Educational Administration in Hong Kong:
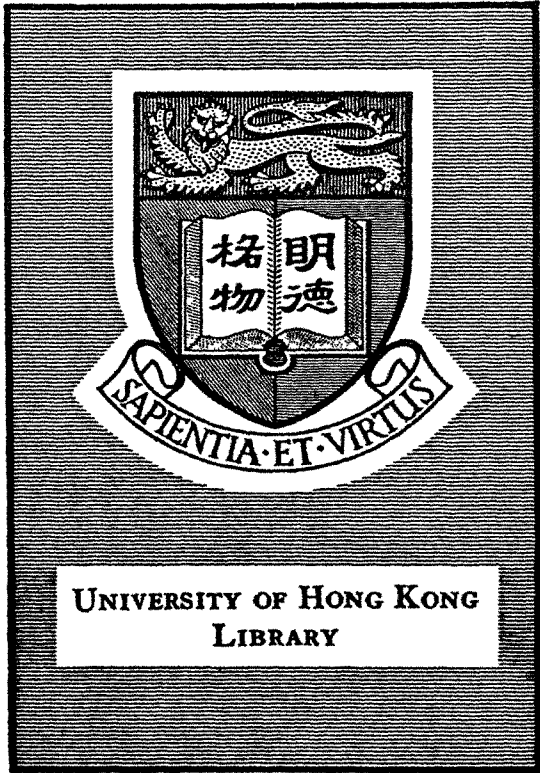
Personnel and Schools

Edited by

Mark Bray

Educational Administration in Hong Kong

Contents

Introduction

Mark Bray

In Hong Kong, practitioners, teachers and students in the field of educational administration frequently complain about the lack of locally-based research data. Material from abroad may sometimes serve required purposes and help provide guidelines for theory and practice, but it is rarely a full substitute for local material. The education system in Hong Kong has many distinctive features, and it deserves much more extensive attention from researchers.

The papers presented here aim to reduce this information gap. They were written by educators and administrators working in different parts of the Hong Kong education system, and report findings of original research. A common factor to all the authors is that they were participants in the 1988/89 M.Ed. programme in educational administration at the University of Hong Kong. Each of the papers presented here has been extracted from a longer M.Ed. dissertation which is available at the University of Hong Kong.

The spectrum covered by the papers reflects the width of the field of educational administration itself. Thus while one paper focuses on a single institution, others are territory-wide in their focus.

The first paper, by Wong Ting Hon examines relationships between supervisors and heads of aided schools. Supervisors are members of the management committees required by the Education Ordinance to exist in all aided schools. The powers of supervisors are not clearly defined by the Ordinance, and there exists considerable potential for conflict between the supervisors and principals. Wong's paper is based on a very valuable survey which examined the personal characteristics of supervisors and principals and which also collected data on their perceptions of their jobs and of each other. The paper focuses on both primary and secondary schools.

The second paper, by Chiu Shiu Yim, examines the administra-

tion of bisessional primary schools. Although bisessional schooling has existed in Hong Kong for over 30 years and has considerable economic, educational and social significance, it has been the focus of extraordinarily little research. Chiu conducted a survey which collected data on such matters as the sharing of teachers and other resources, the arrangement of classes and timetabling, and ways to promote a feeling of school unity among pupils and teachers of different sessions. A particularly valuable feature of Chiu's research is the comparison between schools which have single headteachers and schools which have separate headteachers for separate sessions.

Shirley Wong's contribution is about the role of vice-principals in aided secondary schools. Wong points out that roles of vice-principals are ill-defined and ambiguous, and that this often leads to problems. Officially, the position of vice-principal as a separate and salaried grade was abolished in a 1981 reform of salary structures. Many schools retain the de facto position, however. Wong is herself a vice-principal in an aided secondary school, so brought to the research valuable insights from her own experience. Her paper contains valuable information on expectations of the vice-principals' roles by the vice-principals themselves, the principals and the teachers, and it correlates the data on expectations with other data on the actual roles of vice-principals.

The fourth paper is by Edwin Wong, and focuses on principals' and teachers' views on school-based in-service education of teachers (INSET). It contains information on the frequencies and types of school-based INSET currently existing, analyses views on the objectives of INSET, and comments on difficulties in the implementation of proposals. The government's Education Department has recently begun to take a strong interest in school-based INSET, and Wong's paper could be an important contribution to the debate on the topic.

The contribution by Joseph Ho is concerned with strategies for implementation of innovations. The particular innovation which Ho examines is student counselling in secondary schools. Separate sections focus on the procedures for appointing members of counselling committees, the determinants of motivation among counselling teachers, principals' monitoring procedures, and determinants of teachers' receptivity to innovation.

Chan King examines a rather different subject, choosing to focus on home-school liaison. As she points out, the majority of aided secondary schools are run on rather traditional lines. Their teachers are certainly willing to meet and to talk with parents, and most

schools also organise speech days, sports days and parents' days. However, the notion that parents should become involved in decision-making, e.g. on expenditure and on school rules, is almost totally absent.

This situation is in sharp contrast to that in the United Kingdom, for example, where every school is now required to have a Board of Governors, the membership of which usually includes at least one parent. This practice is not only European, for it may also be found as far away as Papua New Guinea. Chan King highlights recent initiatives by the Education Department in Hong Kong to promote home-school liaison, but suggests that a great deal must be done both to establish formal structures and to change attitudes before the official objectives can be met.

Finally, Monica Luk's contribution is a case study of teachers' mobility in a secondary school. The school had an 11-year history, and in recent times had suffered from extremely high rates of teacher turnover. Luk was a participant observer in this school, and adopted what she called a 'mini-ethnographic' approach. The flavour of this paper is thus very different from that of the other papers presented here, and readers might find the methodology as interesting as the findings. The paper demonstrates the influence of organisational climate on the degree of teacher satisfaction.

It is hoped that these papers, as well as being valuable in themselves, might stimulate further research into educational administration in Hong Kong. As noted above, there is little substitute for detailed and careful local research; and studies such as the ones presented here could find a place in the international literature as well as in the local one.

The Relationship between Supervisors

and Principals in Aided Schools

Wong Ting Hon

This paper analyses the distribution of power in Hong Kong schools. Its particular focus is the division of authority between the supervisors and principals of aided schools. The paper examines the personal characteristics of supervisors and principals, and investigates differences in perceptions of their roles.

School supervisors should exist in all aided schools. They are part of the management structure required by the Education Ordinance in aided schools (Hong Kong 1985, para.32), but not required in government or private schools. Supervisors must be members of school management committees. They represent their management committees in several important ways, for example as signatories on the employment contracts of school principals and teachers.

Although the roles of management committees, supervisors and principals are outlined in the Education Ordinance, the boundaries of their responsibilities are vague. This often leads to misunderstanding, tension and conflict. In theory, major policy decisions, e.g. on the medium of instruction, the subjects offered in public examinations, school rules, school uniforms, and staffing are taken by the management committees. Many management committees to rely heavily on their supervisors. However, the management committees also have to rely on the principals. The principals usually have the best understanding of what is actually happening in their schools, and they may also be the best informed about details of government policy. Principals sometimes resent what they see as interference from the management committees and supervisors in the running of their schools.

The potential for conflict is exacerbated by the fact that many supervisors lack direct experience of school administration or teaching. Many supervisors of church schools are priests or nuns. In

other schools they are often businessmen or other professionals, appointed because of their general interest in community affairs rather than because of specific expertise in educational administration. In a few cases, single individuals hold the posts of both supervisor and principal. This obviously reduces interpersonal tension, but can lead to an undesirable concentration of power. In other cases, supervisors are ordinary teachers; and in at least one school the supervisor is a teacher in the school in which he teaches. This latter situation could be especially precarious, for the individual is both subordinate and superior to the principal.

It will be clear that considerable potential exists for conflict between supervisors and principals. The research reported here set out to examine this matter, focusing on:

- the attitudes of supervisors and principals towards the locus of authority and control;
- the personal variables which might be associated with variations in these attitudes;
- supervisor-principal relationships in schools dominated by the principals;
- supervisor-principal relationships in schools dominated by the supervisors;
- the differences in viewpoints between principals of secondary and primary schools; and
- the differences in viewpoints of supervisors towards principals of secondary and primary schools.

1. The Legal Framework

The Education Ordinance does not present detail on the functions of either management committees or supervisors. Concerning the former, the Ordinance (para.33) merely states that each management committee is responsible for ensuring that:

(a) the school is managed satisfactorily;
(b) the education of pupils is promoted in a proper manner; and
(c) the Ordinance is complied with.

Concerning the duties of supervisors, the main clause in the Ordinance (para.39) is that:

> Subject to any other provision in this Ordinance, all correspondence between a school and the Director [of Education] or any public officer concerning the management of the school shall be conducted on behalf of the school by the supervisor.

This clause certainly appears to put the supervisor in a pre-eminent position within the institution, but it does not contain the elucidation of roles that might be considered desirable.

The Ordinance is also vague on the functions of principals. It merely states (para.58) that:

(1) The principal of a school shall, subject to the directions of the management committee, be responsible for the teaching and discipline of the school and for such purposes shall have authority over the teachers and pupils of the school.

(2) The Director [of Education] may address the principal of a school on any matter relating to the teaching and discipline in the school, and in such case the principal shall conduct correspondence directly with the Director.

In this system, principals appear to be middle-level managerial staff responsible for day-to-day running of their institutions. Nevertheless, principals are widely considered the most influential individuals in the schools, able to shape the school climate and direction. They function as the linkage between external organisations, the school management committees, teachers, parents and students. They must provide the articulation necessary to keep resources, personnel and students working efficiently towards organisational goals and objectives. To do this job effectively, the principals must neither be so tightly constrained that they cannot cope with changing conditions, nor so loosely controlled that they seek personal rather than school system goals.

2. Research Methodology

According to official records, in September 1988 there were 305 aided secondary schools and 558 aided primary schools. Many of the primary schools had two sessions. Since both morning and afternoon sessions operated in the same premises and mostly under the same supervisor, the study focused only on the morning sessions. The aided secondary schools included grammar, technical and prevocational schools.

In this study, the term 'principal' refers to the head of either a primary or a secondary school. This procedure was adopted in order to simplify analysis and discussion. However, the author recognises the widespread practice of calling primary school heads 'headmasters /headmistresses' and secondary school heads 'principals'.

The samples of supervisors and principals were drawn in two steps. First, the population of principals was stratified according to the number of primary and secondary schools. Second, the sample was selected randomly to secure 275 primary and 133 secondary school heads. These represented approximately 50 per cent of the valid targets. The total number of valid targets was 558 in the primary sector and 265 in the secondary sector. The invalid targets were those principals who also served as the supervisors of the same schools, for whom correlation of relationships would have been impossible.

The main source of data was a pair of postal questionnaires. These were first tested through a pilot survey before being sent out in full-scale survey. The questionnaires were written in both English and Chinese.

It had initially been assumed that the response rate might be rather low. Postal questionnaires often have poor response rates, and in this case the topic might be rather sensitive to both supervisors and principals. Also, because the correspondence addresses of supervisors were difficult to find, most of the supervisors' questionnaires were sent to their schools. The researcher feared that schools might have inadequate mechanisms for forwarding supervisors' mail, and that the school principals might interfere with transmission of a questionnaire on a potentially sensitive topic.

Table 1: Survey Response Rates

	Questionnaires Sent Out	Questionnaires Returned	Response Rate
Supervisors			
Single School	265	145	54.7%
Multiple Schools	39	30	76.9%
Total	404	175	57.5%
Principals			
Primary	275	189	68.7%
Secondary	133	77	57.9%
Total	308	266	65.3%

In the event, however, the response rate was quite good. By the time the cut-off date for commencement of analysis was imposed, the response rate averaged 57.5 per cent among the supervisors and 65.3 per cent among the principals (Table 1).

The 175 supervisors' returns and 266 principals' returns included 103 pairs from the same schools. In addition to general analysis, separate analysis was made of these matching pairs. Also, to compare the viewpoints of primary and secondary principals, the responses of 73 individuals in each of these groups were analysed separately. Table 1 shows that 77 secondary principals had responded to the questionnaire, but four questionnaires were discarded from this part of the analysis because they were incomplete.

Two weeks after the deadline for the return of questionnaires, follow-up interviews were conducted with four principals and four supervisors. The principals included two from primary schools and two from secondary schools; and the supervisors included two responsible for single schools and two responsible for several schools. The interviewees were asked to enlarge on several issues, and were tactfully re-asked all items on the questionnaires. The main purpose of the interviews was to confirm the reliability and validity of the questionnaires. Copies of the questionnaires, and further details of the study, may be found in Wong (1989).

3. Results

(a) Characteristics of Supervisors and Principals

The first part of each questionnaire sought personal data on the respondents. This enabled the researcher to identify the range and typical of characteristics of supervisors and principals.

Table 2: Gender of Respondents (%)

	Male	Female
Supervisors	83.7	16.3
Principals		
Primary	73.7	26.3
Secondary	73.3	26.7

One question focused on the sex of respondents. Table 2 shows that 83.7 per cent of the supervisors were male. This was an even higher proportion than the principals, among whom 73.7 per cent (primary) and 73.3 per cent (secondary) were male.

A second question focused on age. Table 3 shows that nearly half the supervisors were over the age of 60. In contrast, only 0.4 per cent of principals were over the age of 60, and the majority were aged between 41 and 50. The fact that many supervisors were older than their principals was borne in mind during subsequent analysis.

Table 3: Age Distribution of Respondents (%)

	Supervisors	Principals
30-40 years	7.1	7.5
41-50 years	24.8	52.9
51-60 years	23.4	39.2
Over 60 years	44.7	0.4

The questionnaire also asked about the supervisors' occupations, qualifications and experience. Among the respondents, 56.2 per cent considered themselves to hold professional posts while 26.3 per cent were self-classified as managerial (Table 4). The largest group held bachelors' degrees, and the second largest group held masters' degrees. The supervisors thus appear to be quite highly educated, with 6.5 per cent even holding doctorates. At the other end of the scale, 22.5 per cent held qualifications below diploma level.

Table 4: Supervisors' Occupations, Qualifications and Experience

Occupation		Qualifications		Experience	
Professional	56.2%	Doctorate	6.5%	< 1 year	2.1%
Managerial	26.3%	Masters	23.9%	2-5 years	21.8%
Other	17.5%	Bachelor	32.6%	6-9 years	26.1%
		Diploma	14.5%	< 10 years	50.0%
		Other	22.5%		

It is also instructive to note that 50.0 per cent of supervisors had over 10 years of experience. This seems a considerable proportion, though the comparable figure among the principals was 55.0 per cent. Indeed, 12.5 per cent of principals reported between 21 and 30 years of experience in the job, and 2.1 per cent reported over 30 years.

(b) Frequency of Contact

The second area of focus concerned the frequency of contact between supervisors and principals. Such contact could be through school visits, through meetings outside the school, through correspondence, and on the telephone. Questions about the frequency of contact were addressed to both supervisors and principals in the sample of matching pairs. The results shown in Tables 5 and 6 show broad consistency between the responses of supervisors and of principals. About 43 per cent of supervisors visited their schools more than once a month, but about 20 per cent only visited during school functions.

Table 5: Frequencies of Supervisors' School Visits (%)

	> once a month	About 5 times a year	During School Functions Only
Supervisors' Responses	45.0	38.0	17.0
Principals' Responses	41.8	35.7	22.5

(c) Interpersonal Relationships

The supervisors and principals were also asked about the nature of their interpersonal relationships. Table 7 reports that 91.5 per cent of supervisors felt that the performance of their principals was satisfactory, and 94.4 per cent ranked their relationship with the principals as either excellent or good. This proportion is perhaps higher than might have been expected, and might be a cause for satisfaction among the education authorities. Some 85.8 per cent of supervisors also felt that the principals' relationship with their

teachers was either excellent or good.

Table 6: Frequencies of Supervisors' Contact with Principals (%)

	> once a week	About once a week	Seldom
Supervisors' Responses	58.3	36.9	4.8
Principals' Responses	53.9	37.3	8.8

Table 7: Supervisors' Views on Principals' Performance and Relationships (Total Sample)

Principals' Performance		Supervisor-Principal Relationship		Principal-Teacher Relationship	
Satisfactory	91.5%	Excellent	45.1%	Excellent	22.0%
Unsatisfactory	5.0%	Good	49.3%	Good	63.8%
No Opinion	3.5%	Fair	4.2%	Fair	12.1%
		Poor	1.4%	Poor	2.1%

To explore supervisor-principal relationships in more depth, the responses of supervisors and principals in the 103 matching pairs were analysed separately. The responses, shown in Table 8, show broad agreement between the two parties and confirm the generally positive image. Only 1.4 per cent of supervisors said that relationships were poor, and none of the principals did so.

Table 8: Supervisor-Principal Relationships (Matching-Pair Sample)

	Supervisors' Responses	Principals' Responses
Excellent	45.1%	45.1%
Good	49.3%	47.1%
Fair	4.2%	7.8%
Poor	1.4%	0.0%

In general, the older and more experienced supervisors seemed to have better relationships with their principals than did younger and less experienced ones. The religion of the principals was also significantly correlated with interpersonal relationships. Most of the Catholic and Protestant principals claimed to have excellent relationships with their supervisors, whereas principals of other religions only claimed to have good relationships. Apart from these, few other variables had statistically significant correlations with interpersonal relationships.

(d) Perspectives on Roles

Several questions focused on the actual activities of supervisors and principals. Table 9 reports the responses of the matching pairs to a specific question about procedures for interviewing teacher candidates. Both supervisors and principals agreed that it was extremely rare for applicants for teaching jobs to be interviewed only by the supervisors, but many respondents indicated that applicants might be interviewed by the principals alone. This suggests that in these schools the principals are more dominant than in the other schools.

Table 9: Procedures for Interviewing Teacher Candidates

	Interview by Supervisor Alone	Interview by both Sup. & Pr.	Interview by Principal Alone
Supervisors' Responses	1.0%	71.6%	27.4%
Principals' Responses	1.0%	63.0%	36.0%

Another set of questions asked for opinions on a set of 17 statements. Respondents were asked to rank their views on a scale of 5: strongly agree, 4: agree, 3: undecided, 2: disagree, and 1: strongly disagree. Opinions were sought from both supervisors and principals, and their responses were compared.

Table 10 summarises the data collected in this way. Statistically significant differences existed between supervisors' and principals'

Supervisors and Principals

responses to nine of the 17 items. The widest variation was found in views on the supervisors' rights to challenge the views of professional educators, on issues relating to principals' provision of information, and in questions of financial accountability.

Table 10: Differences in Attitudes between Supervisors and Principals

	Supervisors	Principals	p
1. Supervisors should always support principals' recommendations	3.6337	4.2178	0.000*
2. Supervisors should be expected to notify principals on any contentious issues which they intend to raise in school management committee meetings	3.8571	4.0408	0.140
3. Supervisors do not possess sufficient information about the school to challenge principals' recommendations	2.5464	2.7629	0.145
4. Supervisors should not make a decision which principals are known to be unwilling to implement	3.2020	3.6465	0.002*
5. The supervisor should never act as a rubber stamp, merely legitimising the principals' decisions	4.2178	4.0396	0.106
6. Supervisors are justified in demanding principals to conform to their expectations about the keeping of accounts	3.4388	2.8878	0.000*
7. Supervisors have no greater right than other public members to express opinions on the day-to-day running of the school	2.6020	2.8469	0.091
8. Principals are justified in rejecting discussions at school management committee meetings on any issue perceived as a threat to their authority	2.1042	2.4583	0.003*
9. For the interest of school administration and efficiency, democratic procedures must sometimes be foregone	3.1596	3.4362	0.039
10. Principals should be prepared to provide information on all issues about	4.3265	4.4082	0.196

which supervisors wish to be informed.

11. Supervisors' most important role is to provide support to principals when dealing with the Education Department	3.7604	4.2813	0.000*
12. It is appropriate for supervisors to censure principals or in any way exercise control over their behaviour	3.6082	3.6701	0.583
13. Principals must establish that the professional rights of principals and staff are not to be challenged by supervisors	3.1146	3.8646	0.000*
14. Principals are supervisors' most reliable source of information about the school	3.4898	4.0306	0.000*
15. Supervisors are justified in creating informal parties at the school management committee meetings to limit the power of principals	2.3750	2.3125	0.577
16. Principals are justified in preventing supervisors from attempting to influence matters related to the school's educational programme	2.1354	2.7500	0.000*
17. Supervisors should not control principals over funds necessary for the day-to-day running of the school	3.4694	3.7959	0.003*

* p < 0.01

Note: The respondents were asked to rank their opinions on a scale of strongly agree (5) to strongly disagree (1). The figures show the means of the opinions of the supervisors and principals.

Space limitations in this paper preclude detailed discussion of each item, for which readers are referred to Wong (1989). However, it is worth highlighting the implications of a few items.

Beginning with the first, it is perhaps not surprising that the principals felt more strongly than the supervisors that the latter should always support principals' recommendations. However, it is interesting that on balance the supervisors agreed with this statement. This suggests that the supervisors are generally respectful of the professional role played by their principals.

In the third item, respondents' views were sought on the sugges-

tion that supervisors did not possess sufficient information about their schools to challenge principals' recommendations. It is encouraging to note that on balance both supervisors and principals disagreed with this statement. It is interesting that the supervisors disagreed more strongly than the principals.

In contrast, supervisors felt justified in demanding principals to conform to their expectations about the keeping of school accounts (item 6). What may be surprising about this item is that the supervisors did not feel more strongly, averaging a score of only 3.4388. It is also perhaps surprising that principals were on balance opposed to the notion of financial accountability though their supervisors.

Item 10 suggested that principals should be prepared to provide information on all issues about which supervisors wished to be informed. The fact that supervisors agreed quite strongly is not surprising. However, it might be both surprising and encouraging that principals agreed even more strongly. On the other hand, this seems slightly to conflict with the principals' support for the notion (item 13) that principals must establish that the professional rights of principals and staff are not to be challenged by the supervisors.

Finally, it is encouraging to note that both supervisors and principals disagreed with the statement (item 16) that principals were justified in preventing supervisors from attempting to influence matters related to the school's educational programme. It is perhaps not surprising that the supervisors disagreed more strongly than the principals.

(e) Supervisor Dominance or Principal Dominance?

Data analysis for the principal domination variables revealed statistical significance in eight out of 12 items. This suggests that principals favoured greater authority, control and autonomy in administration.

Item 8 in the attitude section of the questionnaire (Table 10) focused on the notion that principals were justified in rejecting discussions at school management committee meetings on any issue perceived as a threat to their authority. It is encouraging to note that principals disagreed with this statement, though they did not disagree as strongly as the supervisors. The response matched Treiman's (1977) argument that authority and influence are sources of prestige in all societies.

The responses by the principals were also consistent with the views of Kast & Rosenzweig (1974) that "professionals develop loyalties to the professional colleagues and are not as subject to the control and conformity requirements of the organisation". Principals would like to have greater control over funds necessary for the day-to-day running of their schools. However, some supervisors pay considerable attention to monetary matters, perhaps trying to reduce the dangers of corruption and waste.

Another finding (item 11) indicated that principals felt strongly that the most important role of supervisors was to support the principals in dealings with the Education Department. As might be expected, the supervisors were much less strong in their support of this notion.

Data analysis for the supervisor domination variables revealed that only one of the five variables was statistically significant. This suggested that supervisors were less concerned than the principals to exert authority and control over school administration. Data on the frequency of supervisors' visits to schools, on their contact with principals, and on participation in curriculum planning and staff meetings suggested that the majority of supervisors left most school administration to the principals. As noted above, however, the supervisors were concerned about financial management, and expected to have control over accounts.

(f) Differences between Primary and Secondary Schools

Since the required academic qualifications of secondary and primary school principals are different, it was hypothesised that perceptions of authority and control would also be different. This hypothesis was based on the work of such authors as Adams (1963), Lawler (1971) and Patchen (1961). However, the data indicated no significant differences between two groups.

Table 11 records the views of supervisors on differences between primary and secondary schools. The majority (61.3 per cent) said that they evaluated primary and secondary school principals equally. However, 20.0 per cent said that they rated secondary principals more highly, and 10.7 per cent said that they rated primary school heads more highly.

Table 11: Supervisors' Views on Principals and Attention to Schools by Level of School

Supervisors' views on principals		*Supervisors' attention to schools*	
Primary school principals are better	10 7%	More attention to primary schools	17 0%
Secondary school principals are better	20 0%	More attention to secondary schools	35 2%
No difference	61 3%	No difference	47 8%

Table 11 also contains information on the supervisors' balance of attention (through visits, telephone calls, etc.) between primary and secondary schools. On this question, only 47.8 per cent said that there was no difference. Over a third of supervisors said that they gave more attention to secondary than to primary schools. This could reflect several factors. For example it might reflect supervisors' views of the relative importance of primary and secondary schools. It might also reflect the greater financial outlays in secondary schools, which the supervisors might feel deserved more attention. Thirdly, it might reflect better interpersonal relationships between supervisors and secondary school principals (see also Davis 1972; Engelstad 1972; Rubenowitz 1974).

5. Conclusions

This study examined the unique supervisor-principal relationship which exists in Hong Kong schools. In recent years, aided secondary schools have greatly increased in number. In any organisational relationship, particularly one which involves power sharing, persistent conflicts can, and do, occur (see Simmel 1955). This research included focus on the potential for such conflicts.

It is interesting to find that personal traits did not greatly affect relationships. Only the age and experience of supervisors and the religion of principals showed statistically significant influences. These results imply that many supervisors and principals are mature administrators who can stress what is right and not who is right, and who can bear in mind the Greek maxim that virtue is the golden mean between two extremes.

Despite the fact that supervisors are unpaid, like the principals they have legal responsibilities for their schools. Many supervisors are laymen appointed for various reasons, e.g. as part of their duties as clergymen or as status positions in charity or business organisations. Principals serve as moderators among these lay officials, and the role of principals is better defined. From the data collected, it is obvious that the frequencies of supervisors visiting schools, participating in school functions, meetings and attending students' results are rather low. It is doubtful whether supervisors can effectively 'manage' schools if they are rarely present in schools and lack explicit operational guidelines.

The findings of the study also show that supervisors and principals disagree about aspects of each others' roles. This finding was not unexpected, for the principals are hired professionals paid to run the schools, and are required to take front-line responsibility. The efficient running of schools requires a series of on-the-spot judgements. A requirement that every decision had to be referred back to the supervisors would cause chaos, for supervisors are rarely present and may not even be available for consultation. The lack of power to make decisions would also adversely affect the authority of principals in the eyes of their staff members.

In fact, supervisors are not so keen on domination struggle. They gave negative response to most predicted supervisor-dominant variables, indicating that adequate power was already granted to principals. The only control they expected was the keeping of schools accounts. It is healthy for the supervisors to censure financial management in schools since it involves government funds and supervisors try to free principals from bribery problems.

However, the dynamic expansion of Hong Kong aided schools, especially at the secondary level, makes it necessary to establish a comprehensive organisational control system to guide both professionals and non- professionals engaged in education. This study has exposed many unsatisfactory aspects about the role of supervisors and principals. These shortcomings deserve attention.

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The Administration of Bisessional Primary Schools

Chiu Shiu Yim

This article examines the administration of bisessional primary schools in Hong Kong. Bisessional schools can be found in both the primary and secondary sectors, but are more common in the former. Nearly 80 per cent of the primary schools operate on a bisessional basis, with children attending either a morning or an afternoon session. The Primary School List published by the Education Department shows that there were 626 primary schools in 1988, of which 491 were bisessional.

Despite the prominence of bisessional schooling in the education system, very little research has focused on it. Major questions arise on the educational, financial and social implications of the bisessional system. Some of these questions have relevance for school administrators, for it is important to know how to maximise the benefits from bisessional schooling and to minimise the problems.

Within the primary school sector, the largest group of bisessional schools are aided (as opposed to government or private). This paper focuses on the aided sector, which has 86 per cent of the total number of bisessional primary schools. For the study on which the paper reports, information was collected on staffing, timetabling, ways to promote school unity, use of resources, and coordination between bisessional school heads. The findings of the study may help observers to understand the system more clearly, and may help administrators to formulate appropriate strategies.

The bulk of the information for the study was collected from headteachers, to whom a questionnaire had been sent. Additional detail on the study may be found in Chiu (1989).

1. Background

The bisessional system was introduced over 30 years ago to provide more school places within a context of limited finance. As the economy has improved, pressure has increased to phase out the

bisessional system. This was considered at the time of the 1981 White Paper on Primary Education and Pre-Primary Services. However, it was felt (p.16) that "in view of the massive building programme which would be required over and above the current building programme and general shortage of suitable sites this is not considered feasible at present".

The issue was raised again in 1988. The government announced at that time that grants would be provided to enable schools to phase out bisessional operation (Bray 1989a, p.81). By the following year, however, the government had become more conscious of competing priorities. Phasing out of bisessional schooling will be difficult and costly, and it is clear that the system will remain for many years to come.

2. Methodology

Most bisessional primary schools in Hong Kong have separate headteachers for each session. However, some schools have one headteacher for both sessions. The research began by distinguishing between these two models in order to identify their implications.

The target population for the study included all headteachers of aided bisessional primary schools. According to the Education Department, in 1988 there were 424 aided bisessional primary schools, among which 122 had single headteachers for both sessions.

A sample consisting of two thirds of the bisessional schools with one headteacher was taken. For the other schools, a 50 per cent sample was taken. A questionnaire was sent to equal numbers of headteachers in the morning and afternoon sessions.

The questionnaires were distributed in June 1989 to 246 schools. The initial response from headteachers of the afternoon sessions was lower than that from the morning sessions. In order to obtain a more balanced number of responses, additional questionnaires were sent to headteachers of the afternoon sessions. The final return rate was considered reasonable at 63 per cent.

3. Findings

(a) Classes and Pupils

In bisessional primary schools, the morning sessions are more popular

than the afternoon sessions. This is because teachers and students feel more fresh and better able to concentrate in the morning. School administrators commonly fill their morning sessions to capacity, and only put the 'overflow' in the afternoon. Accordingly, it was anticipated that the research would find more classes and students in the morning session.

This expectation was confirmed. Some 33 per cent of the morning sessions had 24 classes or more, but only 27 per cent of the afternoon sessions had 24 classes or more. The number of classes also differed greatly between schools with single headteacher and schools with separate headteachers. Nearly 65 per cent of the schools with separate headteachers had 24 classes or more. In contrast, over 98 per cent of the schools with single headteachers had fewer than 18 classes (Table 1).

Table 1: Number of Classes in Schools with Separate or Single Headteachers

| No. of Classes | Schools with Separate Heads | | | | Schools with Single Heads | | | |
	morning		afternoon		morning		afternoon	
Less than 6	0	0.0%	1	2.4%	10	18.9%	16	30.2%
6 - 11	2	3.5%	2	4.9%	21	39.6%	22	41.5%
12 - 17	5	8.8%	5	12.2%	21	39.6%	14	26.4%
18 - 23	13	22.8%	7	17.1%	1	1.9%	1	1.9%
24 - 29	35	61.4%	24	58.5%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%
30 or more	2	3.5%	2	4.9%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%
Total	57	100.0%	41	100.0%	53	100.0%	53	100.0%

The morning sessions also had more pupils. About 40 per cent of the morning sessions had over 800 pupils, compared to about 27 per cent in the afternoon sessions.

The survey also found notable differences in the number of pupils in schools with separate headteachers compared with schools having single headteachers. More than 60 per cent of the schools with separate headteachers had over 800 pupils. However, fewer than 2 per cent of the schools with single headteachers had over 800 pupils. In fact, most had fewer than 400 pupils (Table 2).

Table 2: Enrolment in Schools with Separate or Single Headteachers

No. of Pupils	Schools with Separate Heads				Schools with Single Heads			
	morning		afternoon		morning		afternoon	
200 or fewer	1	1.8%	0	0.0%	15	28.3%	24	44.4%
201 - 400	1	1.8%	3	7.0%	19	35.8%	14	25.9%
401 - 600	3	5.2%	5	12.5%	15	28.3%	11	20.4%
601 - 800	9	15.8%	7	17.5%	3	5.7%	4	7.4%
801 - 1000	37	64.9%	18	45.0%	1	1.9%	1	1.9%
1000 - more	6	10.0%	7	17.5%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%
Total	57	100.0%	40	100.0%	53	100.0%	53	100.0%

(b) Staffing

There are three main ranks of headteachers in Hong Kong. Principal Assistant Masters/Mistresses take charge of 24 classes or more; Senior Assistant Masters/Mistresses take charge of 17 to 23 classes; and Assistant Masters/Mistresses take charge of 16 classes or less.

It was found that the decision on whether to put one headteacher in charge of both sessions or whether to have separate headteachers for each session depended chiefly on the ranks of the individuals and the sizes of the sessions. If the total number of classes for the morning and afternoon sessions did not exceed 24, usually one headteacher was appointed to supervise both sessions. This was especially true for schools with only a few classes in the afternoon session.

A second staffing question concerns the use of teachers. In order to avoid work overload, staff in Hong Kong usually teach in only one session. However, some teachers do work in both sessions, e.g. because there is a half vacancy in the morning session and another half vacancy in the afternoon. Sometimes, sharing of staff is also permitted to optimise use of specialist staff. In primary schools, teachers of cultural subjects and languages are particularly scarce, are often asked to teach in both sessions.

About 32 per cent of schools had teachers working in both sessions. Sharing of teachers was much more common in schools with single headteachers, where the figure rose to 78 per cent (Table 3). Because the schools with single headteachers were generally smaller, it may be assumed that they had more half-teacher vacancies. Also, of course, the fact that the institutions had single heads would have made it easier to arrange sharing of staff.

Table 3: Sharing of Teachers

Sharing of teachers	Schools with Separate Heads		Schools with Single Heads		Total	
Yes	6	6.0%	44	78.6%	50	32.1%
No	94	94.0%	12	21.4%	106	67.9%
Total	100	100.0%	56	100.0%	156	100.0%

The teachers who taught in both sessions were teaching many different subjects (Table 4). The largest group, found in 17.3 per cent of the total number of schools, were teachers of cultural subjects. Significant proportions of language teachers (both English and Chinese) were also shared. The other groups were teachers of social studies and of science/mathematics.

Table 4: Subjects of the Shared Teachers

Subject	Schools with Separate Heads		Schools with Single Heads		Total	
Languages	3	3.0%	23	41.1%	26	16.7%
Sci/math	1	1.0%	15	26.8%	16	10.3%
Social	2	2.0%	16	28.6%	18	11.5%
Cultural	5	5.0%	22	39.3%	27	17.3%
Total	100	100.0%	56	100.0%	156	100.0%

(c) Arrangement of Classes and Timetabling

Because the morning sessions are generally more popular, some school administrators rotate classes in order to make the system more fair. The survey showed that rotation is not very widespread. Where it does exist, however, it is more common in schools with single headteachers than in schools with separate headteachers for each session. Among the former, 24.1 per cent rotated classes, compared with only 2.0 per cent among the latter (Table 5). The reasons for the divergence are obvious, for it is administratively much more difficult to organise rotation when separate heads are involved. However, it is interesting that two schools with separate heads for

each session do nevertheless organise rotation.

Table 5: Rotation of Classes

Rotation of Classes	Schools with Separate Heads		Schools with Single Heads		Total	
Yes	2	2.0%	13	24.1%	15	9.8%
No	97	98.0%	41	75.9%	138	90.2%
Total	99	100.0%	54	100.0%	153	100.0%

Many different options exist for rotation of classes (see Bray 1989b, pp.59- 65). The survey found that most popular ones were:

* Grades 2, 4, 6 in the morning and grades 1, 3, 5 in the afternoon, and
* Grades 1, 3, 5 in the morning and Grades 2, 4, 6 in the afternoon.

In the first two categories, pupils automatically alternate between morning and afternoon sessions as they progress through the system. In the third category the schools had parallel Grades 1-6 in both morning and afternoon sessions, but still arranged for pupils to alternate within this framework.

(d) Promotion of a Feeling of Unity

For statistical purposes, in Hong Kong bisessional primary schools are regarded as single institutions. However, bisessional schools face the danger that pupils and staff will not feel that they all belong to a single institution. It becomes necessary to find special ways to promote a feeling of unity.

When separate sessions have separate headteachers, it is essential to organise meetings between the headteachers. According to the survey, over 80 per cent of headteachers had five or more formal meetings each academic year (Table 6).

Table 6: Formal Meetings for Headteachers of Separate Sessions

Number of Meetings	Number of Valid Returns	Percentage
5 or more	80	80.8
4	3	3.0
3	4	4.0
2	6	6.1
1	1	1.0
0	5	5.1
Total	99	100.0

It is also desirable to organise joint meetings for the teachers. Table 7 indicates that meetings for the staff of separate sessions were more common in schools with single headteachers than in schools with separate ones. Overall, 35.6 per cent of responding schools indicated that they had five or more meetings a year, but 13.2 per cent (all of them in institutions with separate headteachers for each session) indicated that they had no formal staff meetings.

Table 7: Formal Staff Meetings for Teachers of Separate Sessions

No. of Meetings	Schools with Separate Heads		Schools with Single Heads		Total	
5 or more	30	30.0%	24	46.2%	54	35.6%
4	6	6.0%	15	28.8%	21	13.8%
3	4	4.0%	7	13.5%	11	7.2%
2	25	25.0%	5	9.6%	30	19.7%
1	15	15.0%	1	1.9%	16	10.5%
0	20	20.0%	0	0.0%	20	13.2%
Total	100	100.0%	52	100.0%	152	100.0%

A third question under the heading of school unity concerns the extent to which the working hours of headteachers in separate sessions overlap. Table 8 shows that 80.0 per cent said that they had at least two hours of overlap each day. This may be presumed to have greatly facilitated informal communication between the

headteachers.

Table 8: Daily Overlapping Working Hours for Headteachers

Number of Meetings	Number of Valid Returns	Percentage
2 or more	80	80.0
1.5	9	9.0
1	7	7.0
0.5	2	2.0
0	2	2.0
Total	100	100.0
Mean	1.81	
Standard Deviation	0.43	

In contrast, the overlap in working hours of teachers was much less. Only 25.3 per cent of respondents said that teachers had two hours' overlap, and 14.0 per cent said that teachers had no overlap. Perhaps surprisingly, the proportion of teachers with no overlap was much greater in schools with single headteachers than in ones with separate headteachers for each session.

Table 9: Daily Overlapping Working Hours for Teachers

No. of Hours	Schools with Separate Heads		Schools with Single Heads		Total	
2 or more	31	31.0%	7	14.0%	38	25.3%
1.5	15	15.0%	12	24.0%	27	18.0%
1	32	32.0%	14	28.0%	46	30.7%
0.5	13	13.0%	5	10.0%	18	12.0%
0	9	9.0%	12	24.0%	21	14.0%
Total	100	100.0%	50	100.0%	150	100.0%

Another indicator of school unity is the extent to which different sessions share uniforms, school rules, book lists, specially-printed exercise books, examination papers etc.. Table 10 shows that almost

all schools had the same uniforms in both morning and afternoon sessions. Over 90 per cent also shared school rules, book lists and orders of exercise books. The smallest category was test and examination papers, though 60 per cent of schools still indicated sharing in that sphere.

Table 10: Common Features of Bisessional Schools

Common Features	Schools with Separate Heads		Schools with Single Heads		Total	
Uniforms	98	99%	54	100%	152	99%
School rules	84	85%	54	100%	138	90%
Book lists	90	91%	52	96%	142	93%
Exercise books	93	94%	51	94%	144	94%
Subjects offered	79	80%	45	83%	124	81%
Schemes of work	50	51%	46	85%	96	63%
Test/exam papers	49	49%	43	80%	92	60%
Total	99	100%	54	100%	153	100%

The table also reveals some instructive contrasts between schools with single headteachers and schools with separate headteachers for each session. In the former, sharing of school rules, schemes of work and test/examination papers was much greater than in the latter.

Table 11 amplifies this picture by showing organisation of activities. Over 90 per cent of schools said that they organised joint speech days and open days, but only about 50 per cent held joint parents' days, picnics and special programmes (such as civic education, moral education and religious activities). Again, many showed significant difference between schools with single head-teachers and schools with separate headteachers for each session.

Table 11: Organisation of Activities

Activities	Schools with Separate Heads	Schools with Single Heads	Total
Speech day	92%	94%	93%
Sports day	77%	98%	83%
Open day	79%	96%	92%
Parents' day	42%	75%	52%
Picnic	50%	80%	50%
Visit	28%	75%	44%
Special Program	36%	81%	51%

(e) Use of Resources

Sharing of resources can have the merit not only of promoting unity but also of improving economic efficiency. An additional part of the survey investigated the extent and the nature of sharing.

In most schools, sharing of resources is very common (Table 12). Over 90 per cent of the schools share the playgrounds, audio-visual rooms, halls and other special rooms. Similarly, over 90 per cent of schools share audio-visual equipment, musical instruments and sports equipment.

However, there is less sharing of headteachers' offices and staff rooms, especially in schools with separate headteachers. Most probably this is for the convenience and privacy of the headteachers and teachers. In general, there is more sharing of resources in schools with single headteachers. The item on libraries is perhaps biases because some schools do not have libraries, in which case the informants probably responded 'do not share'. Nevertheless, knowledge of individual institutions indicated that some schools do have separate, unshared libraries for morning and afternoon sessions. Again, there was more sharing of resources in schools with single headteachers.

Table 12: Sharing of Resources

Resources Shared	Schools with Separate Heads	Schools with Single Heads	Total
Headteacher's office	19%	74%	38%
Staff room	37%	89%	45%
Hall	100%	85%	95%
Playground	100%	94%	98%
A.V. room	97%	100%	98%
Library	54%	63%	57%
Library books	44%	59%	50%
Special rooms	98%	87%	95%
Store rooms	88%	89%	95%
A.V. equipment	92%	98%	95%
Sports equipment	86%	96%	90%
Musical instruments	89%	96%	92%

(f) Coordination between Session Heads

The 1981 White Paper on Primary Education and Pre-Primary Services stated (p.19) that:

The Government does not intend to make any change in the arrangements for the headships of bisessional primary schools. However, in large schools, where the two sessions have separate heads, it is strongly recommended that one of the heads should be made responsible for co-ordination.

This is sound advice, for it is very desirable for the responsibilities of both the morning and afternoon heads to be clearly defined. School management committees may make explicit divisions of responsibility between the heads of each session.

The survey found that headteachers of morning sessions generally had more responsibility and influence in all areas of administration. The responsibility and influence of headteachers of afternoon sessions differed in various aspects. They had greater responsibility in the administration of clerical staff and minor staff, school activities, and various duties of repair work. They had only some responsibility in the use of accommodation, trading operations and other administrative matters.

4. Conclusions

Although bisessional schools have existed in Hong Kong for many years, very little empirical research work has been conducted to investigate their operation. This study aimed to help rectify this gap.

As anticipated, the study found that the morning sessions of bisessional schools have more pupils than the afternoon sessions. The precise reasons for preferring morning sessions could usefully be investigated, but many people believe that pupils learn better in the morning, especially during the hot summer months.

The decision on whether to appoint one or two headteachers to supervise the two sessions depends mainly on the ranks of the individuals and the sizes of the sessions. In most schools with single headteachers for both sessions, the numbers of classes and pupils are smaller. However, the working hours of these headteachers may be very long. Schools do not usually fix the working hours of these headteachers, but the headteachers are expected to work from early morning to late afternoon at least some days each week. This may be a heavy burden.

On the other hand, appointment of separate headteachers for separate sessions causes problems of coordination. It also inhibits the extent to which administrators can promote a sense of school unity.

With the exception of headteacher rooms and staff rooms, most facilities and resources are shared between the two sessions. Many schools are built with two headteacher rooms and staff rooms. For schools with only one staff room, attempts have been made to create another one by reconstruction work. However, it is interesting to find that about 26 per cent of the headteachers who supervise two sessions use two headteacher rooms. Most probably they place separate files and records in separate rooms and it is easier to find relevant information.

In various aspects of administration, headteachers of morning sessions have more responsibility and influence than headteachers of afternoon sessions. However, some of the duties may not be separated easily and both headteachers have to perform the same task, though with varying degree of responsibilities. It will be most interesting to collect information on separate sessions of the same school. The results can then show a real comparison of the influence and responsibility of the morning and afternoon headteachers.

Similarly, headteachers of both sessions have more responsibility and influence than headteachers of one session. Of course, the numbers of classes and pupils are smaller. However, it is not certain whether this will cause any work stress for the headteachers.

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The Role of Vice-Principals

in Aided Secondary Schools

Shirley S.L. Wong

Literally, a vice-principal is someone next in official rank below a school principal. The need for a vice-principal appears to be linked to school size and to increasingly specialised school curricula, which create more complex school structures. Vice-principals also become necessary when the role of principals changes from that of a 'paternalistic autocrat' to that of leader of a management team. Greater demand for principals to participate in community affairs also makes it more difficult for principals to manage everything by themselves.

In the United States, vice-principals hold the title of 'assistant principal'. This is a full-time administrative position in virtually all comprehensive public secondary schools with student enrolments of 600 or more (Reed & Himmler 1985). In England, larger schools are allowed to appoint additional staff with deputy headteacher status at the discretion of the Local Education Authority (Todd & Dennison 1978). In Hong Kong, however, the position of viceprincipal does not exist in all secondary schools because it is not officially 'recognised' as an essential rank in the school hierarchy. In 1981 the Education Department issued a set of Guidelines stating that although schools might continue to designate senior staff as vice-principals, they were advised to delegate administrative work to subject panel convenors or heads of department.

Recent years have brought discussion about the desirability of reintroducing a separate rank for vice-principals. For example, a study by the Hong Kong Aided (Grant & Subsidised) Secondary School Vice-principals Association revealed that the principals consider the vice-principals to be 'functionally different' from other senior teachers and should be worthy of a higher pay scale (HKASSVA 1985). To carry this argument forward, however, it is necessary to present a clear definition of the role of the

vice-principals, and to distinguish that role from that of other senior teachers. Identification of the role of vice-principals is the chief objective of this paper.

1. Theoretical Framework

Several writers (e.g. Burnham 1968; Matthew & Tong 1982; Greenfield 1985) have reviewed overseas and international studies on vice-principalships. They point out that the roles of vice-principals are generally undefined and ambiguous. Burnham (1975) proposes a dual leadership arrangement between the head and the deputy, with the head as the task leader and the deputy as the social-emotional leader. However Coulson (1976) and Todd & Dennison (1978) point out that heads and their deputies are rarely in total agreement on such an arrangement. Iannacone (1985) adds to the debate the assertion that there is no instructional responsibility in the role of the vice-principal. According to him, the primary function of vice-principals is to maintain a steady state in the school organisation.

Other functions identified for vice-principals include communication between the principals and the teachers (Robinson 1985), restoration of forces in the school if they become upset (Krumbein 1982), monitoring of teacher and student behaviour (Calabrese & Adams 1987), and freeing of principals from unnecessary but essential administrative details (Panyako & Rorie 1987).

This study is set in the context of organisation theory, which views the school as a social system. It also makes use of role theory. The principal, vice-principal, heads of departments, teachers, supporting staff and students all play their respective roles in such a way that the functions of the system can be carried out. Thus, an understanding of roles played by the various incumbents in a school is essential for the smooth running of the institution. Most writers on role theory (e.g. Biddle & Thomas 1966; Getzels 1968; Sarbin & Allen 1968; Burnham 1975; Scimecca 1981; Owens 1981) believe that the behaviour of a role incumbent is shaped by expectations of others in the system. Thus analysis of the role of vice-principals can provide information for better understanding of the system, and hence can achieve greater effectiveness in the running of that system.

2. Method

In this study, the roles of vice-principals in Hong Kong aided secondary schools were analysed in two parts. The researcher first identified role expectations both by the vice-principals themselves and by the principals and teachers. She then identified the actual roles performed by the vice-principals.

The chief source of data for the study was a postal questionnaire. A telephone survey of all aided secondary Anglo-Chinese grammar schools identified the institutions which had vice-principal posts. Only those with such posts were included in the study. In each school under study, the principal, a vice-principal, and a teacher were selected to represent the three groups of school personnel.

The instrumentation was prepared by first identifying from the literature the range of opinions on the potential role of vice-principals. This was followed by discussions with a principal, a vice-principal and a teacher. Separate versions of the questionnaire were prepared for each of the three groups of school personnel under study. In all three versions, the first part included items requesting some personal data and information on the schools. The second part included 39 items describing the various tasks performed by the vice-principals grouped under six sub-headings. These sub-headings were: 'instrumental leader', 'social-emotional leader', 'supervisor', 'executive', 'coordinator', and 'teacher'.

Table 1 summarises these items. The respondents were asked to answer two questions on each item. The first question asked whether or not the respondents expected the vice-principals to do the task, along a range of (a) absolutely must, (b) preferably should, (c) may or may not, (d) preferably not, and (e) absolutely must not.

The second question asked whether the vice-principal was doing that task in the respondent's school. Response choices were (a) yes, (b) no, or (c) don't know. The questionnaire ended after this part for the principals and teachers. The vice-principals were requested to answer a third part asking for personal information and for views on their posts.

One-way analysis of variance helped identify significant differences between the responses of principals, vice-principals and teachers, and to identify the influences of sex, age, academic qualifications and teaching experience. In cases where comparison was made among more than two groups/sub-groups, the Scheffe Test was employed to identify the two groups/sub-groups between which the significant difference was located.

Table 1: Potential Roles of Vice-Principals

I. *Vice-principal as an instrumental leader concerned mainly with achieving the goals or tasks of a school*
    1. Nominate teachers to attend staff development programmes such as training courses and seminars.
    2. Work with the principal to plan school curriculum (deleting existing subjects, adding new subjects, etc.).
    3. Work with the principal to decide on the teaching and other duties of staff.
    4. Suggest new plans or policies to the principal to improve the effectiveness in running the school, or assist the principal in trying out new plans.
    5. Analyse students' achievements in both internal and public examinations, and initiate programs for improving performance.
    6. Discuss progress and difficulties with department heads in the various subjects.
    7. Talk to the staff members about strengths and/or weaknesses in their performance.

II. *Vice-principal as a social-emotional leader concerned mainly with interpersonal relations*
    8. Look out for teacher welfare.
    9. Handle disputes among members of staff.
    10. Listen to staff members' complaints about their problems in teaching and in getting along with colleagues, and provide help if necessary.
    11. Arrange orientation programmes for new members to enable them to get familiar with school life.
    12. Organise recreational activities for staff members.
    13. Gather suggestions, information, opinions etc. from teachers in an informal manner before any decision on a new plan or policy is made.

III. *Vice-principal as a supervisor in monitoring, supporting and remediating various school activities*
    14. Inspect students' exercise books of all subjects from time to time.
    15. Be involved in maintenance of school inventory and properties, such as furniture/equipment, repairs, etc..
    16. Report to the principal about strengths and/or weaknesses

in the performance of the staff members.
17. Organise or supervise various school functions such as speech day, parents' day, etc..
18. Supervise supporting staff (clerks, janitors etc.).
19. Supervise student-teachers from universities or colleges of education during teaching practice.

V. *Vice-principal as an executive in carrying out administrative routine*
20. Be responsible for keeping students' records, such as registration cards, pupil record cards, etc..
21. Arrange timetables for teaching.
22. Arrange for substitutes when teachers are absent.
23. Arrange for enrolment of students in public examinations.
24. Make arrangements for public examinations (appointing invigilators allotting classrooms as examination centres, etc.).
25. Make arrangements for internal examinations.
26. Make arrangements for the use of rooms for lessons.
27. Process applications for textbook-assistance, fee-remission, etc.

*. *Vice-principal as a coordinator among the various parties involved in the running of the school*
28. Act as liaison between the principal and the teachers.
29. Coordinate activities involving the various functional units (discipline, careers, extra-curricular activities, student counselling, etc.)
30. Draft correspondence to external bodies on behalf of the principal (e.g. making complaints, responding to complaints, votes of thanks).
31. Coordinate activities involving other schools, outside visitors, guest speakers, etc.
32. Handle serious disciplinary matters together with the discipline department, the counsellors and/or the parentss.
33. When a parent demands to see the principal, interview the parent and decide if it is necessary to refer the case to the principal.

*I. *Vice-principal as a teacher carrying routine duties as other teachers do*
34. Write recommendations for students for further education or application of jobs on the request of the students.
35. Listen to students' complaints about the school management

and/or teaching processes.
36. Arrange orientation programmes for new students.
37. Be the adviser of one or more extra-curricular teams, clubs, etc.
38. Participate in students' functions such as tea-parties, class-picnics, etc.
39. Take up teaching duties equivalent to 50 per cent or more of those of an average teacher.

A test for homogeneity of variance was also performed to ensure that the statistical test was valid. The results of analysis of variance were considered valid only if the assumption of homogeneity of variance was fulfilled. Therefore, for items showing significant difference in variance, a non-parametric test was conducted. Where comparison was made between two groups/sub-groups, the Mann-Whitney U Test was used; and where comparison was made among more than two groups, the Kruskal-Willis Test was employed.

3. Findings

(a) Background Information

Out of the 227 aided secondary Anglo-Chinese grammar schools in Hong Kong, 125 had vice-principal posts. Of these 125, about 60 per cent had one vice-principal, and the remainder had two. Among those schools with vice-principal posts, about 91 per cent had a history of over 10 years and about 88 per cent had 24 to 36 classes. The correlation coefficient between the number of vice- principals and the number of classes was 0.133, which was not significant at <0.01 level.

This finding did not support the general impression that the demand for the post of vice-principal result from increasing school size. However, the findings did not completely reveal the overall situation in Hong Kong because only schools with the post of vice-principal were included, and the average class number in schools without vice-principal was not known. Thus, the results might have been different if all schools had been included in the study.

(b) Characteristics of Vice-Principals

Examination of the characteristics of the vice-principals revealed that out of the 74 vice-principals responding to the questionnaire, two thirds were male and over half were over the age of 40. They had an average experience of 17.8 years in the teaching profession and 6.8 years as vice-principal.

The vice-principals had served as teachers for about 11 years before becoming a vice-principal. If the career life in the teaching profession can be taken as 30 years (assuming commencement at the age of 25 and retirement at 55), the promotion from a teacher to a vice-principal, via in most cases an intermediate step of Senior Graduate Master/Mistress, in 10 years' time implies quite a steep career ladder, especially if vice-principalship is the end of the ladder.

The starting salary for a Graduate Master/Mistress is Point 20 on the Master Pay Scale, while that for a Senior Graduate Master/Mistress is Point 38. This implies that a graduate teacher is expected to reach the next rank within 18 years if no other criteria are considered. Thus, the relatively rapid promotion of teachers to vice-principals in Hong Kong secondary schools is probably the result of the rapid expansion of the sector in the past 10 to 15 years. On the other hand, an average service of 6.8 years as a vice-principal indicates that the promotion of vice-principals to principalship has been relatively slow. This is understandable because the number of principal posts and the extent of turn-over are limited.

The study also revealed that nearly all vice-principals hold the rank of Senior Graduate Master/Mistress. This indicates that in Hong Kong secondary schools, graduates are more likely than non-graduates to take up senior administrative posts. Among the vice-principals, 77 per cent held bachelor's degrees, and 16 per cent held master's degrees. Over 80 per cent of the vice- principals had received some form of training in educational administration.

The teaching load of the vice-principals ranged from 18 to 71 per cent of a full timetable, with a mean of 44.6 per cent. This matched the finding of Todd & Dennison (1978) in England, who reported about a range from a quarter to just over a half a full teaching load for deputy heads. Vice-principals taking a 45 per cent teaching load have to spend a corresponding number of hours in the classrooms. Together with the time required for preparation of lessons and marking of students' work, the majority of the school hours would be used for teaching. This means that the vice-principals have less than half of their time in school to perform all the other

roles. It is therefore surprising to note that only 10 per cent of vice-principals responding in this study considered the role of teacher the most important, despite the large proportion of time demanded by such a role. Indeed over half of them ranked the role of teacher as the least important!

Table 2: Teaching Loads of Vice-Principals with Different Characteristics

Charac- teristics	Group		Teaching load (% period per week/cycle) Mean	s.d.	t-value	df	2-tail p
Sex	Male	(N=50)	43.99	12.0			
	Female	(N=22)	46.71	12.1	-.89	70	.379
Age	39 or below	(N=32)	48.37	11.1			
	40 or over	(N=41)	42.03	11.9	2.33	71	.023 *
Academic qualifi- cation	Bachelor's degree	(N=57)	44.73	11.7			
	Master's degree	(N=57)	43.99	15.0	.20	67	.841
No. of VPs	One VP	(N=45)	44.95	12.3			
	Two VPs	(N=29)	45.00	11 8	.34	72	.731
With or without other posts	No other post	(N=20)	38.73	11.8			
	One other post	(N=29)	46.21	9.7	-2.42	47	.019 *
With or without other posts	No other post	(N=20)	38.73	11.8			
	More than one post	(N=24)	47.31	13.6	-2.21	42	.033 *

* Significant difference at 0.05 level.

Examination of the effects of various characteristics of vice-principals and their schools on teaching loads indicates that sex, academic qualifications, experience in the teaching profession, experience as a vice-principal, the number of classes in school, and the number of vice-principals in school were not important deter-minants of the teaching load of the vice-principals (Table 2). However, the age of the vice-principals and the number of posts held by them were found to have some effects on their teaching load. The

older vice-principals and, surprisingly, those with no other responsible posts were found to have lower teaching loads. This may be because the older vice-principals are teaching in schools which have been established for a longer time, and the vice-principal's post has over the years become recognised as distinctive from the other teachers', so that they were not given a high teaching load. The same factor may lie behind the lower teaching load for vice-principals holding no other responsible post. This group of respondents considered their role to be better defined than the others.

(c) Expected Roles of Vice-Principals

The study indicated that, with the exception of three aspects, vice-principals and principals have very similar expectations on the roles of the vice-principals. The vice-principals and teachers had different expectations over seven items, and the principals and the teachers differed significantly over five items (Table 3). The closer agreement between vice-principals and principals might suggest that the behaviour of the vice-principals is to a great extent shaped by the principals. This has been reported in other contexts by Ogilvie (1977) and Matthew & Tong (1982).

Among the six roles listed, there was greatest agreement in expectations over the tasks described as 'executive'. There was greatest disagreement in expectations over the tasks described as 'teacher'. The other roles -- 'coordinator', 'social emotional leader', 'instrumental leader', and 'supervisor' -- were intermediate and in decreasing order of agreement.

When the vice-principals were asked to rank the six roles according to their relative importance, the majority put 'instrumental leader' at the top of the list. The other roles, in descending order, were 'executive', 'supervisor', 'coordinator', 'social-emotional leader', and finally 'teacher' (Table 4).

(d) Actual Roles of Vice-Principals

When the actual performance of the various tasks was studied, the highest correlation was found between the expectations and the actual performance for 'executive'. This was followed by 'teacher', 'coordinator', 'instrumental leader', 'social-emotional leader' and 'supervisor' (Table 5).

Table 3: Analysis of Variance for Responses from All Respondents

Item	Mean response			F	df	p	Significant difference between pair	Test for homogeneity in variance
	Principals (N=65)	V.P. (N=74)	Teachers (N=65)					
1	3.65	3.52	3.08	7.069	203	.0011 **	P-T; VP-T	#
2	4.49	4.54	4.40	0.998	203	.3706		
3	4.46	4.45	4.23	2.304	203	.1025		#
4	4.60	4.58	4.35	3.440	203	.0340 *	No diff.	#
5	4.32	4.26	4.12	1.267	203	.2839		
6	4.14	4.15	3.80	4.810	203	.0091 **	P-T; VP-T	
7	3.71	3.34	3.19	5.658	203	.0041 **	P-T	
8	3.80	3.78	4.00	1.464	203	.2337		
9	3.86	3.50	3.62	2.631	203	.0745		
10	4.17	4.34	3.91	6.813	203	.0014 **	VP-T	#
11	4.19	3.95	4.05	1.767	203	.1735		
12	3.09	2.72	3.06	4.054	203	.0188 *	P-VP	
13	4.35	4.19	4.11	2.925	203	.0559		
14	3.31	3.11	2.83	4.074	203	.0184 *	P-T	
15	3.11	3.05	3.15	.183	203	.8330		
16	4.06	3.81	3.29	11.693	203	.0000 **	P-T; PV-T	#
17 '	4.25	4.12	4.14	.559	203	.5729		
18	3.45	3.46	3.71	1.403	203	.2483		
19	3.93	3.63	3.72	2.193	203	.1143		
20	3.49	3.21	3.43	1.374	203	.2336		
21	4.03	3.96	3.99	.118	203	.8884		
22	3.92	3.86	3.77	.497	203	.6089		
23	3.75	3.70	3.85	.415	203	.6612		
24	4.03	3.97	3.91	.323	203	.7243		
25	4.11	3.92	4.03	.703	203	.4961		
26	4.06	3.81	3.79	1.649	203	.1948		
27	3.23	3.22	3.29	.100	203	.9051		
28	4.51	4.38	4.31	1.738	203	.1784		
29	4.14	4.04	4.17	.493	203	.6117		
30	3.06	2.95	3.37	4.394	203	.0136 *	VP-T	
31	3.40	3.26	3.49	1.522	203	.2207		#
32	4.00	3.97	3.95	.044	203	.9572		
33	3.69	3.72	3.79	.207	203	.8133		
34	3.26	3.49	3.48	1.414	203	.2456		
35	3.81	4.12	3.66	6.310	203	.0022 **	VP-T; P-VP	#
36	3.74	3.64	3.55	.700	203	.4976		
37	3.19	2.89	3.22	2.463	203	.0877		
38	3.69	3.72	3.62	.343	203	.7104		
39	3.94	3.26	3.86	9.757	203	.0001 **	VP-T; VP-P	#

*   Significant difference at 0.05 level.
**   Significant difference at 0.01 level.
#   Significant difference in variance at 0.05 level. (For each of these items, a nonparametric test was performed. Significant differences were found in the pairs indicated.)

Note: For indication of the roles to which each number (1-39) refers, see Table 1.

Table 4: Relative Importance of the Various Roles as Viewed by the Vice- Principals (1 = most important, 6 = least important)

Role	Rank						Average
	1	2	3	4	5	6	rank
Instrumental leader	38	21	8	6	1	0	1.8
	51.4%	28.4%	10.8%	8.1%	1.4%		
Social-emotional leader	6	23	15	10	13	7	3.3
	8.1%	31.1%	20.3	13.5%	17.6%	9.5%	
Supervisor	7	23	28	11	3	2	2.8
	9.5%	31.1%	37.8%	14.9%	4.1%	2.7%	
Executive	19	23	8	10	13	1	2.7
	25.7%	31.1%	10.8%	13.5%	17.6%	1.4%	
Coordinator	15	11	16	17	12	3	3.1
	20.3%	14.9%	21.6%	23.0%	16.2%	4.1%	
Teacher	7	11	4	6	7	38	4.5
	9.5%	14.9%	5.4%	8.1%	9.5%	51.4%	

These results indicate that the roles of the vice-principals are poorly defined: expectations of role and actual performance do not coincide. The results match the findings of Burnham (1968) in England and Greenfield (1985) in the USA, who pointed out that the roles of vice-principals were often ambiguous.

When characteristics of the role incumbents (vice-principals in this study), role occupants of counter positions (principals and teachers in this study), and the system (aided secondary school in Hong Kong) were added, the situation became multi-dimensional. Table 6 summarises the items where significant difference in responses were found.

(e) Effects of Personal Characteristics

Examination of personal characteristics showed that sex, age, academic qualifications, and experiences did not greatly affect the vice-principals' expectations of the various roles. The only exception was the role as a teacher, where differences were found according to age, academic qualifications and teaching experience. The older and

Table 5: Correlation between Expected and Actual Role

Role	Item	All (N=204)	Correlation Principals (N=65)	(r with -ve sign omitted) V.P. (N=74)	Teachers (N=65)
Instrumental	1	.0750	.3252 *	.3036 *	.2237
leader	2	.3102 **	.1713	.1940	.3942 **
	3	.2424 **	.0165	.3221 *	.2316
	4	.0860	.0872	.1433	.0544
	5	.2152 **	.4015 **	.2111	.0981
	6	.1666 *	.3127 *	.2448	.0105
	7	.1144	.1890	.3066*	.0856
Social-	8	.1286	.2747	.2580	.0334
emotional	9	.1368	.1145	.1473	.1016
leader	10	.1883 *	.3679 *	.1490	.0153
	11	.2005 *	.2879	.6372 **	.0844
	12	.0346	.0512	.0721	.0636
	13	.1746 *	.1081	.2376	.1341
Supervisor	14	.1279	.4189 **	.4506	.0679
	15	.0700	.4329 **	.0140	.0878
	16	.1890 *	.3233 *	.1769	.0734
	17	.1136	.0459	.2645	.1639
	18	.1981 *	.5616**	.3140 *	.2578
	19	.1529	.2966	.2881 *	.0141
Executive	20	.1534	.3678 *	.4028 **	.0410
	21	.4410 **	.6797 **	.5432 **	.3843 **
	22	.3573 **	.6859 **	.5156 **	.2213
	23	.2420 **	.6495 **	.4218 **	.1980
	24	.3196 **	.6737 **	.4340 **	.2311
	25	.4208 **	.4883 **	.6692 **	.4287 **
	26	.3760 **	.6461 **	.3208 *	.3994 **
	27	.2615 **	.6683 **	.6239 **	.2945 *
Coordinator	28	.1728 *	.0446	.1556	.2295
	29	.2237 **	.2313	.3631 **	.2131
	30	.0252	.3779 *	.1544	.0563
	31	.0575	.3310 *	.2598	.0120
	32	.2471 **	.3036 *	.4412 **	.1417
	33	.1794 *	.4055 **	.2136	.1725
Teacher	34	.2051 *	.3430 *	.3480 *	.1725
	35	.2516 **	.1958	.2034	.1899
	36	.2783 **	.4819 **	.2792 *	.2074
	37	.2407 **	.4049 **	.4740 **	.1171
	38	.2419 **	.3055 *	.1719	.2534
	39	.0390	.4686 **	.0160	.1043

  * 1-tailed significance at .01 level
 ** 1-tailed significance at .001 level

Table 6: Summary of Items Showing Significant Difference in Responses by Respondents of Various Characteristics

Factor	Group	Instru-mental leader	Social-emotional leader	Supervisor	Executive	Coordinator	Teacher
Sex	Principal	—	—	—	25	33	37
	V.P.	—	—	18	—	29	—
	Teacher	—	13	15, 19	21,22,23,25	—	—
Age	Principal	6	11	—	—	33	—
	V.P.	—	9	—	25	—	34,35,36,38,39
	Teacher	—	9, 12	—	23, 27	30	38
Qualifi-cation	Principal	—	—	—	—	—	—
	V.P.	—	—	—	—	—	34, 39
	Teacher	—	—	—	—	—	—
T'ching experi-ence	Principal	2	—	—	—	—	35, 36, 37
	V.P.	—	—	—	25	—	34, 36, 39
	Teacher	—	—	—	23,24,26,27	31	38
Trng in Ed. Admin.	V.P.	4	—	16	—	—	37
Exper. as V.P.	V.P.	—	9, 13	—	—	—	—

more experienced vice- principals expected to carry out more teaching duties. This might be due to differences in their personal values. The older vice-principals might still expect to be basically teachers. In contrast, the modern emphasis on management theories and administrative training might cause younger vice- principals to see themselves more as administrators. It would be interesting to identify fields of the vice-principals' master's degrees. Holders of degrees in educational administration would have been exposed to administrative theories and perhaps would be more likely to subscribe more towards a pure administrative role for the vice-principals.

Male vice-principals expect to be more involved in the super-vision of supporting staff and in the coordination of activities among various functioning units in the school than do their female counter-parts. This might be because female vice-principals are more reluctant to deal with the janitors, who are usually rough in manner, while the male vice-principals see themselves more as overseers in the school.

Among the other two groups of school personnel, the principals

and the teachers, it was found that academic qualification did not affect expectations in any particular aspect. However, among the teachers, age, sex and teaching experience affected expectations more than among the principals. This might reflect the fact that the traits among the principals showed less variation than those among the teachers. The principals are a select group of personnel in the field of secondary education.

The definition of vice-principals' roles was complicated by the large number of variables which could affect the process of definition. However, the high degree of agreement among the vice-principals in their expectations for their own role clearly shows that persons occupying such positions have some common interest or goals which were independent of their personal traits.

(f) Vice-Principals' Roles from Different Viewpoints

As noted above, this study collected data on perceptions of the role of vice- principals from the viewpoints of principals, vice-principals themselves, and teachers. The study also identified the actual roles of vice-principals.

The results showed that role concept is complex, and that expectations are rarely simple or direct. The expectations of principals and teachers might be quite different from those of the vice-principals themselves. Moreover, different vice-principals might have different expectations arising from different needs, motivations and values. The study suggested that the vice- principals 'legitimised' the expectations of the principals rather than those of the teachers. This supported the hypothesis that the leadership style of the principals would have great impact on the role definition of their subordinates.

The study also showed that the role of vice-principals as executives was the most clearly defined, while the roles as teachers and instrumental leaders were least clear. The vice-principals ranked their role as instrumental leader as the most important, but the teachers did not agree. It appears that the teachers did not wish the vice-principals to be involved in tasks related to the teachers' performance, but they did expect the vice-principals to carry out the various duties of ordinary teachers.

Such divergence in role definition can lead to misunderstanding, ambiguity, and shift of responsibilities. If the teachers do not know the exact role of the vice-principals, they would make their expecta-

tions according to their own interests. If they find that the vice-principals are not doing what they expect, they might consider the vice-principals irresponsible. This sort of misunderstanding could also exist among the occupants of the other positions. To avoid such misunderstanding, it would be desirable to have well defined roles for each position, so that staff members could see where responsibilities reside and could have appropriate expectations.

Since all vice-principals had served as teachers before appointment to their present posts, their expectations of the role of vice-principal must have undergone some transition after their appointment. If this were not the case, the vice-principals and teachers would not have had divergent expectations. The change of expectations probably led in many cases to what Marshall (1985) called 'professional shock'. When the individuals first took up the post of a vice-principal, they were probably under considerable stress. A well defined role would reduce this type of shock.

In order to enable the roles to be defined, it is necessary for administrators to carry out role analysis from time to time. By studying their own roles, the administrators could reduce the conflict within the organisation. This would enable the occupants of the various positions to be more aware of and be more respectful of each others' rights. However, it must be recognised that role analysis can be complex and difficult, and administrators might need training and other forms of assistance.

4. Conclusions

This study analysed the role of the vice-principals in Hong Kong aided secondary grammar schools. The results gave a general picture of the characteristics and tasks carried out by the vice-principals as expected by themselves and by principals and teachers. It was found that the principals and the vice-principals generally agreed better with each other than with the teachers. The role of vice-principal as an executive was expected to the same extent by all three groups, but was not considered the most important. Moreover, while both the principals and the vice-principals expect the role as an instrumental leader to be important, the actual performance of the vice-principals did not support this. The role which showed the greatest ambiguity was that as a teacher. Yet despite the low ranking given to it by the vice-principals, they were found to spend considerable time in carrying out this duty.

The study focused only on aided secondary schools, and covered only three groups of school personnel. It would be interesting to repeat the study for government secondary schools, which have different administrative procedures from the aided secondary schools. Comparison of the roles of vice-principals in the two different systems might facilitate understanding of the factors affecting role definition for vice-principals.

In future studies it would also be useful to add several variables. Among them could be the schools' religions, the sponsoring bodies and the gender composition of the enrolment. Also, the role set could also include the students, the supporting staff and the parents. Due to the large number of variables and the long list of potential roles, a survey by postal questionnaire might produce an overwhelming amount of data. It might be better to carry out an ethnographic study of a small number of vice-principals so as to gather more detailed data for an in-depth analysis.

Meanwhile, however, the present study has already provided some information which could help principals, vice-principals and teachers to understand the environment in which they work. The information could also be useful for training courses for vice-principals.

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Principals' and Teachers' Views on School-Based

INSET: Implications for School Management

Edwin K.P. Wong

1. Introduction

(a) The Need for In-Service Education of Teachers

The rapid pace of development in Hong Kong calls for many changes in education and training. For example, adoption of compulsory education up to Secondary Form 3 level has greatly increased demands on teachers. Also, school curricula are being modified and increasingly diversified. As a result, initial training lasting only one or two years cannot be considered sufficient for the whole of a teacher's career. There is a constant need to renew professional knowledge and skills in order to help teachers cope with changing patterns of educational provision.

This fact has been recognised for several years in official circles. The visiting panel chaired by Sir John Llewellyn (1982) noted a need to upgrade the quality of many long-serving but inadequately prepared teachers in Hong Kong. The report (pp.93, 98-99) also supported the idea of teacher involvement in the in-service education of teachers (INSET) to promote relevance to the needs of schools. The authors remarked that lasting improvements in the practices of teachers may be brought about by encouraging and assisting them to make a cooperative attack on problems.

The government has accepted this view, and has encouraged schools to develop their own school-based projects. This philosophy recognises that experienced teachers are the most important educational resource possessed by the schools. School-based in-service education of teachers (SB-INSET) tries to make use of their professional skills to improve the quality of teaching and promote effective staff development.

Of course this view has not been confined to Hong Kong. For

example a 1979 study in Florida revealed that 99 per cent of teachers were involved in SB-INSET activities (Keast 1981, p.100). Likewise a document published by the Unesco Regional Office for Education in Asia and the Pacific (1986) shows that many other countries in the region have started the practice of school-based in-service education of teachers. Professional educators in these countries have accepted that a continuous school-based in-service education programme is an important strategy for improving the quality of teaching. School-based INSET encourages teachers to appraise and solve important school issues together, and in so doing brings about improvements both in their own professional competence and in the effectiveness of their schools.

The practice of SB-INSET is supported by the adult learning theory put forward by Knowles et al. (1984, pp.6-21). This theory stresses the value of developing mutual respect between the organisers and the participants, collaboration in planning and diagnosing needs, and then of subsequent evaluation.

(b) Nature and Purposes of the Present Study

In this paper, School-based In-Service Education for Teachers (SB-INSET) refers to activities planned and practised within schools by and for the staff of those schools, primarily to improve their professional knowledge and skills.

A 1984 research project by the INSET Working Party of the Hong Kong Association for Science and Mathematics Education found that at that time the concept of school-based INSET was new to many schools (Pang 1985, pp.121-29). Since that time, the field has witnessed major developments. One objective of the present survey was to chart and appraise these developments.

The focus of the research was limited to the secondary school sector. Within this sector, the research concentrated on the largest component, namely aided grammar schools. The study began by inquiring about the extent of SB-INSET, before moving to the objectives and implementation. The survey sought separate opinions from principals and teachers.

2. The Research

The survey was based on a random sample of 100 schools. Two

questionnaires were prepared: one for principals, and the other for teachers. The chief differences in the questionnaires concerned personal data and the frequency of different types of SB-INSET activities. The last two sections of the questionnaires, which concerned views on objectives and difficulties, were exactly the same. This arrangement facilitated analysis of the results and comparison of data.

The section on frequencies of different types of school-based INSET activities listed a number of possible activities. The list of activities was based on common ones identified in the literature. Principals were requested to supply data on the frequency of activities that the school had organised during the year ending 30 April 1989, while teachers were requested to supply data on the number of activities in which they had participated during that period. The activities were classified according to three levels: the school level, the departmental level, and the level among colleagues. Results from this section of the two questionnaires provided a picture of the extent and types of SB-INSET in Hong Kong.

The section on the respondents' views on the objectives of SB-INSET listed 17 possible objectives of SB-INSET. Respondents were requested to indicate 10 objectives which they considered most important, and to attach a rank (from 1 to 5) to the first five in descending order of importance.

The section concerning difficulties presented two lists of possible difficulties. One focused on the organisation of SB-INSET, and the other on teachers' difficulties in participating in SB-INSET.

To help interpret views on the objectives of SB-INSET, an 'importance index' was computed for each objective. This was done with the following formula:

Importance Index of an objective = {(% of respondents choosing it as Rank 1 x 5) + (% of respondents choosing it as Rank 2 x 4) + (% of respondents choosing it as Rank 3 x 3) + (% of respondents choosing it as Rank 4 x 2) + (% of respondents choosing it as Rank 5 x 1)} / 100.

This index therefore ranged from 5 to 0.

Similarly, to help interpret views on the difficulties of implementing SB-INSET, a 'difficulty index' was computed for each difficulty. This was done with the following formula:

Difficulty Index of a certain type of difficulty = {(% of respondents choosing it as 'definitely yes' x + 10) + (% of respondents choosing it as 'probably yes' x +5) + (% of respondents choosing it as 'uncertain' x 0) + (% of respondents choosing it as 'probably no' x -5) + (% of respondents choosing it as 'definitely no' x -10)} / 100.

This index therefore ranged from + 10 to -10.

3. Results

Principals and teachers in 68 schools responded to the study. A majority (69.2 per cent) reported experience of organising and participating in SB-INSET. In contrast, only 19.1 per cent of the teachers reported experience of organising SB-INSET activities.

(a) Frequencies of different types of school-based INSET activities

Some activities were found to be quite common. The activities that 30 per cent or more of the respondents reported as being organised once to three times per year were:

1. workshop at school and departmental levels,
2. group discussion for INSET purpose at all levels,
3. conference at school level,
4. lecture/talk/seminar at all levels,
5. classroom observation by peers at departmental level,
6. day/residential camp at school level,
7. field work at departmental level,
8. visit to other schools at school level,
9. use of self-teaching materials at all levels,
10. reporting on external seminar/working at all levels,
11. job rotation at school and departmental levels, and
12. curriculum development at all levels.

Among all these, lecture/talk/seminar (over 65 per cent), group discussion for INSET purpose (over 50 per cent), and reporting on external seminar/workshop (over 40 per cent) were reported to be the most frequently organised activities.

The second question asked about the activities in which the

respondents had participated. Activities in which 10 per cent or more respondents reported participation once to three times per year were:

1. workshop at all levels,
2. group discussion for INSET purpose at all levels,
3. conference at school level,
4. lecture/talk/seminar at school and departmental levels,
5. classroom observation by peers at departmental level,
6. day/residential camp at school level,
7. use of self-teaching materials at all levels,
8. film shows etc. for INSET purpose at school and departmental levels,
9. reporting on external seminar/workshop at all levels,
10. job rotation at school level, and
11. curriculum development at all levels.

Among all these, conferences (over 29 per cent), group discussions for INSET purposes (over 19 per cent), and reporting on external seminars/workshops (over 16 per cent) were the activities in which teachers reported that they had participated most frequently.

(b) Views on the Objectives of SB-INSET

Both principals and teachers were given a list of possible objectives of SB-INSET, and were asked to rank them in order of importance. The percentage of respondents choosing each item as among the top ten most important objectives was calculated (under the column 'Top Ten' in Table 1). The 'importance index' was then computed, based on the percentages of respondents ranking items within the top five most important objectives.

The analysis revealed that the following objectives, according to the percentage of respondents placing them among the top ten, were considered important by the principals:

1. develop positive attitudes and values among teachers to improve the teaching/learning process,
2. improve or upgrade the competence of teachers,
3. encourage teachers to take an active role in improving, planning and evaluating educational programmes in their schools,
4. keep abreast of new developments in education for teachers' advancement and professional development,

Table 1: Principals' and Teachers' Views on the Objectives of SB-INSET

	Principals' Top 10	Importance Index	Teachers' Top 10	Importance Index
1. Improve or upgrade teachers' competence	88.9%	2.775	86.4%	2.353
2. Help teachers identify and solve school problems	70.4%	0.962	61.4%	3.727
3. Keep abreast of developments in education for teachers'advancement and professional development	81.5%	1.702	70.7%	1.165
4. Support curricular changes	29.6%	0.148	45.0%	0.290
5. Induce/orient new teachers to adjust to their new jobs	70.4%	0.703	68.6%	0.816
6. Develop teachers' values to improve teaching/learning	96.3%	2.516	88.6%	1.798
7. Develop skills and interest in research	3.7%	0	18.6%	0.098
8. Encourage teachers to improve planning & evaluation of school programmes	88.9%	1.702	90.7%	1.764
9. Improve teachers' understanding of the profession	63.0%	0.555	50.0%	0.572
10. Provide further general education for individual teachers	40.7%	0.185	41.4%	0.447
11. Develop skills in developing content units, mastering new teaching methods and selecting teaching materials	66.7%	0.888	80.0%	1.328
12. Develop techniques in assessing achievement	44.4%	0.111	51.4%	0.412
13. Develop skills in using local resources in teaching	37.0%	0.111	59.3%	0.645
14. Develop faith in and respect for work	66.7%	0.851	48.6%	0.701
15. Support social development goals	18.5%	0.259	23.6%	0.127
16. Facilitate changes within the school	66.7%	0.592	36.4%	0.246
17. Update professional knowledge	70.4%	0.925	75.7%	1.131

5. help teachers identify and solve school problems,

6. induce/orient new teachers to adjust to their jobs smoothly,

7. update professional knowledge,

8. develop skills in developing content units, mastering new teaching methods and selecting relevant teaching materials,

9. develop faith in and respect for work, and

10. facilitate changes within the school.

The ten most important objectives identified by the teachers were:

1. encourage teachers to take an active role in improving, planning and evaluating educational programmes in their schools,
2. develop positive attitudes and values among teachers to improve the teaching/learning process,
3. improve or upgrade the competence of teachers,
4. develop skills in developing content units, mastering new teaching methods and selecting relevant teaching materials,
5. update professional knowledge,
6. keep abreast of new developments in education for teachers' advancement and professional development,
7. induce/orient new teachers to adjust to their jobs smoothly,
8. help teachers identify and solve school problems,
9. develop skills in collecting and utilizing locally available resources in
10. develop skills in developing content units, mastering new teaching methods and selecting relevant teaching materials.

The 'importance index' suggested that the five most important objectives of SB-INSET as considered by the principals were, in descending order:

1. improve or upgrade the competence of teachers (2.775),
2. develop positive attitudes and values among teachers to improve the teaching/learning process (2.516),
3. keep abreast of developments in education for teachers' advancement and professional development (1.702),
4. encourage teachers to take an active role in improving, planning and evaluation of school programmes (1.702), and
5. help teachers identify and solve school problems (0.962).

In contrast, the five most important objectives as considered by the teachers were, in descending order:

1. help teachers identify and solve school problems (3.727),
2. improve or upgrade teachers' competence (2.353),
3. develop positive attitudes and values among teachers to improve the teaching (1.798),
4. encourage teachers to take an active role in improving, planning

and evaluation of school programmes (1.764), and

5. develop skills in developing content units, mastering new teaching methods and selecting teaching materials (1.328).

(c) Views on Difficulties in the Implementation of SB-INSET

Both principals and teachers were given a list of possible difficulties in the implementation of SB-INSET, and were asked to indicate the

Table 2: Views on Difficulties in Organising SB-INSET Activities

	Difficulty Index	
	Principals	Teachers
1. Lack of physical facilities and equipment	-0.360	1.285
2. Lack of funds for reproduction of teaching materials	0.715	2.480
3. Lack of time for planning and organising activities	4.285	6.185
4. No training allowances for participating teachers	3.575	2.290
5. No salary increments	2.500	1.900
6. Lack of experienced teachers/ in-service experts in schools	4.825	2.860
7. Lack of administrative support	-1.610	1.415
8. Unwillingness of organisers to organise work because of top-down directive	-2.035	1.850
9. Unwillingness of teachers to participate because of top-down directive	-2.775	2.050
10. Increase of workload	6.075	7.290
11. In-service sessions not time-tabled as part of a teacher's daily work	4.275	6.290
12. Teachers' areas are always changing, e.g. in levels/subjects	-0.785	-0.070
13. Lack of relevant resources	2.780	2.460
14. Difficulties in obtaining external support (e.g. speakers, consultants)	3.150	1.435

extent to which they considered each item to be a difficulty. The response continuum ranged from 'Definitely Yes' (1) to 'Definitely No' (5). To help analyse responses, a 'difficulty index' for each item was calculated. The results are summarised in Table 2.

The top three difficulties in organising SB-INSET, in descending order, as considered by the principals were 'increase of workload', 'lack of experienced teachers/in-service experts in schools' and 'lack of time for planning and organising activities'. To the teachers, they were 'increase of workload', 'in-service sessions not timetabled as part of a teacher's daily work' and 'lack of time for planning and organising activities'. Respondents' views on the teachers' difficulties in participating in SB-INSET activities are summarised in Table 3.

Table 3: Views on Teachers' Difficulties in Participating in SB-INSET Activities

| | Difficulty Index | |
	Principals	Teachers
1. Lack of time for participating in activities	4.955	6.025
2. No training allowances	3.035	1.530
3. No salary increments	3.035	2.155
4. Unwillingness to participate because of top-down directive	-0.715	1.700
5. Increase of workload	5.855	5.960
6. Activities not really related to teachers' needs, interests and problems	-0.355	0.645
7. In-service sessions not timetabled as part of a teacher daily work	3.925	5.245
8. Teachers' teaching areas are always changing, e.g. in levels or subjects	-0.355	-0.115

The top three difficulties of teachers in participating SB-INSET, in descending order, as considered by principals were 'increase of workload', 'lack of time for participating in activities', and 'in-service sessions not timetabled as part of a teacher's daily work'. To the teachers themselves, 'lack of time for participating in activities', 'increase of workload' and 'in-service sessions not timetabled as part

of a teacher's daily work' were the top three difficulties. Apart from the order of difficulties, both groups had very similar views in this aspect.

In order to identify statistically significant differences between the principals' and teachers' views on the difficulties in the implementation of SB-INSET, data collected from the respondents were compared by paired T-tests for inferential analysis. If the T-value indicates a statistically significant difference at the 0.05 level, then the null hypothesis is rejected. The results are summarised in Tables 4 and 5.

Table 4: Views on Difficulties in Organising SB-INSET Activities (T-Test)

	T-Value	Level of Significance
1. Lack of physical facilities and equipment	0.87	0.388
2. Lack of funds for reproduction of teaching materials	0.96	0.340
3. Lack of time for planning and organising activities	1.17	0.244
4. No training allowances for participating teachers	1.59	0.118
5. No salary increments	0.92	0.359
6. Lack of experienced teachers/ in-service experts in schools	2.39*	0.020
7. Lack of administrative support	1.55	0.123
8. Unwillingness of organisers to organise because of top-down directive	3.01*	0.003
9. Unwillingness of teachers to participate because of top-down directive	4.10*	0.000
10. Increase of workload	0.99	0.325
11. In-service sessions not timetabled as part of a teacher's daily work	1.21	0.230
12. Teachers' teaching areas are always changing, e.g. in levels or subjects	0.71	0.480
13. Lack of relevant resources	0.11	0.910
14. Difficulties in obtaining external support (e.g. speakers, consultants)	0.73	0.467

* p < 0.05

Only three of the 14 items in Table 4, and none of the items in Table 5, indicated a statistically significant difference at the 0.05 level. There were differences in views concerning the difficulties of 'lack of experienced teachers/in-service experts in schools', 'unwillingness of organisers to organise because of top-down directive' and 'unwillingness of teachers to participate because of top-down directive' in organising SB-INSET activities. On all other difficulties, the views of both parties coincided.

Table 5: Views on Teachers' Difficulties in Participating in SB-INSET Activities (T-Test)

	T-Value	Level of Significance
1. Lack of time for participating in activities	1.12	0.263
2. No training allowances	1.15	0.253
3. No salary increments	0.65	0.517
4. Unwillingness to participate because of top-down directive	1.71	0.093
5. Increase of workload	0.38	0.710
6. Activities not really related to teachers' needs, interests and problems	0.92	0.360
7. In-service sessions not timetabled as part of a teacher's daily work	1.05	0.300
8. Teachers' teaching areas are always changing, e.g. in levels or subjects	0.22	0.829

* $p < 0.05$

4. Implications

(a) Activities

The survey found that 69.2 per cent of principals had experience in organising SB-INSET activities. This showed that the practice of SB-INSET in Hong Kong has gained considerable ground since Pang's (1984) study. However, only 19.1 per cent of teachers reported experience in organising SB-INSET activities, showing that

the initiative and participation of teachers are not yet well cultivated. Moreover the types of SB-INSET activities were mainly lecture/talk/ seminar, group discussion and reporting on external seminar/work-shop. This suggests that SB-INSET activities are operated at a rather low level.

The extent of Hong Kong teachers' participation in SB-INSET may be contrasted with that in the USA. One study in Florida (Thurber 1978, p.4) reported that nearly all teachers and principals participated in SB-INSET, with an annual average of over 20 hours per professional staff member.

However, nearly all types of activities suggested in the Hong Kong questionnaires gained responses from both principals and teachers. This did showed that the variety of SB-INSET activities currently being implemented was quite wide.

(b) Objectives

Many educators feel that staff development programmes should address the three areas of curricular improvement, individual change and organisational development (Pezzullo 1978, pp.1-2). When organising SB-INSET, it is suggested, principals and teachers should specifically aim at these objectives. It is recognised that in this survey the views of principals and teachers collected might be only of their interests rather than their actual needs. Nevertheless, it was found that both parties in the sample had indeed taken into account all three aspects.

To facilitate analysis, the three aspects (curricular improvement, individual change, and organisational development) were abbreviated to 'C', 'I' and 'O'. A detailed picture of choices of objectives emerged as follows:

i] for principals:

1. improve or upgrade the competence of teachers [I],
2. develop positive attitudes and values among teachers to improve the teaching/learning process [I],
3. keep abreast of new developments in education for teachers' advancement and professional development [I],
4. encourage teachers to take an active role in improving, planning and evaluating educational programmes in their schools [C], and
5. help teachers identify and solve school problems [O].

[ii] for teachers:

1. help teachers identify and solve school problems [O],
2. improve or upgrade the competence of teachers [I],
3. develop positive attitudes and values among teachers to improve the teaching/learning process [I],
4. encourage teachers to take an active role in improving, planning and evaluating educational programmes in their schools [C], and
5. develop skills in developing content units, mastering new teaching methods and selecting relevant teaching materials [C].

The two patterns were then matched as follows:

        Principals: I I I C O
        Teachers: O I I C C
                   < <-------------
                   increasing priority.

It was found that principals were generally more concerned about the teachers, while teachers were more concerned about the schools. This finding was somewhat different from that of Pezzullo (1978), who suggested that principals usually care more about their schools, and that teachers care about their own professional development.

Although the overall patterns in choosing objectives differed between the principals and the teachers, neither group favoured use of SB-INSET for developing skills and interest in research. Only 29.6 per cent of principals and 45.0 per cent of teachers considered 'supporting curricular changes' an important objective for SB-INSET.

(c) Difficulties in Implementation

Both principals and teachers considered 'increase of workload' the most serious obstacle to increased SB-INSET activities. Other factors received different emphases between the two groups.

Among principals, the two other top difficulties in organisation were 'lack of experienced teachers/in-service experts in schools' and 'lack of time for planning and organising activities'. Principals did not

generally consider 'lack of administrative support', 'unwillingness of organisers to organise because of top-down directive' or 'unwilling-ness of teachers to participate because of top-down directive' to be difficulties.

Among teachers, the two other top difficulties were 'in-service sessions not timetabled as part of a teacher's daily work' and 'lack of time for planning and organising activities'. Among them, 'lack of administrative support', 'lack of physical facilities and equipment' and 'teachers' teaching areas are always changing, e.g. in level or subject' were not considered difficulties.

The common difficulties faced by both principals and teachers in organising SB-INSET were workload and availability of time. This matched the findings of other researchers (Esposito 1981, p.166; Eltis et al. 1984, p.119; McGowan 1986; Chatwin et al., 1988; Goodall 1985, p.10; Goddard 1985, p.15). Neither group considered 'lack of administrative support' a problem.

Concerning the difficulties faced by teachers in participating SB-INSET, 'increase of workload', 'lack of time for participating in activities' and 'in-service sessions not timetabled as part of a teacher's daily work' were considered the top three main reasons by principals. Not surprisingly, teachers also considered these three the most serious obstacles to participation in SB-INSET, though the rank ordering was different.

Principals did not consider the following as difficulties for teachers in participating in SB-INSET: 'activities not really related to teachers' needs, interests and problems', 'teachers' teaching areas are always changing, e.g. in levels or subjects' and 'unwillingness to participate because of top-down directive'. Teachers themselves did not consider the following as difficulties: 'no training allowances', 'activities not really related to teachers' needs, interests and problems' and 'teachers' teaching areas are always changing, e.g. in levels or subjects'.

T-test results showed few statistically significant differences at 0.05 level between the principals' and teachers' views on the difficulties in the implementation of SB-INSET. The only exceptions were two items in the list suggested for organising SB-INSET. Principals found it difficult to find experienced teachers/in-service experts, though teachers felt less strongly on the matter. Teachers, on the other hand, felt strongly about the top-down atmosphere in organising SB-INSET. Principals views on this matter did not correspond.

The contrast between principals' and teachers' views on the top-down atmosphere seems to reflect a common pattern of school

management in Hong Kong. When schools are managed in a directive way, teachers may not participate actively in SB-INSET even when such activities are organised. Most of the literature on this topic stresses the importance of teachers organising their own activities (e.g. Knowles et al. 1984).

The problems of lacking experienced teachers/in-service experts in schools as considered by principals might be due to the traditional concept of 'teacher-student' approach neglecting the current theory of adult learning. According to Knowles at al. (1984), didactic instruction is only necessary when learners are entering a totally strange field of content. Otherwise, he suggests, the andragogical model should be used for adult learners. This viewpoint assumes that there are many resources other than the 'teacher', including peers, individuals with specialised knowledge and skill in the community, a wide variety of material and media resources, and field experience.

5. Conclusions

This research seems to imply that many principals manage their schools in a traditional way and are not brave enough to implement new staff development strategies. When power is centralised, it is hardly surprising that many teachers feel that SB-INSET is generally a top-down activity. The research has shown teacher desire to participate in handling school problems. When the staff are not given such opportunities, the school environment is unlikely to be conducive to SB-INSET.

This author feels that democratic models should be used in the actual implementation of SB-INSET in Hong Kong secondary schools in order to minimise the top-down feeling among teachers. Teachers should be allowed to participate in the formulation of school policy decisions through a process of discussion leading to consensus. They should also be allowed to handle SB- INSET by themselves, with support and guidance from principals and external advisors if necessary. 'Restricted' democracy may be used at first, but 'pure' democracy should be the final aim (Bush 1986). This approach to organising SB-INSET accords with with adult learning theory, which stresses the need for maximum participation in planning, organising, and implementing activities.

The research has also shown that both principals and teachers consider lack of time the most serious obstacle to development of SB-INSET activities. This implies that authorities need to investigate

ways to reduce the burden of other requirements. It seems unlikely that SB-INSET will flourish if teachers are not given reduced classroom loads to enable them to take up the new responsibilities. For whole schools, 'professional days' could be included in the calendar for organising SB-INSET activities. Other forms of necessary support include provision of rooms for SB-INSET, and clerical assistance for paper work.

Finally, it must be stressed that this has only been a preliminary study. In order to understand the picture more fully, further research is required. Particularly needy areas include:

    i. preparation of case studies on SB-INSET, to permit compilation of a resource handbook on the implementation of SB-INSET activities in local secondary schools,

    ii. investigation of required skills for facilitating SB-INSET implementation,

    iii. investigation of the actual workload of teachers, to help draw up guidelines for manpower allocation in secondary schools, and

    iv. identification of the best way to set up a centralised consultative body or organisation or resource centre for teachers that want help in SB-INSET.

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Strategies for Implementing Innovations:

Student Counselling in Secondary Schools

Joseph L.M. Ho

Hong Kong secondary education has undergone dramatic change in the past ten years. Of particular significance has been the introduction from 1978 of nine years' compulsory education. The change from an elitist to a mass system created many problems for the schools. Among the problems were ones of student indiscipline.

In 1986, the Education Department issued a document entitled Guidance Work in Secondary Schools (Hong Kong 1986). The government also provided extra teachers, aiming to improve quality and to help schools cope with the new demands placed on them. With reference to student counselling, the 1986 document stated (p.6) that:

> Experience reveals that the operation will be greatly facilitated if a team approach is adopted, enlisting the concerted effort of the school social worker and a core group of teachers. Principals are thus strongly advised to nominate a teacher to head the guidance team and coordinate the work.

The 1986 document provided a starting point for the research reported in this paper. The primary focus of the study viewed counselling work within the context of the literature on innovation (e.g. Bishop 1986, Fullan 1982, 1986, Hord 1987, Morris 1983).

1. Method

The data reported here were collected from a sample of eight secondary schools. When selecting the schools, the researcher realised that the quality of the students might affect the nature of counselling. The schools were therefore deliberately chosen accord-

ing to a range of academic standards.

The classification of schools was quite rough, stressing only the academic achievement of Form 1 students. The first group, of good schools, mostly contained band one students. The second group comprised average schools with mostly band two and three students; and the third group contained poor schools with mostly band four and five students. It was originally planned to have three schools in each group. However, because of logistic factors it only proved possible to gather data from two schools in the elite group.

Following the guidelines of the Hong Kong government, the majority of schools have counselling committees to coordinate and oversee guidance work. In each of the eight schools surveyed, the investigator interviewed the principal and the chairperson of the counselling committee. Thus 16 interviews were conducted altogether.

After the personal interviews, the researcher made four telephone interviews. Two of the interviewees were the principal and counselling committee chairperson of the pilot study school, from whom insufficient data had initially been collected. The other two interviewees were a principal and a chairperson from whom the researcher wished to gain additional information following analysis of their comments.

The results, reported below, have been grouped into the following main categories:

- procedures for appointing chairpersons and members of counselling committees,
- determinants of motivation among counselling committee members,
- principals' monitoring procedures, and
- teachers' receptivity to student counselling as an innovation.

Readers will find more detail on both methods and findings in Ho (1989).

2. Findings

(a) Procedures for Appointing Chairpersons and Members of Counselling Committees

The research investigated the following potential criteria for appoint-

ment of chairpersons and members of counselling committees:

* age,
* length of teaching experience,
* rank,
* seniority,
* training in student counselling, and
* interest in counselling.

For correlation purposes, the research also investigated:

* the extent of counselling chairpersons' job satisfaction,
* the extent to which chairpersons' teaching loads were reduced,
* the number of teachers in the counselling teams,
* the extent of consultation prior to appointment, and
* the academic standard of the students.

Among the eight principals, five appointed Senior Graduate Masters (SGMs) to be chairpersons of their counselling committees. Among these principals, two strongly emphasised the importance of seniority, but three claimed that it was not important. Of the other three chairpersons, two were Graduate Masters (GMs) and the remaining one was a Certificated Master (CM). None of their principals stressed seniority as a criterion for appointment. Instead they stressed such factors as teachers' interest and training. Three chairpersons were reported to have received training in counselling, while five were untrained.

The average age of chairpersons was 40 years, though the range was from 28 to 50. The average length of teaching experience was 16 years, with a range from seven to 26 years. In general, older principals appointed older counselling chairpersons. This may have been a function of availability of senior staff as much as of personal preference. The older chairpersons were generally in long-established schools, where it is likely that the average age of staff was greater.

Table 1 shows relationships between appointment according to principals' perception of potential chairpersons' interest and the subsequent job satisfaction of the chairpersons. It also shows relationships between consultation when appointing committee members and the subsequent morale of those members.

Table 1: Relationship between Appointment Procedure and Job Satisfaction

Category	No. of schools	Emphasis on teachers' interest	Chairperson's job satisfaction	Consultation when appointing committee members	Morale of teachers in the committee
A	3	strong	very satisfied	thoroughly consulted	high
B	1	strong	satisfied	thoroughly consulted	moderate
C	1	moderate	very satisfied	not consulted	high
D	1	moderate	satisfied	consulted	moderate
E	2	weak	not satisfied	not consulted	low

The principals of the three schools in Category A were quite democratic, and consulted the teachers before assigning them duties. There were two mechanisms for consulting the teachers. Two school principals interviewed the teachers and asked them about their preferences for extra-curricular or administrative duties. The principals said that this was time-consuming but effective. It was difficult to recruit many members for the counselling team because few teachers volunteered for the task. In these schools, therefore, the counselling teams had only two or three members.

The other method for consulting teachers was more systematic. At the end of the school term, the teachers were asked to fill up a questionnaire in which they chose extra-curricular or administrative duties according to their own preferences. The questionnaires were then submitted to a committee, which made recommendations to the principals for final decision-making. However, this system could cause poor allocation of duties because some teachers might choose duties which would be easy or less time-consuming. If there were no control over this, it might cause more harm than benefit to the morale of the team.

In Category B, the morale of the teachers was only moderate even though the principal was very democratic in assigning duties. This was said to reflect the characteristics of the staff, for some experienced teachers who saw no promotion prospects were reluctant to work. This case stresses that the morale of the staff does not solely depend on the leadership style of the principal.

The schools in Categories D and E match the general pattern that the less democratic the principal, the lower the morale of the staff. However, the school in Category C contrasts with the rest. Even though the principal was not at all democratic, the teachers' morale and the chairperson's job satisfaction were high. Two main factors were thought to explain this. First, the principal was a priest who had worked in the school for 20 years. He knew his staff very

well, and had earned considerable respect. Second, the school had good students and small classes. With a good institutional spirit, the school was able to achieve outstanding academic and extra-curricular results. This case indicates that strong leadership style can achieve good results even if it is not democratic.

(b)Determinants of Motivation among Counselling Committee Members

Before commencement of this research, it had been realised that the job of a school counsellor in an academically good school would probably be very different from that of a counterpart in an academically poor school. It had been hypothesised that the morale of the former would be much higher.

The validity of this hypothesis is borne out by Table 2. Students in Category A were mostly band one students who created few discipline problems. The counselling teachers were therefore able to concentrate on the small groups of students with minor misbehaviour. The morale of the counselling teachers was good. At lower academic standards, however, the teachers' morale was progressively poorer.

Table 2: The Relationship between the Morale of the Teachers and the Academic Level of the Students

Category	No. of Schools	Morale of Teachers in the Committee	Students' Academic Standard
A	2	high	good
B	2	high	average
C	1	moderate	average
D	1	moderate	low
E	2	low	low

The survey also collected data on workloads. As shown in Table 3, these were set against reported job satisfaction to determine correlations. The chairpersons in Categories A, B and C perceived heavy workloads because of the small deduction of teaching duties and because they had other extra-curricular or administrative duties. However, the perception of job satisfaction among these three chairpersons showed considerable variation. This may show that workload is not a crucial determinant of job satisfaction.

Table 3: Workloads and Job Satisfaction of Chairpersons

Category	Periods Deducted per Cycle	No. of Schools	Perception of Workload	Other Extra Duties	Reported job Satisfaction
A	3	1	very heavy	yes	very satisfied
B	3	1	very heavy	yes	satisfied
C	3	1	very heavy	yes	not satisfied
D	4	2	heavy	no	very satisfied
E	4	1	heavy	no	satisfied
F	6	1	heavy	yes	satisfied
G	12	1	not heavy	yes	not satisfied

The school in Category G is particularly interesting. Its principal was very generous in reduction of teaching periods, but the chairperson was not satisfied with the job. This was partly because the chairperson had previously been a careers master, and was therefore used to a light teaching load. Moreover he was not interested in counselling, and viewed the task as an extra duty assigned to him.

A further section of the survey collected data on the extent to which promotion was a significant determinant of motivation. Table 4 shows that the research did not find strong correlations. For example, in the two schools in which the principals had considered promotion a very important determinant of motivation, one chairperson was not satisfied and the other was merely 'satisfied' rather than 'very satisfied'. In contrast, the two schools in which the principals did not consider promotion to be an important determinant of motivation had very satisfied chairpersons.

Table 4: The Relationship between Promotion and Chairpersons' Reported Job Satisfaction

Category	Teaching Grade	No. of Chairpersons with same Grade	Principals' Perception of Importance of Promotion for Motivation	Chairpersons' reported job satisfaction
A	SGM	1	very important	satisfied
B	SGM	1	very important	not satisfied
C	SGM	2	important	very satisfied
D	SGM	1	important	satisfied
E	GM	1	important	not important
F	GM	1	not important	very satisfied
G	CM	1	not important	very satisfied

The study also assessed the relationship between the size of the counselling committee and the morale of both the chairpersons and the other counselling teachers. Table 5 suggests that, with the exceptions of schools in Categories D and F, morale was higher in smaller teams. The principals of schools in Categories A and B felt that the most important criterion for appointment to a team was the interest of the teachers. Since few teachers were interested, the teams were kept small. The larger committees perhaps had a greater number of unenthusiastic teachers.

Table 5: The Relationship between the Size of the Committee and Morale of Counselling Teachers

Category	No. of Schools	No. of Teachers in Committee	Chairperson's Job Satisfaction	Morale of Counselling Teachers
A	2	2-3	very satisfied	high
B	1	5	very satisfied	high
C	1	5	satisfied	moderate
D	1	6	not satisfied	low
E	1	8	satisfied	moderate
F	1	10	very satisfied	high
G	1	10	not satisfied	low

Against this pattern, however, was the school in Category F. The committee had 10 members, but morale was high. This seemed to reflect (i) the good academic background of the students, and (ii) the democratic style of the principal.

(c) Principals' Monitoring Procedures

Principals' strategies for monitoring teachers and innovations vary according to those principals' leadership styles. Hord (1987, p.166) points out that directive monitoring may cause more conflict and resistance, though this is not always the case. In contrast, principals who see themselves as facilitators monitor teachers' performance in order to be able to assist them to solve problems.

Table 6 shows that the principals' two most common strategies for monitoring the activities of counselling teachers were reading the minutes of committee meetings and observing the daily performance of the staff. Only one principal sought feedback from parents, and

even then it was 'sometimes' rather than 'usually'. Two principals usually attended meetings, and three principals sometimes attended meetings. Most principals consulted their chairpersons, though one did so only sometimes and two seldom did so. Feedback from students was not a popular mechanism for monitoring activities.

Table 6: Principals' Strategies for Monitoring Activities of Counselling Teachers

Strategies	---- Number of Schools ----		
	Usual	Sometimes	Seldom
Reading the Minutes	8	0	0
Daily Observations	8	0	0
Consulting the Chairperson	5	1	2
Talking to Counselling Teachers	3	1	4
Attending Meetings	2	3	3
Feedback from the Students	1	3	5
Feedback from the Parents	0	1	7

Table 7 provides further information on both attendance of meetings and role of principals within meetings. It suggests that in general the more often principals attend and give advice at counselling meetings, the lower the degree of chairpersons' perceived decision-making power. The chairperson in the Category A school even had to consult the principal in advance about the agenda of each meeting. The principal tried to dominate meetings, frequently expressing his own opinions. The chairperson therefore felt himself to have low decision-making power.

Table 7: Principals' Attendance at and Advice during Meetings

Category	No. of Schools	Frequency of Principal's Attendance	Frequency of Principal's Advice	Chairperson's Perceived Decision-Making Power
A	1	very often	very often	low
B	1	often	often	moderate
C	2	seldom	often	moderate
D	2	often	seldom	high
E	2	seldom	seldom	high

The opposite situation was found in the two schools in Category E. The principals of these schools seldom attended counselling meetings, and even when they did, they avoided a dominating stance. In these cases, the chairpersons considered themselves to have high decision-making power.

The situation in the two schools in Category D was different again. The principals attended counselling meetings in order to show support, and the chairpersons welcomed the principals as a source of advice and information.

Table 8 explores further the relationship between hierarchical control and the morale of counselling teachers. It does not appear to present any firm correlations. For example, the principal of the school in Category A usually consulted the chairperson and usually attended meetings, and the counselling teachers had high morale. However, the teachers also had high morale in the school in Category G, even though the principal seldom consulted the chairperson and seldom attended meetings.

Table 8: Relationship between Hierarchical Control and Counselling Teachers' Morale

Category	No. of Schools	Consulting the Chairperson	Attending Counselling Meetings	Morale of the Counselling Teachers
A	1	usual	usual	high
B	2	sometimes	sometimes	moderate
C	1	usual	seldom	high
D	1	usual	seldom	moderate
E	1	seldom	usual	low
F	1	sometimes	sometimes	high
G	1	seldom	seldom	high

Extreme types of directive control become power-coercive. Among the eight principals surveyed here, only one favoured a power-coercive strategy for teachers considered to be passive (Table 9). However, in contrast to many of the instances cited by Hord (1987), the morale of the counselling teachers in that school was quite high. Three factors behind this might be the principal's policy of keeping warnings to teachers confidential, the principal's simultaneous stress on democracy and support when dealing with teachers, and the

principal's use of power-coercive strategies only as a last resort. Thus, the adoption of a power-coercive strategy does not always harm the morale of the teachers.

Table 9: Relationship between Power-Coercive Strategy and Counselling Teachers' Morale

Category	No. of Schools	Willingness to use Strategy	Morale of Counselling Teachers
A	1	willing	high
B	2	reluctant	high
C	2	reluctant	low
D	1	very reluctant	high
E	2	very reluctant	moderate

Nevertheless, most principals try to avoid using power to force the teachers to implement innovations, fearing that the strategy would have a negative impact on morale. Instead, they try to deal with passive teachers by advising rather than warning them. Most principals favour a supportive rather than autocratic leadership style.

(d) Teachers' Receptivity to Student Counselling as an Innovation

Teachers' receptivity to an innovation may be reflected in their degree of cooperation during implementation. The investigation showed that the more cooperative the teachers, the more effective was the implementation of the counselling activities. Two main factors affected the cooperation of the staff under the study, namely the extent to which the principals used democratic leadership styles and the extent of principals' emphasis on school-based teacher-training. Since leadership styles were discussed above, this section of the paper concentrates on school-based training.

Among the schools surveyed, two basic models for school-based training of counselling teachers were identified. In the first, the principal designated one or two days a year to teachers' development. Activities were organised by a special committee, and skills in student counselling were among the topics discussed. In the second model, the principal organised a seminar specifically on student counselling,

usually at the beginning of the school year.

Although not every teacher was involved, these activities clearly showed that the school authorities were concerned about counselling. Also, the activities assisted individual staff to develop skills. However, school-based training was not found in every institution. The survey found that some principals were unenthusiastic, and that others had not even considered the idea.

Table 10 shows correlations between school-based training and teachers' cooperation in counselling activities. It indicates a generally positive relationship between the two elements. This matched the observations of Fullan (1986), who pointed out that the normative re-educative model of innovation emphasises the importance of teachers' professional training in order to achieve effective and lasting change in teachers' attitudes and cultures.

Table 10: Relationship between Emphasis on School-Based Teacher-Training and the Cooperation of Teachers in Implementation

Category	No. of Schools	Emphasis on School-based Training	Teachers' Cooperation in Implementation
A	1	highly emphasised	very cooperative
B	2	highly emphasised	cooperative
C	1	emphasised	very cooperative
D	1	not emphasised	cooperative
E	3	not emphasised	not cooperative

It is worth noting that the school in Category C had very cooperative teachers even though school-based training was not emphasised as strongly as in other schools. Part of the explanation for this lies in the character of the school. The principal preferred to recruit Christian teachers, and he always stressed the need for harmonious relationship among the staff and between the staff and the students. Similar comments apply to the school in Category D, which also had high morale. The staff were very proud of their school, and the principal's leadership style was highly participatory.

3. Conclusions

The introduction of the mass education in Hong Kong required many curriculum innovations to cater for students who found difficulty in dealing with the traditional curriculum. However, the architects of change seemed to neglect the importance of school administration in helping to implement innovations. A rich literature has developed on this topic in Western countries (e.g. Bishop 1986, Fullan 1982, Hord 1987, Nicholls 1986), but the literature on Hong Kong has remained rather limited.

This study led to some interesting findings which were quite close to those of researchers in Western countries. Firstly, the effective principals tended to give more professional training to the staff. School-based teacher training programmes were found to be very useful in promoting the receptivity of the teachers to the innovation. Secondly, effective principals are usually quite democratic when appointing the teachers in the appropriate posts. They delegate decision-making power to the teacher-in-charge of the innovation, which helps promote commitment to implementation of the innovations. Thirdly, effective principals are more participatory. They join in the activities of the teachers and students, and this assists them to gain feedback on successes and problems. Lastly, the majority of principals try to avoid power-coercive strategies when dealing with passive teachers.

In addition to confirming the usefulness of the findings in the Western world about successful school-level innovations, the research generated valuable information about actual experience in tackling innovations. This could be especially useful to school practitioners. Two examples of such experience are particularly worth noting.

The first, a democratic principal, allows teachers to choose the extra- curricular duties they like. At the end of the term, all teachers have to complete a questionnaire stating their preference for extra-curricular activities next year. All the information is then sent to a special committee for careful arrangement. A list of duty allocations for the teachers is submitted to the principal for final decision. The principal consults those teachers, and reaches agree-ment with them if they are not allocated the duty of their first choice.

The second example concerns with the establishment of a teacher development day as a kind of school-based teacher-training. A special team of teachers is assigned the duty of organising a whole day's activities for teachers' professional development. A well-organised programme of this kind greatly helps promote the teachers'

receptivity to innovations.

On the other hand, the survey showed many variations in the factors affecting school innovation. Some of these variations are worth careful attention. For example, one school principal does not democratically consult the teachers in the appointment of duties, but the morale of the counselling teachers is still very high. It is because the principal is very participatory in managing the school. He knows the teachers and students very well, and often joins their activities. The principal can afford the time and effort required because he is a priest. Most principals complain about lack of time for participating the school activities as they are also involved with so many external activities. Review of the results of the investigation and study of the exceptional cases can help individual school practitioners to formulate suitable strategies for their own schools.

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Linking School and Home:

Liaison between Teachers and Parents in

Aided Secondary Schools

Chan King

This paper examines the extent to which parents are involved in the operation of Hong Kong secondary schools. It is concerned both with attendance of school functions and with involvement in educational and administrative matters.

Parental participation in school life is considered indispensable by many western educationalists. Most arguments presented in favour of participation focus on (i) the need for schools to be accountable to consumers, (ii) the practical value of community contributions, and (iii) the democratic value of shared decision-making.

In Hong Kong, however, the notion that governance of schools might be shared with parents is rarely encountered. Much more common is the idea that parents should support schools with donations of time and money, but even this notion is far from universal. A few schools do have Parent-Teacher Associations (PTAs), but they are very much the minority. Aided schools are required by law to have management committees. However, private and government schools are not required to have such committees, and even in aided schools it is not common for the committees to include parents. In the institutions which do have parents on their school committees, such membership is usually by chance rather than design.

Little data has been collected on home-school liaison in Hong Kong, and the first objective of the survey reported here was fact-finding. The survey also explored the attitudes of teachers towards potential roles of parents in the school system.

1. Changing Policies

The Llewellyn Report (1982) noted that most Hong Kong schools are operated on an authoritarian, top-down pattern. The report pointed out that community involvement in school policy formation was largely absent.

For a few years after the release of the report, little happened to change this picture. However, in January 1989 the government organised a seminar for heads of secondary schools on the topic 'Towards better Cooperation between Parents and Schools'. The opening address by the Director of the Education Department stressed the importance of families and parents in the life of school pupils, and advocated stronger relationships between schools and homes (Li 1989). The seminar also raised questions about parents' rights, about their potential roles in school management, and about ways to strengthen PTAs.

The following month, the Education Department sent a 'Note on School-Parent Liaison' to all schools. It was addressed to both administrators and teachers, and emphasised the need to encourage communication with parents. This activity suggested that the door to parental involvement in schools was ajar, but it was certainly far from wide open. The concept of parental involvement in schools remained unfamiliar both among teachers and among parents.

2. Methodology

Bearing this background in mind, the researcher embarked on a fact-finding and opinion-seeking survey. A postal questionnaire provided the main source of data. The survey focused on aided secondary schools.

The questionnaire was aimed at the teachers thought to have most contact with parents, i.e. those in charge of counselling, discipline and individual forms. One hundred schools were randomly selected, representing about one third of the total number of aided secondary schools in Hong Kong. The sample contained schools of 10 different sponsoring bodies. The researcher requested the principal of each each school to distribute three questionnaires: one to a counselling teacher, one to a discipline teacher, and one to a form teacher.

Among the 300 teachers in the sample, 120 replied. This represented a response rate of 40 per cent. However, these responses

may have been unevenly distributed within the sample. It seems likely that some schools returned three responses but that others returned none.

3. Findings

(a) Formal Bodies and Activities

The first question asked whether the school had a PTA. Among the 120 respondents, 12 said 'yes', 16 said their schools intended to establish one, and 91 answered 'no'. This response seemed to confirm the researcher's original impression that few schools had formal PTAs.

Secondly, the questionnaire asked whether the school had organised (i) a speech day, (ii) a sports day, (iii) a parents' day, and (iv) an open day within the last 12 months. Those indicating that they had had a speech day comprised 93.3 per cent of the total. Comparable figures for the other events were 95.8, 92.5 and 33.3 per cent. These figures might be considered quite high, and indicate that at least some effort is made to promote external relations.

Respondents were then asked whether in the last 12 months their schools had organised group sessions for parents on:

1. orientation for Form 1 students,
2. career talks for students in Forms 3, 5 or 7,
3. talks on curriculum options for Form 3 students,
4. discussion on students' academic progress,
5. discussion on students' behaviour,
6. professional talks on adolescent problems, and
7. informal discussion for parents to express views on education.

The findings are summarised in Figure 1. As expected, orientation for parents of Form 1 students was high on the list. The other activities were far from insignificant, and even the last category (informal discussion for parents) was said by 30 per cent of respondents to have been organised. However, these programmes were mainly for the schools to give information to the parents. Participation remained in what Pennock (1979) has called the stages of responsiveness and legitimacy.

Chan King

Figure 1: Programmes for Parents Organised by Aided Secondary Schools

Percentage

□ Yes   ■ Intends To
▨ No   □ Missing Cases
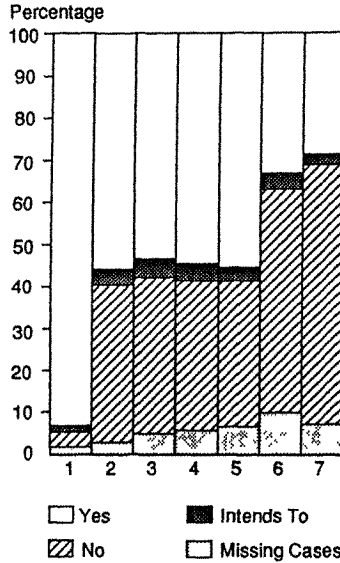
Note: For explanation of numerical codes, see text.

With regard to the means of communication between teachers and parents, students' handbooks, school circulars, and telephones were said to be the most common. Termly or monthly newsletters were less common. This may have been because such newsletters were considered unimportant, or it may have reflected staffing and manpower constraints.

The next question asked whether the respondents would contact parents in certain specific circumstances. All respondents stated that they informed parents when their children had behaviour problems or were injured during school hours. All respondents but two said that they also informed parents if their children had academic problems. Some 60.8 per cent of respondents reported that they contacted parents when a child had high academic achievement. However, only 38.3 per cent indicated that they did so when the child had won a competition or award.

Respondents were then asked about the circumstances in which

parents were allowed or encouraged to enter the school compound. Most respondents (89.2 per cent) reported that parents were allowed to enter the school at any time, and 75.8 per cent said that parents could meet staff without prior arrangement. However, only half reported that parents were allowed to see their children during free periods in school hours. This response implies that teachers are ready to cooperate and talk with parents, but do not want them to disturb students. Teachers may be very protective of what they see as their professional territory.

This impression was confirmed by the next category of responses. A great majority (94.2 per cent) of respondents stated that parents were not and would not be given opportunities to sit in the classroom and observe teaching. Again, when asked whether parents wishing to see their children's examination scripts would be allowed to do so, only 32.5 per cent indicated that they would. This was not quite so striking a response as for observation of classroom teaching, but was nevertheless notable.

The next section of the questionnaire asked whether the school invited parents to:

1. help voluntarily in the snack shop,
2. assist extra-curricular classes,
3. assist school outings/picnics in junior forms,
4. help renovate the school,
5. help with evening variety shows, e.g. as prop/costume advisers, receptionists, etc.,
6. help with school bazaars as co-organisers,
7. participate in sports events during athletic meets as contestants,
8. support fund-raising campaigns,
9. help administer school-based curricula,
10. help draft school rules, and
11. help draft other special policies.

The responses are shown in Figure 2. Only item 8 (support for fund-raising campaigns) found much affirmative response. This matched the findings of Holbrook (1989, pp.87-8), who had asked about PTAs as an ancillary question in the IEA science study.

Figure 2: Parental Participation in School

Percentage

Yes

No

Intends To

Missing Cases
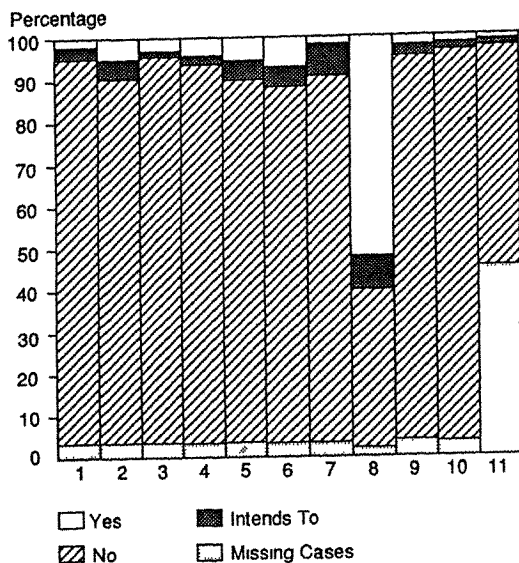
Note: For explanation of numerical codes, see text.

(b) Teachers' Views

The next section of the questionnaire asked about teachers' attitudes towards home-school linkages and the roles of parents. In general, teachers appeared bemused by the idea that parents might become more involved in shaping school policy, and nearly half the respondents left this item blank. The survey did not find marked differences in teachers' opinions according to the agency of their schools or their posts within these schools. However, schools with PTAs seemed to allow greater room for parent participation.

The majority of teachers (74.2 per cent) indicated that they rarely or never felt uncomfortable when meeting parents. However, 68.3 per cent of respondents felt that parents sometimes or often disliked coming to school. It may be presumed that most school visits are expected during office hours. Working parents would therefore have to make an effort to come. They might consider routine meetings like parents' day or school visits a nuisance, especially if their children had no obvious problems.

The teachers were then asked their views on the following propositions:

1. Parents talk more than they listen.
2. Parents dislike teachers criticising their children.
3. Parents criticise the school more than they praise it.
4. Parents withdraw from their children's problems.
5. Parents leave all the responsibility for education to the teachers.
6. Parents are defensive.
7. Parents are uncooperative.
8. Parents are apathetic.

The responses are shown in Figure 3. Nearly one third of respondents felt that parents often or frequently talked more than they listened when they came to school; and only a quarter felt that parents rarely disliked teachers criticising their children. On the other hand, nearly half the teachers felt that it was rare for parents

Figure 3: Teachers' Impressions of Parents
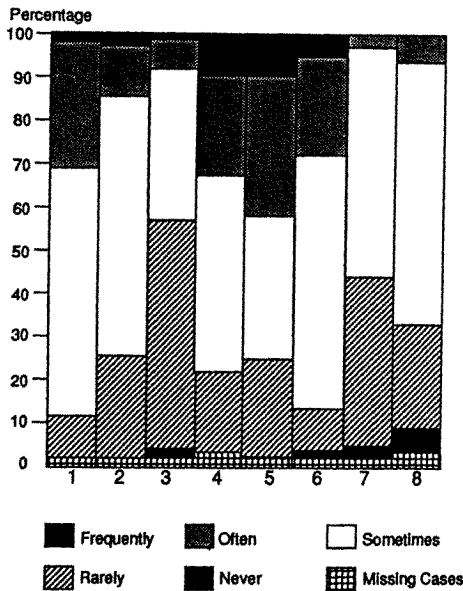
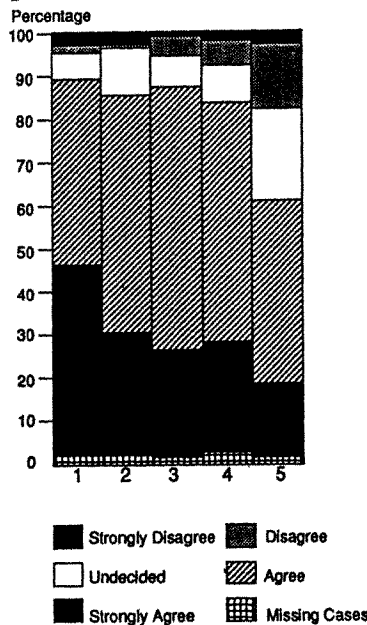Note: For explanation of numerical codes, see text.

to criticise the school more than they praised it. Parents were not portrayed as especially defensive, uncooperative or apathetic.

The questionnaire also asked for views on the following statements about potential roles:

1. Parents should be regarded as partners in the educational process.
2. Parents are great resources for the school.
3. Teachers should take the first step to build up communication with parents.
4. Teachers should see parents whenever requested.
5. Teachers are responsible for reminding parents of their parental roles.

The responses, shown in Figure 4, are quite positive. Nearly 90 percent of respondents felt that parents should be regarded as partners. The views on the other items are also very positive. And,

Figure 4: Teachers'Opinions on Parent-Teacher Liaison

Note: For explanation of numerical codes, see text.

concerning the impact of such liaison, 78.3 per cent agreed that parents' participation in school activities would encourage students' performance.

4. Implications

Most educationalists would welcome the initiatives by the Education Department to strengthen home-school liaison. However, a great deal of work will be needed before the government's goals can be achieved. The survey showed that few Hong Kong aided secondary schools have well-defined mechanisms for parental involvement. Only a small minority have PTAs, and the others lack systematic channels for parent participation. Few respondents said that their schools invited parents to participate in informal activities, and none indicated that parents played a role such activities as suggesting directions for school-based curriculum or drafting school rules.

Generally, teachers were opposed to the suggestion that parents should be invited to participate in school management, pedagogy and choice of curriculum. Parents in Hong Kong are not welcome to infringe the professional autonomy of teachers.

It was observed from the survey findings that most parents only contacted schools when requested. Chiefly because of the schools' attitudes and the parents' responses, parent participation in Hong Kong aided secondary schools remained in the lowest degree of tokenism in Arnstein's ladder of citizen participation (see Fagence 1977, p.124), namely the rung of informing. Pateman (1970) has described this as 'pseudo-participation'. Parents were often invited to school to attend orientations for new students, and to hear talks on career and curriculum options. However, they were chiefly there to receive information, and were rarely encouraged to express their own opinions.

On the other hand, the survey did suggest that parents were sometimes invited to attend discussions on students' academic progress or behaviour. The word 'discussion' might merely imply that parents expressed problems and teachers gave advice. Nevertheless, this is at least better than nothing. As Wringe (1984) has pointed out, participation in community affairs is only possible when citizens are well informed.

It is also worth stressing that teachers generally commented favourably on parents' behaviour. Parents were not said to be antagonistic or withdrawn, and the majority of teachers said that they

enjoyed working with parents. Moreover parents were not kept beyond the school gate, and teachers were ready to see parents on request. They said that they contacted parents and informed them about their children's behaviour and academic progress. Teachers did at least feel accountable to parents for the physical safety, learning and discipline of the students.

Teachers also agreed that parent involvement in school activities encourages children's performance, and a majority of the respondents regarded parents as partners in the educational process. This suggests that there does at least exist a basis for improvement of home-school liaison. Nevertheless it is difficult to envisage that Hong Kong will in the near future follow the more extreme Western models that allow parents to challenge school regulations and to make decisions on the allocation of funds.

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Teachers' Mobility in a Secondary School:

A Case Study

Monica H.Y. Luk

Excessive turnover is a serious and long-standing problem in the teaching profession, for it may seriously diminish productivity and efficiency. While there are many reasons leading to resignation from a job, a high turnover rate may be a sign of dissatisfaction with the institution. A study of the reasons why teachers leave a school may provide insights into the appropriateness of administration in that school.

This paper reports on the author's investigation of the school in which she was teaching. In recent years, this school has suffered from high teacher turnover. The research tries to identify school-specific reasons for the turnover. The study was a mini-ethnographic work, examining the culture of the school from the perspectives of its staff.

1. Research Methodology

The study focused on an 11-year period, from the time of the establishment of the school to the present. During this time the school had only one principal. Qualitative research methods were considered the most appropriate. The study aimed to acquire sufficient depth to develop insights which could perhaps not be acquired from more superficial quantitative studies of a number of schools. The investigation followed guidelines set out by such authors as Borg & Gall (1983) and Cohen & Manion (1987).

The researcher was a participant observer, and can claim to have been one without being noticed. She had worked in the organisation for 10 years, since the second year of its establishment. Facts were commonly made known to her without the informants realising that the information might be used for analysis of the organisation.

Additional data were acquired from interviews, in which informants were asked about their career histories. All informants had worked in, but had resigned from, the school being studied. Since the investigator had witnessed the development of the organisation, she felt able to judge who would be key informants. They included some individuals who had worked in the school for many years and who were in a position to comment on organisational matters. It was not difficult to conduct various triangulations for data validation. The interviewees were promised confidentiality in order to encourage frank and honest views.

Further information was obtained from written responses to open-ended questions. The respondents in this case were individuals who had left the vicinity. The questions were similar to those asked in the interviews.

Finally, archival material was also used for the study. This material included school magazines, staff address lists and work-load allocation tables. The growth of the school was charted, and staff lists were used to show the span of service of each teacher who had resigned. The work-load allocation tables showed the subjects and classes taken by each teacher. The lists helped the researcher to locate informants, and assisted with triangulation.
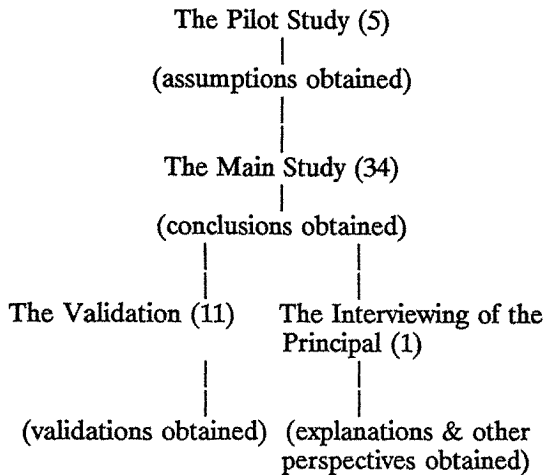
2. The Study

The study was conducted in four parts, namely the pilot study, the main study, the validation, and the interviewing of the principal. This is represented by Figure 1. The numbers of participants involved in each part are shown in brackets. Altogether, they add up to 51.

(a) The Pilot Study

The pilot study was the first part of the research, and involved five individuals. Informal interviews provided a general picture and guidelines for the main study. The sampling frame was random. Despite the small number of respondents, the sample was fairly representative in terms of age, sex, teaching status, length of service, service time-spans, and subjects taught.

From the simplified data, the researcher looked for common ground in the comments. Several topics were listed, some guiding questions were prepared for the main study.

Figure 1: The Structure of the Study

The Pilot Study (5)
|
(assumptions obtained)
|
|
The Main Study (34)
|
(conclusions obtained)
| |
| |
The Validation (11)   The Interviewing of the
                        Principal (1)
| |
| |
(validations obtained) (explanations & other
                        perspectives obtained)

(b) The Main Study

The main study was the second part of the research, and involved 34 individuals. The instruments used were face-to-face guided open-ended interviews (21 individual studies), telephone guided open-ended interviews (eight individual studies), and questionnaires of openended guiding questions (5 returned questionnaires). Seventeen potential informants had not yet been included in the study. Among them, four refused to cooperate, one had died, and the rest could not be located.

The main study focused on the questions developed in the pilot study. The questions aimed to elicit information on three different aspects: the situation, the factors, and the aftermaths.

The first step was to obtain a clear picture of the organisation at various times in the 11-year period. Informants were asked open questions such as:

- What were your first impressions of the school?
- How was the organisational climate when you commenced and when you left?
- How was the leadership when you commenced and when you left?
- How was the quality of students when you commenced and when you left?

Comments by teachers who were employed at the same times were grouped for analysis. This permitted the researcher to compose a series of 'snap-shots'.

The next step was to develop understanding of the school-specific factors that had caused informants to resign. Four questions were asked as follows:

- When did you first think that you might resign?
- When was your decision made?
- What factors influenced your decision to resign?
- What was the main factor leading to your resignation?

For analysis, the teachers were re-grouped according to the time of resignation. As the main focus was the institution, personal factors were given less attention than school-specific ones.

The next step focused on the aftermaths, i.e. what happened after resignation. Data acquired here were matched against impressions of the nature of the situation and the reasons for resignation. The four main questions were:

- Where did you go after resignation?
- How was your adaptation to the new environment?
- Comparing the working environments, which was better?
- Did you at all regret leaving the school?

For analysis, the teachers were grouped according to the time of resignation.

(c) The Validation

This was the third part of the study. It covered 11 individuals who had resigned during the last academic year. The instrument employed was a face-to-face guided interview. The 11 informants were asked the same questions as those in the main study, on the situation, factors and aftermaths. The patterns obtained in this part of the study validated most of the conclusions of the main study.

(d) The Interview with the Principal

This was the fourth and last part of the study. The principal had led

the organisation for 11 years (the period of study), but had resigned in the current academic year. A face-to-face guided open-ended interview was conducted. This part of the study had three main purposes:

i) to look for issues that both the principal and the teachers agreed upon -- to add validity to the study;

ii) to look for issues on which the informants as teachers and the principal as a leader held different views -- to balance the bias element; and

iii) to look for issues which were obscured from the principal -- to understand the role of leader and leadership in an objective way.

Enlarging on these purposes, individuals in different roles perceive things differently. When both the principal and the teachers held similar views on certain issues, the issues themselves may have high degrees of validity and reliability. Secondly, the interview gave the principal a chance to present his own views from his own perspective. And thirdly, the researcher also felt that the quality of leadership could be judged to a certain extent by the extent of the principal's understanding of events in the organisation. By comparing the situation of the organisation given by the informants and that given by the principal, it was possible to find out certain issues misunderstood by, and obscured from, the principal.

3. Findings

Because of space constraints, the findings of the pilot study will not be reported in detail. It is sufficient to say that the pilot study generated a set of questions which became the basis for the main study. This section of the paper therefore moves straight to the main study. Details of the pilot study may be found in Luk (1989).

(a) *The Main Study*

(i) *The Situation*

The first part of the main study aimed to secure a series of pictures of the school at various stages of its development. The research investigated in turn:

- teachers' first impressions of the school,
- views on the organisational climate,
- opinions the leadership style,
- views on the quality of students, and
- perceptions of the religious atmosphere.

Findings are listed in point form as follows.

First Impressions of the School

C1. There had been a change in most teachers' attitudes: from cooperation to irritation; most staff busied themselves only with their individual work.

C2. Students had become a problem in the later years.

C3. Administrative systems had been well-established but they were unnecessarily complicated.

C4. The administrators worked individually without a common organisational goal.

C5. The school was very much under the influence of the Church. The religious atmosphere was once thick but later became more relaxed.

Organisational Climate

C6. There was a change in school climate from open to closed.

C7. As the school developed, it became more bureaucratic.

C8. The school suffered from power struggles.

C9. The power struggles had created a tense atmosphere.

C10. Complex human relationships reduced the effectiveness of administration.

C11. Complex human relationships and power struggles negatively affected teaching morale.

Leadership Style

C12. The principal was at first accepted because he seemed charismatic.

C13. The principal was rejected when later seen to have an unappealing character.

C14. The principal was both person- and system-oriented.

C15. The leadership style was more towards democracy in a legal sense.

C16. There was limited leadership as there was delegation of power with limited supervision.

C17. The principal was unconcerned with internal school affairs.

C18. The principal did not have a free hand. The management board strongly influenced the leadership style.

C19. The education aims were too high-sounding and impractical.

Quality of Students

C20. The student intake in the first two years was academically poor but fair in discipline.

C21. The students in the later years were poor both academically and in discipline, and the situation was getting worse.

C22. The school was once successful in motivating good learning attitudes in students (the first few years' F.5 graduates).

C23. There was a wide range of student quality.

Religious Atmosphere

C24. People from the Church obtained administrative benefits.

C25. The religious atmosphere was thick in the early years, but the person-in-charge was not enthusiastic and it became more relaxed in later years.

(ii) The Factors

In the second part of the main study, four similar questions were asked. The questions were:

- When did you first think that you might resign?
- When was the decision to resign made?
- What factors affected your decision to resign?
- What was the main factor leading to your resignation?

The following conclusions were reached:

First Thoughts of Resignation

F1. Administration was not a problem in the early years. However it became an influential factor in the later years, when it generated first thoughts of resignation.

F2. The quality of students was a main factor in generating the first thoughts of resignation in the early and later years. It was not a factor during the period 1981-86.

F3. Teachers who had served for a short time had their first thoughts of resignation generated at a very early stage by the quality of students.

F4. From 1983 to 1986, school politics became a force generating thoughts about resignation.

F5. Job-satisfaction was a factor in both the early and later years.

Immediate Factors Leading to the Decision to Resign

F6. Few teachers resigned until a favourable job was at hand.

F7. School-specific problems were not serious in the early years. Teachers hesitated before resigning.

F8. The situation of the school became worse in the later years. Quite a few teachers resigned even when new jobs were not yet available.

F9. The time-lag between the decision to resign and the actual resignation was quite short, usually within one academic year.

F10. The main school-specific factor leading to the decision to resign was the nature of the administration. The effect was stronger on teachers who had served for a long time.

F11. The next most important factor was the quality of students. The effect was stronger on teachers who had served for a short time.

Factors Affecting the Decision to Resign

F12. Career prospects were a main factor affecting the decision to resign in the fifth to seventh years of the school's development (1982-85).

F13. Transportation was not a dominant factor at any time in the 11-year period.

F14. Subjects and classes taught were a main factor in the early years of the school's development. They were still a factor, albeit less prominent, in the later years.

F15. School politics were an important factor in the later years of the school's development.

F16. Job-satisfaction was both a positive and negative factor.

F17. Participation in decision-making was not an influential factor affecting the decision to resign.

F18. The quality of students was a dominant factor all through the

development of the school except for the fifth and sixth years.

F19. Religious factors were not dominant.

F20. Administration was the main and dominant factor in the later years.

Main Factors Leading to Resignation

F21. Personal and school-specific factors contributed evenly as the main factors leading to the resignation, with more school-specific factors becoming dominant in the later years.

F22. Administration became the main factor during the period 1981-83. Its importance increased in the later years.

F23. Career prospects were the main factor only in the period 1982-85.

F24. Power struggles became the main factor in the period 1985-87.

F25. The quality of students dominated the period 1986-89.

(iii) The Aftermaths

In this section, interviewees were asked about their activities after resignation. Those who continued with teaching were asked to describe their adaptation to their new schools and to compare the two working environments. They were then asked if they had any regrets about leaving the school under study. The following conclusions were reached:

Activities after Resignation

T1. Most teachers continued in the profession after resignation.

T2. Most teachers who had left the school earlier were recruited by the Government (due to pull factors). Most of those who left in the later years taught in subsidised secondary schools (due to push factors).

T3. Teachers who resigned after either a short or a long period of teaching experience tried different kinds of jobs due to school-specific push factors.

T4. A majority of the CM teachers continued teaching after resignation.

Adaptation to the New Environment

T5. Few teachers had problems adapting to the new teaching environments.

T6. Those who took some time to adapt had served the school for quite a long time.

T7. Teachers who had difficulties adapting to the new environments were ones who had resigned in the early years.

Comparison of the Working Environments

T8. Most teachers preferred the new working environment to the one under study.

T9. Teachers liked to work in an environment with little pressure.

T10. Some teachers preferred their new working environments because they were relatively free of power struggles.

Feelings After Resignation

T11. Few teachers regretted leaving the school.

T12. The power struggles in the school had become a nuisance to some teachers.

(b) The Validation

The validation covered 11 individuals who had resigned during the most recent academic year. Space in this article does not permit detailed reporting on the validation findings. It is sufficient to report that almost all the findings of the main study were confirmed by the validation study. Readers wishing to locate more details are referred to Luk (1989).

(c) The Interview with the Principal

The last part of the study was an interview with the principal. It had three main purposes. The investigator looked for:

(i) issues on which both the principal and the teachers agreed;

(ii) issues that were viewed differently by the principal and teachers; and

(iii) issues that were obscured from the principal.

(i) Issues agreed by both the Principal and Teachers

C1. There had been a change in most teachers' attitudes: from cooperation to irritation; most staff busied themselves only with their individual work.

C3. Administrative systems were well-established, (but might be unnecessarily complicated).

C5. The religious atmosphere was once thick but later became more relaxed.

C7. As the school developed it became more bureaucratic.

C8. The school suffered from power struggles.

C10. Complex human relationships reduced the effectiveness of administration.

C11. Complex human relationships and power struggles negatively affected teaching morale.

C14. The principal was both person- and system- oriented.

C18. The principal did not have a free hand. The management board strongly influenced the leadership style.

C20. The student intake in the first two years was academically poor but fair in discipline.

C21. The students in the later years were poor both academically and in discipline, and the situation was getting worse.

C23. There was a wide range of student quality.

C24. People from the Church obtained administrative benefits.

(ii) Issues Perceived Differently

Few conclusions from the main study on the factors leading to resignations were perceived similarly by the principal. The principal thought that most teachers left the school for personal reasons. To the principal, very few left because of unhappy issues relating to the school. Even for the limited few who left because of poor performance as teachers, he felt that they left without hard feelings.

The principal also saw aspects of the school situation differently. This was particularly true of the following:

C15. The leadership style was more towards democracy in a legal sense.

C16. There was limited leadership as there was delegation of power with limited supervision.

C17. The principal was unconcerned with internal school affairs.

C25. The religious atmosphere seemed thick in the first few years; but the person-in-charge was not enthusiastic and the atmosphere became more relaxed in later years.

(iii) Issues Obscured from the Principal

In this part of the analysis, the investigator took her role as a participant observer. Conclusions reported from the main study might not be similarly perceived by the principal either because the conclusions were invalid or because the issues were obscured from the principal. The investigator as a participant observer looked for incidents to support either explanation. The following points stood out.

C1. There had been a change in most teachers' attitudes: from cooperation to irritation; most staff busied themselves only with their individual work.

C3. Administrative systems had been well-established but they were unnecessarily complicated.

C4. The administrators worked individually without a common organisational goal.

C6. The school climate changed from open to closed.

C9. The power struggles had created a tense atmosphere.

C19. The education aims were too high-sounding and impractical.

C21. The students in the later years were poor both academically and in discipline, and the situation was getting worse.

The principal did not think of school-specific problems as the main factors leading to resignations. However, study suggested that he did not discern the true picture. Either he was too optimistic, or the framework of the interview did not permit him to admit the truth.

4. Conclusions

From the data collected, it was clear that the development of the school had been less than fully successful. Good and capable teachers were leaving. Administrators became less enthusiastic

(especially in the religious field), students were getting worse, and teachers felt helpless improve to the situation. The climate was tense and the staff were divided. This situation had arisen at least in part because of deficiencies in the school's leadership.

Respondents agreed that the principal had charismatic traits. However, they felt that his power was restricted and that the management board had exerted harmful influence. The principal's leadership style was described as mild and middle-of-the-road. The principal was considered neither autocratic nor democratic, both person-orientated and system-orientated. When interviewed, he declared his position to be in the middle of the management grid. This was supported by the various comments on him.

Teachers who had resigned presented a range of reasons for their resignation. School-specific problems might not have been the main reasons, but they had created considerable dissatisfaction. The situation became worse in the later years. Evidence for this included the facts that more teachers resigned before a jobs were available, that many had no hesitation in resignation, and that most said that they adapted easily to their new environments.

The analyses showed that the main problem of the school was not that of poor students but that of administration and power struggles. The problem of the school was exactly that of 'micro-politics'. Poor administration was due to poor leadership. But leadership was unsuccessful largely due to the limited power enjoyed by the principal. The lack of supervision did not imply that he was not concerned but that he was powerless to rule over the adminis-trators and teachers who were supported by the management board. Incidents of this sort were not lacking, and they were observed by the investigator. Teachers felt helpless because even the principal could not do much.

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