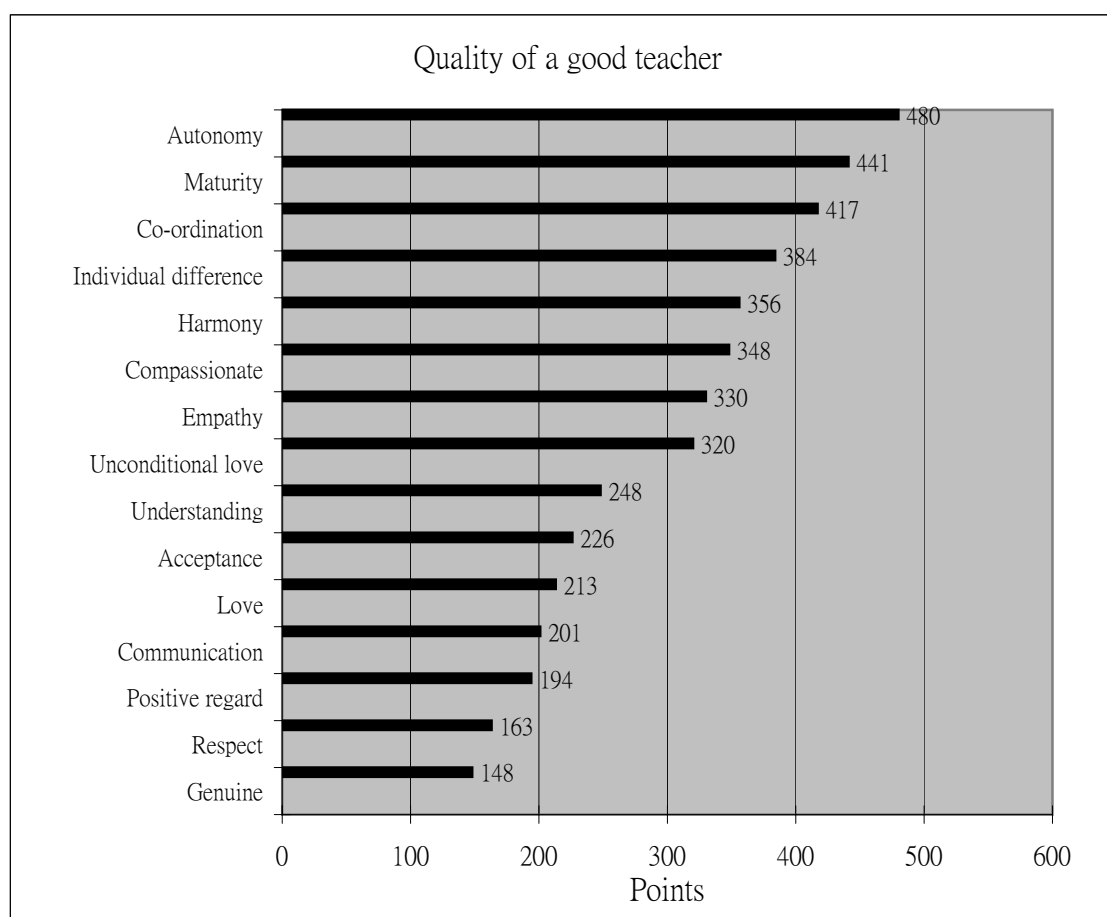


**Quality of a Good Teacher**

Question No.	Quality	Points	Percentage
Q1	Genuine	148	3.3%
Q4	Respect	163	3.7%
Q3	Positive regard	194	4.3%
Q10	Communication	201	4.5%
Q14	Love	213	4.8%
Q6	Acceptance	226	5.1%
Q5	Understanding	248	5.6%
Q2	Unconditional love	320	7.2%
Q9	Empathy	330	7.4%
Q8	Compassionate	348	7.8%
Q7	Harmony	356	8.0%
Q15	Individual difference	384	8.6%
Q11	Co-ordination	417	9.3%
Q13	Maturity	441	9.9%
Q12	Autonomy	480	10.7%
	Total points	<u>4469</u>	<u>100%</u>

Participants were asked to give weight points of 1-15 for the 15 questioned raised. The less the pints received, the high the priority.

The teachers considered genuine (3.3%) and respect (3.7%) are the most important quality of a teacher while autonomy (10.7%) and maturity (9.9%) are of less important.



**Self-Concept and Human Values**

Please indicate your agreement to the following with Yes (Y) or (N)

- |    |  |       |
|----|--|-------|
| 1  | A human is self-directed and adjustable.                           | (Y/N) |
| 2  | A human needs to be respected.                                     | (Y/N) |
| 3  | A human needs unconditional positive regards.                      | (Y/N) |
| 4  | A human needs empathetic listening.                                | (Y/N) |
| 5  | A person's self-worth comes from interaction with others.          | (Y/N) |
| 6  | A person's self-worth comes from interaction with the environment. | (Y/N) |
| 7  | Everyone will become self-actualised.                              | (Y/N) |
| 8  | The formation of self-concept is experiential.                     | (Y/N) |
| 9  | Self-concept can be positive or negative.                          | (Y/N) |
| 10 | Self-concept is the appraisal and internalisation of the self.     | (Y/N) |
| 11 | A person will sometimes distort his/her own self-concept.          | (Y/N) |
| 12 | A person can change his/her own self-concept.                      | (Y/N) |
| 13 | A person needs others' praise and recognition.                     | (Y/N) |
| 14 | The self directs one's own behaviour.                              | (Y/N) |
| 15 | Human nature is positive.  | (Y/N) |

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