

Teachers' Professional Development in the Changing and Challenging Context

***----A comparative study between
Mainland China and Hong Kong***

YING ZHANG



Master of Philosophy in Comparative and
International Education
Institute for Educational Research
Faculty of Education

UNIVERSITETET I OSLO

May 2010

Abstract

The present study aims to compare Teachers' Professional Development (TPD) between Mainland China and Hong Kong, by addressing the following questions: how do different social-cultural and historical contexts impact policy making of TPD in two regions; what similarities and differences referring to policies on TPD have been made in Mainland China and Hong Kong; how do the two regions implement TPD individually in terms of models/approaches, including categories, bases/partnerships, responsibility system, financial resources, training content, length of time, technological support; and what experiences of TPD do teachers both from Mainland China and Hong Kong have in practice; what do they think of the experiences; from their perspective, what are the limitations or problems of current practices?

A qualitative research strategy, based on principles of comparative design and multiple-case study, was utilized for the study. And data were collected from document analysis and interviews. Individual semi-structured interviews were conducted among 16 teachers totally both in Mainland China and Hong Kong. The collected data were analyzed under focus questions and themes identified in the reviewed literature.

The findings show that social, economical, political and cultural factors have contributed to shaping the features of TPD in the two regions and have accounted for the similarities and differences identified in the study, in terms of policy making, implementations of TPD, and teachers' experiences as well as problems of TPD. Moreover, the study found that although each region had its strengths in TPD, it also had its weaknesses and aspects that need improvement. Hence, what we should do in one region is not to indiscriminately copy the other's successful practices but to learn lessons from the other and find out effective ways that suit own circumstances.

Acknowledgements

There are some people who contributed to this research and supported me while writing the thesis. First of all, I would like to express my sincerest gratitude to my supervisor, Dr Liu Fengshu, for all her invaluable help and numerous feedbacks that greatly improved this work. She has been supportive and encouraging all the process long. Without her support, this thesis would not have been accomplished on time.

I would also like to thank everyone in the programme of CIE in University of Oslo, both teaching staff and students, for offering me opportunities to have a fruitful study here.

The study owes much to Lin Xiaolin and Wu Fan, who helped me a lot with collecting the data of Hong Kong case, as well as Liu Junjie and Deng Xiaofang for their constant support in Mainland China case. I am particularly grateful to all the participants who have responded to the interviews for their invaluable input and contributions.

I would express special acknowledgement to the staff at NIAS in Copenhagen, especially Cecilia Milwertz, Timo Kivimäki and Per Hansen, for their great help and suggestions on this study.

And finally, I would thank my husband Qi Yonghui, for his unconditional support and love during my study.

Ying Zhang

Oslo, April 16th, 2010

Table of Contents

Abstract	I
Acknowledgements	III
Table of Contents	IV
List of Abbreviations	VIII
List of Tables	IX
List of Figures	X
Chapter 1 Introduction	1
1.1 Introduction.....	1
1.2 Background to the Study.....	1
1.3 Aims of the Study	2
1.4 Research Questions	3
1.5 Limitations of the Study.....	3
1.6 Structure of the Thesis	4
Chapter 2 Literature Review	6
2.1 Introduction.....	6
2.2 Issues about Teaching as a Profession	6
2.2.1 The nature of the teaching profession.....	6
2.2.2 Changes and challenges for the teaching profession	8
2.3 Issues about Teachers’ Professional Development.....	12
2.3.1 Definition of teachers’ professional development	12
2.3.2 The purposes of teachers’ professional development	13
2.3.3 Current practices for teachers’ professional development.....	14
2.3.4 Current problems of teachers’ professional development	18

2.3.5	Reviewing what is the effective teachers' professional development	21
2.4	Summary	22
Chapter 3	Methodology	24
3.1	Introduction.....	24
3.2	Research Strategy.....	24
3.3	Research Design.....	26
3.4	Methods of Data Collection	29
3.4.1	Document analysis	29
3.4.2	Semi-structured or open-ended interviews	30
3.5	Methods of Data Analysis.....	31
3.6	About Two Sites of the Research.....	33
3.7	About Participants.....	35
Chapter 4	Teachers' Professional Development in Mainland China.....	37
4.1	Introduction.....	37
4.2	Brief Social-cultural and Historical Background.....	37
4.2.1	The teaching profession in Mainland China	37
4.2.2	Current curriculum reform.....	39
4.3	Policies and Development of TPD.....	41
4.3.1	Subject matter and basic teaching competence (1978-1983).....	41
4.3.2	Make-up education for unqualified teachers (1984-1989).....	41
4.3.3	Continuing education (1990-Now)	42
4.4	Implementations of TPD	44
4.4.1	From a national perspective	44
4.4.2	From a local perspective	47
4.4.3	School-based approaches of TPD	49

4.5	Teachers' Experiences and Attitudes to TPD	52
4.5.1	Existing concepts of TPD	52
4.5.2	Participating experiences of TPD	53
4.5.3	Teachers' attitudes towards TPD	55
4.5.4	Perspectives on school management and improvement.....	59
Chapter 5 Teachers' Professional Development in Hong Kong		61
5.1	Introduction.....	61
5.2	Brief Social-cultural and Historical Background.....	61
5.2.1	Education and the teaching profession in Hong Kong.....	61
5.2.2	Current curriculum reform.....	63
5.3	Policies and Development of TPD.....	64
5.3.1	Pre-1997	64
5.3.2	In 1997	65
5.3.3	Post- 1997	65
5.4	Implementations of TPD.....	67
5.4.1	From a regional perspective.....	68
5.4.2	School-based approaches of TPD	71
5.5	Teachers' Experiences and Attitudes to TPD	72
5.5.1	Existing concepts of TPD	72
5.5.2	Participating experiences of TPD	73
5.5.3	Teachers' attitudes towards TPD	76
5.5.4	Perspectives on school management and improvement.....	78
Chapter 6 Comparative Analysis and Discussion		80
6.1	Introduction.....	80
6.2	Relating Comparative Analysis and Discussion to Research Questions	80

6.3	Summary of Findings.....	93
Chapter 7 Implications and Conclusion		97
7.1	Implications.....	97
7.2	Conclusion	100
References.....		102
Appendix of Interview Guide.....		110

List of Abbreviations

ACTEQ	Advisory Committee on Teacher Education and Qualifications
CDC	Curriculum Development Council
CPD	Continuing Professional Development
HKIEd	the Hong Kong Institute of Education
ICT	Information and Communications Technology
IFIP	International Federation for Information Processing
INSET	In-service Training
MOE	Ministry of Education of China
OECD	Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development
PRC	the People's Republic of China
SAR	Special Administrative Region
TPD	Teachers' Professional Development
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization

List of Tables

Table 3.1 Profile of the Participants	35
Table 4.1 Number of Teachers by Levels of Schooling (in 10, 000).....	39
Table 4.2 Percentage of Qualified Teachers by Levels of Schooling.....	42
Table 4.3 Types and Functions of Lesson observation in Mainland China.....	51
Table 5.1 Number of Teachers by Levels of Schooling	63
Table 6.1 Percentage of Qualified Teachers in Mainland China and Hong Kong in 1993 and 2006.....	82
Table 6.2 Comparisons about Lesson Observation in Mainland China and Hong Kong	87

List of Figures

Figure 3.1 Two Levels of the Research Design.....	28
Figure 4.1 The Teaching Organizational Structure of Schools in Mainland China.....	49

Chapter 1 Introduction

1.1 Introduction

The main purposes of this chapter are to present a brief background to this study and the aims of doing this research, to introduce main research questions, and list possible limitations of the study, and it then turns to outline the contents of each chapter.

1.2 Background to the Study

Confucius said: "To gain knowledge bit by bit, to learn without losing interest, to teach others without being frustrated, how many of this have I carried out?"

Analects of Confucius¹

This is an unpredictable and ever-changing world of the twenty-first century. In such a world, two most typical words are “globalization” and “knowledge economy”. In such context, society demands more of its schools and teachers than ever before. It expects them to provide broader access to high quality teaching. It seems to be clearer that as the roles of teaching profession change, there is an emergent and great need for teachers’ professional development (hereafter TPD) which is acknowledged across the world to be a central component in maintaining and enhancing the quality of teaching and learning.

¹ It is quoted in *Verse 2 of Analects of Confucius Chapter 7*. In this chapter, Confucius explains the nature of teaching and the qualifications of being a teacher.

Given a wide range of TPD methods mentioned in the literature, those interested in promoting, designing and implementing TPD certainly have various options and opportunities. It is of great importance, however, to pay attention to the characteristics of the context in which these professional development methods will be implemented (Villegas-Reimers, 2003, p.118). Guskey (1995) argues that “Because of the enormous variability in educational contexts, there will never be ‘one right answer’. Instead, there will be a collection of answers, each specific to a context. Our search must focus on finding the assortment of professional development processes that work best in a particular setting”. In other words, TPD has to be considered within a framework of social, economic and political trends and events (Woods, 1994). Hence, how to implement TPD effectively is becoming a new emphasis for most countries all over the world, taking their own social-cultural and historical contexts into consideration.

1.3 Aims of the Study

Although the two regions share and enjoy a common traditional culture, there are still plenty of notable differences between Mainland China and Hong Kong regarding their own contexts of social system and modern history. With the help of the theories above of Villegas-Reimers, Guskey and Woods, the purpose of the research is to conduct a comparative study about TPD in Mainland China and Hong Kong with regard to its own policies, approaches and teachers’ experiences as well as problems. Hopefully, the research can help provide reference for TPD and strengthen communication and understanding between the two regions regarding this issue so that stakeholders can learn from others' strong points to offset one's weaknesses.

1.4 Research Questions

According to Koo (1999), the fundamental basis of comparative studies of all kinds is identification of similarities and differences. On this ground, the main research questions in the study are analyzed in the following aspects:

1. How do different social-cultural and historical contexts impact policy making of TPD in these regions?
2. What similarities and differences referring to policies on TPD have been made in Mainland China and Hong Kong?
3. How do the two regions implement TPD individually in terms of models/approaches, including categories, bases/partnerships, responsibility system, financial resources, training content, length of time, technological support?
4. What experiences on TPD do teachers both from Mainland China and Hong Kong have in practice? What do they think of the experiences? From their perspective, what are the limitations or problems of current practices?

1.5 Limitations of the Study

The current study has several major limitations. Firstly, interviews were conducted among 8 teachers in each region, a small number of individuals in a specific school; it would hardly be convincing to generalize the restricted scope of findings to other schools in the two regions of their own distinct school types, different sizes, curricula achievements, thus making some specific details of the study unique to our situation.

Secondly, those 16 samples in total were finished by teachers who are the author's friends or friends of the contact person in Hong Kong, and also who had spare time and thus were interviewed on their own willingness. So interviews of the current study were conducted with a convenience sample. They may not include all subjects and positions in a school. The convenience samples based on the ready availability of participants may not be comprehensively representative.

In addition, since one of research questions is purposefully designed to focus on teachers' experience and attitudes towards TPD, there remain the possibilities that the teachers may not recall important information and there are possible differences between what the teachers have actually experienced and what they have recollected about their experiences.

1.6 Structure of the Thesis

The thesis is organized into seven chapters in structure. The first chapter is an introductory one, aiming to introduce brief background of the study, the main purposes and research questions so as to give an overview of what has been analyzed. In the second chapter, concepts and theories which are relevant to the current study will be looked into and reviewed. The third chapter explains methodological characteristics including research strategy, research design and method of data collection and analysis as well as a description of the two sites of the cases and participants. The fourth and fifth chapters respectively present the data about TPD in the two regions Mainland China and Hong Kong in light of the research questions. Chapter 6 will provide a comparative analysis and discussion about the similarities and differences in the two regions on the basis of the data presentation in Chapter 4

and 5. In the last chapter, practical implications and conclusion of the study as well as some comments on the further research will be described.

Chapter 2 Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

In order to explain concepts and theories which are relevant to the present study, this chapter makes a brief review of teaching profession and professionalism in the context of an ever-changing and globalized world, from global and national, social and school perspectives. And it reviews three well-known ongoing practices for teachers' professional development as well, that is, collaboration, reflective teaching and lesson observation. Problems of teachers' professional development at present are also discussed.

2.2 Issues about Teaching as a Profession

2.2.1 The nature of the teaching profession

Currently, many educational reform measures which aim at improving teaching-learning process have been carried out in developing as well as developed countries in the context of globalization and knowledge economy. Yet none of the measures can be effective without the active support of teachers. The teacher acts as a mediator, and the effectiveness of innovations depends very much on the teacher making proper use of these measures (Schwille, Dembélé & Schubert, 2007, p. 15). The teacher is at the epicenter of the learning process, and learning therefore depends first and foremost on the quality of the teacher. However, any consideration of teacher quality must begin with exploration into the nature of teaching profession.

Firstly, as Pugach (2009) stated, a profession requires specialized knowledge, skills, and preparation in which individuals are expected to draw on their knowledge and skills to make judicious decisions about their work—usually without directives from a supervisor. Although claims for or against teaching as a profession is quite controversial, here I am inclined to agree for teaching as a profession, standing position on myself as a teacher before.

In ancient China, people had a very simple but clear concept of the teacher with explaining teachers' role as a profession. As one of the most famous Chinese educational philosophers Han Yu described like this:

*In ancient times those who wanted to learn would seek out a teacher,
one who could propagate the doctrine,
impart professional knowledge, and resolve doubts.*

(Han Yu, *On the teacher*, AD 800)

Han regarded a teacher as a moralist, knowledge transmitter and problem solver. However, over one thousand and two hundred years later, nowadays, the concept of the teacher has changed many times as the world has been changing all the time. And in this study, I describe Hargreaves and Goodson's (1996, as cited in Kubow & Fossum, 2007, p.211) classical and practical identification of professionalism, which provides deeper insights about how teachers view their work and roles. And there is no intention to explain this from each perspective, but seven principles of the professionalism described by Hargreaves and Goodson are as follows (Green, 1998, p.203):

1) increased opportunity and responsibility to exercise discretionary judgement over the issues of teaching curriculum and care that affects one's student;

- 2) *opportunities and expectations to engage in the moral and social purposes and value of what teachers teach, along with major curriculum and assessment matters in which these purposes are embedded;*
- 3) *commitment to working with colleagues in collaborative cultures of help and support as a way of using shared expertise to solve the ongoing problems of professional practice, rather than engaging in joint work as a motivational device to implement the external mandates of others;*
- 4) *occupational heteronomy rather than self-protective autonomy, where teachers work authoritatively yet openly and collaboratively with other partners in the wider community;*
- 5) *a commitment to active care and not just anodyne service for students. Professionalism must in this sense acknowledge and embrace the emotional as well as the cognitive dimensions of teaching, and also recognize the skills and dispositions that are essential to committed and effective caring;*
- 6) *a self-directed search and struggle for continuous learning related to one's own expertise and standards of practice, rather than compliance with the enervating obligations of endless change demands by others;*
- 7) *the creation and recognition of high task complexity, with levels of status and reward appropriate to that complexity.*

2.2.2 Changes and challenges for the teaching profession

This part will provide theoretical background of the changes of the teaching profession and its subsequent effects on TPD.

1) From a global perspective

With the growing global interconnectedness, knowledge is changing, new knowledge appears and the structuring of knowledge is evolving. Access to knowledge is changing as well. The main trend of this is the use of Information and Communications Technology (ICT).

Due to ICT, major changes have been provoked in the teaching profession. Being a teacher cannot now be considered only as an art, as a vocation; it is more and more a profession, with a lot of new competencies needed for teachers: competencies linked with technology, competencies linked with the new pedagogical possibilities, competencies linked with the new knowledge and the new networked form of knowledge, etc (Cornu, 2003, p.8).

And also thanks to ICT, a core issue regarding to education in the context of the global economy is learning. Hence, lifelong learning for teachers was put forward and thus interrelated with ICT. In terms of lifelong learning, as Smith and Spurling (1999) suggested, lifelong learning relates to learning that takes place throughout the lifespan, including the main types and classes of learning, both informal and formal education, as well as self-directed learning, which is relatively continuous, with a broad momentum that is maintained throughout life. That teachers are becoming lifelong learners is another prominent change of the teaching profession, which will be explained again in latter part.

In Chapter 4 and Chapter 5, the two issues of ICT and lifelong learners will be discussed and related to each other, when discussing approaches of TPD in Mainland China and Hong Kong.

2) From a national perspective

Although in a sense the changes and challenges for teaching profession derive from varying national contexts, generally speaking, they still share several commonalities. In this part, I will make a general analysis of this in the common context of most countries.

In order to enhance the competence in the global marketplace, governments have started to review their own education systems and different reform measures; for instance, curriculum reform, the emphasis on school reframing and management and the recent focus on assessment and school standards to improve quality, have been introduced to improve the overall quality of education in order to enhance their competitiveness in the globalizing economy (Mok, 2003). Thus the changes of teaching profession as well as teachers' role are arising with educational reforms being carried out. And how educational reforms, for instance, curriculum reform play a role in the practice of TPD in the specific settings of Mainland China and Hong Kong will be discussed in both Chapter 4 and 5.

3) From a social perspective

On the one hand, the expectations from society on schools and teachers have largely increased. As Cao and Lu (2007, p.155) describe, society now expects schools to deal

effectively with different students' backgrounds, to be sensitive to culture and gender issues, to promote tolerance and social cohesion, to effectively respond to disadvantaged students and students with learning or behavioral problems, to use new technologies, and to keep pace with rapidly developing fields of knowledge and approaches to student assessment. Teachers need to be capable of preparing students for a society and an economy in which they will be expected to be self-directed learners, able and motivated to keep learning over a lifetime (Lian, 2007). These changing expectations of schools and teaching require a re-definition of the professional profile of the teaching profession.

On the other hand, different educational approaches including market choice and public choice (Levin, 1991) allow more funds from society to influx into schooling. Not only expectations mentioned above have increased, but also the pressure from society has been multiplied. Hence, the more parents' participation as consumers in evaluation is becoming, the more rigorous requirements for schools and teachers from parents will be. These changes have come up with some issues, for instance, how well teachers' development should be to meet the current needs from society and parents.

4) From a school perspective

Change, more than anything else, characterizes the reality of school life. No matter from which perspective above I have reviewed the changes about teaching, all focuses finally fall onto the school perspective. Put another way, everything about school changes all the time: the children change, the communities they come from change, the subject matters change, the teachers change, the purposes of school change, and the sources of support for schools change as well.

As noted earlier, in order to develop high quality in schools, recent school reforms, concerned with school effectiveness and school improvement as well as developing the school as a learning organization, require much involvement of teachers. Therefore, the teaching profession has been shifted as Lieberman and Miller (2004) identified: from individualism to professional community, from teaching at the center to learning at the center, from managed work to leadership and from focus on the classroom to focus on the whole school, all of which imply a reformulation of teaching and a reframing of issues that surround the profession. And this will be discussed again in the following chapters referring to individual situations of TPD in Mainland China and Hong Kong.

2.3 Issues about Teachers' Professional Development

The world of knowledge takes a crazy turn

When teachers themselves are taught to learn.

(Bertold Brecht, *The life of Galileo*, 1939)

2.3.1 Definition of teachers' professional development

When we take into account the whole spectrum of teacher learning, that is, teachers' opportunities to learn from the beginning of their own prior schooling and throughout their teaching careers, known as the "continuum of teacher learning" (Schwille, et al., 2007, p.29), it usually includes several phases, like apprenticeship of observation, pre-service preparation of teachers, induction and continuing professional development (CPD). In this paper, I will draw on a notion of continuing professional development

including in-service training (INSET), when talking about teachers' professional development.

According to Craft (1996, p.9), continuing professional development(CPD) is sometimes used in a broad sense and seen as covering all forms of learning undertaken by experienced teachers beyond the point of initial training from courses to private reading to job shadowing, and sometimes used to describe moving teachers forward in knowledge or skills. And also CPD is for the most part additional to the practice of teaching and covers a teacher's longest period of service (Schwille, et al., 2007, p.33).

2.3.2 The purposes of teachers' professional development

TPD has multiple purposes, and there are many statements of these purposes. According to OECD (2005, p.122), it includes: 1) learning to facilitate implementation of policy or educational reforms; 2) preparation of educators for new functions; 3) school-based learning to meet school needs and further school development; 4) personal professional development chosen by individuals for their enrichment.

Moreover, it is not uncommon to hear the phrases "life-long learning" or "life-long learner" (OECD, 2005). These terms adorn school mission and goal statements. Few people would ignore the importance of developing life-long learners. It is crucial that schools and communities recognize the importance of developing teachers as life-long learners. It seems foolish to hope to engender life-long learning skills and attitudes in children without paying attention to those same skills and attitudes in developing the

teachers of those children. Hence, teachers becoming life-long learners as a energetic concept becomes one of the purposes of TPD.

But no matter which statement is expressed, a key issue, both for those planning and participating in professional development, is the match between practices and purpose. However, not all forms or practices of teacher development are equally effective in terms of either achieving their teacher developing goals or enhancing students learning.

2.3.3 Current practices for teachers' professional development

Traditionally, teachers have been withdrawn from classrooms for extended periods for professional development, while more typically, CPD has taken the form of short-term designed training, that is, the one-time workshop or seminar, considered as a dissemination activity whereby “outside experts give inspirational lectures, report the latest research findings and introduce new techniques and strategies” (Feiman-Nemser, 2001). Another popular form of CPD is the cascade model, as Schwille and his colleagues describe (2007, p.104), particularly when reform efforts and donor agencies call for reaching many participants in a short time, beginning at the top with the ideal of what is to be learnt. And this ideal is introduced to trainers. As the model is implemented with additional trainees, a select group of the newly trained are also expected to transmit the ideal (or model). Yet, currently, these dominant traditional forms of continuing teacher professional development have been criticized as ineffective and minimal in improving teachers.

There are still some new approaches which aim at providing high-quality professional development activities that not only enable teachers to build higher levels of expertise and offer teachers a greater degree of demands over their content, form and use of time, but also involve teachers in developing a sense of personal fulfillment from process of enquiry, training and study and from the pleasure of accomplishment as well (Pollard, 2005, p.419). As Craft (1996, p.10) described, there is a wide range of such approaches of professional learning. They include:

- ♦ *action research*
- ♦ *self-directed study as well as teacher research linked to awards*
- ♦ *using distance-learning materials*
- ♦ *school-based and off-site courses of various lengths*
- ♦ *peer networks*
- ♦ *school cluster projects involving collaboration, development and sharing of experience/skills*
- ♦ *personal reflection*
- ♦ *experiential assignments*
- ♦ *information technology-mediated learning (e.g. through e-mail discussion groups, or self-study using multi-media resources)*

And in this part, two of these, that is, collaboration and reflective teaching will be discussed. And my focus will also be put on lesson observation, as a combination of collaboration and reflective teaching, and this activity will be one of the main comparative aspects referring to the current practices in Mainland China and Hong Kong in the following chapters.

1) Collaboration

Collaboration between teachers improves the quality of student learning essentially by improving the quality of teaching. It is considered as stimulus for teacher professional growth (Blackman, 1989, p.8). It encourages greater diversity in teaching methods and an improved sense of efficacy among teachers. Teachers are more able to implement new ideas within the context of supportive collaborative relationships (Blackman, 1989, p.40). By working collaboratively, teachers are able to consider the different ways in which the subject matter can be taught. It increases teachers' opportunities to learn from each other between classrooms, between subject areas and between schools.

For instance, finding and taking the time to share is a beginning. A look at how time is spent when staff members are together can move a group toward dialogue and generating agendas representing common concerns. And as Holly (1989, p. 173) found, for another instance, spending time in another teacher's classroom is one of the most often beneficially perceived resources for teachers' professional development.

2) Teachers becoming reflective

According to Dewey (1933, as cited in Pollard, 2005, p.13), reflective action involves a willingness to engage in constant self-appraisal and development, with implying flexibility, rigorous analysis and social awareness.

Therefore, we can understand it in this way: the reflective teacher is one who turns attention to the immediate reality of classroom practice. Harris and Muijs (2005, p.60)

also explain that reflection is centrally concerned with improving practice rather than collecting knowledge. As each school, subject area and classroom is unique, reflective teachers develop their practice through engaging in critical analysis of their teaching and the teaching of others. Teachers to be reflective about their practice can consider their work in a critical way.

There are seven key characteristics of reflective practice identified by Pollard (2005, p.14): 1) It implies an active concern with aims and consequences, as well as means and technical efficiency. 2) It is applied in a cyclical process, in which teachers monitor, evaluate and revise their own practice continuously. 3) It requires competence in enquiry to support the development of higher standards of teaching. 4) It requires attitudes of open-mindedness, responsibility and wholeheartedness. 5) It is based on teacher judgement, informed by evidence-based enquiry and insights. 6) Reflective teaching, professional learning and personal fulfillment are enhanced through collaboration and dialogue with colleagues. 7) It enables teachers to creatively mediate externally developed frameworks for teaching and learning.

3) Lesson observation: a combination of collaboration and reflection

Lesson observation refers to the activity of visitors sitting in a teacher's lesson observing him or her teach. Borich (1999) suggested that it has specific purpose for observing and a particular method for recording and the practice always involves at least two parties, the observer(s) and the observed. When practiced in schools, there are some forms having a principal/senior teacher or an inspector observing a teacher's teaching, peer teachers observing each other, a novice teacher observing an

experienced teacher, or an experienced teacher observing a novice teacher (LawYee, 2001).

The purposes of lesson observation differ. Observation made by the principal or inspector tends to be for the purpose of teacher appraisal while peer observation can contribute more to staff professional development. For the latter purpose, there is always a conference between the observers and the observed after observation to reflect and self-reflect the lesson. Burton's study (1987) suggests that lesson observation enable teachers to work together, observe other teachers' strength, and learn from them. Williams (1987) reports that teachers who participate in lesson observation experience a collaboration and enthusiasm for learning new teaching skills. Dantonio (1995) points out that teachers at different stages of their career cycle can benefit from reflecting and deliberating on the lesson observation.

Hence, on the whole, lesson observation does not only improve teachers' teaching skills for both peer observers and the observed by reflective thinking but also encourages communication and collaboration among colleagues.

2.3.4 Current problems of teachers' professional development

We have to check how well what teachers undertake as professional development fits into the broader context of their own personal, professional and career development, and the priorities of school, department and team as well as the wider national or social context. In fact, dissatisfaction with the teachers' professional development is widespread in both developed and developing countries (Tang, 2008). Several mutual problems in most countries around the world will be reviewed as follows.

In most schools today, occasionally teachers are permitted to attend workshops and conferences outside the school system. Teachers are expected to grow as professionals and need to learn while they are teaching if students are to receive an optimal education (Cao & Lu, 2007). While schools do allocate limited fund and release time to professional development, a view of teachers as life-long learners is a perspective that is missing in most schools given the limited scope, quantity, and quality of professional development available to teachers. Moreover, in terms of certain limited budget and other resources for teacher learning, there needs to be some redistribution of these resources in per teacher terms between initial teacher education and towards teachers' later development in their careers. There should be a policy that has a more direct impact on the redistribution of resources between initial and continuous professional development: parallel with the reduction of the length of the former, more resources can be deployed for the further development of the latter, as stated by Tang (2008).

In addition, most of professional development in many developing as well as developed countries tends to model the inefficiencies of many classrooms as large groups of teachers are brought together and “professionally developed” in an afternoon. This type of professional development includes “credit-for-seat time” (Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1995), short, one-time sessions (Darling-Hammond, 1996; Shibley, 2001), training or workshops irrelevant to the teachers' contexts (Lieberman, 1995) and sessions led by experts with little follow-up (Shibley, 2001). Lieberman (1995) captures this mindset about professional development when she suggests that the traditional approach to teacher development may cause teachers to think of themselves as targets of change rather than agents of change.

And professional development that fails to account for the unique nature of individual needs and the contexts of those needs will fail to empower teachers as learners (Gray, 2001). The context of the classroom, the school, the school system, and the community should all be considered in planning the professional development. Since INSET (in-service training) is generally provided according to the different school types and different subject areas, there seems to be little transfer of teachers' learning across these boundaries, and the best trainers and training resources are perhaps not used as efficiently as they could be. Halász, et al. (2004) have found that it has been examined that INSET is not sufficiently related to the specific strategic needs of individual schools, although schools are encouraged to establish their own institutional plan for professional development. The sustainability of the impact of training on teachers is often hindered by the gap between the advanced environment of the INSET institution and the reality of the school. There is a clear recognition that schools as organizations should play a much more active role in formulating their specific training needs and new forms of training (ibid.).

Thus, it is also important to ensure the active participation of teacher education institutions in the INSET of practicing teachers according to the needs of the user (the schools). There are various mechanisms to ensure it. One way is the further spreading of "tailor-made whole-school" training programs, which, as we could see, are based on thorough "needs-analyses" and are adapted to the specific needs of concrete schools (ibid. p. 32).

On the ground of this aspect, problems of TPD in Mainland China and Hong Kong will be examined in Chapter 4, 5 and 6.

2.3.5 Reviewing what is the effective teachers' professional development

Briefly stated, according to Porter, Garet, Desimone, Birman, and Yoon (2004), there are two key dimensions of effective professional development: core features and structural features.

The core features include:

- ♦ ***focus on content***: the degree to which the activity focuses on improving and deepening teachers' content knowledge instead of focusing on generic methods of teaching;
- ♦ ***active learning***: opportunities for teachers to engage in a meaningful analysis of teaching and learning;
- ♦ ***coherence***: continued professional communication among teachers, incorporating experiences consistent with teachers' goals and aligned with system-level curriculum standards and assessments;

The structural features are:

- ♦ ***duration***: the number of hours participants spend in the activity and over what span of time the activity takes place;
- ♦ ***form***: the use of activities structured to support reform as opposed to a more traditional workshop or conference;
- ♦ ***participation***: groups of teacher from the same professional culture participating as a group as opposed to teachers from other locations participating individually.

Internationally, among a broader range of countries, this is also reflected in the OECD report that concludes that “the most effective forms of professional development seem to be those that focus on clearly articulated priorities, providing ongoing school-based support to classroom teachers, deal with subject matter content as well as suitable instructional strategies and classroom management techniques and create opportunities for teachers to observe, experience and try new teaching methods” (OECD, 2005, p.128).

In light of this respect, whether the implementations of the two regions, Mainland China and Hong Kong are effective or not will be examined.

2.4 Summary

We will be criticized if we do something.

We will be criticized if we do nothing.

Since criticism is inevitable,

Let us do something.

Anonymous

The role of the teacher is changing; the way the teacher works is changing. We have to distinguish the essential components of the teaching profession, the ones that are stable and the ones that are changing. And we have to try to anticipate the main changes, in order not to be merely subjected to them, but to master and direct them (Cornu, 2003, p. 4). To stay ahead, teachers’ professional development must take place on a regular basis, so that teachers are “reflective practitioners” in their classrooms and schools become “learning organizations” (Collie & Taylor, 2004) and

consequently we reach the goal of high-quality teaching and learning as well as improving schools.

To conclude this chapter, as stated in Chapter 1, one point to note is that TPD occurs in social and historical contexts and the nature of these affects it. Although TPD remains problematic throughout the world, it is also optimistic that most countries are still making efforts to implement different innovations of professional development in their own cultural and social context. We can learn much from what it is possible to do and what it is not possible to do in these efforts.

In the light of the literature including concepts and theories reviewed in this chapter as the teaching profession, its changes, practices as well as problems of TPD, comparisons on these aspects between Mainland China and Hong Kong will be described in the following chapters.

Chapter 3 Methodology

3.1 Introduction

This chapter is aimed at describing the research process with the presentation of the methodological principles of the study. Its purpose is to explain the choice of research strategy, design and method about data collection and analysis, as well as a description of the two sites of the research and participants. And the match between the type of research and personal conditions and skills of the researcher will be mentioned as well, because one important point to note is that any study requires examination of researcher's own orientation to basic tenets about the nature of reality, the purpose of doing research, and the type of knowledge to be produced (Merriam, 1998).

3.2 Research Strategy

Quantitative and qualitative researches constitute different approaches to social investigation.

Quantitative research can be explained as a research strategy that emphasizes quantification in the collection and analysis of data, like numerical and statistical data for instances. It entails a deductive theory-testing approach and has incorporated the practices and norms of the natural and positive scientific model, embodying a view of an external and objective social reality (Bryman, 2008, p.22).

By contrast, qualitative research emphasizes an inductive approach and the generation of theories; has rejected the practices and norms of the natural scientific model and prefers the ways in which individuals interpret their social world; and embodies a view of social reality as a constantly shifting emergent property of individuals' creation (Bryman, 2008, p.22). Qualitative researchers “generate rich verbal and textual data to represent the social environment by using observations that yield detailed, thick description; inquiry in depth; interviews that capture direct quotations about people's personal perspectives and experiences; case studies; careful document review”, etc. (Patton, 2002, p. 40).

Thus, both quantitative and qualitative approaches have distinct strengths for social research. The quantitative approach facilitates comparison and statistical aggregation of the data collected from a great many people and “gives a broad, generalizable set of findings presented succinctly and parsimoniously” (Patton, 2002, p.14). Unlike quantitative methods, the qualitative research strategy facilitates study of issues in depth and detail, produces rich data and detailed information about a much smaller number of people and cases (Patton, 2002, p.14).

Besides the theoretical comparison above, when choosing the strategy, there are also other practical factors (e.g. the purpose of this study, personal conditions of the researcher as well as social reality of the fieldwork) that should be taken into consideration. This study attempts to answer the research questions by interpreting the policies and implementations within real dynamic systems in two regions of China, depicting differences and similarities between them rather than numeric data and some static phenomena. Meanwhile, as Liu (2005, p. 105) stated, “it is often hard to conduct fieldwork without help through personal contacts...this may be partly related

to the political climate and partly to the widespread practice of “guanxi” (social relationships)...this phenomenon seems to be a shared one by researchers conducting social research in China”. As an indigenous researcher, I am familiar with the local environment and culture in Mainland China, but not in Hong Kong area. So it is more convenient to collect data from a small group of teachers than from a great many in Hong Kong.

In a word, qualitative research seems to be more suitable for this study, by gaining detailed information from the experiences told by a small group of teachers from both Mainland China and Hong Kong and understanding the implementations of TPD from their perspectives.

3.3 Research Design

In the present study, the research object is TPD in China, which is a country with its own peculiarity: implementing “one-country-two-system” policy, that is, socialist system is maintained in Mainland China, while capitalist system in Hong Kong, Macau and Taiwan, which means in one country, there are different social and historical settings in different regions. Bryman (2008) underlines that it is very important to be clear with the definition of the design because a choice of research design reflects decisions about the priority being given to a range of dimensions of the research process.

Hence, in order to be much clearer with the design, it will be analyzed at two levels.

(1). At the regional level (Level I, see Figure 3.1), it is considered as a comparative design, because according to Hantrais (1996, as cited in Bryman 2008, p. 58), the aim

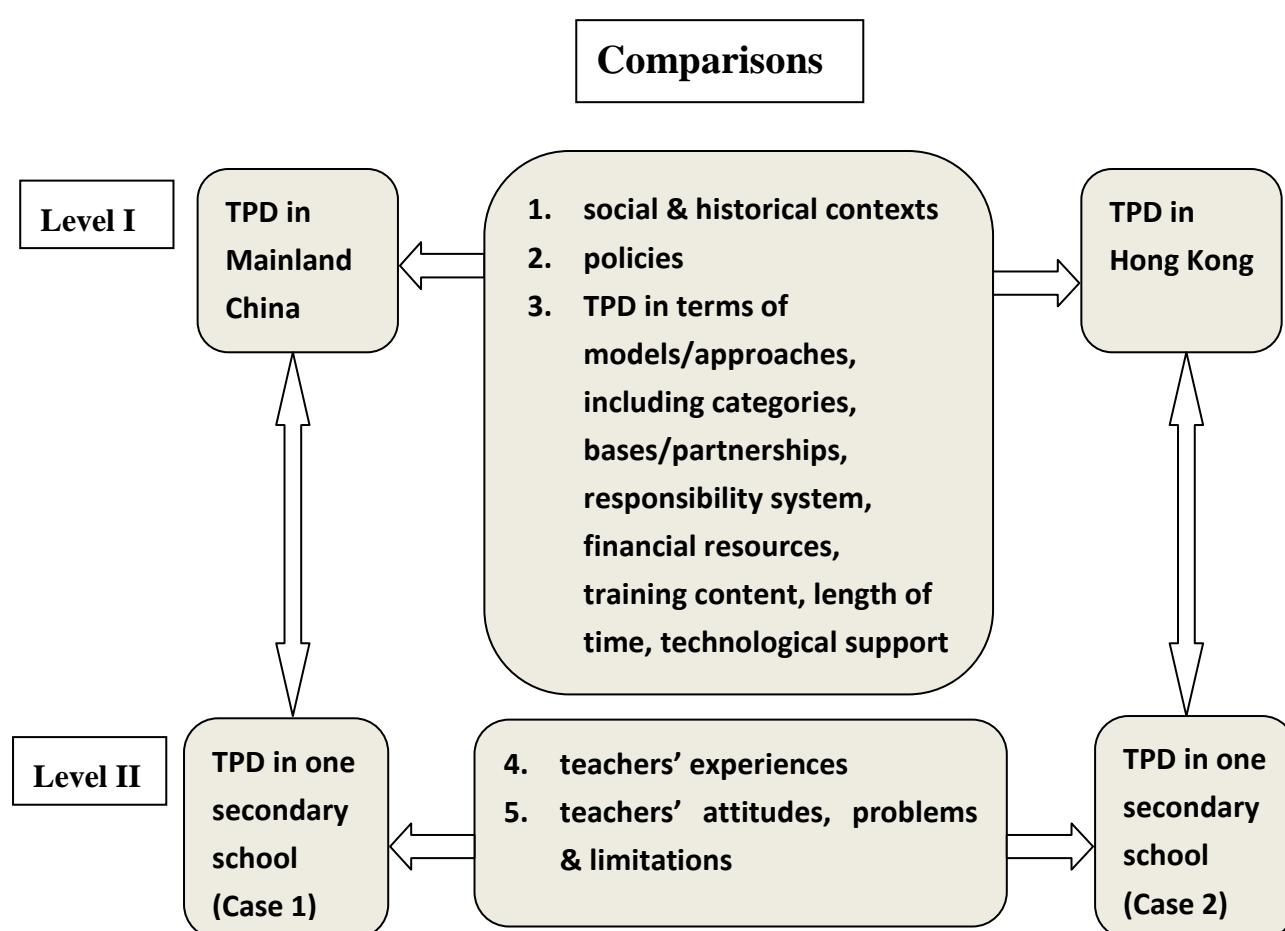
of a comparative design is to seek explanations of similarities and differences or to gain a greater awareness and a deeper understanding of social reality in different national contexts. The present study is conducted in the two regions with different social and historical situations as briefly discussed above and to be discussed in details in the following chapters.

(2) At the organizational level (Level II, see Figure 3.1), in a sense, it is a multiple-case study design. Because it is acknowledged across the world that the most effective form of professional development is that which is based in schools and is related to the daily activities of teachers and learners (Villegas-Reimers, 2003, p.13), I'm trying to analyze one secondary school reflecting each region. Therefore, two embedded cases will be depicted in the study, as Bryman (2008) prefers to call "exemplifying case". With this kind of case, "the objective is to capture the circumstances and conditions of an everyday or commonplace situation" (Yin, 2003, p. 41). The notion of exemplification implies that cases are often chosen not because they are extreme or unusual in some way but because either they epitomize a broader category of cases or they will provide a suitable context for certain research questions to be answered (Bryman, 2008).

So the two levels of this study are shown in details in Figure 3.1. At Level I, the research questions such as "how do different social-cultural and historical contexts impact policy making of TPD in these regions and what similarities and differences referring to policies on TPD have been made in Mainland China and Hong Kong?" will be discussed and more detailed comparisons concerned with the research questions will also be analyzed, for instance, "how do the two regions implement TPD individually in terms of models/approaches, including categories,

bases/partnerships, responsibility system, financial resources, training content, length of time, technological support?”. Then at Level II, in light of multiple-case study, in-depth questions like “what experiences on TPD do teachers both from Mainland China and Hong Kong have in practice, what do they think of the experiences from their perspective, and what are the limitations/problems of current practices?” will be examined.

Figure 3.1 Two Levels of the Research Design



Data collection and analysis is accomplished at the two levels. Data from Level I can present the general picture about TPD in two regions and pinpoint the properties of the two meaningfully contrasting cases, while data from Level II can help the researcher specify the experiences and attitudes as well as problems from the

perspective of the teachers through the in-depth interviews. And how data is collected and analyzed is described as follows.

3.4 Methods of Data Collection

According to Patton (2002), qualitative findings grow out of three kinds of data collection: (1) in-depth, open-ended interviews; (2) direct observation; and (3) written documents. In this current study, document analysis and interviews are utilized.

3.4.1 Document analysis

Documentary evidence is an important source of data collection that can be used to fill out and confirm evidence from other sources (Yin, 2003). Also Merriam (1988, p. 108) stated the use of documents as data in qualitative research:

The data found in documents can be used in the same manner as data from interviews or observations. The data can furnish descriptive information; verify emerging hypotheses, advance new categories and hypotheses, offer historical understanding, track change and developments.

To grasp a general picture of TPD in the two regions and gain the data at Level I in Figure 3.1, I search and analyze substantial documents and literature mainly concerned with the social-cultural and historical background, policies on TPD, and implementations of TPD from some official websites in Mainland China and Hong Kong, for instance, the Ministry of Education of P. R. China, Hong Kong SAR Government, Hong Kong Teachers' Center, etc. and on some websites of international organizations, like UNESCO, APEID (Asia and the Pacific Programme of

Educational Innovation for Development). And another useful resource for document analysis is getting the opportunity to study for two weeks in NIAS, the Nordic Institute of Asian Studies in Copenhagen, from which some important organizational records and official publications and reports can be gained.

3.4.2 Semi-structured or open-ended interviews

Bryman (2008) explains that interviews can allow researchers to get in-depth information and internal meaning. The data at Level II in Figure 3.1 which detailedly reflects personal understandings and perspectives of the participants is collected by using semi-structured or open-ended interviews. “An open-ended interview permits the respondent to describe what is meaningful and salient without being pigeon holed into standardized categories” (Patton, 2002, p.56).

To facilitate semi-structured interviews and gain in-depth data and real daily situations of TPD implementations from teachers, middle administrators or principals, I prepared an interview guide (see Appendix) in advance with a set of ten open-ended interview questions, including 7 questions for common teachers and 3 extra questions for middle administrators or principals. Because most teachers in Mainland China speak Mandarin Chinese while many teachers in Hong Kong can speak fluent English, the whole interview guide was written both in Chinese and English and participants would have a choice of the language they feel most comfortable with. The interviews lasted 30-45 minutes but interviewees might go beyond the schedule or guide and more flexibility would be involved.

Interviews in Mainland China were conducted in August 2009, when there were some schools still holding additional classes in summer vacation, so that I was able to get in touch with the relevant staff in the school which I had contacted with in advance, while interviews in Hong Kong were finished in March 2010. All the interviews were recorded using a digital recorder when each interview was ongoing in a secluded area in order to be able to record the interview clearly and draw the participants' full attention. The interviewees were highly cooperative and conversations were unfolded in a friendly atmosphere. They were encouraged to express their views as freely as they could, and were requested to provide concrete examples to illustrate their points.

3.5 Methods of Data Analysis

On the grounds of the methods of data collection, correspondingly the methods of data analysis are introduced in this part.

First of all, there are several ways of analyzing documents within qualitative research. Qualitative content analysis is probably the most prevalent approach to the qualitative analysis of documents according to Bryman (2008). However, Hosti (1969, as cited in Bryman, 2008) described that content analysis is a technique for making inferences by objectively and systematically identifying specified characteristics of messages. So there is one point in this description to note that objectivity is very important. Bryman (2008) points out that "objectivity" resides in the fact that there is transparency in the procedures for assigning the raw materials to categories so that the analyst's personal biases intrude as little as possible in the process. Hence, I should keep the process of content analysis as the one that means results are not an extension of personal biases.

Additionally, due to two different political systems existing between Mainland and Hong Kong, there are probably some overstated or understated documents that were reported in certain historical period, for instance, Cultural Revolution. The main criteria for assessment of the documents are authenticity (true, real, legitimate information), credibility (whether there are grounds for thinking that the contents of the document have been or are distorted in some way), and representiveness (if the evidence is typical of this kind) (Scott, 1990, as cited in Bryman, 2008, p. 291). In this case, I was critical and selective about the document sources, trying to be sure that the data are authentic.

Secondly, because data deriving from qualitative interviews typically take the form of a large amount of unstructured textual material, which are not straightforward to analyze. Grounded theory has become a widely used approach, in which coding is a key process and categories are generated in the process (Bryman, 2008).

Having followed Bryman's (2008, p. 550) basic steps in coding, firstly I transcribed the interviews based on field notes shortly after each interview was conducted and translated the Chinese transcription into English version. After this process of initial coding which tended to be as detailed as possible, I reviewed the codes and did selective coding by extracting significant statements and phrases that were directly related to the interview questions and grouped them into categories.

As is shown in Appendix, the interview guide was consisted of ten questions. Question 1 and 2 were designed to examine the participants' existing concepts and opinions about TPD. Question 3—5 were to investigate the participants' experiences of TPD so that the researcher could get to know some aspects about

models/approaches, length of time, training content, financial resources, technological support of TPD implemented in Mainland and Hong Kong. Question 6—7 were to excavate in-depth information of the participants' attitudes and perspectives of TPD as well as the limitations/problems of it. Question 8—10 were designed particularly for middle administrators or principals to examine their perspectives of TPD with regard to school management and improvement.

In analyzing data, questions were thus organized around interrelated themes, and similar answers for each question were extracted, summarized and categorized (there may be a certain level of overlapping or cross references among responses to each question). Then relationships between categories were explored so that hypotheses were likely to be developed. Findings are then discussed to answer the research questions of the present study.

3.6 About Two Sites of the Research

Since Hong Kong is a big modern city, the city I choose in Mainland China is also at the similar level of development so that the situations in two regions are comparable.

Taken comparability and convenience into consideration, the chosen city in Mainland China is Shenzhen, which is located in the very south of Guangdong Province and situated just across the border from Hong Kong. It is the China's first special economic zone established via the patronage of the late Chinese leader Deng Xiaoping with a remarkable achievement in the annals of urbanization, industrialization and modernization.

In order to respect the principals' willingness of the two schools, the author uses A and B instead of the real names of the schools. The school chosen in Shenzhen is A High School. This is a public school founded in 1998, with more than 1800 students and 160 teachers. As a national model of high school in Guangdong Province, its quality and efficiency has been continuing to improve and 100% teachers have at least bachelor degree, among whom 14 teachers (about 8.8%) are master graduates and 30 teachers (about 18.8%) are in-service master candidates.

The school chosen in Hong Kong is B Secondary School, which is a charity school founded in 1990. The highest authority of the school is The Incorporated Management Committee (IMC), composed of representatives from the school sponsoring body, the B Benevolent Society, representatives of parents, teachers, alumni and the school principal. The number of students in this school is more than 1100, while there are totally more than 80 teachers, with about 65% Bachelor Degrees, 31% Master Degrees, 2% Doctoral Degree and 2% Certificate Master/ Mistress² (CM).

However, more detailed and relevant background information about Shenzhen and Hong Kong as well as these two chosen schools will be illuminated in the following chapters.

² Certificate Master/Mistress (CM): Teachers who do not have teacher training in universities, instead, Colleges of Education (now, Hong Kong Institute of Education). These teachers normally received a 2-3 years full-time teacher training. And they hold a Teacher Certificate after completion of the course. They are identified as non-graduates in the teacher ranking streams which have a separated promoting requirement. There are other teachers with GM, that is, Graduate Master, at least Bachelor degree.

3.7 About Participants

In each school eight staff as teachers of different subjects and middle administrators have been interviewed. The demographic information of the participants is demonstrated in Table 3.1 in the sequence of interviews. For the sake of confidentiality, pseudonyms are used in this study.

Table 3.1 Profile of the Participants

Relevant Information of the Participants					
Sites of research	Name	Gender	Teaching subject	Length of teaching (years)	Position in school
A High School in Shenzhen	Sophie	F	English	6	Teacher
	Allen	M	Politics	4	Middle Administrator
	Jim	M	Physical Education	5	Middle Administrator
	Annie	F	English	5	Teacher
	Henry	M	Chinese	5	Teacher
	Cathy	F	English	8	Teacher
	Catherin	F	Mathematics	14	Middle Administrator
	Yin	F	Chemistry	20	Middle Administrator
B Secondary School in Hong Kong	Lin	F	English	3.5	Teacher
	Berk	M	Tourists and Tourism	13	Middle Administrator
	Lisa	F	Geography	32	Middle Administrator
	Zhi	M	Mathematics, Science, Biology	16	Teacher
	Ting	F	Chinese History	5	Teacher
	Kin	M	Principles of Accounts	10	Middle Administrator
	Mike	M	Physical Education	7	Teacher
	Yan	F	Physics	8	Teacher

The following chapters will analyze findings from data collected in document analysis and the interviews.

Chapter 4 Teachers' Professional Development in Mainland China

4.1 Introduction

This chapter will analyze the data collected from the document and interviews on TPD of Mainland China. It contains following aspects: brief social-cultural and historical background, policies and development of TPD, implementations of TPD, and teachers' experiences and attitudes towards TPD. So this chapter is structured from regional level to organizational level, from general introduction to specific cases.

4.2 Brief Social-cultural and Historical Background

4.2.1 The teaching profession in Mainland China

China is characterized by unique features such as its vast land and the world's largest population. The largest developing nation in the world, China today also runs the largest education system in the world (Guo, 2005, p.150). From historical perspective, Confucianism has a far-reaching influence on education. Actually, Confucianism is so ingrained in the mind-set of China that most Chinese probably do not realize that their every action and thought has been impacted by Confucius who lived two thousand and five hundred years ago (Smith, 1991, p.21), let alone the education.

Under the influence of traditional culture, especially guided by the behavior of Confucius “honor the teacher, and respect his teaching³”, people across the country psychologically respect teachers. But the development of teaching profession didn't go smoothly. After the People's Republic of China (PRC) was found in 1949, teachers were honored as “glorious gardener” and “engineer of the human soul”; many young talented people, especially those who wished to move from rural area to cities were attracted by the teaching profession. However, during the Cultural Revolution between 1966 and 1976, teachers were downgraded as “poisonous weeds of Capitalism”. In 1978, Deng Xiaoping attempted to rebuild the reputation of teaching profession as he promoted “the Four Modernizations⁴” and in 1987, the Communist Party established a national Teachers' Day on September 10 to honor the teaching profession. Since the 1980s, there has been an ongoing development of policies related to teachers. Zhou and Reed (2005) introduce that policies of the 1980s focused on repairing teacher education, while the focus of a second round in the 1990s was put on issues of improving teaching profession. In 1993, the Teachers' Law was created by Ministry of Education of China (MOE, 1993) and it was for the first time that teaching was formally and officially identified as a profession and teachers' qualifications for different levels of education were specified (Paine & Fang, 2007). According to the Teachers' Law (1993), the teachers' qualification standards at secondary school level are as follows:

...junior secondary school teachers must have diplomas from 3-year teacher training colleges and other colleges; and senior high school teachers must

³ It is derived from “Houhanshu · Kongxi Zhuan” by Fan Ye, Southern · Song Dynasty.

⁴ In December 1978 at the Third Plenum of the 11th Central Committee, Deng Xiaoping announced the official launch of the Four Modernizations, formally marking the beginning of the reform era. The Four Modernizations which were designed to make China a great economic power by the early 21st century, were in the fields of: Agriculture, Industry, National Defense and Science and Technology.

have an undergraduate diploma or degree from a 4-year normal university or other 4-year universities or higher.

Furthermore, in numerical terms, teachers in China form the largest teaching force in the world. The number of teachers has increased with the expansion of schooling at all levels since the foundation of the PRC in 1949. Table 4.1 shows a general picture of the growth of the teaching force.

Table 4.1 Number of Teachers by Levels of Schooling (in 10, 000)

Year	Regular Senior Secondary Schools	Regular Junior Secondary Schools	Regular Primary Schools	Special Education Schools	Pre-school Education Institutions
1949	1.4	5.3	83.6	N/A	N/A
1965	7.8	37.9	385.7	0.3	6.2
1978	74.1	244.1	522.5	0.4	27.8
1985	49.1	216.0	537.7	0.7	55.0
2000	75.7	324.9	586.0	3.2	85.7
2005	130.0	347.2	559.3	3.2	72.2
2008	147.6	346.9	562.2	3.6	89.9

Source: Statistics from official website of MOE (2009).

Facing such a large size of the teaching force, Chinese government has made different policies to solve different ranges of problems from teacher qualifications to professional development, which will be examined in the latter Part 4.3.

4.2.2 Current curriculum reform

As wider economic and social reforms of the country have been carried out in the late

20th and early 21st centuries, Chinese education has been undergoing reform in many sectors. For a long history, guided by examination-oriented education, the dominant traditions of schooling emphasized academic achievement and promotion of the most talented students, which has been criticized by many China's researchers and educators. Students were crammed with lots of knowledge, practices and examinations so that they made learning a heavy burden and killed a love for learning for learning's sake. From this point of view, educational reforms put focus on the change of curriculum with the hope of attracting students' real interest in learning and developing students' all-round development instead of only examination achievements. Through the curriculum reform, the Government has been trying to change examination-oriented education into Quality Education.

The new curriculum, which began in 2001 at the experimental level in several provinces, and gradually expanded to reach all grade levels by 2007, is a reaction against the traditional schooling (Paine & Fang, 2007). Aiming at developing a new kind of ideal learner, the new curriculum encourages students to solve problems in real-life situations through inquiry and creativity, and students are finally enabled to cultivate the capacity to be a lifelong learner. This new vision needs new expectations for what a qualified teacher does and what good teaching entails. The reform requires a teacher to “teach students to be independent and self-initiate learners, respect the student as a person, pay attention to individual learner differences, and meet different learning needs” (China Education Daily, 2001). Teachers should develop a flexible teaching methodology and an effective way of managing the classroom, and gradually help students transfer their learning methods from what to learn to how to learn as well as from traditionally learning by memorizing to learning by doing.

4.3 Policies and Development of TPD

Considering the aforementioned situation of teachers and educational reforms in China with a long tradition of its own cultures of teaching and learning, Mei (2008) noted that changes of teacher professional development represent both a growing transformation of economy and society and the diversity of educational condition in China. Policies and development of TPD have experienced three main phases.

4.3.1 Subject matter and basic teaching competence (1978-1983)

This is the first phase when the reform and opening up policy was at the very beginning step and the Central Government attempted to recover the basic education in China after the damage of the Cultural Revolution. However, at that time most of primary and secondary school teachers were not competent to the task of teaching. According to Mei (2008), in 1978 the percentage of teachers with college degree was only 9.8% among 24 million junior secondary teachers, and 45% Bachelor degree among 2.4 million senior secondary teachers.

Thus, in 1980 “Suggestions on further strengthening in-service training for primary and secondary teachers” was issued by the MOE (Mei, 2008), focusing on mastering textbooks of the subject itself and basic teaching methods as well as daily teaching routine to enable teachers to know how to teach.

4.3.2 Make-up education for unqualified teachers (1984-1989)

The policy emphasis for professional development in the middle 1980s concentrated

on make-up education for unqualified teachers, which is known as degree education. In 1985, “the Decision of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of China on the Reform of Educational System” pointed out that training for in service teachers should be regarded as strategic measures in developing education and the majority of the unqualified teachers should be enabled to obtain qualified certificates or qualified degree (ibid.).

As a result of more than 10-year effort, the percentage of qualified teachers has greatly increased. See Table 4.2 below.

Table 4.2 Percentage of Qualified Teachers by Levels of Schooling

Year	Regular Primary Schools	Regular Junior Secondary Schools	Regular Senior Secondary Schools
1952	13.5	53.5	68.8
1965	34.5	74.7	59.3
1980	49.8	12.7	35.9
1985	60.6	25.3	39.6
1993	86.6	63.8	53.3
2003	97.9	92.0	75.7
2006	98.9	97.2	86.5

Source: Statistics from official website of MOE.

4.3.3 Continuing education (1990-Now)

Given this condition presented in Table 4.2 in the early 1990s, the training priority for most parts of China has shifted from training for qualification to continuing education (UNESCO-UNDP, 1997).

According to Mei (2008), in 1990 the “Symposium of Continuing Education for National Secondary and Primary Teachers” firstly proposed that in order to further improve the quality of teaching force, continuing education for teachers should be carried out after accomplishing the task of make-up education in most areas. The continuing education for second school teachers was speeded up after the Fifth National Meeting of Teacher Education held in 1996. The Teacher Education Department of MOE issued a series of guiding documents including the “Guidelines on Course Development for Continuing Education of Secondary and Primary School Teachers” (1997a), which is considered as a reference of curriculum reform (Teacher Education in China, 2001). In the same year, the Teacher Education Department of MOE (1997b) promulgated “Suggestions on Strengthening Professional Ethics Education in Continuing Education for Secondary and Primary School Teachers”. It regulated the guiding principles, targets, contents, measures, and examination. In 1999, the State Council forwarded the “Action Plan for Rejuvenating Education to Face 21st Century” drafted by the Ministry of Education, with two major objectives in the "Trans-Century Teachers Training Project" in the plan, one of which was to complete the continuing education and training of present principles and specialized teachers of secondary and primary schools in 3 years (Teacher Education in China, 2001). Shortly afterwards, the Ministry of Education issued “Regulations on Continuing Education for Secondary and Primary School Teachers” (1999), the most formal and comprehensive policy, in order to set up the continuing education system. It defined the contents, categories, organization administration, infrastructure standards, examination and verification, and awards.

Entering the 21st century, profession development policy, in response to the new curriculum reform, has regulated that teachers should “receive training before

teaching the new curriculum” (MOE, 2001).

Implementations and practices related to these policies mentioned above have been accomplished or are in the process now in different areas of China.

4.4 Implementations of TPD

4.4.1 From a national perspective

Categories:

Concerning the situation shown in Table 4.2 that percentage of qualified teachers is still increasing in the 21st century, which means that make-up education is ongoing in rural and western remote areas, in-service training of teachers in China thus can be divided into degree and non-degree education as noted in *Teacher Education in China* (2001). It suggests that degree education includes not only the make-up education for in-service teachers without qualified certificates but also the upgrading education for in service teachers with qualified certificates; the non-degree education for in-service teachers is the main parts of continuing education, which has been the key of secondary and primary teacher training, including short-term courses, lectures seminars, conferences, workshops and so on, as the global current practices reviewed in Chapter 2.

Bases/Partnerships:

Except those school-based development practices implemented at school where teachers work, in-service teacher training schools, institutes and departments are the important bases for continuing education for primary and secondary school teachers.

According to UNESCO and UNDP (1997), teacher training schools and institutes were strengthened and rebuilt in the early 1980s. And as the statistics (2008) from the official website of MOE shows, there are at present more than 4000 such institutions, with almost one for each county and city district.

Responsibility system:

Because of the huge number of secondary and primary school teachers, training for TPD is a shared responsibility of various educational administrations at different levels. Aforementioned Guidelines (1997a) made clear the top-down responsibility system for operating TPD: The MOE is responsible for the macro-guidance and overseeing the integrated training in the six key normal universities⁵ and the fifty-nine non-key normal universities. The educational administrations of the provinces, autonomous regions and municipalities are responsible for in-service teacher training by collaborating with higher education institutions located within their regions. Such local training institutions are responsible for the specific implementations. Schools where teachers work are the prime places for TPD. They should provide time for training and necessary material conditions for a systematic, permanent and effective training.

Financial resources:

A certain percentage of funds for TPD allocated by the Central Government is used for national scale of training every year. For instance, in 2003, an implementation used as a cascade model with an investment of 17 million yuan from the Central

⁵ The six key normal universities directly under the MOE, are: Beijing Normal University, East China Normal University, Northeast Normal University, Huazhong Normal University, Shanxi Normal University, and Southwest Normal University.

Government in response to the new curriculum, was carried out across the country through training 10,000 “backbone”(gugan) teachers (Su, 2003). If TPD is undertaken at local level, expenses for it are therefore taken from local education funds. The financial situation differs, however, from place to place.

Content:

For those in-service teachers to obtain teachers' certificates, the training are mainly on strengthening political thoughts, ethics, educational theories and teaching abilities. Continuing education which helps teachers accomplish their tasks and get promotion is conducted separately according to the present job responsibility, qualifications and current requirements at a higher level.

For both degree and non-degree education, as Regulations (1999) of MOE suggest, the main content includes “ideological and political education and professional ethics, education theoretical research, modern educational technology, training of pedagogical skills, specialized research on education and teaching, and renew and expansion of knowledge”. The MOE organized some textbooks for public compulsory courses such as Survey of Deng Xiaoping's Theory, Professional Ethics of Secondary and Primary School Teachers, Basic Methodology, Modern Education Technology. From this point, we can know that to improve the professional ethics of teachers is the key part of continuing education.

Length of time:

The duration of the training programmes differs as the case may be. For degree education, it usually takes at least 2 years for College and Master degrees, 3 or 4 years

for Bachelor degree; for non-degree education, the length of time varies from half a day to several months.

Technological support:

Technology has become increasingly important to deliver professional training. In-service teachers in China can also upgrade themselves through independent and distance learning programmes offered by various institutions, for example, about 70% of the training courses in one program called K-12 Teachers' Continuing Education Program were delivered by satellite TV (Zhu, 2004, p.1). In many urban areas where ICT has been well developed, the educational administration set up a network for in-service teachers to log in and select courses depending on their own needs on the Internet. This will be examined in the next part.

4.4.2 From a local perspective

Under the guidance of Regulations (1999) of MOE, local educational administrations mostly follow the national model in the terms mentioned above, and suit implementations of TPD to their own conditions. In this part, the city of Shenzhen is taken for instance.

In 2003, "Suggestions on Continuing Education for Shenzhen Primary and Secondary School Teachers" was issued by Shenzhen Education Bureau, based on the Regulations (1999) of MOE. In the light of the Suggestions, Shenzhen Education Bureau is responsible for running TPD in the city, and credit system is used for the accumulation of training hours and completion of learning content. Every teacher is required to obtain at least 60 course hours of TPD in a school year. The suggestions

also regulate that those teachers who are seeking promotion⁶ must complete 180 credits hours⁷ for TPD in recent three years, 120 hours for municipal training and 60 hours in school-based activities. It is considered as a prerequisite when examined by the evaluation expert group.

The provider of most training courses for TPD is the Normal College of Shenzhen University (there are another two programmes “Educational Technology” and “Intel Future Education” held by Guangdong Province Teachers Continuing Education Centre in Guangzhou, the capital city of Guangdong Province). Normal College of Shenzhen University set up an official website: <http://teacher.szu.edu.cn/> for all primary and secondary school teachers in Shenzhen, every teacher with his/her own username and password. After logging in, teachers can select courses according to their own schedule from a menu of options, for instance, common courses as education psychology and Chinese history, specialized courses of each subject matter, training courses about the new curriculum, long-distance courses, and so on. Each course has the requirements of attendance rate and the “Pass” results of examinations. The network system will calculate the total credits and hours after the course is finished.

As part of teachers’ contractual obligations influencing their evaluation, promotion and ultimately salary raises, all teachers are provided by the network system yearly reports of their participation in this TPD system. This model, as described by Paine

⁶ In China, teachers’ professional titles (zhicheng) at general secondary schools include: first-rank secondary school teacher, second-rank, and third-rank secondary teacher. A third-rank secondary teacher can apply for second-rank after 5-year work; a second-rank teacher can apply for first-rank after another 5 years.

⁷ In Shenzhen, research and publication work can convert into 30 credit hours per school year.

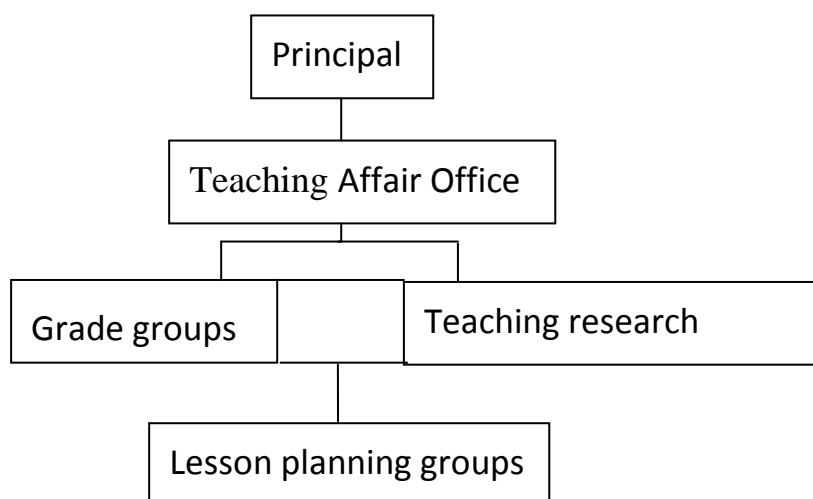
and Fang (2007), one that has external authorities defining the terms, contexts, and participants of TPD, is now widely utilized elsewhere in China.

4.4.3 School-based approaches of TPD

As the theory presented in Chapter 2, the most effective form of TPD is based in schools and related to daily teaching and learning. Schools in Shenzhen and also across the country have been ordered to build up the school-based TPD system.

The teaching organizational structure of primary and secondary schools in Mainland China is usually as Figure 4.1 shows.

Figure 4.1 The Teaching Organizational Structure of Schools in Mainland China



In Figure 4.1, grade groups are groups of teachers who teach different subjects but in the same grade during a school year; teaching research groups are organized by school subject with the same subject but different grades; lesson planning groups are groups of teachers who teach the same subject to the same grade of students. All daily teaching activities are administrated by Dean of Teaching Affairs Office.

Public conversations:

In most schools in Mainland China there are regular (typically weekly) meetings of grade groups, teaching research groups and lesson planning groups. In the meetings of grade groups, teachers especially class headteachers discuss class affairs and coordination among teachers of different subjects in the same class. And teachers in teaching research groups usually discuss the whole subject work in the school and are assigned different subject tasks by the group leader and if necessary the group leader will arrange lesson observation which will be discussed in the next part. In addition, teachers in the meetings of lesson planning groups plan and discuss their teaching together and analyze curriculum by picking up and elaborating important and difficult points in the curriculum.

Through these conversations, teachers especially the novice teachers have many opportunities to listen to more experienced others talk about teaching and class management. These conversations offer occasions for developing fundamental professional knowledge and skills. Paine and Fang (2007) argue that “public conversations represent one more way that teachers can know and be held responsible for an image of good teaching”.

Lesson observation:

Lesson observation (listening to lesson if translating *tingke* directly) in Mainland China serves different purposes for different teachers, but the major function is to help teachers generate knowledge of teaching through practice and ultimately improve the quality of teaching and learning. There are many types and functions of lesson observation existing in Mainland China listed in Table 4.3 adapted from LawYee (2001).

Lesson observation can be arranged by lesson planning groups, teaching research groups or Teaching Affair Office. Every teacher in school has a fixed task of how many lessons he/she should observe each semester, usually at least 10 lessons. Teachers do not only listen to lessons in their own schools, but also carry out this activity in other schools in the same district and across districts and even in different provinces as well. Lessons are always followed by a session/seminar in which the teacher and observers provide feedbacks and critical comments.

Table 4.3 Types and Functions of Lesson observation in Mainland China

Lesson Type	Function
Demonstration lesson (Shifanke)	lesson conducted by experienced teacher for training novice teacher
Open/Public lesson (Gongkaike)	lesson for dissemination of effective teaching methods
Supervised lesson (Zhidaoke)	lesson supervised by expert teacher for training backbone teachers
Exchange lesson (Jiaoliuke)	peer teachers attend each others' for exchange and experimentation
Walk-in lesson (Tuimenke)	lesson inspected by education officers, seniors or principals without prior notice
Appraisal lesson (Kaopingke)	lesson conducted for appraisal
Test lesson (Guoguanke)	lesson conducted to test young teachers' performance
Selection of expert teachers (Youxiu jiaoshi pingxuan)	lesson for selecting expert teachers
Experimental lesson (Shiyanke)	lesson for teaching research

Through lesson observation, young teachers can learn from the experience, be aware

of their own mistakes and improve their teaching; experienced teachers can update teaching methods like multi-media teaching and learn about new trends of education as well (LawYee, 2001). In short, lesson observation is widely regarded as a helpful and commonly-used means to enhance TPD in Mainland China.

4.5 Teachers' Experiences and Attitudes to TPD

In this part, the data collected in the interviews from A school in Shenzhen will be analyzed by using data analysis methods described in Chapter 3, that is, grouping, summarizing and categorizing similar responses from the participants to each question. Findings will be presented in the sequence of interview questions and organized into four categories: (1). participants' existing concepts of TPD; (2). participants' experiences of TPD; (3). their attitudes including limitations and problems; (4). perspectives on school management and improvement

4.5.1 Existing concepts of TPD

This part will examine eight participants' existing concepts and opinions of TPD, that is, whether they have heard of TPD and what they think of TPD in their own understanding.

Eight participants except Jim have heard of TPD in their work. Sophie (with 6-year teaching experience) said:

It is very important to the growth and development of a teacher, because as a teacher, there is a big difference between the knowledge learned in university and the real experience gained in practice. In

order to guarantee the teaching quality and update his/her own teaching theory, he/she has to continue to learn.

And Annie and Henry considered TPD as some plans for training programmes formulated by schools. Yin (with 20-year teaching experience) thought it more deeply that “current TPD is not only for continuing to learn professional knowledge but also for cultivating comprehensive quality including professional attitudes, professional value and spirit”.

4.5.2 Participating experiences of TPD

All the participants have taken part in different activities of TPD. In this part, their experiences will be shared with respect to approaches, training content, duration, and financial support at school, municipal or national level.

① At school level

As the eight participants are in the same school, the school-based activities they experienced are overlapped to a certain degree. The representative response is:

In our school, the most widely-implemented activity is listening to lesson (lesson observation) in the same subject or even across subjects. Teachers with good performance were selected to conduct lessons to be observed by peer teachers, principals, sometimes teachers from other schools and District or Municipal Teaching Research Officers. This did not only give the teachers an honor, the lesson planning groups enabled teachers to sit together to discuss about teaching and plan for the most suitable way to conduct the lesson (Annie).

Particularly, Sophie noted that she had participated in several seminars about class management and students' moral education held by the school for class headteachers, and was once sent to relevant provincial training.

② At municipal or national level

All of the eight participants have been involved in the training for the new curriculum at municipal, provincial or national level before they teach students using the new curriculum. Cathy (with 8-year teaching experience) said:

It is compulsory training for Shenzhen teachers. All of the teachers must participate in municipal training, but not all have the opportunities to get trained at provincial or national level. It is selective. I went to Beijing last summer to experience the national training as a backbone teacher. It was a kind of honor for a teacher to have the opportunity to take part at national level. It lasted a week, and was like a workshop with experts' lectures, seminars and front-line teachers' lesson presentations. Shenzhen Education Bureau afforded the expenses of all the representative teachers.

Annie (with 5-year teaching experience) also mentioned:

After my graduation in 2004, which was the first year when Shenzhen carried out the new curriculum reform, Shenzhen English Teaching Research Office invited an English curriculum professor Liu Daoyi and his team from Beijing to help and guide teachers to systematically get familiar with the newly-supplemented aims and content in the new curriculum mostly through one-week seminars.

And Allen (with 4-year teaching experience) took part in provincial new curriculum training for three days. He also noted that the training, held by Shenzhen Education Bureau was “to invite the authors of the New Curriculum of Politics Subject to explain it and make a survey on experimental practice”.

Besides new curriculum training, every participant has also participated in the continuing education conducted by Shenzhen University, mentioned in Part 4.4. “It is compulsory as well because gaining 180 credit hours is a basic qualification for promotion,” said Catherin.

4.5.3 Teachers’ attitudes towards TPD

This part will present teachers’ attitudes towards current practices of TPD they have experienced and reveal limitations or problems of these practices from their perspective. Thus this part is also shown at two levels as categorized in the last part. And the participants’ attitudes including limitations/problems of TPD are presented in the sequence of the major practices described in the last part as well.

On the whole, eight participants except Jim agreed that current practices they had participated were of some help and use, but still had many problems to solve. Jim said because he taught Physical Education and was quite busy as a middle administrator, the practices he had been involved in were a waste of time and not useful for him.

① At school level

Most participants, especially young teachers with no more than 6-year work experience like Sophie, Allen, Annie, and Henry, thought highly of lesson observation.

Henry noted that this practice had become so common and so well accepted that “its effect has been taken granted for”. Allen shared his experience about one of his lessons observed by his mentor and other experienced teachers in the school:

I spent a lot of effort in lesson planning and tried my best to teach well during the lesson. In fact, I was very happy with my performance because I thought I had done well. However, when my mentor commented about my lack of understanding about my students after the lesson, I then realized my weakness. I had learned a lot from the feedbacks provided by my mentor and other experienced teachers.

However, whether the observed can receive useful suggestive comments or not after lesson relies much on the way in which peers are getting along with each other in a subject group. For example, Annie, teaching English, said that most of her group peers were quite courteous and not used to criticizing others, so in the post-observation conference her peer teachers praised the observed teacher and put focus on his/her advantages, which could give the teacher much confidence, but there was lack of comments on his/her weakness so that the teacher didn't know which place the problems lay in and how to improve the teaching.

On the contrary, Henry in Chinese subject group thought that he could get many critical suggestions from his peers, because the teachers in his group were frank towards others and expressed their opinions in a direct way, which made him learn a lot from the criticisms. Meanwhile he also noted: “those who gave me sincere and useful critical suggestions are usually my good friends”.

Another problem revealed by Henry is that many observed lessons are to some extent

a show or a performance, not meaningful or practical to real regular teaching. For instance, he said:

I have observed some lessons which are types of appraisal lesson, demonstration lesson or public lesson. The conducting teachers were always attempting to give perfect performance so that they could be highly thought of by the observers or just dealt with the inspections. They used some teaching approaches that were seldom used in real teaching and even play tricks sometimes to make the lesson look better. Besides, some lesson observations interfered with students' regular learning and added extra burden to teachers. So I think the key reason for this phenomenon is that there is still a contradictory between the requirements of new curriculum and current examination-oriented educational system.

② At municipal or national level

As for the new curriculum training, most participants considered it of some value and help, because they thought that teachers did learn new teaching theories and get better understanding about the new curriculum to some extent.

In Cathy's opinion, she learned some new teaching methodology from the national curriculum training, but it wasted her time to fly to Beijing and stay there for a week because actually there were too many theories instead of realistic practical approaches. So she would prefer the organizers to deliver these theories of lectures on the Internet rather than fly so far and sit at present, listening to face-to-face but the same lectures.

According to Henry, municipal and provincial curriculum training was only a reaction

to the policy of MOE (see Part 4.3.3), and “lack necessary following-up measures to evaluate the training”, so “the effect of the training was not articulated to policy implementers, trainers and trainees”.

The most controversial municipal training is the continuing education conducted by Normal College of Shenzhen University. Most participants criticized that there was nothing useful except the credit hours for promotion. Representative responses of the participants are as follows:

“The training was quite superficial and focused on the form rather than content, not closely related to practice. I believe the purpose for the majority of teachers attending these courses is only to get credit hours” (Yin).

“Many teachers prefer to relax at home rather than study at weekends” (Catherin).

“It has added to teachers’ considerable workloads. I often notice some teachers bring students exercise books to check and mark while listening to the lectures” (Allen).

“The lectures are too theoretical, not having practical applications and the courses ignore the features of adult learning. Some lecturers and trainers are at a low level of professional knowledge or teaching skills” (Cathy).

Different from other participants focusing on the subject courses, Jim preferred to select courses according to his hobbies, for instance, photography, tourism, because “the content of subject courses is so boring and dull” in his words. Initiatively, he suggested that the organization should establish different sets of training courses according to teachers’ ages instead of only one set of courses applied for teachers at different ages.

4.5.4 Perspectives on school management and improvement

Among the eight participants, Allen, Jim, Catherin and Yin are middle administrators. So the following part is their responses on school management and improvement. They were supposed to answer whether they had participated in making or implementing TPD policies, what trouble there was when making and implementing policies, and whether the practices they had experienced were helpful to school management as well as improvement.

Except Allen, the other three participants have participated in making and implementing TPD policies. They expressed that plans and policies of different aspects were proposed by different sections, for instance, Moral Education Office in charge of trainings for class headteachers, Teaching Affair Office in charge of teaching improvement trainings and Science Research Office in charge of teachers' research. However, final decisions were totally made by principal and vice principals.

As for problems or trouble, Yin said:

When making and implementing TPD policies, most teachers can cooperate with you, although some of them are reluctant and forced to do so because they have heavy teaching workloads and don't have time and energy to accomplish it well and effectively. As a result, the outcomes of the implementation sometimes can't reach the original goals.

Furthermore, both Catherin and Jim stated that many implementations of TPD needed all stakeholders of different administrative sections to cooperate together besides the participating teachers. One school-based activity held by one section might be an

extra burden to another section. This situation need stakeholders coordinate their relationships and balance the benefit.

Finally, none of the four participants denied the importance of TPD to school management and improvement. Jim noted that TPD could cultivate school learning culture; Allen pointed out that current practices of TPD could definitely improve teaching quality, and better students' achievement. But honestly speaking, he also stated: "current TPD still serves for a school's examination-oriented education to ultimately increase students' enrolment rate if China educational system is not changed". Additionally, "school-based activities of TPD can strengthen communication between common teachers and administrative staff and the coherence among teachers is also maintained" said Yin.

Chapter 5 will discuss relevant aspects of TPD in Hong Kong. A further comparative analysis of the data will be performed in Chapter 6.

Chapter 5 Teachers' Professional Development in Hong Kong

5.1 Introduction

This chapter will utilize the same text structure as Chapter 4 does to analyze the data on TPD in Hong Kong collected in the document and interviews. The chapter will be developed in the same sequence: brief social-cultural and historical background, policies and development of TPD, implementations of TPD and teachers' experiences and attitudes to TPD. One point should be noted that since Hong Kong is a much smaller region than Mainland China, the part of implementations of TPD will not be described from a national perspective, but from a regional perspective.

5.2 Brief Social-cultural and Historical Background

5.2.1 Education and the teaching profession in Hong Kong

① Education:

Hong Kong was ceded to Great Britain in 1842. As a result, the arrival of colonization markedly changed the principle source of ideas for educational innovation (Bray, 1991, p. 83), so the western model of education rapidly became dominant. Most of Hong Kong's educational system was derived from Western, mainly British, traditions, adapted to meet local circumstances (Cooke, 2000), although Hong Kong's educational system had also of course been influenced to some extent by the cultural traditions of China.

After the return of sovereignty to the PRC in 1997, Hong Kong was allowed to retain many of its existing characteristics, including its legal, financial and educational system. Yet the government still revised many aspects of Hong Kong education, especially syllabuses for subjects at all levels to reflect constitutional, political and social development in Hong Kong (Koo, 1999). For instance, in secondary schools, the formal language of instruction used to be either English or Chinese (Cantonese dialect in fact), and since 1998 secondary schools have been required to use standard official Chinese (Mandarin/Putonghua) as the medium of instruction; 114 secondary schools out of over 400 have been allowed to continue to use English. This change has made an influence on the content of teachers' training, which will be discussed later.

② **The teaching profession:**

Adamson and Li (1999) note that the teaching profession came to be spotlighted in the 1990s as part of the movement towards quality mass education. Teaching in Hong Kong, although without highly prestigious, does not have so low the status and poor economic rewards as the profession has in some Asian countries, such as Mainland China. In addition, Adamson and Li (1999) also stated that compared with other professions requiring similar qualifications, teaching profession is more stable with a respectable salary in times of economic turmoil. And the size of the teaching force in Hong Kong has expanded much as shown in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1 Number of Teachers by Levels of Schooling

School Year	Kindergartens	Primary Schools	Secondary Schools	Special Schools
1993/94	7950	18442	20595	1339
2003/04	8517	24382	26419	1709
2007/08	10335	22787	29160	1410
2008/09	9688	22491	29575	1437

Source: Statistics from official website of Education Bureau of Hong Kong (EDB).

5.2.2 Current curriculum reform

The change from colony to Special Administrative Region (SAR) brought major changes in curriculum. According to Education Commission (2006a) of SAR, one element in the post-1997 era was a curriculum launched by the Curriculum Development Council (CDC) in 1999. CDC has set out the seven learning goals that students should achieve: healthy lifestyle, breadth of knowledge, learning skills, language skills, habit of reading, national identity and responsibility. The framework contained three major interrelated components, i.e. key learning areas developed from the existing school subjects, generic skills, and values and attitudes, placing a focus on student-centered approaches and school-based curriculum development for meeting diverse learning needs. Schools have been recommended to follow the four key tasks, namely Moral and Civic Education, Reading to Learn, Project Learning and Information Technology for Interactive Learning

Besides, in order to help students to increase their political awareness and become PRC citizens, and finish the tasks proposed by CDC, the government introduced new subjects including Government and Public Affairs, Liberal Studies, and Civic

Education and added topics to the existing subjects including History, Chinese History, Economic and Public Affairs, and Social Studies.

Not only the new students' learning goals and schools' tasks, but also the newly-added subjects and topics, on the whole, all these aspects of current curriculum reform have significant implications on TPD in Hong Kong.

5.3 Policies and Development of TPD

Since the year of 1997 is the watershed in the history of Hong Kong, the part will be examined into three phases: pre-1997, in 1997 and post-1997.

5.3.1 *Pre-1997*

As expected in general, the nature of teacher education in colonies around the world was heavily influenced by patterns in the colonizing country (Dove, 1986, p.181). This also applies to Hong Kong. The Hong Kong colonial government didn't play a supportive role in teacher education until the 20th century (Li & Kwo, 1999). When government did start teacher development activities, they were more interested in the colonial language than in Chinese.

The major policy trends concerning the changing structures and developing practices for teachers can be dated back to 1982. Cooke (2000) pointed out that Visiting Panel (1982) suggested the increased provision of in-service courses for teachers to benefit in their professional development, which should emphasize the need for teachers to acquire the knowledge, skills and understanding the implementation of school

programmes.

In 1986, Education Commission Report No. 2 was issued to recommend teacher preparation, the development of the teaching profession. And in its third report (1988), the expansion of training for graduate teachers was mentioned. By 1992, Education Commission recorded its fifth report which began to put focus on a few subjects or only one. The fifth report, under the title “The Teaching Profession”, was an intensive and focused study on professional development, considered as a landmark on TPD. It proposed to develop courses for serving teachers and increase the importance of professional development. A major recommendation of the fifth report was to create a new institute of education directly managed by the government. This was why the Hong Kong Institute of Education (HKIED) was established in 1994.

5.3.2 In 1997

In 1997 under the title of “Quality School Education”, Education Commission Report No. 7 declared to raise the professional standards of principals and teachers in order to improve the overall quality of school education. This was followed by the launch of a long-term education reform which emphasized lifelong learning. The report stressed the most challenging tasks in secondary schools were to raise the language ability of both Chinese and English teachers, by promoting mother-tongue language training courses for secondary school teachers.

5.3.3 Post- 1997

According to “Reform Proposal for the Education System in Hong Kong” submitted

by the Education Commission (2000), the University Grants Committee and the Advisory Committee on Teacher Education and Qualification (ACTEQ) submitted a report to the Government in 1998 and proposed a number of recommendations to upgrade the teachers' professional qualifications and status. In the same year, the SAR Government decided to increase significantly the number of teacher education places at degree or above level in the coming years.

In response to the Reform Proposal (Education Commission, 2000), many in-service curriculum courses were organized by the tertiary institutions, and the government worked with schools to provide on-the-job training and supervision. This was an expansion of in-service training for practicing teachers in theory and skills to promote the education reform.

Furthermore, ACTEQ issued a significant systematic document “Towards A Learning Profession: The Teacher Competencies Framework and the Continuing Professional Development of Teachers” in November 2003. The document developed a descriptive and generic framework of teacher competencies that embraces the abilities, skills, knowledge and attitudes expected of teachers at various stages of their professional growth and considered this teacher competencies framework⁸ as a guide and application goal of continuing professional development. Guiding principles and major modes of activities of teachers' continuing professional development were also noted in this document. Policies in this document then were implemented in a try-out period.

⁸ Teacher Competencies Framework (TCF) stresses teacher competencies on four domains: Teaching and Learning, Student Development, School Development and Professional Relationships and Services, retrieved from <http://www.acteq.hk/category.asp?lang=en&cid=54&pid=41>

According to “Progress Report on Education Reform” (Education Commission, 2006a), the ACTEQ conducted a comprehensive follow-up study in 2005 based on 2003 document. Then ACTEQ issued “Towards A Learning Profession: The Interim Report on Teachers’ Continuing Professional Development” in April 2006. In the report, the ACTEQ reported a more active CPD culture where teachers and schools have been participating in all kinds of CPD activities and such activities are largely contributing to the betterment of student learning in schools.

In May of 2009, ACTEQ issued “Towards A Learning Profession: Third Report on Teachers’ Continuing Professional Development”, making a summary of the first and second report and formulating further recommendations on teachers’ CPD. On the basis of the survey conducted in 2007, the Third Report confirmed that the present approach to implementing teachers’ CPD is appropriate and supported by most principals and teachers, and the next phase is to focus on its quality and effectiveness.

5.4 Implementations of TPD

This part will describe the implementations of TPD in Hong Kong in two aspects: regional-level implementations and school-based implementations. For the first aspect, the same terms in Part 4. 4.1 of categories, bases/partnerships, responsibility system, financial resources, content, length of time and technological support will be examined. For the second aspect, current common school-based activities of TPD will be discussed.

5.4.1 From a regional perspective

Categories:

① Categorized by degrees

Since primary and secondary teachers in Hong Kong are categorized into CM and GM (see Note 2 in Chapter 3), TPD in Hong Kong has two types, degree and non-degree. In the past over ten years the percentage of trained teachers with degrees in primary and secondary education schools has increased remarkably relatively from 10.4% and 47.3% in 1993 to 71.4% and 88.3% in 2006 (Education Commission, 2006b), which means in the past thirteen years, TPD was put focus on degree education. Current non-degree in-service courses provide refresher training and management training for teachers who wish to promote to a higher rank, according to “Training Requirements for Promotion of Teachers” (Education Bureau, 2009).

② Categorized by modes

ACTEQ (2003) has outlined a comprehensive and systematic structure of major modes of TPD activities implemented in Hong Kong. Activities categorized by modes are two types: structured learning and other modes. The former includes (i) local/overseas conferences, symposia, workshops, courses; (ii) offshore study visits; (iii) higher academic study; while the latter includes (i) job enrichment activity; (ii) mentoring; (iii) action learning; (iv) service to education and the community.

Bases/Partnerships:

Most TPD programmes are organized by Teacher Education Institutions in universities like The Hong Kong Institute of Education, The Chinese University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong Baptist University, The University of Hong Kong, the Hong

Kong Polytechnic University, and Education Service Centre. Also in the middle of 1990s, many Australian and UK universities set up teaching points in Hong Kong to provide part-time distance learning.

Responsibility System:

The Education Bureau of SAR is responsible for the formulation of policies and the introduction of legislation and overseeing the effective implementation of educational programmes, as ACTEQ has accountability for giving recommendations and planning policies. According to ACTEQ (2003), teacher education institutions should work in close relationship with schools and the Government in supporting teachers' CPD and in promoting the use of the generic TCF (see Note 8 in Part 5.3.3). It also emphasized that many implementations of TPD are school based, and thus school leaders, including School Management Committees and school principals, have the responsibility for ensuring that all staff have adequate opportunities to engage in teachers' CPD and include it as an important part of school development.

Encouragingly, teachers are considered to make a leading contribution to successful implementations according to ACTEQ 2003 report. It stressed that CPD is both a right and an obligation to every practitioner. Teachers are also supposed to have responsibility for promoting CPD in education sector, and they are invited to participate in the planning and implementing activities.

Financial resources:

Financial resources of TPD activities vary. Most are sponsored by schools; some have governmental sponsors. But there is one thing to note that ACTEQ (2003) pointed out that teachers should be prepared to bear the cost, in whole or in part, of engaging in

CPD, as an investment in their own professional development and career advancement.

Content:

There is no fixed and regular content of activities of TPD. Content differs on the basis of teachers' practical needs and the context of the school in most school-based implementations. However, the generic TCF described in Part 5.3.3 is a reference tool for the decision of the content.

Length of time:

As for the length of time, it also depends on the types/modes that teachers participate in, from half a day to several months for non-degree activities, and from 2 years to 4 years for degree activities. However, according to ACTEQ (2003), there is a general requirement to teachers that all teachers should engage in TPD activities at least 150 hours in a three-year cycle, in which not less than 50 TPD hours should be spent on structured learning and not less than 50 TPD hours on other modes of TPD, with the remaining hours appointed freely at individual teachers' own discretion.

Technological support:

Network for TPD programmes is utilized all around Hong Kong due to its advanced technological conditions. With own private username and password, every practitioner can have access to the official website of TPD: <http://tcs.edb.gov.hk/main/tdu/publicwd/ActListCal.asp?LanguageFlat=1>, follow the menus of the level (kindergarten, primary, secondary, others), key learning areas (Chinese Language Education, Mathematics Education, Arts Education, Personal, Social, Humanities Education, etc.), subject/function (chemistry, physics, biology,

economics, sex education, etc.), target participants (deputy heads, coordinators, school heads, teachers, parents, etc.), and then select the courses in the training activity list.

5.4.2 School-based approaches of TPD

ACTEQ has increasingly preferred an emphasis on school-based TPD from its first report to the third. It indicates that teachers regard external TPD activities useful for learning new ideas and practices while school-based TPD address individual schools' specific development and students' learning needs.

ACTEQ (2009) summarize the various forms of school-based activities practiced in Hong Kong, including seminars and workshops by inviting institution experts, in-house sharing sessions, mentoring, coaching, collaborative lesson planning, lesson observation, action research, cross-school networking as well as participation in projects organized by the Education Bureau or other professional bodies.

As lesson observation has been discussed in Chapter 4, this part will also examine school-based lesson observation in Hong Kong. LawYee (2001) reveals that in Hong Kong lesson observation is mainly conducted by school principals/senior teachers or inspectors from the Education Department for assessing teachers' performance in the school. Hence, this practice has never been popular in Hong Kong schools, though it is highly recommended by ACTEQ. At present, types of lesson observation conducted in Hong Kong are usually exchange lesson, walk-in lesson and mainly appraisal lesson (LawYee, 2001). Increasingly considered as a useful school-based activity for TPD, lesson observation is taken by the school administration to serve the purposes of

both teacher development and appraisal, but LawYee (2001) points out the fact is that teachers regard this more as a kind of appraisal than professional development.

However, several other effective school-based practices are described by ACTEQ (2006), for example, integration of the current education reform measures with the development needs of the school and its teachers through combining top-down formulating school policy with bottom-up collecting teachers' views; school's arrangements and facilitation for teachers to undergo CPD at school and within the timetable through arranging regular meeting/sharing time on the timetable for teachers to engage in collaborative activities TPD.

It is worth noting that teachers are often involved in the process of designing school-based TPD (ACTEQ, 2009). This leads them to consider and discuss their own needs as well as students', thus enhancing TPD to meet the needs of school improvement.

5.5 Teachers' Experiences and Attitudes to TPD

In this part, the data in the interviews of eight participants from B school in Hong Kong will be analyzed, paralleled with the text structure of Part 4.5 in the sequence of participants existing concepts, their participating experiences, participants' attitudes and perspectives on school management and improvement.

5.5.1 Existing concepts of TPD

All the eight participants have heard of TPD before. And they have generated their own understandings of TPD. For instance, Lisa said:

Teachers are trained to upgrade his/her professionalism in order to meet the challenges of the changing society and the learning culture in school also stimulates teachers to develop personal all-round abilities.

Kin, Mike and Yan have similar views with Lisa. While the rest of participants express differently to a certain degree. Lin and Zhi considered it a great help in teaching methodology and practice; Berk thought that in response to the dynamic needs of professional service to the community, teachers' learning and developing could meet these needs such as professional vision, ideas, skills and professional networks.

5.5.2 Participating experiences of TPD

All the eight participants have taken part in different activities of TPD in Hong Kong. In this part, their experiences will be shared in terms of approaches, training content, duration, and financial support at regional and school-based level.

① At regional level

Besides that all of the participants have attended the courses selected on the official website and conducted by six Teacher Education Institutions, the main regional training and activities are purposed on curriculum development, because as Kin mentioned, many activities that teacher had participated in were school-based, even though maybe these activities which were originally initiated by the Education Bureau, would be adapted by the school heads to their school needs.

Berk said:

I took the eight-hour new curriculum training on tourism geography organized by the Education Bureau last year. And most of the training was seminars to discuss the new curriculum of this subject and professional knowledge. It was free of charge for me, and I could also get paid by school while in training.

Lisa had similar experience: she once went to the seminars of “Preparation on the New Senior Secondary Curriculum in Geography” which lasted six hours. What is special to her is that she has finished her study in Master of Education and Doctor of Education in the Chinese University of Hong Kong, although the two programmes were self-financed due to her own willingness of gaining further degrees.

Zhi, recognized as an expert teacher in his school with 16-year teaching experience, participated in Curriculum Development Project organized by the Education Bureau, which lasted two years and aimed to develop the curriculum of Science subject and improve teaching and learning in junior secondary schools.

② At school-based level

From participants’ responses, it is interesting to note that there is a variety of modes and content of TPD activities taken in B school. Several representative responses are chosen as follows:

First, workshops are regularly utilized in the school. Lin said that her school had invited experts in certain fields to give workshops on teachers’ team building for instance every school term. Yan also has participated in the termly workshops. She

gave an example: a workshop on teaching and learning. She said:

At first, the workshop started with the lectures and presentations given by the experts from institutions to provide us with some relevant background about effective teaching and learning, and the workshop then was followed by a lively interactive discussion among us. We then worked in groups to play games in role as if some of us were students and some were teachers. Through this activity, we did not only learn new educational theories, but also experienced students' true feelings during the learning process.

Second, other common modes of school-based TPD are half-day seminars and lectures on vivid content and themes, for instance, on teachers' development day of the school, seminars on "The effective supports to students with special needs" as Lin mentioned, and lectures on "Dealing with learning differences and experiential learning" noted by Ting, as well as "Issues about drugs" or "Issues about pregnancy of teenage girls" mentioned by Mike.

Furthermore, there are also regular sharing meetings in the school and in joint schools organized by the B Benevolent Society. And lesson observation is also conducted in school according to Berk, a middle administrator. He expressed that a special lesson observation team consisted of heads of each subject matter and school administrators would observe more than half teachers' lessons in school every school year. But "who would be observed take turns according to the working identity number of each teacher". Berk noted that senior officials from the Education Bureau would also come to school with the purpose of investigation and supervision and observe lessons every four years for each school.

Finally, it is often to have network training for teachers in B school. Kin mentioned that he had participated in 2-hour network training for “E-Class Platform” in which he could learn the application of Information Technology Platform. It was organized by B school and free for teachers. Similarly for Lisa, she had taken part in “Applying Remote Sensing Imagery with GIS in Geography Teaching and Learning” initiated by the school, in which experts from outside were invited to teach them.

5.5.3 Teachers’ attitudes towards TPD

This part will look into teachers’ attitudes towards current practices of TPD through their experiences that they have and then reveal possible limitations or problems from their perspective.

On the whole, all the eight participants are satisfied with the practices conducted at regional level, including curriculum training seminars by the Education Bureau and compulsory training activities organized by the six Teacher Education Institutions. Berk expressed that these practices were useful for them to learn new teaching ideas from external resources. However, he also said that no matter whether external activities or school-based activities they participated, work time and positions should be taken into consideration.

As for school-based activities, all participants except Lisa pointed out the problems or limitations. Negative comments on workshops are:

We did enjoy the learning process of workshops, because most workshops are lively and active. But talking is just talking; playing is just playing; after playing whether we really learn something is another

matter. Nothing can be brought into real class after some workshops (Yan).

And similarly for Lin and Ting, they both commented on seminars and lectures that whether these activities were useful or not depended highly much on the speakers. Some of the speakers were really helpful in giving suggestions but some were not, for instance, these speakers were more likely to present lots of data on how many Hong Kong students have problems on a certain issue, like online addiction, but they failed to give practical advice.

When asked by the author, more problems and limitations on lesson observation and sharing meetings are presented by the participants. Most participants except Lisa and Zhi seldom participate in lesson observation, as Lisa and Zhi are members of lesson observation team in B school. The main reasons for these problems and limitations by summarizing participants' responses are heavy demanding teaching load, reluctance of peers and little extra space of classroom for teachers to observe. Ting said:

Lesson observation and sharing meetings need teacher spend time and energy in planning lessons and reflecting practices. However, we usually have more than 18 lessons to teach every week. We don't have extra time to reflect on my own teaching, not to mention sharing ideas among the teachers.

Lin commented that lesson observation was not popular among peer teachers in the school, because it was usually regarded as a way for appraisal by school leaders. In addition, they "have got used to working isolatedly and are not willing to open up their classrooms for colleagues because of the pressure from being observed" and

meanwhile they “may feel embarrassed when making request for observing others’ lessons”. Lin also pointed out that lessons conducted for appraisal were very different from the teacher’s normal practice, so it would be fairer to appraise the teacher’s daily practice.

In many sharing meetings and post-lesson discussion, Kin said that teachers tended to be quiet and it was uncommon for teachers to give negative comments because they felt embarrassed and were afraid of disturbing the harmony. “In this case, feedbacks do not seem very useful as teachers are willing to provide only positive feedbacks” (Kin).

5.5.4 Perspectives on school management and improvement

Among the eight participants, Berk, Lisa and Kin are middle administrators. All of them have participated in making or implementing policies on TPD in their school, some seminars and workshops for instance. They considered that most of the implementations on TPD in their school were helpful to school management and improvement, while the rest were not, due to the low quality of some seminars and workshops.

Regarding the trouble or problems when making/implementing policies on TPD, Lisa said that teachers under Education Reform were too busy to attend those programs for professional development and at the same time to attend various meetings after school time. Thus, time and energy is the first account for making/implementing policies. Besides, Kin thought that school managers intended to offer more lesson observation and sharing meetings, but the habit of isolated work among teachers limited teachers’

experience and impeded them from developing professionally.

Finally, both Lisa and Berk gave relevant suggestions that school heads increase teachers' participation of policy making and implementing to adjust the activities to teachers' schedule according to their own needs. And Kin suggested that teachers should be gradually encouraged to open up their classrooms not only for appraisal but also for self professional development and collaboration.

Chapter 6 will combine Chapter 4 and 5 to make a comparative analysis and discussion on TPD in Mainland China and Hong Kong.

Chapter 6 Comparative Analysis and Discussion

6.1 Introduction

The previous chapters reflect many aspects of TPD suited to their respective contexts and circumstances. TPD in the two regions are diverse in some ways but alike in other ways. This chapter will provide a comparative analysis and discussion on these similarities and differences by involving the major issues that have been discussed in Chapter 4 and 5 in order to answer the research questions of this study, meanwhile relating the findings to the reviewed theories. These major issues are reviewed as followings: social-cultural and historical background of teachers and current curriculum reform; policies and development of TPD; implementations of TPD, and teachers' experiences and attitudes towards TPD. Following the comparative analysis and discussion, a summary of the findings will be presented for readers to obtain a clearer picture of this study.

6.2 Relating Comparative Analysis and Discussion to Research Questions

In this part the four research questions set out for this study will be answered by using the findings presented in Chapter 4 and 5 and the theories on TPD reviewed in Chapter 2 will also be related. Each of the research questions including the relevant major issues stated above will be discussed in turn below:

① How do different social-cultural and historical contexts impact policy making of TPD in the two regions?

This question is related to two issues of social-cultural and historical background of teachers and current curriculum reform. Firstly, teaching profession in Mainland China used to be respected by people before 1960s, but it was downgraded later because of the political cause---the Cultural Revolution until in the late 1970s. Since then, teaching profession has been rehabilitated and education for teachers has been set out. Unlike in Mainland China, teaching profession in Hong Kong has kept its certain stable status in society even in the colonial periods. However, the significant political and social change, namely, the end of colonialism in Hong Kong did influence the education for teachers in terms of the policies and the training content, which will be discussed in following parts. Thus, teaching profession in Mainland China did not develop so smoothly as in Hong Kong, but education for teachers in two regions was inevitably influenced by a certain historical and political event.

Secondly, with respect to the current curriculum reform, the requirements for teachers in two regions have also been changed respectively, which both have a great influence on the policies and practices of TPD. In Mainland China, teaching center has been trying to transfer from traditional teacher-centered teaching to student-centered teaching, and Quality Education has emphasized on quality teaching; on contrast in Hong Kong not only the new students' learning goals and schools' tasks, but also the newly-added subjects and topics after 1997 have significant implications on TPD, namely, add new content and courses to in-service training for teachers.

In general, changes and challenges for teaching profession are impacted by social and

historical contexts of different stages, and subsequently impact TPD which is closely related with teaching profession. More and further discussion about the influence of social-cultural and historical context will be presented in the latter parts.

② What similarities and differences referring to policies on TPD have been made in Mainland China and Hong Kong?

Governments of the two regions have endeavored a lot in policy making for teachers and teachers' training. Both starting during the periods of the late 1970s and the early 1980s, policy making in the two regions has put more emphasis on degree education for respectively called “unqualified teachers” in Mainland China and “certificate teachers” in Hong Kong in a long period and even at present, make-up degree education is still a main development type for some teachers in the two regions. Combining the data in Table 4.2 and in Part 5.4.1, Table 6.1 shows the achievement of degree education for teachers in the two regions, with the number of qualified teachers increasing greatly.

Table 6.1 Percentage of Qualified Teachers in Mainland China and Hong Kong in 1993 and 2006

Year		Primary Schools	Secondary Schools
1993	Mainland China	86.6	58.6
	Hong Kong	10.4	47.3
2006	Mainland China	98.9	91.9
	Hong Kong	71.4	88.3

From the table, the percentage of qualified teachers is larger in Mainland China than

in Hong Kong. However, Hong Kong government has been focusing on degree education on one hand, and emphasizing further professional development for teachers on the other hand. Thus, policy making of TPD in Mainland China has developed more slowly than in Hong Kong. While the Teachers' Law was created to officially identify teaching as a profession in Mainland China in 1993, the Education Commission Report No.5 made in Hong Kong had already placed the focus on TPD officially one year ago. Later since the 21st century, ACTEQ in Hong Kong has promoted several reports to systematically build up a set of principles, theoretical framework as well as recommendations on TPD. Differently, in Mainland China official regulations and suggestions promulgated in the late 1990s were to develop "continuing education" for teachers instead of the term "teachers' professional development", and since the 21st century, fewer policies on this issue have been made.

In addition to this part, policy making in two regions demonstrates very different patterns and degrees of central control over this issue. Policy making in Mainland China is much more top-down and centralized with general national policies made by MOE. And municipal policies are made by local Education Bureau to suit its own circumstances, strictly following the core principles of the central regulations or policies. In contrast, the creation of the Education Commission and ACTEQ in Hong Kong, which are designed to give advice to the Government and coordinate the policies, signals that the degree of direct government control in Hong Kong has been reduced.

③ How do the two regions implement TPD individually in terms of models/approaches, including categories, bases/partnerships, responsibility system, financial resources, training content, length of time, technological support?

Most practices implemented in the two regions are in consistent with the global current practices, that is, both traditional and new approaches for TPD reviewed in Chapter 2, individual implementations of TPD in Mainland China and Hong Kong will be compared below.

i) At national/regional level:

1. Categories

Generally speaking, categories of TPD in two regions are similar. Both of them include degree education for teachers to get qualified or higher degrees and non-degree education providing in-service trainings for teachers in two regions who have a purpose of promotion in common. Besides, in Hong Kong case, a more specific set of categories was presented in ACTEQ 2003 Report, for example, formal time-fixed structure learning like seminars, workshops, courses, academic study and other more flexible modes like action learning and mentoring.

2. Bases/partnerships

Compared to Hong Kong where teachers have multiple choices of bases/partnerships in six Teacher Education Institutions, the flexibility of choosing bases/partnerships in Mainland China does differ from place to place. Teachers in those cities with many institutions can have more choices than teachers in cities where there is only one institution for teacher training, for instance, Shenzhen noted in Part 4.4.2. In that case, the limited number of bases hinders developing partnership between institutions and schools, and moreover, less competition among institutions does not help them improve their quality of TPD activities.

3. Responsibility system

Similar to the comparisons on policy making, responsibility system in Mainland China is directly top-down, with education administrations implementing policies from national level to provincial then to municipal level. Meanwhile, both institutions and schools are responsible for implementing policies of TPD. In contrast, in Hong Kong, the Education Bureau in parallel with the Education Commission and ACTEQ has the responsibility for implementations. Institutions and schools are also supposed to be responsible for TPD. What is converse is that teachers in Hong Kong are encouraged to participate in planning and implementing activities of TPD, which stimulates teachers to play an active role in this issue.

4. Financial resources

In Mainland China, due to the benefits from top-down control, a certain percentage of fund allocated by the Central Government and education administrations at all lower levels is used for activities of TPD, which indicates that most activities of TPD are sponsored by the government at all levels and teachers do not need to pay for them. The situation in Hong Kong is different. Some activities sponsored by the SAR government are free, and some are supported by the school sponsoring body, while teachers have to self finance in those activities sponsored neither by the Government nor by the school sponsoring body.

5. Content

The content of activities of TPD are not fixed in Hong Kong, mostly based on the teachers' practical needs and the context of the school, but the content theoretically depends much on the detailed competencies framework (see Note 8). Different content is evident in Mainland China. The content of TPD in Mainland China is more

oriented towards providing not only teaching academic knowledge but also moral dimension like professional ethics, which is excluded in Hong Kong case. In this regard, the nature of the content is influenced by social-cultural values. In Mainland China, on one hand, Confucian culture has stressed the values of diligence, knowledge and ethics; on the other hand, the Central Government has been emphasizing moral education at all levels of education on the basis of socialist system; while in Hong Kong which was colonized by Britain, Western culture has emphasized the values of innate ability and constructivist views of learning. This can account for the different focuses on the decision of content.

6. Length of time

The length of time of an activity varies according to the different modes, no matter in which region it is implemented. There is another aspect to note that both in most cities of Mainland China like Shenzhen and in Hong Kong, credit hours system is applied for the activities of TPD. Required hours are different though, respectively in three years not less than 180 hours in Mainland China and 150 hours in Hong Kong.

7. Technological support

Network technological support has been widely utilized around Hong Kong because of its advanced conditions. However, it is evident that a disparity of using network exists between rural or remote areas and urban areas in Mainland China. Cities like Shenzhen apply network by providing every teacher a user name and a password to selecting, assessing and evaluating TPD programmes as Hong Kong does. Thus whether technological support like ICT can be applied to TPD or not depends on the local developing conditions of technology.

ii) At school-based level

Unlike various forms for school-based TPD in Hong Kong such as seminars, workshops, in-house sharing sessions, mentoring, coaching, collaborative lesson planning, lesson observation, and action research, activities of school-based TPD in Mainland China put main focus on public conversations and lesson observation. For instance, Table 6.2 shows the similarities and differences about lesson observation between the two regions.

Table 6.2 Comparisons about Lesson Observation in Mainland China and Hong

Kong

	Mainland China	Hong Kong
Types of lesson observation	9 (including demonstration lesson, open lesson, supervised lesson, exchange lesson, walk-in lesson, appraisal lesson, test lesson, selection of expert teachers, experimental lesson)	3 (including exchange lesson, walk-in lesson, appraisal lesson)
Participants	All stakeholders: teachers, school leaders, municipal education officials can attend	Mainly school principals/senior teachers or inspectors from the Education Department assess teachers' performance
Frequency	Every teacher has a task of lesson observation every school term: usually 10 lessons (20 per year)	1—3 lessons per year
Locations	In or out of the school, in the same district, across districts or even across provinces	In the school
Post-lesson meeting (Yes/No)	Yes	Yes

From this table, it is evident that lesson observation as well as public conversations takes place often and throughout the process of TPD in Mainland China, which is more conducive to collaborative and reflective culture among teachers. In contrast, school-based activities of TPD in Hong Kong reveal more forms, by integrating different modes to accommodate the diverse practical needs of the school.

The most striking difference of school-based TPD is that teachers in Hong Kong are involved in designing and implementing activities of TPD, which may be rarely found in Mainland China. This indicates that the different responsibility systems account for teachers' positivity and initiative to participate in school-based TPD. Teachers with more responsibility and encouraged to plan are more positive and initiative for implementing TPD.

④ What experience on TPD do teachers both from Mainland China and Hong Kong have in practice? What do they think of the experience? From their perspective, what are the problems/limitations of current practices?

This part will compare the data in the interviews in Mainland China and Hong Kong presented in Chapter 4 and 5. Two main issues----teachers' experiences and attitudes including problems of current practices will be examined in a comparative way.

i) Teachers' experiences

First of all, as TPD/CPD has been officially mentioned in the SAR government documents, it is more widely known by teachers in Hong Kong; by contrast what is noted in the Central Government documents is "continuing education" for teachers

instead of TPD/CPD, teachers in Mainland China know less about TPD than those in Hong Kong. In this aspect, official publicity offered by governments may be considered as a useful means to promote TPD more professionally and help reduce biased understandings of teachers.

Secondly, in respect of experience that teachers from A school in Mainland China and B school in Hong Kong have gained, similar findings can be drawn as comparisons mentioned earlier. Major school-based activities in A school are public conversations of different meetings and lesson observation, while teachers in B school have experienced more diverse activities. However, similarities exist between the two schools. Teachers in A school have mainly participated in curriculum training at different regional levels and continuing education conducted by institutions by using network system to select courses. Similar case is evident in B school where teachers have also taken part in curriculum training at regional level and courses/activities organized by institutions. These similarities indicate that trainings on new curriculum is a major and essential activity organized by governments in two regions and official websites applied both in Shenzhen and Hong Kong to select and evaluate courses for teachers have convenience the implementations of TPD.

ii) Teachers' attitudes and problems of current practices

Teachers' attitudes towards current practices in two regions differ obviously. More negative comments on regional practices than school-based ones in Mainland China have been mentioned. Conversely, teachers in Hong Kong have pointed out more criticisms on school-based practices than regional ones. Attitudes and problems are summarized below.

1. Regional practices

Teachers in Hong Kong feel satisfied with the regional practices including curriculum training and institution-conducted courses/activities and consider these activities as a useful way to learn new teaching ideas and theories. On the contrary, teachers in Mainland China are not content with these regional practices, although some teachers regard that they can learn some new teaching methodology from these trainings/activities. The reasons for the dissatisfaction of teachers in Mainland China may be the problems listed below. Firstly, many curriculum trainings lack necessary following-up measures to evaluate, so that the results of these trainings are not articulated to the organizers, the trainers and the trainees. Secondly, the courses of continuing education conducted by institutions are superficial and focus on form rather than content like going through the motion, not closely related to practice. Thirdly, the content and forms of the courses in institutions have ignored the features of adult learning and are boring to teachers. And taking some courses/trainings has added extra tasks to their considerable workload. Meanwhile, that some of the trainers or lecturers are at a low level cannot guarantee the quality of the activities. In addition, comparing the network system for institution-conducted courses in Shenzhen with that in Hong Kong, it is interesting to note that Shenzhen net system applies one set of courses/trainings for teachers at all different ages and levels, that is, teachers can choose any courses either related or unrelated to their subjects and professional levels in order to obtain credit hours. By contrast, Hong Kong system provides courses/activities with target participants, which can cast light on target goals for teachers when selecting courses.

2. School-based practices

In Mainland China, considering their major school-based practice---lesson

observation, teachers feel more satisfied than the regional activities that they have experienced. Lesson observation with a high frequency of at least 20 observed lessons per year either in or out of the school, is regarded as an essential means for TPD. This indicates a heavy reliance on teachers' self-reflection, peers' reflection and collaboration in TPD. Underneath is a kind of cultural psychology that "practice makes perfect", and that collectivism is a traditional spirit. A high frequency of lesson observations makes it possible to reflect and self-reflect more and collaborate more. However, criticisms of this major school-based practice still exist. One of the addressed problems is that in order to receive an excellence assessment by the observers, the observed teacher's performance may not reflect his/her daily practical teaching. This implies that the contradictory between the requirements of new curriculum and current examination-oriented educational system causes a disjunction between ideal lesson pattern and actual lesson teaching. Another problem lies in that after lesson whether useful suggestive comments can be given to peers depends on the relationships among the group of peer teachers. In most occasions, teachers in Mainland China can receive suggestions including both positive and negative comments under the influence of collective culture.

In Hong Kong, in contrast, teachers present much more criticisms on school-based practice than their regional activities. Firstly, teachers criticize that some workshops lack practical applications and can rarely bring anything into real class, even though they are lively and interesting. This indicates that the providers who conduct those workshops are only experts outside schools and are not familiar with practical matters inside schools. Secondly, whether seminars and lectures are useful depends on the ability of the speakers, because some speakers cannot give helpful suggestions. Additionally, in terms of collaboration and reflective teaching as sharing meetings and

lesson observation, teachers raise concerns about the lack of time due to the heavy teaching load and the lack of support from school and peers. On one hand, teachers are too busy to reflect teaching and collaborate with others; on the other hand, teachers in Hong Kong are used to work individually, not willing to open up their classrooms and feel embarrassed to make a request to observe others' teaching. This indicates that individualistic cultural psychology may account for the phenomenon and that school leaders consider lesson observation as a means of appraisal, so that there is no support from school for teachers to make a request. Furthermore, unlike the situation in Mainland China in which teachers can receive both positive and negative comments for professional development, teachers in Hong Kong can seldom receive criticisms because they are afraid of feeling embarrassed and breaking the harmony among peer teachers. Further in-depth consideration is that people in Hong Kong are used to Western thinking pattern and less influenced by Chinese traditional collective culture.

Finally, teachers in both Mainland China and Hong Kong agree on the importance of TPD to school management and improvement. They consider that school-based practices of TPD are of a great help to cultivate learning culture and enhance the collaboration of teachers in the schools. However, time and energy should be firstly taken into consideration when making and implementing TPD policies in the two regions. What is the difference is that in Mainland China school policymakers and implementers should consider the cooperation among the school administrative sections, while in Hong Kong isolated working culture should be regarded for policymakers and implementers in the school.

6.3 Summary of Findings

Comparative analysis and discussion have been presented in last part. Despite the significant differences of TPD across the regions, there are similarities in the nature of the issues and problems being faced. This part will summarize the findings of differences and similarities as well as further discussions.

1. Education for teachers in both Mainland China and Hong Kong was inevitably influenced by a certain historical and political event. Compared to the negative effect by the Cultural Revolution in Mainland China, the end of colonial government in Hong Kong had a positive effect on the education for teachers. Furthermore, with respect to the current curriculum reform, the requirements for teaching profession in the two regions have also been changed respectively, which indicates that trainings on new curriculum for teachers are essential in the two regions.

In a word, changes and challenges for teaching profession are impacted by social-cultural and historical contexts of different stages, and subsequently impact TPD.

2. In terms of policies on TPD, policy making in the two regions has focused more on degree education for unqualified teachers in a long period and even at present, make-up degree education is still a main development type for some teachers in the two regions. The difference is that compared to the development of policy making on TPD in Mainland China, policies in Hong Kong have set up a more systematic and professional framework for TPD, since the term TPD/CPD was officially recorded in government documents. Additionally, official publicity offered by Hong Kong government may be considered as a useful means to promote TPD more

professionally and make teachers understand TPD more comprehensively.

3. In Mainland China, more top-down and central control can be found not only in policy making on TPD but also in responsibility system. Conversely, the movement of decentralization in Hong Kong is demonstrated. However, the benefits from top-down control are that the allocation of funds for TPD at all levels of governments can be ensured and thus that most of the activities in Mainland China which teachers participate in are government-financed.

4. Unlike the conditions in Hong Kong with advanced technology and a certain number of institutions, the conditions in Mainland China vary from place to place. Limited number of institutions and poor technological conditions in some areas of Mainland China restrict local implementations of TPD. Limited number of institutions accounts for less competition among institutions which does not help them improve their quality of TPD activities and lack of partnership between institutions and schools, namely, lack of the variety of school-based activities of TPD.

5. With reference to social-cultural values, the focuses of the content for TPD are different from each other in two regions. The focus in Mainland China is influenced by Confucian value of knowledge and ethics and its socialist system, while the emphasis in Hong Kong is influenced by Western value of innate ability and constructivist views of learning.

Besides, the different operations of lesson observation and meetings among colleagues in Mainland China and Hong Kong not only reflect that two different kinds of school supportive culture of peers and school heads are crucial factors in the

process, but also implies that the cultural psychology underneath plays an important role in implementing these school-based activities. In Mainland China, teachers respect the traditional beliefs about practicing and collectivism; differently in Hong Kong, teachers follow individualistic culture and Western thinking pattern and less influenced by Chinese traditional collective culture.

6. In respect of school-based practices of TPD, one evident difference is the variety of forms in Hong Kong schools. The limited institution and technological resources available for other forms of TPD to take place in the schools of Mainland China has been discussed earlier. Another striking difference between the two regions is that in Hong Kong teachers encouraged to design and implement activities are more positive and initiative towards TPD, while in Mainland China decisions about school-based practices of TPD are usually made by principal and other school heads.

7. Problems of current practices exist in two regions. One of the mutual problems is the untrue performance in some lesson observations. However, the reasons for this problem in two regions are different. In Mainland China, the main reason for the disjunction between ideal lesson pattern and actual lesson teaching is the contradictory between the requirements of new curriculum and current examination-oriented educational system. In contrast, that lesson observation is considered as a means of appraisal for teachers accounts for the Hong Kong case.

Another mutual problem is that the content of some courses/activities on both school-based and regional basis is not closely related to practice, but full of theories. Teachers cannot bring useful information into real teaching. Furthermore, low quality of some school-based and regional practices caused by trainers or lecturers at a low

professional level is a third problem that two regions have in common. Finally, teachers in two regions suffer the heavy workloads and do not have enough time for effective TPD.

Problems existing only in Mainland China are in these aspects: the lack of necessary following-up measures to evaluate the courses/trainings and the content of courses/trainings at regional level ignoring the features of adult learning.

8. School-based practices of TPD are of a great importance to school management and improvement in the two regions and elsewhere. Through these activities, school learning culture can be cultivated and collaboration of teachers is enhanced ultimately.

Chapter 7 Implications and Conclusion

In light of the comparative analysis and discussion presented in last chapter, it is evident that the two presentations of TPD in Mainland China and Hong Kong are not offered as perfect models. Although each region has its strengths in TPD, it also has its weaknesses and aspects that need improvement. This chapter will discuss possible practical implications of the findings and finally conclude the study.

7.1 Implications

The study presents the current situation of TPD in Mainland China and Hong Kong. Findings of the present study could be applied to and to some extent provide reference and recommendations to help policymakers and implementers pursue the effective TPD respectively in the two regions and elsewhere.

First, from the historical perspective, former TPD was only emphasized on teachers who were unqualified without education degrees; at present, it is required to focus on all teachers. The stimulus for implementing new approaches of TPD is closely linked to new images and challenges of teaching profession. On this ground, thus, policymakers of Mainland China and Hong Kong should keep pace with the times when making policies, and TPD providers should update the courses/activities as regards both content and forms.

Second, governments at all levels in two regions should increase financial allocation to support the implementations of TPD, especially in the areas of Mainland China

where there is lack of advanced technology and where the number of institutions is limited, government funds for TPD should be allocated more so that the implementations of TPD in these areas would not be restricted by the objective conditions.

Third, governments in Mainland China should coordinate the relationship between top-down central control with flexibility and diversification of TPD from circumstance to circumstance. To what degree TPD can be decentralized is an inevitable issue that governments should face.

Fourth, educational administrators and institution heads in Mainland China and Hong Kong should supervise TPD providers to guarantee a high quality of courses/trainings/activities. The lecturers/trainers/organizers should have sufficient professional knowledge and be provided with necessary training to improve their quality so that they are able to conduct an effective TPD course/training/activity for teachers. Official websites of institutions in Mainland China should provide various courses for teachers at different stages of their career as those do in Hong Kong and specify the target goals and target participants for teachers to cast light on the provided activities/courses.

Fifth, in two regions, when planning TPD activities, providers and schools should pay special attention to the specific practical needs of teachers as well as schools, so as to ensure that the content of the activity is closely related to practice. Meanwhile the distinctive features of adult learning should be taken into account as well when schools and providers design the activities.

Sixth, in Mainland China, educational administrations and TPD providers as well as schools should try to systematically incorporate evaluation mechanisms in the stages of designing and implementing activities of TPD and necessary following-up measures should be included to improve future TPD activities.

Seventh, schools should make every endeavor to increase school-based activities of TPD so that more opportunities and incentives are offered for teachers to participate.

In Mainland China case, schools should pay attention to the diversity of activities besides public conversations and lesson observation. In those areas where the number of institutions is limited, it is suggested that schools use financial allocation by the local government to invite scholars and experts from other cities and to initiate new forms of school-based activities. Moreover, learning from Hong Kong case, schools should increase teachers' participation in the process of identifying needs, designing and implementing TPD activities so that more practical applications can be used.

In Hong Kong case, schools should arrange collective activities by groups of teachers as many as possible so that collaborative learning culture can be established. Schools could encourage teachers to open up their classroom doors to increase the opportunities of peers' collaboration and reflective practices. And school administrators should change the mind that lesson observation serves to appraise teachers. It would be fairer to appraise the teachers' daily practice which reflects his/her real performance.

Eighth, school leaders in Mainland China and Hong Kong should put TPD on schools' agenda and fix a certain time every week for teachers participating TPD activities. To reduce teachers' heavy workloads, schools could employ more non-teaching staff to

share teachers' extra loads.

Last but not least, education is affected by social, economic and political factors outside the schools. As for Mainland China and Hong Kong, the successful practices or strengths of one region cannot be transplanted directly into the other region. Hence the practices of TPD should be contextualized as well.

7.2 Conclusion

The two presentations about TPD in Mainland China and Hong Kong in the study well informed us of the respective background, policies, implementations and problems of TPD; and the comparative analysis about similarities and differences between the two regions was presented as well for respective stakeholders to more clearly and better understand the strengths and weaknesses of each region.

Policymakers and implementers in two regions have made great effort to pursue different innovations conducive to TPD. What is a tacit similarity on TPD between Mainland China and Hong Kong is that all teachers prefer to grow rather than stagnate and they have begun reflecting on the implementations that they have participated in.

Undoubtedly, social, economical, political and cultural factors have contributed to shaping the features of TPD in the two regions and have accounted for the similarities and differences identified earlier. What we should do in one region is not to indiscriminately copy the other's successful practices but to learn lessons from the other and find out effective ways that suit own circumstances.

Further study would be focused on more detailed examination of any dimension taken for comparisons in this thesis. Since this study has reflected TPD from the perspectives of teachers and school administrators, it would be interesting to conduct more interviews to investigate the views of heads and teachers of institutions and other stakeholders in further research. Besides the supplemented qualitative interviews, a quantitative approach might be utilized with a larger sample of teachers, school administrators, heads and teachers of institutions and other stakeholders to statistically test the findings.

To conclude this study, Guskey's statement (1995) is reviewed again that "because of the enormous variability in educational contexts, there will never be 'one right answer'. Instead, there will be a collection of answers, each specific to a context. Our search must focus on finding the assortment of professional development processes that work best in a particular setting".

References

- ACTEQ. (2003). *Towards A Learning Profession: The Teacher Competencies Framework and the Continuing Professional Development of Teachers*. Retrieved March 13, 2010, from <http://www.acteq.hk/media/ACTEQ-%20Eng.pdf>
- ACTEQ. (2006). *Towards A Learning Profession: The Interim Report on Teachers' Continuing Professional Development*. Retrieved March 13, 2010, from [http://www.acteq.hk/media/2006Interim%20Report%20\(English\).pdf](http://www.acteq.hk/media/2006Interim%20Report%20(English).pdf)
- ACTEQ. (2009). *Towards A Learning Profession: Third Report on Teachers' Continuing Professional Development*. Retrieved March 13, 2010, from <http://www.acteq.hk/category.asp?lang=en&cid=384&pid=41>
- Adamson, B. & Li, T. S. P. (1999). Primary and Secondary Schooling. In M. Bray & R. Koo (Eds.), *Education and Society in Hong Kong and Macau: Comparative Perspectives on Continuity and Change* (pp35-57). Hong Kong: The University of Hong Kong.
- Blackman, C. A. (1989). Issues in Professional Development: The Continuing Agenda. In M. L. Holly & C. S. Mcloughlin (Eds.), *Perspectives on Teacher Professional Development* (pp1-18). London: The Falmer Press.
- Borich, G. D. (1999). *Observation skills for effective teaching*. New York: Merrill.
- Bray, M. (1991). Hong Kong Education in an International Context: the Impact of External Forces. In G. A. Postiglione (Ed.), *Education and Society in Hong Kong: Toward One Country and Two Systems*. London: An East Gate Book.
- Bryman, A. (2008). *Social Research Methods*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Burton, J. (1987). The powers of observation: An investigation of current practices

- and issues in teacher observation. In B. K. Das (Ed.), *Patterns of Classroom Interaction in Southeast Asia* (pp153-166). Singapore: SEAMEO Regional Language Centre.
- Cao, T. S. & Lu, N. G. (2007). *University-School Partnership and Teacher Empowerment ——A New Perspective on Teacher Professional Development*. Beijing: Educational Science Publishing House [in Chinese].
- Collie, S. L. & Taylor, A. L. (2004). Improving Teaching Quality and the Learning Organization. *Tertiary Education and Management*, 10(2), 139-155.
- Cornu, B. (2003). The Teaching Profession: A Networked Profession in New Networked Environments. In C. Dowling & K. Lai (Eds.), *Information and Communication Technology and the Teacher of the Future* (pp3-14). Boston: Kluwer Academic Publishers.
- Cooke, B. (2000). Hong Kong. In P. Morris & J. Williamson (Eds.), *Teacher Education in the Asia-Pacific Region: A Comparative Study* (pp33-73). New York: Falmer Press.
- Craft, A. (1996). *Continuing Professional Development: A practical guide for teachers and schools*. London: Routledge.
- Dantonio, M. (1995). *Collegial coaching: Inquiry into the teaching self*. Bloomington, Indiana: Phi Delta Kappa.
- Darling-Hammond, L. (1996). The quiet revolution rethinking teacher development. *Educational Leadership*, 53(6), 4-10.
- Darling-Hammond, L. & McLaughlin, M. W. (1995). Policies that support professional development in an era of reform. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 76(8), 597-604.
- Dove, L. (1986). *Teachers and Teacher Education in Developing Countries: Issues in Planning, Management and Training*. London: Croom Helm.
- Education Bureau. (2009). *Training Requirements for Promotion of Teachers*.

Retrieved April 7, 2010, from

http://www.edb.gov.hk/FileManager/EN/Content_6956/attachment%201.pdf

Education Commission. (1986). *Education Commission Report No.2*. Hong Kong: Government Printer.

Education Commission. (1988). *Education Commission Report No.3*. Hong Kong: Government Printer.

Education Commission. (1992). *Education Commission Report No.5 The Teaching Profession*. Hong Kong: Government Printer.

Education Commission. (1997). *Education Commission Report No.7 Quality School Education*. Hong Kong: Government Printer.

Education Commission (2000). *Reform Proposal for the Education System in Hong Kong*. Hong Kong: Government Printer.

Education Commission. (2006a). *Progress Report on the Education Reform No. 4*. Hong Kong: Government Printer.

Education Commission. (2006b). *Education Statistics*. Hong Kong: Government Printer.

Feiman-Nemser, S. (2001). From preparation to practice: designing a continuum to strengthen and sustain teaching. *Teachers College Record*, 103(6), 1013-1055.

Gray, J., Hopkins, D., Reynolds, D., Wilcox, B. & Jesson, D. (1999). *Improving Schools: Performance and Potential*. Buckingham: Open University Press.

Gray, K. C. (2001). Changing classrooms by treating teachers as active learners. *Middle School Journal*, 32(3), 15-19.

Green, J. (1998). Teacher Professionalism, Teacher Development and School Improvement. In R. Halsall (Eds.), *Teacher Research and School Improvement: Opening doors from the inside* (pp200-210). Buckingham: Open University Press.

Guo, Y. (2005). *Asia's Educational Edge: Current Achievements in Japan, Korea,*

- Taiwan, China, and India*. Lexington: Lexington Books.
- Guskey, T. R. (1995). Professional development in education: in search of the optimal mix. In T.R. Guskey & M. Huberman (Eds.), *Professional development in education: New paradigms and practices*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Halász, G., Santiago, P., Ekholm, M., Matthews, P., & McKenzie, P. (2004). *Attracting, Developing and Retaining Effective Teachers Country Note: Germany*. Retrieved April 10, 2009, from <http://www.oecd.org/dataoecd/32/48/33732207.pdf>
- Harris, A. & Muijs, D. (2005). *Improving Schools through Teacher Leadership*. London: Open University Press.
- Holly, M. L. & Walley, C. (1989). Teachers as Professionals. In M. L. Holly & C. S. Mcloughlin (Eds.), *Perspectives on Teacher Professional Development* (pp285-307). London: The Falmer Press.
- Keller, J. (2002). *Teachers as Life-long Learners: Designing A Theory for Professional Development*. Retrieved December 12, 2009, from http://www.indiana.edu/~istb/conferences/2002/IST_Conf_2002_keller.pdf
- Koo, R. D. Y. (1999). Introduction. In M. Bray & R. Koo (Eds.), *Education and Society in Hong Kong and Macau: Comparative Perspectives on Continuity and Change* (pp1-11). Hong Kong: The University of Hong Kong.
- Kubow, P. K. & Fossum, P. R. (2007). *Comparative Education: Exploring Issues in International Context*. New Jersey: Pearson.
- LawYee, A. S. (2001). Building the Culture of Lesson Observation: Hong Kong and Guangzhou in Comparison. In Y. C. Cheng, M. M. ChingMok & K. T. Tsui (Eds.), *Teacher Effectiveness and Teacher Development: towards a new knowledge base* (pp239-274). Hong Kong: The Hong Kong Institute of Education.

- Levin, H. (1991). The Economics of Educational Choice. *Economics of Education Review*, 10(2), 137-158.
- Li, S. P. & Kwo, W. Y. (1999). Teacher Education. In M. Bray & R. Koo (Eds.), *Education and Society in Hong Kong and Macau: Comparative Perspectives on Continuity and Change*. Hong Kong: The University of Hong Kong.
- Lian, R. (2007). *Teacher Professional Development*. Beijing: Higher Education Press [in Chinese].
- Lieberman, A. (1995). Practices that support teacher development: transforming conceptions of professional learning. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 76(8), 591-596.
- Lieberman, A. & Miller, L. (2004). *Teacher Leadership*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Liu, Fengshu (2005). *Modernization as Lived Experiences Identity Construction of Young Adult Only-children in Present-day China*. Oslo: University of Oslo
- MacLean, M. S. & Mohr, M. M. (1999). *Teacher- researchers at work*. Retrieved from http://gse.gmu.edu/research/tr/tr_definition/
- Mei, X. (2008). *Focus on teacher education in China*. Beijing: China Social Science Press [in Chinese].
- Merriam, B. S. (1988). *Case study research in education: A qualitative approach*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.
- Merriam, B. S. (1998). *Qualitative Research and Case Study Applications in Education*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.
- Mitchell, C. & Sackney, L. (2001). *Profound Improvement: Building Capacity for a Learning Community*. Lisse: Swets & Zeitlinger.
- MOE. (1993). *Jiaoshi Fa (Teachers' Law of the People's Republic of China)*. Retrieved April 2, 2010, from <http://www.moe.edu.cn/edoas/en/level3.jsp?tablename=1242700726117393&infoid=1248158975317468&title=Teachers Law of the People's Republic of China>

- MOE. (1997a). *Guidelines on Course Development for Continuing Education of Secondary and Primary School Teachers*. Beijing: Government Printer [in Chinese].
- MOE. (1997b). *Suggestions on Strengthening Professional Ethics Education in Continuing Education for Secondary and Primary School Teachers*. Beijing: Government Printer [in Chinese].
- MOE. (1999). *Regulations on Continuing Education for Secondary and Primary School Teachers*. Beijing: Government Printer [in Chinese].
- MOE. (2001, July 27). Outline for Basic Education Curriculum Reform. *China Education Daily* [in Chinese]. Retrieved March 2, 2010, from <http://www.jyb.cn/gb/2001/07/27/jcyy/jjzl/3.htm>
- Mok, K. H. (2003). Similar trends, diverse agendas: higher education reforms in East Asia. *Globalization, Societies & Education*, 1(2), 201-21.
- OECD. (2005). *Teachers matter: attracting, developing and retaining effective teachers*. Paris: OECD.
- Paine, L. W. & Fang, Y. (2007). Reform as hybrid model of teaching and teacher development in China. *International Journal of Educational Research*, 45(2006), 279-289.
- Patton, M. Q. (2002). *Qualitative Research & Evaluation Methods (Third Edition)*. California: Sage Publications.
- Pollard, A. (2005). *Reflective Teaching*. London: Continuum.
- Porter, A. C., Birman, B. F., Garet, M. S., Desimone, L. M. & Yoon, K. S. (2004). *Effective professional development in mathematics and science: lessons from evaluation of the Eisenhower program*. Washington DC: American Institutes for Research.
- Pugach, M. C. (2009). *Because Teaching Matters: An Introduction to the Profession*.

- New Jersey: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Schwille, J., Dembélé, M. & Schubert, J. (2007). *Global Perspectives on Teacher Learning: improving policy and practice*. Paris: UNESCO.
- Shenzhen Education Bureau. (2003). *Suggestions on continuing education for Shenzhen primary and secondary school teachers* [in Chinese]. Retrieved April 3, 2010, from http://www.sz.edu.cn:8090/ZWGK/HTMLDynamic/JXJYG_3674/200904/info98131.html
- Shibley, I. A. (2001). Technology, integrated learning, staff development: it's a total package. *Educational Technology*, 41(6), 61-63.
- Smith, D.C. (1991). Foundation of Modern Chinese Education and the Taiwan Experience. In D.C. Smith (Ed.), *The Confucian Continuum: Educational Modernization in Taiwan*. New York: Praeger.
- Smith, J. & Spurling, A. (1999). *Lifelong learning: riding the tiger*. London: Cassell.
- Su, T. (2003, December 25). Looking back on education 2003: Urgent Curriculum Reform and Close Following up of Teacher Education. *China Education Daily* [in Chinese]. Retrieved March 2, 2009, from <http://www.jyb.cn/gb/2003/12/25/zy/jryw/7.htm>
- Teacher Education in China. (2001). Retrieved April 1, 2010, from China Education and Research Network site: http://www.edu.cn/english_1369/index.shtml
- The New Curriculum Reform in China. (2001, July 27). *China Education Daily*, p.2 [in Chinese].
- UNESCO. & UNDP. (1997). *Teachers as lifelong learners: Case Studies of Innovative In-Service Teacher Training Programmes in the E-9 Countries*. Paris: UNESCO.
- Van Velzen, W., Miles, M., Eckholm, M., Hameyer, U. & Robin, D. (1985). *Making School Improvement Work*. Leuven: ACCO.

- Villegas-Reimers, E. (2003). *Teacher professional development: an international review of the literature*. Paris: UNESCO.
- William, M. (1987). Peer coaching improved my teaching. *Teacher Education Quarterly*, 14(3), 18-25.
- Woods, P. (1994). The conditions for teacher development. In P.P. Grimmett & J. Neufeld (Eds.), *Teacher development and the struggle for authenticity: professional growth and restructuring in the context of change*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Yin, R. (2003). *Case Study Research: Design and Methods (3rd ed.)*. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.
- Zhou, J. & Reed, L. (2005). Chinese government documents on teacher education since the 1980s. *Journal of Education for Teaching*, 31(3), 201-213.

Appendix of Interview Guide

Interview Questions:

This research is to conduct a comparative study of **Teacher Professional Development in Mainland China and Hong Kong**. Although the two regions share and enjoy a common traditional culture, there are still plenty of notable differences between Mainland China and Hong Kong, regarding their own contexts of social system and modern history.

此次研究旨在对中国大陆和香港的教师职业发展进行比较分析。尽管这两个区域拥有共同的传统文化，但就社会制度和近现代历史而言又有显著不同。

The interview will be conducted in two secondary schools in the city of Shen Zhen, Mainland China and Hong Kong. In each school around eight staff as teachers of different subjects, middle administrators and principals will be interviewed.

这次研究在深圳和香港分别选取两所中学进行，每所中学有包括普通教师，行政领导，校长等 8 名左右的职员将被采访。

One point to note is that all collected data will be dealt with confidentially. 所有收集到的数据信息将会进行保密处理。

Your help and cooperation will be much appreciated! 非常感谢您的帮助与合作!

From: Ying Zhang 张莹

Comparative and International Education, University of Oslo

挪威奥斯陆大学比较教育学

Demographic information:

NAME (姓名):

GENDER: (性别 F 女/M 男)

TEACHING SUBJECT(任教学科):

LENGTH OF TEACHING (工作年限:YEARS 年):

POSITION(职务: 教师 teacher/行政干部 middle administrator/校长 principal):

The questions are as follows:

1. Have you heard of teacher professional development before? 您过去听说过教师职业发展吗?
2. What do you think of teacher professional development in your own understanding? 您如何理解教师职业发展?
3. When talking about teacher professional development below, it is known as continuing professional development including continuing education or in-service training for teachers. So what kinds of activities for teacher professional development do you think you have participated in up to now? In school? In local region? National? 我们以下讨论的教师职业发展指的是教师继续教育或教师在职培训。那么到目前为止, 您认为您参加过哪些这样的培训呢? 比如说校内, 地区内或国家级? (请您分别举例说明)
4. It is acknowledged that the most effective form of professional development is that which is based in schools and is related to the daily activities of teachers and learners. So what particular activities does your school implement to improve teaching? 我们知道最有效的教师职业发展模式是以学校为基础与教师日常教学息息相关的。那么您所在的学校组织过哪些活动来改善教学呢?
5. Can you talk about the activities for teacher professional development you have

experienced? E.g.: How long was it? What was for? What was the content? What was the financial support? 您能谈谈您所参加的关于教师职业发展的一些培训吗? 比如说, 多长时间? 什么目的? 培训内容? 培训资金来源等? (请逐一例举)

6. How do you feel about the practices you have experienced? Are they effective to your teaching or improving teaching? 您对您所参加的这些活动有什么看法? 它们有效果吗? 对您的教学有帮助吗?
7. What limitations do you think these practices have? 您认为这些活动有哪些不足之处或局限性吗?

(Following questions 8—10 are suitable for principals or middle administrators to answer) (问题 8---10 适用于校长及学校中层/管理层教师回答)

8. As a middle administrator / principal in your school, what kinds of policies for instance have you ever participated in making or implementing? 作为学校中层领导/校长, 您曾经参与制定或执行过哪些教师职业发展策略呢? 比如说?
9. What's the difference do you think between policies and reality? Or what may the trouble there be when the policies are being made/ implemented? 您认为有关于教师职业发展的政策与现实有什么差距? 在制定政策时有哪些可能出现的困难吗?
10. Do you think the policies and practices of TPD mentioned above are effective or helpful to school management, for instance? 您认为以上您所说的这些关于教师职业发展的政策和实践对学校管理有效或有帮助吗?

Thank you very much for your help and cooperation again! 再次感谢您的帮助与合作!