

Teaching Citizenship: The Primary Teachers' View from
Two Districts of Hong Kong

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Certificate of Authorship/originality

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Abstract

The literature shows that the teaching of civics and values evolved from religious, normative approach to rational/objective approach to the emphasis on character development. Development in teaching citizenship followed the ideology and social political changes of the surrounding society. Teachers' views were found to be very important in the implementation of citizenship education.

Hong Kong's Government agreed that citizenship encompasses both self and collective realization (Lee 2001). Many initiatives and guidelines have been produced for moral and civic education since 1980. Budget cuts and teachers' heavier burden to fulfill the requirements of educational reforms have made implementation difficult. The voice of the primary teachers was seldom heard.

This research set out to identify the qualities which primary teachers in Hong Kong associated with "good citizenship". Teachers were asked to prioritize the qualities of a good citizen, identify influences on the development of good citizens, and describe the development of their own citizenship and the teaching of such content in classrooms and throughout the school. Finally, teachers discussed suggestions for in-service training for teaching citizenship.

A translated version of a citizenship survey, focus group and individual interviews were used to collect the data for analysis. This was an exploratory/interpretive research using quantitative and qualitative methods. By using stratified, random sampling procedures (in accordance to the major types of school sponsoring bodies in Hong Kong), the survey was sent to the full time teachers of 12 schools in two districts. 359 responses were collected, representing a 79% response rate. Correlation statistics and factor

analysis procedures were used to analyze the quantitative data collected.

The qualitative data collected explored the reasons behind the teachers' choice. Focus groups and individual interviews results revealed the teachers' view of content of citizenship that fit the students' needs; best practices in school and classrooms; and types of training and resources needed in teaching citizenship education.

The research findings showed primary teachers' prioritizing on teaching skills, knowledge aspects of citizenship for students. Parents, teachers and friends were identified as influential in the development of citizenship. Teachers acknowledged the importance of helping students learn through processes or experience. Modelling and examples are important too. Results also showed that teachers from religious-based schools had stronger agreement in teaching of citizenship than did teachers from Government schools.

Results were discussed, analyzed with reference to literature and previous research, and recommendations were made. The thesis concluded with suggestions for future research.

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Chapter 1 Introduction

D) Background to the Study

Since the handover of Hong Kong from the United Kingdom to China in 1997, there has been sustained public outcry for open election and democratization. Public sentiment was reflected by mass marches on July 1 in 2003 and 2004. In 2003, 500,000 citizens marched, demanding universal franchise and open election for both the legislature and the Chief Executive.

Few stopped to ask the question of whether young people had been prepared to take ownership of self-rule and self-governance and make a commitment to work for the good of society. Although citizens of Hong Kong have been proud of the city's economic success, when young people were asked about what they valued the most in life, they attributed greater importance to freedom, family, career and competence (Au 1994; Wong & Cheng 1992;). Some studies have shown that young people had also expressed concerns and commitments toward the society (Lee 1997; Lee 2001). Other studies found that volunteering and community service were not popular among young people in Hong Kong. The Research on Index of Youth Development by the Hong Kong Youth Development Council, has demonstrated that less than 0.5% of young people in the sample had carried out any volunteer work in the previous month (Hong Kong Youth Development Council & City University of Hong Kong 2001).

However, the young people of Hong Kong are troubled. Like most modern cities, there is a decrease in birth rate, and an increase in the media's influence. This decrease in the number of playmates, along with the availability of electronic media means that young people spend more time playing alone or under the influence of virtual reality of the media instead of interacting with friends and classmates. According to Government statistics, there has been an increase in mental breakdowns, suicides, drug dependence and unemployment among young people. Local studies and Government census report an increase in sexual activity and promiscuity (with intercourse starting as early as age 11), and an increase in reports of domestic violence (Tsun & Lui 2005; Yip et al. 2002, 2004). A comparative, large-scale study of high school students in Hong Kong and Shanghai found that the Hong Kong students scored lower in general mental health and

self-esteem (Chan & Wu 2001).

In light of these concerns, many academics and practitioners in the social service sector maintain that sex education, self understanding and life skills, life education, and moral education should all be included in the school curriculum. The Curriculum Development Institute of the Education Bureau has grouped these subjects as cross curricular themes for secondary and primary schools under the Personal, Social, Humanities Education (PSHE) since 2001 (Education Commission 2001, p 46).

Since the 1980's, educators have been debating how best to include civics, citizenship, moral and values education into the school curriculum (Leung & Chai 1999; Morris 1999). This debate was one where there is no easy consensus. The pro-China groups (and indeed the Chinese Government) saw the need to intensify patriotism through citizenship education, but for those favoring a faster paced development for democracy and some academics, citizenship education meant training in critical thinking, political rights and the processes and ideals of democracy.

Then, there was the problem of implementation. Traditionally, the educational system in Hong Kong has been examination driven with a strong emphasis on memorization and academic subjects. Even if educators agreed that civic, moral and values education should be part of the curriculum, were teachers equipped to teach these subjects? In which classes will these topics be taught? How should the assessment of such content be carried out?

Amidst all these debates and concerns about citizenship education, few stopped to consider the teachers. But eventually, teachers deliver concepts of citizenship and serve as examples to their students. Kennedy (2003) has pointed out that it was the teachers who influence their students' citizenship development. In recent years, there has been much interest in exploring the teachers' views on teaching citizenship. Lee (1999, 2001) and many others (Lee & Fouts 2005; Losito & Minstrop 2001) have carried out research on the views of teachers in China and other nations. The perspectives of the teachers were found to provide a full picture of citizenship education in the classroom and school settings. However, local research on teachers' views in teaching citizenship, especially the views of primary school teachers, was not readily

available. This lack of research was noteworthy as many scholars consider the importance of adopting a developmental perspective in educating students in citizenship and values (Lickona 1991; Lockwood 1996). Thus, studying primary teachers' views was a logical starting point for understanding students' needs and the daily challenges of teaching citizenship in Hong Kong.

Recent research in Hong Kong (Cheng 2004; Professional Teachers Union 2002) has shown that teachers are increasingly burdened by heavy workload caused by budget cuts, concern over language examinations, higher qualifications and educational reforms. Furthermore, teachers themselves cannot be assumed to undergo systematic training as most of them had been raised in the Hong Kong education system.

A review of the curriculum indicates a deliberate avoidance (Regulation 98) of politically sensitive material in the turbulent 1960s and the 1970s. Although the prohibition on such content was lifted in 1990, some teachers may have found themselves unprepared to teach subjects like Economics and Public Affairs and General Studies. Indeed, some of these subjects may have contained enough politically- or gender-sensitive content to make teaching them challenging.

II) Purpose of Study and Research Questions

The purpose of this study was to explore and describe primary teachers' perceptions of citizenship and citizenship education in Hong Kong. The findings of the research will strengthen existing programs and guide development in the area.

The research questions for this study are as follows:

- 1) What do primary school teachers in Hong Kong see as the qualities of good citizenship?
- 2) What do primary teachers believe to be the key influences upon the development of good citizenship?
- 3) Do teachers' perceptions in relation to Research Questions 1 and 2 differ by background, the type of schools in which they work, or by their gender, age, grade taught, and training?
- 4) What do the teachers think should take place in schools to promote good

citizenship?

5) What are the teachers' views of their own preparation for teaching citizenship?

III) Definition of Citizenship Education

Citizenship education has a broad spectrum of meaning. Psychologists have long studied values and moral education in the developing child's formation of the "self" (Kohlberg 1975, 1976; Marcia 1980). Leming (1995) saw values and moral education as interchangeable in reflecting different priorities, emphases, historical traditions and presuppositions. Examples were Kohlberg's cognitive developmental approach to moral education and the supporters of values clarification who called their methods "values education". While values education brings to mind the education of the young people on things that they hold dear, moral education brings to mind such things as "judgments of responsibility and obligation as they apply to our dealings within a social context that are directly related to the consideration of other people's interests" (Leming 2001, p 63).

Citizenship education may thus include values education, moral education, social and emotional education, character education and civic education. Each has its own emphasis, but all fall under the auspices of citizenship education.

In recent years, there has been much national interest in citizenship education throughout the world (Cogan & Derricott 1998; Kennedy 2003; Lee, 2001). As a result, since the mid 1990s both the nations in the East and West have taken pains to establish policies on citizenship or national education. The differences in their approaches may also bring out the cultural differences in the meaning of citizenship education.

In Chapter 2, each of these definitions or approaches in defining citizenship will be explored before discussing the broader definitions of citizenship. This thesis has adopted the broader definition of citizenship. Such a definition of citizenship was also adopted by the Education Commission in Hong Kong. Thus, this perspective will influence school curricula and practices. Because the view of the primary teachers was the focus of investigation, this thesis would emphasize values and moral education, adopting the developmental perspective without overlooking the importance of the

skills and disposition aspects of civic education for the students' needs in their formative years. Each section, representing a view and definition of citizenship education, will contribute to understanding all aspects of "citizenship" as the term is used in this thesis.

IV) Methodology

This research aims to discover the views and perceptions of primary teachers in the teaching of citizenship to the students of Hong Kong.

The study was an exploratory research using multiple methods. A validated Chinese translation of the English version of a citizenship survey, along with focus group and individual interviews were used to collect the data for analysis. Statistical analysis was used to explore whether the background of the teachers and the type of schools where they were working bore any relation to their views and their criteria of "good citizenship".

The qualitative data collected the reasons behind the teachers' choices and views. The researcher conducted two focus group interviews. The teachers' responses complemented the responses that they had given on the survey.

The combination of qualitative and quantitative methods generated an abundance of information. The researcher carried out the focus group interviews one month after the completion of the survey. These findings were then shared with the teachers in the focus groups. The members of the focus groups were selected with the help from the school principals and an outline of the questionnaire was given to the teachers in advance. Following the data analysis of the focus group interview, the researcher carried out individual interviews with some teachers who had participated in the group interviews to follow up on their views and experiences. Therefore, the researcher acquired a richer perspective with more depth on the data collected.

The quantitative study results were analyzed using the Statistical Packages for Social Sciences (SPSS). Descriptive statistics, correlation studies as well as factor analysis were used to uncover emerging themes from data. The qualitative results were

collected, transcribed from audio recording and analyzed according to these questions. The teachers' observations provided a rationale for their choices for the quantitative study's results.

V) Professional Significance of the Study

In addition to inviting the participants to respond to the results of the questionnaire, a few more practice-related questions were also explored. These questions consisted of what the teachers thought was the most important content to be covered in citizenship education, sharing of best practices in classrooms and in the school, and their suggestions on training and resources.

The fact that the teachers are in daily contact and interaction with the students gives them special insights. Teachers are in the best position to note the students' progress and the effectiveness of educational programs.

In Hong Kong, there have been ongoing debates about what to teach, what emphasis and focus should there be for citizenship education among academics, Government officers and political groups. In the public forums, the voices, the vision, and the actual needs of the primary teachers (whose views have rarely been documented in either educational research or educational policies) may easily be missed. Although some of the primary teachers may agree with the government or the teachers' union, little research-based evidence of their views has been collected. With Hong Kong's emphasis on academic excellence and frequent public examinations, primary school was the place where the foundations of citizenship education can be laid. Thus, a study of the perceptions and experiences of the primary school teachers was useful in values and citizenship education. The voices and experiences of the teachers can offer important contribution to mark the way forward in this important area in the Hong Kong school curriculum.

The researcher limited the scope of this study to primary teachers. In Hong Kong as in many other cities, secondary school students are preoccupied with external examinations, and they tend to be open to influences from peer group and media. Thus, the teaching of citizenship and values would likely be given more emphasis and would

less likely become overly controversial.

Many scholars have described the importance of teachers in helping children to acquire an understanding of values and citizenship (Kennedy 2003; Lickona 1996; Lockwood 2001; Narvaez 2002). Halverson (2004, p158) pointed out:

It is not merely the teaching of a moral story or sending students out to do community service that helps them to grow in more complex and beautiful ways. They also develop as a result of the intentional and explicit meaning making that only the teacher, who has daily and intimate contact with the students can provide.

Primary teachers in Hong Kong are in this strategic position. Since 2003, when the Education Bureau launched the “personal development course”, these teachers have been facing an opportunity and a challenge. Self-understanding, values, civic virtues and responsibilities were all important course content. At the same time, few primary teachers had been offered systematic training in values and citizenship under the British colonial educational authority (Morris 1999).

Another reason to focus on primary school teachers is that to date, there has been no systematic inquiry as to the primary teachers’ view on values and citizenship education. After much discussion with many experienced teachers and policy makers, the researcher was informed that the primary teachers were too busy preparing to meet all the requirements of educational reforms, to pass their qualifying exams and to prove themselves in the newly- imposed language proficiency tests. In comparison to the views of the secondary school teachers, those of primary teachers were less documented and less valued, since policy makers and government officers assume that these teachers are less educated and less informed.

Therefore, this exploratory qualitative and quantitative study will reveal the views and wisdom of primary school teachers. Their knowledge will be brought to the dialogue on values and citizenship education in Hong Kong.

The results of this study have practical values in understanding teachers’ view of

teaching citizenship and values in the classroom and school settings, and will elicit their suggestions for additional research and what needed consolidation in the area. A consensus on the debate on the relative emphasis on various aspects of citizenship education may not soon be reached in the Hong Kong. Thus, if understanding was gained about the qualities of “good citizens” in the teachers’ view and the types of support teachers needed in teaching civic and values education, government could at least be reminded to strengthen teachers “where they are”; this would enable teachers to meet their students’ needs. Faculty in teacher training institutes could use these results to give teachers the support and resources, which would strengthen their ability to deliver instruction in citizenship education.

Furthermore, this research will explore on any differences among teachers’ perceptions of citizenship education. These teachers would likely come from various professional disciplines and backgrounds such as gender, geographical areas and school types as well as years of experience in teaching. Research using similar questionnaire in other countries showed some significant differences between views of teachers in terms of these factors (Davies et al. 1999; Lee 2001; Lee & Fouts 2005).

These differences will bring forth additional insights on how best to focus and refine the training for primary teachers. Also, such differences might reveal how social workers, teachers and psychologists can collaborate for the students’ benefit. The timing of this study was appropriate because in 2003 the Hong Kong Education and Manpower Bureau initiated a special course on self-development for all primary schools (Education Commission 2001). All schools were given an annual budget to hire social workers, teachers, and psychologists or to access community resources to help students understand themselves, get along with others, and plan their career and future. At the same time, the Education Commission was encouraging regular partnerships between community-based social service organizations and schools. This kind of co-operation can be done through the schools’ purchase of social work service and community programs from such organizations. Collecting data from the existing practice about co-operation between social workers and teachers might be helpful to throw light on how these professionals could be working together. This kind of result could be helpful to teachers and social workers as well as principals and school administrators.

VI) Overview of the Thesis

The thesis is organized into several parts. The first two chapters consist of the introduction and literature review, respectively.

Chapter 1 presents the background, the research questions and definitions, the method and its limitations, and the significance of the research.

Chapter 2 outlines the literature review and previous research. This study is then placed into a theoretical framework with reference to the literature and guided by the research questions.

Chapter 3 presents the research framework and methodology, (both quantitative and qualitative) in detail. Limitations and strengths of both approaches are discussed, along with the rationale for the use of both methods.

Chapters 4 to 7 explain the results. The combined data constitute a rich source of material for analyses and discussion. Each research question is answered in a separate chapter with the systematic presentation of findings, analysis and discussion with reference to literature.

Chapter 4 answers Research Question 1: teachers' view on the qualities of a good citizen. It begins with a description of the demographic characteristics of the sample. Quantitative and qualitative data are presented and discussed with reference to the literature. Differences in the teachers' views were based on demographic factors and on the type of schools in which they were employed.

Chapter 5 answers Research Question 2: teachers' perception of key influences in citizenship development. The chapter examines the teachers' own development as citizens. It then explores influence on the development of students' citizenship. Finally, the chapter notes gender differences among the teachers, the influence of religious affiliation and the types of schools where they were teaching based on their answers (Research Question 3). The chapter summarizes the results by providing a profile of teachers as citizenship educators.

Activities for promoting citizenship both in the classrooms and in the school as a whole are the concerns of Chapter 6 (Research Question 4). Helpful activities, approaches and methods for teaching citizenship in the classroom are discussed. The Chapter also explores into the teachers' view on program effectiveness and the use of the whole school approach to promote citizenship education.

Teachers' view on education preparation for teaching citizenship is the topic for Chapter 7 (Research Question 5). Background for this chapter includes a discussion on the existing training courses and resources available to the teachers, followed by an examination of the teachers' answers about the adequacy and limitation of the existing training as reflected by the focus groups and the interview results.

Finally, the thesis will be completed by the recommendation and concluding Chapter 8. The chapter aims to present the major conclusions from each chapter, discusses the specific (practice related) as well as the broader recommendations for the Government derived from this research (content of a broader nature, which had diverged from the scope of the original research questions are included in an appendix at the end of the thesis). Finally, areas for future research as follow up study will be clearly outlined.

VII) Limitations of This Study

The limitations of this study include the relatively small sample size, although the response rates were quite satisfactory for both the quantitative and the qualitative aspects of the study. The small size meant it would not be realistic to generalize the results of this study to all teachers in Hong Kong. The results could only serve as reference and initial data for primary teachers' view. More convincing results would need to be obtained from a larger sample.

Another limitation was that due to the constraints of time and manpower, teachers in only two districts (out of the 18 districts in the territory) teachers were selected for sampling. Effort was made to select two districts, which were not adjacent to each other. These districts also differed in their history and demographics. However, the differences between these two districts could cover other more important differences. Therefore,

more work is required to strengthen the generalizability of the present results.

A further limitation resulted from the fact that while the overall response rate from teachers was high, the response rates were higher for some teachers in Government, Protestant and Catholic schools and lower for teachers from private schools. As discussed in Chapter 3, follow up phone calls and reminders were used to improve the response rate of private schools. However, the response from the private schools remained low and this would make the results less representative of private school teachers. Thus, the views from private schools might need further research.

In the present method of stratification, the international schools were sampled with the private schools. With international schools accounting for 47 or 6.9% of Hong Kong schools, this group could be considered separately in follow up studies. There are also an increasing number of direct subsidy schools, which offered their services to the community and received support from the Government in ways that differed from those of private schools and subsidized schools. Although these direct subsidy schools were included in the present sample, only one (with very poor response rate) was selected for this study, chosen under the category of private school. The views of teachers from these direct subsidy schools and international schools deserve further detail exploration. Thus, this research has limited generalizability since these two types of schools were not well represented in the sample.

For the qualitative aspect of the study, some weakness could be attributed to the fact that the participants for the focus group were recommended by the principals and the teachers chosen for the individual interviews were determined by the researchers. The selection of participants in this manner might have been too subjective, and thus, the study might be vulnerable to bias and lack of objectivity. Therefore, the results from the qualitative study should be taken up alongside or backed by the quantitative analysis. The additional questions on what went on in the classrooms and schools could be taken only as auxiliary data needing further exploration and confirmation.

1. Now that the general outline of the thesis had been reviewed and discussed, the next chapter will explore the literature and related studies.

Chapter 2 **Literature Review**

I) Introduction

This chapter will begin by discussing citizenship and definitions of citizenship education. The next section explores the concepts of citizenship and citizenship education: the models, issues, and teaching strategies in the classrooms with reference to literature. This is followed by a presentation of the conceptualization of citizenship in this thesis.

Section IV discusses the influence of culture on the definition of “good citizenship” and how this influence relates to the conceptualization of citizenship in this thesis. In Section V, the national and local contexts of China and Hong Kong will be discussed in relation to the teaching of citizenship. This is followed by a discussion on the school types and the history of citizenship education in Hong Kong.

The chapter will then describe the challenges facing the teachers of Hong Kong, with reference to the literature. The chapter will end with the discussion on how this study will advance the education sector’s understanding as it contemplates future policies and training.

II) Definition, Theoretical Perspectives to Citizenship Education

Citizenship education as carried out in the classrooms of primary schools encompasses value education, moral education, social and emotional education, character education and civic education. Research Question 4 is “What do the teachers think should take place in schools to promote good citizenship?” The following sections will critique the development of experiences of classroom and theoretical approaches along these four areas as outlined in the literature. It is hoped that these experiences and approaches will clarify the thoughts of the primary teachers in these two districts in Hong Kong.

Citizenship education encompasses a very broad spectrum of meaning. For younger children, psychologists have concerned themselves with values and moral education as

exploration of the developing child or formation of the “self” (Marcia 1990; Kohlberg 1975, 1976). Values and moral education were seen by Leming as being used interchangeably (1995) to reflect different emphasis, historical traditions and presuppositions. Examples are Kohlberg’s cognitive developmental approach in moral education and the supporters of “values education”. While values education brings to mind the education of the young people on things that they hold dear, moral education brings to mind such thing as “judgments of responsibility and obligation as they apply to our dealings within a social context that are directly related to the consideration of other people’s interests” (Leming 2001, p 63).

Citizenship education may take the forms of values education, moral education, social and emotional education, character education and civic education.

However, civic education is closely linked to national education. Western and Eastern nations are taking a great interest in citizenship/national education. National differences in approach to this subject may reveal cultural differences in the meaning of citizenship education.

a) Values Education

The four prominent approaches in the teaching of values for children as outlined by Brady (1989) were the moral biography approach, values clarification, cognitive development approach and role-plays. The moral biography approach presupposed the presence of traits or virtues that needed to be learned vicariously. Among these virtues are honesty, compassion, perseverance and love for the motherland. This approach was particularly popular in the 1950s and 1960s.

Values clarification, based on Abraham Maslow’s the idea of “moral relativity” insisted that children be allowed the freedom to reflect on, choose and act on their own choice and values (Raths et al. 1966). The values clarification approach was widely used both in Canada and the United States in the 1960s and 1970s. Its popularity dwindled due to criticisms of its relativistic outlook and the lack of empirical evidence to show its effectiveness (Leming 1995). Values clarification declined in the late 1970s although it did reappear as its components were integrated with other approaches in the 1980s (e.g. Burton Hunt & Wildman 1980).

The cognitive development approach was based on the work of Kohlberg. Role-play is still very important and popular as it could be incorporated into other approaches. The use of role-play will be discussed in the social and emotional education section of this chapter.

b) Moral Education

Moral education includes several approaches with various theoretical basis and implementation strategies. Perhaps the best-known approach is Kohlberg's cognitive developmental approach, developed in the 1970s and based on the theoretical positions of Dewey and Piaget.

Kohlberg (1976) criticized the values clarification approach as too relativistic. He pointed out the danger of a child being encouraged to pursue being "more aware of his/her own values as an end in itself" (p.673). Thus, children become relativists and gradually accept that there are no right or wrong answers. They may even argue that cheating or other kinds of misconduct are right according to their own values hierarchy, although others would disagree. Kohlberg proposed the cognitive developmental approach as a superior alternative to the values clarification approach.

The approach was seen to be "cognitive" because it recognized that moral education was based on stimulating the child to think actively about moral issues. It was considered developmental because it viewed the aim of moral education as movement through stages (Brady 1989).

Kohlberg and his associates (Kohlberg 1975, 1976) identified six culturally universal invariant stages of moral development:

1. obedience and punishment orientation
2. naïve instrumental hedonism
3. interpersonal concordance or "good boy" orientation
4. authority and social order orientation
5. contractual legalistic orientation

6. universal ethical principle orientation (the just society or justice principle).

Kohlberg argued that moral education should stimulate children to proceed to the next stage of development, not indoctrinate them to conform to the imposed conventions of their school, church or nation.

There had been much debate about the validity of these stages for moral development (refer to the work of Spohn 2000) as well as adequacy of empirical evidence for the theory's effectiveness (Leming 1995). Wilson suggested replacing the stages with moral sentiments (sympathy, duty, fairness, and self control) as innate bases for moral development (in Ryan, Bednar, & Sweeder 1999). The influence of situation and culture must also be taken into account in understanding moral development. Nevertheless, Kohlberg's proposal of using controversies to stimulate the young person to think through alternatives and to make moral decisions has influenced the teaching of values in schools and classrooms (Brady 1989, Leming 2001).

Another approach to moral education is Gilligan's perspective which found that women were more likely to have a caring conception of morality based on the "connection between self and others, the universality of the need for compassion and care, a responsibility to discern and alleviate the real and recognizable trouble of this world" (Gilligan 1993, pp. 98-100). She brought out the importance of an ethics of care to balance the ethics of justice as an overriding principle for consideration in morality. Noddings (1992) proposed the use of the ethics of care, to develop programs which expounded on the theme of caring for self, others, acquaintances, strangers, non-human animals, plants, the physical environment, and ideas and objects.

c) Social and Emotional Education

The use of role play in learning about values emphasized the importance of discussing the feelings and needs of others as young people learn to make decisions and enter society as mature human beings. The use of role-play and other curriculum packages was popular in 1970s as part of the humanistic movement to call attention to the emotional aspects of one's behavior in the exercising of personal

choice (e.g. Dinkmeyer 1970). Other approaches attempted to link the affective education approaches with values clarification approach (Burton, Hunt & Wildman 1980) and with character education (Kohlberg 1975).

Social skills training for specific problems became popular in industrialized countries as problems among young people became more prominent in the 1980s and 1990s. Skills-specific programs and projects were designed to tackle problems like drug abuse, and bullying (Johnson, Johnson, Hodne & Stevahn 1997) with varying reports of effectiveness (McKenzie 2004).

Along with Daniel Goleman's classic *Emotional Intelligence* (1995), a variety of theories and programs centered on young people's social and emotional growth have grown in popularity. Emotional growth includes social competence, social awareness, social problem-solving and emotional intelligence (Elias & Clabby 1988; Goleman 1995; Yeates & Selman 1989). The Consortium on the School Based Promotion of Social Competence (Elias & Weissberg 1994, p 275), defined social competence as "the capacity to integrate cognition, affect, and behaviors to achieve specified social tasks and positive developmental outcomes... it included core skills, attitudes, abilities and feelings given functional meaning by the context of culture, neighborhood and situation".

The theoretical basis of these approaches stemmed from cognitive psychology, behavioral psychology and social learning theory, but they all encourage social-emotional growth and pro-social behaviors in students. These educators put together many curriculum materials and programs to promote students' social and emotional learning as outlined by Elias et al. (1997). These programs included the Child Development Project, the PATHS program, the School Development Project, Social Decision Making and Problem-solving. Many of these projects yielded promising research results with respect to fostering the healthy emotional development of elementary school children (Greenberg et al. 1995).

d) Character Education

Character education flourished as early as 1920s in North America as pledges and rules were used to stimulate the masses to take pride in and work for their homeland.

After many years, character education finally declined as the influence of secular humanism and positivism took center stage. Positivists saw morality as “personal, dependent upon unscientific values judgments, and inappropriate for schools to transmit” (Titus 1994, p 2). With the rise of cultural pluralism, the Courts of the United States finally made several decisions to ban the teaching of religion in public schools. Character education, thus, almost disappeared from the school education in the 1960s (Titus 1994).

The 1980s marked the declining popularity of values clarification and cognitive developmental moral education. With the increase of social and behavioral problems among the young people, the popularity of character education seems to have revived.

The most prominent characteristic of character education was that it acknowledged the deliberate teaching of “core values” such as courtesy, honesty, responsibility and obedience to legitimate authority. Proponents of this approach considered it as a best practice to “instruct youngsters about the character” using intentional skills instead of the “hit or miss approach”: Navaez (2002) Lickona (1993, p 9) saw character as “encompassing the cognitive, affective, and behavioral aspects of moral development”, and thus educators were urged to practice “knowing the good, desiring the good and doing the good” (Lickona 1993, p 11) with their students.

Many educators (Kohlberg 1975, Pritchard 1988) could not accept the doctrinaire nature of this approach. Others (Kohn 1997, and Ryan in Kohn 1997, p 433) questioned the evidence for effectiveness of the approach in building lasting character or moral growth in children.

e) Civic Education

Civic education is the enterprise of developing in young people the knowledge, values and skills necessary for carrying out the rights and duties incumbent upon individuals in their relations within a society (Bahmueller, 1991). Civic virtue is the display of those traits of public and private character that are important to the preservation and promotion of the common good. Civic virtue can be defined in terms of its civic dispositions and civic commitments.

Civic dispositions are those attitudes and habits that are conducive to the healthy functioning and common good of the societal system. Examples of dispositions are civility, open-mindedness, compromise, and toleration of diversity. Civic commitment is the commitment to the fundamental values and principles essential to the preservation and improvement of the nation's constitutional mandate and survival. For nations with democratic ideals, commitment may include popular sovereignty, rule of law, separation of church and state. Following from these ideals, values to which the citizens should demonstrate commitment are life, liberty, pursuit of happiness, equality, truth, patriotism (Leming 2001).

Liou (2004) chose to follow Vontz's (Vontz et al. 2000) framework in defining civic education as including the measures of civic skills, civic disposition, political interest, future propensity for participation in political life, commitment to political rights and responsibility. He used the Likert scale (Adolescent Students Civic Disposition Scales, ASCDS) to measure these concepts in his upper secondary school students. Liou added two concepts from Ehman (1969): sense of political efficacy (feeling that one's participation would be of influence to the political system) and classroom climate (teacher of social studies was able to present both sides of the argument and the students' ability to freely express opinions). He used the Classroom Climate Scale (CCS) to measure these aspects of the participants in his Project Citizenship study.

While Liou's study was carried out with upper secondary school students and the present study deals with views of teachers of primary school students, many of these civic skills and dispositions, such as "participation", "problem-solving abilities", "rights and responsibilities", "awareness of community issues" would certainly need to be cultivated in with students' formative years.

III) The Concepts of Citizenship and Citizenship Education

a) Models and Issues in Citizenship

Despite the complexity and the seeming differences between national cultures and traditions, there has been a renewal of interest in defining and influencing the

provision and direction of citizenship education. An examination of some of the models and issues in citizenship is helpful for developing a framework for the broad and diverse complexities of citizenship. Both Heater and McLaughlin have provided useful frameworks and models of citizenship.

Heater (1992) traced and clarified the historical development of the concept of citizenship (Table 2.1):

Table 2.1

Heater's Historical Strands of Citizenship

Strand	Characteristics
Classical	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Participation in civic affairs, service and the public good valued over individual rights. • A willingness to place the public good above self interest. • A focus on duty and civic virtues. • Full citizenship status and participation in governing is exclusive and limited to a relative few.
Liberal	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • An extension of the classical concept to include individual rights. • Government exists to protect individual rights. • All individuals have the rights to participate equally in civic life and government. • Universal suffrage.
Social	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • An extension of the liberal concept to include economic rights. • All individuals have the right to participate equally in civic life and government. • Assumes that a certain level of wealth is necessary prerequisite for full participation in citizen role. • Governmental role to redistribute wealth in more equalitarian fashion. • Participation in a welfare state or society. • A greater focus on rights than on responsibilities and duties. • Possible extension of the concept beyond the bounds of nations and focus on world social citizenship and demands for distributive justice.
National	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Interest of the nation surpasses the importance of the individual. • Citizenship is national identity in both legal and emotional senses. • Political involvement limited and desirable only to the extent it is necessary to support national objectives.

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Focus on national consciousness, patriotism, and duty.
Multiple	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Two or more forms of citizenship status held concurrently by an individual. • Incompatible rights and responsibilities may challenge the allegiance of the individual. • World or global citizenship can be a component of these multiple citizenships.

Source: Heater (1992, as presented in Lee & Fouts 2005 p 43)

Table 2.1 traces the historical development of the concept of citizenship. Heater concluded that for the 21st century, the concept of “global citizenship” or world citizenship as part of his proposal for “multiple citizenship” could best describe the complex sense of loyalty for people who hold allegiance both to the state and to the world.

Much of what Heater describes can be understood in terms of the emphasis on rights or obligation the individual is to place for the state as proposed by Janoski (1998). Janoski proposed that social or expansive democracy is characterized by equal emphasis on rights and obligations as it is based on the principle of egalitarian participation. However, communitarianism, as characterized by obligations over rights as the society is based on strong community hierarchy to safeguard society’s welfare.

McLaughlin (1992) posited a framework on maximal and minimal perspectives of democratic citizenship (Table 2.2):

Table 2.2

Maximal and Minimal Perspectives of Democratic Citizenship

Feature	Minimal View	Maximal View
Identity: Form / substance	Citizenship seen in formal, legal juridical terms unreflective nationality; static definition	Citizenship seen in social cultural and psychological terms: a consciousness of self as a participating member of a community involving obligations and responsibilities as well as rights and a sense of the common good

Virtues: Private / public	Loyalties and responsibilities are local and immediate; law-abiding and public-spirited through voluntary activity	More extensive focus of loyalty and responsibility; actively questions and extends horizons of duty to include more general and universal considerations. Works actively for justice and social conditions to empower all citizens
Political Involvement: Passive/ active	Suspicion of widespread involvement; relies on voting for representatives	Full participatory approach to democracy at the individual level.
Social Prerequisite: Closed / open	Content with providing citizenship as formal legal status for all	Recognizes that egalitarian status in theory and intention alone is inadequate; recognizes social and economic disadvantages must be addressed if full citizenship and participation are to become real.

Source: McLaughlin (1992)

People may differ in holding the minimal view in all or any part of the continua. For example, society (or educators) could assume that identity and virtues are important to develop in young people but that political involvement and social prerequisites are not. McLaughlin observed that both the maximal and minimal views of citizenship have supporters in the United Kingdom and the social and economic agenda for those with opposing views can be much in conflict as a result. He discussed the importance for a nation to agree on whether the maximal view or the minimal view of citizenship education should be adopted as explicit goal for the education sector. The minimal views in citizenship education would be the provision of information and description, as along with the encouragement of students to develop a sense of community responsibility and service. However, the maximal views in citizenship education, if set as a goal, would train the students in questioning skills, understanding of democratic principles, values and procedures and instill the critical mindset of the knowledgeable citizen. Finally, he pointed out both the danger of adopting the indoctrination approach in the minimalist case resulting in socializing students to accept the “status quo” too readily on the one hand, and the other extreme of the maximalist perspective which may lead students to fail to develop public virtues and running the risk of challenging society to the

point of disintegration. This framework is useful as a basis of national discussion on the goals of citizenship education. In this research, such a framework allows teachers to discuss their goals despite differences in their views of citizenship.

b) Teaching Strategies in Citizenship Education in the Classrooms

In addressing the specific needs of children and young people and the related teaching strategies, Harter (1990) and Honess (1992) saw identity development as dependent on young people's entry into groups and through their social relations and participation. Association with and affirmation from parents of family members helped build the child's self esteem, confidence and finally identity. The young people's achievement in various roles, allowed them to "gain entry" to the adult world as they participate as ones with progressive, achieved status (Marcia 1980) as workers, spouses or members of groups or civil society.

When it came to relating to the needs of others, Kohlberg and his associates (Kohlberg 1975, 1976) identified the stages of moral development. Kohlberg's proposal of using controversies to stimulate the young person to think through, weigh out alternatives and to make decision on moral issues still has much influence in the teaching of values today. The use of role-play in learning about values emphasized the importance of discussing about the feelings and needs of others as young people learned to make decisions and gain entry into society as mature human beings (Shaftel 1967).

Youniss and Yates (1997) suggested that adolescents needed to struggle to understand themselves in relation to society. Referring to their work, Leming stated,

"In the process of searching for an identity, young people attempt to identify with values and ideologies that transcend the immediate concerns of self and instead have historical continuity. Community service offers an opportunity for adolescents to form an identity with links to mature social membership." (2001, p 33)

Many psychologists saw this need for identity or the search for purpose and

meaning (proposed by Viktor Frankl) as influential in the mental well being and adjustment of children. This need to search for meaning was important for both for healthy children and for those with adjustment difficulties.

Leming (2001) discussed the issues surrounding the teaching of citizenship from a historical and ideological perspective. He outlined how the dominant philosophy of society had inevitably influenced the teaching of civics and moral education since the 1920s. Stated simply, the ideologies had moved from a religious, normative approach from one stressing the rational objective approach of “values clarification” to the more recent one stressing “character development”.

H. Kirschenbaum (2000) wrote a rather unique account on how he as a person “journeyed” through the struggle of seeing the need of changing the emphasis of citizenship education from the values clarification approach to that of character (core values) education in response to his own experience as he came face to face with the changing needs of the young people and the overall values changes of the surrounding society. Leming concluded:

For each period of development, the struggle was to “identify a common core of moral/civic virtues which are both sufficient to insure social cohesion and at the same time respectful of cultural diversity and development of individual autonomy.” (Leming 2001, p 76)

It was pointed out that various societies needed to find their own way forward by carefully considering their own historical and cultural heritage and their present needs.

Leming outlined a program where he used the three-step method of having high school students receive a structured course training (eight lessons based on Kohlberg’s stages of moral reasoning from obedience and punishment avoidance to the principle of just society) on methods of ethical reflection, followed by community service with disadvantaged groups or to solve local community problems followed by participating in a structured ethical reflection plus sharing of experience. The experiment results showed that students who belonged to the groups which had experienced both the community service experience combined

with the structured ethical reflection (based on the three steps of thinking through consequences, consideration of context and the Golden Rule as proposed by Born and Mirk of the Institute for Global Ethics 1997) were able to become more systematic in their ethical reasoning and were more likely to consider situations and issues from an ethical point of view in comparison to the groups which did not have any instruction/lessons or the groups which only participated in community service (Leming 2001).

Leming's study incorporated Kohlberg's theory of stages of moral development with the use of a service experience for students. This study also showed the importance of using experiential or service learning in conjunction with ethical reflection in citizenship education.

W.C. Spohn (2000) pointed out major flaws in Kohlberg's (and later Gilligan's) approach to moral development as his well known stages were seen to be oversimplified and his reduction of moral reflection onto the "justice" (or "care") concept to be too narrow and rigid. Spohn further pointed out the importance of the availability of a "community of people" and repeated practice of moral choice in real life events for moral development.

Other authors (Lockwood 2001; Prencipe & Helwig 2002; Rutledge et al., 2001) emphasized the importance of a developmental perspective in civic and moral education. Lockwood proposed using a developmental framework by providing "civic decency" education: values and virtues like respect for others, care for family, and honesty for primary students while cultivating the civic literacy: political rights and training in democratic participation processes for older students. Instead of aiming at a "quick fix" and instant cure, the teaching of civic and moral values should progressively build up the students by guiding them in debate and analysis of their own values in a more sophisticated manner. Emphasis should be placed on developing the students' ability to ask and answer questions through two-way communication.

Rutledge maintained that in addition to identifying, teaching and expanding from a "core knowledge program", the democratic principles and values that manifested

each day in the lives of citizens can hardly be taught in school. Such civic education involved both knowledge and affective content, thus, can only be “caught” by students through their daily experiences from citizens and the ethos of the surrounding community. Positive school climate, mentoring, role modeling, community involvements were all advocated by educators from both the character education group (Halverson 2004; Narvaez 2002) and the Social Emotional Education groups (Maag & Webber 1995; Stone-McCown & McCormick 1999).

Silcock and Duncan (2001) concluded that values could best be taught under the following conditions:

1. With students’ voluntary commitment
2. Values learning which leads to personally transformed relationship between students and topics through experiences that the students consider worthwhile
3. Values learning must have some consistency between what is taught and the larger socio-political scene.

These academics pointed out that since the change in education in England towards the increased use of standardized tests en route to performance benchmarking, as well as skills gaining towards economically prized activities, the teaching of values has become all the more difficult in the present school system. This was because activities involved in teaching values were proceeding in the opposite direction from the main and even the overall values of the wider society. These observations may throw light on the present situation in Hong Kong, leading to additional challenges for the teaching of citizenship (Ng 1998).

c) An Integrated Definition of Citizenship Education

The Crick Report (1998) reviewed the place of citizenship education in the national curriculum in the UK. This report attempted to balance the need for equality and rights with social and moral responsibility, and represented an updated effort to reform the civics curriculum. It differed considerably from its predecessor, the Marshall Report which outlines state’s responsibility for safeguarding the civil and political participation as well as welfare rights of the population (Gamarnikow & Green 1999). The scope of the Crick Report included:

...Three things, related to each other, mutually dependent on each other, but each needing a somewhat different place and treatment in the curriculum. Firstly, children learning from the very beginning self confidence and *socially and morally responsible behavior* both in and beyond the classroom, both towards those in authority and towards each other. Secondly, learning about and becoming helpfully involved in the life and concerns of their communities, including learning through *community involvement and service* to the community. Thirdly pupils learning about and how to make themselves effective in public life through knowledge, skills and values what can be called *political literacy*, seeking for a term that is wider than political knowledge alone.

(Qualification and Curriculum Authority, UK 1998, p 11-13, emphasis added)

Other authors (Janoski 1998; Lee 2001) opined that the various aspects of citizenship could be “private and public spheres” (Janoski 1998), identity, civil, political, social citizenship and civic values. Heater (1990) agreed that these aspects of citizenship education are connected with and may build on one another.

Heater	identity, civil, political, social, civic virtues
QCA ,Crick Report	self confidence, social/moral responsibility, community/political involvement
Gross & Dynneson’s Study on quality of “good citizens”	social concern, knowledge on government, current events, conservatism: acceptance of authority and responsibility
Chinese traditional view of a virtuous person	starts with self→family→community→country and nation 修身 → 齊家 → 治國 → 平天下

Figure 2.1. Views on citizenship education

Eastern approaches to citizenship development are heavily influenced by Confucianism. The Confucian values began with the development of personal virtues, which were then to be extended to clearly prescribed duties/roles towards the community and the country. The scholar, Tu Wei-ming (Tu, W 1985, p 113)

discussed “self-hood in Confucianism”. He saw self-transformation as a communal act between two interrelated assumptions: the self as a center of human relationship and the self as a dynamic process of spiritual development. Lee (2001) argued that self-cultivation is a fundamental quality of citizenship. Thus, self and collective realization, instead of being dichotomized, can be mutually reinforcing.

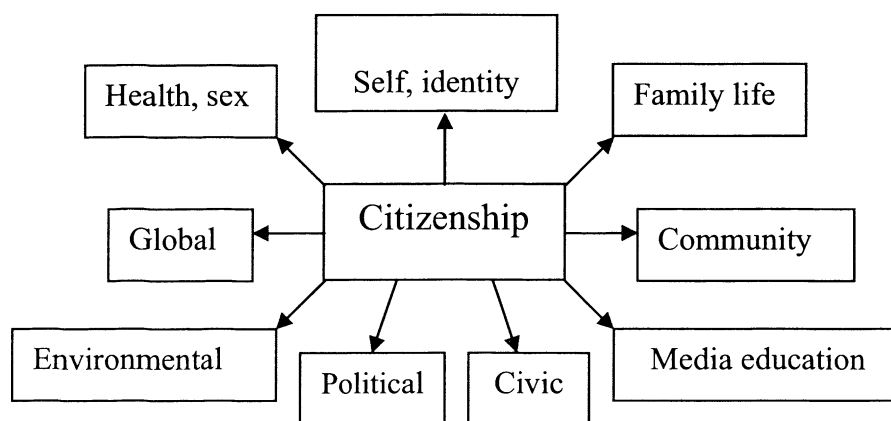


Figure 2.2. Citizenship as a many-faceted concept

Figure 2.2, reflects the approach which has been adopted by the Curriculum Development Council of the Hong Kong Government. Thus, emphasis was not to prioritize in individual or collective, but rather, to see all the various aspects of Citizenship education as building on one another as students were to be encouraged to develop into well rounded citizens:

Some societies place stronger emphasis on individualism, while others collectivism. However, the two are not necessarily dichotomized and mutually exclusive. On the contrary, there are subtle relationships between them. In societies where individualism is more obviously valued, the significance of common interests, common will and common good is also valued. Likewise, in societies where collectivism seems to be dominant, there are various extents of respect for individuality, and self-realization. In the Chinese tradition, even though collectivism has been a dominant social value, self has been the starting point of civic values (Curriculum Development Council 1996, p15).

The Hong Kong Government has tried to address the importance of citizenship education as a major goal of the education reforms in “moral and civic education” that preceded the change of sovereignty of 1997. “Personal, social, humanity education” is used to provide direction for cross-curricular theme in both secondary and primary schools.

Personal, Social and Humanities Education has obviously encompassed the various components of the concepts of citizenship with an overall framework. It has the advantage of adding more personal development aspects, social and political involvement without making priorities for citizenship education. This perspective has obviously found favor with both the British Government and the Hong Kong Special Administrative Region’s Government (Curriculum Development Council 1996) and is in line with the Governments’ direction.

d) Conceptualization of Citizenship in this Thesis

The researcher has adopted the multi-faceted view on citizenship as proposed by the Curriculum Development Council (CDC). The CDC leads and guides the development of citizenship education in Hong Kong’s schools. In line with this integrated view of citizenship, the researcher has used the conceptual framework of Gross and Dynneson (1992) which defined “what constitutes good citizenship”.

This definition and the conceptual framework encompass:

1. Social concern: welfare of others, moral and ethical behavior, tolerance for diversity
2. Knowledge: of government, of current events, of the world community, and ability to ask questions
3. Conservatism: acceptance of those in supervisory role, patriotism, acceptance of responsibility
4. Skills and abilities: the ability to ask questions, to make informed choices, to solve problems, to participate in the community.

These concepts were used to guide the questions and structure of the survey and to serve as a basis of focus groups discussions and individual interviews.

More than ever before, nations are seeing citizenship as a complex concept, consisting of micro aspects (self knowledge, sex and family education...etc) and wider concerns (civic duties, environment education and political awareness). The Education Bureau in Hong Kong (Curriculum Development Council 1996) saw the need "...to help young people develop a balanced view of rights and responsibility, as well as concern for self and obligations to the community." In addition to adopting this many faceted definition of citizenship, this thesis has placed emphases on using the developmental perspective to explore primary school teachers' ideas of which civic qualities are most important for their students.

It is worthwhile to note how concepts like "self", "responsibility to family and community" which are central tenets of Confucianism influence the priorities that Hong Kong teachers assign to the components of good citizenship. It is also interesting to see how the teachers rate "knowledge", "skills and abilities" as aspects of citizenship. How do these qualities relate to students' participation in the classrooms and in the future, in the community? Do the teachers see all of these qualities as important qualities of good citizenship?

A clear picture of the teachers' views is important baseline data. The data reflect both the students' need for citizenship education and the teachers' vision of offering citizenship instruction. Both of these are useful for educators to assess which approach is most appropriate in citizenship education for the children of Hong Kong.

IV) Cultural Differences: The Concept of "Good Citizens"

While information technology has made today's world increasingly global, one can hardly overlook the differences in history, ideology and development between Eastern and Western nations. Western nations include the British Commonwealth countries, Australia, Canada and the United States in addition to European nations and the vicinity nations. Nations in the East include China, Japan, Korea, India and in Indo-China and Asia.

Riesenberg (1992) examined the influence of Western historical and religious beliefs

on the definition of good citizenship by. He observed that the Western thought on citizenship was influenced by Christianity. Thus, moral absolutes, covenant and laws, obedience to the moral laws of God as the ultimate allegiance were valued highly in the Christian nations as opposed to the earlier influence of pursuing offices, honors, and exalted family status as proposed by the values systems of Aristotle and Cicero. The state was God's instrument for the reform of human sinfulness. The Reformation sanctioned theologians' participation in community affairs. Participation gave rise to the development of representative government, universal franchise and civil rights through election.

Eastern religions such as Hinduism, Buddhism, and Islam emphasized good citizenship, morality and development to become a good person. They differed in the extent to which they encouraged political participation (Lee & Fouts 2005). Most of these religions stressed individual duty, obedience, and religious devotion in daily life.

In China, Confucian thought and centuries of tradition have defined a political structure based on the Mandate of Heaven, where the gods gave Chinese rulers the right to reign in an orderly society backed by intricate rituals and etiquette. Thus, although rebellion against tyrannical rule can be acceptable, the Chinese have basically state authoritarianism even to this day (Kristof & WuDunn 1995).

The Chinese concept of self development differs considerably from that of Western nations. Chin (1986), Lam (1994) and Suen (1983) reflected the Chinese tradition of defining "self" in the context of relationships and prescribed roles. Thus, the identity for the "self" has everything to do with the definition of others and societal expectations. The Western concept of the "self" is one of growing and differentiating into an individualized person with body, soul and spirit with autonomous will, cognition and emotion (Poon 2001).

Thus, citizenship or what constitutes a good citizen differs considerably between East and West. According to Gross and Dynneson (1991), secondary school students in the United States defined good citizens as caring about the welfare of others, moral and ethical in their dealings with others, are able to challenge and

critically question ideas, and as capable of making informed choices. These views informed the development of Gross and Dynneson's citizenship questionnaire (which was based on Greene 1987). This questionnaire has become widely used, with modifications by various countries (Lee & Fouts 2005).

This thesis used the Chinese version of this questionnaire. This questionnaire, although originated from Western nations, was found to be suitable for studying the views of teachers of Hong Kong. The questionnaire was chosen because, despite cultural differences in the definition of the "self", the questionnaire's content covered many areas, which were important in defining citizenship. The questionnaire's use of wording like: "what in your view are the important qualities of good citizenship?" was consistent with the Chinese concept of role expectations, which teachers would readily understand. In the Chinese culture, all roles and expectation are defined within the context of relationships between people.

Lee (1999) had already translated and back translated the original questionnaire and has thus developed a validated Chinese language version. This was another reason for the use of this instrument. Lee's (1999) study, using the same questionnaire, showing good validity and reliability in studying the views of teachers from the cities of Guangzhou, Hangzhou, and Hong Kong indicated that the questionnaire was well accepted. Finally, since Hong Kong had been under British rule for 200 years, teachers' might have been influenced by Chinese, Western or global trends. This questionnaire allows the researcher to compare both similarities and subtle differences between Chinese teachers and their Western colleagues.

In another study, junior high students from the United States were found to regard good citizens as those who obeyed rules and helped others (the social side of citizenship), instead of being interested in politics and the political processes (Chiodo & Martin 2005). In the East, Angell and Hahn (1996, p 361) found that schools in Japan prepared their students to be "hard working, loyal, obedient, and cooperative to family, class, neighborhood and the nation".

The qualities of a "good citizen" depend on a country's historical and political ideals and thus, have different meanings. However, most citizenship education programs

have implied behavior, which would define “good citizens”. In 1990, in Taiwan, the Republic of China, specific educational goals were distributed for schools to follow in their citizenship programs. Tu (1994, p 23), the Director of Social Studies Education for Taiwan, asserted that citizenship education had a very strong element of moral education, upholding the four ethical principles (courtesy, righteousness, incorruptibility, and shame) and the eight cardinal virtues (loyalty, filial piety, kindness, love, honesty, righteousness, harmony, and peacefulness). Each of these virtues with its implied behaviors set behavior guidelines for students. Greeting the teacher and saying, “excuse me” were two of these guidelines.

Thus, obedience and loyalty were the guiding principles for citizens of Eastern societies; participation in group activities is encouraged while harmony is treasured. In the West, where participation in community is likewise important, cultivating students’ ability to ask questions, challenge ideas, take initiative to help others, and make informed decisions are manifestations of “good citizens”.

Hong Kong teachers spent their formative years in the British education system. It would be interesting to explore what qualities they saw as most important in “good citizens”. In the qualitative study, one would be able to discuss with the teachers the reasons for their choice and the importance they attribute to “asking questions” and “making informed choices” and the reasons behind their answers. It would be again interesting to explore how much the Hong Kong teachers’ view of “good citizenship” “mixed” Eastern and Western definitions.

V) Historical Background of Citizenship Education in China and Hong Kong

a) China

Although Hong Kong only returned to China’s sovereignty in July 1997, 98% of the population consists of immigrants from China. Since 1997, China’s views and policies have influenced Hong Kong. Citizenship education has been equated with moral education in China. As Lee (2005) states:

The term “civics” is still controversial in China today, as it is perceived as a Western concept, imbued with many Western political values that are not

appropriate for China. Moral education in China is sometimes called ideological education or political education (State Education Commission 1988, 1990). The three terms: moral education, ideological education and political education suggest that civic education in China is rather directive in nature, i.e. it has been seen by the central government as a means of transmitting ideological and political values (2005, p 209).

Thus, it is not difficult to understand why the Central Committee of the Chinese Communist Party frequently issued official documents reiterating the government's position and directing educators to instill proper moral behavior and attitudes that fit the ideology of the era. According to the Chinese Government, moral education is closely tied up with ideo-political education and the roles of intellectuals (dissenters). Thus, the Government found it necessary to make official statements.

This type of tension and debates came to a climax in the student demonstrations on June 4, 1989. The movement is still described as a massive riot resulting from subversive bourgeois liberalization (Hao 1997, p 79-99). However, despite the hard line stance on the June 4 incident, the moral education documents in the 1990s continued to emphasize decentralization and openness, while insisting that moral education was linked to ideo-political education and must be guided by central policies.

With the opening up of China's economy and more frequent exchanges with other nations, education documents showed that while the central government continued to insist on ideological control and to condemn antisocialist influences, the direction for moral education emphasizing student- (or person-) centeredness. Many scholars advocated for the acknowledgement of students' developmental needs, their voluntary involvement, and independent and rational thinking (Chen 2005; Tzao & Li 2005) in the schools. This type of openness also allowed for regional differences in education policies and teaching approaches.

Lee (2005, p 218) summarized this trend by remarking that Heater's category of classical and national citizenship "with emphasis on citizens' participation and public good over individual benefits, collectivity over self interest and responsibility over

rights” was quite representative of China’s official position. Moral education, tied to ideology and politics, national identity, nationalism and patriotism all occupied a central place in citizenship education.

Educators have begun paying more attention to the importance of psychological development and respect for the individual (Ministry of Education 2002, Reference material in 2004). Lee (2005) showed that young people are becoming more aware of their rights and needs as individuals. Government statistics and international surveys have reported alarming increases in the divorce rate, drug abuse and social problems found in other cities. Implicit in all these trends, the struggle between liberal and classical citizenship had all but surfaced as China charts the future direction of citizenship education for the entire country. While Hong Kong had been under Western influence and British rule for most of its history, the effort to balance the emphasis on the individual, collectivism and nationalism would be different from similar efforts in its motherland.

b) Hong Kong

Lee (1995), Leung (1997), Morris (1999) and Leung (1997) have provided rich sources for understanding the challenge of teaching civics and values in Hong Kong. Below is an account of how the curricular changes in civic and moral education closely followed Hong Kong’s political and societal changes.

Morris (1999) identified the phases in the evolution of education in Hong Kong: 1945-65, 1965-84, and 1985-96 and 1997 to the present.

i) 1945-1965

The first period marked an era of centralized, bureaucratized control of curriculum with deliberate, depoliticised content. Students were encouraged to accept their Chinese identity in the abstract and to stay close to the status quo. This approach was rarely questioned as most of the population of Hong Kong society consisted of Chinese refugees. These groups treated Hong Kong as a much-needed retreat from the political movements and changes in Mainland China during the 1960s and 1970s. Both the rulers and the ruled were happy to shun politics in favor of their own economic welfare. Thus, Hong Kong’s inhabitants used to describe themselves as

“living on borrowed time and in a borrowed place”. These people were known for their competitiveness, hard work, pragmatism and economic focused characteristics.

Civics was offered as a separate examination subject before the Second World War. After 1952, primary school geography, history and civics were merged as social studies. This move reflected the Government’s interest in integrating civics into the whole curriculum. However, civics continued to be taught separately in secondary schools until 1965, when it was replaced by economic and public affairs (EPA).

ii) 1965-1984

In 1965, the emphasis on certification and open examinations triggered the creation of “elite” schools. Chinese parents have traditionally been very concerned about the academic achievement of their children. This view had been passed down from the days of public examination in China where the Son of Heaven (the Emperor) selected his officers by public examination held once every several years in the capital. Baby boomers were raised with tales of how young people repaid their family’s support by studying hard and being selected by the Emperor to serve at court thus improving the living condition of the family and clan while bringing honor to the family name. These open examinations became the means by which schools earned their reputation; parents used every means at their disposal to secure their children’s admission into these prestigious schools.

In 1972, social studies, was introduced into junior secondary schools, and into the senior secondary level in 1984. This subject examined relationships between the individual and society, as well as the role of citizens in local and international communities. In 1980, government and public affairs (GPA) was introduced to the senior secondary schools. This subject examined the principles underlying Western democratic governments rule of law, representation, consultation and elections, in addition to the Chinese political process.

With the establishment of the nine-year of free education in 1979, EPA and related subjects continued to place emphasis on students’ memorization of factual and descriptive content.

iii) 1985-96

To prepare for the handover, in 1985, the Education Department set guidelines for the teaching of EPA with more emphasis on individual and society in the hope of enhancing the students' political awareness and sense of responsibility.

In 1989, the political climate changed in the aftermath of the June 4 incident where the Chinese Government "cracked down" on the riot organized by university students in Tienanman Square. Lau and Louie (1993) remarked that the June 4 incident aroused the Hong Kong public's desire for faster democratization, along with the rising interest in politics and the way that the people of Hong Kong were governed. The number of directly elected seats in the Legislative Council rose from 12 to 18 in 1991, so that the elected members became for the first time the majority of the Council. The Councilors and by implication the general were given a taste of 'self rule' and with the support of veteran politician and the last British Governor of Hong Kong: Mr. Chris Patten (along with his confrontational style, his strong support in putting forth representative structure for the future government through the City and New Territories Administration White Paper) in 1992, the Hong Kong people's understanding of party politics flourished. Lee (2005) remarked that Patten facilitated the use of mass politics to replace the government sponsored politics through administrative absorption.

Following the public's demand for more participation, the 1985 curriculum revision added critical examination of social, moral and political issues. The appropriateness of Education Regulation 98, which prohibited political discussion in the classroom, was questioned. This regulation, intended to limit the spread of Kuomintang ideology and to curtail the influence of the Cultural Revolution, was rescinded in 1990. In addition to issuing guidelines, the Education Department established two Civic Education Resource Centers for teachers. The Department also published the *Civic Education Bulletin* annually and the *Civic Education Newsletter* three times in a school year.

During 1991, the Education Commission introduced liberal studies, at the matriculation level. This subject contained six modules: Hong Kong studies, environmental studies, human relationships, the modern world, and China today. The

last taught students how China believed that Hong Kong was making the transition from being a British colony. Students were encouraged to see themselves as citizens of Hong Kong and China. In 1993 and 1995 for secondary and primary schools respectively, the Civic Education Action Plan was passed to explain the Government's proposed implementation of civic education in schools. In 1993, the Government Secretariat published "School Education in Hong Kong: a Statement of Aims" (Education and Manpower Bureau 1993):

Aim 7: the school is an important agency for nurturing civic responsibility and for preparing young people to adjust to rapid change in a way, which promotes social stability.

Aim 12: Schools should help students to become aware of Hong Kong as a society; to develop a sense of civic duty, responsibility to the family and service to the community, and to exercise tolerance in interacting with others.

In 1996, the *Guidelines on Civic Education in Schools* (Curriculum Development Council, Education Department 1996) were refined to include civic and values education along with morals, sex education and environmental education. For the first time, the documents examined the strengths and weaknesses of several approaches and presented a list of indicators for evaluation of civic education in schools. The document also urged the cultivation of nationalism and patriotism in schools.

iv) 1997 to the Present

Political tension continued to intensify before and after the handover in 1997, even though the first Chief Executive of Hong Kong, Mr. Tung Chee Hwa, gave priority to harmony and partnership with China. In 2003, 500,000 people marched on the streets to protest the anti-subversion laws that had the potential to restrict civic freedom. In 2004, a smaller crowd marched against many of Tung's reforms. The marchers demanded Tung's resignation and the direct election of the Chief Executive. These rallies were clear examples of the Hong Kong people's deep desire for self-government.

Since the handover, Mr. Tung reiterated his concern for moral education. Since 1997, a series of education reforms was brought forth, with moral education being one of the

major objectives. In a paper issued by the Education Commission in 2001, moral and civic education was described as the development of:

- personal character and interpersonal skills
- respect for others
- perseverance
- national identity (Education Commission 2001, p 20)

This direction was followed up by the *Basic Education Curriculum Guide* (2002) in which moral and civic education became one of the key tasks of the curriculum. National identity education emerged as a key area of moral and civic education (CDC 2002).

However, the Education Commission adopted approaches capitalizing on students' involvement and experiential learning. After 2003, with support from non-government organizations, the guidance and counseling section of the Education Commission established "personal development" for primary students. Schools were given financial support to hire social workers or counselors to assist with the teaching and counseling duties associated with the course. The Education Commission subsidized teaching packages to prevent "bullying", gambling and other bad antisocial behaviors.

Other initiatives included a newspaper (*Ming Pao Daily News*) and the Education Commission's joint effort in developing "life education" (2004-2005) and the promotion of the use of "life journal" or "life events" and the encouragement of students' reflection. The Commission trained teachers to teach students to ask questions, and provided additional resources for promoting primary and high school students' involvement in uniform/service groups. Whether or not these approaches brought about positive changes in students has yet to be evaluated. Were there proven examples of "good practice"? Could the planning and implementation of citizenship education approaches have been done more systematically? These questions merit further exploration.

In addition to the influence from the Government and the political influences of the particular period of development, the sponsoring bodies of the schools can also

influence the teaching of citizenship education in Hong Kong. This aspect will be explored in Section VI in this chapter.

c) Current National Interest in Citizenship Education

There has been widespread national interest in citizenship education throughout the world (Cogan & Derricott 1998; Ichilov 1998; Kennedy 2003; Lee, 2001). Lee (2005) cited Entwistle (1994) in proposing some reasons why modern societies are now re-examining citizenship and its educational implications:

A perceived breakdown in the social order, a widespread alienation of the young, the emergence of multicultural societies and resulting pluralism of beliefs and a growing disenchantment with what has been called the “culture of individualism” is severely testing the historical conception of citizenship as a homogenous grouping of values and beliefs. He also notes the perception among many people that there is an ignorance among the young that threatens the future of democratic citizenship. (Quoted in Lee 2005, p 26)

Other reasons for the states’ policy in asking schools to increase their efforts in civics and citizenship education were related to their socio and political development. In North America, the concern about young people’s apathy and self-centeredness may have influenced the decision to return civics to the curriculum. In Eastern Europe, it may be the need to rebuild trust, reaffirm (or recreate) national identity (Tibbitts 1996).

This chapter now examines the topic first in China and then in Hong Kong. Hong Kong, as China’s special administrative region (SAR), is neither a democracy nor a city in a socialist republic.

d) Shifting Political Emphasis and Citizenship Education in Hong Kong

Hong Kong’s Government has the same interest in citizenship education as other nations. Leung (Leung & Chai 1999) remarked that it was difficult to discern the impact of government guidelines, as the education sector became market driven with a strong emphasis on academic performance and examination results. Citizenship, being

a non-academic subject, was considered “second class” curriculum thus easily dismissed by many parents, teachers and students. Furthermore, under the School Management Initiative, the schools’ leadership was able to decide whether and how to teach civics according to the school’s set priority.

Now that Hong Kong is under China’s sovereignty, a valid question would be to ask whether citizenship education in Hong Kong has come to resemble that of Japan, Thailand, and Korea. In these countries, emphasis is on the training of “the good person” fulfilling his duties to family, neighbors and country (Angell & Hahn 1996). This direction followed the framework suggested by Janoski (1998) where the national ideal pointed toward the citizen’s obligations over his or her rights and based on strong community hierarchy to ensure that community welfare to be first and foremost in the education for citizenship.

There was a tradition of mutual understanding between the British Government and the people of Hong Kong, who were satisfied with minimal political involvement. Even in Economic & Public Affairs courses, teachers encouraged a descriptive approach that met the knowledge requirement of the curriculum along the direction of the minimalist approach as suggested by McLaughlin (1992).

As a result, despite the political turbulence in China, Hong Kong only witnessed one or two incidents of unrest. Therefore, Hong Kong did not follow Heater’s (1992) historical evolution from classical to liberal citizenship in a gradually evolving manner. Even after the beginning of the transition in 1982, the society remained conservative and to accept greater participation in political and economic rights. Besides the rule of law, there was little development in other rights such as access to information, equality...etc. Thus, Hong Kong’s Government had created a system that expected little of its citizens so that the minimalist perspective of citizenship was continually encouraged. While enjoying low taxation, the citizens of Hong Kong were expected to work hard and plan for their own future.

Triggered by June 4, 1989 incident, the public that did not or could not emigrate began to find ways to resist political intervention from China. Despite the Government’s insistence on prioritizing stability and conscious avoidance of developing Hong Kong

along the lines of the welfare state, the people of Hong Kong seemed to have moved through the stages of Heater's framework quickly and many have wanted to press for liberal or even social citizenship even without universal suffrage. This desire could be seen in frequent mass rallies and marches, relationships with international bodies, and discussions of international treaties on human rights and civil rights. The Government's response included leaning towards moral education, outlining the character education, and National Citizenship education.

Hong Kong is indeed quite far from becoming a democracy; McLaughlin's (1992) framework of minimal perspective of democratic citizenship could throw light on the situation. Most people in Hong Kong are aware of their rights in the formal, legalistic sense. Most understand and try hard to live within the law. However, most would limit their loyalties and responsibilities only to family and a few friends rather than becoming politically involved on behalf of all citizens (Lee 2005, p 219)

The social positions of activists, politicians and the media may encourage them to take on the maximalist perspective of citizenship as they motivate others to press for additional rights in political and social involvement.

If indeed, citizenship was seen by the Chinese Government as much related with moral education. Cheng RHM (2004) outlined the development of moral education for Hong Kong citizens as building on the teachings of Confucius through parental discipline, followed up by the Christian teaching in the territory's many religious schools and further developed by the public education campaigns of the Independent Commission against Corruption (ICAC).

Thus, the liberal, civic traditions of citizenship concepts had never been unfamiliar to Hong Kong's citizens. However, instead of being developed by the policy-led, incremental approaches of most nations, citizenship education in Hong Kong was carried out piecemeal, with shifting policies and emphases, resulting in differences in the understanding of and commitment to these ideals among various segments of the population. The self-reliant, pragmatic and resourceful, utilitarian characteristics of Hong Kong's people still prevail. All these development and situational characteristics made loyalty and commitment to the common good, patriotism and

other civic disposition and skills difficult to cultivate.

According to Lee (1995), many Hong Kong citizens saw themselves as having “dual” citizenship and identifying themselves culturally but not politically with China. Many in Hong Kong do hold citizen identities outside China. Maybe Heater’s concept of “multiple citizenship” describes this type of citizenship, where the individual saw himself as a world or global citizen instead of a citizen of a particular state. The finding of this thesis should throw some light on the unique qualities of good citizenship considered to be important by the teachers in Hong Kong. It will then be possible to support the teachers as they strengthen the citizenship qualities of the next generation.

VI) School Types and the Development of Citizenship Education in Hong Kong

When Hong Kong was a crown colony of Britain, missionary societies from the United States, England and Europe became active here in the early twentieth century. As a result, many renowned schools were established all over the territory with the expertise and funds from these missions (Ng 1998). These church-based sponsors reflected the traditions and values of their mission societies. Thus, Hong Kong hosted schools and charities operated by, among others, the Catholic Church, the Anglican Diocese, and the Lutheran Church. Most of these faith-based organizations from Europe and North America started the schools and charities with funds from their own mission societies. In addition to the Protestant sponsoring bodies, the Buddhist and Taoist monasteries and societies also had histories of being funding bodies for secondary and primary schools. With the passage of time and the economic development and prosperity of the colony, the Government of Hong Kong began to provide subsidies to these societies in 1873.

In addition to the faith-based sponsoring bodies, there were many active charities in Hong Kong with experiences in sponsoring and establishing education institutions from kindergartens to community college level. Po Leung Kuk and Tung Wah Group of Hospitals were among the best-known charities both with sizeable staff and long histories in Hong Kong. Their services were based on Chinese traditional virtues like filial piety, and protection for women and children.

Hong Kong is a relatively small place, and although it is divided into 18 administrative districts, today, government became the major funding body for education and religious schools all came under the category of subsidized schools. These sponsoring bodies were required to follow the Government's educational reforms and regulations. However, these subsidized schools had been allowed the freedom to maintain their traditions and emphases as long as they supported educational principles.

Even before the change of sovereignty in 1997, the Government had initiated a series of education reforms. According to Professor Leung (2004), Hong Kong University, the School-Based Management was one of these initiatives:

Recently however, there have been some major changes in the operation of schools, and the name of the game is school-based management (SBM). SBM in Hong Kong represents a typical example of re-centralization dressed up in the form of decentralization. The SBM movement started as an initiative known as School Management Initiative (SMI) in 1991 before the change over of sovereignty in 1997. SMI was in essence a managerial restructuring, aiming at tightening the control of the aided school sector. The number and variety of school sponsoring bodies (SSBs) are much larger than when the system was first set up. Many voluntary agencies other than the churches are now operating schools. In the early 1990s for example, there were more than 221 such SSBs, including religious based, non government organization sponsored, and charity and clan organizations (Education and Manpower Branch and Education Department 1991, p 11), and quality control became an issue for the government. Since 1991, the Government saw the need to step up control over the schools due to the following factors:

1. The legal framework, which originated in the early colonial years with the aim of containing political influence from the mainland, was no longer relevant given the imminent return of sovereignty to China

2. The roles and responsibilities of the various parties (EMBI, EDI, SSBs; School Management Committees (SMCs) etc.) were not clearly defined in the existing framework.
3. The funding mechanism for the aided schools was too rigid. (Excerpt from Leung 2004, Hong Kong Anglican Church Issue, 224-225)

The SMI document (Education and Manpower Branch and Education Department 1991) made it clear that SMI was part of the Government's Public Sector Reform, hence it was in essence a managerial restructuring. The responses from the school-sponsoring bodies were far from enthusiastic in 1991. The Government however, pushed on with the initiative, and in the Education Commission Report Number 7 (ECR7) released in September 1997, SMI was renamed School Based Management and packaged with the label of "quality school education".

In his first policy speech in October 1997, Mr. Tung Che-Hwa, the Chief Executive of the newly formed Hong Kong Special Administrative Region, endorsed the recommendations of ECR7 and made it into a government policy. Many people appreciated Tung's eagerness to give special priority to education in his policy initiatives as he saw Chinese parents traditionally have placed paramount priority to their children's education. The Government appointed a committee to work out the details of the School Based Management measures. But by this time, what had originally been a measure to rationalize the roles of stakeholders became a device by which the Government shifted the authority from the School Sponsoring Bodies to the other stakeholders. Leung continued:

This shift of authority needs to be understood in the context of the history of Hong Kong. In the colonial days, because of the religious root of the British Government, the Protestant churches (especially the Anglican Diocese) were seen to be receiving favor from the colonial government, and this is manifested in education...Now that sovereignty is changed to a government which has no bias towards Christianity, the change over provided a golden opportunity for reshuffling of power, and the SBM move was seen by many as the government's attempt in gradually removing power and influence from the Christian Churches.

Seen in this light, the SBM movement under the label of decentralization

is in reality a re-centralization of authority (regaining of control of the schools from the SSBs), or at most a deconcentration where power is shifted from those that are seen to be less supportive of the government to those sectors which the government has more control of. (Leung, 2004, Hong Kong Anglican Church Issue, 224-225)

In addition to the subsidized schools, perhaps in response to the many difficulties associated with education reforms, fewer schools (including many international schools and schools with special subject emphases) offered programs to the parents and students as alternatives to the Government subsidized schools. These schools received the greater part of their operational budget from school fees and only minimal public funding. These are classified as schools under the direct subsidy schemes or private schools.

Although the subsidized schools as sponsored by the above churches or charitable bodies are greater in numbers and with longer traditions, today there is at least one Government school in each district. The policies, the rules and regulations, even the physical structures of these government-sponsored schools adhered very closely to Government standards. The staffs of these schools were rigorously trained, as they were expected to execute the Government's latest educational reforms.

The literature shows that religious education, was where moral or values education was carried out (Priestley 1987). Even though there is much dissension about how religion education should be handled separately from values education and education in spirituality (Beck 1998; Lovat 1995) religion constituted a base for discussion on values and the meaning of life, which is accepted as very important for young people's development. In England, the development of spirituality could either be taught as a specific subject or as cross-religious themes about certain tradition or festivals. Other schools in the United Kingdom introduced religion as a way to explore a child's personal experience (Bates 1992). Lastly, spirituality could train the child in sensitivity, consideration for others, and awareness of emotion in self and social relationship (Hammond et al. 1990). The contribution of religious education to students' learning of spirituality, values and citizenship could not be underestimated, and many religious based learning packages and approaches had been produced in the United

Kingdom and in the United States (Grimmitt et al. 1991; Hammond et al. 1990; Hull 1996; Mackley 1996).

The Hong Kong scholar Ng Tsz Ming outlines the contribution of mission-based Christian schools to the education reforms in China from 1900 (2006). Ng describes how in China and Hong Kong, the Christian beliefs of shaping students' character and sacrificing the preference of the self for society and service to humanity was the mission of many faith-based schools. (2006)

Given Hong Kong's educational history, it is useful to consider the influence of school-sponsoring bodies on the teachers' views of teaching values and citizenship today. Therefore, in addition to exploring the influence of demographic factors like age, gender, education and experiences on the teacher's view, the "type of school" was investigated. The quantitative study stratified the schools as Government, subsidized and private. The subsidized schools were further classified according to their sponsoring bodies: as Protestant, Catholic, Buddhist/Taoist and charity-affiliated. Thus, teachers in this study were divided into four subgroups: Government school faculty, private school faculty, subsidized faculty or faculty of charity-affiliated schools. The results of this thesis with respect to the differences in teachers' views according to the types of school in which they work will be written up in respective sections in subsequent chapters.

VII) Teachers' Stress and the Implementation of Citizenship Education in Schools

Members of the Democratic Party and many academics in the education sector favored the emphasis on critical thinking, democratic and political processes in the curriculum today. While the debate of which content should be included continued, the implementation of that content faced many challenges as heavier workload and frequent changes brought about by waves of education reforms were beginning to undermine the morale and sense of mission among Hong Kong's teachers.

There are questions of whether Hong Kong's teachers received sufficient preparation in citizenship development. Are today's teachers being given enough preparation to face the challenge throughout all the changes since the sovereignty change of 1997 as there

amidst all the public debates on the appropriate content for citizenship education?

Since 1997, teachers have had to pass the benchmarking examination for teaching academic subjects in primary and secondary schools. Other challenges were whether or not to use the mother tongue as the language of instruction, to carry out curriculum integration and reforms, to strengthen the schools' ability to self-governance and self-assessment, and to undergo specialized subject related training. There were also Government led initiatives to build a Parent-Teacher Association (PTA) with the goal of electing PTA representatives to the school governing board (Professional Teachers Union News 2002).

These initiatives were presented on an annual basis with little time for teachers to adjust. Despite the Education Commission's repeated expressions of concern over proven effectiveness and evidence-based practice, the results of reform measures were not reviewed with the transparent involvement of the teachers or the public.

In the past two years, teachers have taken to the streets to publicize their discontent. On January 21, 2006, following the consecutive suicides of two teachers (possibly due to depression and work related stress), about 10,000 of their colleagues rallied to demand the slowing down of educational reforms and the resignation Secretary of Education and Manpower (*South China Morning Post* January 21, 2006). Studies by the Professional Teachers Union and academic institutions have described the stress that teachers have been under since 2002. Cases of depression and suicide ideation have increased while morale has plunged (Cheng YC 2004).

However, with the decreasing birth rate in 2004 and 2005, the Education Commission had begun to cut down the number of classes in primary and secondary schools in districts. Again, these measures were implemented quickly and many teachers lost their jobs. Other teachers needed to spend additional time completing quality assessment measures imposed by the Education Commission, and on marketing their school to parents, as exhibition, carnival and media reports were used to raise the school's public profile in the hope of attracting students.

Still other teachers have begun to worry about their job security as more were being

employed as contract staff and the number of students continued to decrease. These additional responsibilities interfered with the time and energy that teachers had for their students. What influence would these demands have on the teachers' willingness to "go an extra mile" in building a caring environment, serving as examples, and encouraging students' participation in school and community affairs?

The very low morale has meant that many teachers have been disenchanted with government policies and see themselves as victims of unfair treatment. Conversation with students at Hong Kong Institute of Education showed that students would try to prepare for the benchmarking exams in order to be better equipped for employment opportunities. Citizenship education has always been an elective in the Institute of Education. Since Economic and Public Affairs and other subjects that carried citizenship content were not subjects requiring benchmarking exams, student teachers had no incentive to take it. As a result, few student teachers are trained to teach citizenship education.

The Education Commission has tried to make guidelines and resources available in support of citizenship education. Teaching kits, free service-training, evaluation of emotion and social education (APASO package in measuring the effectiveness of EQ and self-development programs distributed to all schools), an international conference in National Education attended by over 1000 people in 2005, and websites are available to teachers at minimal cost.

In 1986, the Hong Kong Government appointed a Committee on the Promotion of Civic Education with representation from both the education sector and the community. HK\$7.5 million was spent between 1987 and 1992 to subsidize some 261 projects so that topics like rule of law, human rights were promoted by exhibition, teaching kits, seminars and forums.

In 2004, *Ming Pao Daily* with support from the Education Commission and many secondary and primary schools began promoting "life education". The concept incorporated mental and physical health, values, civic education/character building, resilience and appreciation for life. The responses from schools were quite enthusiastic and many creative projects were presented in seminars and publications.

How did these developments influence the teaching of citizenship education? It would be indeed helpful if the resources could be used to make it easier for teachers to teach about citizenship.

Losito and Mintrop (2001) found that the teachers in Hong Kong thought that citizenship-related content should be covered in the school curriculum. However, the same study found that there was no consensus among the teachers as to whether the content of civics should be treated separately or integrated into the entire curriculum. The sample in this earlier study showed that teachers in Hong Kong believed that obeying the law, knowing national history, promoting human rights, and protecting the environment were very important in teaching civics. In Lee's 1999 study where the same questionnaire was used in the Hong Kong, Lee found that teachers were most concerned about the "social concern aspects" (moral and ethical behavior, fulfillment of family responsibility and concern for the welfare of others) of the quality of good citizens, followed by knowledge of the government and current events. However, teachers in Hong Kong put less emphasis on participation in community, acceptance of responsibilities than did counterparts in two other cities in China. Hong Kong teachers saw teachers, parents, and friends as major influence in their own citizenship and social environment, television/movies and peer pressure as major negative influence. Finally, Lee's sample of teachers saw classroom activities involving current events and traditions and values as more important than community project and legal process related activities for teaching citizenship.

These two studies provided useful reference for this thesis. With all the positives and negatives, it would be hard to discover how teachers now view the teaching of citizenship. Even though there were the two previous studies on the views of Hong Kong teachers, the present research focuses exclusively on primary teachers. Five years had also elapsed between this study and those of Lee and Losito studies. Given the profound changes in the political and social climate of Hong Kong in these five years, it would be useful to uncover any differences in their views.

Possible barriers to teaching citizenship in Hong Kong

1. Contention over what is “citizenship”
2. Moral versus civic: how to prioritize?
3. Large number of subjects, academic orientation in schools
4. Formal or informal curriculum?
5. Lack of systematic training and wide coverage in teaching citizenship,
6. Fatigue and anger of teachers
7. Excessive reform initiatives, work related stress
8. School’s freedom to put little emphasis and investment in citizenship education

Recent positive approaches in teaching citizenship:

1. Policy, guidelines, resources provided by government since 1985.
2. Life education promotion organized by local newspaper
3. Life event approach, students’ choice and participation supported
4. Service learning and reflection
5. Positive examples of teachers and community encouraged
6. Training programs provided in experiential learning, questioning skills and interactive teaching methods
7. Additional manpower and financial support for schools provided by social workers and government



Teachers in Classrooms



Students

Figure 2.3. Teachers’ position in implementing values and citizenship education
The above figure is useful in summarizing the obstacles and positive support for the teachers in Hong Kong as they faced the challenge of teaching citizenship today. Teachers are still seen as being in strategic position as they have daily contact with students.

VIII) Conclusions

To summarize the perspectives from the approaches for teaching of citizenship,

it seemed apparent that the theoretical underpinning of various approaches could differ. Kohlberg's theory on cognitive development had led him and his followers to emphasize the use of experience and reflection in helping students to arrive at their own answers while moving to a higher stage of moral development.

Other approaches in moral education may also be drawn Youniss (1997), Marcia (1980), and Harter (1990). Various approaches to help students achieve social and emotional growth and social competence drew from the work of Goleman (1995), cognitive psychology, behavioral psychologies and social learning theories that have been popular since 1980. Most of the approaches saw the acquisition of values as a drawn out, developmental process, others aim at helping students to progress to the next stage in moral development and still others aim have the goal of fostering specific social competencies. Both types of approaches permitted the students to take initiatives and the teacher to be the facilitator.

The character education approach used cognitive, affective and behavioral terminology without reference to accompanying theories. Character education insisted on teachers as models of the school's core values. Despite the differences in theoretical basis and in teachers' roles, scholars agreed that process/service learning, reflection, whole-school approach, school ethos, and role plays were all effective in the students' moral, social, emotional and character growth.

From the perspective of civic education and project learning, allowing collective problem solving and systematic instruction in civic disposition and skills were important. Teachers were to use the classroom experience as to teach students about rights and responsibilities, about presenting their own view points and representing those of others, and to debate and reflect on all aspects of a community problem before arriving at a solution. These tasks could be quite taxing on the skills and knowledge of the teachers.

How do these theoretical approaches and experiences influence the Hong Kong

primary teachers' delivery of citizenship lessons? The values clarification approach had been popular with the Family Planning Association in Hong Kong in its teaching of sex education in the schools since the 1980s. The Education Department had commissioned government- and non-government groups to produce teaching materials in social emotional education. For example, numerous curriculum packages to deal with bullying behavior, with drug dependence, pornography and gambling, skills in problem solving, and learning through thinking through incidents with opposing solutions (e.g. Baptist Oi Kwan Social Service 2002) were sponsored by the Curriculum Development Institute of the Education Department. These were distributed to all of Hong Kong's primary and secondary schools. The Education Department is also stressing the importance of involving young people in service learning projects and in using the whole-school approach to build character (Leung 2005).

Following Mr. Tung's initiatives, the Education Department had named the four characteristics to be emphasized in educating the young: the building of personal character and interpersonal skills, respect for others, perseverance and national identity (Education Commission 2001).

Not much was done to measure the effectiveness and impact of these teaching packages and initiatives. Neither did the Education Commission ask the teachers how valuable they found these materials. Moreover, would the teachers, having been trained in an era that had discouraged participation in public affairs, appreciate experiential learning and reflection?

Many of the teachers may not be familiar with teaching rights and responsibility and the importance of upholding the public good. They would face difficulties endorsing such perspectives in their classrooms. In view of the additional workload and the lack of training in teaching citizenship, teachers are unlikely to have the energy to cultivate a supportive environment, allow time for students' reflection, facilitate and encourage participation inside and outside of class.

There are many difficulties in teaching citizenship, especially for Hong Kong. It was, therefore, not hard to understand how the perspectives of the teachers may

completely be missed. Kennedy and colleagues reminds us that teachers were key players in the implementation of citizenship education (Lee et al. 2004). The research answers the following questions:

a) What are the qualities of good citizenship?

Most teachers see roles and responsibilities of citizenship as most important qualities for primary students to understand. What about the skills and knowledge aspects as related to civic virtues and dispositions? These areas were important by developed Western nations. How would Hong Kong teachers, who have been raised under the both Western and Chinese influence, prioritize the two?

b) What do primary teachers believe to be the key influences upon the development of good citizenship?

Do teachers see parents, friends or teachers as positive and important influences for students' citizenship development? Teachers' sharing of how they see good citizenship develops is explored in the results chapters. What do teachers see as negative influence for the development of students' citizenship? Would it be, like in the Lee's study: social environment, TV/movies or peers? Are there other emerging threats to the students' development?

c) Do teachers' perceptions in relation to Research Questions A and B differ by background, by type of school in which they work, and by factors such as gender, age, level taught and training?

Literature showed that prior to the change of sovereignty, the different types of schools and sponsoring bodies controlled the direction of instruction. As many of the sponsoring bodies had a religious affiliation, some of them placed stronger emphasis or allocated more resources on citizenship education if it was to their beliefs or missions. Would these differences in emphasis affect the views of the teachers in teaching citizenship? Did teachers' age, gender, religion and training, affect his or her views?

d) What did the teachers think should take place in the classrooms and the

schools to promote good citizenship?

According to the literature, process learning, reflection, and the teachers playing the roles of mentor and facilitator are helpful for developing students' citizenship. Whether the Hong Kong teachers agree is worth exploration. Indeed, if they do agree, do they have the time, the energy and training to support their efforts? Do today's primary teachers see the legal or constitutional processes as important to teach, now that these teachers have voted in elections for ten years? Or would they, like teachers in previous studies, still put priority on traditional or values-based activities?

- e) This thesis will also use focus groups and interviews to elicit the teachers' view of content that meets the students' needs, the sharing of best practices in the classroom and the use of whole-school approach and the types of training that may help in teaching citizenship. The teachers will also be invited to recommend resources or training, which they find useful for teaching citizenship.

These questions form the framework for both the collection of data and the analysis of the results.

Chapter 3 Methodology

This chapter discusses the methodological framework of the study, reintroduces the research questions and outlines the ways in which quantitative and qualitative methods were used for data collection and analysis.

I) Methodological Framework

This research has adopted a mixed method design using quantitative methods followed by qualitative approaches. According to Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998), the methodological framework is a “sequential mixed method design” where the quantitative and qualitative phases of the research were distinct.

The present research was carried out with primary teachers in 2005. The quantitative method was a survey research using a translated and validated version of a citizenship survey instrument. Teachers found it easy to provide answers by filling in boxes for each question according to the Likert scale. This allowed for comparisons with other groups of teachers who had responded to the survey (Lee & Fouts 2005).

The research was exploratory and interpretive. The researcher first explored the views of this group by using this survey of citizenship on a stratified random sample of teachers. This permitted the discovery of trends and emerging patterns to serve as benchmarking data for primary teachers’ views in Hong Kong. This type of data was useful for further exploration, both in this study and for future research.

Subsequent to the collection of the quantitative data, the same questions were put to the teachers in two focus groups and in individual interviews. In addition to the questions from the survey, participants were asked to explain the preliminary findings of the survey. The teachers’ suggestions about the teaching of citizenship in classrooms and in schools were included in the qualitative study. One more question on the need for teachers’ professional training in teaching citizenship was raised in the focus groups and individual interviews.

The qualitative component investigated the reasons for the teachers' choices and views. By collecting the qualitative data after obtaining results from the survey, the research would have the comprehensiveness and depth to capture the teachers' perceptions.

Correlating the qualitative with the quantitative data provides rich, research-based data to support the discussion, analyses, conclusions and recommendations.

Methodological triangulation was helpful for finding convergence of results (Denzin 1994), identifying possible contradictions and complementarities, so that depth can be added to the research.

As Greene et al. (1989, in Tashakkori & Teddlie 1998) suggest, the use of mixed methods expands the breadth and scope of the topic. While the survey results, usually strong in reliability, were expected to reveal clear trends and patterns in the research, the subsequent qualitative data (with validity as strength) would add to the findings and analysis. The quantitative results (descriptive statistics, frequency tables and emerging factors) were shared with the participants of the focus groups and interviews. Their responses to both the research questions and to the survey results were expected to deepen the researcher's understanding of the reasons behind the teachers' views and choices.

This use of both methods was appropriate because although it would be easy for teachers to share their views just by filling in the boxes in the quantitative survey, the reasoning behind their answers was elusive. The focus groups allow the teachers to share their views freely as stimulated and supported by both the preliminary survey results and their peers' views. Their answers would reflect the teachers' viewpoints in more detail as well as allowing for discussion of possible points of difference among their views. The data collected from the discussions could therefore be instrumental in exposing teachers' real difficulties. This kind of information may prove invaluable to generate practical moves to the teachers in the future. The perspectives revealed by the qualitative data would not be available by examining the quantitative phase of the study alone.

II) Research Design and Questions

This study was an exploratory, descriptive research with quantitative and qualitative components.

Quantitative Study

The quantitative study came first. The research instrument (survey questionnaire) was tested with a group of primary school teachers. For the details of the research instrument, refer to Section IIIa.

Sampling was done by selecting from the official lists of primary schools on the Government web page. (For the details of the sampling, please refer to Section IV b of this chapter.) Their feedback was received and minor adjustments were made to the questionnaire to suit the local terminologies. Then, the sample was taken from the Sai Kung and Wanchai districts. Letters of invitation were sent to the principals of the selected schools, followed by phone calls. The researcher collected the completed questionnaires from the teachers through the support of their principals. After all the surveys were collected, the data were keyed into the SPSS program. Correlation statistics and factor analysis were used to analyze the data and the results were written up.

Qualitative Study

The quantitative analysis was followed by the qualitative phase of the research. Two focused group discussions were held, one in each district.

School principals recommended teachers for the focus groups. Details of the way they were chosen will be provided later on in the chapter. Letters were sent to the teachers to request their participation. The focus groups were held in one of the schools and lasted for one and a half hour. The session was taped and the results were transcribed and analyzed. Subsequent to the focus group, 13 individual interviews were held with teachers who had shown a sincere interest or had considerable experience in citizenship education. Again, these teachers were contacted with the help of the principals and their voluntary participation was requested. In addition to teachers, government officers working in the district and citizenship educators were selected for individual interviews.

The results from the individual interviews were written up and analyzed.

Research Question 1:

What do primary school teachers in Hong Kong regard as the qualities of good citizenship?

The teachers were asked the following questions: How much do you agree that the following is an important quality of Good Citizenship? (From “strongly agree” to “strongly disagree”)

Knowledge of current affairs

Participation in school or community affairs

Acceptance of assigned responsibility

Concern for the welfare of others

Doing things according to moral and ethics

Acceptance of authority of those in supervisory roles

Ability to question ideas

Ability to make wise decisions

Knowledge of Government

Patriotism

Fulfillment of family responsibilities

Knowledge of world community

Tolerance of diversity within society

This question was explored through the quantitative data analysis based on the teachers’ responses on the survey. Both simple frequency table comparison and more complex statistical procedures were used. Follow up discussion was carried out in the focus group to allow the teachers to discuss the “why” and “how” of their answers.

Research Question 2:

What do primary teachers believe to be the key influences upon the development of good citizenship?

The teachers were first asked to rate their agreement with the following factors in

influencing the development of their own citizenship.

Parents

Friends

Brothers and or sisters

Religious leaders

Television and/or films

Grandparents and or other relatives

Guardians

Teachers

Head teachers or other school officials

Extracurricular activities

Other students

Youth leaders

Then, the teachers were asked the extent to which they agree or disagree with whether the following are potential threats to a child's citizenship.

Television and/or films

The Internet and/or computer games

Drugs and/or alcohol

Peer pressure

Sexual activity

Negative role models

Family conflict

School environment

Excessive leisure time

Unearned material reward

Community environment

These questions were also explored through the quantitative data analysis. In the focus group discussions teachers shared their experience with the processes and examples from which their own citizenship had developed.

Research Question 3:

What do the teachers think should take place in schools to promote good citizenship?

The teachers were asked the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with the following statement: I believe that the following classroom activity would be helpful in developing a child's citizenship.

An activity in which the child learns about the traditions and values that have shaped his/her community and country

An activity dealing with current events

An activity in which the child learns about the history and government of his/her country

An activity in which the child works on a community project with community leaders

A problem-solving activity

An activity using constitutional and legal processes

An activity in which the child looks at the worldwide needs and responsibilities

The quantitative analyses were the starting point for answering this question. The focus group discussion and the individual interviews allowed the researcher to learn more about the teachers' best practices. Comparing the teachers' views with the literature review, education guidelines/policies improved the researcher's understanding of possible gaps, the need for training and direction of teaching citizenship in the primary schools in Hong Kong.

Research Question 4:

Do teachers' perceptions in relation to Research Questions 1-3 differ by background, especially the type of school, in which they work, but also by gender, age, grade taught and training?

Teachers were asked identify themselves according to the criteria below:

Race: Chinese or non-Chinese

Nationality: Chinese, British, US citizen, Canadian, Australian, New Zealander, Indian, Vietnamese, Malaysian, Singaporean, Japanese, Korean or other.

Sex: Male or Female

Age: 21-30, 31-40, 41-50, 51-60, 61 or above

Grades currently teaching: primary one to three, primary four to six

Years in full-time teaching:

Subjects currently teaching: Art, Chinese, English, Math, Music, Physical Education,
Science or General Studies, others

Educational qualification: teacher's certificate, college diploma, bachelor's degree,
master's degree, doctorate degree, social work diploma,
social work degree

Religion: Catholic, Protestant, Buddhist, Taoist, Ancestral worship, Muslim, no religion,
Other.

Gender, age, level taught, professional training and experiences, types of schools in which teachers were currently employed will be compared with their answers on citizenship. This question was explored by the analysis through the quantitative data. The reasons for the differences in their views would then be explored in the interviews and focus groups. The results would enable the researcher to suggest targeted training and resources targeted to meet the needs of the different groups of teachers.

Research Question 5:

What are the teachers' views about their preparation and training for teaching citizenship?

The teachers' views were explored using data collected through the focus groups and individual interviews. Questions were:

1. How easy is it to find material in the market to help you prepare for the lessons?
2. Does your school provide enough resources for teaching citizenship?
3. What are your views on how the teachers' preparation for teaching values and citizenship can be improved both at the qualifying level and the in-service training level?

(For outlines of the focus group and the individual interviews, please refer to Appendixes 2 and 3.)

III) The Quantitative Research Component

a) Research Instrument

To assess the perceptions of the qualities of good citizenship and related information, a questionnaire was developed based on Greene (1987). The initial versions of the questionnaire, field tested for Green's study, focused on six areas: 1) the qualities of a good citizen, 2) the influences on a person's citizenship, 3) threats to a child's citizenship, 4) aid to a child's citizenship 5) responsibility for developing good citizens, and 6) classroom activities that develop a child's citizenship.

The items in each area were developed by Greene (1987), modified by Dynneson (1992) or added by Lee (1999) after additional review of the literature on the theoretical models of citizenship. Following the additions of these items, the instrument was reviewed by four project researchers by Lee (1999) and all concurred with the acceptability of the instrument's face validity (the questionnaire was clear and made sense). The instrument also contained six demographic and background questions about each respondent. This version of the instruments was field-tested with 40 teachers at the elementary and secondary levels in the United States and was checked for clarity of understanding and terminology. Several items were then modified to improve clarity. Field-testing was critical to identify potential overlapping of ideas or repetitions, which could distort the results of statistical analysis. Following modifications, the questionnaire instrument was administered to 201 elementary and secondary teachers from rural, urban and suburban schools in Seattle to confirm construct validity and reliability.

The instrument created by Greene and used by Dynneson (1992) relied on face validity. However, Lee (1999) was concerned about an apparent overlap of constructs and redundancy of specific items appearing in more than one of the six original areas. Following "principal components factor analysis with varimax rotation", only four of the six factors were found to have good construct validity. Two of the six areas were therefore removed from the instrument. The four questions were as follows:

1. the qualities of a good citizen
2. the influences on a person's citizenship
3. threats to a child's citizenship development

4. classroom activities that would be helpful in developing a child's citizenship

The qualities of a good citizen included the knowledge aspects (knowledge of current events, Government, world community), ability aspects (to question ideas, to make wise decisions, to tolerate diversity) as well as duties and convictions (patriotism, family responsibility, concern for others). Lee deliberately kept the instrument simple to minimize interpretation problems across cultures. Lee then used the modified instrument to compare teachers from Hangzhou, Guangzhou and Hong Kong in 1999.

Lee and Fouts (2005) modified and used the instrument by Dynneson (1992) modification for a project, which studied the perceptions of teachers in the five countries: United States, England, Australia, Russia and China (including Hong Kong as one of the three cities for China; this was the 2005 write up of Lee's earlier study in 1999). The questionnaire was translated and back translated to ensure correct interpretation by the participating researchers. Lee had used the validated Chinese translation of this survey to compare the views from teachers of Guangzhou, Hong Kong and Hangzhou in an earlier study (Lee 1999). The researcher obtained permission to use the validated translated version of the questionnaire.

The Chinese version of this questionnaire was used in the present thesis. This questionnaire, although evolved from the Western research, was suitable for studying the views of teachers of Hong Kong. The reason for selecting this questionnaire was because, despite cultural differences in the definition of the "self", the questionnaire's content covered many areas, which were important in defining citizenship. Wording like: "what in your view are the important qualities of good citizenship?" was in line with the Chinese concept of role-related expectation, which teachers could easily understand. As in the Chinese culture, roles and expectation are all defined within the context of human relationships.

Furthermore, Lee's study (1999), using the same questionnaire, showed good validity and reliability in studying the teachers' view from three Chinese cities (Guangzhou, Hang Zhou, and Hong Kong). This showed that the questionnaire was well understood and accepted by teachers of Chinese origin. Finally, the present questionnaire was used because Hong Kong had been under British rule for 200 years, so its teachers

development may indeed have come under both Chinese influence as well as influence from Western nations or global trends. Since the questionnaire for this study was based on Lee's (1999) and on Lee and Fouts' (2005) it was possible, where appropriate, to compare the results (Chapters 4, 5 and 6).

The framework of the questionnaire was much the same for each country participating in Lee and Fouts' (2005) comprehensive project. However, minor but appropriate revisions were made to the questionnaire that more accurately reflected terminology in each country (such as professional qualification nomenclatures specific to that country, race composition of the specific countries...etc). In this study, all analysis and discussions in the following chapters relate only to the present research as it was conducted, implemented and analyzed in Hong Kong. The researcher also made minor modifications to the survey questions. Details on these modifications will be outlined and clarified below.

Modifications Made to the Original Questionnaire

A pilot study for both quantitative and qualitative components was carried out in Cantonese in September 2004 with a group of primary teachers in a school in the Tin Shui Wai district. The questionnaire was also given to two local professors, the researcher's professor from the University of Technology Sydney, and two principals of primary and secondary schools in Hong Kong. As a result of the feedback from the pilot study, and on the advice from the local professionals, minor revisions were made in the demographic section of the questionnaire to make it more appropriate for use in Hong Kong:

1. The classification of race was limited to Chinese and non-Chinese origin as 95% of Hong Kong's population is of Chinese descent.
2. The grades taught were revised to read from primary one to primary three and from primary four to primary six, which represented the local classification.
3. The question on subjects taught was modified as follows: art, Chinese language, English language, mathematics, music, sports, science or General Studies, others (please specify) in accordance with local nomenclature.
4. The question on teaching qualification was modified as follows: teacher's certificate, college diploma, bachelor's degree, master's degree, doctorate degree,

social work diploma, and social work degree to cover all the possible categories.

5. The question on religious beliefs was added to include the following categories: Catholic, Protestant, Buddhist, Taoist, ancestral worshipper, Muslim, no religion, Other (please specify).

Teaching experience, sex, and age were important demographic variables in the original citizenship survey (Lee 1999), so these variables were included in the present survey. Furthermore, due to the fact that religious based bodies (like churches, dioceses and Buddhist temples) had a long history of sponsoring schools in Hong Kong and the fact that the present research had chosen to stratify the sample partially according to the religious background of the schools. The religion of the individual teachers may also influence the teachers' view of teaching citizenship.

As in the multi-national study (Lee & Fouts 2005), the section on demographics allowed statistical evaluation of the opinion of groups of teachers with reference to the four key questions.

Three Additional Questions

Subsequent to the discussion with the panel of experts, the local principals and the professors from the University of Technology Sydney, the researcher added three questions immediately after the demographic section. The teachers were asked to indicate the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with the following statements:

- a) It is my opinion that values are very important
- b) It is my opinion that values should be taught in schools
- c) It is my opinion that citizenship education should be taught and developed in schools

These questions were designed to explore teachers' opinion on the appropriateness of including values and citizenship in their classroom teaching. The researcher believes that the teachers' behavior in the classroom was influenced by their educational philosophy. If a significant number of teachers were not convinced of the need to teach values and citizenship in the school settings, this opinion would influence their view of the qualities of good citizenship, and appropriate classroom activities. In this case,

teachers would just be carrying out what was required of them by the system, mechanically.

The primary teachers may not have found it easy to influence the curriculum, especially in moral and civic education. Nonetheless, the teachers are the ones who would be facing the teaching of such content on a day-to-day basis. Therefore, understanding their views on the teaching of values and development of citizenship was foundational to how they would handle such content in the curriculum. Do teachers believe that the teaching of values and citizenship ought to be included in the schools? How important is it? Are teachers committed to what they are asked to do in class? With this understanding, further light could be cast upon uncovering what training teachers need in order to teach citizenship-related content.

The remaining sections of the research instrument comprised four statements, each with a list of indicators to which teachers were asked to agree or disagree. Lee and Fouts (2005) used these indicators in studies for England, Russia, Australia, and Guangzhou/Hangzhou. These include teachers' opinion of the qualities of a good citizen and indicators for this statement as devised by Fouts (1995) according to a statistical procedure (factor loading).

For each statement teachers were asked to indicate their agreement or disagreement with that the particular quality as a characteristic of good citizenship. Responses were indicated by marking a “√” on a continuous scale, with seven choices in categories ranging from “strongly agree” to “strongly disagree”. For the other three questions (i.e. factors teachers felt to have influenced their citizenship, factors they felt were a threat to the development of a child's citizenship, and finally, the activity to be done in the classroom which would be helpful in developing citizenship in students) teachers were requested to indicate their choices on similar Likert scales.

Surveys are attractive to researchers because of their generalizability within certain parameters. The survey's “ability to make statements which were supported by large data banks and its ability to establish the degree of confidence which can be placed in a set of findings” (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2003, p171) made comparison between groups and over time possible. In this research, translated version of the parallel survey

had been used in five countries (Lee & Fouts 2005). Completing the survey by the primary teachers of Hong Kong is helpful both in providing the benchmarking data for primary teachers and in allowing comparison of the answers of the Hong Kong teachers with those of their counterparts in other countries. In this thesis, the quantitative data would delineate trends for further investigation. (The full-modified research instrument in Chinese and English translation can be found in Appendix 1. The Chinese version of Lee's questionnaire (1999) can be found in Appendix 1A.)

In summary, the questionnaire consisted of a demographic section, three additional questions, and four statements on the qualities of good citizens, the influence of good citizenship development on self, negative factors in the development of students' citizenship, and useful classroom activities for developing students' citizenship.

b) Sampling for the Quantitative Data

From December 2004 to March 2005, 400 primary school teachers in Sai Kung and Wanchai were invited to complete the citizenship survey.

The researcher's aim was to create a sample which covered several geographical areas, since much of Hong Kong's population had moved from the center of the city to less congested satellite cities. These new towns presented a demographic contrast to older districts. Coverage of both new and older areas would create better representation of the views of Hong Kong's teachers.

Wanchai and Sai Kung were chosen because they were not adjacent and because they were different in terms of history, population and demographics. Sai Kung was a new town; many schools were less than ten years old and the younger population was disproportionately large. In contrast, Wanchai was an older and more traditionalist community with many well-known schools, dense population and fewer children. Sai Kung has a greater proportion of single parent family and new arrivals from China, while Wanchai has a greater number of ethnic minorities. Wanchai's residents had a higher median age (40 compared to 36 of Sai Kung), higher median household income (\$25,000 compared to \$20,000 for Sai Kung), and Wanchai residents were found to be generally more educated than that of the new district (Sai Kung). These differences would allow for better representative-ness for the sample, as the teachers would be dealing with a greater diversity of students. Any difference in their views would be

noteworthy. Moreover, the researcher had easy access to the principals of these districts. The choice of the two districts allowed this study to cover diversity with regards to density, age of the schools, and socioeconomic differences. However, the two districts may not account for other demographic differences and the sample was too small to be representative of and generalize able for Hong Kong. Thus, results from this study could only be used as reference and baseline data for teachers' view from two districts of Hong Kong.

Table 3.1

Statistical Comparison of the Two Districts to Hong Kong

2005 census	Wanchai	Sai Kung	Hong Kong
Age profile			
0-14	14.1%	16.2%	14.6%
15-24	11.2%	14.0%	13.2%
25-64	63.3%	62.6%	60.4%
more than 65	11.5%	7.2%	11.8%
Sex profile			
Male	45.3%	43.7 %	45.6%
Female	54.7%	56.3%	54.4%
Population of Single Parents	1,082 1.9% of single parents in Hong Kong	2,175 3.7% of single parents in Hong Kong	
Population of Persons from the Mainland Having Resided in Hong Kong for Less than 7 Years (PMRs)	4,398 1.6% of PMRs in Hong Kong	10,973 4.1% of PMRs in Hong Kong	
Population of Ethnic Minorities	8.7% of ethnic minorities in Hong Kong 18% of Wan Chai 2001 Population	4.7% of ethnic minorities in Hong Kong 4.9% of Sai Kung 2001 Population	

A two-stage stratified random sampling technique was used. The first stage identified the sampling frame according to the sponsoring bodies of the schools and the random selection of schools. The second stage selected the teachers from these schools, among the full-time faculty.

Six schools from Sai Kung and six from Wanchai were selected using the table of random numbers and the stratified sampling method from the official lists of schools provided by the Education Commission. The sample was stratified according by type (government, subsidized-religious, subsidized charity or private) to provide at least 350 full-time primary teachers from the two regions. One school for each type of school was chosen making up two schools for each type. The total number of schools in the Wanchai district was 30 and the total number of school in the Sai Kung district was 32. This meant the six schools represented 9.6% of the schools out of 62 in the two districts. Thus, the sample (nearly 10% of all schools in the two districts) could be taken as adequately strong in representing the schools, and the results are good for generalizability, for reflecting the situation for schools in the two districts.

Six groups of schools were used to stratify the present sample of teachers in one district:

- Government schools
- Subsidized schools sponsored by charity organizations
- Faith-based subsidized sponsored by the Catholic Church
- Faith-based subsidized schools sponsored by Protestant Churches
- Faith-based subsidized schools sponsored by Buddhist Temples
- private schools

This sampling method was chosen because these sponsoring bodies had long histories in Hong Kong. Thus, with long history and strong tradition and a general lack of stable, systematic government policies to guide the development of citizenship education until after 1997, the traditions of such societies had important roles in citizenship education. The chosen method of sampling would minimize the variance within faith-based communities and consequently maximize the variance among such communities. This study would uncover and compare any differences in the teaching of citizenship education, which might have derived from these differences in background.

According to the literature, Western nations have considered religious education as a “major vehicle” for moral education for many years (Priestley 1987). The contribution of missionary societies in China, both in the founding of schools and in the development of education policy since 1900, was well documented by Ng (2006). In Hong Kong, long before the Government began to formulate policy for values and citizenship education, religious groups had opened schools and enthusiastically taught values and civic virtues. Therefore, the types of school traditions and methods may influence the teaching of citizenship. This is why “types of school” was used as the criterion to stratify the sample. More detail on the history and relevance of the development of various types of schools in Hong Kong has been provided in Chapter 2.

The religious categories were divided up further as each group had a distinct educational history and philosophy. It would certainly be useful, as in the other studies, (Davies et al 1999; Kennedy 2003; Lee 1999) to explore how these differences in religious beliefs and other traditions of sponsoring bodies influence the teaching of citizenship and values. The results arising from the types of school will be outlined and discussed in Chapters 4, 5 and 6.

All full-time teachers in the selected primary schools were included in the sample for the questionnaire. These teachers offer instruction in moral and citizenship education as a cross curricular theme according to the *Guidelines on Civic Education in Schools* (Curriculum Development Council, Education Department 1996).

c) Procedures for Data Collection

A list of names of primary school principals and the addresses of the schools in the district was obtained from the Government web page. Following the finalization of the sampling procedure, the principals of the primary schools were contacted by telephone, followed by a letter stating the objective and details of the study. A month (December 2004 to January 2005) was allowed for the school’s response after which the researcher visited the schools to discuss the research and schedule the administering of the questionnaire.

The researcher was able to secure the support from the principals of nearly all the

schools through telephone, email and personal contact. Although the researcher did not personally know any of the principals or teachers in the sample schools, most schools were willing to co-operate as the teaching of citizenship has been a much-discussed topic in the last few years.

Benefit was offered to schools rather than to the participants. First, as a token of gratitude, the researcher offered to share with each school some of the insights that had been gained from the teaching of values and civics. Second, the researcher accepted the invitation from schools to act as guest speaker or trainer for the teachers' encouragement after the completion of the data collection and analysis.

As the researcher was flexible concerning the dates for data collection, most principals in the two districts were willing to invite the researcher to use the regular staff meeting for data collection. A block of time, ranging from 15 minutes to an hour was usually allocated. This arrangement allowed adequate time for introductory comments about the study, instructions regarding the form and verbal appreciation of the teachers for their participation.

To ensure a greater return rate, teachers were asked to respond to the questionnaire upon distribution with all the forms returned prior to the researcher's departure. Although teachers were invited to raise questions, the researcher refrained from answering direct questions about the acceptable definition of citizenship. The researcher only requested the teachers to answer the questionnaire by providing their own opinion and that only aggregate data would be used for the write up.

Other principals preferred to invite the teachers to complete the questionnaire on their leisure time, but they were kind enough to offer to collect the completed questionnaires on the researcher's behalf. Two principals from subsidized schools left it completely up to the teachers to volunteer their time to complete the questionnaire; this resulted in relatively lower rates of response.

Table 3.2

Response Rate by Schools

	Total N of teachers for category	Responses received	Percentages	
			Response rate for school types	Contribution to total N
Government schools	94	91	97.5%	25.4%
Catholic schools	81	70	86.4%	19.5%
Protestant schools	85	74	87.0%	20.6%
Buddhist schools	61	48	78.5%	13.3%
Private schools	53	27	50.9%	7.5%
Charity sponsored schools	82	49	59.7%	13.7%
Total	456	359	78.7%	100%

Response rates were higher for the Government schools, Protestant and Catholic schools, where participation was usually decided by the principal and official time was given to fill in and collect the surveys. Thus, these three groups may be over-represented. Charity-sponsored schools had a relatively low response rate as the principals had left it up to the teachers to volunteer their own time and effort in answering the questionnaires. These teachers were also not reminded by researcher or the school to return the questionnaires to the offices. The overall response rate was still at 79%. Table 3.2 shows that there were a few participants from private schools and Buddhist schools. This was not only due to their lower rate of participation in the survey but rather because there were fewer teachers from these two types of schools.

Special effort was made to organize data on the same day it was collected. Each returned and completed questionnaire was stamped with a note of the date and the name of the school. Most of the schools provided the researcher with a prospectus or profile, describing the vision, goals and most recent programs that would give the researcher a firsthand understanding of the school ethos and community. Since not every school had the prospectus or profile, the researcher simply read what was available; including the websites of the schools acquire a sense of the schools in the two districts. The material covered by such documentation was not included in the analysis of the results, but was

used to prepare for the focus groups and individual interviews.

d) Quantitative Data Analysis Procedures

Data collected from the survey was entered and analyzed with the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) package (Babbie 2004). First, the characteristics of the qualities of a good citizen were computed and ranked to provide descriptive statistics. These will be discussed in Chapters 4 to 6.

In order to facilitate comparisons with the studies by Lee and Fouts (2005) and Davies et al. (1999), the data was factor analyzed by the principal components analysis with varimax rotation (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2003). The purpose of this procedure is to identify clusters of items as constructs, thus yielding a more coherent pattern of responses. In identifying these constructs, the data can be better understood, analysed with more sophistication. The procedure yielded clear results and two factors were identified for further analysis. Finally, the demographic data was computed by using the ANOVA procedures, followed up by t-tests to identify if the differences between the views of teachers by age, gender, experience, professional training and types of school were statistically significantly different.

Varimax rotation was a common procedure to find the factors, which would then be used to analyze the results of the other questions. Varimax rotation was used by a study (Lee & Fouts 2005) of five countries. The UK study by Davies et al. used this procedure to derive the principal factors and analyze the possible differences of the teachers' view in accordance with the demographic variables.

IV) The Qualitative Research Component

The qualitative component of the study consisted of focus groups and individual interviews. The purpose of using these qualitative methods was to uncover more explicit and implicit information about what teachers believed about citizenship and citizenship education with special reflection on their own roles. The qualitative components were chosen to follow up on the survey because the researcher hoped to find out exactly why the teachers held the views that they did. The question of “why” involved complex, individualized factors which could not be easily uncovered by the

survey (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison 2003).

a) The Focus Group

Focus groups are an economical way (both in time and in the large amount of data collected) to bring a group of participants together to explore a theme or topic (Babbie 2004). It permits the researcher to collect answers from individuals and to about the group members' interactions. Observation of the non-verbal cues, body language, and interaction among teachers revealed more subtle data. For this study, the focus group allowed for triangulation of methods surrounding data collection for the four research questions. A follow up question on the types of training/resources the teachers preferred was also included, making reference to the Davies et al.'s UK study. The researcher wanted to follow Davies et al.'s example in discussing training and resources because this discussion flowed naturally from the lively conversation with teachers. After they talked about best practices and difficulties, they began reflecting on what they needed in class and to prepare for teaching citizenship. In addition, the researcher could collect feedback on the results of the quantitative study. The data added depth and complexity to the broad-brush data supplied by the survey.

The focus groups met one month after the quantitative data had been collected, thus the participants were invited to provide the researcher with insights on the "how" and the "why" of the collected descriptive data.

As in the quantitative study, a pilot study was carried out in Cantonese in September 2004 with a group of ten primary teachers in a school in the Tin Shui Wai district. Valuable insights and experience were gained from this pilot test. The researcher was made aware of better ways to begin the interview, how to put teachers at ease, and how to take hold of the time frame for the group.

The criteria for choosing the members for the focus groups were formulated in consultation with a knowledgeable district government officer, experts on values and citizenship education, researcher's local supervisor and principals. Following Hong Kong custom, the teacher asked the principal of each school to recommend teachers for the focus group. The researcher asked that the potential participants meet the following criteria:

- balance of male and female
- diverse ages
- possessing from 2 to over 20 years of teaching experiences
- known for their exceptional contribution to the teaching of civic values.

All full-time teachers from the schools filled out the survey. Two teachers were then selected from each school and assigned to a focus group for their district. Seventeen teachers participated in the two focus groups. Again, the number of teachers from Government and religious schools was more strongly represented than were those from charity-affiliated and private schools. The researcher accepted the possible bias given the voluntary nature of the participation. Attempts were made to compensate for this potentially disproportionate representation by Government and religious schools by ensuring that some teachers from charity-sponsored and private schools were interviewed.

There were eight teachers from Wanchai district and nine from Sai Kung district. Twelve of the teachers were female and five were male; this reflected the actual ratio of female to male teachers in primary schools. The range in teachers' age and experience permitted the researcher to note any differences in opinion. The results from the focus group can be thus compared with the questionnaire findings, which found some differences in view of teachers according to gender, but not as many in terms of age and training. Nominated by principals six of the teachers stated that they had been formally charged with the planning and teaching of values and citizenship in their schools; they were also members of their school's guidance and discipline team. Two participants were supervisor or vice principal while the rest were full-time teachers. One teacher was also a qualified social worker that taught life education in the Wanchai School.

Groups met following the collection and preliminary analysis of the quantitative data. An outline of the questions to be used in the focus groups was given to the teachers for their preparation in advance via the principals (see Appendix 2). The focus group interviews were set up in one of the participating primary schools in the districts in

May and June 2005.

The focus group lasted from 100 to 120 minutes with very active participation from all the teachers.

b) Procedures for the Focus Groups

i) Before the interview

A note was sent to the principals one month before the group dates to solicit their help in recruiting two teachers in their school who, have shown a clear commitment to teaching citizenship, and have made a considerable contribution to the teaching of citizenship in their school. Preferably, one teacher with more than five years of experience would be selected and one with less than five years.

With the principal's permission, a one-page outline of the questions was sent to the teachers. The intention was to have the focus group consist of teachers who were interested in the topic and who were willing to attend the interview.

ii) At the Focus Group

- a) Went around the table to allow the teachers to introduce themselves, to describe the subjects that they were teaching and their experience in teaching values and citizenship.
- b) Briefly introduced the purpose of the research study
 1. Mentioned that the focus group is a follow up of the questionnaire and that there was the interest in hearing the participants' experience in teaching values and citizenship.
 2. Explained how the study was intended to give the teachers a voice in the debate on the teaching of values and citizenship in primary school.
 3. Set the participants at ease and assured them of the confidentiality of this discussion, the fact that there was no "right or wrong answer"; no agreement needed to be reached and also emphasized the researcher's eagerness to see all to participate in the hope of learning from everyone.
 4. It was the researcher's hope to use open-ended questions with no expectation of the "likely answer" reflected in the questions.

The teachers' answers naturally followed these questions. The researcher's

professional training as a social worker was helpful in leading and steering the groups as well as in conducting the individual interviews. Both the group and interview began with the restatement of purpose of the study and a promise of confidentiality.

iii) Focus Group Processes

Both groups of teachers arrived early (10 to 15 minutes) for the group discussion. This showed a general interest in the subject matter or possibly their own conscientiousness since their principals had released them to attend this discussion. The group in Wanchai had eight participants and the one at Sai Kung had nine; 12 invitations had been sent for each district.

The participants were eager to describe their personal and professional experience. Two or three people who had opinions on each question and wanted to be the first to express them usually dominated the discussion. This was common. Teachers were very keen to hear about and comment on the survey's preliminary results. Consensus was reached with except once. When a senior teacher from the Government primary school in Sai Kung talked about positive exchanges with China, strong disagreement surfaced as another teacher quickly pointed out the importance of allowing students to reflect on and come to their own decision.

As the group proceeded, the researcher deliberately solicited alternative views. This was to attempt to prevent more dominant members of the group from discouraging those with opposing views from speaking up.

The same questions were asked of the teachers in both Wanchai and Sai Kung districts after they had gotten to know each other.

iv) Question Areas and Content

Questions' content included the meaning of good citizen, influences on teachers' own citizenship, their experience in teaching citizenship and values in classrooms, the whole school approach and the activity approach. The participants were also invited to comment on ways to improve the teaching of citizenship and values and how teachers can be better prepared to teach these subjects.

The focus group discussions were tape-recorded and transcribed within one week of the discussion.

Appendix 2 provides a copy of the focus group questions.

c) Individual Interviews

Finally, individual interviews (with principals with teaching duties, subject masters, teachers and experts in the sector) were scheduled to allow some of the teachers who were found to be experienced and “deeply interested” to have another opportunity to share their views in further depth in response to the findings of the quantitative study. Six individuals were selected as interviewees. Special efforts were made to interview two teachers from the charity school to make up for the relatively small numbers of charity-based schoolteachers in the focus groups.

Interviews serve several purposes. They supply data about what a person knew, and his values and preferences, attitudes and beliefs (Kerlinger 1970; Tuckman 1972;).

Interview may be used to follow up unexpected results or to validate other methods, even to probe the motivations of respondents and the reasons for their answers.

Interviews had the advantage of allowing for richer data, but the disadvantage of being prone to the interviewer’s subjectivity and bias.

In this research, the interviews were conducted as standardized open-ended interviews. All interviewees were asked the same questions. This method limited the bias of the interviewer by leading the interviews. It also facilitated the organization and analysis of the data. Seven interviews were carried six from the focus groups and one who only participated in the questionnaires, and the views of five more experts were later solicited. One expert was the district officer of education for the Sai Kung district. Experts from the Counseling and Guidance Section of the Education and Manpower Bureau of the Hong Kong Government were selected due to their special experience in developing and implementing the self-development course for primary school students. This course was foundational in helping students to understand self, others, and community in preparation for active citizenship. Two lecturers from the Hong Kong Institute of Education were interviewed because of their expertise in helping new immigrants to integrate into the local school system and in teaching citizenship education. They were invited to share their insights on how best to prepare and support

their student teachers to teach citizenship. The experts' brought a broader policy perspective and revealed the discrepancy between reality and rhetoric. These interviews were completed by the middle of July 2005. (For a list of the interviewees see Appendix 4.)

The individual interviews covered feedback about the findings from the quantitative study, opinions on the present system of teaching citizenship and values, and interviewees' views on preparing teachers for such challenges. (See Appendix 3 for the interview schedule.)

d) Qualitative Data Analysis Procedures

The researcher carried out the focus groups and individual interviews by referring to the procedures of the previous studies (Davies et al. 1999; Lee 1999).

The taped content of the focus groups and interview data was transcribed within one week of collection. The answers from the teachers were coded both according to their district (i.e. SK 1 – 9 and WC 1-8) and using abbreviated forms to keep count of the frequencies of occurrence. The ideas and themes were clustered together as the consensus answer to a research question. The first of these transcriptions concentrated on the actual answers of the teachers without exploring other explanations or interpretations. As the teachers responded to same research questions, it was easy to group their answers thematically (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2003). The interviews with the experts were based on the same questions and analyzed in a similar manner.

The procedures set out by Hycner (1985) were helpful to the researcher. The useful steps for this research included:

1. Transcription: the interviews were tape transcribed, written out once, noting both the verbal and nonverbal communication
2. Bracketing: suspending the researcher's interpretations to enter the world of the interviewee
3. Delineating units of general meaning: crystallizing the meaning of the participants
4. Delineating units of meaning relevant to the research question: this was easy for this research, since the standard questions were sent to the interviewees or focus groups participants beforehand. The order and the content of the sent document

were followed.

5. Clustering units of relevant meaning and eliminating redundancy: the research questions, feedback, and the questions on the training needs of teachers were used as natural clusters, responses were grouped under these headings, and redundant material was eliminated, but notes were taken about the number of times a certain answer was repeated.
6. Writing a summary of each individual interview: the researcher went back to the individually written interview transcription, using the research questions as a guide, a summary of the individual interviews and each of the focus groups were written out.
7. Writing a composite summary: a composite summary of all the individual interviews and the focus groups as two separate documents. The researcher also noted nonverbal cues and the order and processes of the interviews and included these in the composite summary.

Subsequently, further writing up was done as the researcher noted the dynamics, the nonverbal messages, the affective manifestation and the order of speaking in these focus groups. These observations and interpretations led to follow up questions in which specific interviewees were asked to clarify their views or to develop an area for exploration of shared views. There were opportunities in the individual interviews to explore two factors that had emerged from the quantitative study: the knowledge and skills of citizenship with emphasis on fulfilling one's duties and the conservative characteristics of citizenship that referred to an acceptance of assigned responsibilities and authority. The original transcriptions were kept, although the composite summary was used for writing up the results. Some of the original dialogues with the individuals or participants of the focus groups as transcribed will be quoted in later chapters.

The results chapters demonstrate that the qualitative results added both depth and development to quantitative findings. These participants candidly explained their answers. Thus, results of this study will be presented according to emerging themes with the integration of both qualitative and quantitative data.

V) Methodological Consideration

a) Ethical Considerations

Following Hong Kong custom, the letter to the principals formally requested his/her support and co-operation and a letter of consent was attached to the questionnaire to facilitate the principal's task of passing this information to the teachers. The consent form stated that teachers were invited to join on a voluntary basis. But in fact, the principal usually made the decision for the school and on behalf of the teachers. In several schools, the researcher was actually invited to introduce the research during the regular staff meeting. The researcher re-emphasized the voluntary nature of the questionnaire and expressed gratitude to the teachers for their participation.

The researcher expected to have voluntary consent from both the principal and the participating teachers as they came for the interview. The researcher ensured this consent from teachers by reviewing the voluntary nature of their participation with a warm word of gratitude. The participants and the principals were assured that only aggregate data would be used in the writing up of the study. The content and quotation of the focus groups and individual interviews would remain anonymous. The researcher had no plan to release the results to the public. Finally, the names of the districts were mentioned (that the readers would know about the differences between the two) but the names of the individual schools were kept confidential, respecting local customs and UTS ethics requirements.

A manual on the life education was given to each of the teachers at the end of the focus group discussion as a token of appreciation. The district education officers were duly informed of the progress of the research.

The details of these procedures were reported prior to the research to the Human Research Ethics Committee of the University of Technology Sydney. After a few questions and reminders, the Committee accepted the proposed method and procedures of carrying out this research and assigned an approval number to the researcher. This number was quoted along with the names and contact number of the faculty supervisor for this research, and these were given to the participating teachers in the information letter along with the consent forms. If a participant wished to question or complain

about the researcher's method, s/he could use of the contact number of the supervisor and the approval number from the Ethics Committee. However, none did so.

b) Validity and Reliability

As outlined in Section III a, the instrument of the present study was based on Lee (1999), who had used principal components factor analysis with varimax rotation to establish construct validity.

Lee and Fouts (2005) then used this instrument for a study of teachers' perceptions from the United States, England, Australia, Russia and China. The questionnaire was translated and back translated to ensure correct interpretation by participating researchers. The validated, translated version of the questionnaire was shared with the researcher of the present study. Subsequently, the permission to use the translated version of this research instrument was also obtained.

For the quantitative data as associated with the survey in this research, a pilot test was carried out in the Tin Shui Wai district. Generally positive responses were received from the participants about their ability to understand the content of the survey. With feedback from the participants of the pilot study and from experts in the education sector, a few minor adjustments were made to the questionnaire to bring the categorizations into line with Hong Kong.

Quantitative surveys were usually found to have good reliability (Babbie 2004; Tashakkori & Teddlie 1998). The fact that the research instrument was a validated, translated version of a well-known and proven international citizenship survey was helpful in establishing a desirable level of reliability in this study.

For the qualitative data, every care was taken to allow for superior validity from both the content and observational data of the focus groups and interviews. Questions were worded to avoid leading questions; prompts were avoided unless accompanied by reference to previous research. Taped sessions permitted rechecking of answers. As suggested by Babbie (2004), reliability was the potential problem for qualitative data as there was obviously the presence of personal bias based on the judgments and views of the researcher. The researcher therefore avoided making value judgments and referred

to the quantitative results or results from previous research instead of presenting the researcher's own interpretation of the quantitative findings.

c) Generalizability

With a 79% response rate, reflecting good reliability, and the use of the stratified random sampling methodology, the quantitative data has good potential for generalizability or representativeness for the primary teachers in the two districts and was also useful in reflecting the views of teachers in Hong Kong. As previous sections pointed out, there was the possibility of sample bias as teachers from government and religious-based schools were disproportionately represented in this study. Also, the sampling method allowed for minimization of variance within faith-based communities to be minimized and consequently the maximization of variance among such communities. This sampling plan has the potential to yield the richest information. This study will uncover and compare any differences in the teaching of citizenship education, which might have been derived from differences in the teachers' backgrounds. Although the bias arising from basing the results on school types was there and the findings could not be considered conclusive or representative of the schools in Hong Kong, the results of this study could be used as basis for primary teachers in Hong Kong despite the potential bias.

Generalizability would again be more difficult for the qualitative results, due to the possible influence of group members wishing to agree with one another and the bias of personal judgment in collecting interview data. However, given the fact that the qualitative data began with posing the same questions as the quantitative data and expanded from the teachers' answers to invite their interpretation and recommendations, the qualitative data could certainly serve as good references for future research. The answers from teachers also threw light on practical policy suggestions to help teachers face the challenge of teaching values and citizenship in primary schools.

VI) Conclusion

The outline for the results will follow the natural order of the research questions, with Chapter 4 addressing the rank order of what the teachers saw as the most and least important qualities of a "good citizen". Chapter 5 will outline the teachers' thoughts

on positive and negative influences for citizenship development. Chapter 6 presents their opinion of the approaches and activities in schools that could most strengthen the teaching of values and citizenship. Teachers had much to share regarding the types of support and training which would be helpful to them and these will be presented in Chapter 7.

The present research aims to provide an accurate picture, giving voice to primary teachers and incorporating them into public discussion and debates. With this foundation, suggestions for the development of citizenship education in Hong Kong could become more possible, and these recommendations will be outlined in the conclusion.

Chapter 4 What do Teachers Mean by Good Citizenship?

This chapter will present the results to answer the first research question.

What are the qualities of good citizenship as perceived by teachers in primary schools in Hong Kong?

This chapter will be based on findings from the questionnaire and from the group and individual interviews. This chapter will be divided into three parts. It will begin with a description of the demographic characteristics of the sample, followed by a summary of the questionnaire, focus groups and individual interview findings as related to the teachers' perceptions of what constitutes good citizenship. Discussion of the results will follow, along with an exploration of how the quantitative and qualitative data reflect on one another in light of the literature.

I) Demographic Characteristics of the Sample

The sample of teachers was well represented in terms of distribution of age, years of teaching experience, and grades taught.

Table 4.1

Teachers' Demographic Characteristics

Age

	Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid			
21-30 years old	129	37.0	37.0
31-40 years old	147	42.1	79.1
41-50 years old	45	12.9	92.0
51-60 years old	26	7.4	99.4
61 years old or above	2	.6	100.0
Total	349	100.0	
Missing	10		
Total	359		

Grades Taught

		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	P.1 - P.3	92	26.2	26.2
	P.4 – P.5	113	32.2	58.4
	P.1 – P.6	146	41.6	100.0
	Total	351	100.0	

Years of Full-time Teaching

		Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 – 10 years	54.5	54.2
	11 – 20 years	33.7	87.9
	21 – 30 years	10.6	98.5
	31 – 40 years	1.5	
	Total		

As expected, the sample had a greater number of female teachers; this was similar to the trend in Hong Kong where female teachers tend to dominate the primary school setting.

Table 4.2

Number of Male and Female Teachers in the Sample

Gender		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	61	17.1	17.1
	Female	296	82.9	100.0
	Total	357	100.0	

Nearly all (94.6%) of the sample considered themselves of Chinese nationality with only 4.5% British and 0.9% Asian nationalities. The research was able to obtain good distribution of teachers from schools with a variety of backgrounds (Table 4.3a). Table 4.3b shows that the number and percentage of school types chosen for this study is representative of the number and percentage of school types across Hong Kong.

Table 4.3a

Percentage of Teachers from Different Types of Schools the

Teachers from Government schools:	19.3%
Teachers from Protestant schools:	26.7%
Teachers from Catholic schools:	19.5%
Teachers from Buddhist Taoist schools:	13.3%
Teachers from Non-Government (charity) schools:	13.7%
Teachers from Private schools:	7.5%

Table 4.3b

*Percentage of Different School Types across Hong Kong and for this Study**

School types	Total N in HK	Percentage in HK	N and % of schools for this study: Wanchai and Sai Kung districts	
Government schools	32	4.7%	4	6.5%
Protestant schools	182	26.2%	8	12.9%
Catholic schools	109	15.9%	11	17.7%
NGOs and non-profit organizations	237	34.6%	19	30.6%
Buddhist and Taoists schools	39	5.7%	5	8.1%
Private schools (including international schools)	103	15.1%	15	24.2%

*Numbers from this table were calculated from the data given by the official government web page (<http://www.emb.gov.hk>). Private schools included international schools whereas schools catering for disabled children were excluded, and thus, making the total number of primary schools in Hong Kong to be 684 at 2005.

The number of teachers in Hong Kong, according to school types was not readily available from government statistics; the above tables show that stratifying the sample by school types allowed coverage of the different categories of schools. The number of teachers for each primary school ranged from 30 to 50. Comparing the percentages of schools of this sample with the percentages for the rest of Hong Kong showed that the

two districts had fewer Protestant schools and a more private schools.

The sample also had teachers who had attained the following academic qualifications and religion. Close to 70% of the sample had a bachelor's degree, but only two had social work qualifications. There were also a large number of teachers in the sample who called themselves Christians.

Table 4.4

Teachers' Background Related to Academic Attainment and Religion

Highest Academic Attainment

	Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Teacher Certificate	68	19.2	19.2
Post-secondary Diploma	11	3.1	22.3
Bachelor's Degree	247	69.6	91.8
Master's Degree	27	7.6	99.4
Bachelor in Social Work	2	0.6	100.0
Total	355	100.0	
Missing 99.00	4		
Total	359		

Religion of Teachers

	Frequency	Valid percentage	Cumulative percentage
valid Catholicism	18	6.3	6.3
Protestant	106	37.1	43.4
Buddhism	6	2.1	45.5
Taoism	1	0.3	45.8
Traditional Chinese Religion	8	2.8	48.6
No religion	145	50.7	99.3
Others	2	0.7	100.0

II) Teachers' View on the Importance of Values and Citizenship

Three additional questions were asked in the questionnaire (Appendix 1): “Do you think values are important?”, “Do you think the teaching of citizenship should be carried out in schools?”, and “Do you think the teaching of values should be carried out in schools?” These questions were added to examine the actual views of teachers about the importance of values and how they would see the teaching of both values and citizenship in Hong Kong. The frequency and scope of the education reforms in Hong Kong was a challenge for teachers. The formal teaching of values and citizenship were new cross-curricular themes in the local schools. By raising these three questions at this juncture, the researcher could find out whether teachers were simply responding to “another government initiative” or whether they cared about the content and considered such to be.

Table 4.5

Importance of Values and Citizenship Education in Schools

				Combined Responses*
	N	Mean	SD	%
Values is very important	356	6.29	0.85	86.52
Citizenship education should be carried out in schools	356	6.17	0.86	81.18
Values education should be carried out in schools	356	5.76	1.09	66.29

* Combined responses columns report combined frequency and percentage of respondents selecting choices 6 or 7. Of six possible choices, selection of ‘7’ indicates a ‘strong agreement’ with the item.

It is apparent that primary teachers were of the view that the teaching of citizenship and values were important areas for the schools. Although there were differences in the strength of their responses, there were no negative scores as reflected in Table 4.5. However, the ranking of means showed teachers had a clear list of priorities for the items with values being the most important and citizenship education ranks slightly lower. It was clear in the teachers’ mind that although values were important in a

person's development, some were more insistent in seeing the teaching of values as a school's responsibility. In the focus group and individual interviews, teachers echoed the importance of teaching values, but as a parental responsibility. However, some teachers were worried about parents:

Yes, the parents should be the ones to set an example and teach values at home, but in my experience with some parents here, it is really worrying as to what is taught to children at home. Some parents in the district had problems being an example for their children. There was the incident while a primary student was caught fighting, he told me that his parents instructed him to fight back first before informing the teachers! How can we rely on the parents to teach appropriate values to students when they themselves behave poorly, e.g. use foul language, bully others, and even spit in public?
SK 4

Some focus group discussions mentioned the difficulty of teaching values in a society in which big businesses used every possible means to advertise their products. The media was seen to awash in consumerism, sensationalism, and pornography. One principal remarked in an individual interview:

The values of society today are opposing against the development of students thus it is difficult to implement life education as well as values education. SK 1

The teaching of values and citizenship is anything but simple since children are exposed to diverse values from their daily contacts with media, peers and neighbors. Therefore, teachers agreed that schools had roles to play in teaching both citizenship and values.

Table 4.6

Male and Female Teachers' Views of Values and Citizenship Education

	Male Mean	SD	Female Mean	SD
Values are important	6.10	0.93	6.33	0.82
Citizenship education should be carried out in schools	5.97	0.82	6.21	0.86
Values education should be carried out in schools	5.72	1.01	5.78	1.01
Valid N	60		294	

Table 4.6 shows that the female teachers agreed more strongly with the importance of teaching values and citizenship and than male teachers did.

Table 4.7

Differences between Male and Female Teachers on Values and Citizenship

	t	df	Significance (2-tailed)
Values are important	-1.92	352	0.06
	-1.77	78.87	0.08
Citizenship education should be carried in schools	-0.38	352	0.70
	-0.41	89.84	0.69
Values education should be carried out in schools	-2.03	352	0.044
	-2.08	87.13	0.040

The stronger agreement may mean that the female teachers are more committed to seeing that students acquire values and a sense of citizenship. However, we cannot assume that their stronger agreement would necessarily bring forth more impact or better results from the students. The matter of effectiveness is a worthy area of exploration for another study. However, in this study most female teachers far outnumbered the males (294 to 60). This holds true for the general teaching population of Hong Kong, especially at the primary level. However, despite the differences in the strength of their views, both genders either agreed or strongly agreed (scores of 5.7 to 6.3) on the need to teach values and citizenship in the schools.

In addition to these gender differences, significant differences were found in the means scores of teachers from the various types of schools:

Table 4.8

Teachers' View of Importance of Values and Citizenship by School Type

Question	School Type	N	Mean
I think values are very important	Protestant Schools	74	6.51
	Catholic Schools	70	6.33
	Buddhist Schools	45	6.27
	Government Schools	91	5.92
	Schools by NGOs	49	6.59
	Private Schools	27	6.33
	Total	356	6.29

I think values education should be conducted in schools	Protestant Schools	74	5.80
	Catholic Schools	70	6.01
	Buddhist Schools	45	5.78
	Government Schools	91	5.35
	Schools by NGOs	49	6.02
	Private Schools	27	5.85
	Total	356	5.76
I think citizen education should be carried out in schools	Protestant Schools	74	6.35
	Catholic Schools	70	6.33
	Buddhist Schools	45	6.13
	Government Schools	91	5.84
	Schools by NGOs	49	6.27
	Private Schools	27	6.26
	Total	356	6.17

ANOVA

		df	F	significance
I think values are very important	Between groups	5	6.19	0.001
I think that values education should be carried out in schools	Between groups	5	4.11	0.001
I think that civic education should be carried out in schools	Between groups	5	4.32	0.001

The teachers in this study all agreed on the importance of values, of citizenship education and values education in schools. However, the teachers from Protestant, Catholic, Buddhist and NGO schools consistently had stronger agreement with the three questions than the teachers from the Government schools. Further analysis showed a statistically significant difference between the answers from teachers from Protestant and Catholic schools compared with those from Government schools.

The multiple comparisons using Bonferroni adjustments showed statistically significant differences at the 0.05 level for all groups of teachers.

The pattern indicated that the differences among schools were statistically significant.

In sharing the quantitative results of how the religions of the sponsoring bodies seemed to have a positive effect on the teachers' strength of response in teaching values and citizenship, one teacher made the following point:

Catholic schools adopted life education as their theme for all schools, thus values-based teaching and life education may have been impressed upon teachers of Catholic schools for many years now. WC2

A teacher from a Protestant school agreed:

The Christian teaching of caring for others and the story of the Good Samaritan had a deep influence on the life and ethos of our school. Daily assemblies, worship, opportunities for students to offer services to the needy people in the community began to take roots in our school much earlier than the days of the handover in 1997. Students' responses varied. All these practices have been our school's traditions for as long as I have been teaching here. SK 6

A teacher's religion yielded statistically significant results in only three aspects of the questionnaire. Buddhist teachers had stronger agreement on the conservative characteristics of citizenship, saw "sex activities" as greater threats to a child's development of citizenship, and Protestant and Catholic teachers held stronger agreement to the positive influence of religious leaders in the development of their own citizenship. These findings will be discussed in Chapter 5.

At the same time, the religious affiliation of the schools yielded many statistically significant differences including the importance of values and citizenship in school. The reasons for these significant differences need to be followed up in future research. A useful direction of exploration may be to uncover whether the school-based teaching of these subjects, guided by the values and tradition of the sponsoring body may influence the teachers' effort to implement values and citizenship education.

It should be no surprise that religion has long been a major vehicle in the delivery of moral education in Western nations (Priestley 1987, p 107). Even with today's emphasis on diversity, pluralism, and tolerance of teachings from various religions, many authors saw the importance of teaching religious education in public schools for the purpose of cultivating both children's awareness and tolerance of the many religions, and their greater sensitivity to emotion and spirituality (Bates 1992; Hammond et al. 1990; School Curriculum and Assessment Authority 1994;).

A further way in which the beliefs of the sponsoring bodies can influence the teachers' handling of values and citizenship was the influence of religious teaching on the ethos of a school. The ethos of the school encompasses the nature of relationships within that school, the dominant forms of social interaction, the attitudes and expectations of the teachers, the learning climate, patterns of communication, management styles and ultimately, the school's underlying philosophy and aims (Eisner 1994; Jackson et al. 1993; Power et al. 1989; Schaps & Solomon 1990; Taylor, 1996). In an individual interview, a Government officer stated:

Religious schools have advantage over non-religious schools in teaching values. Many religious schools are explicit about their religion: worship and assembly are all regular parts of school life. When religious teaching got linked up with values, well, those values will create an impression on students. For government schools, the policy was towards diversity and tolerance while proselytizing about personal religion is generally not encouraged. (Government Officer WC)

Lickona argued that the moral climate of the school must be consistent with the values that are directly taught (1991). It was thus, of no great surprise to find the tradition and religion of a school play important parts in its caring/moral climate or ethos. Through such practices as "putting life education as the emphasis in the school policy statement, such topics would be important in forming the hidden curriculum" (Halstead 1996, p 4).

As teachers for our schools, we are encouraged to care for our students as brothers and sisters in the family of God. We put in extra time to organise fellowship,

extra curricular activities where they could be affirmed and encouraged as an individual. (SK 6)

Furthermore, establishing the general direction for the whole denomination, regular assembly and worship time, encouraging and arranging for students to serve the needy in the community, inviting guests to share their life and religious experiences could make it easier to teach values and citizenship.

III) Qualities of a Good Citizen

Teachers were asked to assess on the scale 1-7 (strongly disagree to strongly agree) the measure of their agreement with items listing the characteristics of a good citizen. Strong agreement was represented by 7 through to strong disagreement represented by 1. A mean score of 4.5 indicates a neutral view; score greater than 4.5 are interpreted as an overall positive view and a mean score of less than 4.5 represent a negative attitude.

The calculated rank order by means of each of the items was used to reflect the teachers' view of the relative importance of qualities of good citizens. These are listed below in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8

Primary Teachers' View on Qualities of a Good Citizen

	Combined Responses*		
	Mean	SD	%
Fulfillment of family responsibilities	6.16	0.82	80.90
Moral and ethical behavior	6.14	0.87	79.89
Ability to make wise decisions	5.96	1.01	72.42
Concern for the welfare of others	5.94	0.90	70.47
Tolerance of diversity within society	5.91	0.90	72.42
Knowledge of current events	5.82	0.90	64.80
Ability to question ideas	5.78	0.98	66.57
Knowledge of government	5.76	0.91	63.23
Knowledge of world community	5.75	0.90	64.80
Patriotism	5.62	1.03	58.77

Participation in community or school affairs	5.60	0.95	56.27
Acceptance of assigned responsibility	5.35	1.04	48.60
Acceptance of authority of those in supervisory roles	4.59	1.31	24.58

* Combined responses columns report combined frequency and percentage of respondents selecting choices 6 or 7. Of seven possible choices, selection of '7' indicates a 'strong agreement' with the item.

The mean scores were not far apart; the highest was 6.16 and the lowest was 4.59. The quality that was ranked lowest still reflected teachers' agreement with its importance.

The teachers' ranking of the 13 qualities of good citizenship reflected a view of morality that began with the discipline and virtues of the self and branched out to fulfilling of expectations from others and society as the individual assumes various roles in the community as proposed by Confucius. However, knowledge (of current events, of the Government and of world community) and skills (ability to make wise decisions and ability to question ideas) were also given high rankings.

a) Theoretical Perspectives

Many teachers in the focus group mentioned one famous teaching of Confucius: the need to begin with the self conforming to duties and expectation, expanding to carrying out the roles to shoulder family responsibilities, to make contribution to one's native land and finally to contribute to the world (globe). Confucian values starts with the cultivation of the personal values to conform to the expectation/roles of the society. The scholar, Tu Wei-ming (Tu W 1985, p 113) discussed the concept of "self-hood in Confucianism". He saw self-transformation as a communal act that involved two interrelated assumptions: the self as the center of relationship and the self as a dynamic process of spiritual development. Upon closer examination, the concept of self-development in Chinese traditional society differed much from that of Western nations. Many authors (Chin 1986; Lam 1994; Suen 1983) reflected the Chinese tradition of defining "self" as developing in the context of relationships and prescribed roles in various stages of life. Thus, the identity for the "self" cannot be seen in a vacuum and was seen to have much to do with the definition by significant others as well as societal expectations. This line of argument differed with the concepts as related to "self" as one growing and differentiating into an individualized person with

body, soul and spirit with the soul further encompassing, autonomous will, cognition and emotion (Poon 2001).

Heater 1990	Identity, civil, political, social, civic virtues
QCA (England) 1998	self confidence, social/moral responsibility, community/political involvement
Lee's study on quality of "good citizens" (1999)	social concern, knowledge on government, events conservatism: acceptance of authority and responsibility
Chinese traditional view (Tu 1985)	starts with self → family → community → country and nation emphasizing on the self in relationship and social expectation

Figure 4.1. Views on citizenship

Lee argued (2001, p 208) that "self cultivation can be considered as a fundamental quality for effective citizenship. Thus, self and collective realization, instead of being dichotomized, can be mutually reinforcing each other". This overall view of defining citizenship seemed to be reflective of the approach which was now formally taken up by the Curriculum Development Council of the Hong Kong Government:

Some societies place stronger emphasis on individualism, while others collectivism. However, the two are not necessarily dichotomized and mutually exclusive. On the contrary, there are subtle relationships between them. In societies where individualism is more obviously valued, the significance of common interests, common will and common good is also valued. Likewise, in societies where collectivism seems to be dominant, there are various extents of respect for individuality, and self-realization. In the Chinese tradition, even though collectivism has been a dominant social value, self has been the starting point of civic values. (Curriculum Development Council 1996, p 15)

The Hong Kong Government has made the importance of citizenship education a major goal of its education reforms. In 2003, a new course on personal and social development was initiated in all the primary schools. Schools were encouraged to use or mobilize specialized teachers, social workers, and the community resources to teach

this 12-session course centered on the themes of self-understanding, interpersonal relationship, self-management, and positive values.

In this light, it was no surprise to see the primary teachers according higher importance to characteristics that related closely to their expectations of the students' personal development. It was hoped that students may begin to develop personal, moral and ethical behavior, assume family responsibility, care about welfare of others, and extend these qualities to their community.

In the teachers' sharing of the focus groups, "good citizens" respected the law and the public interest. Good citizens voted, they cared for the community, and expressed concern for others. They were had a commitment to others, a sense of responsibility and had a sense of personal ethics. They cared about their lives and those of others, and had respect for the environment. Other teachers were quick to add the importance of being patriotic, demonstrating love for the motherland and the public good, and for all things that are true, good and beautiful. All were to be carried out with a sense of duty and meeting the expectations of society. Some teachers mentioned cultivating the inner qualities of students so that they would live up to society's expectations even when no one was watching.

As noted in the quantitative study, teachers believed that skills and knowledge-related of citizenship were important for cultivating students. They gave high ranking knowledge-related to the ability to make decisions and to discuss current events, government and world community. These aspects of citizenship demonstrated that an individual could participate actively in the affairs of the society.

A good citizen should possess the skills of expression and communication; able to solve problems, make choices, has critical thinking... SK 2

One teacher said that, virtues like filial piety should have emphasis for students who were in lower grades (1-3), whereas for higher grades, it was more important for students to think critically as they decipher their parents' instructions. Thus, the concepts of the evolving self and the ability to make decisions seemed to have gained prominence in the teachers' understanding of self-development for older students.

This was very much in line with Lockwood's (2001) suggestion of offering children in grade schools more training in "civic decency" (respect, courtesy, and fairness) and students in secondary school training in "civic literacy" (making choices, critical thinking) in accordance to their developmental stages and needs.

One teacher suggested that according to the government's policy, it was necessary to teach the children about their national identity and the history of China. Other teachers added that students had to be taught to manage their emotions, get along with others and learn how to behave at home.

Family conflicts and problems are common these days and many children were found to be unhappy without a listening ear and troubled in coping with difficult events like parents' anger...WC 3

Teachers also expressed deep concern with "life education":

Self-protection is an important thing to teach the students as life seemed too fragile and some students were seen to take life too casually. Some students badly needed "the correct view on many life-related issues" such as sex education, suicide and the wrong concept of taking one's own life for fear of failures. (WC 4)

The participants in the focus groups were then presented with the rank order of importance of the qualities for good citizenship. After some discussion, the teachers claimed that they understood and agreed with the ranking of the quantitative data. Thus, the order of priority for cultivating good citizenship in students, in accordance with the students' needs began with training for personal character, family responsibility and then to serve one's country according to the Confucian ideals. Thus, students' learning in personal ethics should be followed by rule of law and the love of country. The teachers saw these levels to be related, beginning naturally with the students' everyday life and flowing out to more abstract duties. Teachers accepted the ideal of a cross-curriculum approach with the help from both formal and informal curricula.

b) Fulfillment of Family Responsibilities as a Characteristic of Good Citizens

However, a finding which appeared to be quite prominent for the present study was that

more than 80% of the respondents ranked family responsibility first on the list of qualities of a good citizen, even above moral and ethical behavior and the concern for the welfare of others. As stated in the above paragraph, the teachers participating in the focus group attributed this to the fact that many of them were encountering students with serious family problems. Many teachers in both focus groups agreed that the difficulties they often faced had to do with parents not being able to be models or examples to their children. The “banding” (academic performance ranking of a school) of the schools where teachers raised these concerns for the increasing numbers of family was not known, but it was worth noting that in both of the focus groups, teachers referred to the increasing incidence of family conflicts.

Data from the individual interviews were explored further, as the individuals were informed of the findings of the quantitative study; participants were invited to explain why teachers ranked the 13 qualities as they did, and to provide additional insights on their prioritization in teaching citizenship and values. Several participants were surprised to learn that the teachers ranked “family responsibility” as the most important quality of a “good citizen”. As discussed earlier, the Confucian framework for moral development envisioned the development of self extended one’s moral virtues outward. Thus, some teachers expressed concerns about whether students’ moral and ethical behavior was being sufficiently cultivated in relations to people outside of their family. One interviewee (a principal carrying with teaching responsibilities) remarked:

Teachers’ choice on priority for developing citizenship showed that they are more concerned about what is happening to themselves (immediately of concern to them) instead of having a bigger vision on the concerns of others in the community. SK 1

c) Lower Ranking Characteristics

The primary teachers in the present research assigned lower ranking for students’ participating and serving in the school and community, patriotism, accepting assigned responsibility and last of all, accepting authority of those in supervisory positions. While teachers from England were similarly skeptical of the importance of politics and patriotism for primary students (Davies et al. 1999), the low ranking for the other three qualities may have unique meaning for this sample of teachers in Hong Kong.

In an individual interview, the principal with teaching duties was commenting on the teachers' low ranking on community participation and the willingness to take up assigned responsibilities, she observed:

Teachers are found to have very small social circles and are rather defensive in their personality (strong firewall of protection). Many (especially ones from the younger group) were found to be rather self-centered and only occupied with their own rights. SK 5

There were also concerns from the interviews about the low ranking given to "patriotism", "acceptance of an assigned responsibility" and "acceptance of authority of those in supervisory roles".

Interviewees observed that since 1997, the society has placed more emphasis on economic development and maintaining the strategic positions in business as China opened to the world. The emphasis for the education sector was on academic excellence and all round development for students in order to maintain Hong Kong's competitiveness. Thus, relatively less priority was placed on citizenship. Interviewees noted the Government's recent effort to promote patriotism education by placing flags in school and the regular singing/broadcasting of the Chinese national anthem. However, these proposals were met with ambivalence in the schools and in Hong Kong itself.

Yes, the community is now flooded with the message that we ought to teach students to love the motherland and be patriotic, how can we teach such a topic when one feels ambivalent about "loving China" even as an adult? What are my values Vis a Vis such a topic? How can one cultivate caring and kindness in the classroom when these virtues are not manifested in China's society at large? WC 3

The teaching of patriotism and national identity was relatively new in Hong Kong. Thus, its implementation was left to the individual schools and teachers. It is now up to the schools and their sponsoring bodies to allocate resources or strengthen the teaching of citizenship.

Concerning the acceptance of responsibility, one teacher remarked:

Sad to hear about the way teachers resist and mistrust authority to the point of choosing to say “no” to delegated request by superior, but this is of no surprise.

WC 3

The principal with teaching duties continued to share her concern:

The big hurdle in implementing the citizenship and values education material are the limitations of the teachers; they are a group who is rather passive aggressive, they are not used to opening up and discussing differences of opinion but tend to speak behind the person’s back. SK 5

Others attributed this choice by teachers to the observation that these attitudes were typical of teachers raised and educated in colonial Hong Kong. This group of teachers felt little ownership of and had little identification with the Government. From their youth, they were given few opportunities to develop social awareness, resulting in a lack of civic responsibility as they felt little need to participate in the community.

The participants in the focus groups expressed concern that teachers with such a mindset would have difficulties in instilling social awareness in their students, since they themselves may have difficulties in accepting delegated responsibilities. It was therefore of no surprise that the younger generation would become self-centered, insular, and indifferent to community affairs. Many teachers are still angry at the Government:

Morale of teachers is indeed a matter needing our concern as their energy and commitment are continually being dampened by the frequent changes brought about the educational reforms. Many of these teachers would not come for training and development even if all expenses are paid for. SK 6

These observations show how the teachers’ experience (or lack thereof) in community affairs could affect their teaching of citizenship. Teachers’ low morale and hostility towards the Government could also weaken their views on citizenship development. It may now be useful to examine other studies in order to understand these views.

d) Comparison with Findings of Previous Studies

Additional insights may be found from the results of previous studies. As the teachers of the focus groups concluded, Chapter 9 (Losito and Mintrop in Torney-Puerta et al. 2001, p158-173) was written on the topic of The Teaching of Civic Education of the International Evaluation of Education Achievement (IEA) Study which reflected on Hong Kong teachers' strong view of developing students to respect the importance of obeying the law, promoting human rights and protecting the environment as "good adult citizens". This study found that Hong Kong teachers placed greatest priority on the teaching of values, knowledge but that relatively lower priorities were assigned to of critical thinking and participation.

Lee's (1999, 2005) studies used the same basic citizenship survey instrument comparing the views of teachers from Hangzhou, Guangzhou to those of the teachers of Hong Kong. Similar to the results of this study, Lee found that his sample of 733 teachers from Hong Kong ranked family responsibility as the most important characteristic of good citizenship, followed closely by knowledge of current events, knowledge of government, and moral and ethical behavior. Lee attributed the high ranking put on family responsibility to be the "Chinese ness" of Hong Kong teachers, and he cited a few additional local studies which showed that young people in Hong Kong accorded high significance to filial piety and family relationship (Lee 1999).

It was not known how many of Lee's samples were primary school teachers and how many were secondary school teachers. However, it did seem that the teacher sample from this study gave high ranking to skills-related characteristics while still considering family responsibility as the most important quality in a good citizen.

We now turn to the results on qualities of acceptance of assigned responsibility and acceptance of authority. The chapter on teachers' view on teaching citizenship in Torney-Puerta et al. (2001) reflected and as Lee (2005) noted, despite research finding that Hong Kong teachers highly respect the rule of law, and obedience, this type of obedience was focused on observing the legal aspect rather than on the acceptance of those in supervisory positions and in actively taking parts in the community as citizens.

The teachers in the focus group gave other explanation of these findings. They attributed teachers' reluctance to accept additional responsibilities to fatigue resulting from the frequent and demanding education reforms after 1997. Changes and new qualifying exams for both teachers and schools had proven to be too overwhelming. Many teachers did admit that the wise thing to do was to keep to the daily work duties and learn to decline further assignments from their superiors.

Findings from Lee's study (1999, 2005) were consistent with the results of this study with respect to the low ranking assigned to the acceptance of assigned responsibility and acceptance of supervisors' authority. The mean scores of 4.74 and 3.94 were given to these characteristics in Lee's study, compared to 5.35 and 4.59 for this study. Lee attributed these findings to the special characteristics of teachers who were Hong Kong residents. As Hong Kong is a society made up of predominantly of immigrants arriving from China in the 1950's (but other batches of immigrants also came during the Cultural Revolution of the 70's and then even after 1997), they were more inclined to primarily attach themselves to family, tradition, and their immediate social circles. Political phobia was common among refugees, coupled with the June 4, 1989 incident

With all the recent arguments and rallies about the pace of self-rule and universal suffrage, it was not difficult to find that many of Hong Kong's inhabitants remain less interested in political involvement and participation and more interested in their economic and family well being.

As reflected in the focus group discussion, the teachers were fully aware of the Government's recent initiatives to increase patriotism and students' awareness on the importance of national identity in Hong Kong today. However, one participant pointed out that such sentiments were not easily observable and measurable and could certainly not be created overnight.

One should also be concerned about whether they are truly putting into practice important values and commitment when no one is around to monitor them. There can be big gaps between ideals and practice, and practice under supervision/monitoring and those done in private. There can also be teachers who are indeed convinced of what is right but lack the faith to carry that out (e.g.

love, justice...patriotism). WC5

Another remark from an experienced teacher was met with overwhelming support from other participants of the focus group:

How much importance does China put on the value of human life? If such is not the case, how does China expect teachers to teach students on the value of life or even the love for one's motherland? SK 6

IV) Rank Order Differences by Gender

Some differences were also noted in the answers of male and female teachers:

Table 4.9

Male and Female Teachers' Ranking of the Qualities of a Good Citizen

	Male mean	Male SD	Female mean	Female SD
Fulfillment of family responsibilities	6.0	0.84	6.19	0.82
Tolerance of diversity	5.95	0.86	5.92	0.86
Ability to make wise decision	5.89	1.16	5.97	0.98
Concern for others welfare	5.89	0.78	5.95	0.98
Moral and ethical behavior	5.85	0.83	6.20	0.87
Ability to question ideas	5.77	0.99	5.78	0.99
Knowledge of current events	5.70	0.92	5.85	0.90
Knowledge of world community	5.67	1.10	5.77	0.86
Knowledge of government	5.64	1.00	5.79	0.89
Patriotism	5.52	1.07	5.64	1.01
Participation in community or school affairs	5.48	0.91	5.63	0.97
Acceptance of assigned responsibility	5.36	1.00	5.35	1.06
Acceptance of authority from supervisory roles	4.40	1.36	4.64	1.29
Valid N	59		291	

The table shows some differences in the ranking of importance of the qualities of good citizenship between male and female teachers. The female teachers had generally higher scores than the male teachers for nearly all the qualities of good citizenship. Female teachers also put “moral and ethical behavior” as the most valued quality of good citizenship whereas male teachers ranked “fulfillment of family responsibility”. However, the mean score of the female teachers for “fulfillment of family responsibility” was still higher than the male teachers’ score for that item. Could the fact that male teachers ranked “fulfillment of family responsibility” as most important be due to the traditional expectation in Chinese societies in which males were expected to shoulder the main responsibilities of earning a living to support one’s family?

As the scores were all high and very close together, and since the differences between the female and male scores did not attain statistical significance, the sense of fulfilling one’s duties was considered very important by both male and female teachers. In the focus groups, the male teachers were more enthusiastic than their female colleagues in describing teaching students the importance of voting by organizing class and school elections for various positions of student leadership, in comparison to the female teachers.

Skills and knowledge aspects were valued by both groups. From these findings, teachers seemed to believe that as “good citizens”, students needed know how to think and arrive at informed answers, and to practice making choices in addition to carrying out their duties to family, others and community. It was noted that, for this sample, both male and female teachers placed “patriotism”, “participation in community and school affairs”, “acceptance of assigned responsibility” and “the acceptance of authority of those in supervisory roles” close to the bottom of the list. This passive attitude towards participation, reluctance to accept responsibility from supervisors may be attributed to experiences of the teachers who had been raised in an education system that was examination-driven and academically focused. It was, however, worth noting that despite the relatively low ranking for these qualities, the means were still highly positive which indicated that the teachers still agreed that these qualities were important in good citizens.

V) Factor Analysis: Results and Analysis

When the characteristics for good citizenship were subjected to factor analysis, two factors emerged after the items with double loadings were deleted. These factors emerged from the final rotated solution using principal components analysis with Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization as rotation method. Shown below are the two factors with their alpha scores and correlation.

Table 4.10

Factors Selected According to Loading

<u>Items</u>	<u>Factor loading</u>
Factor 1: Informed and dutiful citizens	
Knowledge of world community	0.883
Tolerance of diversity within society	0.785
Ability to make wise decisions	0.772
Fulfillment of family responsibilities	0.736
Ability to question ideas	0.730
Knowledge of Government	0.724
Knowledge of current events	0.668
Reliability Coefficients	7 items
Alpha =	.8832
Standardized item alpha =	.8837
Factor 2: Obedient and Conservative citizens	
Acceptance of an assigned responsibility	0.903
Acceptance of authority of those in supervisory roles	0.775
Reliability Coefficients	2 items
Alpha =	.6641
Standardized item alpha =	.6756

Table 4.11

Correlations between the Two Factors

		Factor 1	Factor 2
Factor 1	Pearson Correlation	1	.466(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
	N	359	359
Factor 2	Pearson Correlation	.466(**)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
	N	359	359

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The first factor was “Informed and dutiful citizens”. It reflected that teachers saw the need for students’ acquiring the skills and knowledge while fulfilling their family responsibility and becoming good citizens. The information aspects of citizenship included the knowledge of government and of the world. The skills aspects included the abilities to make wise decisions, to question ideas and to tolerate diversity. The teachers opined that all these aspects were to be included as criteria of good citizenship. The other factor was teachers’ view of being obedient citizens in face of assigned responsibility and the acceptance of authority. This factor was “obedient and conservative citizens” and was found to be related in Lee’s (1999) and Davis’ (1999) studies. The correlation table shows that these factors were moderately correlated, suggesting that there was some overlap.

Lee (1999) using the same survey, compared the teachers’ ranking and the factors which emerged from the data. He found the same lowest ranking for the features of obedient and conservative citizens from the Hong Kong teachers’ sample, similar to the findings of the current research. However, the Hong Kong teachers in his sample attributed importance to what he called being socially concerned citizens. He defined socially concerned citizens as those who saw moral and ethical behavior, concern for the welfare of others and fulfillment of family responsibilities as the most important characteristics in a good citizen.

Compassion, moral and ethical behavior, and participation in community or school affairs constitute the caring aspect of citizenship. Gilligan (1982) had emphasized the importance of the ethics of care as an important balance to Kohlberg’s concern for the

concept of justice in the theory of moral development. These characteristics were seen by teachers from England (Davies et al. 1999) as the most important qualities of citizenship in students.

In this study, male teachers attributed highest ranking to the fulfillment of family responsibilities high ranking for the concern for the welfare of others; moral and ethical behavior were also given high ranking (5.89 and 5.85), moral and ethical behavior was given highest ranking by female teachers while the qualities like participation in community and school affairs and patriotism were ranked relatively lower (5.52 and 5.48). Lee's study found that the teachers gave lower ranking to participation in community or school affairs and patriotism. How may the teachers encourage students to become more active and take part as members and later as citizens if such were their views? While this aspect of working with projects in the community will be explored further in Chapter 6, the importance of equipping teachers to see the importance of building a caring community in school is evident here. This would be a good reminder to teachers that besides skills, knowledge and a sense of duties, the future citizens of Hong Kong needed a sense of compassion and an interest in the good of the society, so as to build up a greater sense of ownership in and concern for what happens to their neighbors and community.

From the mean scores (Table 4.8 and 4.9) it appears that teachers saw knowledge and skills to be very important qualities of good citizens in Hong Kong. Knowledge covered world's happenings, Government and current events while skills included abilities to ask questions and make decisions. The high mean scores (5.89 for ability to make wise decisions, ranking third from the top, and 5.77 ranking sixth) indicated that teachers valued students' cognitive ability to choose and decide for themselves was important, even in primary school. This would be an indication of teachers' integration of the concepts of "higher level thinking" (e.g. abilities to question, to integrate and to apply knowledge, to think independently...) into good citizenship. These knowledge and skills closely resembled what academics call "civic dispositions": attitudes and habits conducive to healthy functioning and to the common good. Attitudes included civility, open-mindedness, ability to compromise and tolerance of diversity (Leming 2001). Maybe the teachers were beginning to see the importance of training students to think through decisions in addition to meeting others' societal expectations with a sense of

duty. Even tolerance for diversity was included. The factor loadings for all of these qualities were high, showing that teachers saw citizenship in a similar manner as represented by the clustering of factors. The fact that the mean scores were clustered showed that the teachers held all these qualities as important in good citizenship.

However, there was little mention in the focus groups about the teachers' view on attitudes which had to do with civic commitment (e.g. popular sovereignty, rule of law, separation of church and state, liberty life, equality, truth) which had to do with the values and principles related to the ideals of a democratic society. Whether or not primary school students need to be introduced to these concepts is worthy of further examination. Finally, the teachers' lack of enthusiasm in supporting students' participation in community was not helpful in developing the students' problem-solving abilities, the discovery of balance between rights and responsibilities, and their understanding of community issues.

The low rankings given by teachers for the conservative and obedient characteristics have already been discussed in detail.

VI) Differences in Teachers' View of the Qualities of Good Citizenship as Influenced by the Types of Schools

Literature showed that religious education as a subject in school used to be the place where moral or values education was carried out (Priestley 1987). Even though there was now much dissension about how religious education should be handled apart from values education and education in spirituality (Beck 1998; Lovat 1995), the role of religion could be providing a base for discussion on values and the meaning of life, which was accepted as very important for the young people's development. In England, the development of spirituality could either be taught as a specific subject on a religion or as cross religious themes. Other schools in the UK introduced religion as exploration of the child's personal experience as a kind of pilgrimage (Bates 1992). Lastly, spirituality could be treated as training the child in sensitivity, consideration for others, and awareness of emotion in self and social relationship (Hammond et al. 1990). The contribution of religious education and related approaches to students' learning of spirituality, values and citizenship could not be underestimated.

Given the background in the history of the development of education for Hong Kong as outlined in the literature review, it is useful to explore the influence of school sponsoring bodies on the teachers' view of teaching values and citizenship in Hong Kong. The quantitative study stratified the schools as Government, subsidized and private. As discussed in the methodology chapter, the subsidized schools were further classified according to their sponsoring bodies: those with Protestant backgrounds, those with Catholic backgrounds, with Buddhist background and finally those with charity organization as sponsors. In the following sections, results of the findings will be presented and discussed in light of data from the survey and qualitative studies.

When the mean scores for the qualities of good citizenship were compared, statistically significant differences were found between teachers' responses depending on the type of school in which they taught. These results are reported in Table 4.14.

For example, family responsibility was ranked either the highest or the second highest by teachers from Government and the subsidized schools. However, the "highest mean" of all the qualities of good citizens was highest for teachers from Catholic and Protestant schools. The greatest number of significant differences in scores was found between the teachers from Catholic and Protestant schools and those of Government schools.

Table 4.13

The Scores of the Teachers from Government Schools as Compared to Scores from Teachers of Subsidized Schools with Respect to the Quality of "Knowledge of Current Events"

School	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Protestant schools	74	6.08	0.82
Catholic schools	70	6.03	0.83
Buddhist schools	47	5.87	0.82
Government schools	91	5.52	0.89
Schools run by NGO's	49	5.78	0.92
Private schools	27	5.55	1.09
Total	358	5.81	0.90

ANOVA between scores from individual school types

	df	F	Significance
Between groups	5	4.84	0.000

It was apparent that the mean score assigned by teachers from Protestant schools were highest, followed by those of Catholic schoolteachers, Buddhist schoolteachers, and Government schoolteachers. This meant that teachers from the subsidized schools held that the knowledge of current events to be more important as a characteristic of good citizenship. This pattern of higher scores from teachers in Protestant, Catholic, and Buddhist schools reaching statistical significance continued for most of the other characteristics (fulfillment of family responsibility, moral and ethical behavior, concern for the welfare of others, knowledge of government, and participation in community and school affairs). Table 4.14 below shows the statistically significant differences for teachers from different types of schools, with reference to the characteristics “knowledge of current events”, “participation in community and school affairs”, “concern for the welfare of others”. The ranking of response strength may vary slightly for each quality, but the Protestant- or the Catholic-sponsored schoolteachers showed the strongest agreement to the qualities of good citizenship. However, the Government teachers’ agreement with the importance of the qualities was the weakest for all these qualities. All of these differences reached statistical significance of p value less than 0.05.

Table 4.14

Teachers’ Views of Good Citizenship, by School Type

Dependent variables	Type of schools(I)	Type of schools(J)	Mean Diff(I-J)	significance
Knowledge of current events	Protestant	Government	0.56	0.001
	Catholic	Government	0.51	0.004
	Government	Protestant	-0.56	0.001
	Government	Catholic	-0.51	0.004
Participation in community or school affairs	Protestant	Government	0.51	0.009
	Catholic	Government	0.62	0.001
	Government	Protestant	-0.51	0.009
	Government	Catholic	-0.62	0.001
Concern for Welfare of others	Protestant	Government	0.46	0.017
	Government	Protestant	-0.46	0.017

Moral and ethical behavior	Protestant	Government	0.49	0.004
	Catholic	Government	0.45	0.015
	NGOs	Government	0.53	0.007
	Government	Protestant	-0.49	0.004
	Government	Catholic	-0.45	0.015
	Government	of NGOS	-0.53	0.007
Knowledge of Government	Protestant	Government	0.45	0.021
	Government	Protestant	-0.45	0.021
Fulfillment of Family Responsibilities	Protestant	Government	0.45	0.006
	Government	Protestant	-0.45	0.006

For the factor analysis, differences in the views of teachers from the different schools were found again for both the qualities of citizenship related to Factor 1, the informed and dutiful citizens and the qualities of citizenship related to Factor 2, the obedient and conservative citizen.

Table 4.15

Teachers' View of the Two Factors by School Type

		N	Mean
Factor 1: the informed and dutiful citizens	Protestant School	74	42.20
	Catholic School	70	41.96
	Buddhist School	48	41.02
	Government School	91	39.33
	School run by NGO	49	41.77
	Private School	27	40.11
	Total	359	41.05
Factor 2: the obedient or conservative citizens	Protestant School	74	10.42
	Catholic School	70	10.47
	Buddhist School	48	10.21
	Government School	91	9.08
	School run by NGO	49	10.02
	Private School	27	9.19
	Total	359	9.91

ANOVA: the difference between the mean scores for the two factors for individual school types

	differences		Sig.
Factor 1: the informed and dutiful citizens	Between Groups	5	0.002
Factor 2: the obedient or conservative citizens	Between Groups	5	0.001

For qualities included in Factor 1, Protestant School teachers had the highest mean scores, (indicating strongest agreement), followed by the Catholic School teachers, teachers from Buddhist schools, teachers from schools operated by NGO, teachers from Private schools and lastly, teachers from Government schools. Much like what was outlined in Table 4.14, in the t-test analysis, the differences of mean scores between the groups of teachers reached statistical significance for the two factors. This meant that teachers from non-Government schools considered the qualities related to Factor 1, as more important than teachers from Government schools. The scores were different and teachers from the non-Government schools in this sample may have been more emphatic than teachers from government schools when it came to defining good citizenship.

Factor 2 qualities included acceptance responsibility and acceptance of authority. These teachers from Catholic, Protestant, and Buddhist schools had the higher mean scores than did teachers from Government schools, reaching statistically significant levels indicating stronger agreement than among the teachers teaching in the Government schools.

Again, statistical significance was reached for both factors and the individual qualities of good citizenship, which meant that responses from teachers from the teachers from the religious and Government schools had different definitions of what constituted good citizenship, and the differences were not likely to be random. This pattern continued even with qualities that had not been included: concern for the welfare of others, moral and ethical behavior and participation in community and school affairs, with the exception of patriotism. In each case, the mean scores for teachers from non-Government schools were found to be higher than those from the Government schools.

Many teachers in the focus groups claimed that the Government's focus on teachers' effort in the past few years were both for the teachers and the schools. Participants had to work hard to pass the benchmarking exams for teaching English, Chinese and mathematics. Others teachers were preoccupied with obtaining a bachelor's degree in education as soon as possible. The teachers from the Government schools stated that

ever since the Government had defined these requirements and set definite timelines, they had no choice but to make their best effort to go along.

However, principals had to be concerned about the academic standing of the school so that parents would want to send their children there. To add to the workload of the school leadership team, numerous education reforms initiatives have been proposed by the Education and Manpower Bureau since 1997:

Additional initiatives in encouraging the students to participate in service learning, project learning, building a habit in reading books regularly, information technology, as well as value and moral education in the recently initiated self development course for primary schools. All these kept the principal too busy thus delegating more workload for the teachers. SK 4

Thus, although civic and moral education was named as one of the cross-curricula themes and was meant to be an emphasis for the schools, teachers in the Government schools may still choose to pay more attention to academic excellence since this was also seen as utmost important by the parents of Hong Kong.

For Government schools, the emphasis was always academic excellence. Once a school has developed an academic “brand name” in the district, it would even be more eager to “keep their lead”, thus, it would be more likely that it will continue to put emphasis on academic development rather than social or life education. For schools with students with less academic abilities or interests, it would also be appropriate to help students develop in other areas... WC5

Other teachers mentioned that due to the very low birthrate in Hong Kong, many primary schools were forced to close down, creating additional stress for the leadership and sponsoring bodies of the existing ones. Teachers were then expected to participate in quasi-marketing activities as well as, proposal writing and other administrative duties to build a good image for their school.

The fact that Government teachers scored consistently lower for all of the items related to the qualities of a good citizen was important. One senior teacher of a Government

school said that in their example setting roles, Government schools needed to respond immediately to all educational reform initiatives; as a result, the teachers were exhausted. Many would thus, just choose to respond mechanically to a given initiative as “just another initiative”.

However, an education officer in Wanchai, pointed out that it was government policy to leave the choice of emphasis (academic, social, or information technology) to the sponsoring of the school. Also, since only two government schools were included in this sample, further research into the area should be carried out.

According to the School Based Management policy, the Government’s role was to provide guidelines, formulate policies and give support. It would be fine if schools select specific emphasis as long as these emphases were supportive and helpful for the education of the young people. Furthermore, the present sample has only teachers from 2 Governments Schools, it can hardly be representative of the total of 41 Government Schools in the territory... (Government Officer, WC)

VII) Conclusions

To summarize, the teachers’ ranking of the 13 qualities of good citizenship reflected an essentially traditionalist view of moral development. The teachers seemed to agree to begin to develop with personal, moral and ethical behavior for the self, extending to family responsibility, to welfare of others, to wider knowledge of community and social responsibilities. More than 80% of the sample ranked family responsibility first in the qualities of a good citizen. While the teachers agreed that all 13 qualities were strongly related to good citizenship, “acceptance of an assigned responsibility” and “acceptance of authority of those in supervisory roles” received the lowest relative ranking. However, these qualities were still given positive scores, which meant that teachers still positively related these to citizenship.

It seemed that the teachers would like to see primary students learn to practice the moral and ethical behavior in their immediate environment. In order to actualize the ideals of a good citizen, teachers also saw students as having much to learn and many skills to acquire in asking questions, making choices, being able to tolerate differences and

diversity and understanding about society, government and the world at large.

The qualitative study reflected the teachers' view that students needed more training in basic knowledge and skills in relations to the development of citizenship. They were glad to note that Government and community saw the importance of building students' critical thinking training, questioning skills, analytical skills and skills to make choices. There were proposal for these skills to be incorporated into school learning areas. Many teachers expressed their own need for training in these aspects. They also complained that they were being pressured to implement programs too quickly. Both school administrators and trainers for teachers needed to take note of the teachers' view to plan to offer more development opportunities in basic knowledge and citizenship skills. Also, do primary school teachers need more training to concepts as related to civic commitment (e.g. popular sovereignty, rule of law, separate of church and state, liberty, equality, truth) as these related to the ideals of a democratic society, so that teachers could start introducing these to their primary students? This would indeed be an interesting topic deserving of further exploration.

Although the participation in community or school affairs was given a relatively lower ranking (5.48), many teachers in the focus groups and interviews were their enthusiastic to promote students' participation. They shared their experiences in having students participate in service learning projects, leadership development and volunteer work. They were happy to report that although some schools had implemented such programs even before 1997, they were gratified to see that service-learning projects now benefited from policy support from educational authorities. As a result, such programs were seen to have become more widespread and opportunities for sharing best practices among the schools were helpful in enhancing program effectiveness. It would indeed be worthwhile for Government and school sponsoring bodies to come together; their experiences accumulated by the best practices and plan to spread citizenship education.

Finally, one teacher suggested that since the students needed so much preparation as citizens, teachers had to be trained in citizenship knowledge and skills. They stressed the importance of opportunities to broaden their own experiences, and to receive help in curriculum design/integration so that relevant knowledge can be incorporated into the curriculum for citizenship education. Subjects touching on legal and constitutional

affairs, global view of the world should be presented for the teachers' consideration. There was still a great deal of room to enhance the teachers' creative use of current events and the use of experiential approaches even though the teachers resisted the "pulling of rank and authority" by superiors. How to encourage and empower teachers without coercion seemed to be an important way forward for educators and trainers. More ways of supporting teachers will be explored in subsequent chapters.

Using the types of school to compare the results of teachers with regards to their mean scores on the qualities of good citizens yielded many statistically significant patterns. Consistently, the scores from the teachers of subsidized schools were higher than those of teachers from Government schools. Within the subsidized schools category, the scores of teachers from Protestant and Catholic Church affiliation were higher than those from Buddhist, Charity based and private schools. These results needed to be followed up to explore the ways in which such differences were found in the pattern of teachers' responses. Only with further data collection of and additional statistical analyses could the relationship between the values, mission, ethos of schools and their influence on the teaching of citizenship be explored and established. Such exploration is beyond the scope of the present study.

Chapter 5 **Teachers' Perception of Key Influences in the Development of Citizenship**

I) Introduction

This chapter explores how teachers view citizenship. Inherent in the original questionnaire was the invitation to teachers to assess the “key influences” of their own citizenship development; it then explored the teachers’ perception of contemporary threats to the development of good citizenship among their students. Given the broad characterization of citizenship with which teachers worked, one way to get at the essence of how to deliver citizenship education was to explore their perceptions more deeply. This chapter looks more closely at how teachers’ perceived citizenship was gained, enhanced and threatened.

This forced choice question was followed by the question of what teachers saw as the threats in the development of students’ citizenship. The quantitative results were explored when the teachers were asked their views of what as the main positive and negative influences on the students’ development of citizenship. The combined sources of data made possible a closer look at the teachers’ perception on the development of citizenship both for themselves and for their students.

This chapter now examines the results of the quantitative results, the discussion in the focus groups and interviews according to the following themes:

- a) influences on teachers’ own sense of citizenship
- b) the development of teachers’ citizenship
- c) from teacher’s development to students’ development through experiences
- d) perceived threats to citizenship development in students

II) Influences on Teachers’ Sense of Citizenship

Teachers were asked to assess on the scale of 1-7 (their agreement with the schedule of items listing people or things, which might influence the development of their own citizenship. Strong agreement was represented by 7 through to strong disagreement represented by 1. A mean score of 4 indicates a neutral view. The calculated rank

order by means of each of the items as well as using the combined percentage of respondents scoring “strongly agree” (7) and “agree” (6) were used to reflect the teachers’ view of the relative importance of the particular factor in influencing his/her own citizenship. These are listed below:

Table 5.1

Influences on Teachers’ Citizenship

The following have influenced <u>my</u> citizenship			
	Mean	SD	Combined Response*
Parents	6.06	1.03	78.49
Teachers	6.01	0.95	76.82
Friends	5.70	1.04	65.46
Brothers and/or sisters	5.47	1.09	57.42
Other students	5.26	1.16	47.08
Television and/or films	5.06	1.42	42.58
Religious leaders	4.93	1.47	41.97
Extra-curricular activities	4.92	1.24	35.20
School Principal or school officials	4.89	1.35	36.03
Guardians	4.83	1.51	37.39
Coaches	4.71	1.39	31.83
Grandparents and/or other relatives	4.69	1.33	28.01

*Combined responses columns report combined frequency and percentage of respondents selecting choices 6 or 7. Of seven possible choices, selection of ‘7’ indicates ‘strong agreement’ with the item.

Teachers ranked their parents first and their own teachers second as having the greatest influence on the development of their own citizenship. Most of the influence came from people with the influence of the media in sixth place. The low rankings for guardians, coaches and grandparents/relatives described the relatively small number of people who had influenced them..

In traditional Chinese families, relatives like grandparents and others would be expected to play much greater roles. The relatively low ranking attributed to these people in the present survey may be explained by nuclear families having become smaller over the past 20 years in Hong Kong (reflected the decreasing birthrate in past years listed in the

Government Census) and by geographical isolation from extended families as young families move to the 'New Towns' on the outskirts of Hong Kong.

In addition to examining the frequency data, a few statistically significant differences (with p values less than 0.05 in the T test) were found with respect to the gender and religion of the teachers when they ranked the key influence in their own citizenship.

As can be expected, religious teachers (especially Protestant) rated the influence of religious leaders on their own citizenship development much more highly than did teachers with no religion. Protestant teachers agreed most strongly that religious leaders have influenced their citizenship development, followed by Buddhist/Taoist teachers, then Catholic teachers, teachers practicing traditional Chinese religions, and finally those with no religion. Traditional Chinese religions existed more as the traditions to worship ones ancestors, to celebrate traditional festivals while worshipping ancestors. No specific religious leaders would be directly related to the tradition of ancestor worship, thus the teachers gave the answers as they had. Teachers, who had no religious beliefs, logically felt little influence from religious leaders.

In addition to the influence of the individual's teachers' religious beliefs, the types of school where the teachers were employed yielded significant results in their rating of the importance of religious leaders on their citizenship development. Teachers at religious schools attributed gave the influence of religious leaders more weight in the development of their citizenship.

Female teachers considered themselves to be more influenced by religious leaders than male teachers did (significance level 0.04). As the number of female teachers in the present sample as well as in the general primary teacher population was by far the majority, stories of religious leaders could be easily brought up as material for citizenship education.

The ANOVA tests for the other demographic factors such as levels of education received, number of years of teaching experiences, subjects taught, and the district which the school was located did not yield significant differences in the teachers' answers.

III) The Development of the Teachers' Citizenship

While it was important to note the teachers' view on the influence of the development of their own citizenship, the survey cannot shed light on how these influences may have come about, nor could they inform us on how early attitudes may have begun to form, to take shape, or what parental behavior teachers perceived to have made a difference on the formation of citizenship qualities. The focus group discussion and the interview data addressed these questions. Questions posed to the teachers included the following:

1. In what way are you a good citizen?
2. Who or what influenced you as you developed these characteristics?
3. How do you see the development of citizenship taking shape, please be specific about the process or events which may have been involved.

With little variance, both the teachers from Sai Kung district and from Wanchai saw themselves as citizens who observed and obeyed the law. This finding agreed with the findings of the chapter on teachers' view of a previous study (Losito, and Mintrop in Torney-Purta et al. 2001) where the rule of law was given very high ranking by the teachers in Hong Kong.

Without universal suffrage and with democratic self rule still a topic of much contention, despite Hong Kong people's strong respect for the rule of law. Apparently, this strong respect for law has not changed since the days of the handover.

In the focus group discussion, many of the teachers who chose to speak first, listed the ways in which they were good citizens in "a matter of fact" fashion:

I agree with Mencius (a student and fellow philosopher-statesman as Confucius, Mencius also had deliberated much in his work on the topic of the development the self), that one should always start with the cultivation of personal virtues or character, then one needs to take good care of ones family, be a good ruler of ones country and finally bring harmony to the whole world. I have always used this type of process to guide my own development. SK 4

Teachers referred to the influence of traditional Chinese thinking about building character from the self. Mencius was cited as someone who advocated for disciplining the “self” and then gradually extending specific virtues to ones’ family, neighbors, country and nation. Thus, teachers were quick to add the importance of caring for others and larger issues like caring for the community. Some teachers also added the importance of voting, participating in elections and demonstrating love for the motherland (instead of just obeying the law, and taking care of the environment and public resources).

The preliminary findings were shared with the focus groups. A few teachers noted the lack of the teachers’ sense of participation, and the need to take up active citizenship duties to monitor the Government’s performance.

Teachers’ choice on priority for developing citizenship showed that they are more concerned about what is happening to them (things of immediate concern to themselves) instead of having a bigger vision for the concern of others in the community. SK 1

Teachers did not point out how students would become “a part of the community” and the sense of involvement as McLaughlin suggested in the maximal perspectives of democratic citizenship (McLaughlin, 1992).

Table 5.2

Maximal and Minimal Perspectives of Democratic Citizenship

Feature	Minimal view	Maximal view
Identity Form/substance	Citizenship seen in formal, legal juridical terms unreflective nationality; static definition	Citizenship seen in social cultural and psychological terms; a consciousness of self as a participating member of a community involving obligations and responsibilities as well as rights and a sense of the common good; dynamic definition
Virtues Private/public	Loyalties and responsibilities are local and immediate; law-abiding and	More extensive focus of loyalty and responsibility; actively questions and extends horizons of duty to include more general and universal

	public-spirited through voluntary activity	considerations. Works actively for justice and social conditions to empower all citizens
Political Involvement Passive/active	Suspicion of widespread involvement; relies on voting for representatives	Full participatory approach to democracy at the individual level.
Social Prerequisites Closed/open	Content with providing citizenship as formal legal status for all	Recognizes that egalitarian status in theory and intention alone is inadequate; recognizes social and economic disadvantages must be addressed if full citizenship and participation is to become real

Source: McLaughlin (1992)

With the exception of a few teachers in the focus group, teachers' view resembled the minimalist view, where citizens respected the law, exercised their voting rights, but abstained from more active political participation. There was a strong sense of duty to among the teachers, as shown in the prime importance that they attributed to family responsibilities. As McLaughlin suggested, much more liberal and political education and actual experiences were needed before the citizens holding the minimalist view could understand the common good. To balance their commitment to the common good with their concern for their own individual rights and entitlement would be a further challenge. Hong Kong was a colony until 1997, and its present mode of governance is still far from democratic; this could explain why teachers' view here seemed minimalist.

One teacher proposed the developmental approach and claimed that for students who were in lower grades (1-3) filial piety should have the emphasis, whereas for higher grades students, a good citizen should possess the ability to think critically as he/she decipher whether the parents' instructions were within reasons. This reflected Lockwood's view (2001) to prioritize civic decency in elementary school, while emphasizing civic literacy in secondary school. From the point of civic education, no teachers raised the concern about need to be educated and to educate students on the importance of democratic participation and skills involved in representing others.

The Teachers' Citizenship Development

Teachers saw the development of citizenship in their own lives as a progressive process. One teacher mentioned with some emotion her parents and grandparents enduring the

hardships of the war and the “evil” of the Japanese invasion and all the darker experiences of China’s (or Hong Kong’s) history. The participants also mentioned religious leaders and ancient heroes. Teachers shared that the negative influences of the media were not as strong when they were growing up.

Members of the focus groups identified their own teachers as important and influential in their development as citizens. One teacher said that when she was a high school student, she took ethics classes. One teacher in her high school took special interest in encouraging students to do volunteer work and took them to help needy people. Other teachers described how their own grade school and kindergarten teachers had influenced them. They said that many of their schools had a hidden curriculum to develop their value system. Specifically, teachers arranged for speakers to talk about their life experiences at assembly time. Topics included “how to face conflict when the life situation was difficult”, and “how to make a decision when life dilemmas appeared”.

While many of the assembly times were boring, my school sometimes had come up with excellent speakers who were able to share their life experiences: about how they took up the courage to quit bad habits, to say no to temptations... A few of my teachers cared for the students so much, they would do extra work, stayed after school and made the effort to go with us to do volunteer work in the community... WC 3

It was obvious that teachers considered these examples as important to the formation of their citizenship.

IV) From Teacher’s Development to Students’ Development

As the project proceeded, it became apparent that knowing about the influences on teachers’ own development helped one to understand how teachers viewed influences on their students’ development. Recognizing that they were greatly influenced by “parents”, “teachers” and friends”, teachers also cited many incidents where experiences shaped their growth as citizens.

In addition to sharing their life experiences, one teacher described a school exchange

program with China. She remarked that emphasis was placed on having the students make a contribution to society and actualize their responsibility to the motherland. She was impressed at how the teachers in Mainland China found ways to implement such education in an intensive manner, by integrating these themes into their lessons. Other ideas included inviting the students to write reports or keep journals, and develop the habit of talking about their experiences.

Writing journal and reflecting about own experience should be a good way to develop their own values and sense of responsibility; we even did that when we were growing up. SK 1

In response to the teacher who shared had enjoyed her visit to China, another teacher hastily added that nowadays, teachers should use less indoctrination and direct transmission in teaching values. According to this teacher, students should be encouraged to read more in school, and reflect on the building up of their own value system.

There seemed to be some resistance from some teachers to what the education authority had been promoting. Hong Kong teachers were the only ones to resist being obedient and conservative citizens. This type of resistance to authority was also found in studies in other countries. According to Lee and colleagues (Lee et al., 2005), teachers from Australia, England, Russia, Guangzhou, Hangzhou also named acceptance of authority and/or of assigned responsibilities as one of their five least preferred characteristics for good citizenship.

Teachers saw the process of citizenship development as a series of experiences, where students were “blank slates” influenced bit by bit as they experienced life through the words and actions of others. Parents could be negative role models; teachers made reference to the shocking local news where mothers and children committed suicide together. Peers and religion may also have positive or negative roles to play. One teacher told the story of a father, after warning his daughter about the possible danger of coming back late, decided to let her go out, but followed her. The young girl was in fact robbed that night and her father was able to record the event with his small video recorder! The tape from the camera became good material for review and education

with the daughter.

The teachers saw the handling of this event as excellent material for values education (avoid going out alone at night, associate with the right kind of people). Teachers saw this to be an excellent way to teach students: to allow them to “decide, even go wrong” and facilitate them to review afterwards.

The teachers were appreciated the importance of using processes and examples in the development of citizenship. The influence of teachers cannot be overlooked; many in the focus groups cited examples where their own teachers encouraged and became examples to them. In contrast, although they said that their parents were their prime influence, there were few examples about exactly how their parents influenced them, with the exception of stories of how their parents worked hard and struggled to provide for the family in times of hardship.

The family and the needs of the children always came first for my mother, you know, in those days, life was extremely hard, and she was the one who made so many sacrifices for the family, she kept us together... WC 5

In both the qualitative Australian study (Kennedy 2003), and Davies et al.’s (1999) study in UK, teachers often mentioned how parents had influenced their development as citizens. Davies cited teachers in England describing their parents as “upright, caring human beings”, “with strong commitment to serve others and motherland”, and they were also generous and kind to others in the neighborhood. The fact that Hong Kong teachers did not mention such specific incidents may be attributed to their parents’ backgrounds as immigrants and refugees, with the exception of how their parents strived hard for the family. These characteristics did not include the qualities of citizenship such as caring for neighbors and the common good of the society.

V) Perceived Threats to Citizenship Development in Students

The third question on the survey was intended to elicit a less personal, more professional perspective. Teachers were asked to assess what factors might impede a child’s citizenship. Teachers were invited to indicate their answers on the same 7-point

scale, in response to 11 suggested threats.

Descriptive statistics were then calculated on the 11 item responses, and then ordered by means. As with calculating perceived influences, the combined percentage of respondents scoring “strongly agree” and “agree” was determined as an additional way of examining the relative perceived importance of items. Rank order by means showing the combined percentage of responses provides a generic profile of the participating teachers’ attitudes by reporting their responses in descending order of importance.

Table 5.3

Teachers’ View on Threats to a Child’s Citizenship

	Mean	SD	Combined response* %
Family conflict	6.20	0.90	82.20
Television and/or films	6.19	0.98	82.49
Social environment	6.13	0.89	79.66
Internet and/or internet games	6.10	1.01	79.79
Negative role models	6.07	0.94	75.57
Peer pressure	6.04	0.96	76.84
Community environment	5.88	0.95	72.03
Drugs and/or alcohol	5.85	1.18	69.69
Unearned material rewards	5.78	1.11	69.41
Sexual activity	5.43	1.17	51.58
Excessive leisure time	5.13	1.28	43.18

*Combined responses columns report combined frequency and percentage of respondents selecting choices 6 or 7. Of seven possible choices, selection of ‘7’ indicates ‘strong agreement’.

The quantitative results here were quite clear. Family conflict with a mean of 6.20 and the combined response of 82.2%, ranked at top of the list. Ranking very close was the influence of TV and/or films, social environment and that of the Internet. These results confirmed the findings of local research. One large study of over 1000 young people studying in secondary schools or older, carried out by the Commission on Youth (1999), revealed that out of the average of 3.9 leisure hours per day, young people between ages of 12 to 24 spent an average of 2.3 hours on TV, two hours on the computer, and up to several hours on DVD and computer games; they spent only about 45 minutes reading the newspaper. Their favorite media were the VCD, LD and DVD (70.7%), electronic

games (65.4%) and the computer (64.1%). Many young people admitted to having idols, like movie stars or singers/musicians with good looks and “charm”. Students were found to spend a great deal of time talking on ICQ’s. Thus, electronic media, internet games and TV programs were seen in a negative light as many teachers shared how today’s young people were driven to follow fashion and expensive fads without much thought. Students spent too much time on online games and media programs, to the point of “online addiction” as mentioned by the teachers in the focus groups of the present study.

Negative role model and peer pressure were both ranked with fairly high mean scores of 6.07 and 6.04. These results reflected the teachers’ view of the importance of peers and role models. Thus, teachers were concerned about the lack of positive role models for young people.

Perhaps because of the students’ young age, teachers saw the perceived influence of drug, sexual activities, and unearned material rewards were seen as less of a threat. The factor given the lowest ranking, excessive leisure time, came as no surprise to anyone in Hong Kong with its strong emphasis on frequent examinations and plenty of homework even for primary school students.

Comparison could be made here in understanding the negative influences’ on students’ citizenship; by referring to the Lee’s (1998-1999) study of secondary and primary teachers from three Chinese cities Lee’s study utilized the same survey with identical wording as the present study for the questions on “threats to students’ citizenship development”. The top perceived threats for teachers in Hong Kong for Lee’s study were social environment, television/movies, and peer pressure. Now, the top perceived threats in this study were family conflict, television/movies and social environment with Internet games and negative role model running quite close to the top too.

It seemed that family relations had become an area of special concern by the present group of teachers in 2005. The teachers’ concern over the increased pressure and conflict at for students at home, plus the fact that many parents were incapable of to serving as models for the students have already been described. The influence of the Internet on young people was more of a concern for the teachers in this study. For the

bottom three threats, the 1998 study showed drugs/alcohol, sexual activity and excessive leisure time, which were similar to the findings of the present study.

Gender and Religious Differences in Perceived Threats to Citizenship

When these perceived threat scores were compared with the demographic data in the beginning of the questionnaire, only two findings with p values < 0.05 were found amongst the types of teachers.

Buddhist and Taoist teachers' mean scores in viewing sexual activity as a threat to the child's citizenship development ranked higher (seeing sexual activity as threat for students' citizenship development), reaching statistical significance. Teachers claiming to believe in the Chinese Traditional Religion also had higher mean scores than Protestant teachers, Catholic teachers, with those with no religion and others scoring lowest for this item. The finding may reflect the view of traditional Chinese (including Buddhists) were conservative about teaching sex and related topics. Thus, schools may need to invite community resources to teach sex education. This type of suggestion made sense especially since the incidence of pre-marital sex is increasing among young people in Hong Kong. The age of first experience in sexual intercourse was found to be around age 13, according to the Family Planning Association. Sex education had also been included as an important topic and as part of the curriculum for General Studies, or personal, health, social education by the Education Commission.

Female teachers had statistically higher scores than male teachers, in seeing all of the following factors as threats to a child's citizenship development: TV and/or film (statistical significance at 0.00 for t test), Internet and/or internet games (significance at 0.00 for t test), negative role models (significance at 0.001 for t test), family conflict (significance at 0.04 for t test), unearned material rewards (significance at 0.005 for t test), and community environment (significance at 0.015 for t test) as threats too.

When this finding was shared with the teachers in the focus group and interviews, some responded by saying that female teachers may find the content of the TV and films, internet games and the hazards involved in the community environment more threatening than the male teachers do. In fact, participant commented that female

teachers might overly concern. One male teacher argued that much useful and important information could be found on the Internet and students should not be discouraged from using the web for educational purpose. The female teachers in the focus groups listened to these arguments with little responses. Two senior teachers wondered if female teachers would be able to encourage students to explore new knowledge or to serve others in their community. Their concern was of course a real one, especially in light of the fact that the number of female teachers in primary schools far surpassed the number of male teachers. No generalization could safely be made here in consideration with the relative small sample size, but this gender issue as associated with perceived threats of teachers deserves more exploration in future research.

Again, the types of schools in which the teachers were employed led to many significant differences in the perceived threats for students' citizenship development:

Table 5.4

Teachers' Perception of the Influence of TV and Films on Citizenship

	Types of schools	N	Mean
TV and Films' influence	Protestant	74	5.28
	Catholic	70	5.36
	Buddhist	47	4.79
	Government	90	4.71
	NGOs	49	5.12
	Private	27	5.26

Significance: 0.025 (T test ANOVA)

As shown in the table above, teachers differed significantly in viewing internet and games as threat (in order of descending importance: teachers from NGO operated schools, Protestant schools, Private schools, Catholic schools, Buddhist schools and finally Government schools, ANOVA significance level: 0.008).

In addition, teachers differed significantly in viewing peer pressure as threat (in order of perceived descending importance: teachers from NGO operated schools, Catholic schools, Protestant Schools, Private schools, Government schools, Buddhist schools, ANOVA significance level: 0.016)

In similar fashion, teachers also differed in their view of negative role models as threat to the students' development of citizenship (in order of perceived descending importance: teachers from NGO operated, Catholic, Protestant, Buddhist, private schools, and Government schools, ANOVA significance level:0. 003).

Other statistically significant difference was in the way they perceived social environment as threat to citizenship development for their students (in order of descending importance: teachers from Catholic, NGO operated, Protestant, Private, Buddhist , and Government schools, ANOVA significance level:0.005).

Finally, teachers differed in their perception of how much community environment was threat to the students' citizenship development (in order of descending perceived importance: teachers from Catholic, Protestant, NGO operated, Government, Buddhist, and private schools ANOVA significance level: 0.017).

In summary, the teachers from the religious based schools appeared to be more sensitive towards the negative influence of environmental factors like, internet, negative role models, and peer pressures. The ANOVA comparison among specific groups of teachers was as follow:

- mean scores of Catholic school teachers were significantly higher than those of Government teachers, with respect to their levels of perceived threat in family conflict to the development of citizenship, significant level: 0.024
- mean scores of NGO operated school teachers were higher than those of Government teachers in seeing internet as threat, significant level: 0.031
- mean scores of Catholic school teachers were found to be significantly higher than those of Government school teachers in seeing social environment and excessive leisure time as threats, (Catholic school teachers agreed more that social environment and excessive leisure time were threats for citizenship development as compared with Government teachers) significant level: 0.004, 0.009.

For each item, the order of response pattern from the subsidized schools may differ but with the Government school teachers holding, in most cases, the lowest mean scores, which meant that the Government teachers were found to have lower agreement in the

view on the items classified as influence/threat to the development of citizenship. Exploration in the focus groups and interviews reflected that Government teachers may be more preoccupied with other priorities as set by the school or by the education authority, resulting in their placing less significance on how these items would threaten students' citizenship.

In sharing the quantitative results of how the religions of the sponsoring bodies seemed to have positive effect on the teachers' strength of response during the focus groups, one teacher shared the following view:

Catholic schools adopted life education as their theme for all schools, thus value based teaching and life education may have been impressed upon teachers of Catholic schools for many years now. WC2

Another teacher from a Protestant school agreed:

The Christian teaching of caring for others, and story of the Good Samaritan had deep influence on the life and ethos of our school. Daily assemblies, worship, opportunities for students to offer services to the needy people in the community began to take roots in our school much earlier than the days of the handover in 1997. While students' responses may vary, all these practices have been our traditions for as long as I have been teaching here. SK 6

It was worthwhile to note that religion of the individual teachers only yielded statistically significant differences results in three aspects of the questionnaire. Buddhist teachers had stronger agreement on the conservative characteristics of citizenship (obeying those in authority positions and carrying out additional duties), saw "sex activities" as greater threats to a child's citizenship, and Protestant and Catholic teachers held stronger agreement on the positive influence of religious leaders in the development of their own citizenship.

The religious affiliation of the schools yielded many statistically significant differences in the views of the teachers in both the aspects of perceived influence perceived threats for students' citizenship development. This showed that school-based implementation, guided by the values and tradition of the school's sponsoring body may have significant influence over the teachers' awareness of students' habits and needs.

Literature reviewed the importance of religion was a "major vehicle" in the implementation of moral education in the history of developed nations (Priestley, 1987, p. 107). Exactly how the religion of a school goes to influence students will be explored in latter chapters of this thesis.

The fact that family conflict was found to be the highest ranked threat to the students deserved more discussion, especially when "fulfillment of family responsibility" was considered the most important quality for good citizenship (Chapter 4).

In relations effect of family on the development of citizenship, the teachers shared numerous concerns on the poor examples set by an increasing number of parents, with respect to the use of foul language, breaking the law while no one was looking, demanding the rights to be served, and to be treated with respect and reference. Many of these examples referred to single parents who were newcomers from Mainland China and living in poverty. One teacher shared:

I found out that my student was taught by her mother to return bullying with bullying and violence with violence in the case when another student began bullying behavior or picked a fight with this particular student. The mother told the student that he should fight back first even before he made the effort to tell the teacher about the incident. How can we as teachers teach the students to resolve differences with peaceful means when parents are using violence as ready tactics to solve everyday problems? SK 7

Other teachers described families that spoiled their children, preventing them from assuming responsibility and making their own decisions.

Teachers had little difficulties in providing concrete examples:

Peer influence: littering and throwing tantrums, crossing the road even at red light
The general atmosphere of the community at large: the consumer's mentality, love of material comfort and money, one that prefers to do less and get more through Luck or Lottery draws. The negative message of the media was especially felt among students of higher grades (5-6), frequent reports on suicide; exaggerated reports even in some better quality newspapers may create negative influence on students. WC 5

VI) Conclusion: Profile of the teachers as citizenship educators

In summary, the results were clear. Teachers considered the influence of their parents to be paramount in their own development as citizens, followed closely by the roles of their teachers, friends, brothers and sisters and other students. The influence of film and TV came only after these influences. Then came the influence from religious leaders, school principals and grandparents and other relatives,. While parents' influence was placed first on the list of influence, teachers saw family conflict as the greatest threat to the development of citizenship in their students. The negative messages from the media were reflected as TV, film and the Internet deplored. Drugs and alcohol, unearned material rewards, sexual activity and excessive leisure time were seen as less important threats.

When the influence on the development of citizenship of students was examined, again the importance of "parents" and brothers and sisters (ranking fourth) were representative of the teachers' view. However, the top perceived threat on the list was "family conflict". Here the teachers seemed to be saying that the quality of family life could either strengthen or weaken a person's citizenship. Despite the great importance attributed to the fulfillment of family responsibility, the teachers seemed to be concerned about the influence of family conflicts and negative influence on the students as citizens. Research has also shown that youth ideation of suicide was also on the rise in Hong Kong's young people (Yip et al., 2004) coming close to their counterparts in the United States and Western nations. Family violence and conflicts were also found to be on the rise, especially in the families with unemployment and among recent immigrants from China (Tsun & Lui-Tsang 2005). The teachers were concerned that

family life affected the quality of the students' relationship with parents, and about parents failing to provide positive influence to the growing child.

The social and political aspects of citizenship seemed to be somewhat rated as less important by these teachers. Factors like "participation in community and school affairs", "patriotism" were ranked towards the bottom of the list. As exemplified by the Chinese traditional saying: "let every household clean up the snow in its own walkway, and stay away from taking care of the snow (or icicles) on the neighbors' roof." Or, perhaps as one teacher explained in the focus group, students in primary school were too young to get involved in world or even community affairs. According to the teachers, primary students should be encouraged to take heed of people and things that were of immediate concern to them first before they gradually became more involved as they grow older in serving others, contributing to community or even getting involved politically.

If these results were coupled with the teachers' reverence for the rule of law, and protection of public property as highly important in qualities for "good citizens" in the focus group, the picture began to emerge of a group of teachers, raised in Hong Kong when it was still a colony, hearing their grandparents' stories of the Japanese invasion, and the Cultural Revolution. Their views of citizenship could classify as minimalist. These teachers may still be having difficulties seeing themselves as citizens of the Special Administrative Region and entitled to self-governance.

If such were the mentality of the primary teachers, they would benefit from additional insights on their upbringing. Teachers might also benefit from a better understanding of supporting the common good and full participation as citizens. These are attitudes and habits related to the development of the citizen's civic dispositions (Leming 2001). Teachers should be nurtured and encouraged, not coerced to discover and enrich their sense of citizenship. Opportunities for participation in day-to-day decision-making about their professional tasks, about the related school functions, and opportunities to join enrichment groups would improve to the teachers' professional and personal growth. These efforts would become valuable for teachers and students alike. This subject will be explored in Chapter 7.

Additional efforts may need to be made to encourage female teachers to take courses and use development opportunities to learn about rights and obligations, citizens' interest in monitoring government, the constitutional process, and participation in civil society. As one male teacher suggested,

Discussion on how to formulate classroom rules, electing of helpers for the teachers to be on duty and other process learning could be used more frequently by teachers to open up more learning experience for students. WC 5

With these efforts, teachers could help students to develop into active and involved citizens. The many statistical findings of the importance of types of school and their religious affiliation on the teachers' view as reflected from their answers to the threats and positive influences of citizenship merit further exploration.

The next chapter will provide practical, research-based information on putting the findings to work, and explains what ought to be done in the classroom and in the school to develop citizenship in students.

Chapter 6 **Teachers' View on What Should Take Place in Schools to Promote Good Citizenship**

This chapter describes what teachers want to see take place in schools to promote the teaching of citizenship. It attempts to bring the research findings onto a more practical level as teachers were first asked to choose the activities they found to be most helpful for students. The focus group and then the individual interviews added more depth to the research.

I) Teachers' View on Helpful Activities for Teaching Citizenship

The teachers' answers to the first three research questions on the teachers' views regarding qualities of good citizens, the relative importance of each characteristic, influences and threats of citizenship development were examined and discussed. The research question addressed in this chapter was: "What did the teachers think should take place in schools to promote good citizenship?"

In the survey, the teachers were invited to respond to the following statement: "I believe that the following classroom activities would be helpful in developing a child's citizenship". As in previous questions, the teachers expressed their responses on a 7-point scale ranging from strong agreement to strong disagreement (see Appendix 1 for the full questionnaire).

Table 6.1 illustrates the profile of what the teachers in the sample identified as the potentially most helpful activities.

Table 6.1

Helpful Activities for Learning Citizenship

	Combined response		
	Scores	SD	%
Problem-solving	5.99	0.91	74.79
Traditions and values based	5.97	0.85	78.81
Current events based	5.97	0.80	75.42
Worldwide needs and responsibilities as	5.93	0.85	75.14
Learning and activity on local government and	5.86	0.83	71.19
Activity allowing students to work on a community project with community	5.55	1.02	55.93
Activity using constitutional and legal processes	5.36	1.03	48.02

*Combined responses columns report combined frequency and percentage of respondents selecting choices 6 or 7. Of seven possible choices, selection of '7' indicates 'strong agreement' with the item.

According to the statistical analysis, most teachers in the sample perceived the top five activities as helpful, while the latter two activities received both a lower mean score and a lower proportion of teachers who saw them as helpful. The activities will be discussed separately below with reference to both quantitative and qualitative data.

a) Problem-solving Activities

Problem-solving activities had the highest mean score (5.99). This indicated that teachers thought that problem-solving activities were most important for the students' learning.

The teachers were asked about practical ways of strengthening the students' problem-solving abilities in the classroom. The teachers who taught grades 5-6 urged allowing students to ponder citizenship in the way that Kohlberg suggested that they ponder dilemmas and choices (1975, 1976). The use of examples from the news, discussion on practical topics, and a more informal style could all enable students can tackle problems more confidently.

One teacher described what it had been like to teach fifth- and sixth-graders about facing problems and learning citizenship. Each student was expected to keep one area of the class in clean and tidy.

b) Learning about Values and Traditions

Activities in relations to tradition and values were chosen as important and very important by 78.1% of the teachers and the scores pressed close to the top scores (5.97). This meant the greatest number of teachers strongly agreed or agreed with the benefit of values- and traditions-related activities for developing students' citizenship.

Most teachers agreed that teaching citizenship as related to values and traditions should use the students' reality, and daily experiences. Sharing from teachers included creating a situation (e.g. like reflecting on the experience that some students were given to visit elders and other vulnerable people in the community) in the classroom to stimulate students' reflections on the importance of traditions and values like filial piety and caring for the elderly. Still another teacher saw as some authors (Baldis, 2004; Shelby, 2003) suggested, the importance of using classroom rules to show students the importance of respecting others, compassion, and concern for the welfare of others.

Teachers stressed "walking one's talk", facing up to problems, understanding the reasons behind school rules, developing self regulating behavior and keeping discipline even if no one is watching. One teacher with over 30 years of teaching experience said in the individual interview:

One should be concerned about whether students are truly putting into practice important values and commitment when no one is around to monitor them. There can be big gaps between ideals and practice, and practice under supervision or monitoring and those done in private. Sometimes, both teachers and students alike have the knowledge of what is right but lack the faith to carry out what's right. SK 2

Another teacher opined that it would not be a bad idea to integrate values and education into music, religious studies, and social studies even English and Chinese lessons. It was important to give the younger students specific situations in which they could develop their reflective abilities. The teachers concurred that process learning, journal writing, reflection and incremental development were all important in the teaching of citizenship. Students responded well to all these methods given encouragement from teachers and the opportunity to share with other students.

c) Teaching Problem-solving and values through the Self Development Course in Primary Schools

In 2003, the education commission instituted a course on Self Development and Growth in all primary schools. In this course, the Guidance and Counseling Section of the Government suggested coursework in self-understanding, self-management, interpersonal relationship, and problem solving. In order to probe the data about teaching values and problem solving, several experts were interviewed. They were four senior teachers, one vice principal (also a senior teacher) with many years of experience coordinating extra curricular activities with social service agencies, and a social worker who was in charge of teaching and preparing curriculum material for the self development course (See Appendix 4.)

Interviewees shared that if individual teachers were serious about preparing for lessons, they could use fairy tales, role play, and discussion of ending to open ended stories, or real life choices, and current affairs, in teaching the self development course.

The Education Commission linked self-development for primary students with civic and moral education (Curriculum Development Council, 1996). Unfortunately, many experienced teachers or school personnel only prioritized on presenting the positive message and values to students: health and happiness were used as themes instead of guiding students to think about the more serious topic of life, death, or the challenges of life (e.g. unemployment, what subjects to choose, what career to plan for future), for fear of additional workload and provoking an undesirable reaction from the students resulting in emotional reaction or unstable behavior.

Teachers were hesitant to broach the sensitive discussion topics pertaining to life and death. They feared a repeat of a wave of suicides among Hong Kong's students in 2000. The prevalence of suicide ideation among young people varies from 17% to 30% in Hong Kong, not too different from their counterparts in other large cities and in the U.S. In Hong Kong as in developed countries, suicide among young people was linked to drug abuse, use of inhalants, unhappy home situation, depression, and early sexual activity. (Yip, PSF et al., 2004).

Teachers today are facing extra burden because it has become common practice these days for the society to solve problems by casting blame. With the Education Commissions pushing for parents' involvement, teachers are worried about complaints and appeal cases from parents. Thus, topics touching on life, death, and the taking of one's life (although such reports were readily available in the media following occurrence of such incident) were all but avoided deliberately by teachers. (Social worker with teaching duties, WC)

In the schools where the interviewee was employed, the topics touched on personal understanding, social and group skills, studying, and choice of vocation. The content on the value of human life and mental health was designed to remain cursory for these reasons.

Other limitations in the reality of daily classes included the inadequacy of time allocated for each class: personal development classes lasted only 25 minutes; some of these classes were spent in assembly, or library time, as arranged by the particular school principal or management team. The older the students, the more easily bored they were with these classes. Teachers or social workers received little supervision or support from the school leadership. All that administrators wanted was for the teachers "to get on with the teaching so that parents, principal had little complaints and were satisfied".

For fear of being the target of blame or complaints, some teachers are over concerned about protecting students, even when the school wished to carry out service learning projects outside of the classrooms. They hesitate to let students work hard, try out their own decision, even from making mistakes. To give an example, teachers even try to "protect students" as they are being "saved" (or kept) from getting dirty, or wet when they clean up the park as volunteers on a rainy day! (Principal with many years of teaching experience, WC)

Most of the classes were handled by form teachers, (in the sample for the quantitative study only 4 social workers participated, which was only 1% of the entire sample) since one social worker might have to serve in two schools, he/she was primarily expected to handle the adjustment difficulties of individual students through providing

individualized counseling. Thus, social workers would only be able to share at the most a small part of the teaching duties even for the new self-development course. The form teachers' major emphasis would be on students' obeying school rules, and earning better grades; this trend of using form teachers would likely continue in the face of the threat of cutting down the number of classes (and the number of teachers).

The interviewee claimed that little co-ordination was carried out between the teachers of the self-development course, the social workers, and other development programs targeted to help students with their growth and development. These programs focused on building resilience in students who had adjustment and behavioral problems; such programs consisted of adventure-based counseling.

Inherent in the skills related to problem-solving was obviously questioning skills, and there were obvious concerns by the Education Commission recently as courses on how to ask questions were promoted and offered to teachers. In the focus groups teachers discussed this type of Government initiative.

The interviewees claimed that due to their heavy workload most teachers handled the personal development course by using conventional didactic methods, with little attention to the students' process learning or questioning skills. In order to ensure that the planned curriculum was fully covered according to schedule, teachers were found to draw conclusion or give summaries quickly using the teaching methods that they were most accustomed to, in their handling of teaching citizenship in the classrooms.

Questioning skills, experiential learning are all good ideas, putting them into practice, into a class of nearly 40 student, which only lasts about 20 minutes, is quite another matter. SK 2

The social worker would teach a few of the classes while the teacher just walked around to keep the discipline. There were plenty of examples where teachers and social workers were at odds with each other; teachers tended to see social workers as unstructured, chaotic, unrealistic and incapable of disciplining their students in and out of classes.

In summary, given the time constraints in the Self Development course, although the Education Commission offered many courses in the use of questioning skills, the use of experiential methods, teachers found it hard to put such methods in practice in the classrooms. There were also frequent disagreements between the teachers and the social workers who wanted to stress the sharing of feelings, non-directive exploration, reflection on values and process learning. Therefore, much more work needed to be done to bridge the gap between what was considered best practice and the present reality of teaching citizenship in the classroom.

d) Knowledge-based Activities

Rather high scores were also given by teachers for knowledge-based activities, current events, worldwide needs and responsibilities, government and history. These aspects of citizenship were considered as quite important (Table 6.1): the first two had combined agreement responses of more than 75% of teachers in the sample. The high mean scores of 5.97 and 5.93 indicated that the teachers considered the knowledge-related activities of citizenship were nearly as important as the problem-solving and values-related activities.

It was also useful to note that both the scores and the percentage of teachers, who thought these activities were helpful, were high and quite close together. This indicated the teachers considered that all these activities to be meaningful, important and useful for the students' learning. These activities encompassed the skills and knowledge aspects, the global aspects and the traditional (values-based) aspects of citizenship.

Similar to the findings on the problem-solving activities, experiential and interactive teaching methods were seen to be effective in helping students gain knowledge of citizenship. One teacher shared the good experience of using newspaper cuttings and current events (e.g. like the suggestion made by some citizens of boycotting Japanese goods as reported in the media at the time of the interviews) to discuss what a person could do to contribute or to show love and allegiance to the mother country.

e) Community Project

Slightly lower in the ranking were the teachers' views on the importance of community

project and constitutional and legal processes. Although the mean scores were still relatively high, (5.36 to 5.5) a considerably smaller percentage of the teachers (in the range of 50%) agreed with the importance of these activities in the primary school classrooms. Maybe some of the teachers considered such activities to be unsuitable for young students, or maybe this could reflect teachers' discomfort with teaching the political process. These will be explored below.

A senior teacher pointed out Government's effort in civic and moral education by promoting service learning and other experiences in helping students to recognize and embrace their national identity. One program was named as 'best practice' as it organized service experiences for students to travel to China. As the students were shown the needs of their counterparts in poorer regions of China, it was hoped that they would enlarge their perspectives and knowledge of their motherland. Furthermore, students would develop self-confidence and patriotism. According to the interviewee, the students in the service program needed to develop good character, good study habits, self-confidence and the ability to reflect.

In order to make available more opportunities for serving others, other groups of students were led to come up with ways to serve the elderly or other needy people in the school's district. Or, they may join groups, like the Red Cross, Scouts, and Community Youth Corps in school, or the volunteer programs operated by Non Government Organizations or neighborhood youth organizations. Other teachers might design service projects for the rural (or mountain) area children in China. Reflection and evaluation were done subsequent to the project so that the students acquired knowledge on China's current needs and about more global concerns like poverty or the distribution of wealth and resources. The senior teacher interviewed was quite pleased with the school's success in this area; the Education Commission had invited the school by to present its success to the district educational forum.

A great deal of work went into the project, planning, coordinating, and taking the trips into China... We were able to do it because this school had a long history of enabling students to serve as volunteers in the community. Students were even able to learn to love the students in China as well as the many thinking skills in planning, evaluating the project, as they had actually done it all with their own

ideas and initiatives. WC 5

In the focus groups, teachers did comment that students should develop a better understanding of self and their immediate surroundings first. The smaller percentage of teachers (55.9%) who agreed with the importance of their students becoming involved with the community-based project with the involvement from community leaders might reflect the teachers' skepticism of political figures, including leaders in the district where the school was located. This was again, accepted by the focus group because the election of district board councilors and even Legco councilors were relatively new experiences. However, the media did not always report favorably on these community leaders or political figures.

These findings were consistent with Lee's study (1999), which compared the views of Hong Kong teachers with those of teachers from two other Chinese cities. The less popular classroom activities, according to the teachers, were participation in community projects and activities that related to legal processes, exactly as found in this study. A previous study had shown how Hong Kong teachers had relatively high respect for the rule of law (Torney-Purta, et al. 2001) in the teaching of civics. In this study, teachers mentioned that the rule of law in Hong Kong was very important. Could it be that teachers in Hong Kong, while holding high view on the importance of the rule of law were less trusting of their own political leaders? Thus, when would teachers consider it appropriate to start teaching the students about constitutional and legal processes, if not in primary school?

The one demographic factor emerged as statistically significant as the background information part of the citizenship questionnaire was compared with the teachers' answers could be helpful here. Fourth-, fifth- and sixth-grade teachers saw activities using constitutional and legal process as more helpful in developing a child's citizenship than first-, second-, and third-grade teachers did. Furthermore, teachers teaching higher grades saw activities in which the child looks at worldwide needs and responsibilities as more helpful. Teachers here seemed to agree with adopting a developmental perspective in citizenship development as proposed by some authors (Kohlberg, 1975, 1976; Lockwood, 2001) and with the Confucian world view of the incremental development of a moral person, beginning with the personal, ethical aspects

while one is young and expanding to family responsibilities, and to one's influence in the society as one grows older.

In the focus group, teachers shared on the ways in which they involved the students in learning about legal and constitutional processes as they also shared example for best practice.

One teacher cited an example of encouraging the students to elect a class representative as the Legislative Council or District Board did. As students experienced the election process, they learned to represent others and to keep their election pledges in.

Students could be quite ready to participate, and it was surprising how they were able to choose representatives who would really serve the class well. I felt I have also learned a lot from the activity. WC 3

The teacher who was sharing this "best practice" was quite satisfied with his effort while others in the groups simply listened. Their lack of response was quite apparent. The researcher wondered whether they were uncomfortable (with organizing such experiences or whether they believed that they were not qualified to handle similar topics.

In summary, experiential approaches were welcomed for developing values, problem-solving abilities, learning about the knowledge and skills of a good citizen and serving others in the community. However, the teachers' responses to implementing legal and constitutional processes and activities with the involvement of community leaders were more divided. While some were enthusiastic about teaching students about legal and constitutional processes in the classrooms; others were not.

II) The Use of the Whole School Approach and Informal Curriculum

In line with the suggestion from the literature (Silcock & Duncan, 2001), and studies from other countries, (Kennedy 2003; Lee, 2005) the importance of using the whole school approach in teaching citizenship could not be underestimated.

a) Best practice of using the whole school approach

One teacher in the focus group related the experience of the whole school's involvement in a "rich and poor feast", where the content of EPA and social studies were coordinated to illustrate the gap between rich and poor people and rich and poor countries.

In this event, representatives from different grades were selected by a combination of volunteering by individual student, voting in the class to choose their representative under the guidance of the teacher. The representatives drew lots to determine whether they would participate in the feast as a poor country or a rich one. When the day of the feast came, all students sat on the floor or at lavishly prepared tables in the school hall. They were either given hardly any food or a buffet style meal, while other students looked on. The experience was then reviewed after the feast time or during class time where students were invited to share their feelings and observations, with the teacher serving as resource person. The impact was generally felt among students as they were found to participate with great interest and enthusiasm.

We all had the nicest time, students' interest in global events were suddenly raised, and all were excited, even the parents were excited too. WC 4

Other teachers cited events in which a yearlong theme was chosen for the whole school. Teachers planned activities that were coordinated with the formal curriculum in subjects like Economic and Public affairs, religious study, and even Chinese and English subjects. Popular topics were appreciation, life education, and environmentalism. Teachers from Catholic schools noted that Life Education had been selected by their Order as the school's theme for several years.

Literature outlined a way in which the tradition and related practices of the sponsoring bodies can influence the teachers' effort to teach values and citizenship through the school's ethos. The ethos of the school encompasses the nature of relationships within a school, the dominant forms of social interaction, the attitudes and expectations of the teachers, the learning climate, patterns of communication, management styles and ultimately, the school's underlying philosophy and aims (Eisner, 1994, Jackson, et al., 1993; Power, et al., 1989; Schaps & Solomon, 1990; Taylor, 1996). A Government officer of Wanchai district shared in an interview:

Religious schools have advantage over non-religious schools in teaching values. Many religious schools are explicit about their religion, worship, assembly are all regular parts of school life. When religious teaching got linked up with values, well, those values will create an impression on students. For government schools, the policy was towards diversity and tolerance, proselytizing about personal religion is generally not encouraged. (Government Officer, WC)

Lickona (1991) argued that the moral climate of the school must be consistent with the values taught through direct instruction. It was no great surprise to find that the tradition and religion of a school was important in its moral climate or ethos. Literature described “putting life education as the emphasis in the school policy statement, such topics would be important in forming the hidden curriculum” (Halstead, 1996, p. 4). This approach was described by one of the teachers in the focus group:

As teacher for our schools, we are encouraged to care for our students as brothers and sisters in the family of God. We put in extra time to organize fellowship, extra curricular activities where they could be affirmed and encouraged as an individual. (SK 6)

Furthermore, establishing the general direction for the whole school through its religious or denominational affiliation, regular assembly and worship time, encouraging and arranging for students to serve the needy in the community, inviting guests to share their life and religious experiences (as mentioned by the participating teachers in the focus groups)...all of these could exerted significant influence and support for the teachers in teaching values and citizenship.

b) Integrating classroom learning with the whole school approach

Another teacher cited the use of volunteering as an attempt to strengthen students' commitment to civic responsibilities. Her Government school had much experience in using the whole school approach to promote citizenship and values education. These included movie nights, fundraising variety shows, carnivals to promote school rules and

regulations, citizenship day camp to promote civic duties, visits to history museums, and “pen pal” programs with students in their sister school in mainland China.

This school instituted an exchange program where the students of Hong Kong spend a week in China and then hosted students from China. The program continued for two consecutive years. The school also attempted to pick a theme, like environmental protection and thanksgiving or appreciation. Various subjects would elaborate on this theme for the entire month. The teachers reported that the students enjoyed these activities. At the same time, there were alternative opinions:

I can't deny that we learned a great deal from the trips to China, but I have grave reservations about teaching citizenship by indoctrination and one way transmission of value here in Hong Kong. SK 7

In summary, much individual teachers, subject masters, and principals used the whole school approach in promoting citizenship education. Most in the focus groups supported these whole school events. Again, from the variety of reactions from the participants of the focus groups, the researcher could not help but wonder whether this type of good practice would spread to all schools in Hong Kong. Dissemination of good practice in civic and moral education can be quite difficult, since schools needed to respond to many in the course of the education reforms. As a senior education officer of one district mentioned with regret:

The four initiatives or emphases in the education reforms were: the use of information technology, promotion of the reading habit, and the use of project learning in teaching and civic and moral education. Of the four, it was easiest to note the progress of the information technology as computer can be installed and put to use in a short time. Along with the school based management policy, the choice of emphasizing on which initiative for a school was left to the principal and the school governing committee and many picked the Information Technology as emphasis for the relative ease to see results. For the initiatives related to civic and moral education, much more training and concrete guidelines need to be supplied to teachers to help them sort out and assess their own progress in this rather new area. Yet, civic and moral education is so very important for the students, maybe

even the most important of all? (District Education officer, Sai Kung)

III) Assessment and Evaluation of Program Effectiveness

As reflected in the focus groups and individual interviews, assessment for students' learning and performance in citizenship and values, like the students' evaluation method for most other school subjects were carried out by teachers' observation of students' behavior plus the assessment of the students' homework. The content of these assignments included the material covered in the classrooms and assignments where students were asked to write journals on what they have experienced.

Teachers opined that no examinations should be given on the content of civics or values. Both the teachers in the focus groups and those who were interviewed hesitated to recommend formal examinations in these subjects, as they would only instill hypocrisy. Teachers much preferred the use of observation in assessing program effectiveness. One senior teacher stated that a helpful way to assess students' learning was inviting students to keep a journal. Teachers could then get to know the way students approached a topic and how their thinking evolved. Guidance and support could then be provided as appropriate. This method of guiding and sharing with students to think through values on their own, with a strong emphasis on the self directedness, readiness, and participation was strongly preferred by teachers in both the interviews and the focus groups. These methods of teaching citizenship and values were echoed in literature (Crick 1999; Dewey, 1939; Silcock & Duncan 2001).

Like the findings on the Hong Kong sample of teachers (Torney-Purta et al. eds. 2001), teachers in the focus groups of the present study split over the need to make civics and values an independent subject to ensure its effectiveness.

Documentation, Assessment Criteria/Tool for Good Citizenship in Students

In the focus groups, the teachers reiterated their views on what they saw as important characteristics of good citizenship in students: social skills, ability to express their views, ability to solve problems. These were important characters to develop in primary students. Teachers stated that some schools would list these in specific categories on the report card. Other schools used a separate attachment that was sent to the parents. Still

another teacher claimed that in her school, a certain number of conduct goals was picked and ticks or circles were used to indicate a student's performance. These results would form part of the students' overall assessment for that semester. Some teachers were also planning to share such recording with parents on a regular basis. An alternative would be to have students set personal goals, in a specific subject, attitude, or behavior. A half-year review could be carried out and the results shared with parents. Teachers agreed that the learning of values and citizenship was hard to assess; there was the obvious danger of students behaving well at school but not at home.

These observations resembled those of civics teachers from other countries (Davies et al., 1999; Kennedy, 2003). The importance of the experiential approach, the importance of helping students to integrate service learning, the struggles of accurately assessing students' progress in citizenship were all common concerns. As noted earlier, some of the teachers in the focus group were fully aware of the importance of serving as examples or role models for their students in learning about values and citizenship. Others remained quiet during the discussion, and some were mildly skeptical. These mixed responses could reflect the teachers' differential readiness to experiment with these approaches. Another possible reason for the mixed responses could be the lack of clear guidance from the Education Authority about ways to assess students in the area of citizenship education.

Since 2002, the Education and Manpower Bureau (EMB) did suggest the use of a tool named APASO, which contained validated, translated, multifaceted tests on the students' EQ, moral development and civic awareness. This tool was suggested for use with students in grades three through six. Teachers mentioned their awareness of Education Commission's suggested use of APASO to record and document the improvement of students' emotional quotient or affective learning, but the teachers who talked about APASO did not mention whether such a tool was being put to use on a wider scale, and whether there was plan to utilize APASO for officially assessing the teaching of moral and civic education. There was also no mention of whether the Education Commission had planned to evaluate the present programs and the additional resources, should such programs be proven effective.

The interview data, similar to the findings of the focus group, cited the availability of

the APASO scheme which was translated, into Cantonese, validated and passed to the teachers through the schools in the format of online and resource package by the Education Commission. However, given the very heavy workload of teachers and the fact that no concrete guidelines and time frame for the implementation of civic and moral education were suggested by the Government, it would be quite unlikely that this scheme would be widely or systematically used to evaluate values and citizenship education.

Teachers' involvement in encouraging students' good citizenship was seen to be very important. In line with both Chinese tradition of the role of teachers and research and literature in the subject, (Halverson, 2004; Narvaez, 2002) the teacher's example was seen to be "a must" in developing students' character. One teacher shared that a good teacher should:

Even to take the time to encourage and guide the students in the hallways and not only in the classrooms... WC 2

Setting priority in the direction for citizenship education

There was little agreement about the most important theme(s) for developing values and citizenship in Hong Kong. Should the sector concentrate on the knowledge and skills aspects of citizenship and focus on problem-solving skills as the teachers in this study suggested? There were no signs of systematic evaluation to guide future efforts, other than the fact that the programs carried out were popular with students and parents. Focus group data did point to the simultaneous presence of many approaches with great variety in emphasis: from encouraging the students' ethical conduct to helping the students experience world poverty.

As mentioned in Chapter 4, male teachers seemed more interested in assisting students in understanding legal/political processes like election and representation. One male teacher was eager to describe the importance of using experiential learning to bring out the themes of participation and representation. He mentioned allowing the class to elect representatives, and the success of organizing a feast to demonstrate the gap between the rich and poor nations.

The female teachers, however, seemed to be more interested in building up the students' family life and social skills and many of them appeared worried about the increase in the number of students from broken homes. These differences of view in the focus groups reinforced the finding from the quantitative study. These differences threw light on the needs to offer different courses for male and female teachers.

Differences were often found between the views of teachers teaching higher and lower grades. As most teachers preferred to use observation as assessment for students' improvement in citizenship, it would be difficult to identify and document progress, or the effectiveness of a specific approach to teaching citizenship. This dilemma made the accurate assessment and dissemination of good practices more difficult. An experienced principal with teaching duties observed:

Civic knowledge and learning are mostly limited to head knowledge, because even the teachers do not grasp the real points on service learning. The system remains exam driven, with little emphasis on using reflection to develop the attitude and values of students. In many schools, citizenship education can too easily assume a secondary role: little follow up, little accountability, not like the academic subjects, which require benchmarking and statistics. SK 1

IV) Emerging Issues and Conclusions

The findings presented in this chapter are consistent with results from the survey and from the literature. The teachers voiced their concern on the skills and knowledge aspects of teaching citizenship, while insisting on the importance of values and traditions. Results from the quantitative data showed that the teachers saw the importance of teaching values and citizenship. Their high scores for the seven types of classroom activities showed the teachers' acknowledgement of the fact that as future citizens, students needed exposure to and training in many types of knowledge, skills and experiences.

In the focus groups, the teachers were eager to talk about what they considered as best practices in their classrooms and in the whole school. Although many of the activities

involved experiential learning, worldwide concerns, service learning, direct application of constitutional or election processes, it would be worthwhile to explore if such activities were indeed planned systematically, and used regularly or just as an occasional highlight.

The relatively high score assigned by the teachers to problem-solving activities and values and tradition-based activities in the survey showed that the teachers would like the students to master the foundational skills and attitudes aspects of citizenship. According to Lee, (1999) even though Hong Kong had been a colony of England for over 150 years, the teachers still retained the “Chinese ness” in valuing the teaching of Chinese tradition and values. On the other hand, teachers were also aware of the importance of developing skills and knowledge in students as citizens of a large metropolis such as Hong Kong.

The importance of helping the students gain adequate knowledge of citizenship was reflected by the closeness of the scores given to various knowledge-based activities in the classrooms. Teachers’ lower ranking and lesser support for the items “participatory activities in the community” and “legal and constitutional related activities” may reflect their unwillingness to expose primary students to political processes. As reflected by the lower scores on the factor obedient and conservative citizens, this may reflect the teachers’ mistrust of authority, and skepticism about the political process, including Government or political figures. A lower ranking was also allocated to activities that involved legal or constitutional process for another study using a comparable survey instrument. The study examined a large teacher sample from across England. (Davies, et al. 1999)

This UK study found that teachers had little trust in the political process and 11% of the sample even had a negative attitude (scores below 3.5) towards the conservative characteristic of citizenship. This percentage was much higher and the scores much lower than that of the sample in this study, although the teachers also saw the conservative and obedient characteristics of citizenship as the least important of the 13 in the survey. However, 80% of the UK teacher sample rated social concern characteristics as more important than other factors. Thus, the teachers in the UK identified with the idea that a good citizen expressed concern for the welfare of others,

was guided by moral and ethical principles and had tolerance for diversity. Somehow, the importance of these social concern characteristics, and the overall altruistic concern for the present study appeared to be less strongly felt by the Hong Kong teachers. This will be elaborated on in the conclusion chapter.

The results from interviews and focus groups in this chapter showed that some members of the focus group were enthusiastic about using experiential, whole school approaches like electing representatives, constitutional processes and citizenship in teaching. Others thought that the focus should be on teaching basic rules and encouraging students to show mutual care and love towards one another.

The interview and focus group data revealed more in-depth discussion about what went on in the classroom. It was worthwhile to note the lack of systematic evaluation, the absence of a clear sense of priority and guidelines to allow the teachers and the principals to build systematic progress in citizenship and values. Whether or not citizenship-related topics were covered in the regular curriculum was left to the discretion of principals and the sponsoring educational bodies in the spirit of school-based management, which in itself was an emphasis of recent educational reforms.

Giving teachers clear, systematic guidelines for citizenship education was a real challenge for Hong Kong's Government. In addition to the difficulties of reaching consensus on priority in citizenship education, plus the lack of documented experience, it was indeed difficult to formulate clear guidelines for the direction of development in the area of citizenship and values education.

To create additional complications, two sections of the Education Commission were charged with spearheading the teaching of values and citizenship. The Guidance and Counseling Section has formulated policy for the personal development course for primary students since 2002. However, the Civic and Moral Education Section of the Commission has put emphasis on service learning, social participation and the formation of political identity. Examples of good practices were identified and displayed, but less could be ascertained about the potential impact of each of the approaches if they were to be applied in the schools of Hong Kong.

The next chapter will examine teachers' view on the educational preparation and resources for teaching citizenship.

Chapter 7 **Teachers' View on the Educational Preparation and Resources for Teaching Citizenship and Values Education**

I) Teachers' View on the Educational Preparation and Training for Teaching Citizenship

This chapter will explore Research Question 5: what do the teachers think about their own preparation and training for teaching citizenship in light of the focus group and interview findings? The chapter will start with a review of the socio-political background of citizenship and values education in Hong Kong with an emphasis on what happened in curriculum development since the handover in 1997. This material will allow the reader to understand how today's teachers had been prepared for the challenges of teaching citizenship. Then, the teachers' answers to questions on training and professional development from the focus group and individual interviews will be presented. In addition, the views of education officers and a lecturer in the Hong Kong Institute of Education were included to throw more light on teachers' need for training for teaching citizenship. Their views will then be analyzed with reference to the literature and previous studies.

a) Curriculum Changes of Civic and Values (Moral) Education in Hong Kong

Morris (1999) and Lee (2005) distinguish four periods in the development of citizenship education in Hong Kong: 1945-1965, 1965-1984, 1985-1996 and from 1997 to present. In Hong Kong, as in other cities, the design of the curriculum during these periods responded to the city's historical and political development.

There were constant changes in emphasis in the teaching of civics related subjects; thus, the laying of a systematic foundation was weakened, as teachers were not provided with a step-by-step training and development. Instead, with time, subjects were added in citizenship without much review or integration with previous curricula. Moreover, most of the curriculum was aimed at the secondary education level, with civics viewed as a cross-curricular subject to be immersed into all subject areas.

From the 1950s to 1990, Education Regulation 98 made political discussion taboo in the

classroom. This regulation had been introduced to limit the spread first of Kuomintang ideology, and then of Communist political movements. Students were thus encouraged to accept an abstract Chinese identity, to shun politics and to accept the status quo.

b) Guidelines and Resources Provided by the Government

After the change in sovereignty, the HKSAR government education reform were key areas of reforms. Thus, new courses were implemented, as guidelines and initiatives were haphazardly rolled out.

With the preparation for the handover beginning in 1985, Regulation 98 was rescinded in 1990. The Curriculum Development Committee planned to publish an annual Civic Education Bulletin and to provide Guidelines on Civic Education. Such guidelines were designed to include critical examination of social, moral, and political issues and to develop a sense of Chinese national identity and patriotism (CDC 1985, 19). In 1996, the guidelines were refined to include civic and values education as cross-curricular theme along side moral, sex and environmental education. The document reiterated the importance of cultivating nationalism and patriotism.

The latest guidelines in curriculum reform documents relating to citizenship and values education was the Basic Education Curriculum Guide (2002): now, moral and civic education was one of the four key tasks of the curriculum. National identity education was a main area of development in moral and civic education (CDC 2002).

c) Other Factors Influencing the Curriculum Development

Since Hong Kong's return to China, the Education Commission had developed many resources to promote the teachers' qualifications to teach citizenship. For example, there was the provision of up-to-date, free curriculum packages produced both by the Civic Education Resource Centers and local social service agencies. Despite the availability of these resources, the frequent changes in policy resulted in the emphasis on teaching outcomes and qualifying examinations. These initiatives were very taxing on the teachers. Research showed that the heavy workload had exerted unbearable pressure on the morale and sense of mission for the teaching profession (Cheng 2004).

Both Lee and Kennedy pointed out (in Lee, Grossman, Kennedy, et al. 2004; Kennedy 2003) that classroom teachers determine the content, quality and direction of citizenship education. The teachers of Hong Kong, however, were not trained in the policy objectives of teaching citizenship.

Against this background, the findings of the research about the teachers' view of their needs on training and resources as connected to the teaching of citizenship in primary schools will be examined.

II) The Need for Teacher Preparation, In-Service Training and Use of Resources

In the focus groups, the teachers were invited to share their views on pre-service training, in-service training and resources for teaching citizenship. The exact wording of the questions will be listed in Appendix 2.

a) Pre-service teacher training

The teachers claimed that civic education was offered as an elective in the Hong Kong Institute of Education. Civic was hardly a popular elective, among teachers. Those who had taken this elective had little to say about its content or whether the elective had been helpful to their teaching. Other teachers in the focus group remarked that:

Civic and Moral Education was set out to be a cross curricular theme, which means that all teachers in the school may need to take up its teaching or think of ways to integrate such content in their own subject. In this light, the elective at the teacher's college can hardly be enough preparation. If the teaching of civic and moral education was to be taken seriously, how come not everyone needs to take it in order to qualify to teach the subject? WC 7

With Hong Kong's declining birth rate, the Education Commission had undertaken centralized planning; this resulted in the closing down of many under enrolled schools. Teachers admitted that they had been led (or made) to choose specialized training in academic subjects, like math or languages...or risk not being able to find suitable openings when they graduated. As values and citizenship was a cross curriculum theme instead of an academic subject, seeing the need to prepare oneself for future

employment from the pragmatic point of view, teachers often did not want to specialize in this area which had no standardized test or a designated place in the curriculum.

One lecturer who taught EPA in the Hong Kong Institute of Education agreed with the difficulties in popularizing the elective on citizenship and values education among the students:

Teachers are fully aware that most principals and schools' emphasis are on academic subjects, in order to allow the school to gain or maintain a good name so as to be continually attractive to parents. Civic and Moral education would most likely be given second or even third place in the priority setting of the schools. With no benchmarking and panel follow up and little chances of being hired as a specialized teacher in teaching citizenship (since citizenship do not yet have a confirmed place in the Hong Kong curriculum) how would the elective on such topic be attractive to student teachers?

As no statistically significant differences were found with regards to their answers to the questions in relation to their training in, the level of training did not seem to have any significant influence on the teachers' answers. One lecturer at the Hong Kong Institute of Education pointed out that an increasing number of primary school teachers had completed their bachelor's degrees. Teachers in training as well as those who had received their teaching certificates were apprised of the importance of getting proper qualification by the recent moves of the Government to set up timeline for teachers to complete their "qualifying exams" as well as the move to "close down schools".

b) In-service teacher training

Even though most teachers concurred on the importance of teaching citizenship and values in schools and in the continuous Government investment of money and time in offering in-service training courses, these courses were not attended with enthusiasm. The reason for this was attributed to the onerous workload of teachers.

A policy was established in 2003 to carry out the personal development course for the primary students, but teachers were not equipped to teach such courses. In-service training courses were frequently offered by the Hong Kong Institute of Education, the

universities. The Education Commission also offered courses in personal counseling, guidance, personal and social education.

Although that these courses were usually offered free of charge and teachers could obtain release time to take them, the participants in the focus groups were not enthusiastic about attending. Those who had attended were not sure about whether these courses had met their teaching needs. Nor were the participants and interviewees able to determine whether these courses were widespread enough to improve the teaching of citizenship in primary schools.

For some of the schools, social workers were hired to assist with teaching, but the teamwork between social workers and teachers was often not easy to establish. As shown in the present sample, only a handful of social workers (0.5%) were involved in teaching the personal development course. Thus, there was little collaboration between teachers and social workers in the classroom. Teachers contended that they needed more training in teaching the personal development course. Teachers were also unsure as to how exactly to use hidden curriculum to deliver citizen and values education.

The problem is mainly one of a lack of time and energy... the packages as put out by the Education Commission, may be wonderful, but we just do not have the energy to put these into practice on a daily basis... One social worker for one primary school was hardly enough manpower to share with the teaching, not to mention the need for social workers to handle the counseling needs of many students with personal or family problems... SK 6

Finally, a few participants from the Wanchai district complained of the problem that they had in finding suitable material in promotion of national education.

Another possible source of support is the curriculum expert who was hired by the school to help us develop a more integrated curriculum. It would be nice to have that person help us with either in-service training or actually putting the ingredient of citizenship into the various subjects. Two things worry me: the fact that this person was hired with a short term contract makes me worried about how long he will be able stay with the school, and second, even if the principal

would agree for him to help us with integrating citizenship, he would not likely be very experienced in this topic as citizenship is a new challenge for us all. SK 1

The Sai Kung district teachers agreed, claiming that although there appeared to be many teaching packages produced by Non-Government Organizations, through the sponsorship of the Committee of Civic Education or Quality Education Fund, teachers insisted that suitable materials were not available for primary school students.

c) Other sources of support for teachers

In addition to the policy guidelines on civic and moral education and the implementation of “the personal growth and development course” under the auspices of the Counseling and Guidance Section of the Education Commission, senior teachers mentioned the Government’s policy paper on education reform to establish moral and civic education as one of the four main thrusts of the education reforms. These four areas were promoting reading habits in students, project learning, information technology, and civic/moral education.

Disagreeing with Lee’s (2005, p 223) observation that “the 1996 Guidelines on Civic Education had taken positive steps in facing the political change by providing definite conceptual framework and various methods for implementation”, the interviewees continued to say that clear establishment of core values, framework for the implementation of civic and moral education in Hong Kong were not widely available.

Furthermore, the interviewees echoed both Leung’s (Leung & Chai 1999) and Morris’ views (2003) that there was a general lack of evaluation for present efforts of both the primary and secondary schools. Strong leadership and clear direction in monitoring this “seemingly important area” of civic and moral education were also lacking. Morris attributed these inadequacies to the chronic weaknesses of the Government since the colonial regime. The weak sense of legitimacy of the present SAR Government could be attributed to the fact that it had not been established by universal suffrage. The pressure of this situation increased the fear among government officers who were desperate to avoid upsetting the opposition and views in the political parties in the areas of patriotic education as well as civic and moral education.

In answering the questions on whether evaluative research was being carried out for the purpose of monitoring progress in moral and civic education, one principal who had taught citizenship for years remarked:

Yes, “best practices” publicized here and there are available, either in the district level or by the Quality Education Fund annual exhibition of good practice in the education sector. The Education and Manpower Bureau seemed to value the importance of whole school approach and life event learning, as well as service learning as methods of teaching civics. But there seemed to be no clear policy or determination to insist on any of these approaches or making good practices more widespread, setting out a definite time line or making the implementation of moral and civic program mandatory or at least as, priority. Rather, the EMB left the specific implementation to the leadership of the school principals and their teams as set out in the policy on school based governance. Is this realistic to expect the schools to lead with their own efforts? SK 2

Thus, in the course of trying to make the school more attractive to parents, principals or sponsoring bodies were keener to persuade the teachers to raise their teaching standards, especially for the languages and mathematics. Other schools placed more emphasis in catching up with Information Technology. For many schools, the importance of moral and civic education can easily be missed. One of the education officers shared, for the schools that had chosen to assign high priority to teaching moral and civic education, other sources of support were made available by the Education and Manpower Bureau to support their efforts. Such resources included:

- “Seed money” for pilot projects: Schools could apply for a pilot, time limited project where a curriculum specialist would be placed with the school from the Curriculum Development Institute (CDI) of the Education and Manpower Bureau. The CDI officer would be responsible for working with two to three schools simultaneously. He/she would negotiate with the schools as to what themes (e.g. character and moral as focus, health as focus or environmental concern as focus ...etc.) and grades would be appropriate for that school. He/she would then co-ordinate and divides the work with the existing teachers of that school to try out various approaches (e.g. circle time, service learning approaches) for implementing

moral and civic education. It is hoped that best practices could be developed for further dissemination but no specific plans to do so have yet been confirmed or announced.

- In addition to receiving support from CDI in the form of a school-based curriculum expert, the school could also apply to the CDI for approval in deploying a Principal Subject Master in Curriculum Development PSMCD, (equivalent to vice principal, with at least three years of teaching experience and one year of study in curriculum development) to work with the teachers. He would be responsible for incorporating related content on civic and moral education into the existing formal and informal curriculum. This was also to be a temporary post. Nevertheless, the person could be helpful in curriculum organization and integration.
- Finally, mention was made of the publication of a policy on the development of moral and civic education for Hong Kong. The guidelines contained many detailed suggestions on the division of labor among school personnel, the use of resources and whole school approach and even suggestions to put forth specific contents for certain grades, but there was no mention of the time frame and the plan to show the Department's determination to implement the guidelines in a step-by-step, systematic manner. (Basic Education Curriculum Guide 2002)

d) Gender differences in receiving further training

As mentioned in Chapters 4 and 6, a subtle difference of view in prioritizing the elements of 'good citizenship' was found between male and female teachers, with the male teachers being more open to new knowledge and approaches and the female teachers being more critical of the Internet/media, and being more influenced by religious leaders.

One principal observed that the differences highlighted the need to offer courses for female teachers. He suggested widening the experiences of primary teachers. He suggested additional training in the use of the Internet or media to strengthen the students' sense of responsibility to the community and even to the world. Finally, many teachers in the focus groups agreed that teachers needed a better understanding of legal and constitutional processes so that such processes can be introduced to the students in lessons on values and citizenship education.

III) The Need for Co-ordination within the Government in Implementing Moral and Civic Education

The other area that might affect implementation of moral and civic education in the primary schools was the lack of co-ordination. Teachers and officers who were interviewed made the interesting observation that the new personal development course for primary students had been placed under the auspice of the Guidance and Counseling Section and moral and civic education was placed under the Curriculum Development Institute. Officers from the Government tried to explain that the former placed emphasis on the adjustment and personal growth of the students.

Logically, such an initiative was the concern of the Counseling and Guidance Section. However, as Lockwood (Lockwood 2001) pointed out the importance of adopting a development perspective in civic and moral education, the approach was to provide “civic decency” education for earlier grades while cultivating civic literacy in older students. Instead of aiming at a “quick fix” and instant cure, methods of teaching civic and moral values should progressively and systematically engage students in more sophisticated debate and analysis of their own values.

The emphasis of the personal development course and its teaching objectives were examined. Many areas of potential overlap could be identified as the content was compared to the guidelines for moral and civic education. Both sets of guidelines adopted a developmental perspective, beginning with the self and expanding to social and family life of the students. Several authors, (Heater 1990; Janoski 1998; Lee 2001) held the view that the aspects of citizenship which could be “private and public spheres” (Janoski 1998) and “identity, civil, political, social citizenship and civic values” (Heater 1990). Lee (2001) agreed that the various aspects of citizenship education were connected with and built on one another. Tu (1985, p 113) saw self-transformation as a communal act between two interrelated assumptions: the self as center of relationship and the self as a dynamic process of spiritual development. Lee argued (2001, p.224) that “self cultivation can be considered a fundamental quality for effective citizenship and self and collective realization, instead of being dichotomized, are mutually reinforcing to each other”.

The Hong Kong Government had demonstrated its agreement in adopting the many-faceted, developmental perspectives in looking at citizenship. The name “personal, social, health education” was used to direct moral and civic education that was also used as a cross-curricula theme in both high school and primary school.

Taking into account the Hong Kong Government’s concept of citizenship and given the insights from literature, it would make sense if the officers responsible for the personal development course could work within the same section or at least be working in close, regular co-ordination with the section of the Curriculum Development Institute (CDI) in guiding moral and civic education. Such were the views of the teachers and principal:

Citizenship encompasses so much, to the new teachers; the content can be rather vague and nebulous. It would certainly help if the Government clarify the scope for us in a developmental perspective, step-by-step fashion...subsequently our schools can set goals to match these developmental stages by designing interlocking content from lower to upper grades so as to strengthen the impact of such content for the students WC 3

Unfortunately, such was not the case: teachers experienced no built-in measure to allow for strong co-ordination and joint planning between the Moral and Civic Section of the CDI and the Guidance and Counseling Section of the Education and Manpower Bureau (EMB). The culture in the EMB had a strong sense of bureaucracy and rigid division of labor among departments. Each section just dealt with its own area of work with little co-ordination with other sections in a joint planning or long term fashion. To complicate the matter, co-ordination effort was also needed with the newly formed Regional Educational Offices, which were charged with supporting the initiatives of development for specific districts of the Special Administrative Region (SAR) of Hong Kong.

It was not difficult to understand the difficulties the teachers faced in teaching moral and civic education in the classrooms. Teachers acknowledged that while the Government had made much effort in preparing and making available resources, packages and courses, many hurdles were still blocking the way. Due to the fast pace and frequency of the educational reforms, the structure of EMB itself might need to be refined if such support and new initiatives are to meet the needs of the teachers. What

about the possibility of learning from experience through assessment of existing efforts?

IV) Evaluation and Assessment of Existing Practices and Efforts

Considering the fact that moral and civic education was such a new area for Hong Kong, ongoing assessment and research and subsequent “fine tuning” in the curriculum or teaching methods should have greater impact on the students.

As mentioned in Chapter 6, teachers acknowledged the importance of ongoing assessment for students; many of them had mentioned creative methods (journal writing, systematic observation, student’s self report to be included in regular written report for the academic subjects) while most disagreed with the use of traditional examination for assessing students’ learning about citizenship. Some teachers were saddened about the lack of Government-offered training and more formal introduction in standardizing the use of APASO to measure and document the learning of values, problem-solving and human relationship skills in students. In the individual interview, a lecturer from the Hong Kong Institute of Education commented on the program’s effectiveness:

Unfortunately, efforts today as always are placed on teachers’ completing qualifying exams in academic subjects, like English, math and Chinese. There is little insistence on the use of APASO. There also seemed to be little specified learning outcomes as put forth by the EMB on civic and moral education to date. Thus, there are few evaluative studies on existing or ongoing practices in teaching moral and civic education. So, even if there is the willingness or enthusiasm from principals or the teachers, how would one document or disseminate good practices in such a way that would bring about policy changes and impetus in the area?

Many interviewees believed that the Education and Manpower Bureau was pushing through too many reforms in too many areas. The problem of teachers’ stress had been pointed out repeatedly by academics and by the Hong Kong Professional Teachers’ Union. The teachers’ deteriorating mental health, depression and suicide were all well documented. This research showed the lowest mean scores that teachers attributed to “acceptance of delegated responsibility” and “following the instruction of one in supervisory position” as important qualities of good citizens. One could also recall the

results of the survey that showed that teachers from Government schools held the lowest sets of mean scores for nearly all the questions. Interviewees interpreted such findings to reflect teachers' discontentment and disillusionment towards Government initiatives and leadership. One interviewee even pointed out that the Government did not seem to see the need to motivate teachers to teach citizenship. The voices of teachers were not collected, respected and considered in the implementation of reforms.

Despite the fact that the EMB repeatedly shared with the public through public service announcements that results of the education reforms took time as did the planting of a tree or the growth of a boy into manhood, the Bureau did not show the same patience and planning when it came to the pacing (frequency) and the designing (quantity and quality) of the reforms, little reference was made with reference to the voice and capacity of the teachers. WC 3

Rutledge et al. (2001) held that in addition to identifying, teaching and expanding from a "core knowledge program", the democratic principles and values that manifest each day in the lives of citizens could hardly be taught. Such civic education involved both knowledge and affective content; thus, citizenship education can only be "caught" by students from their daily experiences from citizens and the ethos of the surrounding community. One wondered, when the teachers' morale, teachers' trust for the government were all low and as teachers themselves felt helpless as citizens, how would they be able to "pass along" their experiences by sharing their experience to create a suitable ethos for students to develop their own sense of citizenship?

One disappointed academic from the Hong Kong Institute of Education summed up her views on the teachers' needs:

It's sad to see the fragmented style of how the EMB carries out the education reforms since the Handover of 1997. Government seemed to be guided by negotiation with various political groups rather than with professional knowledge, systematic planning, inspection of implementation with respect to clearly set out direction and learning outcome and evaluation. Little use was made of evaluation and feedback of consultation from the ones who are closest to the student.

Teachers' own views of how they have done with respect to citizenship education

were neither collected systematically nor at regular intervals. Thus, the views of the teachers have not been well utilized to steer towards, or to fine tune lasting direction for the reforms with the goals of meeting the long-term needs of HK students. (Lecturer, Hong Kong Institute of Education)

Silcock and Duncan (2001) pointed out that if the education system increased its use of standardized tests en route to performance benchmarking, as well as skills gaining towards economically prized activities, the teaching of things like values and citizenship would become all the more difficult to carry out in the school system. Very similar trends and prioritizing are operating in today's Hong Kong. Unfortunately, although many in the education sector also recognized the importance of students' involvement, the examples of teachers and the importance of school ethos in building values, these ingredients were not being used to full effect in order to benefit the students

V) Conclusion and Teachers' Suggestions on Professional Development

Teachers had reservations about the low priority accorded to civic and moral education by the Government, as reflected by the inadequacies in preparing teachers both at the pre-service and in service levels. In terms of resources, investment in preliminary research and development of possible instruments in measuring student's learning in values and citizenship were carried out. However, the implementations of full coverage for resources and of ongoing research to guide the future direction in citizenship education were found to be inadequate.

Most of the teachers claimed that they would agree to the importance of counseling and guidance skills to face their daily challenges. This was because they encountered the problems of family problems, conflicts and needs of the students with behavioral problems. In order to meet these challenges and improve their own mental health, they knew that they would need skills and knowledge along these lines.

Thus, this research showed that primary teachers' view on teaching civic and moral education tend to stay on a micro-skill oriented level. Civic rights, concern over the common good, participation in the community, understanding and experiencing the democratic processes, learning to represent others and the place of election seemed to

be missing from curricula and were of less concern to many of the teachers in this study. Therefore, would it be reasonable to expect these teachers to encourage students to become involved in and to understand the social and civic aspects of citizenship?

However, teachers in this research were fully aware of the option of working with social service agencies. Non-Government Organizations were active in helping families in conflict. Such ongoing co-operation is encouraged and even facilitated by the Government through project and funding arrangements. Because of their differences in background, training and attitudes, teachers and social workers found it hard to work together. Social workers were traditionally better trained in using experiences to effect learning while teachers relied on lesson preparation and instruction. Teachers and social workers who had a genuine interest in giving priority to the needs of students would find ways to collaborate better.

Interviewees suggested that teachers needed to put more priority on professional knowledge and not just on acquiring subject knowledge. Teachers should take a holistic approach to upgrading themselves through pre- and in-service training in how to teach values, to be more open to reviewing their own life history and how they acquired their values, and to become more sensitive to the needs of the students in Hong Kong. Some teachers thought that teachers could acquire a balanced view of the importance of micro-emphases such as counseling skills and more macro-concerns like civic duties and responsibility, democratic and political processes in order to help students to learn aspects of citizenship. The implications and more detailed recommendations deriving from the discussion will be covered in the concluding chapter.

Chapter 8 **Conclusions and Recommendations**

This chapter will first summarize the major findings to answer the research questions. Discussion and recommendations will follow each summary to provide specific suggestions in response to the findings.

Recommendations include:

- Recommendations stemming directly from each research questions and the data collected in this study,
- Recommendations of a broader or more general nature including how a school may begin to put emphasis on citizenship education and
- Recommendations of a broader nature of how the Government of Hong Kong may begin to take measure for full implementation of citizenship education in the schools.

The broader recommendations will be presented as Appendix V because although these were good suggestions from particular interviewees in the qualitative study, these did not flow directly from the survey questions. However, all recommendations are drawn from the findings of the research and include useful suggestions from the participants. The suggestions for future research will be discussed in the latter part of this chapter.

The sections following Table 8.1 will discuss the findings, recommendations, and direction for future research according to each of the research question and areas as outlined.

Table 8.1

Summary of Issues, Key Findings, Recommendations and Areas for Future Research

Research issue	Key findings	Recommendations for schools	Recommendations for EMB	Further research
(1) qualities of a good citizen	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 80% ranked family responsibility first • obedient and conservative aspects: lowest ranking. • skills and knowledge aspects ranked highest 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • build on existing view of teachers to set objective for building all round citizens, explore ways to strengthen altruism, (concern for the common good) topics related to civic education • to start initiatives on building knowledge and skills aspects of citizenship in students as teachers suggested 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • With research and teachers input: set policy guideline in this area. • Respect for individual and collective, balance between rights and responsibilities: with clear concepts: civic education balanced with moral education • Specific goals and learning outcomes to be set up for citizenship education. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Study on the effectiveness of the existing efforts for primary and secondary schools in building qualities of good citizens • Repeat this research with a larger sample of primary school teachers or secondary school teachers
(2) Key Influence on development of citizenship	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • parents, teachers, friends, followed by media • family conflicts ranked highest as threats to citizenship development • internet and media seen as negative influence 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • develop parents education, mentoring program, and media education to build citizenship in students • obtain help from CDI, social service agencies for the above goals • help teachers to understand their own growing up as citizens, to support their effort, relieve their stress. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • make citizenship education priority and long term objective • provide additional support (policy as well as finance) for teachers to allow teachers to build and develop stronger/closer relationship with students, to serve as examples/mentors for students 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Explore how: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • the ethos of schools, the religion and tradition of schools and the use of the whole school approaches could influence the implementation of citizenship education

<p>(3) Useful activities for students</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • problem-solving activities followed by traditional/values-related activities ranked highest • lower ranking allocated, with only 50% of teachers supporting activities which involved legal or constitutional process 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • to strengthen the caring and appreciation atmosphere (use of positive ethos) in the school, use of whole school approach for teachers as well as students. • Process learning, journal writing and reflection by students were all supported by teachers 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • strengthen coordination of sections and districts to share, document and study good practices of schools • consider introducing courses on democratic societies and processes associated with democratic decision making through participation (topics related to civic education) so as to encourage teachers to place more emphasis on students' learning to participate, representing others... 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • How widespread are the use of experiential approach, use of service learning, • Research to document how important do teachers hold "Process learning" to be? • Explore how the ethos, the religion and tradition can be utilized to optimize students' learning
<p>(4) Influence of teachers' backgrounds (gender, religion, and schools where they are employed) on views of teaching citizenship</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • religious teachers attributed more importance to the influence of religious leaders. Buddhist and Taoist teachers saw sexual activities as a more important threat; female teachers saw TV, films, internet, negative role model, family conflict, community environment as more important threats • the religion and traditions of the sponsoring bodies was related to stronger agreements of teachers for many areas of teachers' view teaching citizenship. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • allow female teachers more exposure to the positive use of internet, encourage more community participation • explore how to use the religion and traditions of the sponsoring body to develop/support citizenship education programs. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To provide for the different needs for training for teachers according to differences in background, in the areas of gender and religion beliefs. • Explore in what ways and through what means exactly do the religion and the traditions of a given school influence the ethos of the schools • explore how the ethos of the school may positively influence the teachers' view as related to the teaching of citizenship 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • teachers' differential response strength related to the many aspects of teaching values and citizenship, can it be concluded that their strength of response would be positively related to effort in teach these subjects? • can effort be positively related to effectiveness of teaching?

<p>(5) Teachers' professional development</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • for pre-service training, no specific qualification course was required for teaching citizenship, • for the in-service training teachers lacked enthusiasm due to heavy workload and qualifying examinations for academic subjects. • general lack of useful teaching packages in teaching citizenship • lack of framework of implementation, systematic evaluation • more interest in micro skills, • more concerned about immediate surrounding and family, instead of concern about the affairs of the wider community. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Encourage teachers' participation in community affairs and caring: serve as examples to students. • Explore on how to build up a structure to listen to the voices and experiences of the teachers as ongoing implementation of citizenship education to give meaning to and increase their participation. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pre-service level: set clear policy for making citizenship a regular subject requiring allocated class time and specialist training • In service level and other sources of support: slow down the education reforms, set up guidelines for social workers and teachers to work together. Develop more useful resource packages for teachers in the primary schools. • Publish policy with clear outline of division labor, use of resources, whole school approaches, specific teaching objective for particular grades... to ensure citizenship education's implementation in a step-by-step fashion. • Teachers begin to understand more about his/her own values and growth process, and the ferential effort? Making the sponsoring body to develop citizenship education programs of its citizenship education would be participatory aspects of citizenship. • Encourage the use of Internet for positive development. • Courses on civic education: topics on civic rights, political literacy 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Study on how the strength of agreement of teachers in teaching citizenship is related to the effectiveness of teaching citizenship (and vice versa)
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Answering the Research Questions with Findings

a) The qualities of a good citizen

To summarize, the teachers' ranking of the importance of the 13 qualities of good citizenship reflected a Confucian' view of moral development. The Chinese saying of "disciplining self, care for family, rule the nation, and bring harmony to the world" represents the Confucian framework. A person is expected to begin with personal, moral and ethical behavior, then extent to family responsibility, to welfare of others, and finally to wider knowledge of the community society.

Over 80% of the sample ranked family responsibility first in the qualities of a good citizen. While the teachers agreed that all 13 qualities were related to good citizenship, there were no negative scores and that the mean scores were quite close together. The qualities "acceptance of an assigned responsibility" and "acceptance of authority of those in supervisory roles" received the lowest relative ranking.

Teacher responses indicated that primary student should acquire knowledge (current events, government, needs of world community) and the basic skills like problem solving, making informed choices, and asking questions. The duty to take care of one's family was also an important requirement.

The combined sources of data indicated that the teachers would like to see primary school students to act like good citizens. Factor analysis found that teachers valued the development of "skilful, informed and dutiful citizens". In order to actualize the ideals of a good citizen, students have much to learn and many skills to acquire.

In the focus groups and interviews, teachers were glad to note that critical thinking training, questioning skills, analytical skills and skills to make choices were all proposed for incorporation into the curriculum by the Government. The teachers may also have needed training in these aspects because they complained that they were being pressured by the Government to implement many programs for students.

The factor analysis showed that two factors had emerged from the teachers' answers. One was the knowledgeable and dutiful citizen. This factor showed the teachers'

concern for teaching students' roles and duties especially to their families in addition to the skills and knowledge that enable them to become good citizens. It seemed that the teachers were concerned about both knowledge/skills as well as duties/role aspects of citizenship.

The other factor was the conservative and obedient citizen. Similar to other studies using the same survey instrument (Davies et al., 1999; Lee, 1999), teachers saw the acceptance of delegated responsibility and the deference to people in authority as qualities that citizens should have. Again, as with other studies, this factor was accorded a lower ranking than the first factor.

Most teachers in this sample rated the moral and ethical behavior, concern for the welfare of others and community participation slightly lower, and the acceptance of authority and assigned responsibilities lowest in importance of characteristics for good citizenship. This finding differed from Lee's (1999 and 2005) findings where he found that Hong Kong teachers ranked the social concern aspects of citizenship (concern for welfare of others, moral and ethical standard) as very or most important. From the aspect of civic education, this finding may point to the need to intensify training for both teachers and students in their concern over the social perspective or the "common good" and even concepts of how democracy works in society, in order to balance the strong concern over duty to the immediate family. However, similarly great importance was found by Lee's study for the knowledge aspects of citizenship, and lower scores were similarly given to the factors of obedience and conservative characteristics of citizenship as in the present sample.

The difference could be because this sample consisted of only primary teachers, had more female teachers, or that Lee's study was carried out earlier. However, many teachers in the qualitative study did show their enthusiasm for promoting students' participation. They shared their experiences in encouraging students to participate in service learning projects, leadership development and volunteer work.

Teachers were happy to remark that although some schools had initiated such programs even before Hong Kong's handover to China, they were glad to see that service learning projects now had the benefit of policy support from the educational authority. As a

result, such programs may be becoming more widespread and opportunities for sharing best practices among the schools were helpful in enhancing program effectiveness for the students' benefit.

Finally, more should be done to allow teachers to widen their own experiences and strengthen their participation in school, in curriculum design/integration, and in the community. Subjects touching on legal and constitutional processes, the rights and obligation of citizens, global view of the world should be put forth for the teachers' consideration. Teachers agreed in the focus groups and interview that current event and experiential approaches were important to develop citizenship in students. Furthermore, as in Lee's study (1999), the teachers in this study had a negative disposition towards obedience as a citizenship construct and were found to be skeptical about accepting responsibility.

The great majority (86.5%) of the teachers in this sample saw the importance of values education and citizenship education (81.2%) while a slightly lower percentage (66.3%) saw the importance of implementing values education in schools. Female teachers gave higher ranking than male teachers did to all three items, while other demographic variables like district, religion, level of qualification and years of teaching experience did not seem to affect their ranking of the qualities of citizenship.

In the debate on which aspect of citizenship should have priority over the others, scholars began to note the possibility of all these pieces as interlocking rather than as mutually exclusive or needing to be put in order of priority. Lockwood (2001), proposed that when teaching younger children it may be more important to emphasize civic decency. For older youth, more efforts should be spent on civic literacy, which includes social awareness and political involvement.

In this research, teachers seemed to see civic decency as including skills and knowledge, caring values towards family and others. Their deep concern about the well being of family, and of affairs in their vicinity could be the logical influence of their own life experience, as suggested by Lee (2005). The qualities "moral and ethical behavior" and "concern over the welfare of others" were placed quite high on the list of important

qualities of citizenship. However, teachers placed “participation in community and school affairs”, acceptance of an assigned responsibility, and “acceptance of authority of those in supervisory roles” at the bottom of the list.

With the teachers’ lower priority being placed on the social concern and participatory aspects of citizenship, how would the schools go about promoting a balance between caring for oneself and one’s immediate family and caring about what’s happening to the neighbors, those who were in need and the importance of the common good? Certainly the foundation of compassion needed to start with the care for a student’s classmates and neighbors. Erikson (1968) suggested that interaction and relationship with others, which were increasing in depth and scope, were important for a person’s development of identity. Youniss and Yates (1996, 1997) saw the importance of young people having to struggle through conflicts, to find adults and special situations to relate with, and to gain service experiences in the community in order to achieve their own sense of identity and growth. Following from Erikson’s theory, Cote stressed the need for young people to develop competence in self- and social identity tasks, to face the challenges of the self in integration and differentiation, roles in productive work, worldview, and intimate affiliation. As a result, the young person would gradually achieve both self and social identities and would find his/her niche in the community (Cote 2005).

Primary school teachers should lay such foundations.

Recommendations

Teachers saw the importance in training students to be good citizens. However, teachers need support in order to do this. Thus, the recommendations are:

Build on existing view of teachers to set objective for building well-rounded citizens

Schools can begin to set objectives for building citizenship by following the teachers’ suggestions to strengthen the knowledge and skills aspects of citizenship in students. Teachers can be encouraged to understand the importance of developing well-rounded citizens by including respect for individual and collective and by balancing rights with responsibilities. Programs can be developed to strengthen students, especially in understanding the situation of the needy, expressing concern for others, discovering and

striving for the common good and participating in the community.

With research and teachers' input, the Government can set policy guidelines in this area.

Specific goals and learning outcomes can be set up for citizenship education; evaluation can then be done to guide future initiatives.

While the teachers' priorities for developing students were quite clear, the Government's role was to formulate policy and guidelines to bring about progress in this important area. Specific goals and learning outcomes based on the teachers' view as well as other sources, like experience/resources from other countries, evaluative studies of past effort would all be helpful in documenting helpful approaches ready for dissemination and wider application. Recommendation for follow up researches would be discussed in a latter section of this Chapter.

b) The Development of Citizenship: Influences and Threats

Teachers considered the influence of their parents to be paramount in their own development of citizenship. Other important influences were teachers, friends, siblings and other students. The influence of media (film and TV) came only after the influence by these people who had close relationship with the teachers as they were growing up. Then, the teachers named the influence from religious leaders, school principals. The influence of grandparents and relatives was seen as the least important.

It was worthwhile to note that while parental influence was first on the list, the influence of teachers and friends was almost as high. The increasingly negative messages from the media were reflected as TV, film and the Internet were mainly as threats to the development of the students' citizenship. Drugs and alcohol, unearned material rewards, sexual activity and excessive leisure time were considered to be less important threats by primary school teachers.

These results as placing the importance of "parents" (ranking first in the list of influence) and brothers and sisters (ranking fourth) showed the importance of family in citizenship development. However, in the perceived threat section, at the top of the list was "family conflict". Here the teachers seemed to be saying that the quality of family life

was important both to build up a person's citizenship and to threaten its development. Teachers seemed to be worried about the widespread deterioration in family life among students, as reflected by their everyday experiences in the classrooms and by the persistent increase in divorce rate, the rising incidents of family tragedies and violence in today's Hong Kong as found in local research studies (Chan 2005; Tsun, Lui-Tsang 2005). Family violence and conflicts were frequently found, especially in families with unemployment and among recent immigrants from China (Tsun and Lui-Tsang 2005). It seemed the teachers were concerned about the lack of familial support for students and the danger of parents failing to provide positive examples to their children.

In exploring their own and students' development as citizens, this group of teachers rated the social and political aspects of citizenship as less important. Factors like "participation in community and school affairs" and "patriotism" were ranked towards the bottom of the list. When teachers named their parents as "examples for good citizens" as they were growing up, they described their parents enduring many hardships and working hard for their families without citing examples of parents caring for society, or even for the immediate neighborhood. Following their parents' influence and view of citizenship, teachers seemed to be saying that a person should concentrate on faithfully carrying out his/her prescribed roles and responsibilities first and foremost; less attention was to be paid to the interest of the wider society. As one teacher explained in the focus group, students should be encouraged to take heed of people and things which were of immediate concern to them first before they could gradually become more involved as they grow older in serving others, contributing to community or even getting politically involved.

If these results could be juxtaposed with the teachers' respect for the rule of law, and protection of public property as these were named as first and foremost in qualities for "good citizens" in the focus group, the picture seemed to reflect the teachers' minimalist view of citizenship. Teachers related to their parents' examples as "good citizens" when they cited incidents from their parents' past: parents were described as "hardworking, taking responsibility for the family, persevering through hardships", while they are to avoid law breaking, each family is to take care of its own interest and look out daily to preserve its own (or the family's) benefit in the most pragmatic manner. These teachers may not yet see themselves as citizens in society with the tasks and challenges of

self-governance (Lee, 2005).

Societal Influence as Threats and the Challenges for Citizenship Education

With reference to the findings of this research as well as the local research on teachers' burden and challenge in teaching citizenship, Silcock and Duncan (2001) was again found to be helpful. These authors concluded that values can best be taught under the conditions with students' voluntary commitment; through transforming experiences that appeal to the students; values as modeled by the teachers; and finally, values, which are consistent with what, they experience in society.

The Education Commission of the new SAR Government made reforming the education sector a major initiative. Despite all input from the public funds and the frequent efforts of the government to implement a whole series of reforms, including service learning, the use of the life event approach, character education through core values, a course on self-development in the primary school, the morale of the teachers was overlooked. How would teachers find the space and energy to model values to the students? Silcock and Duncan concluded that:

It would be difficult to teach civics in an age where the system has increased interest towards standardized tests, benchmarking performance and teaching skills towards economically prized activities. (Silcock & Duncan 2001 p 254)

Silcock and Duncan (2001) described a discouraging situation in the UK for citizenship education. Challenges were low status for the subject of civics, examination- driven instruction, and performance- or market-driven debates about how to teach values and citizenship in a pluralistic society leading to a lack of consensus. England and the United States had some advantages in that they had longer histories of citizenship education, better documentation in their experiences and constitutions, and political structures which safeguarded the principles of democracy, equality, participation and autonomy.

Certainly these same challenges and more are found in the Hong Kong today. There is also the influence of the market-driven, big business and commercially oriented media and the wider society's concern for freedom of expression. The present government, under careful surveillance of Beijing and the pressure from diverse constituencies, has found it hard to spearhead unified policies, especially when such policies aroused frequent public dissension (Professional Teachers Union, 2002, Cheng 2004). Such characteristics in Hong Kong had led to many double standards in legislation for adults and young people. Smoking, gambling, soccer betting, viewing pornographic material and sex are all out of bounds for those under 18 or under 16 while the newspapers are frequently filled with reports of dishonesty, fraud, sexual promiscuity and criminal acts by the adult population.

It would be easy for young people to be puzzled and even to rebel if they were exposed to such reports every day. Therefore, if the mistrust of authority and passive aggressiveness' temperament were still present in the teachers' minds, the teaching of values and citizenship would be even more difficult. Considering the many negative aspects and influences from the society, the sponsoring bodies may be able to play a supportive role. The influence could be preserved and even extended through the cultivation and creation of a sense of mission, a connectedness among people, or communication pattern in carrying out the daily work of the school in a caring and encouraging atmosphere. This ethos would be essential to citizenship education from the viewpoints of both students and teachers.

Recommendations

Develop parents' education, mentoring program, and media education to build citizenship in students, obtain help from CDI, social service agencies for the above, to relieve their stress and to encourage the efforts of teachers

Following from the teachers' view on the importance of both parents and teachers as an important influence on their own and students' development as citizens, it is recommended that both the school and the Education Commission make an effort to work with parents to involve them in nurturing the students' growth. Money and other type of support (partnering in joint programs with social service organizations) could

also be made available to ease the burden of teachers so that they can build a relationship with and serve as models for their students.

Teachers need more opportunities to see the importance of their own participation in the schools, in that their opinion and views were sought after and taken seriously. This approach made an effort to enlist the teachers as citizens. Along with courses in self-awareness, teachers may welcome the opportunity and find it challenging to grow in citizenship along with their students. With actual experience, the teachers will broaden their view of “good citizens” as including more concern for the wider society, and with more active participation in and say in the society’s development.

c) Useful Classroom and School Activities for Promoting Citizenship Development

Teachers expressed concern for teaching the skills and knowledge aspects of citizenship in addition to traditions and values-related activities, while supporting other aspects. Results from the quantitative data showed that the teachers saw the importance of teaching the various aspects of values and citizenship. Their high scores for the seven types of classroom activities showed the teachers’ acknowledgement of the need for students to be exposed to and educated in many types of knowledge, skills and experiences as citizens.

Many teachers described their use of experiential learning, worldwide concerns, learning through community service, and even the direct application of constitutional or election processes. However, it would be worthwhile to determine whether such activities were indeed planned systematically and used frequently or just as an occasional event.

The relatively high score allocated by the teachers to problem solving, and other skills and knowledge related activities showed that the teachers would like the students to master the foundational skills and attitudes of citizenship. High ranking was also given to traditions and values-based activities. As Lee analyzed (1999) even though Hong Kong had been a colony of the UK for over 150 years, the teachers still saw the importance of instilling Chinese tradition and values in their students.

The importance of giving the students knowledge was reflected by the closeness of the scores that the teachers allocated to knowledge-based classroom activities. Teachers' lower ranking for participatory activities in the community and legal and constitutional activities may reflect their reluctance to expose students prematurely to political processes. This lower ranking for community and legal/constitutional activities, coupled with lower scores on the factor of obedient and conservative aspects of citizenship may reflect the teachers' own mistrust of authority, Government or political processes and figures.

Lower ranking was also allocated to activities, which involved legal or constitutional process in a study that used a comparable questionnaire. The sample studied represented a large sample of teachers from across England (Davies et al. 1999). This study in England found that some teachers distrusted the political process and 11% of the sample had a negative attitude towards the conservative/obedient characteristic of citizenship. This finding was not present to the same extent in the present study; no teachers gave negative scores to the conservative characteristics of citizenship, although the teachers in this sample also ranked the conservative and obedient characteristics of citizenship as least important in the given list of characteristics. In contrast, 80% of the UK teacher sample rated social concern characteristics as more important than other factors. Thus, the teachers in the UK identified with the idea that a good citizen was one who expressed concern for the welfare of others, were guided by moral and ethical principles and tolerated social diversity. The importance of social concern characteristics and the overall altruistic concern appeared to be weaker among Hong Kong teachers.

Some members of the focus group were enthusiastic about using experiential and whole-school approaches in teaching values and citizenship. Others were more comfortable with maintaining the basic rules for the classroom while encouraging students to treat their classmates well. Ethics of care and love were also important and can encourage teachers' participation.

The qualitative data revealed more about what went on in the classrooms; there was concern about the lack of systematic evaluation, of clear prioritizing and the general absence of guidelines to allow the teachers and the principals to note the systematic progress in citizenship and values. Much was left to the discretion and choice of

principals and the sponsoring educational bodies. School-based initiatives can work either for or against citizenship education. Even if the principal wanted such education, sustained effort cannot be guaranteed, as no one has the road map and no one has “accumulation of experience” that was tested or documented. It is thus to be expected that many teachers claimed that the priority of the principals and schools may lie in places where progress can be more easily visible or quantified, such as computer purchases or upgrades, or records of academic excellence. Some teachers claimed that a sense of urgency needed to be established for the schools of Hong Kong in citizenship education.

Teachers, like most citizens in Hong Kong, have not been trained to understand the concepts of citizenship. Heater (1992) pointed out that citizenship development could not happen overnight, but rather one step at a time. Like the people in most Asian countries, the Chinese see “good citizens” as dutiful, responsible for family and concerned for the well-being of the people around them. There was less emphasis on critical thinking, on the ability to make informed choices, and to take care of others in the neighborhood or community.

With only ten years of “self rule”, the social concern aspects of citizenship cannot be expected to be fully developed in Hong Kong. With reference to Janoski’s (1998) analysis of rights and obligations, the citizens of Hong Kong had very little experience in conceptualizing and developing competence to exercise their rights. Although under the rule of law, they have traditionally been passively aware of their obligations to pay taxes, obey traffic laws and live within the law. It was only immediately preceding 1997 that the Equality Opportunity Commission was established by a hurried and departing British Government, along with legislation on open access in government, and the setting up of the Ombudsman Office.

After the long era of colonial rule, it may be unrealistic to assume that the people of Hong Kong would understand the social contract of rights and obligation, and to make principle guided decision (for example, based on the principle of justice as Kohlberg proposed) for the good of society. It may be more realistic to expect, as Lee did

(2005), the people of Hong Kong to possess a superficial understanding and basic respect for the rule of law, but not the full understanding of social contract, which involved the giving up of one's right to extend the common good. Similarly the ethics of care (as proposed by Gilligan and developed by Noddings 2002) was not likely to be experienced by the teachers as they were growing up. Teachers would therefore not be trained in creating caring community in the classrooms or schools (Shelby 2004) although in principle many would agree with such an approach.

In local studies, young people defined success in terms of the individual pursuit of money, family happiness, success and consumption, (Chan, 2005). Even the current Chief Executive, Mr. Donald Tsang, often reinforced and encouraged the people of Hong Kong to take pride in being self-sufficient, self-reliant and persistent in achieving continuous success for self and family; these were the elements of the "Hong Kong legend".

The Hong Kong population had been accustomed to this very congested environment; to the spirit of competition with other nations and even amongst "the next person on the street/in the class" has always been used as an incentive for students and the working sector. It was thus, not surprising the teachers seemed to know that there was the need to improve on the skill aspects of citizenship, but they were less aware of the importance and the "how's" of cultivating the altruistic aspects and the sense of concern for the common good in young people. The establishment of the caring aspect of citizenship in the classrooms and the school would be a challenge to teachers who might not have experienced such this when they were children.

School leaders can strengthen the caring and appreciation atmosphere in the school, as well as the use of whole school approach. As seen in the focus group and individual interviews, teachers in teaching citizenship supported all process learning, journal writing and reflection by students. These reflective and experiential processes could all be encouraged and supported by the school with clear policy guidelines.

It could be seen that the whole area of teaching citizenship had hardly been given

priority or clear, consistent or unified policy guidance. Even today, the struggles over self-rule, its pace of democratization, and the date when its citizens will be given universal suffrage for electing its legislature and Chief Executive are still topics of debate. Therefore, it is not difficult to understand the teachers' diverse views or readiness in bringing topics like the constitutional/legal processes, arranging for students to carry out projects with local leaders into the classrooms.

Two sections of the Education Commission were charged with teaching values and citizenship. In 2002 the Guidance and Counseling Section has released a policy paper to implement the personal development course for primary students. The course emphasized personal understanding, social development and academic/vocation development for primary students. These areas were indeed important for primary students and they covered the areas of emotional intelligence, social emotional education. However, the Civic and Moral Education Section of the Commission has put stressed service learning, social participation and the formation of political identity. Examples of good practices were often identified and displayed, but less could be ascertained about the impact and successfulness of each of the approaches if they were to be made available for wider application in Hong Kong's schools.

Recommendations

Introducing courses on democratic societies and processes associated with democratic decision making (topics as related to civic education)

The courses in civic education would encourage teachers to emphasize students' learning to participate, representing others as teachers themselves learn about and see the importance of these processes.

Schools and the Government to continue to encourage the documentation, experimentation and sharing of good practice among teachers on the use of the experiential approach, creative efforts in classroom and whole school activities for developing good citizenship.

Good practices could be provided with proper documentation for wide dissemination as well as more support on a territory-wide scale. Evaluative studies would be important to show the effectiveness of present efforts for both teachers and government.

The Government to better coordinates the sections, which would be responsible of the civic and moral education so that citizenship education can develop along a step-by-step, developmental and systematic manner.

In order to allow teachers to see the direction of their own effort, the Government should coordinate the sections, which would be responsible for civic and moral education. These sections may include the existing Civic and Moral Education Section and the Guidance and Counseling Section, responsible for the personal development course in the primary school. This unity of command would allow for a firmer foundation, greater sense of direction, stronger and more balanced planning and heightened sensitivity to continuity and progress in existing practices.

d) The influence of teachers' backgrounds (gender, age, level taught, professional training, district of work and type of schools where they work) on their views in teaching citizenship

Teachers' gender, age, level taught yielded only very few influence on their views in teaching citizenship. To summarize, female teachers attributed more importance to "values", "the teaching of both values and citizenship" in schools than the male teachers. Teachers with personal religious beliefs attributed more importance to the influence of religious leaders. Buddhist and Taoist teachers saw sexual activity as a more serious threat to students' citizenship development than teachers of other religious beliefs did. Finally, female teachers saw TV, films, Internet, negative role model, family conflict, and community environment as more important threats than did male teachers. The implications from these differences may explain the need for differential training needs according to gender. Other background characteristics of the teachers, like professional training and the district where they were teaching, did not yield significant differences in their views of teaching citizenship.

However, the results showed that the school's religion and the traditions of the sponsoring bodies might influence in the teachers' view of teaching values and citizenship. The results revealed how the religion of the school, traditionally seen as associated with moral education (Priestley 1987), also could have significant influence on the teachers' view on teaching citizenship in Hong Kong. The teachers from religious-based schools were found to have stronger agreement in their answers on nearly all the questions in the quantitative study.

These findings could hardly be surprising; the literature found that the ethos of a school has much to do with the school's effectiveness and with the teaching of values education (Rutter et al., 1979; Taylor 1998, 2000). Lickona (1991) argued that the moral climate of a school must be consistent with its values as promulgated through direct instruction. Other authors (Eisner 1994; Jackson et al. 1993; Power et al. 1989; Schaps & Soloman 1990) found that a school's philosophy, aims and system of caring were rich in their potential to influence the values, attitudes and personal qualities of children and young people.

A recent study by a local scholar, in Macau, has found a great many differences between the civics curriculum of the Pro-China and Catholic and Christian schools. Most civics textbooks in Macau do not go into detail on the essential concepts of western citizenship such as equal rights, democracy, social justice, individual liberty, the rule of law, political participation of citizens, principles of checks and balances, human rights, and civil disobedience. Preliminary results, however, showed that the students' civic attitude and knowledge were both higher for religious based schools (Chan 2005) than were those of students in the Pro- China schools.

Another recent study in the United States (Dee 2005) found that in addition to higher rate of students attending college, students who attended Catholic high schools were actually more likely to vote, but not volunteer as adults. Dee (2005 p.605) attributed these differences to "the conditioning of a rich set of individual, family and community traits" on the student population of Catholic schools. From the results of these studies as well as the present thesis, the possible influence of the religion and traditions of

sponsoring bodies on the teaching of citizenship education in schools deserves further exploration.

Recommendations

To provide for the possible different needs for training for teachers given their differences in background, specifically: in the areas of gender and religion beliefs.

This will be discussed in Section e).

Explore in what ways and through what means exactly do the religion and the traditions of a given school influence the ethos of the schools and how the ethos of the school may influence the teachers' view as related to the teaching of citizenship.

Future programs or studies can be initiated to examine how school's ethos, religion, tradition and the use of the whole school approaches affect the implementation of citizenship education. Programs and projects can explore the relationship between the ethos, religion or tradition of schools, and how these factors relate to the teachers' views of citizenship education. How, in what ways, and through what means did the ethos, tradition and missions of the schools influence the teaching of values and citizenship? It would be useful to find out how the process happened. It would be worthwhile to explore how the ethos would be helpful to teachers as they try to convey a specific message or emphasis. It would be useful to explore the influence of school ethos in supporting the teachers and in bringing about other results that are of maximum benefit to the students.

e) The Way Forward for Teachers' Professional Development

The teachers in this study believed that the skills and knowledge aspects of citizenship were of great importance for students' development of citizenship. Thus, professional training can improve teachers' ability to give students the skills and knowledge aspects of citizenship. However, teachers found great shortcomings in the content and resources of all of the programs that trained them to teach citizenship.

First, for the pre-service training, no specific qualification course was required for teaching citizenship, resulting in the future teachers' reluctance (or lack of incentive) to choose the elective of civic education. Overworked teachers were indifferent to the in-service training. Teachers were usually lacking in enthusiasm due to their existing heavy workload and Government's pressure on them to complete qualifying examinations for academic related subjects. A few teachers also pointed out the general lack of useful materials in teaching citizenship at the primary school level. Teachers criticized the lack of framework of implementation and systematic evaluation for civic and moral education in Hong Kong.

Despite the low priority accorded to civic and moral education, the teachers interviewed were convinced of the importance of having the counseling and guidance skills to face their large classes and the seriousness of their students' family problems. In order to meet these challenges and for the sake of their own mental health, they were motivated to gain the needed skills and knowledge.

Teachers could also collaborate with social workers and Non-Government Organizations in carrying out programs to solve family problems. Because of their different background, training and attitudes, teachers and social workers find it hard to work together. Encouraging their joint efforts would still be a difficult as both social workers and teachers are overworked. As reflected in these findings, only a very small number of social workers were sharing responsibility for the self-development course with the teachers. However, the teachers and social workers who had a genuine interest in the needs of students would eventually find a way to work together.

Studies in other countries (Davies & Rey 1998; Gonzalo & Villanueva 1995) had shown the value of guiding students to reflect on their background and family in building a sense of citizenship. Social workers are trained to handle such self-awareness and reflective programs. A helpful place to start would be for the Buddhist and Taoist schools to invite resources from the Non Government Organizations to support their teaching of sex education and family conflict resolution.

Many teachers recommended ways to meet the differential training needs of male and female teachers. Female teachers needed to be trained in the positive use of the

Internet and other media and to have additional exposure to global issues. With such training, teachers would acquire a broader perspective on citizenship education by using legal/constitutional processes and community participation as valuable learning experiences.

This research showed that teachers' perspective on teaching civic and moral education stayed on a micro skill level. Civic rights, participation, understanding and experiencing the democratic processes such as learning to address differences of opinion, representing others, electing others and understanding and pushing for the common good seemed to be of less interest to the primary teachers. As suggested by Davies (1999), of the three areas mentioned in the Crick Report of England (QCA 1998): "social and moral responsibility, community involvement and political literacy", the latter of the three was most likely to be neglected. Thus, Davies stated "that all teachers be ensured an opportunity to explore key concepts such as democracy, citizenship and pluralism" (Davies et al. 1999, p. 116).

By the same token, teachers' own participation in social and community involvement should also be encouraged. It is hoped that, through such training, students would benefit from more balanced learning on the micro and macro aspects of citizenship education. Although the teachers in this sample agreed that concern for others was a very important quality of good citizenship, caring for others through community participation seemed to be an area in which the teachers would need further development and input if they were to be models for the young people of Hong Kong.

Recommendations

Pre-service level: Explore and set clear policy for making the teaching of citizenship a regular subject requiring allocated class time and specialist training in the preparation of teachers at the pre-service level.

Teachers would thus pay more attention and allocate greater importance to the teaching of citizenship in primary school. With a clear policy, teachers responsible for citizenship education would no longer need to struggle for regular class time.

In service level and other sources of support: slow down the implementation of

education reforms, resulting in less stress for teachers, set up guidelines for social workers and teachers to work together in the implementation of citizenship education. Develop more useful resource packages for teachers teaching citizenship in the primary schools.

Publish policy on the way forward in teaching citizenship with clear outline of division labor between school personnel, use of resources, whole school approaches, specific teaching objective and content for particular grades... to ensure that citizenship education can be implemented in a step-by-step fashion. Full implementation of APASO or other instruments for measuring the effectiveness of current programs in citizenship education should be carried out.

The teachers are recommended to begin to understand more about his/her own values and growth process, as well as the social and participatory aspects of being a citizen.

Teachers needed to be invited to place more priority on professional knowledge and the improvement of their professional quality in teaching rather than concentrating on the acquisition of specialized subject knowledge. Teachers should take a holistic approach to upgrading themselves and to use pre- and in-service training to understand how to teach values. They could be invited to review their own life history and how they acquired values as well as to strengthen the awareness of their tendency to remain passive and negative in face of authority. In developing a deeper understanding of themselves, they would be in a better position to understand the needs of their students. It would be helpful if teachers could balance counseling skills with a sense of democratic participation and the political processes. Also, teachers should be encouraged to work with social service professionals, in order to learn the skills and knowledge of citizenship as they grow and mature.

II) Suggestions for Future Research

The list suggests future follow up research:

1. What do the teachers need to teach citizenship? How could the ethos of the school, relationship with colleagues and relevant training support teachers to teach citizenship?

2. Conduct a similar study with a larger sample of primary teachers and one with secondary school teachers.
3. A study of the effectiveness of citizenship education both in primary schools and secondary schools would also be helpful in clarifying the usefulness of existing practices.
4. How widespread are the experiential approach and the use of service learning? How important was “process learning” to teachers?
5. Good practices in teaching citizenship could be provided with proper documentation for wide dissemination as well as more support on a territory-wide scale.
6. Would the efforts and strength of agreement in teaching citizenship from teachers be positively correlated with program effectiveness in citizenship education?
7. Could there be other areas of influence (like the teaching method, the suitability of the program to meet the specific developmental needs of students, the students’ interest in the program...etc.), which could also be important in affecting the effectiveness of existing programs?
8. How could these influences be optimized to benefit the teaching of values and citizenship for the students?
9. How does the religion/tradition of a school affect its ethos?
10. In addition to being a possible support to teachers, how else does the ethos of schools, the religion and tradition of schools and the use of the whole-school approaches relate to implementation of citizenship education?
11. How, in what ways, and through what means did the ethos, tradition and missions of a school influence its teaching of values and citizenship?
 - 1) Was the tradition of the sponsoring bodies helpful in countering negative community influences?
12. Although the results showed the teachers’ differential response strength as related to the many aspects of teaching values and citizenship, can it be concluded that their strength of response would be positively related to the effort of teaching these subjects?
13. If indeed, strength of response to the teachers’ answers indicated increased or decreased effort for the teachers, would program effectiveness be linked with teachers’ differential effort?

III) Conclusion

There is an old Chinese proverb: “It takes ten years to grow a tree and one hundred years to grow a person”. This was the message from a short Announcement of Public Interest (API) that the Education Commission has produced to convince the public to be patient with the pace of education reforms. The same principle can be applied to this thesis; the saying can apply to the importance of nurturing the professional growth of teachers and the personal growth of the students. One of the participating teachers in the focus group said:

Democracy only works with quality citizens, self-rule for Hong Kong cannot truly happen if the youngsters in the society are not cultivated to act on their citizenship, to truly take ownership of this place: to make it their home. WC 2

If the young people of Hong Kong are to take up leadership in the future, then, the voices of the teachers must be heard. Teachers must rediscover their sense of mission, find their places, and to take the lead in becoming active citizens. This may go against the tide and the obstacles are many. However, as discovered in this research, the will and enthusiasm among the interviewed teachers to build the sense of citizenship in their students remained strong despite the difficulties.

Teachers working in the primary schools wanted to train the students in diverse areas of citizenship (e.g. both in the students’ sense of duties and areas where skills and knowledge were needed). Despite their obvious lack in systematic training, teachers were generally in full agreement about the importance of preparing students to be good citizens. Teachers of the two districts were also found to be supportive of learning through service and experience, process learning, use of reflection and all the latest methods of citizenship education. The important factor was whether teachers were allowed the class time, and were given the support to teach citizenship by policy/guidelines, the education system and the schools where they were employed.

The challenge here is formidable, as Hong Kong is such a unique place, but as Lee (2005) has observed, each nation had to find its own way of promoting citizenship education. Few would disagree that the quality of a society's democracy depends on the quality of its citizens. While many in Hong Kong are still trying their utmost to accelerate the pace of democracy, it would certainly be helpful if citizenship education received a more prominent place in the Education Bureau's (if not the city's) agenda. With further research and programs, more people might realize that the actualization of a democratic society can hardly be reached without the successful implementation of citizenship education programs. The teachers' full involvement in providing citizenship education is the logical place to begin.

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Appendix 1a

Questionnaire used for the quantitative study in Chinese

學校/編號：_____

公民觀念調查問卷

此項調查的目的是收集和評核有關「良好公民意識」的資料。閣下所提供的資料可以幫助我們瞭解公民教育在學校課程所扮演的角色和應如何處理。問卷內容只作整體分析及學術研究之用，所有資料將會保密。這問卷並沒有既定的答案。

背景資料（可選擇不作答）：請在最適當的答案加上“√”號。

(一) 種族

- 華裔 非華裔

(二) 國籍

- 中國 英國 美國 加拿大
 澳大利亞 新西蘭 印度 越南
 馬來西亞 星加坡 日本 韓國
 其他 (請註明) _____

(三) 性別

- 男 女

(四) 年齡

- 21-30 歲 31-40 歲 41-50 歲
 51-60 歲 61 歲或以上

(五) 目前任教年級

- 小學一至三年級 四至六年級

(六) 任全職老師共____年

(七) 目前任教科目

- 美術 中文 外語 (英文) 數學
 音樂 體育 科學或常識
 其他：(請註明) _____

(八) 教育程度

- 教育文憑(teachers certificate) 大專文憑 學士學位
 碩士學位 博士學位 社工文憑 社工學位

(九) 宗教信仰

- 天主教 基督教 佛教 道教 傳統宗教 (祭祖)
 回教 無宗教 其他宗教：_____

公民質素問題：

請依你對每一問題同意/不同意的程度，在適當的位置上加上“√”號。最左一格表示「非常同意」，最右一格表示「非常不同意」。若你對該問題沒有意見，請在中間的位置加一“√”號。

	非常同意			非常不同意		
我認爲價值觀念十分重要	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
我認爲價值觀念的培訓應在學校進行	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
我認爲學校應推行公民教育、培育良好公民	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

下列是良好公民須具備的重要質素

● 認識時事	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
● 參與學校或社區事務	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
● 接受委派的工作	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
● 關心別人的利益	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
● 所作所爲合乎道德倫理的標準	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
● 服從領導階層的權威	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
● 能夠對不同的意見提出問題	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
● 能夠作出明智的抉擇	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
● 認識政府	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
● 愛國	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
● 完成對家庭的責任	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
● 對世界社區的認知	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
● 能容忍社會的多元化	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

下列因素影響我的公民意識

● 父母	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
● 朋友	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
● 兄弟姊妹	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
● 老師	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
● 宗教領袖	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
● 電視和/或電影	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
● 祖父母及/或其他親戚	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
● 監護人	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
● 校長或校方人士	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
● 課外活動	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
● 同學	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
● 教練	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

我相信下列因素會對兒童的公民意識造成不良影響

	非常同意			非常不同意		
● 電視和/或電影	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
● 互聯網和/或網上遊戲	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
● 藥物及/或酒清	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

- 朋輩的壓力
- 性活動
- 負面的角色模範
- 家庭糾紛
- 社會環境
- 過度的休閒時間
- 不勞而獲的物質報酬
- 社區環境

- 我相信下列的課堂活動有助建立兒童的公民意識
- | | 非常
同意 | | | | | | 非常
不同意 |
|----------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| ● 有關社區/國家組織的傳統和價值的活動 | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| ● 與時事有關的活動 | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| ● 認識本地的歷史和政府的活動 | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| ● 和社區的領袖一起進行社區計劃活動 | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| ● 訓練解決問題的活動 | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| ● 有關憲法和立法程序的活動 | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| ● 關注世界的需要和責任的活動 | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

* 謝謝合作 完成這份問卷 *

Appendix 1b

Questionnaire used for the quantitative study

This survey is being conducted in an effort to collect and assess data regarding views of good citizenship. The information you provide will help determine what role citizenship education should play in the school curriculum and how it should be taught. Your answers will be confidential. There are no right or wrong answers.

BACKGROUND INFORMATION: Place an 'X' in the space that best describes you.

Ethnic Group (this listing represents official Department for Education categories)

- | | | | |
|--|--------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> White | <input type="checkbox"/> Indian | <input type="checkbox"/> Chinese | <input type="checkbox"/> Other _____ |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Black Caribbean | <input type="checkbox"/> Pakistani | <input type="checkbox"/> Asian | <input type="checkbox"/> Information refused |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Black African | <input type="checkbox"/> Bangladeshi | <input type="checkbox"/> Black(other) | |

Gender

- | | |
|-------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Male | <input type="checkbox"/> Female |
|-------------------------------|---------------------------------|

Age

- | | | | |
|--|--------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> 20-30 years | <input type="checkbox"/> 31-40 years | <input type="checkbox"/> 41-50 years | <input type="checkbox"/> 51-60 years |
| <input type="checkbox"/> over 60 years | | | |

Age Group Currently Taught

Route to Teaching Certificate

- | |
|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Initial Teacher Training (3 Year Teacher College) |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Fourth Year BA Degree |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Three Years at University/Main Subject Specialty /PGCE |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Other _____ |

Total Years of Teaching Experience

- | | | | |
|--|-------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> 1-5 years | <input type="checkbox"/> 6-10 years | <input type="checkbox"/> 11-15 years | <input type="checkbox"/> 16-19 years |
| <input type="checkbox"/> over 20 years | | | |

CITIZENSHIP QUESTIONS

For each response on the questionnaire, you will be asked to place an 'X' on a line. The far left end of the line represents **strong agreement (SA)** to the statement, while the far right end of the line represents **strong disagreement (SD)**. You may place an 'X' any place on the line to the extent to which you agree or disagree with a statement. If you feeling are neutral, place the mark near the center.

The following characteristics are important qualities of a good citizen:

	SA					SD
Knowledge of current events	—	—	—	—	—	—
Participation in community or school affairs	—	—	—	—	—	—
Acceptance of an assigned responsibility	—	—	—	—	—	—
Concern for the welfare of others	—	—	—	—	—	—
Moral and ethical behavior	—	—	—	—	—	—
Acceptance of authority of those in supervisory roles	—	—	—	—	—	—
Ability to question ideas	—	—	—	—	—	—
Ability to make wise decisions	—	—	—	—	—	—
Knowledge of government	—	—	—	—	—	—
Patriotism	—	—	—	—	—	—
Fulfillment of family responsibilities	—	—	—	—	—	—
Knowledge of world community	—	—	—	—	—	—
Tolerance of diversity within society	—	—	—	—	—	—

The following have influenced my citizenship:

	SA					SD
Parents	—	—	—	—	—	—
Friends	—	—	—	—	—	—
Brothers and/or sisters	—	—	—	—	—	—
Religious leaders	—	—	—	—	—	—
Television and/or films	—	—	—	—	—	—
Grandparents and/or other relatives	—	—	—	—	—	—
Guardians	—	—	—	—	—	—
Teachers	—	—	—	—	—	—
Head teachers or other school officials	—	—	—	—	—	—
Extra-curricular activities	—	—	—	—	—	—
Other students	—	—	—	—	—	—
Youth leaders	—	—	—	—	—	—

I believe the following are a threat to a child's citizenship:

	SA					SD
• Television and/or films	—	—	—	—	—	—
• Drugs and/or alcohol	—	—	—	—	—	—
• Peer pressure	—	—	—	—	—	—
• Sexual activity	—	—	—	—	—	—
• Negative role models	—	—	—	—	—	—
• Family conflict	—	—	—	—	—	—
• School environment	—	—	—	—	—	—
• Excessive leisure time	—	—	—	—	—	—

- Unearned material rewards _____
- Community environment _____

I believe that the following classroom activity(ies) would be helpful in developing a child's citizenship:

- | | SA | | | | | SD |
|---|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| • An activity in which the child learns about the traditions and values that shaped his/her community and country | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |
| • An activity dealing with current events | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |
| • An activity in which the child learns about the history and government of his/her country | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |
| • An activity in which the child works on a community project with community leaders | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |
| • A problem-solving activity | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |
| • An activity using constitutional and legal processes | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |
| • An activity that aims at the child's individual needs and interests | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |
| • An activity in which the child looks at worldwide needs and responsibilities | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |

Appendix 2

Questions for Focus Group discussion

- 1) What is a good citizen to you?
- 2) Influence on the teachers' development as citizen
- 3) The second area for discussion will be on the content for teaching value and citizenship in primary school according to the teachers. The parts written in italics were the probes used with reference to findings from other research. These probes were used only when teachers needed prompting in their answers.
 - In your experience as teacher, what do you see to be important to teach your primary students in the whole area of value and citizenship? *Is it more important for them to learn about rule of law, natural history, environment protection, human rights, in that order? What in your opinion, constitutes the behavior of a "good citizen" (attitude and behavior), is it responsibility to ones family, consideration for others, participate and cooperate in working with others, ability to solve problems, willingness to accept delegated tasks by those in authority, patriotism...? These prompts were used only when teachers were not ready to answer readily, they came from results of previous research.*
 - Should one set any priority according to the needs of the students? *What is the relative importance of knowledge transmission, values, critical thinking training, and social participation as the main goal for teaching civic?*
 - How easy is it to find material in the market (including websites, books and other resources) to help you prepare for the lessons? *Do you have the freedom to choose your own teaching material? Do you use external material (textbooks, official curricula) or internal material (teachers' own ideas, self produced material) more often?*
 - Does your school allow enough resources (financial and professional support)?
- 4) The teaching of citizenship and value in the classrooms
 - Can you share with us some ways that you have used in the teaching values and citizenship in the classroom? Any best practices to share with us?
 - What would you see to be the factors which would help us establish (or measure) the effectiveness of a certain approach? (E.g. responses from students? Changed behaviors etc.) *What is the current method of assessing student's performance in civic education? (Written composition, oral participation, multiple choices?) What other means do you suggest to evaluate the effectiveness of these approaches?*
 - Does the teaching of values and citizenship have to be dull? How can you go about to make it interesting in the classroom?
 - Have you come across any good example of the effective teamwork between social workers and teachers in the teaching of value and citizenship? Please share with us. Can you identify any factors which made the co-operation a success?

5) Teachers' View on the Educational Preparation and Training for Teaching
Citizenship

- ✓ Should training programs be offered as electives in the Hong Kong Institute of Education (HKIED), or as part of the core curriculum for teacher preparation? Do you think what you learned in the program was useful for the actual teaching?
- ✓ How useful is in-service training for the teachers? Can you give us an example of specific content (e.g. natural history, rule of law, values, human rights, and environment issues) and teaching method which would be of interest and be helpful to you in preparing you for teaching value and citizenship? (do you agree that most of the existing teaching methods that you use: textbook, work sheet, and recitation, or do you use project learning, discussion of controversial issues, role play or group work in your teaching citizenship? Ideally speaking, what are the better methods?)
- ✓ How important is it to use experiential learning in the teaching of value and citizenship? How can teachers be equipped to use such methods in their classroom and elsewhere?

Appendix 3

Outline of questions used for individual interviews

1. What do you see as the constraints and strengths of the present education system in the teaching of value and citizenship in the schools?
2. Can you share more on what you consider to be possible activities to carry out in the classrooms, which are effective for students' learning in citizenship? What about your opinion of using the whole schools approach to teach on citizenship and values? In your opinion, what are the ingredients for effective programs?
3. Interview on feedback of quantitative findings: results from the quantitative analysis were shared with the individuals, and their feedback on the "how and why's" were noted.
4. What are your views on how the teachers' preparation for teaching value and citizenship be improved, both at the qualifying level and the in-service training level.

Appendix 4

List for individual interviews

- Four principals from the sample, two from Wanchai and two from Sai Kung district
- One person with working experience in the primary school section, Curriculum Development Institute of the Education and Manpower Commission
- One vice principal and one senior teacher who had special duties to organize and oversee citizenship education activities in their respective primary schools
- One social worker who was responsible for the content of teaching for life education (personal development course as implemented for all primary schools since 2002) for a large non-government social service organization which is also an established school sponsoring body.
- One District Officer for one of the district, with a special interest in the development of citizenship education in the schools.

Others:

- Three senior officers from the Counseling and Guidance Section of the Education and Manpower Bureau of Hong Kong SAR Government
- Two lecturers from the Hong Kong Institute of Education, one with a special interest in helping new arrivals and the other one with expertise in citizenship education

Appendix 5

Additional Recommendations

The following recommendations may not be a natural outflow of the results of this research study. However, during the course of the data collection, the focus group discussion, and the exploration with experts and officers, these broader recommendations with practical implications emerged. These recommendations will be outlined below in an effort to add to the professional and practical development of citizenship education of the education sector in Hong Kong.

a) Promotion of Citizenship Education in Individual Schools

For the schools which are determined to assign high priority to teaching moral and civic education, the following efforts could be recommended to mobilize support from the Education and Manpower Bureau, the teaching and administrative staff and from the general community:

- 1) *School principal to make a policy statement with the endorsement of the school governing committee and the sponsoring body to make the teaching of citizenship a priority in the school for at least one year (or preferably for the next few years).* Teachers and subject masters would then be able to set up special work groups to plan ahead and make request to the school if they needed extra manpower and financial support to respond to the school's emphasis of focusing on citizenship education
- 2) *The leadership of the school to give teachers the voice/support to develop and propose related theme for the year, both for whole school events as well as for extra-curricular activities to build citizenship through participation and communication from staff, students and parents.* Pastoral staff (Counseling and Guidance Section) would be invited to propose and design schemes to strengthen the caring and appreciation atmosphere (building ethos and culture) in the school for teachers and students. The opinion of teachers will be acknowledged and appreciated and their initiatives would be respected and supported as much as possible. As teachers sensed in real experience that their voices were heard, they would be more likely continue to use the channels to voice out their views and increase their participation in making contribution to the whole school. These teachers would also be likely to allow the voices of

students to be heard too.

- 3) *The school could apply to the Curriculum Development Institute to seek their approval in deploying a Principal Subject Master in Curriculum Development PSMCD to support and work with the teachers in the school in developing an integrated curriculum for citizenship educational.* His duty would include deciding how to incorporate content related to civic and moral education into the formal and informal curricula for that school. The school would be willing to extend the position of curriculum specialist after the funding expires, if help from that specialist would be helpful in integrating and refining the curriculum on citizenship education in relation to other subjects in the curriculum and the school's direction.
- 4) *School's leadership team to mobilize the support and expertise of the local social service organization to work together in offering special support to the 12 sessions self- development course for upper primary students.* Invite the teachers and social workers to choose topics that would be interesting and closely related to the needs of the students. Consider the concerns of teachers in helping students to master skills and knowledge that are related to value and citizenship. One such example may be to help students acquire decision making skills by discussing topics like “slimming down and keeping a good body shape”, “internet addiction” and “coping with stress: sources and coping” (Leung 2005). Through these topics, students can learn to use thinking steps to learn decision-making. Selected students can offer services in the community and then share what they have learned. If possible, the social work organizations can disseminate the message to rally support from the parents and encourage the community to be open to learning from experience and reflection.
- 5) *School leadership to provide support for teachers' learning and resources as they implement citizenship education.* The school could encourage the teachers with financial support and time release to attend necessary courses to upgrade their knowledge and skills. Other courses can be on self-understanding, knowledge of the concepts and development of rights and duties of citizens and the skills involved in democratic participation. The important thing is to remind teachers to allow the students to find their own answers in learning about values and encourage students to make up their own decisions instead of providing model answers to them prematurely. However, teachers' sharing of their own

struggles and serving as examples to students would be an asset in facilitating students to learn about citizenship (Jackson et al. 1993)

- 6) *The school to carry out evaluative research on existing efforts so as to guide future development of citizenship education.* The school could establish links and partnerships with tertiary institutions to document and evaluate the year's effort in promoting citizenship education. Evaluation will be carried out with staff and students to discover the effectiveness of the implemented programs. Such results would be helpful in improving upon the year's effort and facilitate future sharing with others.

b) Promotion of Citizenship Education: Policy, Implementation and Co-ordination

On a wider scale, the Government of Hong Kong can take the following measures to establish priority and directions for the teaching of citizenship in Hong Kong

1. Strong determination on the part of the Chief Executive and his team to be firm about making citizenship education a priority and a long term objective in the education sector and in the community.
2. The Education Commission to acknowledge that citizenship in the curriculum is so important for preparing citizens of the future for self-rule and equipping them with the competence of setting the common good above their individual needs by balancing rights and responsibilities properly.
3. Make the teaching of citizenship a formally established course in the curriculum: In addition to allowing for class time for the 12-lesson course in self-development, make the teaching of such a subject a statutory requirement as the content may allow the young people to learn about their responsibility and entitlement as competent citizens for tomorrow. Government should consider including content such as rights and responsibility, rule of law, democratic processes and civil society. Such content could be taught progressively and systematically starting in primary school. The content can then become more complex, with more application from current news as the course proceeds into secondary level. This move would allow schools and teachers to take the course seriously, instead of seeing citizenship education as a marginal requirement or as a vague, cross curricula theme. The move will prevent the need for citizenship

education content to “compete with other subjects” for available class time and resources for implementation, as is the situation today. A clear mandate to emphasize this area will also prevent the content of citizenship, even the decision of whether to teach such content or not to be placed under the sheer discretion of school based governance, who may have many other priorities of their own for the school (e.g. Information Technology, set up school as brand name, and strive for academic upgrading).

4. Government to take the lead to request the support of all teacher training institutes to offer citizenship education as a regular course in the curriculum, one of which all student teachers would need to study. Only by such a move, can student teachers acquire the necessary skills to handle the teaching of citizenship education in the classroom and the school. Content can include self-understanding, awareness of ones own citizenship and values, processes and concepts for community and democratic participation as well as the scopes, rights and obligations of citizens in a modern city.
5. Set up a working party either within the existing Curriculum Development Council or more directly from the higher level of government; the task group should be vested with the authority to carry out full consultation to develop policy/action guidelines for citizenship education in the schools. As McLaughlin has suggested, Government should make it clear as to whether society should adopt the maximalist or minimalist approach to citizenship education (McLaughlin, 1992). With a clear policy goal, the effort of the society would have direction and focus. This process should be rigorous, transparent, not limited to the views of political parties and advisory bodies, but also allowing strong representation from teachers, as their professional experience and wisdom are needed to improve the situation in the classrooms. The working party is to take note of local research to cater for local situation and needs. Consensus and unanimous agreement are not to be expected, but there needs to be the determination to go forward with best mutual understanding.
6. The policy guideline could build upon the existing Government view and definition of citizenship, which exhibits (like the Crick Report) a respect for both the individual and the collective and a delicate balance between rights and responsibilities:
Some societies place stronger emphasis on individualism, while others stress

collectivism. However, the two are not mutually exclusive. However, there are subtle relationships between them. In societies where individualism is more obviously valued, the significance of common interests, common will and common good is also valued. Likewise, in societies where collectivism seems to be dominant, there are various extents of respect for individuality and self-realization. In the Chinese tradition, even though collectivism has been a dominant social value, self has been the starting point of civic values (Curriculum Development Council 1996).

7. Based on these concepts of citizenship, with the completion of consultation, the Education and Manpower Bureau would publish a policy on the way forward for the development of moral and civic education for Hong Kong. The policy should include clear framework and timeline for implementation:
 - i. What are the key concepts, philosophy and theory for implementing citizenship education in Hong Kong?
 - ii. How the course should be structured to fit the needs of specific age groups?
 - iii. What values and dispositions must be delivered in general and with reference to level and age (developmental stages) of students?
 - iv. While the values and dispositions to be developed may be linked to personal, social, health education, careful measures must be carried out to ensure that the specific goals of the program are not too expansive and all encompassing and therefore unrealistic to carry out and impossible to evaluate.
 - v. Itemize a range of cognitive skills and aptitudes as well as the kind of knowledge and understanding that would encourage participation of students as active citizens in the future. The items should be specific and down to earth, and not abstract and too general. Explain how these skills and knowledge are to be built into the goals and objectives for citizenship education in the schools.
 - vi. Learning outcomes with reference to both skills and knowledge, based on which judgment can be made as to whether the specific subsequent programs are successful, should be clearly spelt out for each grade in the schools.
 - vii. The division of labor between among school personnel, among various

levels of government officers and the division between the two should be clearly listed.

- viii. Suggested use of resources and examples from the literature about how to use the whole-school approach, successful methods from overseas: like circle time, narratives, assembly, collective worship, student council, peer mediation and extra-curricular activities should be included for the teachers' reference.
 - ix. For co-ordination within the Government in implementing moral and civic education: Place the personal development course and the moral and civic education for primary students under the leadership of one team. As Lockwood (2001) pointed out the importance of adopting a development perspective and the approach of providing "civic decency" education for earlier grades (primary students) while cultivating the civic literacy (political rights and training in democratic participation processes) for older students. Instead of aiming at "quick fix" and using innovative and different goal for each passing year, methods of teaching civic and moral values should aim to progressively and systematically build up the students by engaging them in debate and analysis of his/her own values and issues from year to year, in a step-by-step, co-coordinated manner as they go from grade to grade in the education system.
8. Taking into account the Hong Kong Government's concept of citizenship, and given the insights from the literature, it would make much sense if the officers responsible for the personal development course could work under the same section or at least be working in regular, close co-ordination with the section of the Curriculum Development Institute, and the Civic and Moral Education Section of the Education Commission which are both playing in important roles in leading and implementing the various efforts of citizenship education.

A steering committee should be formed to enforce the policy guideline for citizenship education. Leadership for this committee should be from higher levels of Government with the full involvement from the officers responsible for the existing Civic and Moral education Section and Counseling and Guidance Section. The committee should also include strong representation from the Regional Offices of the districts, both from Government officers as well as

teachers and principal from subsidized schools.

i. Government to set clear course and focus for Evaluation and Assessment of Existing Practices and Efforts: It would be beneficial if the unique needs of schools and teachers in the local setting in implementing citizenship education were known and clearly documented. The following are areas which could be investigated

- What is the effectiveness of the existing efforts in teaching citizenship, in primary schools and secondary schools?
Effectiveness can be measured from the points of impact felt by students and from observations and feedback from teachers. A few benchmarking studies can be quite revealing for the next step forward. The Government can also find out how useful the translated and validated tool APASO is and how helpful this may be in enabling the teachers to assess programs in citizenship education. If the tool was helpful, could the schools be persuaded to use the tool and allow the Government to share their findings as an ongoing assessment in the future?
- How widespread are the experiential and the use of service learning approaches? How important do teachers hold “process learning” to be?
- Do teachers see citizenship as content to be handled in the classrooms, or are whole school approaches also very important in creating the ethos and culture of the school for learning citizenship for students?
- Studies can also be carried out to explore the suggestions and requests from teachers: as it seemed, from the present study, the teaching of citizenship and values were believed to be very important by teachers, what measures would they see as being helpful to them in handling the classroom, relating the content, and motivating them to continue to explore and persevere in the teaching of such content? Surely all these questions would be helpful if the teachers are to be supported.

ii. Formulate policy and structure to hear the teachers and to rebuild their sense of citizenship. The problem of teachers' stress had been pointed out repeatedly by academics and by the militancy of the Hong Kong Professional Teachers' Union. In addition to the more serious observations of teachers' deteriorating mental health, depression and suicide, this research showed the lowest mean scores that teachers attributed to "acceptance of delegated responsibility" and "following the instruction of ones in supervisory positions". Moreover, teachers from Government schools held the lowest sets of mean scores for nearly all the questions. Such findings reflected the discontentment and disillusionment felt by the teachers towards the Government's initiatives and leadership. One principal even pointed out that the Government did not seem to see the need to motivate teachers to teach citizenship as citizens. The voices of teachers were neither listened to nor factored into the reforms.

Rutledge (Rutledge et al. 2001; Lickona 1991, Ch 17) held the view that in addition to identifying, teaching and expanding from a "core knowledge program", the democratic principles and values that manifest each day in the lives of citizens cannot be taught in school. Such civic education involves both knowledge and affective content, thus, can only be "caught" by students from their daily experiences from citizens and the ethos of the surrounding community. When the teachers' morale, trust and support for the government were all on the low side in today's Hong Kong and as teachers themselves felt helpless as citizens, how can they "pass along" their experiences and create a suitable ethos for students to develop their sense of citizenship?

It is, therefore, recommended that the Government steering group take the time to explore how to build a structure to listen to teachers when implementing citizenship education in Hong Kong. Such a structure can be implemented both in the Government consultative committee as well as in the individual schools. Their suggestions should be considered for ongoing research, for topics for forum where good practices are shared and as valuable wisdom and support in all stages of policy implementation.