香港教師中心學報

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香港教師中心

香港教師中心（教師中心）是根據 1984 年教育統籌委員會《第一號報告書》的建議，由 1987 年開始籌備，至 1989 年 6 月 10 日於北角百福道四號正式成立。為進一步提升服務質素及切合發展需要，教師中心已於2006 年遷往教育局九龍塘教育服務中心。

教師中心成立的目標是不斷促進教師的專業發展和在職培訓，並為他們提供一個富鼓勵性、中立及沒有階級觀念的環境，使他們更能團結一致，發揮專業精神。教師中心致力為教師提供互相切磋和交流經驗的機會，推動課程發展，鼓勵教師設計及試用新教材和教學法，向業內人士、團體發放教育資訊和宣傳教育理念，並配合教師興趣，組織各類社交與文娛活動。

教師中心不單為教師而設，也由教師管理。他們可以通過三層管理架構參與教師中心的管理工作。這管理架構包括諮詢管理委員會（諮管會）、常務委員會（常委會）和六個工作小組，負責教師中心的決策、監察和執行教師中心的不同工作及活動。

諮管會的工作主要是決定教師中心的策略和監察它的運作。諮管會由 72 名委員組成，其中 35 位由教育團體提名及選出，35 位由教師提名及選出，另外兩位由教育局常任秘書長委任。

常委會是諮管會的行政機構，與教師中心的日常運作和活動有密切的關係。常委會的主席和兩位副主席由諮管會的主席和兩位副主席兼任，其他成員包括 10 位由諮管會提名及選出的諮管會委員，以及兩位由教育局常任秘書長委任的代表。

常委會之下設有工作小組，負責教師中心內不同範疇的工作，包括專業發展小組、出版小組、活動小組、教育研究小組、章程及會籍小組和推廣小組。

教師中心除了主辦各類型活動外，亦經常與本港教育團體合作，籌辦推動教育專業的活動，並會因應需要，贊助這些團體舉辦活動，以及為有關活動提供所需的場地和器材。教師中心內有電腦、消閒雜誌、議事區、休憩區及專題展板等，為教師提供所需的服務。

Hong Kong Teachers' Centre

Hong Kong Teachers' Centre (HKTC) was formally established at 4 Pak Fuk Road in North Point on 10 June 1989 after two years' preparation in accordance with the recommendation of the Education Commission Report No. 1 published in 1984. In order to enhance its service quality and to strengthen its development, HKTC was relocated to the Education Bureau Kowloon Tong Education Services Centre in 2006.

HKTC aims to promote continuing professional development and training as well as to foster a greater sense of unity and professionalism among teachers in an encouraging, neutral and non-hierarchical environment. Specific objectives of HKTC include providing opportunities for teachers to interact and collaborate, promoting curriculum development, encouraging teachers to come up with innovative teaching aids and approaches, disseminating education-related news and ideas to education professionals and organisations as well as organising social and recreational activities to cater for the diverse needs and interests of teachers.

HKTC was set up for and managed by teachers through a three-tier organisational structure, comprising an Advisory Management Committee (AMC), a Standing Committee (SC) and six Sub-committees, that is responsible for policy-making, monitoring and implementation of various duties and activities.

The AMC is a policy-making and monitoring body with a total of 72 members, with 35 nominated and elected by education organisations, 35 nominated and elected by teachers as well as 2 appointed by the Permanent Secretary for Education.

The SC, which serves as the executive arm of the AMC, handles the day-to-day functioning of HKTC and the running of activities. It is composed of the Chairperson and 2 Vice-chairpersons of the AMC, 10 elected AMC members and the 2 appointed representatives of the Permanent Secretary for Education.

The six Sub-committees, namely Professional Development, Publication, Activities, Educational Research, Constitution & Membership and Promotion, are working groups under the SC and all are responsible for specific areas of work of HKTC.

Apart from organising events and activities for teachers on its own, HKTC often joins hands with or, if necessary, subsidises various local education organisations to arrange activities that facilitate the continuing professional development of teachers on its well-equipped premises. HKTC contains PC workstations, leisure magazines, sharing corners, resting areas, display-boards, etc. for teachers' use.

香 港 教 師 中 心 學 報
Hong Kong Teachers' Centre Journal

《香港教師中心學報》(《學報》) 乃香港教師中心一年一度出版的學術性刊物，內容以教育研究、教育行動研究及教學經驗分享為主。《學報》的投稿者多來自本港及海外的教師、師訓機構的導師、教育研究人員及學者。《學報》主要分發給本港各幼稚園、小學、中學及大專院校，而公眾人士亦可到教師中心網頁（www.edb.gov.hk/hktc/journal）閱覽《學報》電子版。

以下為《學報》之顧問及編輯委員名單。

The Hong Kong Teachers' Centre Journal (HKTC Journal) is an annual refereed publication of the HKTC. It publishes articles on areas pertaining to educational research, action research and teaching practice in schools. Our contributors include school teachers, teacher educators and academics researching on education from Hong Kong and other places. The HKTC Journal will be distributed to kindergartens, primary and secondary schools and universities in Hong Kong. Its electronic version can also be accessed from the HKTC website (www.edb.gov.hk/hktc/journal).

The advisors and editorial committee members are listed as follows.

顧問團（Board of Advisors）

主編序
Foreword

今期學報的主題為「高等教育與教育國際化」，除了不少學者就着主題應邀投稿，也有熱心的教育同工提交寶貴的研究或分享文章。經過嚴謹的評審後，共有九篇文章獲得通過並收錄於今期學報。

第一部分針對今期主題的文章共有五篇，內容包括：以社會文化及批判性方法建立高等教育的管道、從中國人的學習文化和心理看香港高等教育國際化、「一帶一路」倡議對香港特區發展國際高等教育的機遇及香港高等教育的發展及國際化現況。作者們透過宏觀的角度透視香港高等教育國際化的實況和發展，展示了高等教育發展的未來方向，並提出精闢的分析、意見及建議。

第二部分關於理論及政策評論的文章，合共兩篇，內容包括：香港生命教育課程的框架及以「囚徒困局」詮釋香港中一入學前測試的操練。高等教育的發展有賴鞏固的基礎教育。兩位作者從另一角度分析香港教育的實況，作出了客觀的評論，並提出了具參考性的意見。

第三部分是教育實踐與經驗分享，有兩篇文章。內容包括：香港的就業輔導和生涯規劃教育的機遇與挑戰及校園美學融入寫作課程之探究。前線教育工作者的經驗分享是非常可貴的，透過兩位作者們的分析，我們可以了解教育實踐上的成果和值得反思的地方。

最後，我要衷心感謝為今期學報擔任評審的教育同工，當中包括：王偉倫博士、何玉芬博士、何瑞珠教授、李子建教授、李軍教授、李展華先生、李榮安教授、阮衛華博士、林偉業博士、胡少偉博士、袁月梅博士、馬顯慈博士、張澤松博士、郭禮賢博士、黃金耀博士、楊沛銘博士、廖佩莉博士、趙淑媚博士、歐惠珊女士 、潘甦燕博士、鄭美紅教授、黎國燦博士、盧一威博士、簡加言博士、羅永祥博士和龐憶華博士。學報能順利出版，實有賴眾多評審員於百忙中義務地抽空幫助，以專業的態度評審各篇文章。我也在此衷心感謝教師中心的同工。他們時刻緊貼工作的日程，工作雖不顯眼，但卻貢獻甚多。我期盼今期學報能為同工帶來對教育發展的檢視和反思，為日後教育工作帶來新的啟示。

《香港教師中心學報》主編

黃少玲

二零一七年十二月

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Building a higher education pipeline: sociocultural and critical approaches to 'internationalisation' in teaching and research

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Abstract

This article discusses the use of critical and sociocultural approaches to more dynamically 'internationalise' higher education in the Hong Kong Special Administrative Region of China. The article explores the integration of critical pedagogy and sociocultural learning theory in developing more engaging and rigorous education practices for tertiary institutions that are looking to steer their campuses towards international standards in education for the shorter and longer term. This article's specific context is a program that helps develop diverse undergraduates to be more effective teachers and researchers and be concerned with addressing social justice issues in their work and everyday lives. Through what can be called an educational pipeline that begins with undergraduates and branches off into teaching, postgraduate studies, and research, this article discusses sustainable contributions that can be made to 'internationalisation' when the pipeline is grounded in pedagogies and methodologies which help to develop educational equity and a more humanising education.

Keywords

tertiary education, curriculum, teacher education, reflexivity, Hong Kong

Introduction

For some 20 years, Asian universities such as those in Greater China (Hong Kong, Macao, Taiwan, mainland China) have been urged towards internationalisation, especially due to the paradigm shifts of globalisation and neoliberalism. These shifts to internationalisation have been identified across micro and macro levels (M. H. Lee, 2014; Mok, 2007; Postiglione, 2011). For teachers at the tertiary level, these shifts have not only been about incorporating course content from international contexts, as this was already being done to a significant degree in previous years. Internationalisation also meant changes like incorporating international teaching methods, technologies, and languages. For teachers at research institutions, the changes urged them to make their scholarship of greater international relevance, employ international methodologies, collaborate with overseas colleagues, and publish in journals outside of Asia. Whether at a research or teaching institution, faculty from both types of universities became subject to international standards of management, from how their pedagogy and research were evaluated, to how decisions were made at the department, faculty, and campus level. Understandably, these shifts towards 'internationalisation,' particularly those influenced by the US, the UK, and Australia, have received a range of critiques. This internationalisation has been viewed as disruptive and insensitive to local contexts, or even as fostering inequities and forms of cultural and socioeconomic imperialism (C. K. Y. Chan & Luk, 2013; W.-W. Law, 1997).

In Hong Kong, educational research has significantly discussed internationalisation in areas such as policy, administration, curriculum, assessment, and teaching. At times this research has looked at supposed disparities between 'East' and 'West' contexts (E. H.-f. Law, 2003; Leung, 2014; Wan, 2005), and at other times it has looked at how the push to become international has also been a push towards neoliberalism, with significant implications for Hong Kong education and social inequities (Petersen & Currie, 2008; Poon-McBrayer, 2004; Woo, 2013). This article builds on the notion that there are some helpful lessons to be learned from international approaches to higher education, such as those related to 'learning-to-learn' reforms in Hong Kong. The article outlines some strategies on how we might move from theories and policies to practice with diverse learners over the shorter and longer term. A pilot project that the author developed is discussed, including its approaches to addressing international standards and educating Hong Kong university students to become teachers and researchers. The article begins by explaining some of the pedagogical issues that emerged from the internationalisation process, and the employment of critical pedagogy and sociocultural learning theory approaches to address those issues. Following these foundational ideas, the article describes the author's integrated strategy of an educational pipeline to more dynamically prepare students to effectively engage 'international' standards, and well as those concerned with educational equity and social justice.

Key concepts

This section begins with discussing Hong Kong's efforts to 'internationalise' its education system. The discussion focuses on teaching coursework and some challenges that have arisen. In the second and third parts of this conceptual section, the article summarizes some key notions of critical pedagogy and sociocultural learning that were used to pilot an approach to improving internationalisation in undergraduate education.

Internationalisation in teaching

There has been considerable scholarship conducted on internationalisation of universities in the Hong Kong Special Administrative Region (HKSAR), including those that discuss changing tasks required of faculty. There have been several suggested reforms for teaching, including e-learning, flipped learning, and teaching courses using Mandarin Chinese (Putonghua) or English (Adamson & Morris, 2010; Wong, 2007). A particularly significant reform has been the move towards learner-centred learning and 'Learning-To-Learn' (LTL). While there are variations of LTL and learner-centred learning (sometimes called student-centred learning), they can be generalised as approaches to pedagogy based on theories of constructivism and cognitivism which emphasize the learner's experiences, environment, cognitive processes, and skills (Tong, 2010; Yeung, 2012). Here, learners can include the student or the teacher, and other members of the given educational setting. Learner-centred learning and LTL also emphasise tailoring pedagogy to students' differing needs and customising learning experiences, as opposed to 'one-size-fits-all' pedagogy like those that focus on textbooks and worksheets. Another characteristic of internationalisation reforms concerns the emergence of the 'information society' and unprecedented access to data and technology, which speaks to rapid advancements that have made 'obsolete' some of the previous ways that people learned and worked. It is here that LTL and student-centred learning is promoted to teach students how to continually learn and adjust over the life course, critically consume media and other information sources, and work with others in a highly-connected world that can be ironically isolating and indifferent. This development of LTL and learner-centred learning is supposed to augment pupils' skill sets as future teachers, scholars, and leaders to levels comparable to those found internationally.

Despite over a decade of implementing LTL in Hong Kong schools, and an even longer period of incorporating student-centred reforms, the SAR has been critiqued for perpetuating top-down, teacher-centred pedagogies, which typically revolve around public exams and rankings (Chang, 2017; Chiu & Walker, 2007). Effects of these pedagogies have included students feeling patronised and alienated as they go through schooling, and being uninformed and unprepared for the levels of inquiry, internationalism, and independence that are usually expected at university. While universities may have more academic freedom in implementing pedagogical reforms, teacher-centred approaches are still quite common and can further steer students' away from thinking for themselves, working creatively and collaboratively, learning how the world works outside of Hong Kong and figuring out what their place may be in it. In other words, higher education students may not be able to fully partake in the benefits of 'internationalisation.' In an effort to address these issues of preparing students to be internationally informed and competitive, this paper discusses the author's integrated use of critical pedagogy and sociocultural learning strategies at a Hong Kong university.

Critical pedagogy

One of the two key components of our approach to more effectively preparing students towards internationalisation is critical pedagogy. Critical pedagogy is a body of scholarship which focuses on issues of social justice, educational equity, power, control, resistance, and agency. Historically it has some shared foundations in the work of the Frankfurt School and Paulo Freire (Leonardo, 2004), and typically draws from sociology, philosophy, and psychology. A common concept within critical pedagogy includes seeing much of public education as using a banking model, where students are passive containers of information (like a child's 'piggy bank') that unquestioningly receive information 'currency' from teachers and schools who remain in dominant positions of knowledge and experience. This banking model has been connected to seeing education as using a 'one-size-fits-all' factory model that spews out the same kinds of students again and again, disregarding and flattening their diverse experiences, skills, or needs (Luke, 2010). Aside from the factory model, critical pedagogy's banking model concept has been tied to social reproduction, where a society's socioeconomic hierarchy is reinforced and reproduced through schooling (Apple, 2004). This usually means the wealthy elite maintain their power and privilege through the education system, while the middle-class shrinks and less privileged students are not taught skills that may help change their socioeconomic standing. Altogether, social reproduction and the banking and factory models illustrate that education systems can be oppressive and dehumanising for all involved. Critical pedagogy tends to look at these issues as faced by marginalised populations (e.g. women, working-class families), but it also explores issues of privileged groups (e.g. middle-class white men in North America, highly-educated Han Chinese in Asia).

Aside from problems, critical pedagogy examines how educational stakeholders can resist systems and practices of inequity, and how they can foster their own agency, whether social, educational, economic, or political (Bartólome, 1994). Towards these ends, a broad approach suggested within critical pedagogy is problem-posing, where students are not spoon-fed one correct answer to questions, but are encouraged to develop inquiries into given topics, and eventually answers. Although related to the Socratic Method and inquiry-based learning, problem-posing goes beyond students developing 'higher-order' thinking skills (Duncan-Andrade, 2009). Critical pedagogy also involves disrupting the status quo of schooling and the hierarchy of teachers over students and the communities they come from. Here students are encouraged to critique established ideas and norms, including those of schools and society (e.g. news media, transnational corporations), to more dynamically understand how the world works and how we can change it for the better. In Hong Kong, one can see the connections of critical pedagogy's problem-posing approach to internationally-inspired reforms like student-centred learning and LTL.

In recent decades critical pedagogy has become more interdisciplinary and applied across diverse contexts that are concerned with education and care, from teaching to social work to medicine (Gupta et al., 2006; McLaren & Houston, 2004). Over time, critical pedagogy has also received critiques for operating within certain paradigms of theory and practice (e.g. white, male, Christian), which can undermine efforts to make education more just and humanising. Thus critical pedagogy has also been refined by scholars from 'racial minority,' indigenous, diasporic, and LGBT backgrounds (Asher, 2007; Grande, 2003). Responding to critiques of critical pedagogy as being too theoretical, over the past two decades a large body of research has emerged from scholar-practitioners that detail how critical pedagogies have been effectively applied around the globe. Often these works have combined critical pedagogy with other disciplines (e.g. sociolinguistics, geography, legal studies), to provide more intersectional approaches to equity (Chang, 2013; Kubota & Miller, 2017). In Hong Kong, critical pedagogy has been theorised and applied for over fifteen years (Hui & Chan, 2006; Lin, 2004; Mason, 2000). Focal areas have included policy, curriculum, English education, liberal studies, and history of education, and these have provided insights in challenging educational inequities (C. Chan & Lo, 2016; Flowerdew, 2005; Pérez-Milans & Soto, 2014). In developing strategies for the educational pipeline that is the focus of this paper, critical pedagogy was a foundational area. The theories, along with my experience in applying them across age levels, helped me develop short and long-term approaches to more dynamically incorporating internationalisation at the university. In the next section, I outline the second conceptual foundation of our approach to an educational pipeline.

Sociocultural learning

Critical pedagogy facilitates a broader understanding of how educational systems can be dehumanising and inequitable, and general ideas of how to make classrooms more inclusive and democratic. Sociocultural learning theory is an area of scholarship that helps fill in some of the gaps of critical pedagogy's more sociological and philosophical strategies, by more dynamically conceptualising learning and its cultural roots. Within different sociocultural learning strands, a consistent theme is improving teaching through considering classrooms and other educational spaces as learning ecologies, going beyond formal teacher-student classroom interactions (Vygotsky, 1978). These ecologies can include students' families, neighbourhoods and formal/informal learning spaces. Sociocultural learning is grounded in the idea that human activity takes place in cultural contexts, is mediated by language, and is highly interconnected to the historical context of the activity's development and its participants' perspectives (Anderson & Stillman, 2013). Key ideas include the detail that should be paid to student/teacher discourse, experiences, and cultural practices that shape the interactions and connections within the learning ecology. Sociocultural learning's emphasis on this dynamic interplay of factors is related to Hong Kong's learner-centred learning reforms (Gan & Lee, 2015), as it seeks to modify and tailor pedagogy beyond just considering a classroom's subject, level, and language of instruction.

Sociocultural learning conceptualises culture as something that is situated, can change over time, and should be considered as practices rather than a list of traits that are permanently branded to a group of people as a 'learning style,' such as early models of the 'Chinese Learner,' or cultural deficit models of ethnic minorities (Clark & Gieve, 2006; González & Moll, 2002). Understanding culture as situated and socially-mediated practices is aligned with critical pedagogy in that it challenges the use of culture as a synonym for race or class, where 'Culture' is used to simplistically explain the low-achievement of a group, such as working-class or ethnic minority students who struggle at a university (Nasir & Hand, 2006). Such notions of 'Culture' signify a static approach that looks at culture as a pronoun, something that is fixed, unchanging, and in and of itself; like 'the Pakistani people' or 'Sham Shui Po students.' When these over-generalisations are used to explain achievement, they devalue 'the Cultures' and languages of these groups, and frame them as deficient of so-called academic or standard 'Culture' and language (C. D. Lee, 2002). This is problematic in that it belittles the struggles and strengths of marginalised communities, which the education system might learn something from if it adjusted its essentialising and elitist standpoint. A second problem here is that all supposed members of a cultural community are stereotyped as being the same. This hides the diversity and agency between individuals and suppresses their ability to change or do things in different ways.

Sociocultural learning's concept of culture as situated practices over time opens up understandings to how people can persist, develop, and change, and these understandings provide potentially transformative foundations for teaching. In other words sociocultural learning facilitates a pedagogy of possibility, where cultural and linguistic practices are not something that people are stuck with (Cole, 1996). These practices can continually change at the borders and intersections where the individual, structure, experience, and history meet (Pacheco, 2012). This approach can inform teachers of where students are coming from, but it also provides possibilities of where the student can go and what they can do in the company of others. In my experience, sociocultural learning theory has helped to more effectively implement formative assessments and curriculum modifications. It has pushed me to be more thoughtful in how I think of myself and my students (e.g.

behaviour, achievement), and how I can re-organise the bigger and smaller elements of our learning ecology to be more equitable, inclusive, and effective (Chang & Lee, 2012). In the following section I discuss applying sociocultural learning and critical pedagogy at a university in Hong Kong, and the strategy of an educational pipeline to support students in becoming stronger teachers and scholars.

Meeting internationalisation standards

At a recent dinner with two colleagues who are also Hong Kong professors, we traded stories about being junior faculty. My colleagues discussed the increasing 'international standards' for us to be evaluated with for job re-appointment and promotion. These standards included teaching courses that address international issues and methods outside of Hong Kong, conducting research of international relevance beyond Greater China, collaborating on projects with international scholars, and publishing in internationally-ranked journals outside of Asia. Of particular concern was how the last three standards were used to judge our worthiness in winning an external grant from the government: a gold standard for determining rewards like salary increases and promotion. My colleagues and I talked about challenges in achieving this 'internationalisation' while still meeting previously-established standards like teaching numerous courses effectively, working with local schools to conduct research, and engaging in service and 'knowledge transfer' with on-the-ground organisations applying our scholarly expertise. While we were enthused about the different forms of support our institutions provided, the conversation still had its share of concern.

Although Hong Kong's eight publicly-funded universities each has unique policies and practices, all face challenges of meeting international teaching and research standards. The Education University of Hong Kong (EdUHK) has shot up in international QS rankings of Education, but it is still the newest of the universities and has a long history of focusing on teaching practice as a former conglomeration of normal colleges. Thus there have been some challenges in attracting and supporting students with the highest levels of traditional academic skills. One example would be undergraduates whose English fluency levels help them to engage in coursework at high international standards. Another example would be Ph.D. and M.Phil. students. While these postgraduate students are typically understood as receiving the benefits of mentorship from an established professor, there are also numerous benefits for the universities and faculty who support them. These students can help augment the research of scholars who supervise them by asking new questions, investigating cutting-edge theories and contexts, collaborating on projects (whether as a professor's advisee, hired research assistant, or postdoctoral fellow), and developing their own robust bodies of scholarship as alumni. All of these actions help develop the material and scholarly capacity of the professors and universities. Professors who have not won the most elite government grant usually have reduced access to such students. One reason is because they are not allowed to supervise these students. This restriction is rather ironic for academics who earned their Ph.D. abroad or come from international universities, as they may have significant training, publications, grants, and Ph.D. students they developed outside of Hong Kong. For junior professors in the SAR, this scenario can generate considerable challenges as they individually prepare to meet 'international' standards of research and teaching. In my own efforts, I have tried to be a bit creative in achieving these benchmarks.

At the dinner with my colleagues, it came up that I had won some EdUHK awards for teaching, as determined by students and faculty. We talked a bit about my approach and they suggested that I write something about it which ended up being this article. In our conversation, I discussed my educational pipeline strategy in developing students, and my own work, to meet internationalisation standards. As a new assistant professor, and new to Hong Kong, I did not have immediate access to schools as research sites, or students who could help me conduct my research projects. Quite often my students were not confident in their English or traditional academic skills related to teaching or research. Frequently they had limited experiences and understandings with international contexts, and did not think highly of their academic skills. But what some students did have was an explicit desire to improve, goals of becoming a good teacher, and experiences with the struggles of growing up working-class and attending schools that were not of high rank or banding. With these realisations I decided on a strategy that focused on developing the skill sets of students in my classes, organically weaving them into research projects while at the university, and connecting them to future opportunities as Hong Kong educators. In addition, I discussed how some of these students may wish to become researchers in the future, whom I might have the chance to supervise or just collaborate with during their postgraduate studies. Altogether I viewed this strategy as an educational pipeline, which seeks to build points of access, development, and flow in preparing students for the future (Solorzano & Yosso, 2000). In order to best prepare the students along this pipeline, my pedagogy with them had to address some of their struggles, and uncover the relevant skills and experiences they already had. This pedagogy of possibility was informed by sociocultural learning and critical pedagogy, as well as my personal experience working in classrooms, programs, and organisations (Chang, 2015). In the next section I discuss how we organised this pedagogy and the educational pipeline.

Educational pipeline stages: Pedagogy and methodology

In this section, I outline major features of the educational pipeline strategy I have developed and used in Hong Kong. Applying principles of sociocultural learning and critical pedagogy, the overarching goals of the pipeline are to more effectively teach students in university courses, build their skill sets to be strong educators and researchers, and open up possible pathways for collaboration on future research. There are two aspects of this pipeline to keep in mind. One is that this pipeline was designed to help students and myself meet standards of internationalisation, especially in terms of learner-centred learning, LTL reforms, and being versed in international methods and contexts of education. The second aspect is that the pipeline does not have prescribed outcomes for students. Not all will go on to be educators, and not all have interests in research. Instead the outcomes focus more on how having some critical fluency in teaching and educational research that can help inform their daily lives and their sense of agency in addressing their needs and aspirations.

Stage 1: Teaching courses towards engagement and reflexivity

At the university, I teach various education courses for mostly undergraduates who come from different majors, but are generally thinking of going into education-related fields. The courses have English as the mode of instruction (EMI), and usually have second and third-year students. Course topics include theory, policy, and practice of curriculum, assessment, effective teaching, and educational research methods. The teaching load per semester is typically around three, which is not a lot for teaching-focused institutions, but considered heavy for those at research-focused campuses. The number of students per class in upper-division courses is higher than in North America, with about 35-40 undergraduates per class. In addition most of the students are taking 5-7 courses per semester, which is about double the amount taken by students in other leading countries of internationalisation. These numbers, coupled with pre-established course structures that put almost all marks on one or two final assignments (with no marks for class participation), tend to promote a culture where students try to efficiently focus their efforts on finals, and not on class engagement during the semester. This presents challenges to using student-centred learning and LTL practices, especially when students do not feel that comfortable speaking in EMI courses.

To address these challenges, I have kept in mind the simple concept that prioritising classroom engagement, instead of management or discipline, can make teaching more dynamic and effective. One way is by promoting a fun atmosphere in the classroom, such as through jokes (often with the course instructor being the subject of the joke), and explaining concepts through using pop culture such as film clips, cartoons, and anime. This lighter atmosphere tends to relax and open up students' socio-emotional state to diverse ideas. This seemingly simple practice is informed by critical and sociocultural theory, which encourages the use of popular culture to access students' everyday literacy practices, and encourages students to critically look at things found in their daily lives (Jocson, 2006). A related practice that lightens the atmosphere is something my mother encouraged me to do when I taught my first class as a schoolteacher. I occasionally get small snacks for the students, which surprisingly go a long way in showing students I am interested in their well-being and that I think of them beyond my compulsory workload.

A third way I promote engagement is explicitly taking the time to get to know students. Due to the enrolments I usually have each semester, I am not able to replicate some small group practices I have used at other campuses. However the guiding principles of sociocultural and critical approaches to student-centred pedagogy remain the same. These emphasise addressing students' lived experiences, which may include their backgrounds, hobbies, struggles, and aspirations. Some areas of educational research frame this approach as one of care (Howard, 2002), but I also connect it to the notion of re-humanising education for students and teachers alike (Tan, 2009), as they are often relegated to being just another number or low-priority customer/worker in the enormous machine that is today's university corporation. Some practices I use include:

- having students fill out a survey about themselves and education, and sharing it on the first day; this survey is compiled and I read it over to remember their names (I have them include their photo) and get to know them better to tailor the curriculum
- taking the time to briefly chat with students in and out of the class (e.g. in the canteen line, on the shuttle bus), and seem generally friendly or accessible
- being visible on campus by asking students to inform me about their events so I can possibly drop by and support; these include competitions of student-athletes, performances by music majors, and 'cultural awareness' days for 'ethnic minority' and 'foreign' students

In addition to asking students to share about their ideas and lived experiences in class, I also do the same to model the types of engagement that would benefit the class. This includes filling out and sharing the survey, letting students know about my background and interests (e.g. martial arts, hip-hop), and updating them on some things in my life. These practices are employed to foster a more humanising classroom in the sociocultural and critical sense, but they have also been used long before they were studied and theorised as such. In a recent meeting with three veteran teachers at a low-banded secondary school in Kowloon, they talked about how neoliberalisation has all but thrown practices of care and connection out of the window. These teachers remarked that they still make the time to do such practices because care and connection not only make teaching more worthwhile, they also enrich any lesson and are often the thing that students build their engagement and persistence on. Indeed in my experience, care and connections are some of the only things that students, especially from marginalised communities, can draw upon while immersed in the official curriculum and other alienating schooling structures.

But what of actual 'academic' practices? Thus far I may have seemed to only discuss pop culture, food, and socialising with students. To some, these practices represent the soft-side of education that are not in line with the hard data-driven, exam-oriented policies that signify twenty-first century education and global standards of excellence and accountability (Martin, 2017). My point in discussing the aforementioned 'soft' practices is to show that they should be prioritised in the classroom, especially when there are numerous constraints in context and structure towards meeting 'international' standards and reforms. Without care, connection, and humanisation, other 'more academic' practices may be less effective, if at all. However, I do design and implement such practices concurrently with critical and sociocultural methods. Examples of more mainstream practices include:

- assigning heterogeneous and homogeneous group work in-class, moving from smaller to larger collaborative groups; these groups are assigned or student-selected, but the premise is to diversify their social environments to better grasp and apply concepts

- conducting brief formative assessments, mostly in-class, and occasionally on-line, where students have to articulate their individually-informed ideas about content (e.g. occasional texts introduced via guided reading)

- assigning group presentations on topics of students' interest; these emphasise engaging pedagogy and require pre-presentation consultations in their small groups

- writing self and course assessments at the course's middle or end, concerning how to improve the course and their group presentation's strengths, weaknesses, and roles of group members (which addresses 'free riders')

Such practices are designed to provide a variety of participatory structures that students of diverse backgrounds and skills can engage in. Not all of them work for all students all the time, but that is not the objective. The objective is to purposely build in a host of 'angles' for different students to approach the content. They should be able to gravitate towards some of these 'angles' and apply them to their lives and society. Along with developing various 'angles' of student engagement and application, the activities are meant to promote reflexivity by the students and teacher. Here I employ a critical and sociocultural definition of reflexivity where students not only learn theories, policies and practices, they also explicitly and implicitly practise being reflexive. This means looking at the relationships and inter-connectedness of phenomena in schools, society and their own lives, and the roles that individuals and larger structures play in creating and possibly changing these phenomena (Doherty, Dooley, & Woods, 2013). When students practise reflexivity, they sometimes become more aware of their agency as an educator, researcher, or person in general. In critical pedagogy, this is called the process of developing critical consciousness, or conscientization, where learners feel more self-empowered to take steps to alter and improve their lived realities (Goodwin, 2010).

In classroom and academic discourse, educators who advocate practices of reflexivity, classroom community, and a more humanising pedagogy are sometimes criticised as being 'too soft' or not preparing students for the 'real world.' Having taught and researched with students from marginalised backgrounds of all ages, I have not found this to be true. Actually students from less privileged backgrounds are rather common at EdUHK, and they are quite cognisant of life's harsh realities. What the aforementioned practices can do is help students develop their own individualised foundation through which to tackle life's realities and develop as intellectuals and educators. On that note of being 'hard' or 'soft' when teaching, although I promote a classroom culture of care and community, I will also occasionally do things like scold students, take away their phones, and assign D or F grades to students who repeatedly do not engage in activities/assignments, or do not attend class. From day one I tell the students that the course atmosphere will generally be relaxed and fun, but when there is work to do, I expect them to get it done. By the time the class has developed a more cohesive culture and community, if they need accommodations they are expected to speak up and articulate themselves. Across these various elements of teaching and learning to become an effective educator, students sometimes ask me for a list or something to help them remember the different terms and concepts. While I tell them that we should be wary of essentialising effective teaching and that there is no 'magic bag of tricks' that applies everywhere, I do share an informally devised acronym of core teaching competencies ("PEPPRR") that helps them organise their thoughts:

- **Pedagogy** (clear connections between curriculum, instruction, assessment, policy, culture, politics)

- **Engagement** (active investment by students and teachers)

- **Praxis** (theory ← reflection → practice)

- **People Skills** (strong speaking, leadership, teamwork)

- **Reflexivity** (consistent open-mindedness, critique, adjustment)

- **Resilience** (on-going capacity to self-renew)

While I remind students that there is no one checklist for good teaching, it appears that explicitly tying these concepts together over the semester supports their learning processes as they are able to critique and bounce ideas off the "PEPPRR" conceptualisation.

Teaching outcomes and feedback

So what have been the outcomes of sociocultural and critical pedagogies in the first stage of our educational pipeline? Officially, evaluations from students and colleagues have been positive. In a previous section I mentioned distinctions awarded, which include "Outstanding Teaching Performance" in the Curriculum & Instruction (C&I) Department for the last two years, as well as "Top 10% Teaching" by the Faculty of Education & Human Development. These awards are generated at the department level, and then awarded within the faculty. Receiving these recognitions within C&I has been an honour as the Department has received the university's highest mean on student evaluations. As a professor who is not fluent in Cantonese, there have been obstacles in communicating with students. I know there is much room for improvement, but to receive distinctions, particularly those generated by students, lets me know that at least some of what we have been doing is effective.

Aside from official metrics, feedback from individual students has usually been positive. Godfrey (all students' names are pseudonyms), is a locally-born third-year Liberal Studies major. He commented that despite his limited English, our course got him talking with other students, meeting new people from other majors, and applying critical concepts to his secondary school teaching practice. Several second-year Science & Web Technology students, Michael, Pius and Alex, wrote that the formative assessments pushed them to do readings that they normally would not do, and they found the content helpful for their teaching despite being in English and often having international contexts. Finally, Sara, a student from mainland China I taught as a second-year English major, wrote me two years later to tell me that our class was the most useful for her teaching career. While there have of course been issues within classes, and the pedagogy will need to be continually updated, receiving the above feedback has been encouraging when trying to teach content and use methods consistent with international standards. In the next section on our educational pipeline, we move from teaching to developing a team to conduct research.

Stage 2: Assembling a diverse team

Aside from teaching, professors are expected to do service and research aligned with internationalisation. Often times, university academics find themselves working in silos, isolated from even their department colleagues, as evaluations of their work tend to reward individual 'performance.' For example, collaborative publications with colleagues from the same institution are indirectly discouraged as each author has to split credit for the article, which effectively reduces each person's funding and merits received. My personal approach to these policies has been to still engage in scholarly dialogue with EdUHK colleagues, but also foster collaborations with external academics. Another challenge has been finding research assistants (RAs) who are qualified, dependable, and willing to come out to our campus in the New Territories. As a junior scholar new to the SAR, I did not have many students or RAs seeking me out. In addition, being a scholar of critical theory and qualitative action research did not appeal as much to those who wanted to work within dominant paradigms of positivist and quantitative methodology (Erickson & Gutiérrez, 2002). These difficulties pushed me to look towards EdUHK students I did have access to, and develop an educational pipeline with those that had taken courses with me. In other words, since I did not have sustainable connections to research staff, or even research sites, I invested my time in training students to help with projects and become potential collaborators as future teachers and researchers, all while I further studied and made connections to the local context.

I began by contacting a few students that had received a Bs or As in the same class, but more importantly had asked questions and were open-minded to educational reform. I determined these factors by reviewing their work and my notes, and then contacted the students. I asked if they were interested in paid on-campus work, which would include teacher research projects and some administrative duties. I first recruited four students, two locally-raised 'Hong Kongers' of Chinese heritage, one from South Korea, and one from northern China. Some were from working-class families, others were from more upper-middle class backgrounds. I recruited this group because I wanted to allow for more diverse experiences and international considerations while researching Hong Kong, and because these students showed willingness to engage with different communities beyond typical 'mainland,' 'Hong Konger,' or 'ethnic minority' divisions. Informed by critical and sociocultural research on learning with and about diversity (e.g. language, class, nationality) beyond just tolerance, I believed that our members' backgrounds could facilitate transformative insights for all involved (Chang & Lee, 2012). This included myself as a diasporic Chinese raised and educated in the US, with parents who were born in China but migrated through Taiwan, Hong Kong, and Vietnam.

Before finalising the team, I asked each to submit a CV and come in for an individual interview. From the start I let the students know that their work was to be more than just clerical busywork or data entry. I informed them that the team would help holistically develop their skills as educators and researchers, that I would work with them to hone specific skills related to their aspirations, and that we would start with improving the CVs they had submitted. I also mentioned how the team would be an evolutionary next step of what we had developed in our class, moving beyond coursework to actual projects and programs on and off campus. After discussing logistics (e.g. office work for two hours each week, bi-monthly team meetings), I told them that they were on a trial run and if their participation was not consistently working out, I would have to let them go. After the interviews were conducted and the four signed on to the team, we began a series of introductory meetings devised to bring them up to speed with what I expected. As they had already gone through the same class, the team knew that the work culture would be more relaxed but a certain amount of focus, commitment, and sensitivity was required. We had about two readings to discuss in each initial meeting, which I allotted paid time for them to review in advance. These readings were a blend of classic international texts by scholar-practitioners that explored the use of critical and sociocultural pedagogies, as well as papers written by scholars in Greater China that addressed local issues. As all of the members planned on becoming teachers, I made it a point to read studies about how action research can be utilised to improve teaching and address educational inequities (Chiang, 2004; Storms, 2015). After a few reading group meetings, I had the students do on-line searches for research on related topics and personal interest. As they were somewhat familiar with doing APA-style bibliographies from university courses, I had them download free versions of EndNote and they practiced compiling a few entries that were shared amongst the team on-line. At this point the team was capable of helping me with basic literature reviews and notes on references.

At each meeting, an agenda was created with minutes taken by a different member each time. Taking minutes, writing bibliographies, and conducting literature reviews were activities I started the team on through a 'workshop' approach during each meeting. We did discuss the business items on our agenda, but I also trained them on effective ways of doing their tasks of scholarship and pedagogy. This approach provided a base of 'hard' skills for our research, but like my classroom teaching, I was also developing 'soft' skills. For example, crafting meeting agendas included scheduling and following-up on action items after the meeting, but there was also an opening 'Check-In' section where members briefly shared things they had been doing since the last meeting. When our schedules aligned, we would go to lunch or tea after meetings, and birthdays were celebrated through dinner off campus. These activities, like the 'Check-In,' were not academic in nature, but meant to build the team's cohesion similar to the aforementioned practices of getting to know each other in courses I taught.

Stage 3: Developing an action research project

The first project we worked on was a qualitative action research study examining uses of pop culture and education. The project conducted surveys, semi-structured interviews, and a focus group with about 35 students, teachers, and artists based in Hong Kong. At this point we collectively came up with the name PCRP for our team, which stood for the "Pop Culture and education Research Project." Funded by a small university grant, I deliberately progressed at a slower pace in conducting PCRP's activities, taking the time to walk the team through steps such as piloting the survey and interview protocols with peers, and then having them accompany me for initial interviews. While I could have completed PCRP more quickly on my own, I viewed it as the next stage of our educational pipeline that was building the capacity of our team to collect and analyse data. Here a grounded theory approach to data collection and analysis worked well for the team (Charmaz, 2008; Morrell, 2006). The iterative and reflexive nature of grounded theory with critical action research encouraged us to consistently and purposefully communicate about our research questions, what we were noticing within data collection, and how we might modify the next stage of our project to more dynamically address our lines of inquiry. This 'real-time' process usually took place at our team meetings or in office hours where we worked the data by hand.

After the five of us had been working together for over six months, some personnel changes were on the horizon. Yuri, our Korean team member, needed to return to her home institution to graduate, and the other three members (Charlie, Monica, Claire) were going abroad on their summer language immersion programs. This forced me to step up further development of the pipeline by recruiting another two students. In order to bring the new members up to speed, the existing team needed to coordinate the documentation of our project, reflect on our processes up to that point, and make modifications: all while wrapping up the interviews and transitioning towards the final data collection stage. So we streamlined the readings and workshops on methods, organised meeting minutes and data matrices, and compiled "Top 5" lists on things to know about PCRP. By the time we conducted the focus group in May, we had two new members of the team, former students of mine from a different class than the first PCRP cohort. Chelsea was of Chinese background who was born in Hong Kong but went to school in Southeast Asia. Brenda was born and raised in Hong Kong while her family was originally from India. As we prepared for the summer, all team members had experience in applying qualitative methods to research focused on improving teaching. Aside from our next steps in the educational pipeline, this training prepared the students for their university honours projects.

Stage 4: Building connections and collaborations

PCRP and the educational pipeline have emphasised theory/reflection/practice, or praxis, throughout its progression. In Stages 1 to 3, we learned key steps of social science research methodology and applied them in a research project. We also studied effective teaching in sociocultural and critical theory, and examined those effective practices with students/teachers in the field. Another important stage of praxis in the pipeline was connecting our work to the world beyond our team, projects, and campus. Key activities at this stage included coordinating events to share PCRP's work and collaborating with scholars (local and abroad). These activities helped the team to broaden their skill sets as they learned to plan and implement engaging events connected to our themes of pop culture, teaching, and educational equity. They also worked on these events with various scholars and their students/staff, which generated valuable experiences in bringing different people together under common goals. This also helped team members to network and build a more nuanced understanding of research in Hong Kong and abroad. Finally, they added to their skill sets by presenting and teaching about our research to their peers, the university community, and off-campus stakeholders like teachers and principals.

Our first effort was the "Critical Issues in Education Seminar Series" (CIES1) with Peter McLaren (Chapman University, USA). For CIES1, team members coordinated a social justice roundtable event with Peter and Margaret Lo (Hong Kong University), as well as an individual seminar by Peter. As this took place during the summer with less people on campus, the team had more opportunities to deliberate and arrange coordination. For CIES1, Yuri flew back from South Korea to help Chelsea and Brenda while the others were on immersion. For CIES2 the following semester, the program coordination was more complicated as we had two scholars visiting, Liang Du (Beijing Normal University) and Wayne Au (University of Washington, USA), and we coordinated two individual seminars, two school visits with teachers, and a roundtable with Angel Lin (University of Hong Kong). While team members were busier with CIES2 taking place during the semester, all but one were present so it enabled greater collaboration and communal support. This also allowed the team to run a workshop that shared PCRP's findings via activities about effective teaching and educational reform. Throughout these events, EdUHK colleagues were supportive and PCRP members were able to make connections with them and their work. Altogether, the team's praxis was strengthened at this pipeline stage by going beyond readings and individual research, to fostering connections and collaborations with educators doing related critical and sociocultural work. At this stage the benefits of the pipeline progressed in multiple directions as it merged with the activities and programs of other scholars, faculties, and institutions, including international work.

Towards future praxis and sustainability

At the time this article was written, the team was preparing for CIES3 and was accepted to do a group presentation at an academic conference with other Hong Kong teacher educators. PCRP also shifted its efforts to new projects addressing high-stakes exams and parent resistance, Filipino/a secondary teachers, and pre-service teachers and interculturality. With these shifts we refashioned our name to the "Project for Critical Research, Pedagogy & Praxis." During this period, I asked the six members to reflect on their experiences. At the time Brenda and Chelsea were year-three students, working as tutors and applying their PCRP training to their B.Ed. courses. Monica, Charlie, and Claire were beginning their senior thesis projects and classroom field experiences, and were thus utilising their PCRP experiences. Yuri had become an English teacher but was also planning to eventually apply for Master's programs. To maintain her research skills, she applied to a Korean national conference on multicultural education, and was accepted to present on a comparative project she had done in Hong Kong. All members seemed to make positive connections between their lives and PCRP, but I did ask them to further critique their process with PCRP and the educational pipeline.

Coming from Southeast Asia, Chelsea said she benefited from learning more about Hong Kong's system in comparison with other countries through literature review and engaging with international scholars. In her everyday studies she built up the confidence to persistently tackle difficult readings in her coursework, given her experiences with PCRP's more rigorous scholarship. Brenda indexed her development of reflexivity, stating that she was able to, “reflect on my own experiences and think deeply about the issues that affected me as a student.” She also wrote about how she had improved her ability to work with people from diverse backgrounds, and her mindset concerning what a teacher can actually do.

From the first cohort, Claire talked about how PCRP presented her with analytical tools to look at problems in more dynamic ways. She stated, “I discuss more complicated issues and concepts with others now…I’m more able to react to different issues. I sometimes think of solutions to social problems that seem feasible.” For Charlie, he saw the benefits of using international perspectives for research. As a primary teacher, he stated that his pedagogy would be able to mediate between traditional direct instruction and critical dialogue. Coming from mainland China with the least English experience, Monica did not have the most confidence in her communication and also noted I could be strict at times with deadlines and sensitivity to issues. However, she appraised her skill set as having improved in not only speaking, but also academic readings, research skills, and critical consciousness. Monica, Charlie, and Yuri reported that our educational pipeline served as an equitable space to think and work on ideas to improve their own everyday agency. Finally Yuri shared, “It always felt like I was having private tutoring when we talked about concepts during the PCRP meeting and further readings…what I learned in HK during 1 year was so much more than I learned for 3 years before.” She also wrote, “All of the inspiring researchers I’ve met were actual teachers who worked in classrooms before they got into research. By witnessing their authentic work, it made me desire to have the same experience.” Aside from the individual feedback above, all members expressed the goal of at least earning a Master’s degree that would include further research. Between their studies, jobs, and future aspirations, PCRP and the educational pipeline appeared to provide experiences that would help sustain their development.

In looking back to the past 2.5 years of the PCRP team, there were some challenges in terms of communication and task delegation. We were often pressed for time and had to multi-task, and we had to be supportive when we were under stress or made mistakes. Occasionally the newer members were confused when they first joined, although the other members helped bring them up to speed. At times I questioned my ability to guide the team along various paths of pedagogy and methodology, and see the projects to fruition in an environment that is not always friendly to critical theory and action research. The classroom sections of our educational pipeline also had their share of difficulties when students were confused, lacked confidence, or did not see the relevance of personal and societal issues to Hong Kong education. In such times I had to revisit some of the great mentorship I had in the past as a student, teacher, and researcher, and how strategies of dialogue, problem-posing, reflexivity, and community-building were key.

Overall, whether it was previous mentors or theories, being mindful of our foundations of care, humanisation, equity, and social justice was helpful as we travelled new and divergent paths with PCRP and its embedded educational pipeline. It took more initial planning to get going in my courses, but eventually it saved time as the courses were cohesive and students got much more out of meeting 'internationalisation' standards. The end result of these pedagogies was a more rewarding experience for teacher and student, and they allowed me to establish the pipeline that would cultivate subsequent opportunities for all of us to more authentically and sustainably learn, teach, and research at 'appropriate' levels of internationalisation. Instead of duplicating a stereotypical teacher-centred pedagogy in the daily pursuit of 'international' curriculum, a sociocultural and critical pedagogy helped me, not just the students, grow in the classroom beyond well-meaning but often stifling benchmarks. While internationalisation standards and policies will continue to shift in Hong Kong, and contexts of students and communities will change, the aforementioned experiences and feedback gathered with students have provided some solid and flexible strategies to move forward in our capacities of teaching, service, and scholarship in higher education.

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建立高等教育的管道：以社會文化及批判性方法促「國際化」教學和研究

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摘要

本文探討於中華人民共和國香港特別行政區內，以社會文化及批判性方法促使　國際化　高等教育。本文研究在制定具吸引力和嚴謹性的高等院校教育方案，藉批判教育學（critical pedagogy）和社會文化學習理論的整合，從而指引院校達成短期和長期的國際化教育標準。本文基於一個為培養來自不同背景本科生成為具影響力的教師和研究員的計劃。計劃重點包括讓相關本科生在日常生活和工作上重視及應對的社會公義議題。本文藉教育管道為方針，探討持續地將高等教育「國際化」。所謂的教育管道，由本科生作開端，向教學、研究生及研究等領域邁進。其基於教育法和方法論基礎之上，有助於建立教育公平和更人性化的教育。

關鍵詞

高等教育，課程，教師教育，反思理論，香港

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從中國人的學習文化和心理看香港高等教育國際化

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摘要

教育乃一種包含使命感的文化傳承過程，是人類文明進步不可或缺的重要部分。中國文化源遠流長，孕育了中國人獨有而且優秀的教育理念和學習文化。近年各地積極探討高等教育國際化，為此，本文嘗試從中國人的學習文化和心理關聯探討香港高等教育國際化。

關鍵詞

香港高等教育，教育國際化，中國人學習，學習心理

序言

近年各地積極探討高等教育國際化，研究各種有效的發展策略，務求令高等教育界達致卓越，以提高整體的國際競爭力。從經濟角度看，將教育當成一種可銷售的服務行業似乎是理所當然。但作為一位心理和教育工作者，我會視教育為一種包含使命感的文化傳承過程，是人類文明進步不可或缺的重要部分，是永久延續人類文明和創造福祉的基石。因此，我嘗試從中國人的學習文化和心理關聯探討香港高等教育國際化。

中國人的教與育

中國人的教育包含了兩個層次。許慎在《說文解字》謂:「教,上所施下所效也;育,養子使作善也。」亙古至今以儒家之道德倫理作為社會制度骨幹的中國人社會裡,「教」是從上而下的灌輸,簡單來說就是輩份高的人怎麼做,輩份低的人就跟著幹。「教」是第一層次,人們通過施教和仿效將知識技巧、思想理念、規矩習慣世世代代傳承下去。「育」比「教」的層次更深。「育」是培養後代令他們達到至善境界。儘管這種個人完美的境界遙不可及,家長和老師仍然有責任鞭策子女和學生成才,使他們擁有完美德性。「教」傳播了人類的知識和文化,「育」則令人領悟人性,縱然在千變萬化的環境中都能時刻保存人類的真善美。

早於春秋時代(前 711 – 476),秦朝最先定下「士農工商」的概念,將社會階級劃分,並以「士」(學者)為首。士子被視為社會上擁有豐富道德知識的人,受教育的程度最高。這種根據道德教育程度分成等級的社會制度,深深影響了中國人的自我觀、學習觀念和動機——只有受到良好教育的士子能夠並且必需擔當社會的重要角色。從漢代起(約公元前 206 至公元 200)至接近清代末年(1905),中國一直沿用舉薦制度來選拔官吏。隋代所創立的科舉更主導了中國近千多年的選秀模式。科舉建立在「為才是舉」的概念上,以智慧、資歷和品格作為選秀標準,提拔優秀的民間人才,並消除了先秦分封世襲的門閥限制。人民可以自由報考統一的公開考試,從此教育便成為了人民向上層社會流動的階梯,並為中國社會以考試主導的學習模式奠定了基礎。

家庭與教育

一、家長教養心態

長久以來,中國的家長是十分重視子女的教育。一方面教育子女是父母的天職,所謂「養不教,父之過」。教育是為了向子女傳承家族和社會正確的價值觀,確保他們不會做出「愧對祖宗,枉為人」的事。養而不教就是父母的過失,有損父母應當的理想形象;另一方面父母打從心底是很希望子女能夠求學成才。中國名言:「萬般皆下品,唯有讀書高」恰好反映中國人相信良好教育固有之價值,並且對學習和學術成就的重視。若果子女金榜高中,必能為子女本身、為父母、為整個家族帶來

榮譽和可以預期的幸福將來。所以，管教子女是父母應盡的教育義務，也是提高家族社會地位的途徑。中國的家長在子女學習上擔當很重要的角色，既是道德模範，亦是權威的學習督導員。

所以，中國父母認為自己是為孩子訂下和執行操守準則的權威，這乃是父母社會化的專責，為促成子女的成就要高度投入，愛護和關注。尤其是母親，既要慈祥（仁慈、富同情心和和藹），也要嚴格（嚴肅、嚴厲和管教有序）。只是慈祥並不足夠，並會被 責為「慈母多敗兒」（仁慈的母親多教養了沒出色的孩兒）。所以 Chao, Dong 和 Zhou（1997）認為中國父母有相當高的教養觀念。Chao（1994）將「教訓」（去教和訓練）加進中國父母的管教模式，「教訓」是父母透過監管、經常提點和示範來協助子女積極適應合群和道德生活。這種管教模式與 Baumrind（1967 & 1971）形容的嚴愛型（authoritative）父母較為接近。嚴愛型父母對孩子多要求，多關愛，亦較關注孩子的需要和能力。他們傾向對孩子有合理和合適的期望，經常以溫情、關愛、誘導和鼓勵方法管教孩子，這與孩子建立信心和積極生活取向而所產生的強烈上進心和優秀學業表現有正面關聯。

二、子女學習動機

作為子女，從小就在父母的潛移默化中，認定學習和獲取學術成就是回饋父母的一種直接方法，是一種「孝」的表現。事實上，中國的孩子很明白父母對他們學業的極高期望。清朝康熙年間著名教育家李毓秀所著的《弟子規》，內容採用了《論語》「學而篇」裡的文義，列述了學童們在生活、待人處事和學習方面的規範。其開首為 :「弟子規，聖人訓。首孝悌，次謹信。」從先秦至清代二千五百年間，「百行以孝為先」的概念植根在中國人的思想中。「孝」在中國社會是基本也是崇高的道德觀念，是中國人建構其個人、家庭和社會價值觀的基石。另外，學習，除了是回饋父母的養育之恩，也是爭取個人成功和家族榮耀的一種手段。因為只有通過學習和考取功名，出生下等階層的平民才能有機會突圍而出，脫離卑賤和貧窮的生活。

中國人的學習行為與心理關聯

人通過各種感官接觸外間事物，透過大腦的思考，伴隨情感的體驗，以行為反映對事物的認知和感覺。根據行為心理學家的觀點，人在受到外在環境刺激時會作

出相對的行為反應，過程中所產生的信息，包括影像、聲音、感覺等都會被記下來。當過程不斷重複，人逐漸了解環境刺激與行為的關係，每次汲取的信息都會累積成「學習經驗」。這種經驗就是人藉著學習從而影響行為的心理基礎。從心理角度看，人是因為需求而學習，Maslow（1943）為人類的需要分了層次，最基本的是基本生理和安全需要，然後有愛的需要、受尊重的需要，還有自我成就和超越靈性的需要。所以人類的學習不僅是為了生存，還要滿足精神層面的需要。此外，人類是群居動物，學習亦不單是個人行為、還是集體行為，人是會為群體社會的福祉而學習。

中國人認為學習是：學屬知，習屬行。學是指知識和經驗的累積，習是指知識和經驗的實踐。學習的最高境界乃是「知行合一，達到至善」。在這裡，「知行合一」的知，並非表面所謂的知識，實質是良知的意思。雖然孔子也強調「格物致知」（即探究事物原理，而從中獲得智慧），可是良知的學習往往淩駕於事物原理的學習之上，中國人的核心學習乃道德規範而非生活知識。

一、學習心態

長年累月受到儒家思想文化的洗禮，以及傳統社會意識（特別是階級制度）的薰陶，中國人「自抹消我」的一種尊重和謙卑的觀念很重（Li, 2003; Sun, 2012）。君子要抱有虛心的學習態度，才能達到道德的至善境界。上文提到「教，上所施下所效也」，這是單向的灌輸，並不存在互動的作用。中國人對權威抱有盲目而不加批判的絕對尊重，並將這種尊卑的心態伸延到課堂學習中，這大概是受孔子重道德，講孝道的思想影響。中國俗語有云：「一日為師，終身為父」，老師既是知識技術的專家，是道德行為的楷模，也是地位與父輩相當的一個權威人物，所以一般中國人普遍認為批評和挑戰老師是不尊敬的，而且學生多願意接受老師對他們嚴苛和責罰（Woodrow & Sham, 2001）。

學習時心要謙卑，行要謹慎。中國人著重規則和操守，默默在旁觀察學習是中國社會一種待人處事的規矩，亦是成熟和明白事理的表現。故此，中國人的課堂，一般都被認為是單向，被動。學生會避免於課堂上提出批評的問題，也甚少主動回答問題。一來是要尊師重道，不能令老師蒙羞，二來是怕問錯和答錯而丟臉（Sun, 2012）。臉在中國社會是社羣對一個人品質的信任。若一個人做了丟臉的事，就是做了這個社羣不容許和不被接納的行為。這表明了此人修養不足，亦很自然歸咎於

父母的疏忽管教。丟臉的人的社會地位很低，甚至備受鄙視。於是學生上課的態度都較為約束和內斂，避免破壞課堂上的和諧氣氛。中國人的學習講求「聽話」，並不鼓勵自我表達和言語溝通。這種心態是結合了中國文化和社會學習心理而建構。Bandura（1977）所提出的社會學習論，認為學習是社會環境、個人對環境的認知和個人行為三種因素持續交互作用的歷程。通過觀察和模仿，人學習如何為家庭及社會所接受，是種社會性的學習。人從行為後果帶來的懲罰或獎賞而正面或負面強化行為表現。這正正是剛才提到「臉」（面子）的功能。

二、務實保守主義

由於考試制度給予人民向上流動的機會，滿足人民求勝的心理需要，受中國奉行的考試文化所影響，中國人傾向背誦、規劃和有序的重複，亦偏愛緩慢、循序漸進而準確的方法，喜歡詳盡的大綱和列點而不喜歡假設和推敲（Sun, 2012）。學習是一件非常嚴肅的事，關乎個人與家族榮辱，所以必須務實、保守、有效和實際。雖然這種務實思想的確是達到獲取和保留知識的學習目標，但就被質疑窒礙了中國學習者的反省認知能力，包括：獨立批判思考、自省、建立理性思考和證據為本的連貫論點、應用知識解決困難和將學術的學習聯繫到每天的生活（Ho, Peng, & Chan, 2001; Sun, 2012）。在集體文化的影響下，人們甚少在穩定和安逸中追求適應性的衝擊，更不會在集體以外尋求創新的轉變（Kim, 2009）。中國學生亦普遍以將來的職業取向來選科。他們相信學業成就可以帶來一份好工作，可以實踐個人志向和家族期望，可以贏取聲譽和顏面。

三、焦慮和抑鬱

Yee（1989）曾經就中國學生的焦慮問題進行跨國研究。研究發現超過一半在海外留學的中國學生出現嚴重焦慮。他們的焦慮成因來自四個方面：學業成績壓力、沉重的功課量、不適應英語學習和缺乏社交關聯。而香港和台灣地區的學生亦相較美國的學生存在更高的焦慮感。中國人因學習問題而導致焦慮和抑鬱實在是相當普遍。中國社會亦甚為輕視心理和情緒問題，原因有二：第一，集體文化下，個人福祉經常被蔑視；第二，表達負面情感會破壞社會和諧，並不容許（Sun, 2012）。中國教育制度以通過考試競爭為主，而且一個人的教育往往包含了很多人（包括學生、父母、老師、家族等）的努力與犧牲，學生自然承擔著很多人的責任和期望。學習

就是責任，本身已是一項艱鉅的任務，並不輕鬆。在熾熱的考試文化下，學習就是考試，那麼考試分數就是量度學生有否履行責任的一把尺。這個把學習、考試與責任並提而引起恐懼的心理關連，是種制約心理反應（Conditioning response）。學生一想起考試，就會害怕失敗，亦會為失敗而感到內疚。失敗的學生很可能受到父母和老師的責備或同儕的漠視，感到巨大壓力和自尊受損。學生會容易表現較負面的身心行為以逃避學習和考試，輕度的困擾包括失眠、食慾不振、社交障礙、自卑等。嚴重的情況會令學生失去希望和變得憤世嫉俗（Smith, 1997）。因學業問題導致的自殺個案在中國社會亦屢見不鮮。

香港學生學習現況

一、中小學階段

儘管香港是個中西文化薈萃的國際大都會，香港人種種的心理和行為，無不有著中華民族文化的「烙印」。香港學生與家長在學習上的心理表現都反映了中國人的傳統特質，例如內斂、嚴肅。而在學習行為上一般都趨向保守、被動。在探討香港高等教育前，我先從香港中小學生的課堂行為透視他們普遍的學習心理。中小學課堂特別注重秩序和守規矩。學生井言有序地，坐在已被安排的坐位上，老師進入課室後同學們站立鞠躬，坐下後安靜上課。課程安排亦非常緊湊，整個學年都充斥著評估和考試，學習的內容是主要圍繞考試為主。課外補習風氣盛行，一個 2011/12 年度的調查以問卷訪問 16 間中學共 1,720 名學生，發現 54% 中三學生有補習，就讀中六的文憑試考生，比例更高達 72%（Bray & Kwo, 2014）。促成補習風氣的主因，是一般家長和學生都認為補習有助考上著名中學，再攀上重點大學，這種可帶來巨大回報的投資是值得。雖然許多父母都不曾讀過關於教育投資回報率的實證研究（Kara, 2010），但會有「長期接受優質教育的人就會有越高的收入和生活水平」的強烈印象。家長和老師總是擔心在學校表現不好及學習成績差的學生，怕他們將來升學和就業的路崎嶇難行（Bray & Lykins, 2012）。因此出現很多所謂的「直昇機父母」、「怪獸家長」，他們過度溺愛和保護子女，事事代勞，使子女養成依賴性格，失去自主學習的動力。香港教育學院（現為香港教育大學）於 2014 年曾探討香港華人學生的學習動機。調查表明了約 20% 中學生用功讀書是為了報答父母，近 7% 欲貢獻社會，約 40% 希望能找到人工高職位好的工作，以照顧父母。

這些行為現象，正正反映香港學生循規蹈矩、力求上進，其動機與中華文化有深切關係。

二、大學階段

香港奉行精英教育主義，校內和中學公開考試成績好，獲大學取錄的機會自然高，在科目上的選擇亦多。可惜，大部分學生都會先看學校排名、校園設施、就業前景等外在因素，而甚少從自己的興趣和能力等內在因素去考慮選讀哪間學校和科目。現時香港的大學科目，以醫科、法律、工商管理最難考入，成為尖子所謂的「神科」。據香港大學和香港中文大學之收生公佈結果，2017 年文憑試六名考獲最高成績的「狀元」，全數入讀了兩院校的醫科課程。這種爭讀某些專業科目的現象一直相當普遍。本地報章《香港 01》曾統計，由 2011/12 至 2015/16 年的 42 名狀元中，約 55% 讀醫、約 24% 讀法律。事實上純理科和純文科一向不是學生的首選，近日亦有大學因報讀人數少而取消數理主修科的問題惹起爭議（林炳坤、鄧穎琳，2017）。這些情況反映了學生的學習取向側重專業和實用性，院校亦會因資源問題在平衡學術和經營上需要作出取捨或妥協。在這種氛圍下，學生被社會規則所限的保守心態驅使下，的確忽略了自身真正的興趣和學習需要。

傳統學習心態對高等教育國際化進程的影響

大學教育資助委員會（教資會）在其 2010 年的（展望香港高等教育體系報告）內提到香港「需要一個多元化、資源充足和富創意的專上教育界」。委員會亦闡述高等教育的功能是：傳授技能、培養創意及推動創新；令大學生放眼世界，並建立正確道德觀和行為守則。而大學生的學習經歷，應着重鞏固個人及社會責任感。香港政府自九七回歸前後已積極推行香港國際教育的改革，尤其推進香港高等教育國際化。各所高等院校紛紛投放龐大資源發展科研、推動國際學術交流、聘請海外著名學者、錄取國內外優秀學生、引入高端學習科技、增加課程國際元素等，務求提升國際排名，積極與外界建立關係，加強及維持院校的全球競爭力。

雖然政府強調推動院校國際化並不表示院校會忽略傳統價值觀念和本地需要，但從上述現今的香港學生學習現況，似乎實際與理想還是有段距離。

一、側重工作前景，忽略興趣培養

學生選擇修讀有前途的學科本不是壞事，但只懷著畢業後找到好工作的心態而沒有評估自身對學科的興趣和性向，這個情況並不利創意和創新的推動。從教資會網站供搜尋的資料顯示，2015/16 年八大共有 1,178 名大學生終止學業，比較 2009/10 年增了多達 76%。雖然退學人數急升的主要原因有待進一步研究，但從上述學生普遍選科的心態來看，相信是興趣與學科錯配，導致學生失去繼續學習的動力，繼而影響學習表現和成績。若果成績差又未能轉科，學生往往要退學另覓出路。就算學生選擇堅持完成課程，整個學習過程可能充滿困難和焦慮，降低學習的自我效能和信心。事實上，興趣是自主學習及創新研究的先決條件，好奇心是持久學習的動機。單靠加強國際化的大學教育資源根本解決不了學生缺乏動力去提升學習的問題，而且在大學才處理問題亦已經太遲。此外，上述提到學生的學習取向實際，所以一些較受歡迎的學科都是技術科目而非學術科目，技術科目所包含的研究部分在一般學士程度的課程也較少，這無疑是窒礙發展本地學生對學術繼續研究的興趣。據教育局於 2014 年的資料，在受資助的八大院校就讀碩士及博士課程的 2,000 多名學生中，佔近七成是內地學生，共 1,600 多人，人數比本港學生多兩倍（香港特別行政區政府新聞公佈，2014）。雖然高等教育國際化理應吸納不同地方的優秀人才，但這個數據確實反映了廿年來高教界所致力推動的國際化未有好好培養本地學生對學科研究的興趣，這是整個界別需要重新審視的地方。

二、自我要求過高，增加學習壓力

香港中文大學新聞與傳播學系於 2016 年曾進行一項大學生普遍的學業壓力來源和壓力指數調查，結果顯示，九成二（332 人）大學生承認對學業感到壓力，以 10 分為滿分，當中近六成評價學業壓力指數為 7 或 8 分，平均分為 6.86 分（大學線，2016）。由於配合教育國際化、加上近年大專院校提倡全人教育，故為學生提供許多課外的社會體驗活動、學術交流的機會。學生近乎疲於奔命地申請不同獎學金、參加各項學生活動，但同時也要兼顧學業成績。大學比中學的評核方法複雜，功課量也相當繁重，例如做課堂匯報、寫論文報告、測驗考試，令學生吃不消。相比中學井然有序的學習生活，對於自主性高而且繁忙的大學生活，學生要有更佳的時間管理和處理壓力的方法。可惜很多學生都未能好好掌管時間的運用，有時會因為課

外活動太忙而蹺課，因而影響學業成績，造成更多壓力。大學生的情緒問題日益嚴重，自殺個案增加，反映學生面對大學「放眼世界、擴闊視野」的學習生活甚為不知所措。

香港高等教育國際化的出路

隨著社會發展，現代學習環境比古代優越很多。古人攀山涉水才可以上學，現代人按一下鍵盤就能知天下事。古今的學習內容和方式也很不同，古人所學的禮、樂、射、御、書、數也未必符合現代性。那麼為何還要從先秦時代談起中國人的教育呢？這是因為社會文化、思想、理念的發展是源遠流長，中國人的學習心理早由二千年前諸子百家學術思想大開放的時期即已孕育萌芽，縱然廿一世紀在香港這個中西文化交匯的地方學習，只要是在中國人的家庭中長大，那種保守、被動、實際的學習心理依然存在。中國父母重視子女學業的教養心態、子女回饋父母的務實學習動機、以考試作為選拔人才的客觀標準，在中國社會都是很合理不過的概念。我們並不要推翻中國人的教育文化以西方那套哲學理念取而代之，因為每種社會文化都是值得尊重，但對於歪曲了的教養心態和學習風氣必須加以修正，才能讓我們的教育邁向真正的發展。香港高等教育國際化不能空談內容、形式和方法，而是需要適合本土價值觀和心理需要。若沒有解決本地學生根本的學習問題，香港再有更高的國際排名也是枉然。

從現代教育角度看，大學是培育具世界觀的未來領袖之搖籃。而整個高等教育界所推動之學生為本、全人教育、多元發展、終身學習，都是實現這個目標的基本教育方向。政府需要在基礎教育開始全人和多元思維訓練。若要推動創新和科研的發展，可從跨學科的知識訓練做起。跨學科訓練令學生甚至老師涉獵不同範疇的科目，從而促進科目之間的聯想，激發新的思維和興趣，並大大擴闊學習和研究的國際視野。跨學科訓練不限於純理論的科學研究，還可以是人文和社會科學的應用研究，實證研究等。

作為一個多元化的經濟體系，所有行業和科目都是各具社會和經濟功能。但在精英教育主義和考試文化下，某些專業和行業被受吹捧。香港若要有全面的發展與世界接軌，則要提升其他被忽略行業和科目的地位。事實上，政府已重新推廣應用

技能（例如建造業、服務業等）職業的重要性。另外，對一些文化保存和人文發展的科目，政府和高等教育界都需要給予多點支持和肯定。當香港社會認同不同科目和行業的貢獻，學生自然在大學有更多的學科選擇，從而有更強的學習動力與滿足感，減少「為過關而考試，為考試而學習」的那份壓力感。畢業後學生亦能夠容易尋找適合自己職業取向的工作，在自己有興趣的行業發揮所長，爭取個人榮譽以回饋父母。這樣更配合學生務實主義的心理，亦促進了香港人力市場的發展。

大學學生受壓力和情緒困擾都是高等教育界必須要正視的問題，這些負面心理表現除了影響個人健康，若然沒有妥善處理還會釀成風氣，影響整個社會。雖然在大學學生已可自主地學習和生活，但一般大學生還是十七、八歲的青少年，還未離開青春期。從心理學角度看，他們獨立意向強，想擺脱父母的約束，情緒多變，喜歡與異性交往，社會經驗不足。因此，他們特別需要正確的指導，並且需要時間適應截然不同的大學生活。很多學生以為參加許多活動有利他們將來的就業，但過多的學習和課外活動只會令他們更頭昏腦脹，莫說要如何去開拓個人潛能。我認為大學可為學生設計學習形式輕鬆，考核內容簡單的核心或必修通識科，特別教授個人成長，生涯規劃、情緒管理，時間管理和道德培養的課題。這既可以在有限的四年大學時間深化學生個人和社會應有的價值觀，也可為學生融入大學生活提供適切指導。

總結

香港高等教育要成功邁向國際化需要宏觀和長遠的計劃藍圖，除了有發展經濟的考慮，還要配合社會文化和學習者心理的特質，才能真正做到屬於本土的全人教育，建立屬於香港的絕對優勢。此外，我們亦需要正視現在香港學生面對的學習問題，反思如何求同存異，在西方新思維的啟蒙下，同時能夠保存中國優秀的學習和教育心理特質，培養良好學習態度和正確教育觀。傳承和弘揚中華文化的根和魂是保持社會質素和競爭力的不二法門，因為社會和諧一向是經濟發展的重要基礎。這有賴政府的推動，致力給予良好的教育環境，為孩子打好健康的心理基礎，讓他們更勇敢面向世界，接受挑戰。

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Internationalization of higher education in Hong Kong – From the cultural and psychological perspectives of Chinese learning

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Abstract

Education as a process that embraces a mission of cultural inheritance is an indispensable part of human civilization. Chinese culture has a long history during which Chinese people have developed their own unique but superior educational values and learning culture. In recent years, there is an active discussion on internationalization of higher education among various countries and regions. To this end, this article will examine the internationalization of Hong Kong higher education from the cultural and psychological perspectives of Chinese learning.

Keywords

Hong Kong higher education, education internationalization, Chinese learning, psychology of learning

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「一帶一路」倡議對香港特區發展國際高等教育的機遇

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摘要

「一帶一路」倡議是中國政府的國家政策，當中充滿發展機遇。香港特區位處「一帶一路」的東方起點，亦得先天之利。然而，現時香港面對「一帶一路」倡議的發展機遇，重點在於金融商貿，忽略了發展國際高等教育的良好時機。雖然香港的高等教育在過去多年已經招徠眾多中國內地學生，但是對於發展國際高等教育，仍未有大戰略的宏觀看法。文中就香港面對「一帶一路」倡議的發展機遇，建議以四大學術領域來發展國際高等教育，打造「一帶一路」倡議的國際教育中心。

關鍵詞

「一帶一路」倡議，國際高等教育，發展機遇，產業

引言

2015 年 3 月 28 日，中國國家發展改革委、外交部、商務部，三個政府部門聯合發佈了《推動共建絲綢之路經濟帶和 21 世紀海上絲綢之路的願景與行動》，醞釀一時的「一帶一路」倡議，正式由理念落實為國家具體政策。「一帶一路」倡議的理念，在 2013 年 9 月和 10 月，中國國家主席習近平在出訪中亞和東南亞國家期間，先後提出共建「絲綢之路經濟帶」和「21 世紀海上絲綢之路」的倡議，當時得到國際社會高度關注。後來中國國務院總理李克強參加 2013 年中國－東盟博覽會

時強調，鋪陳面向東盟的海上絲綢之路，打造帶動腹地發展的戰略支點。依中國政府的願景，「一帶一路」倡議的提出是，建設有利於促進沿線各國經濟繁榮與區域經濟合作，加強不同文明交流互鑒，促進世界和平發展，是一項造福世界各國人民的偉大事業。

「一帶一路」是「絲綢之路經濟帶」和「21 世紀海上絲綢之路」的簡稱。中國官方英文全稱譯為「The Silk Road Economic Belt and the 21st-Century Maritime Silk Road」，「一帶一路」倡議簡稱譯為「The Belt and Road」Initiative。「一帶一路」倡議的大戰略發展，是中國經濟和世界經濟高度關聯，對外開放並構建全方位開放新格局，深度融入世界經濟體系的基本國策。（百度，2017）根據中國國家領導人的構思，「一帶一路」倡議將充分依靠中國與有關國家既有的雙多邊機制，包括借助既有的、行之有效的區域合作平台，並借用古代絲綢之路的歷史符號，高舉和平發展的旗幟，積極發展與沿線國家的經濟合作夥伴關係，共同打造政治互信、經濟融合、文化包容的利益共同體、命運共同體和責任共同體。「一帶一路」包含的地區，貫穿亞歐非三個大陸，一邊是新興的東亞經濟圈，另一邊是發達的歐洲經濟圈，而中間廣大腹地的國家，經濟發展潛力巨大。絲綢之路經濟帶，陸上重點貫通中國經中亞、俄羅斯至歐洲（波羅的海），中國經中亞、西亞至波斯灣、地中海，中國至東南亞、南亞、印度洋。21 世紀海上絲綢之路發展方向，是從中國沿海港口，經南中國海到印度洋，延伸至歐洲，或從中國沿海港口過南中國海到南太平洋。「一帶一路」倡議涵蓋國家至少 65 多國，覆蓋面積約 5539 平方公里，約佔全球總面積的 41.3%，惠及人口達 44 億，區域經濟總量達 27.4 萬億美元，經濟規模是全球 38.2%。「一帶一路」是中國未來的百年大計。（MBA 智庫百科，2017）

根據「一帶一路」倡議的走向，陸上依託國際大通道，以沿線中心城市為支撐，以重點經貿產業園區為合作平台，共同打造新亞歐大陸橋、中蒙俄、中國－中亞－西亞、中國－中南半島等國際經濟合作走廊。海上以重點港口為節點，共同建設通暢安全高效的運輸大通道。中國為推動區域經濟一體化作出了很多戰略規劃，包括：21 世紀海上絲綢之路戰略、絲綢之路經濟帶戰略、中印緬孟經濟走廊戰略、中巴經濟走廊戰略、東北亞經濟整合戰略等。這些戰略中，每個規劃都是以區域經濟一體化為核心的，每個規劃都是以中國的國家戰略為基礎的，每個規劃都是符合亞太，乃至亞歐幾乎所有成員國的戰略利益。（MBA 智庫百科，2017）當中除了在金融、

工業、科技、基建、能源等經濟領域的合作與開發，發掘區域內市場的潛力，促進投資和消費，創造需求和就業，亦包括了文化教育上的國際交流，增進沿線各國人民的人文交流與文明互鑒，讓各國人民相逢相知、互信互敬，共用和諧、安寧、富裕的生活。（百度，2017）由此可見，「一帶一路」倡議的大戰略，可說是全方位的國際合作機遇。

從地緣上來說，香港位於「一帶一路」的起點區，從任何一方面而言，香港本身的整體發展，不可能脱離於「一帶一路」倡議的大戰略之外，事實上，香港作為世界大都會，不可能不對「一帶一路」倡議的大戰略作出貢獻。「一帶一路」倡議大戰略的成功條件，除了雄厚的經濟實力，亦需要深厚的文化積累和教育實施，正因如此，「一帶一路」倡議的大戰略，對香港的影響，不單是局限於經濟發展，也必然涉及文化、教育的層面。「新絲綢之路大學聯盟」在 2015 年成立，香港中文大學、香港大學和香港理工大學等亦是當中的成員之一。香港的高等教育學府加入「新絲綢之路大學聯盟」，也是回應了「一帶一路」倡議的大戰略。香港除了需要致力培養本土人才，配合「一帶一路」的發展，同時，「一帶一路」倡議也為香港的高等教育，提供了國際發展的良好機遇。

基於上述概況，「一帶一路」倡議為香港帶來的發展機遇，除了在經濟領域，還包括了文化、教育等重要的範疇。教育事業，除了培育人才，本身亦可以作為產業發展。事實上，教育作為產業發展，在全球化的影響下，已經成為發達國家的蓬勃經濟項目，一方面可以賺取外匯，另一方面可以增加本國的軟性影響力。本文會放下「一帶一路」倡議政治經濟方面的討論，主要探討在教育範疇方面，特別是國際高等教育的發展，教育作為產業發展，「一帶一路」倡議為香港發展國際高等教育，提供了什麼的機遇，而香港應該如何好好掌握這個機遇，當中會涉及探討香港在「一帶一路」倡議的大戰略中，可以擔當的角色，並審視現時香港政商界如何為香港下定位，從而考量香港國際高等教育未來發展方向，如何配合「一帶一路」倡議，既成就香港自身的發展，同時貢獻本身的力量，共建成功而繁榮的「一帶一路」倡議共同體。

「一帶一路」出現的文化交流機遇

古代「絲綢之路」或現今「一帶一路」，當然是經貿通商之路，然而，名字本身已經是充滿了文化氣息的內涵。「絲綢之路」一名，定於 1877 年，德國李希霍芬（Ferdinand von Richthofen，1833 － 1905）在其著作《中國——親身旅行和據此所作研究的成果》（China, Ergebnisse eigner Reisen und darauf gegründeter Studien）（https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ferdinand_von_Richthofen）一書中。李希霍芬首次把從公元前 114 年至公元 127 年間，中國與中亞、中國與印度間，以絲綢貿易為媒介的這條西域交通道路，命名為「絲綢之路」，這一名詞很快被學術界接受，並正式廣傳使用。由此看來可見，「絲路」一詞，充滿了文化氣息，特別是充滿了不同文化的結集凝聚。「一帶一路」倡議除了商機處處，亦是國際文化交流的大平台，然而，這點是現時香港商界探討「一帶一路」倡議戰略時，往往是忽略之處。

根據《推動共建絲綢之路經濟帶和 21 世紀海上絲綢之路的願景與行動》（發改委、外交部、商務部，2015），「一帶一路」倡議的平台要做到「五通」，包括「政策溝通、設施聯通、貿易暢通、資金融通、民心相通」。「民心相通」的內容要點，「民心相通是『一帶一路』建設的社會根基。傳承和弘揚絲綢之路友好合作精神，廣泛開展文化交流、學術往來、人才交流合作、媒體合作、青年和婦女交往、志願者服務等，為深化雙多邊合作奠定堅實的民意基礎。」（發改委、外交部、商務部，2015）可見，中國政府對「一帶一路」倡議的發展是全面照顧，而文化交流是不可或缺的一部分。在上述政策文件中提到，中國每年向沿線國家提供 1 萬個政府獎學金名額，擴大相互間留學生規模，開展合作辦學。同時開展「中國沿線國家間互辦文化年、藝術節、電影節、電視周和圖書展等活動，合作開展廣播影視劇精品創作及翻譯，聯合申請世界文化遺產，共同開展世界遺產的聯合保護工作。深化沿線國家間人才交流合作。」其他相關的國際交流，還包括 「發揮沿線各國區域、次區域相關國際論壇、展會以及博鰲亞洲論壇、中國－東盟博覽會、中國－亞歐博覽會、歐亞經濟論壇、中國國際投資貿易洽談會，以及中國－南亞博覽會、中國－阿拉伯博覽會、中國西部國際博覽會、中國－俄羅斯博覽會、前海合作論壇等平臺的建設性作用。支持沿線國家地方、民間挖掘「一帶一路」歷史文化遺產，聯合舉辦專項投資、貿易、文化交流活動，辦好絲綢之路（敦煌）國際文化博覽會、絲綢之路國際電影節和圖書展。倡議建立『一帶一路』國際高峰論壇。」（發改委、外交部、

商務部，2015）

文化交流的內涵，包羅萬象，既有各種藝術文化，亦有人文旅遊，更有學術交流，還有教育留學，凡此種種，就是國際文化的大溶合。當中對文化學術貢獻，至為重要的就是高等教育的交流溶合。檢視中國「一帶一路」倡議的發展策略，表面上非常重視政經的發展，在高等教育上，亦沒有忽視。而且，有關國際高等教育的結盟和開展的日期並不落後於整體形勢。

2015 年 5 月 22 日下午，由陝西省人民政府主辦、省教育廳及西安交通大學等 21 所高校共同承辦的絲綢之路沿線國家教育合作交流會開幕式上，來自全球 22 個國家和地區的近百所盟校齊聚西安，共同發佈《西安宣言》，由西安交通大學發起的「新絲綢之路大學聯盟」正式宣告成立。根據介紹，「新絲綢之路大學聯盟」是中國海內外大學結成的非政府、非營利性的開放性、國際化高等教育合作平台，以「共建教育合作平台，推進區域開放發展」為主題，推動「新絲綢之路經濟帶」沿線國家和地區大學之間在校際交流、人才培養、科研合作、文化溝通、政策研究、醫療服務等方面的交流與合作，增進青少年之間的瞭解和友誼，培養具有國際視野的高素質、複合型人才，服務「新絲綢之路經濟帶」沿線及歐亞地區的發展建設。（香港商報網，2015）截至 2016 年 4 月 9 日，已有來自 31 個國家和地區的 128 所大學先後加入新絲綢之路大學聯盟。至於香港方面，有香港中文大學、香港理工大學、香港大學、香港城市大學等加盟。

同年，2015 年 10 月 17 日，絲綢之路（敦煌）國際文化博覽會籌委會文化傳承創新高端學術研討會在敦煌舉行。由「一帶一路」倡議沿線國家和地區達成《敦煌共識》的 8 國 47 所高校，在甘肅敦煌成立了「一帶一路高校國際聯盟智庫」。該論壇提倡建立高校國際聯盟智庫，秉承「互聯互通、開放包容、協同創新、合作共贏」的理念，共同打造「一帶一路」高等教育共同體，推動沿線國家和地區大學之間在教育、科技、文化等領域的全面交流合作，服務沿線國家和地區的經濟社會發展。現時，聯盟高校總數已達 125 所，涵蓋全球 25 個國家。聯盟高校共同簽署「一帶一路」高校聯盟合作備忘錄，將緊密圍繞與「一帶一路」有關的人才培養、科學研究、學科建設、教師隊伍建設、知識技術共用等領域開展合作、交流。（中國蘭州網，2016）香港科技大學是其中一員。

2015 年 12 月 2 日，由清華大學繼續教育學院主辦、清華大學繼續教育學院國際教育部承辦，「『一帶一路』戰略與大型企業『走出去』國際工程人才培養研討會」在清華大學成功舉辦。是次研討會從當前國際工程管理人才存在的問題以及企業自身需求出發，提出了對於國際工程人才培養的需求和建議。（百度，2017）

從上述的高等教育聯盟，以及其他種種的國際學術研討會，可見「一帶一路」倡議的發展，不僅著眼於經濟的發展，同時是全面兼顧各方的合作交流，所以國際高等教育在「一帶一路」的倡議下，得到高速發展，也是理所當然。香港的高等學府已經參與其中，如果香港特區政府及商界能夠把握機會，協助香港高等學府參與發展「一帶一路」倡議的國際高等教育融合，互相配合，對香港本身的高等教育，以及國際教育發展，必定有巨大的成就。

香港國際高等教育的願景探討

承著「一帶一路」倡議，香港是重要的發展基地之一。中國希望「發揮海外僑胞以及香港、澳門特別行政區獨特優勢作用，積極參與和助力『一帶一路』建設。」（發改委、外交部、商務部，2015）李克強總理在《政府工作報告》中提出「粵港澳大灣區」發展計劃。（李克強，2017） 粵港澳大灣區涵蓋香港和澳門兩個特別行政區，以及廣州、深圳、江門、惠州、珠海、東莞、佛山、肇慶及中山合共 9 個城市，兩區 9 市的總人口約 1 億人，面積約 5.6 萬平方公里，GDP 規模約 1.3 萬億美元。若然把「粵港澳大灣區與三藩市海灣區比較，粵港澳大灣區的 GDP 已超越對方。工作報告提出深化粵港澳大灣區城市群之間的合作，尤其是利用香港及澳門的獨特優勢，提升國家對外及經濟發展。所以，粵港澳大灣區的提出，李克強總理說這是要提升港澳在國家經濟發展和對外開放中的地位與功能，這是提高到國家地位的層面的。（阮紀宏，2017）至於香港在粵港澳大灣區的角色，廣東省發改委主任何寧卡在廣東十三五規劃的第十章第一節中提出，「推動深圳與香港共建全球性金融中心、物流中心、貿易中心、創新中心和國際文化創意中心。」（黃錦輝，2017）可以預見，香港在「一國兩制」下，融入粵港澳大灣區，同時成為「一帶一路」倡議重要的起步點。

2015 年 3 月 27 日，在海南舉行的博鰲亞洲論壇年會上，行政長官提出香港可在「一帶一路」倡議下享有以下機遇： 融資中心、離岸人民幣中心、貿易及投

資中心、專業服務人才中心、物流及運輸中心。（立法會，2016）這 5 點，與廣東十三五規劃有重大分區，除了金融外，廣東十三五規劃還將香港視為創新中心和國際文化創意中心，倒是香港特區政府未有將此提升到應有的重要地位。若然如是，香港將失去打造國際文化之都的良機。暫且不評論香港政府政策的得失，回頭說，打造創新中心和國際文化創意中心之條件，就是發展教育。

香港本身的教育發展，自十多 / 數 ? 年教改以來，已經進入高速公路，而高等教育的國際化亦是香港各所高等教育學府的發展重點。另一方面，香港在創意文化產業方面亦有十足的根基，在影視戲劇、文化創意產業等有可觀成就，亦有大批的人才。因此，香港不論在金融貿易經濟，或者創新技術和文化創意都不容厚此薄彼，自亂陣腳。事實上，隨著資訊科技普及，以及人類社會密見交往頻繁，新經濟時代的來臨，各種的經濟生活和文化生活，已經渾然為一。只有少數的傳統行業仍然可以獨善其身，其他的行業都糾纏一起，成為命運共同體。以影視戲劇為例，電腦特效技術固然不可少。外銷影片產品亦依賴金融貿易，外銷的法律、會計、市場推廣等專業服務缺一不可。還有物流運輸，才可全球發行，而影片的多國語言配音亦是外銷的關鍵。由此看來，產業之間的交叉合作，確是成為命運共同體。為要達到各行產業的共同發展，共上一層樓，收「一帶一路」倡議之效，香港更積極發展高等教育是勢所必然。

回應李克強總理等提出的上述的願景，以及香港已經擁有的雄厚基礎，在高等教育發展方向，可以統整為 4 大學術領域。第一，金融商業 ; 第二，專業服務 ; 第三，創科研發 ; 第四，文化教育。簡述如下。

第一，金融商業。金融、融資、離岸人民幣貿易、投資、各種貿易，或者物流等等行業，都是香港經濟命脈所在，亦是現時香港經濟的龍頭，在此方面的高等教育，已經成熟發展，所以，理應繼續發展這一強項優勢。此項的高教發展重點，不妨以香港發展成為亞太區，甚至全球的學術研究龍頭。從現時大學本科的優異基礎，更上一層樓，而不局限於應用層面，打造亞太區金融商貿學術重鎮。

第二，專業服務。包括法律、會計、醫療、工程、管理等等，這是香港引以為傲的地方，相關的高等教育亦早已成熟，有足夠國際水準，例如香港的商貿仲裁服務，已經佔全球的重要份額。然而，不少是外國專才在香港發展業務，現時只差

本地專才走出香港，走向國際。香港特區政府及高等學府就這點，宜作長遠計劃。發展的目標是如何使香港的專業人才得到國際認可，甚至是建立香港自己的獨立標準。

第三，創科研發。創科教育的重要，在近年科網技術大量應用而得到引證。既然勢頭不減，應該加強力度。創科研發的教育，是建基於中小基礎教育上，亦即現時流行的 STEM 教育。2017 年 3 月，香港大學理學院傳來消息，2018 年起因報讀人數不足，取消兩個本科生主修，分別為天文學（Major in Astronomy）、數學及物理學（Major in Maths/Physics）。這消息背後反映香港社會的功利主義，不利健康的創科研發教育。（周婷，2017） 因此，政府應該為 STEM 教育作長遠規劃。在大學高教的發展，香港要克服學生不願意就讀理工科的問題。香港特區政府除要主動大力資助長遠才見效的理工科目，另外，各方應鼓勵大學的理工科研，與世界的大學和跨國企業合作。此舉一方面增加科研資源，另一方面，可以保障大學畢業生的出路。

第四，文化教育。藝術文化、人文文化、教育人才、語言人才、社會科學的培訓，香港在各方面都不算積極，算是人有我有而已。要打造國際文化創意中心，絕對離不開人文修養，舉例而言，阿拉伯語、中亞的語言、南亞的語言，通通都是香港人的盲點，培養語言人才，極為重要。只可惜，香港政府並未有足夠的重視。香港的高等學府，亦跟隨香港社會的功利主義而行，其中為人詬病的，也是香港大學已經取消了歷史系的獨立身分，原因在於報讀人數不足。即使香港放棄國際文化創意中心的念頭，也不難想像。高等教育一面倒向實用價值的學科，對整個香港文化發展，將會出現什麼的不良後果。所以，香港要持續成為國際大都會，在發展「一帶一路」發揮積極作用，文化教育絕對是必要的。在此的發展重點，一方面是擴大外國語言的學習機會，甚至將外國語言學習獨立成系，培養語言人才。另一方面，香港高等教育要增加國際研究項目，特別是中東國家的研究，畢竟香港對中東國家的宗教信仰及其形成的政治、法律、民風等等，認識有限。國際研究項目培養學生的環球視野，這樣才對「一帶一路」倡議發揮積極作用。

綜合而言，配合「一帶一路」倡議，香港不應該只著眼於金融貿易的商機，藝術文化、人文修養也是重大的發展機遇。以教育作為產業來看，國際教育，特別

是國際高等教育，也是香港的難得的機遇。香港既要培養自己的人才，擁抱環球國際，同時也要打造成為國際高等教育重鎮。為此，香港的高等教育不只是招收外地學生，而是積極發展上述的領域。香港的高等教育，有一大優良傳統，就是發展通識教育，大學應在此發揮對「一帶一路」倡議的配合作用，在大學生修讀本科之時，同時加入通識教育的國際研究，使大學生具備國際視野。至於外語的學習，開始時，如果學生的數量太少，師資不足之時，可以考慮香港特區政府培養獸醫的方式，此方式是政府出資資助年青的學生到澳大利亞就讀獸醫，學成必定回港服務。培養外語人才，亦可效法此舉，待學生學成回港，招攬在大學任教，逐步建立本地的外語課程。

香港特區政府推出「一帶一路」獎學金，著眼於人才培訓，出發點是正確。「獎學金計劃旨在鼓勵個別『一帶一路』沿線經濟體的傑出學生來港修讀學士學位課程，同時鼓勵本港的傑出學生到該等經濟體修讀學士學位課程，從而進一步加強香港與『一帶一路』沿線經濟體的聯繫和教育交流。長遠而言，這有助香港與『一帶一路』沿線經濟體建立教育、文化及青年交流等方面的平台，為學生及香港整體發展帶來益處。」（楊潤雄，2016）為要香港可以在「一帶一路」倡議中，扮演積極角色，積極有序發展國際高等教育，是應走的道路，但是設立獎學金還是不足夠的。

香港在「一帶一路」倡議中發展國際高等教育，做法是三個層面發展，即是：本土紮根，立足中國，走向國際。本土紮根，積極完善本身的高等教育，提升本地學術水平和成就，只有本地的水平不斷提升，才可以吸引外地優秀學生來港升學。本土的教育不完善，無法吸引外地學生來港升學。立足中國，以中國為香港大後方支援，以中國的資源，滋養香港的高等教育。在人才、資金、研究機會、畢業後出路等等，都可以使香港的高等教育生生不息。走向國際，香港高等教育的目光，不應只看重中國內地學生的學費來源，更應向國際進軍。這不單是讓外國著名學府來香港開辦分校，而是香港高等學府向國際招生，特別是「一帶一路」國家。現時香港特區政府的「一帶一路」獎學金，是雙向發展，既是鼓勵本地學生到「一帶一路」的國家留學，亦同時吸引對方的學生來港升學，透過互相交流，對香港的社會，以及高等教育的改善，都有積極作用。然而「一帶一路」獎學金，只是其中一項吸引沿線國家學生的方案，更重要是，香港高等學府是如何保障本地學生升學之時，又可以大量吸引國際學生來港。這點涉及本地大學之間如何分工定位、大學內部協調、

移民政策、教育體系修訂等一連串問題，必須由香港特區政府牽頭引導。從這個思路而言，基本上，香港國際高等教育學生來源，分為三個方向，一是本地學生，二是走出國門，派人出國留學，三是招徠外地學生，來港升學。不論做法如何，總應圍繞上文的四大學術領域來發展。

外地學生來港升學已經是行之已久，在高等院校，有很多中國內地前來的學生，而且不少是自費的研究生。所以，香港的國際高等教育發展，漸成為教育產業，這是不爭的趨勢。既然如此，香港特區政府不妨開宗明義，積極完善國際高等教育發展，同時配合香港學術及職業資歷評審局（評審局）的資歷架構，使香港在國際高等教育範疇，得到為重要的認可地位，提升香港的高等教育水準和世界地位。

總結

2017 年 3 月 23 日，由中國政府牽頭的亞洲基礎設施投資銀行（簡稱「亞投行」），公佈接納香港成為其中的成員。香港在「一帶一路」倡議中，已經搭上了這趟快車。既然香港早已經是國際大都會，在「一帶一路」的倡議中，發揮所長是理所當然，是本地和國際互動之間，各方得益的舉措。誠如李克強總理在《政府工作報告》中，提到中國要「積極主動擴大對外開放」的一節，期望「一帶一路」倡議建設，是 「堅持共商共建共用，加快陸上經濟走廊和海上合作支點建設，構建沿線大通關合作機制。深化國際產能合作，帶動我國裝備、技術、標準、服務走出去，實現優勢互補。加強教育、科技、文化、衛生、旅遊等人文交流合作。」（李克強，2017）正因如此，香港在「一帶一路」倡議下，應全面發展，而不應偏重於金融商業。至於文化教育的資產，香港雖然地方細小，卻有豐富的中西文化融會而成的文明資產，以此發展國際高等教育，並不輸蝕於其他西方國家。香港宜以四大學術領域：金融商業、專業服務、創科研發、文化教育，來全面發展國際高等教育，香港有足夠實力打造「一帶一路」上，或是全球性的國際中心。除了金融中心、物流中心、貿易中心、創新中心和國際文化創意中心，甚至是發展成為國際人才教育中心。

最後，香港現在已有從招生國內學生而形成的國際高等教育基礎，所以，更應該好好珍惜這基礎，有規劃地發展全面的國際高等教育。此舉既是豐厚的產業發展，同時也是積極拓展香港國際生存空間，持續提升香港的國際生存能力，和國際的地

位，最終不僅使香港本身受惠，更貢獻「一帶一路」倡議，使沿線地區或國家同享利益。

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The opportunities for HKSAR international tertiary education advancement from "the Belt and Road Initiative"

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Abstract

"The Belt and Road Initiative" is China's national policy. It carries with plenty of development opportunities. HKSAR is the starting point in the East of "the Belt and Road". She takes a good position to benefit from "the Belt and Road Initiative " policy. However, HKSAR focuses only on monetary trading and neglects the development of international tertiary education. Although the tertiary education institutions of HKSAR have recruited many Mainland students in past few years, a great strategy of developing the tertiary education is absent. The article tries to analyse the chances of developing tertiary education in HKSAR. It suggests four academic areas in developing international tertiary education to establish an international education centre for "the Belt and Road Initiative".

Keywords

"The Belt and Road Initiative", international tertiary education, development chance of Hong Kong

《香港教師中心學報》，第十六卷

香港高等教育的發展及國際化現況

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摘要

香港高等教育從上世紀八十年代的精英型，走到九十年代的大眾化，踏入廿一世紀成為普及型的高等教育社會。與此同時，為了支持香港這個亞洲國際都會的發展，香港高等教育培育具國際視野的人才，教資會和各院校一向重視推動國際化。為了剖析香港高等教育的發展歷程及國際化現況，這篇文章將回顧香港高等教育從精英化、大眾化到普及化的各發展階段，並就香港高等教育國際化、境外生來港升讀、高等教育學生交流等方面作出分析，並就香港高等教育挑戰作出討論。

關鍵詞

香港高等教育　高等教育類型　香港高等教育發展　高等教育國際化

前言

高等教育在香港發展有百多年的歷史，始於 1911 年香港大學的建立。香港高等教育從上世紀八十年代精英型，走到九十年代的大眾化，踏入廿一世紀成為一個普及型的高等教育社會。當下，香港高等教育在國際上享有一定聲譽，據英國《泰晤士高等教育》公佈的 2017 年亞洲大學排行榜，香港大學和香港科技大學分別排名第 5 及第 6；香港中文大學、香港城市大學、香港理工大學及香港浸會大學依次排名第 11、第 12、第 17 及第 49，這六所香港高等院校在亞州大學前 50 名內。《泰晤士高等教育》編輯表示香港表現令人印象深刻，相對於財富及人口是排名榜中表

現最好的地區之一；並指出「大約有四分之一（23%）的適齡人口在香港六間所知名大學中就讀，這比率僅排在土耳其及澳門之後」（明報 2017 年 3 月 16 日）。香港高等教育能有這個令人稱讚的成績，原因是大學教育資助委員會（教資會）和各院校一向重視推動國際化，強調培育具國際視野的人才。為了剖析香港高等教育的發展歷程及國際化現況，這篇文章將回顧香港高等教育從精英到普及的發展階段，並就香港高等教育國際化、境外生來港升讀、高等教育學生交流等方面作出分析，同時就香港高等教育發展的挑戰作出討論。

香港高等教育精英化階段

高等教育在港有百多年歷史，始於 1911 年香港大學建立；隨後，為了解決香港師資和工業教育的需要，政府於上世紀二三十年代相繼成立相關院校。第二次世界大戰後，大量內地難民湧入香港，為了回應當時中文中學學生升讀大學的要求，1952 年的《賈士域報告書》建議檢討香港高等教育，政府於 1959 年宣佈成立一所以中文為主要教學媒介的大學，並於 8 月撥款資助崇基、新亞、聯合三所專上學院；1963 年《富爾敦報告書》建議成立一所書院聯邦制的大學，香港中文大學於同年 10 月成為香港的第二所大學。與此同時，戰後難民湧入令香港適齡入學兒童增多，教師數量需求甚大，政府於 1951 年成立葛量洪師範學院，1960 年成立柏立基師範學院。到八十年代，國際顧問團報告書於 1982 年提出增加學生接受高等教育機會是香港教育發展應優先處理項目之一，政府於 1984 年成立城市理工學院，1988 年香港科技大學亦告成立，而讓在職人士修讀專上課程的公開進修學院亦於 1989 年成立。

香港專上學院在八十年代雖有增加，但相對當時的適齡學生人口，「香港高等教育發展緩慢;直到 80 年代末，香港的高等教育入學率仍低於 8%」（彭澤平、姚琳，2012）。香港專上學生人數從 1980 年的 17,063 人增長近倍到 1989 年的 30,850 人，但相對當時適齡青年，香港高等教育仍處於精英型。正如台灣學者分析國際學生上升的主因是各地高中生的需求，「高等教育體系容量的不足，導致部份學生只好前往其他國家就讀」（戴曉霞、楊岱穎，2012）。在香港高等教育仍處於精英化的情況下，香港中學生當時升專上學院的機會較低，因而有不少學生選擇遠赴海外進修。據政府年報資料，自 1980 年至 1996 年的 17 個學年中，往英國、美國、加拿大和

澳洲等四地的香港留學生有近 240,000 人。而因不少學生學成後回港工作和定居，帶回了西方文化和生活習慣，使香港較易與英語國家人士接觸，有利於香港與國際社會的聯繫。

從大眾化到普及化

香港高等教育於上世紀九十年代初出現了一個戲劇性的轉折。為了避免九七轉變可能出現的人才真空，當時港督於 1989 年宣佈將原於 1995 年為適齡學生人數提供 13% 學士學位的計劃調高至 18%；「教育統籌司向行政局提交了一套高等教育建議，計劃於 1995 年時將第一年學士位課程的學額增至約 15,000 個」（喻曉聰、李阿利，2011）。這建議使香港高等教育在九十年代初有急速發展，為當時有志求學的高中畢業生帶來更多的升學機會。根據美國學者馬丁．特羅：15% 或以上的適齡人口享有高等教育便可界定為大眾化；香港自此便進入高等教育大眾化的階段。與此同時，高等教育學額當時的擴張亦影響赴海外留學學生的數目，香港每年往 4 大英語國家的留學生由 1990 年度 21,155 人的高峰逐漸下降至 1993 至 1996 年的 14,000 人左右，但與當時每年 14,500 個大一新生學額仍相近；也就是說在九十年代的大眾型高等教育階段，香港還有近半的年青人因未能入讀本地高等院校而遠赴海外留學。

表一　香港 15 歲以上教育程度百分比分佈

<table>
<tr><th></th><th>1991 年</th><th>1998 年</th><th>2006 年</th><th>2011 年</th><th>2015 年</th></tr>
<tr><td>未受教育</td><td>17.8</td><td>8.9</td><td>5.9</td><td>5.1</td><td>不適用</td></tr>
<tr><td>小學</td><td>29.4</td><td>22.9</td><td>18.6</td><td>16.2</td><td>18.9</td></tr>
<tr><td>初中</td><td>18.8</td><td>16.2</td><td rowspan="3">51.7*</td><td rowspan="3">52*</td><td rowspan="3">50.3*</td></tr>
<tr><td>高中</td><td>21.2</td><td>30.5</td></tr>
<tr><td>預科</td><td>3.9</td><td>4.1</td></tr>
<tr><td>專上教育</td><td>8.9</td><td>17.4</td><td>23.8</td><td>26.8</td><td>30.8</td></tr>
</table>

* 按政府年報資料，中學教育程度包括中一至中七教育程度或同等學歷

香港高等教育從上世紀八十年代的精英型，到九十年代成為了大眾化高等教育，踏入廿一世紀成為普及型高等教育的社會；行政長官在 2000 年《施政報告》

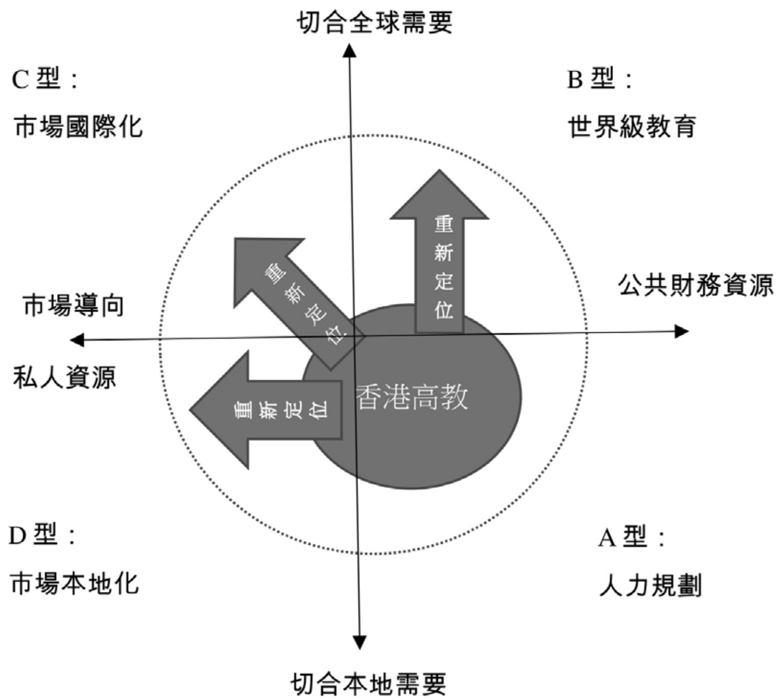
提出擴充大專學額，讓香港專上教育的普及率達到 60%。當時教資會指出全港 15 歲及以上人口具備大專學歷的只約佔五分之一；這與教育改革提出要建立知識型經濟並不匹配，故此特區政府當時急於推動高等教育的普及化。自政府建議大學可為 17 至 20 歲人口提供副學位課程後，教資會屬下多所院校於 2001 學年起陸續推出副學位課程。加上，當時教統局透過推出學術評審資助計劃，闢設建社區學院用地，並在招聘公務員時承認副學士學歷等措施，香港高中畢業生接受專上教育的比率由 2000 至 2001 學年的 33%，增至 2005 至 2006 學年的 66%。這使政府原計劃以十年來完成的高等教育普及化計劃，提早完成;這亦使香港15歲以上受專上教育的人口，由 1998 年的 17.4% 攀升至 2015 年的 30.8%（見上表一）。在這個高等教育大眾化推至普及化的過程中，香港政府吸收國際社會的經驗，鼓勵高等教育界增加由持續進修部門提供課程，這些課程既符合教資會資助大學課程的質素保證要求，而單位成本又降低一半；但這做法卻促使高等教育引入較多市場化機制，令香港高等院校間的競爭壓力增強。

香港高等教育國際化

香港作為亞洲國際都會，為了維持社會的國際競爭力，香港高等教育一直培育學生成為國際化人才，「就承擔着傳播中西文化的使命，香港政府也將打造區域教育樞紐作為推動本地經濟及社會發展的重要一環」（夏雪艷、黃磊，2017，頁 67）。教資會早於 2004 年發表《香港高等教育——共展所長 • 與時俱進》已指出香港應扮演區內教育樞紐的角色，促進各資助院校在相關方面致力達致具國際競爭力的水平。及後，「特區政府於 2006 年成立一個高層次跨部門督導委員會，檢視促進香港高等教育國際化的相關策略，以配合發展香港成為區域教育樞紐的願景」（盧一威、伍世傑、韓笑，2016；羅金義，2016，頁 45-47）。在 2010 年的《展望高等教育體系》中，教資會明確「各院校應確保有一定比例的教學人員和學生來自世界各地，並幫助非本地學生與本地學生融合；同樣，各院校亦應幫助本地學生適應校方的國際化工作，包括提升學生兩文三語的能力，以及為本地學生提供更多優質的交流機會」（大學教育資助委員會，2010）。經過各高等院校的多年努力，香港高等院校國際化程度有目共睹。內地學者李凌（2015）指出「香港大學外教的情況，在 1,400 多名教師中有 99%的人有國外學習經歷，外籍教師佔比近 50%；而香港科技大學教師來自近 30 個國家，其中不乏美國國家兩院院士；香港中文大學外

籍教師比例也超過 30%」（頁 996）。同時，有內地學者亦發現香港「各高校經常舉辦大型的國際性學術研討會，邀請國際著名學者來校講學，並開展廣泛的合作研究；香港高校與國外高校還建立了教師互訪制度，利用假期互派教師進行學術訪問」（顏軍梅、萬波，2014，頁 94）。透過各院校在聘用人員和學術活動的相關措施，促進了香港高等教育的國際化情況。

圖一：香港高等教育的重新定位（修改自鄭燕祥，2017）



從圖一：香港高等教育的重新定位，可看到「香港高等教育正由過往側重公共財務資源和切合本地需要的 A 型高等教育，透過新定位改為較多追求切合全球需要和市場導向的高等教育」（鄭燕祥，2017）。在追求切合全球需要方面，香港高等教育大力推動國際化；與此同時，「隨着自負盈虧課程的大量開設，以及社區學院的發展，市場力量在香港高等教育發展中的作用日益增大」（岳經綸、李曉康，2007，頁 16）；香港高等教育的市場化亦逐步增加。在 2015/16 學年，香港的適齡青年人超過 46% 修讀本地院校的學位課程；連同副學位學額計算修讀專上課程的青年有約七成（教育局，2016）；當中報讀全日制經本地評審自資第一年學士學位

課程的學生人數，由 2005/06 學年 3,600 人升至 2015/16 學年的 24,300 人。可見在過去十年間，香港自資院校大幅增加了自資學士學位，其學額數目已比公營院校的 17,000 學位個為多；這情況反映出香港過去利用市場化去提供更多的學士學額。而為了照顧清貧家庭子女讀高等自資學士課程，新一屆特區政府於 2017 年 7 月推出的「支援優質教育的優先措施」內，提出「向修讀香港合資格院校開辦的全日制經本地評審本地及非本地自資學士學位課程的合資格學生，提供每年 30,000 元的免入息審查資助」（教育局，2017a，頁 2）。

境外大學生來港升讀

按國際標準「高校中留學生的比重是衡量區域教育國際化和現代化水準的主要指標之一，世界高收入國家該項指標的平均值為 10.3%；2010 年香港高校本科生中非本地生比例為 23.50%，研究生中非本地生比例為 42.06%」（韋家朝，2012，頁 74）。這反映當年香港高等院校非本地生比率已超國際平均水平；在 2011 至 2012 學年，「八所院校一共錄取了 2004 名來自內地及其他地區修讀第一年學士學位課程的學生，約佔計劃收生人數的 14%，遠高於 2000 至 2001 學年的 1% 及 2005 至 2006 學年的 7%」（大學教育資助委員會，2012）。而據教資會最近的統計，在 2015/16 學年八資助院校共有 98,842 名學生，其中非本地生人數共 15,727 名，佔整體人數 16.0%；顯示香港高等教育對境外的內地生和其他外地學生具吸引力。下表二是近 16 年來非本地學生修讀八所資助高等院校的增加趨勢。因應非本地生的增加，香港高校持份者關注到非本地生在院校的適應情況；正如發展香港教育產業工作小組於 2011 年便提出：留學生對所入讀的學位課程整體上是否稱心滿意，關鍵因素之一是他們能否融入所屬院校乃至投入香港的生活。

表二　教資會資助課程的非本地生人數（2000/01-2015/16）

學年	中國內地	亞洲其他地區	其他地區	非本地生總數	佔總學生比例
2000/01	1,462	170	148	1,781	2%
2001/02	1,912	183	158	2,253	3%
2002/03	2,230	204	170	2,604	3%
2003/04	2,849	197	158	3,204	4%

2004/05	3,362	210	156	3,728	5%
2005/06	4,370	244	160	4,773	6%
2006/07	5,754	292	171	6,210	9%
2007/08	6,751	347	195	7,293	10%
2008/09	7,713	418	262	8,392	12%
2009/10	8,429	596	308	9,333	13%
2010/11	8,724	950	400	10,074	14%
2011/12	8,936	1,355	478	10,770	14%
2012/13	10,963	2,105	593	13,661	15%
2013/14	11,374	2,495	641	14,510	15%
2014/15	11,610	2,831	710	15,151	16%
2015/16	11,891	3,130	706	15,727	16%

眾所周知，在全球一體化下各地高等教育國際化形式多樣，各地高等院校可透過國際策略、課程發展、國際網絡、非本地學生的招收及融合、國際的教職員等措施去推動國際化；教資會於 2017 年表明繼續鼓勵各大學以校本方式推行國際化，而「在 2016 至 19 的三年期，各大學會繼續獲得資助持續進行有關工作，以吸引更多來自不同地方的非本地學生」（新聞公報，2017）。重視吸引非本地生入讀高等院校，這是高等教育普及國家地區的慣常做法，歐美發達國家諸多研究發現，留學生與本土學生的跨文化互動，能夠幫助學生減少負面認知留學生和本土學生的跨文化理解能力都有所提高」（馬佳妮，2016，頁 60）。然而令人關注的是來自中國內地的非本地生，在香港院校的適應並不理想，有本地學者指出「學生多元化同時也帶來種種挑戰，例如學生之間各自抱團，缺乏互動；中港學生缺乏理解，相互標籤」（梁亦華，2017）。內地學者黃發來（2016）在剖析香港高等教育發展的優劣機威時亦指出：「香港高等院校的跨文化政策不充分，不利於香港高等教育國際化的穩健發展」（頁 42）。面對這個獨特的內地跨學生被排斥現象，香港個別高等院校師生對促進兩地文化互動較為關注，其中科大內地學生學者聯誼會會在舉辦迎新活動時，會安排由內地學長學姐擔任「組爸、組媽」，帶領新生熟悉學校學習、生活，之後亦會舉辦一些活動，如學粵語、感知香港不同文化（湯淩琰，2017）。

高等教育學生交流

為了推動香港高等院校學生跨境學習，大學教育資助委員會於 2010 年的《展望香港高等教育體系》內強調提供更多海外交流機會的重要性，明確「在推行新學制後，學生應有更多機會參與各種形式和為期不同的交流活動」（大學教育資助委員會，2010）。在 2009/10 學年，教資會資助院校有 3,600 名非本地交換生來港交流，以及 3,500 名本港學生到外地交流；換言之，當年 6 名大學生中就有 1 人參與交換生計劃。正如本地學者崔康常（2012）認為「交流計畫讓學生有機會到外地院校學習，與來自世界各地的同學相處，並親身體驗異文化，有效培養學生成為全面的人才」。與此同時，為了同步促進香港學生到內地院校進行交流，《2011/12 年度政府財政預算案》建議「撥款 1 億元推行為期 5 年的專上學生內地體驗先導計畫，以配對形式資助專上學生到內地參加短期實習或學習；每名學生最高可獲 3,000 元資助」（教育局，2011）；在 2011/12 至 2013/14 三個學年，政府透過這計畫資助超過 19,000 名高等院校學生赴內地交流，擴闊了香港大學生的跨境視野和學習經歷。經政府投入新資源後，八所資助大學的交流生人數上升，每年離港交流生超過 6,000 名。

表三　教資會資助大學的交流生人數（2006/07-2015/16）

學年	學士學位課程	來港的交流生	離港的交流生
2006/07	52,513	2,920	2,383
2007/08	53,359	3,180	2,772
2008/09	55,050	3,481	3,251
2009/10	56,610	3,644	3,546
2010/11	57,565	3,972	3,889
2011/12	58,412	4,414	4,217
2012/13	76,351	4,626	4,623
2013/14	78,219	5,363	5,379
2014/15	80,914	5,599	6,171
2015/16	82,657	5,912	6,320

教育局高怡慧（2016）重申「一個集合來自不同區域學生，擁有多元文化的學習環境，有助加強文化交流、擴闊本地學生的視野，讓他們更具國際競爭力。」為了促進香港大學生在具備專業知識的同時，擁有國際視野和與別文化人士的合作能力，香港政府和教資會近年積極鼓勵大學生參與交流計劃。從上表三「教資會資助大學的交流生人數」可見，八高等院校資助學生離港的交流生從 2010/11 年度起逐年明顯增加，「在 2014/15 學年，約 5,600 名學生來港到本地公帑資助院校交流；同年，約 6,200 名本地學生到香港以外地區參與交流活動，即是說，每四名本科生中便有一名有機會於在學期間出外交流」（教育局，2016a）。可見經政府和各院校的努力推動，香港的大學生的雙向交流越來越普及；正如「香港中文大學與 180 多所著名的海內外學府開展學生交換計劃，其中包括哈佛、耶魯等世界頂級大學」（程艷麗，2010，頁 97），境外交流有利香港大學生擴闊視野和提昇其國際競爭力；而「為了積極推動學生的對外雙向交流，香港各高校都成立交流處，制定多項學生交流計劃；課程計劃、合作計劃來擴展香港境外留學生的招收和本校學生海外的交換工作」（錢偉，2009，頁 41）。當然由境外來港交流的六千名大學生，亦為香港院校創設更國際化的教與學和研究環境。

香港高等教育學額供過於求

在下表四是八所資助高等院校的統計可見，在 2012/13 年新大學學制落實的雙班年，八所資助院校共收了 33,073 名第一年學士課程學生，比正常年份的名額多近兩倍；除該年外，八院校學位課程每年的收生只有微升，至 2015/16 學年為 17,410 名大一新生。與此同時，一個值得關注的現象是八資助院校的副學士人數由 2000/01 的 13,212，持續下跌至 2015/16 年度的 5,394 人；期間香港年青人升讀專上教育機會依然大增，主要是來自資院校持續增加學士及副學士學位。而因不少副學士學生的就業和升學前景欠佳，幾年前已有輿論要求政府加強對課程的質素保證，並要求增加副學士銜接學士課程的機會。為此，政府宣佈由 2012 至 2013 學年起，「把教資會資助高年級學士學位課程學額，分階段倍增至每年 8,000 個，為優秀的副學位畢業生提供更多機會，讓他們升讀新學制下學士學位課程的最後兩年」（教育局，2013），這措施增加了在學副學士的升學機會，為他們完大學夢提供較多的可能性；但政府對已畢業的副學士青年則仍未有明顯的支援措施。

表四　教資會資助八所院校綜合統計數字

	2000/01	2004/05	2008/09	2012/13	2015/16
副學位課程學生人數	13,212	10,736	7,107	6,503	5,394
學位課程學生人數	45,645	48,830	55,050	76,351	82,657
學生總人數	68,796	69,313	72,067	93,394	98,842
第一年學士課程學生人數	14,433	14,719	15,715	33,073	17,410

注：人數是以相當全日制學生來計算（修訂至教資會，2016）

事實上，為了擴大認可學士學額而不動用大幅額外開支，政府鼓勵自資院校根據2009年的〈專上學院條例〉開辦學士課程，自此有珠海、恒管、東華、明愛、明德、港專、能仁及宏恩等八所私立院校陸續按條例註冊，連同香港公開大學及香港高等教育科技學院，十所院校「以自資形式每年提供合共 13,000 個政府認可學士學額，令本地總入學率升至近三成多，減輕了本地學生的升學壓力並提升社會公平與流動性」（何順文，2017）。然而，香港高等教育發展的一個挑戰，就是源於自資院校近年的急速發展；而據教育局指出「中學畢業生人數由 2015/16 學年的 56,840 人將降至 2021/22 學年的 42,700 人；鑑於自資專上課程近年擴展，香港專上課程已供過於求」（教育局，2016b）。因應自資院校學位將面臨供過於求的危機，有學者建議「政府牽頭，以貿發局為骨幹、海外經貿處輔助，調動有關決策局和執行部門，統籌八大院校和自資院校，把香港高等教育的精彩，帶到世界、帶往『一帶一路』，亦把它們的精彩帶來香港」（楊志剛，2017）；上述建議值得政府及貿發局作研究和跟進。

香港高等教育國際化的挑戰

回顧香港高等教育的發展，上世紀八十年代香港高等教育仍是精英型，到了九十年代邁進大眾化，而至今成為一個普及型高等教育的社會。當前香港高等教育發展成熟，已是一個具吸引力的高等教育樞紐；有近四分之一的適齡青年就讀六所亞洲 50 強大學之內，比率在區內明顯偏高。而為了促進香港社會和高等教育的競爭力，政府、教資會和各資助院校仍積極推動國際化，不單提高非本地生入讀的機

會，亦同時增加香港高等院校學生的交流機會；然而，因為高等教育市場化的發展和適齡學生人口下降，香港高等院校尤其是自資院校將面臨收生困難，此乃香港高等教育當下的一大挑戰。與此同時，香港高等教育國際化其中一個獨特現象，是其外地生主要是來自同一國家的內地生，在兩地社會制度、書寫和聽説中文的不同，香港高等院校的跨文化情況並不理想，這是一個值得各高等院校持份者去關注的挑戰。再者，因應歷年累積超過 200,000 名副學士畢業生，香港縱有不俗的青年升讀專上比例，但其大學生佔成年人口相對區內國際大城市偏低，故有評論建議「政府要為副學士畢業生尋求更多內地及海外大學的學歷認可，令畢業生可以到不同國家和地區的大學繼續升學」（顏汶羽，2017）；以促進香港青年在知識型經濟和新科技發展的全球一體化環境中，有足夠的可持續發展和國際競爭力。

另一方面，正如教資會委員石禮謙（2016）指出「香港作為亞洲其中一個最國際化的城市，熟悉國際市場，專業制度、標準與國際接軌，並擁有一國兩制的制度優勢，『背靠祖國，面向世界』，有條件成為接通內地與海外的橋樑及亞洲區內高等教育樞紐。」為了鞏固香港高等教育國際化的情況，政府「利用私人捐助於 2017/18 學年推出『一帶一路獎學金』予馬來西亞及泰國的學生，進一步加強香港與『一帶一路』地區的聯繫和在教育方面的交流」（教育局，2017b），這做法可吸引更多元的外地生入讀香港高等院校，在配合國家「一帶一路」戰略發展的同時，亦將有助香港高等院校和大學生提高跨文化能力。而香港高等教育的一個新課題是因應總理李克強在 2017 年政府工作報告，「提到要研究制定粵港澳大灣區城市群發展規劃，發揮港澳獨特優勢，提升在國家經濟發展和對外開放中的地位與功能」（鄭群，2017）；怎麼利用這個大灣區規劃去促進香港高等教育的發展？又或讓香港高等教育發展有效地落實粵港澳大灣區的規劃？這也是香港高等教育界的一個新挑戰。

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The development and internationalization of higher education in Hong Kong

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Abstract

Hong Kong's higher education in 1980s of last century is elite-type. Then it has changed to mass-type higher education in 1990s. Into the twenty-first century Hong Kong become universal-type of higher education society. At the same time, in order to support the development of international metropolis, Hong Kong's higher education has cultivated an international vision, and the University Grants Committee (UGC) and institutions have always emphasis to promote internationalization. In order to analyze the development and the internationalization of Hong Kong's higher education. This article aims to review Hong Kong's higher education from elite, mass to the universal-type, and the internationalization of Hong Kong's higher education, oversea students studying in Hong Kong, student exchange in tertiary institutions, and to discuss the challenges of higher education in Hong Kong.

Keywords

Hong Kong higher education, type of higher education, development of higher education in Hong Kong, internationalization of higher education

《香港教師中心學報》，第十六卷

大學的國際化：一所本地大學的境外學習經驗與反思

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摘要

國際化是現時高等教育界的一個重要議程和發展方向，也是主流評級機構用以評核大學的其中一個因素。各界對國際化的定義不盡相同。在香港，有意見指實施國際化目的就是為了強化「香港的特徵」，從而增加國際學生與本地學生相互文化發展機會。境外學習活動既可以提升學生多方面的技能，亦能讓他們獲得個人全面發展及擴闊全球視野。透過瞭解國際化的定義，以及一所本地大學在其國際化進程中為學生提供境外學習的經驗，我們可對香港高校學生怎樣在國際化中獲益有更深瞭解。

關鍵詞

境外學習，全球化，高等教育的學習，香港高等教育

國際化（Internationalization）已經在高等教育界成為一個重要的議程和發展方向 (American Council on Education, u.d.; QAC u.d.; Green, 2012)。根據大學教育資助委員會（University Grants Committee, 2010）的看法，香港是一個具中西文化並重特色的國際大都會，實施國際化並非要忽略本地需要和傳統價值（p.50），反而要進一步強化香港的特徵。雖然香港不少大專院校均致力不同的國際化策略。近年本地大學的國際化似局限於以下環節：

(1) 關注外在評價或國際標竿：媒體都會報導大學在不同排名榜（例如 QS 等級，英國泰晤士報、上海交通大學排名榜等），以及學科排名榜（例如 QS ranking）；

(2) 因為國際化的普及，大專院校亦開始取錄海外生、提供出外考察機會及交流生計劃名額。

不同學者和機構對國際化的定義不盡相同，根據加拿大大學及大專院校協會（Association of University and Colleges of Canada (AUCC)）的定義，「國際化」是機構的組織活動，藉以在大學教學、科研和服務功能裡，整合或綜合國際、全球及 / 或跨文化（intercultural）維度 https://www.univcan.ca/wp-content/uploads/2015/07/internationalization-survey-2014.pdf。Cheng, Cheung and Ng（2016, p.4）建議一個高等教育國際化的概念化矩陣（conceptualization matrix），包括四一個維度及相關細目如下：（一）國際化的目的或動機（學術 / 教育、經濟、政治、社會文化）；（二）關鍵行動者及元素的國際移動力（mobility）（學生、教師、知識 / 專門技能、課程、機構）；（三）國際活動（傳遞、交流、輸入 / 輸出、市場化、企業家精神、競爭、建立聯盟 / 合作）；（四）高等教育的功能領域（教學、課程、專業及發展服務、科研、顧問、知識分享、技術轉移等）(p.4)。

究竟增加國際學生對香港有甚麼意義？根據 Bodycott（2016, p.173）及其他學者和機構的看法（例如 Education Bureau, 2007），國際生可加強本地學生相互文化（intercultural）發展機會。如果從學生學習經驗的角度而言，促進學生的相互文化或跨文化能力，以及培養全球意識是國際化的其中一些考慮因素（例如 McGrath, Donna, 2016）。Yefanova , Baird 及 Montgomery（2015, p.14）在跨國互動（cross-national interaction）方面探討下列維度，例如態度方面是否有意願去適應文化差異；在知識方面有沒有學習明顯和隱晦的文化元素和在學科內容有沒有發展多元角度；在技能方面有沒有培養領導技能、解難技能，以及溝通及加強網絡技能等。Huggins（2014, p.7）指出國際學習文流活動對培養跨文化能力有一定作用，這些取向某程度上從「全球公民取向」轉移至「文化素養」(cultural literacy)（例如 Andreotti, 2006)，而且一位具跨文化能力的人可以很快「適應新的文化處境」、「對其他文化抱持正面態度及好奇心」、「願意理解他人觀點」、「對不同文化方面有見識」等（p.7）。

XX 大學學生的境外學習機會

XX 大學是香港一所提供教師培訓並且由政府資助的高等學府，該校致力培育敏於思考、關懷社會及放眼世界的教育工作者及社會領袖，使之能夠服務社區，推動變革。每年為該校修讀不同科目的學生提供全方位的境外學習機會，以培養 XX 大學學生除學術及個人專業外，在技能方面有沒有方法來培養領導技能、解難技能，以及溝通及加強網絡技能等，以及擴闊學生國際視野及提高世界公民意識，令學生達致全人發展，為未來踏入社會工作及貢獻做好準備。XX 大學為每位修讀全日制本科課程的學生提供不同類型的資助參與境外學習活動，當中環球學習體驗增潤基金[1]，便為每位學生提供境外學習資助，學生可在修讀全日制本科課程的期間使用該資助參與不同類型的境外學習活動，例如學生交換計劃、海外及大中華區暑期實習計劃及其他海外學習及交流活動等。

各類型的境外學習活動

隨著社會不斷轉變，大眾對大學生的期望亦不斷地提升，作為一所主要提供教師培訓的院校，境外學習機會對 XX 大學學生尤其重要。從 XX 大學的觀察及經驗中發現境外學習活動彌補正規教育未能提供的全人發展元素，讓學生獲得體驗式學習機會之外，可以擴闊他們的視野，學會關心國際社會所面對的挑戰及問題，並且強化自身作為世界公民的意識及責任。XX 大學學生可因應個人的興趣、能力及需要選擇適合自己的境外活動及地點，當中很多活動在發展中國家和地區，例如：孟加拉、尼泊爾、印度、印尼、蒙古、越南、柬埔寨、寮國、斯里蘭卡及泰國等進行。也有部分活動在已發展國家和地區，例如：新加坡、日本、台灣及韓國等，甚至第三世界國家，例如：埃塞俄比亞進行。境外學習活動的內容可包括到訪海外大學與其學生交流、探訪海外社會服務機構、探索海外國家文化、進行社區服務活動等。當中 XX 大學學生最感興趣的便是到達發展中國家參與海外社區服務活動，而服務內容包括探訪學校、教授村民衛生及健康知識、教授僧侶英語、與村落兒童進行遊戲、進行學校翻新工作、參與海洋保育活動，以及進行災後重建家園工作等。學生可因應個人的上課時間表，在不同時段參與兩至四星期的境外學習活動。

1 「環球學習體驗增潤基金」資助全日制本科生參與已獲批的活動。每位學生可獲資助活動費用的 50%，上限為港幣一萬元。

如前所述，提供更多的境外學習機會無疑可以讓學生擴闊視野之餘也學到課堂上不能學到的多種技能。增加此類活動數量之餘，開展深度的量身訂做的伙伴協作交流學習活動，更能讓學生學到各種技能並身體力行體驗所學。

除了多種多樣的短期海外學習體驗活動，提供更多為期一學期的帶學分課程學生交換計劃對學生的技能獲得大有裨益。有見曾經參與學生交換計劃的同學完成學習返港後，齊聲贊同在異地學習和生活的經歷難能可貴，是大學生涯甚至人生中重要的一課，XX 大學與北京師範大學攜手合作，推出「特選交換計劃」[2]，在原有學生交換計劃的基礎上注入新元素；同學除了可以從北京師範大學多元的課程中揀取選修課以外，大學知名教學團隊更悉心編排了核心必修課程和到當地中小學的參訪、觀課、交流的機會，讓香港學生對內地中小學教育發展現狀有更深的了解和體驗。

自主性及延續性為本學習方式

現時香港各所大學所提供的境外學習機會主要是單次性進行的，而 XX 大學的境外學習活動獨特之處在於活動過程強調學生的自主性及朋輩學習之餘，校方亦會發展學長系統，促進同學經驗交流及活動的延續。學生發展活動導師亦會提供相關的培訓及支援，協助學生成長及傳遞經驗。XX 大學大部分境外學習計劃均由學生作為主導，並參與活動的組織、策劃、推行及評估工作。從出發前準備，到當地的行程和活動內容，校方都給予學生自主學習空間及發揮機會，讓他們與同行的組員討論、協商及作決定，為自己及團隊所參與的境外學習活動創造多樣化的學習機會。此外，XX 大學亦在大部分境外學習活動計劃中推行學長制度，挑選曾參加該計劃的學生擔任學長，帶領其他學生進行出發前的準備及培訓，讓他們可自行設計活動流程、建議活動內容、聯絡接待單位、進行文化及社會專題探討、準備文化交流活動，以及籌組其他出發前準備活動及會議等等，學長運用他們的經驗協助學生在活動過程中面對的難題及挑戰，從而提升的學生的領導能力及促進朋輩相互學習及知識轉移，讓境外學習經驗得以累積及延續。另一方面，負責計劃的學生發展活動導師亦會為學生在出發到當地參與活動前提供不同類型的培訓，例如：自我了解工作

2 XXX 大學已與北京師範大學合作，透過特選學習交換計劃，互派學生到對方院校交流，時間長達一學期，修讀共達十五學分的課程，包括教育學理論、教育研究方法、教育測量與評價，以及在當地實習和考察學校。

坊、目標訂立工作坊、原野烹飪、團隊建立活動等培訓，並邀請過往參加者分享學習經歷及得著。透過這些活動，學生更加了解自己及團隊的特點、釐清自己參與計劃的目的及與同團同學建立良好的合作關係。

境外活動的學習目標及挑戰

參與學生明白到境外學習活動的目的不單只是讓他們擴闊眼界及體驗當地文化，他們知道更重要是活動過後，自己對旅程的反思及與其他同學得分享。參與活動的學生於旅程前了解活動預期成效及訂下個人學習目標，並於旅程中填寫學習日誌，旅程完畢後填寫活動報告及與即將出發的學生分享自己在當地的感受及學習，令其他學生能了解境外學習活動計劃的目標及將要面對的困難及挑戰。由於學生會到達陌生且文化不同的國家進行學習，他們有機會與不同學系、年級的同學離開香港及校園的舒適區，在不熟悉的環境下相處及面對挑戰（見附錄）。學生必須面對性格各異的團友、處理團隊內的關係，接受到不同文化衝擊、價值觀及生活態度差異等挑戰。因此學生於參與活動後，他們的協作、溝通、解難及領導等個人共通能力都有所提升，而且他們學會欣賞及尊重不同的文化，更加關心境外弱勢社群及有需要幫助的人士，並且願意擔當學長的角色，把經驗及知識傳授給其他有志參與活動的同學。在各種境外學習活動當中，同學對參與一些具社區服務及文化探索性質的活動較感興趣，而於發展中國家進行義工服務及探索偏遠地方文化的活動更受同學歡迎。對同學來說，參與境外學習活動具一定程度的挑戰，因此參與同學們願意於出發前進行不同的培訓及準備面對文化上的衝擊及語言溝通上的障礙，並邀請當地大學生進行翻譯及參與討論，讓學習過程更加有效及豐富。

參與學生分享及得著

在過去一個學年，XX 大學約有一千四百多名學生參與不同類型的境外學習活動，當中海外領袖訓練計劃（LEAD Programme）每年約有二百多名同學由學長的帶領下到達多個亞洲區發展中國家進行領袖訓練、文化體驗及社區服務。計劃的前測（pre-test）與後測（post-test）結果顯示參與同學的溝通能力、解難能力、自我管理技巧、文化能力及聆聽能力等共通能力都有所提升。參與學生分享境外學習活動所到訪的國家文化與中國文化截然不同，他們不單可以擴闊視野及了解世界各地的文化，並且提升他們世界公民的意識。例如參與海外領袖訓練計劃到訪印度修讀

中文教育課程的梁同學分享：「印度人在進食時只用右手，若使用被視為不潔的左手或餐具，會被當地人認為是不尊重食物的表現，因此我們都必須入鄉隨俗，全程每日三餐都用手進食。」學生明白到文化是日積月累，並且決定了當地人的生活習慣及方式，他們必須理解及尊重文化差異。而另一位參與斯里蘭卡學習團的學生亦了解到當地僧侶有崇高的地位，普通人不能與他們玩耍及進食。這些與當地人近距離的交流及接觸，讓學生的視野不再只管限在自己的認知及本土文化之內，他們可以學習多角度的思考，從而尊重不同國家文化，關心他們的需要及宣揚相互關愛的精神。

參與學生亦透過活動當中擔當組織者角色從而了解到自己的領袖風格。其中曾擔當活動主持的修讀幼兒教育課程的李同學分享：「每個人的領袖風格都透過一日活動主持呈現，就團員的反應，我明白到作為領袖必須讓每位隊員都找到自己的價值，其貢獻也應被認同及鼓勵，團隊也自然會充滿動力。」另外，修讀心理學的榮同學亦分享：「在這短短十二天的旅程裡，我對自己的瞭解更加深刻，亦嘗試去發掘自己更多的潛能。 我發現自己是屬於溫和型的領袖類型，我會非常樂於傾聽別人的意見，然後再考慮並做出一個決定。我在做事的時候很認真，也很執著，對於一些規則比較看重，因此在初期給大家的印象都是比較冷靜和鐵面無私。但是相處久了之後，我性格中溫和和親和力強的一面就表現出來了，於是大家評價我為剛柔並濟。」

參與境外學習計劃亦拉近了學生與國際社會的關係，讓他們認識到不同地方的時事及社會問題。曾到訪越南義教主修中文教育的鄧同學分享：「這次旅程，讓我知道和當地人相處，建立關係，是令文化具體化的過程。從當地人的一言一行，你慢慢會了解到當地的教育，經濟，政治文化。我們曾在越南一間寺院進行義教，和小孩的父母溝通，才知道越南很多小孩都受著戶籍問題，因而沒有身分，不能上學。我才發現其實不單越南如此，在香港及全世界，沒有身分的學童，如難民，都是面對一樣的問題，令我反思到世界問題其實與我很近，也令我更有了解不同地方文化的興趣。」

參加較長期的活動對學生的個人成長、解決問題能力及社交能力更是有深度的作用。其中兩位參加了「特選交換計劃」的學生認為通過內地的體驗 , 提升了自己

的解決與應變能力 , 此外也會認識自己和認識新的朋友。至於「特選交換計劃」提供於當地中小學的參訪、觀課和實習的機會，學生認為加深認識內地的教育環境並了解教師的備課和施教過程 , 雖然覺得付出不少 , 但強化了對教學技巧的認識。

XX 大學鼓勵學生將參與交換活動的體驗與習得記錄在學生個人電子學習歷程檔案（e-portfolio）。檔案是 XX 大學為學生記錄其聯課學習、學校體驗和海外交流活動等而設的平台，旨在培養與課程改革所聚焦的廿一世紀技能培養（Irvine, Code & Richards, 2013; Kivunja, 2014），例如自我監控和自我調整學習、批判思維及反思性學習等能力頗為契合。其中主修語文研究參加了「特選交換計劃」的鄭同學在她的 e-portfolio 分享道：「在西師附小觀課令我感受良多，不但讓我看到內地小學的課堂是怎麼樣的、老師又會用什麼資源和方式去教導學生，從中亦讓我發現內地小學的資源很豐富且先進、同學們學習很認真和積極，並且瞭解到香港小學和內地小學在上課模式、教學方法等方面的異同，是個很難得的機會。另外，……我有機會能到北京第二實驗小學觀看一次內地的說課比賽，這是一個既難得，又新奇且大開眼界的經驗，因為我從未聽過和看過類似的教研方法，這種老師之間的學習，透過觀摩別人的教學方法以完善自己的課堂的方法讓我留下深刻的印象。」

對學生的未來的幫助

從海外領袖訓練計劃（LEAD Programme）的前測（pre-test）與後測（post-test）的結果，我們得知參與境外學習活動有助學生提升個人領袖才能及共通能力，並且擴闊他們的國際視野及宣揚關愛精神。對於修讀教育學士課程的學生來說這些海外義教活動深化他們的教學體會及經驗。參與活動的學生能學會多角度的思考及尊重不同的文化，在未來的教學過程中，當他們在面對不同文化及家庭背景的家長及學生時，更能懂得利用同理心體諒他們的處境及分析對問題背後的原因。他們所學習的共通能力，特別是溝通能力、協作技巧及解難能力等，亦有助於學生將來於工作崗位上與其他老師、家長及學生建立更好的人際關係、團隊精神及促進家校合作。更重要的是，作為未來學生的學習對象，XX 大學學生可分享個人及團隊於海外學習的經歷、得著及所見所聞等予他們將來的學生，讓下一代也能學習到尊重不同文化、建立個人及文化認同感，以及學會關心國際時事議題。XX 大學學生所學習到的領導技巧亦有助他們組織同類型學習交流團給予下一代參加，透過這些境外體驗

學習讓年輕一代有更多反思空間、建立正確的價值觀、尊重各國生活文化及珍惜自身所擁用的機會及資源，以及共同建設更美好的世界。

綜上所述，透過參與多種多樣的境外學習，學生在多方面的技能獲得提升的同時，其個人的全面發展及全球視野同時也自然得到提升，這也是目前世界主流的評級機構（如 QS, Times Higher Education）將國際化納入大學評級的其中一個因素。當然，境外學習只是國際化的其中一個部分，因此，XX 大學在推動大學的國際化進程中，除了增加多種多樣的短期／長期、帶學分／不帶學分的學習及體驗課程以外，也非常重視其他領域的國際化，包括校園國際化（Internationalization at home）、課程國際化（Internationalizing curriculum）、學生及教師構成的國際化（Internationalizing the staff and students）等。這幾個方面在過去的幾年均取得驕人的成績，同時在多次校外評審機構的評定中獲得好評。在未來的日子，XX 大學會繼續為學生提供多樣化的境外學習機會，並會加強與本地、內地及海外不同院校、政府、社會福利及慈善團體合作，推行境外學習活動，讓參與同學透過活動有所學習及成長之餘，能夠關心國際社會及服務人群。

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附錄：海外領袖訓練計劃 (LEAD Programme) 2016-17 暑期印度組服務團流程（英文版）

LEAD Programme (Summer India Tour) - 12 to 26 June 2017

The Project Site

Nandi betta (Anglicised forms include Nandidrug and Nandydroog) is an ancient hill fortress in southern India, in the Chikkaballapur district of Karnataka state. It is 10 km from Chikballapur town and approximately 60 km from the city of Bengaluru. The hills are nestled near the town of Nandi. In this area, peoples depend on agriculture most.

Mission of the Hong Kong Group

During the tour, the volunteers served in government higher primary school. The school with 112 Children and now the school has 8 staffs with 12 classrooms. The main activity was education through creative learning methods like songs, art, dance, games etc. The volunteers were involved in some renovation work for the betterment of the school.

Date		Morning	Afternoon	Evening
1	Mon. 12.Jun			Arrival @ 01:30 Departure to *FSL-India workcamp*
2	Tue. 13.Jun	Cleaning the house Free time	Orientation of FSL Expectation – Motivation – Fear workshop Community Exploration Orientation	Daily debriefing Activities with local Preparation for tomorrow
3	Wed. 14.Jun	Preparation for the teaching Activities with children	Preparation for the teaching and the ideas of wall painting	Daily debriefing Activities with local volunteer Preparation for tomorrow
4	Thu. 15.Jun	Teaching English Activities with children Wall painting	Teaching English Activities with children Wall painting	Cultural exposure (Wedding) Daily debriefing Preparation for tomorrow
5	Fri. 16.Jun	Working in agriculture field with local farmers	Indian family hosting	Daily debriefing Reflection and preparation for tomorrow

Date		Morning	Afternoon	Evening
6	Sat. 17.Jun	One day tour @ Mysore	Weekend trip to Mysore	
7	Sun. 18.Jun	Half day tour @ Mysore		Daily debriefing Reflection and preparation for tomorrow service
8	Mon. 19.Jun	Teaching English Activities with children Wall painting	Teaching English Activities with children Wall painting	Daily debriefing Reflection and preparation for
9	Tue. 20.Jun	Wall painting	Wall painting	Daily debriefing Reflection and preparation fortomorrow
10	Wed. 21.Jun	Teaching English Activities with children Wall painting	Working with farmers in field Vegetable farm	Daily debriefing Reflection and preparation for tomorrow
11	Thu. 22.Jun	Visit government nursery school	Visiting temple Shopping in market	Daily debriefing Reflection and preparation for tomorrow
12	Fri. 23.Jun	Farewell programme in school and intercultural performance Visiting the Shiva temple	Cooking the Hong Kong food to local	Activities with local volunteer Daily debriefing Reflection and preparation for tomorrow
13	Sat. 24.Jun	Nandhi hill hiking	• Free time in village	Activities with local volunteer Daily debriefing Reflection and preparation for tomorrow
14	Sun. 25.Jun	• Indian traditional dress wrapping	Visit families to say good bye Cleaning house	• Luggage packing and departure to Airport
15	Mon. 26. Jun	Departure back to Hong Kong Flight @ 7:00 am		

Internationalization in higher education: an experience and reflection from a local university

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Abstract

Internationalization has now become a main development direction and a pivotal agenda item in the higher education arena. As a university that mainly provides teachers education, offshore learning opportunities are prime to students of a university in Hong Kong. The special feature of the offshore learning opportunities provided by a university lies in the highly-emphasized students' autonomous learning and peer coaching, alongside the mentoring system which on the one hand, fosters the exchange of past experiences, facilitating a sustainable growth of the activities and on the other hand, provides a valuable chance for higher education students who aspire to be future educators, to share with their students later in the future their takeaways from all the individual and team outbound experiences from which the next generation will learn to embrace cultural differences, build up personal and cultural identities, along with developing their global perspectives.

Keywords

Offshore learning activity, globalization, learning in higher education, higher education in Hong Kong

《香港教師中心學報》，第十六卷

香港生命教育課程的框架

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摘要

現時香港的生命教育課程在設計上並沒有一個完整的框架，生命教育只不過是「德育、公民與國民教育」的其中一個部分。教育局建議把生命教育聚焦於認識生命、欣賞生命、尊重生命和探索生命這四個學習層次上，但在生命教育的內容上其實並沒有清晰的說明，只是提出了從生活事件來學習，並列舉了一些生活經歷為本的學生活動例子供學校在推展生命教育時作參考。本文先簡述生命教育的發展和內涵，然後就香港的情境，設計一個生命教育的課程框架，以期幫助學校和教師對生命教育課程的理念能夠得著一個更完整的掌握，並能夠以較清晰的條理來推展生命教育。

關鍵詞

生命教育，生活經歷為本，生命教育的課程框架，香港的生命教育

生命教育的源起

生命教育起源於西方國家，早於公元前六世紀至三世紀的希臘哲學已開始了對宇宙、生命和人的關注。生命教育最初是以傳授與死亡相關的知識、以及為舉行喪葬儀式的家庭服務為目的，包括護理臨終病人和進行悲傷輔導。其後，生命教育以關懷生命為出發點，協助個人尋求存在的意義，正確面對死亡（徐嵐、宋宸儀，2013；黎建球，2001）；由此發展出死亡學（death studies）和死亡教育（death education）。死亡教育關注生命的意義與價值，積極地生存以邁向死亡，使生命的終點成為無憾的善終，從死談生的環扣著生命的終極；死亡教育其實就是「生命教育」（Corr & Corr, 2013；張淑美，1998，2000，2001）。

Feifel、Kubler-Ross 和 Saunders 被認為是死亡學的先驅。Feifel 認為個人對死亡所抱持的理解支配著其如何生活（Kurlychek, 1977）。「關注死亡」運動更被視為死亡教育的代名詞（Fonseca & Testoni, 2011; Kurlychek, 1977; Wass, 2004）。Kubler-Ross 認為死亡是文化與生命中其中一個最正面、最具建設性和創造性的元素。Kubler-Ross 強調人類對死亡的恐懼是普遍地存在，人也一直生活在死亡的陰影之中；人越是否定死亡就越會在情緒上受害（Kurlychek, 1977）。然而，假若人能夠把死亡看作為人生的旅途中的一個無形的友好同行者，便會促使人不要把今天要做的事推到明天，從而能夠更好和更充實地生活（Braga & Braga, 1975）。Saunders 於 1967 年在倫敦創立了第一所臨終關懷機構 – 聖基道臨終安養院（St. Christopher Hospice），引進優質的醫療護理，並運用科學的數據為院友提供人本的寧養照顧直到他們生命的終結（Doka, 2007; Fonseca & Testoni, 2011; Parkes, 1997）。

踏入 20 世紀，美國在經濟方面有著高速的發展，人民雖然在物質生活得到極大滿足，但同時美國也出現了不少例如青少年吸毒、性危機、自殺、他殺、暴力襲擊等危害生命的社會問題。面對青少年對生命意識的缺失，西方學者開始了對死亡教育的探討。在 20 世紀 60 年代美國開始有學院開設與死亡教育有關的課程；到現在，已有超過 90%的學生會修讀與死亡和護理有關的課程（李霞、劉曉，2010；Dickinson, 2007; Kastenbaum, 1995; Noppe, 2007; Pine, 1986）。死亡教育不是要完全消除對死亡的恐懼，而是要減少和轉移學生對與死亡相關的恐懼，了解死亡的必然性以及尊重死亡，檢視死亡的獨特性、並把對死亡的認識和尊重融入生活中（Kurlychek, 1977）。其後，英國、澳洲、紐西蘭、以至部分亞洲的國家和地區，都在不同程度上推展具備他們自己特色的生命教育。

生命教育在英國是指「個人、社會、健康和經濟」教育（Personal, Social, Health and Economic Education（PSHE））。PSHE 協會指出 PSHE 教育是「一種能夠為幫助兒童和青少年成長、以及發展成為家庭和社會一員的課程」（McWhirter, 2009）。在英國，PSHE 教育是一門必修學科。在澳洲，其生命教育的出現主要是

由於毒品氾濫、暴力頻繁、性關係紊亂等原因；故此其生命教育的焦點是健康和藥物教育，以及家庭、學校與社會三者間的溝通、交流與融合（羅崇敏，2009；魏麗敏、張勻銘，2015）。至於新西蘭，其生命教育課程部分內容與澳洲的生命教育有點相似；宗旨在於「教育青少年和兒童並促使他們能夠作健康的抉擇從而充實和健康地生活」（Life Education Trust, 2015）。

兩岸三地中，台灣是較早推行生命教育的地區。台灣推動生命教育是與台灣校園暴力和自殺事件有關的。台灣青少年自殺大都與「學校社會適應」和「感情困擾」有關。中學階段的青少年對父母認同感降低，對同儕的認同與對偶像的崇拜以及對異性產生興趣等問題，加上面臨課業的壓力，成為引起青少年輕生的原因。當然，兒童與青少年的自殺也跟他們持有不正確的死亡觀念有關（徐嵐、宋宸儀，2013；張淑美，1997，2001；Balk & Corr, 1996; Chang, Tsai & Jeng, 2001; Fleming & Adolph, 1986; Orbach et al., 1983），他們由此產生了不健康的行為取向，不懂得愛惜自己、頹廢和消極，並且出現踐踏生命的偏差行為（鄭崇珍，2001）。台灣就是在這情境下關注和提倡生命教育（徐嵐、宋宸儀，2013）。台灣教育廳於 1997 年在高中階段推動生命教育課程。高雄市教育局在 1998 年編印「生死教育手冊」，以教導學生了解生與死，省思生命意義，以期避免在校園裡發生自我傷害和不愛惜生命的事情，進而能夠珍惜生命和發揮生命的價值（張淑美，2000）。台北市教育局在 1999 年也開始分三年在高中、高職和初中以至小學推展生命教育計畫（丘愛鈴，2001）。

香港的生命教育開始於 20 世紀 90 年代，香港教育當局在生命教育推展上的取態是讓學校自發開展的。生命教育的起動是源於某所中學在校內推行生命教育課程的探索。香港天主教教育委員會、香港浸會大學、香港教育學院等教育機構稍後開發了一些與生命教育有關的教材，幫助青少年學生能夠珍惜自己、尊重他人以及周遭萬物的生命。其後，一批教育界人士自發地於 2007 年籌組了「香港生命教育基金會」，以促使青少年珍惜自己、尊重他人和周遭萬物的生命（杜家慶、胡少偉，2011；張素玲等，2007；廖睿詩，2007）。

生命教育的主要內涵

各國在推行生命教育時縱使都有一些相似之處，但其具體概念、目標和實施等還是因國家和地區的差異而有所不同，因此生命教育難有一個劃一的定義。

在美國，死亡教育可以被定義為向人和社會傳遞與死亡相關的知識、以及從中產生意義的一個發展過程；鼓勵與瀕死之人作適當的互動，從而減少焦慮和建立一個對死亡恰當、正面和健康的概念，消除對死亡的禁忌，使人可以在沒有焦慮的狀態下進行理性的交流（Leviton, 1977; Warren, 1981）。美國死亡教育學者 Wass（1994）認為死亡教育大致上可劃分為三個層面。第一個層面關乎與死亡相關訊息的接受；第二個層面關乎在面對死亡相關事件時處理能力的發展；第三個層面關乎個人價值觀的釐清與培養。美國死亡教育學者 Corr 等人（Corr & Corr, 2013）提出了死亡教育可包含四個向度：「認知向度」——為學習者提供各種與死亡有關的資訊、以及對人經歷的詮釋；「情感向度」——使學生懂得如何處理死亡、瀕死和喪親的情緒；「行為向度」——使人在面對死亡喪慟時能夠適當地回應；以及在別人面對死亡喪慟時成為一位關懷者，聆聽他們和協助他們表達哀傷；「價值向度」——藉著死亡的必然性幫助學生辨識、表達、反思和確定生命的意義和價值。Corr 等人更指出死亡教育旨在（1）幫助個體對自己有更清楚的認識，欣賞自己的優點和局限，從而得著更豐盛的人生；（2）透過喪葬事情和儀式，使個體懂得怎樣面對在社會中生活所遇上的事情；（3）透過關注健康、協助自殺者、倡議器官移植等議題，培育個體的公民角色；（4）藉著對死亡、瀕死和喪親者的關顧，培養個體在其職業中應有的角色；（5）幫助個體能夠跟別人就著與死亡有關的事情作有效的溝通；（6）藉著人生與死亡相關事件之間的互動，幫助個體能夠欣賞生命的發展（Corr & Corr, 2013）。由此可見，美國死亡教育最終的目標跟生命教育的目標都是頗為一致的。

英國的 PSHE 教育雖然沒有直接的討論死亡和生命，但其目的是要幫助青少年在知識、態度和技能方面均有所發展，以致他們能夠健康和安全地生活，讓他們的天賦和技能得以發展，享受和取得成就，提升生活的素質並對社會作出積極的貢獻（Brown et al., 2011; HM Treasury, 2004; McWhirter, 2009）；故此 PSHE 教育大體上與美國死亡教育的目標「反思生命的意義和價值」是呼應的。

台灣的生命教育主要是針對經濟發達社會中「價值理性」和「目的理性」的萎縮（馮建軍，2010）。台灣的生命教育較偏重於尊重生命以及在情意方面的發展，重點放於珍惜自己和他者的生命，目標是要和諧共處而不是互相殘害，瞭解生命的意義、對人的尊重以及對死亡的正確認知。在學校裡推動生命教育是要幫助學生思索生命的意義，認識自己的生命，珍愛生命，提升他們對生命的尊重與關懷，尊重他人的生命，進而珍惜人類所共同生存的環境，回饋社會造福別人。故此，目標不單是讓學生懂得生活和珍惜生存，引導他們思考生命的意義從而去追求幸福生活，更須對他們培養對生命的終極關懷（丘愛鈴，2001；何福田，2001；肖川、陳黎明，2013；馮建軍，2009；黃德祥，2000；鄭崇珍，2001）。在台灣，生命教育被界定為一種全人教育，「生命教育就個體本身而言，是關乎全人的教育，目的在於促進個體生理、心理、社會、靈性全面均衡發展；就個體與外界的關係而言，是關乎與他人、與自然萬物、與天（宇宙主宰）之間如何相處之教育。目標在於使人認識生命（包括自己和他人），進而肯定、愛惜並尊重生命；以虔敬、自護之心與自然共處共榮，並尋得與天（宇宙）的脈絡關係，增進生活的智慧，自我超越，展現生命意義與永恆的價值」(吳庶深、黃麗花，2001，19 頁）。

香港生命教育的推行背景跟台灣有所相似，把重點放在對自己生命的珍惜、他者生命的尊重、以及與他人和諧共處。教育局把生命教育從屬於「德育、公民與國民教育」。生命教育是要幫助學生在面對不同的處境時能懂得如何處理相關的情緒並能克服逆境，進而探索生命的價值和意義，建立正面的價值觀及積極的人生態度，能夠珍惜自己、關愛他人和環境，進而過一個快樂、充實和有意義的人生；以期透過生命教育鼓勵學生為自己的學業和人生訂立目標和理想，並為社會作出貢獻、造福人群（教育局，2016；張永雄，2010；魏麗敏、張勻銘，2015)。在推行生命教育時，須幫助學生思考和釐清「為何而活」以及「如何生活」；從而幫助學生思索生命的意義與本質並建立生命的目標和方向，同時能與他人和大自然建立良好的關係（張永雄，2010）。魏麗敏、張勻銘（2015）指出「香港的生命教育意涵包含教育學生對自我的認識與肯定、生命的珍惜與尊重、和家人朋友相處的重要、和大自然維持良好的關係、積極面對生命無常與不可控因素、規劃生命以自我實現」(115 頁）。

各地生命教育的背景和內容都是不盡相同；然而，它們都有著一些共同的內涵，幫助學生主動地認識自己、反思和探索生命的意義和價值以及和生死相關的個人價

值、尊重自己和珍惜自己的生命、提升他們與他人和諧相處的能力、提升他們對生命的尊重與關懷、了解人與環境共生的關係並對社會作出積極的貢獻等（黃德祥，2000；魏麗敏、張勻銘，2015）。在美國，生命教育主要是透過死亡教育的課程來體現。在英國，生命教育主要是透過 PSHE 課程來實施。在台灣，生命教育是透過與認識自己、他人、環境和宇宙相關的課程內容來達致。在香港，教育局在生命教育上並沒有具體的建議，只是提出了要以學生的生活經歷為本、以互動學習的方式來推動生命教育（教育局，2016；張永雄，2010）；卻欠缺了具體的課程建議。

香港生命教育的理念架構

香港的生命教育在設計上並沒有一個完整的課程框架，它是從屬於「德育、公民與國民教育」之下；「德育、公民與國民教育」包括品德及倫理教育、公民教育、《基本法》教育、人權教育、國民教育、禁毒教育、生命教育、性教育、可持續發展教育（教育局，2016）。生命教育只不過是「德育、公民與國民教育」的其中一個部分。然而，「德育、公民與國民教育」一直以來都不是一個具完整和嚴謹框架的課程，教育局沒有把它發展為一個正規課程；因此學校基本上都是採納滲透方式藉隱蔽課程、學校活動、以及透過各學科的正規課程來予以推動。故此，香港的學校在推展生命教育課程時，大致上也是採取這種方式的。教育局在生命教育課程的理念架構上，建議「將生而命教育的學習內容框架聚焦於認識生命、欣賞生命、尊重生命和探索生命這四個學習層次上。……通過這四個層次，讓學生掌握有關的價值信念：從認識生命的奇妙開始，肯定其價值（認識生命）；進而接納欣賞自己生命的轉變，愛惜生命（欣賞生命）；並學會關懷珍視他人，尊重生命（尊重生命）；最後做到追求生命理想，超越自我的生命探索階段（探索生命）」（張永雄，2010，9-12 頁）。「認識生命就是要讓學生……欣賞生命就是要幫助學生……尊重生命旨在幫助學生……探索生命旨在幫助學生」（張永雄，2010，13-15 頁）。幫助學生透過他們的六種日常生活經歷（即個人成長及健康生活、家庭生活、學校生活、社交生活、社會與國家生活和工作生活）以掌握生命教育的四個層次（張永雄，2010，16 頁），由此「強化學生的抗逆能力，培養學生正面、積極的人生觀，裝備青少年以面對人生的種種挑戰」（張永雄，2010，21 頁）。從有關文件中可見教育局所倡議的生命教育在課程設計上，與一個良好的課程設計尚有一段距離。它雖然提出了生命教育的目的：認識生命的奇妙、肯定生命的價值、愛惜生命、欣賞

自己生命的轉變、尊重生命、關懷珍視他人、探索生命和追求生命理想，並提出從認知、態度和技能三個層面幫助學生建立正面積極的態度、提高他們解決問題和抗逆的能力（教育局，2016）；但在生命教育的內容上其實並沒有清晰的說明，只是提出了從生活事件來學習，列舉了一些生活經歷為本的學生活動例子供學校在推展生命教育時作參考。

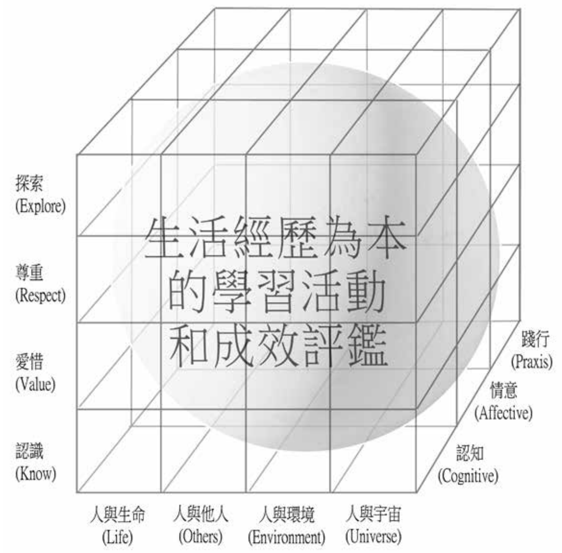
綜觀有關生命教育的討論，各國的生命教育在課程的目標上都不會付之闕如；但在課程的內容和評鑑上均尚有可予以改進的空間。根據不同的課程理論，課程是學校有計劃地要達致的學習成果（Johnson, 1967）；可以是包含了目的、內容、教學模式和對學習成果作評鑑的學習計劃（Taba, 1962）；也可以是指學習者在學習過程中所獲得的經驗（Sowell, 2000）。在發展一個課程時，包含了闡釋目標、選擇和組織學習的知識和經驗、以及對達致有關目標的評鑑等不可或缺的元素（Hooper, 1971; Nicholls & Nicholls, 1978; Taba, 1962）。由此，不論如何界定課程，在設計和發展一個課程的時候，必須在課程目標、課程內容和課程評鑑三方面作邏輯性的考慮（Cowen & Harding, 1986）。課程目標決定了學生的學習需要，課程內容包含了要教和學甚麼、以及怎樣教和怎樣學，課程評鑑包含了教和學成效的評估。課程目標、課程內容和課程評鑑三者存在著邏輯的關係。課程目標的決定影響了要教和學甚麼，同時也影響著要評鑑甚麼和如何進行評鑑。

一個有效的課程設計必須在課程目標、課程內容和課程評鑑三方面具邏輯性地緊扣起來的，更要把不同相關領域的知識作有序的安排以滿足學生的需要（Winch, 2013）。此外，若要使學習成果得以高度實現，在設計和實施課程時須在學生的學習活動和經歷上遵守（1）與真實的世界相關、（2）有序、具建設性並互相扣連、（3）要求學生運用漸進的高階思維、（4）活動之間並跟學習成果互相配合、（5）富趣味和挑戰激發學習等原則（Biggs, 2003; Meyers & Nulty, 2009）。香港現時的生命教育雖然指出了課程的目的、學習內容方面的四個層次（認識生命、欣賞生命、尊重生命和探索生命）以及學習成果三個層面（認知、態度和技能），但在課程內容和評鑑範疇上卻沒有明確的指引。若要有效地推動生命教育，便需要把香港的生命教育課程予以完整化。香港推展生命教育只不過是把它作為達致「德育、公民與國民教育」目標的其中一個手段。倘若把焦點放在生命教育所要追求的目標上，香港可以像台灣般把生命教育界定為一種全人教育。其實香港「德育、公民與國民教育」

的大部分元素（品德倫理教育、價值教育、性教育、禁毒教育、人權教育、公民教育、可持續發展教育、甚至消費者教育）都可以涵蓋在生命教育之中。一個從全人教育角度出發的完整生命教育課程，將會對學校和教師在推行生命教育、以至「德育、公民與國民教育」有所幫助。

假若香港像台灣般把生命教育視為「關乎個體如何與他人、與社會、與自然、與宇宙之間相處互動的教育，培養學生社會能力與認識生存環境，目標在於促進個體與外界良性的互動發展，並以虔敬、愛護之心與自然共存共榮，尋得個體與宇宙的脈絡關係，展現生命永恆價值」（鍾愛等，2006，12 頁）的全人教育，香港的生命教育可從課程內容的範疇、課程目標的層次和課程成果的體現等三個向度（dimensions）來加以推展。課程內容範疇的向度關乎學與教活動的取材，課程目標層次的向度關乎學與教活動的設計，而課程成果體現的向度關乎學與教活動的評鑑。圖一顯示了一個以這三個向度為基礎的生命教育課程的理念框架。

圖一：生命教育課程的框架



課程內容範疇方面，可取材台灣的生命教育依循「人與生命」、「人與他人」、「人與環境」和「人與宇宙」四個範疇，讓學校和教師從中按不同的目標層次和學習成果的層面從自己、他人、環境和大自然等不同範疇選擇適切的學與教活動的內

容。在課程目標層次的向度方面，可就「認識」（know）、「愛惜」（value）、「尊重」（respect）和「探索」（explore）四個層次，按學生的成長和學習階段在有關的學習內容上設計相配合的學與教活動，以配合不同層面的學習成果。學生從認識生命的奇妙、珍貴和生命力價值，進而懂得欣賞自己的生命、接納自己和愛惜自己的生命，繼而懂得欣賞別人的生命、關愛他者、愛惜和尊重別人的生命，更進一步的就是探索自己生命的向前邁步、突破現狀、自我超越、追求自我實現，並造福他者。

課程成果體現向度可分為「認知」（cognitive）、「情意」（affective）和「踐行」（praxis）三個不同的層面。教師須設計適切的評鑑方案評估學生在有關的學習內容和目標層次上，能否達致各個成果層面所期望的水平。學生須先在認知層面瞭解自己、瞭解生命的可貴、在遇上困境時能夠辨識問題和自己的情緒、知道怎樣尋求應對問題的方法；進而是在情意態度上即使問題複雜仍樂於面對問題、積極地不輕言放棄，當他人遭遇困境時也會正面地看待他們的問題；最後，他們能夠付諸行動，積極地面對和解決問題，在有需要時會尋求協助，當他人遭遇困境傷痛時也願意施以援手；最終的結果就是使自己和能夠幫助他者面對人生種種的挑戰。

「內容範疇」、「目標層次」和「成果體現」這三個向度是互相扣連在一起的，學校和教師按學生的學習階段、生活情境和經歷，從而設計合適的學與教的活動。以生活事件和生活經歷為本的活動來進行生命教育的學習是一個可取而實際的方法；而且也應該是用以貫串學習內容、目標和成果的學與教的主要活動，因為生命教育本身便是一種關乎怎麼生活的教育。故此在圖一的生命教育課程框架中，學生生活經歷為本的學與教活動和成效評鑑方式是課程的核心。學校和教師須採取學生生活中所經歷的事例和適合的評鑑方式來把學習內容、學習目標和學習成果連繫起來。例如可在「人與他人」的範疇按著學生成長階段的生活經歷，設計相應的學與教活動以認識對異性和他人的尊重、以及公民的責任和權利，並探索在當下他們的責任，更進而了解、認同並在現實的生活中踐行對生命和他者的尊重以及所應履行的責任。

在實施生命教育時，學校可以按著這個框架設計成一個獨立科目，從上述三個度向制定各個級別的目標、內容和成果，按級別逐層遞進；也可以把它融入各個學科以及同課活動之中。然而，假若學校採取融入其他學科的方式的話，統籌生命教

育的負責教師必須仔細地與有關學科的科主任進行跨學科的教學設計，透過主題為本跨課程的模式（theme-based cross-curricular approach）（Barnes, 2015）（例如把「關愛身體」這主題融合科學學習領域和人文學科學習領域，透過生活事件和生活經歷活動以講授和提問、角色扮演、討論、專題研習等方式來推行，讓學生認識自己的身體、了解如何重視自己的身體，以及如何尊重別人的身體）；使生命教育的實施井然有序而不致做成偏頗和缺漏，也可以確保學習成果的達成。

由於教師在教學的過程中是要幫助學生建構對生命教育的理解和養成實踐生命教育的能力和熱忱，故此在評鑑學生在生命教育的認知、情意和踐行等不同層面的學習成果體現時，教師須設計多元的評估方案來評鑑學生在不同學習成果層面學習的成效。除了紙筆式評估外，替代型評估（alternative assessment）如教師的觀察、學生口頭匯報、自我報告、同儕評估、樣本匣評估（學習歷程檔案）以及專題研習都是可行的評估方式，藉以全面和持續地評估學生在生命教育的認知、情意和踐行等層面的學習成果（Bolton, 1999; Newell, 2003; Preskill, 1999; Simon & Forgette-Giroux, 2000; Sunal & Haas, 2005; Weeden et al., 2002）。

結語

上述所提出的理念框架能較全面地包括了學習目標、內容和成果評鑑等元素。即使在香港的學校裡，生命教育並不像其他學科般在學校的時間表上佔有一定的教學課節，這個框架也可以幫助學校和教師按著學生的成長階段，從自己、他者、環境和大自然的題材中，採納跟他們的生活經歷相關的內容，設計適切的學習活動和評鑑方式。而且，這個框架不但在學習內容上真實地（authentic）緊扣著學生的日常生活經驗；同時也將會促進主題為本跨課程模式的實踐；因為主題為本跨課程模式的學和教就是一種包含了學習目標、評估、豐富跨學習領域內容、並以兒童為中心、可持續的教與學模式（Barnes, 2015）。故此，以生活經歷貫串著學習內容、學習目標和學習成果的生命教育課程，將有助學生進行探索式的學習活動；同時也能夠從全人發展的角度幫助他們建立正面的生活態度和生命價值取向，並且幫助學生在非認知能力（non-cognitive abilities）方面的發展，培育他們具備成年階段所需的素養、以及能夠面對問題和適當應對未來種種轉變的能力。然而，上文雖就生命教育課程的實施和評鑑作出了一些建議，例如替代型評估比紙筆式評估將更能有效地

評估學生在情意和踐行中的表現，但由於篇幅所限未能詳加闡釋；如何在生命教育中設計和執行替代型評估也是須細加探究的。

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A curriculum framework for Hong Kong's life education

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Abstract

To date, life education in Hong Kong is only part of the Moral, Civic and National Education and there is not a comprehensive framework in terms of curriculum design. The Hong Kong Education Bureau (EDB) proposed that life education should be based on four levels viz. awareness of life, appreciation of life, respect of life and exploration of life. However, the curriculum documents of EDB have not delved into the content of life education, but put forth the idea of learning through activities related to the life experiences of students and enumerated few examples of these activities which schools can relate to when implementing life education. This paper will briefly examine the history and conception of life education, elucidate the present situation of Hong Kong, and put forward a framework for the curriculum of life education to help teachers grasp a more comprehensive understanding of life education and adopt appropriate approaches for implementing life education in their schools.

Keywords

Life education, life experience-based, curriculum framework of life education, life education in Hong Kong

《香港教師中心學報》，第十六卷

香港中一入學前香港學科測驗的操練：囚徒困局的詮釋

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摘要

香港中學派位制度以「中一入學前香港學科測驗」成績為基礎。該學科測驗設計理念清晰，希望降低學校對操練學生的控制、減少學生操練的誘因；然而，學生仍陷入操練困局。本文引用囚徒困局詮釋香港學校操練學科測驗的現象。首先，本文簡述囚徒困局的概念；接着，分析內地及香港學校與學生陷入考試操練困局的情況；第三，應用囚徒困局詮釋香港學科測驗的現象；最後，探討打破考試操練困局的方法。筆者認為，打破困局的方法不外兩方面：一為提高個人的理性水平；二為改變制度內的收益。

關鍵詞

香港教育，囚徒困局，中學學位分配

壹、引言

亞洲以至全球各地的學生，備受考試煎熬。香港學生雖然在國際測試成績中表現優異，但卻承受操練和考試的壓力。香港政府雖然不斷改變考試制度，以減少學生操練，但學生仍未能擺脫操練的困局。1970 年，香港以升中試結果分派中學學位（Secondary School Places Allocation），學生因而操練升中試中文、英文及數學的

試題。1978 年，香港以學能測驗調節學生派位次序和學校間差異，學生因而操練學能測驗。2006 年，政府以校內考試成績決定學生派位組別 [1]，以「中一入學前的學科測驗」（Pre-Secondary One Attainment Test, 簡稱 Pre-S1）成績決定學校派位組別之比例。換言之，Pre-S1 的主要功能是決定學校第一、二、三組別學生學額的比率。升中試、學能測驗和 Pre-S1 作為升中派位的考試，都為學校和學生帶來沉重的壓力。

Pre-S1 設計理念清晰，希望降低學校的操控、減少學生操練的誘因。然而，學校及學生仍操練 Pre-S1。本文作者認為，小學面對 Pre-S1 影響下年度派位結果，面對與其他小學爭奪更佳派位的成績，無可避免地要求學生操練。本文嘗試引用囚徒困局（ prisoner's dilemma）詮釋香港學校及學生操練 Pre-S1 的現象。首先，簡述囚徒困局的概念；接着，分析內地及香港考試陷入困局的現象；第三，應用囚徒困局詮釋操練 Pre-S1 的現象；最後，探討打破困局的方法。

貳、囚徒困局的探討

囚徒困局是博奕論的典型例子，應用範圍極廣，如經濟學、政治科學、管理學、社會學等（Amadea, 2016; Dufwenberg, 2010; Kuhn, 2014），近年更應用至教育領域（Gu, 2015; Webster, 2015），如課程（柯政，2005）、考試（霍秉坤，2015; Webster, 2015）等。

一、囚徒困局的理念

囚徒困局的情景如下：警方逮捕甲、乙兩名疑犯，但沒有足夠證據入罪；警方分開審問兩人，並向雙方提供選擇（見表 1）。甲和乙應該選擇縮短個人刑期的策略。就個人理性選擇而言，認罪而檢舉對方所得刑期，都較不認罪低：

- 假設對方認罪：我認罪會被判監 2 年，不認罪則被判監 10 年，故選擇認罪；
- 假設對方不認罪：我認罪會獲釋，不認罪則被判監半年，故選擇認罪。

1 香港升中派位的機制，把學生按成績分三個組別。學生之組別由校內成績決定；學校學生參與 Pre-S1 的成績，則決定學校三個組別所佔比率。

從收益看，兩人都不認罪，只會被判監半年，整體及個人的結果較認罪為佳；然而，兩人理性地追求個人最大利益而認罪，結果是總體的利益較不認罪為低（張宮熊，2009；Raiffa, Richardson, Metcalfe, 2002）。形成困局有兩個重要條件（Fisher, 2008）。首先，甲、乙都選擇「認罪」，處於納什均衡（Nash equilibrium）的狀態（Rasmusen, 2006）。參與者為了爭取個人最大利益，傾向選擇「導向相對優勢結果的策略」(dominant strategy)，就是選擇認罪（范如國，2011）。在這種狀態之下，雖然並非達致最佳總體利益，但各人都不願單方面改變策略。若一方選擇「不認罪」，個人便會承受最大惡果；因此，各人都維持「認罪」策略，「認罪」策略遂成為均衡點。其次，收益支付必須符合三種情形，才會形成困局。第一，從個人收益而言，在對方認罪時自己不認罪的報酬（T (Temptation to defect，對背叛的誘惑)）＞雙方不認罪的報酬（R (Reward for mutual cooperation，對雙方合作的獎勵)）＞雙方認罪的報酬（P (Punishment for mutual defection，對雙方背叛的懲罰)）＞在對方不認罪時自己認罪的報酬（S (Sucker’s payoff，受騙者得到的報酬)）（即 $T > R > P > S$）。第二，從整體收益而言，兩人合作的收益（2R）較單獨背叛（$T + S$）和互相背叛（2P）為高（即 $2R > T + S > 2P$）（Kuhn, 2014）。第三，收益支付是非零和遊戲。

表 1　囚徒困局

	甲不認罪（合作）	甲認罪（背叛）
乙不認罪（合作）	二人都判監半年 (R)	甲即時獲釋 (T)；乙判監 10 年 (S)
乙認罪（背叛）	甲判監 10 年 (S)；乙即時獲釋 (T)	二人都判監 2 年 (P)

簡言之，囚徒困局涉及三個重要概念：首先，假設參與者是理性的，選擇策略是要爭取個人的最大利益；其次，參與者以理性選擇個人最佳策略時，總體收益並非最大；第三，參與者維持現行策略，遂形成均衡點。

二、應試操練之困局

不少學者以囚徒困局詮釋內地應試教育。柯政（2005）分析內地課程改革和應試教育，預期學校不會重視非考試課程，反而會持續抓緊應試教育。李斌輝

（ 2008）認為課程改革雖略有成效，但未能改變應試文化，未能使學生擺脱應試困局。學生、家長、教育專家都試圖減輕學生學習壓力，可惜學生仍陷入增壓的困局（白波，2006，頁 60-61）：

> 得高分的會進入好的國中、高中，進入好的國中、高中的學生可以憑高分進入好的大學。而對於老師和學校來說，學生的升學率高意味著老師名利雙收、飯碗牢靠⋯⋯如果整個規則都傾向於「增壓」，「壓」又如何減得下來？

Yu & Ding (2010) 的研究顯示，家長為讓子女爭取更佳成績，為怕子女落後其他學生，會為子女提供課後補習，因此形成操練困局。換言之，各人都爭取更佳成績，但因為所有家長都提供課後補習，故未能藉操練而取得優勢，反而令學生承受操練的壓力。十多年來，內地倡導教育減負，但徒勞無功。

與內地相似，香港同樣陷於考試操練困局。比方説，香港學生上世紀末陷入操練學業能力測驗（簡稱「學能測驗」）的困局。學能測驗辦法如下（楊奇，1993，頁 196）：

> 由 1978 年開始，所有小學畢業生都獲中一學位，並按一種新制度分配學位。具體辦法是把全港分為不同的學校網，學生按照就讀小學五年級和六年級的三次校內考試成績，加上中央統籌的學能測驗（包括文字推理和數位推理）⋯⋯分派學位。

曾榮光（ 2006，頁 138）分析精辟，認為學能測驗[2] 的參與者均無可避免地跌進「雙輸」的局面，一方面各方承受操練的惡果，另一面未能在成績調節過程取得優勢（見表 2）。2000 年，教育局[3] 希望打破困局，取消學能測驗；後於 2006 年引入 Pre-S1 作為調整學校間差異的方法。

2 中學學位分配 (Secondary School Places Allocation, SSPA) 之參數主要來自考試。1978 年起，各小學的中學校派位組別比率參照「學能測驗」的成績；2006 年後，比率則參照「中一入學前學科測驗」(Pre-S1)。

3 初名教育及人力統籌局，後改為教育統籌局，再改為教育局。除引述原文外，本文全用「教育局」。

表 2　香港學能測驗操練的困局（曾榮光，2006，頁 138）

<table>
<tr><td></td><td></td><td colspan="2">你</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td></td><td>進行學能測驗操練</td><td>不進行學能測驗操練</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">我</td><td>進行學能測驗操練</td><td>• 雙方均承受操練帶來的惡果
• 雙方在 SSPA 的成績調節機制中均沒有優勢 (A)</td><td>• 我需承受操練帶來的惡果
• 我在 SSPA 的成績調節機制中取得優勢 (C)</td></tr>
<tr><td>不進行學能測驗操練</td><td>• 我可避免操練帶來的惡果
• 我在 SSPA 的成績調節機制中陷於劣勢 (B)</td><td>• 雙方均可避免操練帶來的惡果
• 雙方在 SSPA 的成績調節機制中均沒有優勢 (D)</td></tr>
</table>

當教育局打破學能測驗困局時，全港性系統評估（Territory-wide System Assessment，TSA）卻形成另一操練困局。全港性系統評估旨在協助學校和政府了解學生在中、英、數三科的水平，以制定改善學與教成效的校本計劃和教育政策（香港考試及評核局，2009），屬於低風險的評估。然而，學校和學生認為 TSA 成績影響深遠，有助提升學校聲譽，因此操練 TSA 練習，遂陷入操練困局（霍秉坤，2015）。換言之，若所有學校都選擇不操練 TSA，學校都沒有損失（也沒有優勢），可以避免陷入操練困局；然而，學校理解 TSA 具重要影響，因而「理性地」選擇對本身最有利的策略，就是選擇操練，因而陷入困局。

中國內地考試、香港升中考試、香港 TSA 都使學校和學生陷入操練困局。按現行制度，學生「增負」獲取高分，便能爭取入讀好學校，求取優職。換言之，不論其他學生採取何種策略，個別學生都會選擇「增負」策略，以爭取個人最大利益。若所有學生都採「增負」策略，則社會便陷入應試教育的困局。所有學生採「增負」策略，成為一種穩定的策略，形成納什均衡點（潘天群，2006）。筆者認為，囚徒困局有助詮釋亞洲地區的考試制度：學校、教師、學生、家長都是困局中的參與者；各人理性地選擇個人最佳策略，卻出現整體不理想的結果。

叁、操練「中一入學前學科測驗」之困局

一、「中一入學前學科測驗」簡介

自 2007 年起，教育局修訂香港中學學位分配辦法，但保留學校間成績差異的調整機制。教育局學位分配組（ 2015，頁 1）解釋調整機制:「由於各學校課程有別，評分的標準亦不同，不宜直接將各校的校內成績合併排列成總次第作為分配中一學位之用。」調整機制方法如下（教育局學位分配組，2015，頁 2）：「小六升中一學生需要參加中一入學前香港學科測驗，其成績會用作調整其中一新生所屬小學的之後的小六學生的派位分配，即影響學校下一年度小六學生派中學學位的分配。Pre-S1 的成績每兩年取樣一次，並取最近兩年的成績。」調整機制是以近兩年中一入學前香港學科測驗（ Pre-S1 ）的成績作為調整指標。比方説，2015/2017 派位年度的統一派位採用學校在 2014 及 2016 年抽樣所得的 Pre-S1 的平均成績作為調整工具。

教育局改變調整機制，並安排中學新生於中一註冊日參加 Pre-S1，以減低小學控制學生為測驗操練的力度。然而，操練問題仍然存在。首先，學生與家長都重視 Pre-S1 成績，因為成績影響學生中一編班。其次，Pre-S1 雖然對應考學生本身的中學派位毫無影響，但直接影響其小學的分數調整以至學校未來的派位結果。因此，學校仍會操練學生，期望他們能爭取最佳成績，協助學校下年度學生之中學派位。結果，學校及學生仍為應付 Pre-S1 而操練。事實表明，只要有考試，操練便會接踵而至。

二、「中一入學前學科測驗」操練

Pre-S1 對學校具長遠影響，學校不敢掉以輕心，遂要求學生操練 Pre-S1。香港初等教育研究學會「中小學教師對中一入學前學科測驗的意見」調查（問卷 406 份，小學 55 所）顯示，小學教師多不認同教育局的觀點（見表 3 ）。回應「貴校有否為小六學生應考全港系統評估 (TSA) 及中一入學前香港學科測驗（ Pre-S1) 作準備？」時，教師表示對兩試皆有準備（見表 4 ）。

表 3　香港初等教育研究學會（初等教育研究學會，2009）

教育局的觀點	很同意	同意	不同意	很不同意	無意見
1. 中一入學前香港學科測驗對學校及學生而言皆屬低風險的評估	0.5%	12.3%	45.6%	36.7%	21.4%
2. 測驗的成績對參加測驗學生的派位結果沒有影響，故此學生不會因這測驗增添不必要的壓力	1.7%	15.3%	48.8%	33.3%	1.0%
3. 當學校處理好日常的教學工作，學校和家長便不用為這些評估作額外準備	0%	6.9%	44.6%	47.8%	0.7%
4. 中一入學前香港學科測驗主要目的，是讓中學透過校本閱卷知道錄取的中一新生在中、英、數三科的強弱，以便儘早做好拔尖保底的工作	5.4%	58.6%	20.2%	9.9%	5.7%

表 4　小學應付 TSA 及中一入學前測試（初等教育研究學會，2009）

教育局的觀點	很同意
1. 對兩試皆有準備	96.1%
2. 只準備學生考全港系統評估 (TSA)	3.0%
3. 只準備學生考中一入學前香港學科測驗 (Pre-S1)	0%
4. 兩試皆沒有準備	0.7%

沒有填答（遺漏）的比率為 0.2%。

教育局認為無須操練 Pre-S1，但學校仍要求學生操練，方法包括課後指導學生應試，如一所學校安排學生每週操練 Pre-S1（見表 5）；此外，教育中心提供 Pre-S1 練習（見表 6）。趙永佳、何美儀（2014）認為：「整個小學系統其實是被考評，尤其是 TSA 及和 TSA 相似的 Pre-S1 考試所主導。」因此，學校難於停止操練 Pre-S1。

表 5　一所小學

	20xx 年 xx 月 xx 日至 xx 月 xx 日 （學校假期、考試前一週及考試週暫停）			
日期	（逢星期二）	（逢星期三）		（逢星期四）
科目	中文	英文（1 組）	英文（2 組）	數學
負責老師	xxx 主任	xxx 老師	xxx 老師	xxx 主任
地點	6A 課室（xx 室）	6A 課室（xx 室）	5B 課室（xx 室）	6A 課室（xx 室）
時間	下午 3:45 - 4:30	下午 3:45 - 4:30	下午 3:45 - 4:30	下午 3:45 - 4:30

請於 xx 月 xx 日或之前填妥回條交班主任彙收，轉交 xxx 主任辦理。

表 6　出版社廣告

Pre-S1 中、英、數全攻略
- 特別為新學年升讀中一的學生而設。
- 由於學校會以 Pre-S1 香港學科測驗作為編班試，而現時中學可自行分配中、英文班的班數比例，若能在 Pre-S1 取得理想成績，入讀英文班的機會亦會大大提升。
- 全面鞏固 Pre-S1 香港學科測驗每年必考的主要範疇。
- 分析歷年 Pre-S1 的題目比重，讓學生集中精神重點溫習，提高成效。
- 教授答題技巧及取分策略，考取高分無難度。提供終極模擬測驗作試前熱身，讓學生全面進入考試狀態。
- 上課日期： 6 - 7 月份期間
- 上課時間： 6 小時 (溫習 / 操練) + 1 小時 30 分 (1 堂模擬試卷)
- 有關 Pre-S1 課程詳情、優惠及時間表請致電各分校查詢。

三、「中一入學前學科測驗」操練困局的分析

Pre-S1 是調整學校派位機制的測驗。教育局的設計原意，是希望把成績作為翌年調節機制，而且學生離開小學後才參加考試，目的是避免學校操練學生；然而，學校仍按 Pre-S1 考試而進行操練，使學生承受操練帶來的惡果。學校通常把 Pre-S1 內容及形式加入校內之課程及考試中，使學生離開小學前不斷操練 Pre-S1 題目。因此，政府改變原初派位（ 1978 年起施行之學能測驗 ）的「收益支付」後，新派位（ 2007 年起施行的 Pre-S1 ）的「收益支付」又形成新囚徒困局。對學生而言，

Pre-S1 成績只會影響中一分班，而不會影響派位結果，風險較低；對學校而言，測驗影響學校未來的派位結果，風險甚高。

假設全甲、乙兩所學校面對 Pre-S1 時，甲學校將會考慮四種情況：若乙學校不要求學生操練而甲學校要求，乙學校收益最少（ S ）而甲學校收益最大（ T ）；若乙學校要求學生操練而甲學校不要求，乙學校收益最大（ T ）而甲學校收益最少（ S ）；若兩學校都要求學生操練，收益相同但不高（ P ）；若乙學校和甲學校不操練，收益相同而且較 P 為高（ R ）。換言之，學校操練與否的收益支付會出現 T ＞ R ＞ P ＞ S 及 2R ＞ T + S ＞ 2P（見表 7 ），遂形成困局。兩所學校明顯面對困局：雖然代價是學生承受操練惡果，但因 Pre-S1 成績關乎學校的榮辱，包括派位、校譽等（總收益支付為 T ），學校都會要求學生操練。因此，學生都承受操練惡果而學校沒有取得調節機制之優勢。

表 7　學校面對 Pre-S1 測驗操練的困局

<table>
<tr><td></td><td></td><td colspan="4">甲學校</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td></td><td colspan="2">不進行操練 Pre-S1 測驗</td><td colspan="2">進行操練 Pre-S1 測驗</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">乙學校</td><td rowspan="2">不進行操練 Pre-S1 測驗</td><td></td><td>• 甲學校學生避免操練帶來的惡果
• 甲學校學生在升中派位的成績調節機制中沒有優勢（R）</td><td>→</td><td>• 甲學校學生承受操練帶來的惡果
• 甲學校學生在升中派位的成績調節機制中取得優勢（T）</td></tr>
<tr><td>• 乙學校學生避免操練帶來的惡果
• 乙學校學生在升中派位的成績調節機制中沒有優勢（R）</td><td></td><td>• 乙學校學生避免操練帶來的惡果
• 乙學校學生在升中派位的成績調節機制中處於劣勢（S）</td><td></td></tr>
</table>

<table>
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</table>

肆、打破「中一入學前學科測驗」操練困局的構想

學者一直嘗試打破為考試操練的困局（如：文雪、扈中平，2007；李斌輝，2008；曾榮光，2006；潘天群，2006）。筆者認為，政府在設計收益支付上擁有最大的權力和資源；要打破囚徒困局，政府推行措施包括兩方面，一是提高個體對收益支付的認識，一是改變收益支付。

一、提高對制度的認識

要打破 Pre-S1 的囚徒困局，持份者對制度和資訊的認識非常重要。筆者認為，提高對收益支付的認識可從兩方面入手。第一，提高學校對策略與支付制度關係的認識。誠然，對學校而言，Pre-S1 測驗結果影響學生升中派位，影響校譽，屬高風險測驗。然而，操練 Pre-S1 能否提升學生和學校成績，仍屬未知之數。一般意見認為，學生適度練習，有助鞏固課堂學習，提升考試成績；然而，以過度操練提升考試成績，效果並不顯著。若學校清楚了解這種情況，學校便會減少操練。

第二，提升學校願景的視域，以平衡考試操練的偏狹。如前所述，Pre-S1 結果影響學校學生派位、校譽，屬高風險測驗。然而，學校若只側重考試成績，會流於偏狹，影響學生全面發展。若學校能建立願景，如重視學生全人發展、國際視野、德育及品格、體格鍛練等，則學校之收益支付不同，便不會形成困局。進一步而言，若社會整體文化改變，重視學生全人發展，社會便可走出只為成績操練的困局。

筆者認為，雖然改變個體的教育觀念有助走出困局，但長路漫漫。首先，改變持份者的教育觀念十分困難，因為學業成績是香港升學的基礎，升讀中學按 Pre-S1 的成績，升讀大學則按中學文憑考試成績。因此，家長、學校都重視考試成績，社會人士亦以考試成績評價畢業生。故此，改變持份者過於重視考試的概念，至為關鍵。其次，學校管理層的取態十分重要。若他們都要保障學校聲譽、避免落後其他學校而操練，則仍會陷入操練 Pre-S1 的困局。

二、改變制度內的收益

走出困局的另一方法是改變制度內的收益支付。張振華（ 2007，頁 23 ）認為：「擺脫增負的囚徒困境的唯一辦法是改變目前教育的博奕結構，即改變博奕規則或遊戲規則，形成一個有利於學生全面發展的博奕均衡。」簡言之，改變利益支付，甲與乙選擇認罪與否的策略也不同。以下是改變收益支付後的三種可能。

（一）脫胎換骨：打破囚徒困局

若政府改變 Pre-S1 的收益支付，甚至使之變為毫無收益（如該考試成績與升學無關），便能遏止學校操練。制度中沒有 Pre-S1，考試與升學無關，學校便不會進行考試操練（見表 8 ）。若考試與升學無關，即使學校維持操練、學生承受操練的惡果，但學校仍不能在升學機制中取得優勢;因此，學校便會採取「不操練」的策略。

表 8　學校操練 Pre-S1 毫無收益之解說

<table>
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香港教育當局曾兩次改變升中考試制度，以解決學校操練的困局。1974 年，政府取消升中試，修訂升讀中學的措施，使所有學生都獲派中一學位，希望藉此減低競爭、減少操練。當時，不少教育團體認同政府取消升中試，認為可以減少學生為應付考試而操練（程介明，1997，頁 472）。政府取消派位制度後，若不以另一制度使學生陷入操練困局，便能脱胎換骨。

同樣道理，若取消按 Pre-S1 測驗派位，便可打破操練 Pre-S1 的困局。然而，政府必須建立新分配學位制度取代 Pre-S1；同時，若不讓學校因新制度而陷入新困局，便須要建立無法藉操練取得派位優勢的制度，如就近入學、抽籤、以中小學聯繫分配學位等。

（二）新瓶舊酒：出現另一困局

政府要改變博奕的收益支付，可以改變或建立收益支付制度。然而，新制度或新收益支付可能會引出新困局。比方說，政府於 1974 年取消升中試，期望減輕學校操練學生的壓力。當時，政府引入學能測驗取代升中試，以測驗結果作中學派位的依據。學生須要參加文字和數字推理的學能測驗。學生仍然要參加考試，後來形成新的博奕：學生從爭奪學位改為爭奪學校（曾榮光，2006；鄧國俊等，2006）。換言之，政府引入學能測驗取代升中試，學校則由操練升中試轉為操練學能測驗，改變支付收益僅為新瓶舊酒。

2006 年，政府以 Pre-S1 考試取代舊的學校派位調節機制。Pre-S1 設計原意是避免學生操練。然而，辛列有（ 2008 ）質疑：「當局會呼籲學校不必操練應試，但面對家長選校的首先考慮是實實在在的升中派位結果，再加上選校，殺校等教育政策時，試問有哪一位學校同工敢掉以輕心。」學校難於脱離困局，因為考試成績直接影響學校派位結果、校譽、學生前途，與學校存亡攸關。學校仍會要求學生操練 Pre-S1，方法是把 Pre-S1 內容加入校內小五、小六呈分試的課程和評估內，使 Pre-S1 與呈分試緊密相連。結果，學校和學生仍陷入操練 Pre-S1 考試的困局；前者重視考試對升中派位調節機制的影響，後者則重視影響呈分成績的校內考試。筆者認為，若政府不改變考試影響學生升學的制度，困局難於打破。

（三）禍不單行：形成更大困局

另一種可能打破 Pre-S1 困局的方法，是加入其他的「收益支付」，使個人與整體利益配合。文雪、扈中平（ 2007，頁 24）建議：

> 除了使他能獲得正常的集體利益的一個份額之外，再給他一種額外的收益，如加分、榮譽或單考，並同時制訂出一套使個人行為與集體利益相一致的規章制度，對違背的予以懲罰等。

誠然，改變收益支付，可以改變學校、學生、家長對操練 Pre-S1 的策略。若這種「個人與整體利益配合」未能產生影響力，學校和學生不會重視這些利益，仍舊重視操練 Pre-S1 的措施。然而，若這種「個人與整體利益配合」發揮影響力，使學校爭取這些利益，改革會加劇囚徒困局。筆者嘗試把修訂入學標準加入升學制度，以說明改變可能加劇囚徒困局。現時，香港小學升中的派位制度，主要按校內呈分試及 Pre-S1 成績。假設政府改變制度，升中派位加入面試作評核標準，而且筆試及面試各佔 50%，則學校及學生之操練模式會立刻改變。筆者認為，學校及學生會同時為筆試和面試而操練，學生遂陷入更大的困局（ 見表 9 ）。

表 9　筆試與面試具影響力之困局

		學生甲			
		不增加操練筆試及面試		增加操練筆試及面試	
學生乙	不增加操練筆試及面試		• 甲學生擁有較多全人均衡發展的機會 • 甲學生在參與筆試及面試時沒有處於劣勢 • 甲學生在升學機會中沒有處於劣勢	→	• 甲學生失卻全人均衡發展的機會 • 甲學生在參與筆試及面試時佔有優勢 • 甲學生在升學機會中佔有優勢

<table>
<tr><td></td><td></td><td colspan="4">學生甲</td></tr>
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• 乙學生在參與筆試及面試時沒有處於劣勢
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• 乙學生在參與筆試及面試時處於劣勢
• 乙學生在升學機會中處於劣勢</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">乙學校</td><td rowspan="2">增加操練筆試及面試</td><td></td><td>• 甲學生擁有較有全人均衡發展的機會
• 甲學生在參與筆試及面試時處於劣勢
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• 乙學生在升學機會中沒有優勢</td><td></td></tr>
</table>

以香港經驗為例，教育局為提供更多元化之學習經驗，把其他學習經驗納入升讀大學評核制度，使學生重視其他活動。比方説，教育局提倡一生一體藝，將課外活動的評鑑制度化，使學生和教師賠上時間來換取高水平（周昭和、黃毅英，2006）。此外，香港升中派位包括自行收生階段，除考慮成績外，也計算學生面試的表現，結果是香港的面試班大行其道。這些例子都説明，改變收益支付不一定能解決困難，甚至可能製造更大的困局。

（四）小結

如前提及，政府在設計收益支付上擁有最大權力，它能推行的措施最多。文雪、扈中平（ 2007，頁 23）分析要打破困局，必須改變制度中的收益支付：

> ……只要現行的教育體制沒有變化，只要還存在著教育資源的短缺和分配不公，教育的『囚徒困境』博奕就依然在。

要改變收益支付，政府能扮演較積極的角色，影響力較大。

伍、嘗試之挑戰

雖然政府能在打破囚徒困局中扮演重要角色，但是它的措施不一定能奏效，甚或引致更大的困局。對於打破困局的嘗試，筆者提出下列三點評析。

首先，檢視相關制度，以檢視評量制度是否已形成困局。文雪、扈中平（ 2007）強調走出囚徒困境需要改變制度的收益支付。在改變收益支付的措施上，政府扮演關鍵的角色，因為它在設計收益支付上擁有最大權力。一方面，政府應該提高學校及學生對 Pre-S1 收益支付的認識。政府可以多解釋操練與學生學習及 Pre-S1 考試成績之關係，使學校及教師更了解操練與學生考試成績之關係，藉以減低學生密集操練考試的壓力。而且，政府應鼓勵學校不宥於升中派位的考試成績，鼓勵學校從多角度考慮學校願景，如重視學生全人發展、國際視野、德育及品格、體格鍛練等。若學校不僅重視學術科目的成績，還重視其他發展，則可能走出只為學術成績而操練的困局。另一方面，政府應持續檢視 Pre-S1 收益支付，以期不會出現「參與者以理性選擇個人最佳策略時，但所有人的總體收益卻不是最大的利益」的困局。若各人都因操練 Pre-S1 承受惡果，則政府應該檢視 Pre-S1 的收益支付，甚至改變制度。

其次，筆者認為，政府雖然有責任檢視 Pre-S1 的收益支付的制度，但不一定能打破學生操練考試之困局；因為政府改變收益支付後，不容易制定免於陷入困局的新制度。文雪、扈中平（ 2007，頁 24）認為，要走出囚徒困境，不但須要改變這種制度的收益支付，還需要創新教育制度。然而，筆者認為，只要考試制度存在，便不能避免操練試題，這種情況在亞洲地區尤為明顯（ Hau & Ho, 2008; 廖佩莉，

2009 ）。這種文化未改變，學校面對任何考試，仍將陷入操練試題的困局。如何解決操練困局，仍有待政府及教育學者共同努力。

第三，打破困局可從補償教育入手。談及補償教育，曾榮光（ 2006，頁 132 ）認為香港密集化考試操練文化現象，是源於教育制度內一種高度分化與分隔的結構：初小階段部分學生出現學習困難而落後；升中派位制度使學校學生趨於同質而擴大學業成績分化；參與者的理性選擇是加入無休止的密集化的考試操練。他認為這種學能差異，源於香港學校制度缺乏有效的補償教學。他建議學校教育改革應：1. 針對性、及時而又有效的補償教育；2. 減少學能及階級分隔；3. 改革高風險考試制度；4. 建立一包容的學校制度。筆者認為，曾榮光詮釋操練文化源於教育制度的高度分化與分隔結構，並且提出改革方向，極有見地。

陸、總結

本文以囚徒困局詮釋香港學校操練 Pre-S1 的現象。對於學校負責人以理性選擇策略，無論其他學校選擇哪種策略，它操練學生以應付 Pre-S1，應能獲取最大的利益；他們選擇增加學生操練，因為那是實現自身最大利益的策略，也是各持分者的納什均衡點。筆者雖然提及打破困局的嘗試，但不難發現，各種嘗試仍面對挑戰。要改變充滿考試基因的個體（鄭楚雄，2014，頁 23 ）、受制於考試制度的學校（龐永欣，2014 ）、重視考試的社會（曾榮光，2006 ），要打破學生為應試而操練的困局，政府仍須加倍努力。

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Drilling for Hong Kong pre-secondary one attainment test: A prisoner's dilemma perspective

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Abstract

The Hong Kong secondary place allocation is based on the results of Pre-Secondary One Attainment Test. The concept for designing this test in this phenomenon is clear and reasonable, aiming to reduce the possibility of school control and drilling students. Students, however, still fall into the dilemma of drilling. The article, applying the concept of prisoner's dilemma, interprets the phenomena of drilling for examination results by schools in Hong Kong. First, this article introduces the concept of prisoner's dilemma. Then, it analyses the phenomena of the dilemma of drilling for examination results among students and schools in mainland China and Hong Kong. Third, applying prisoner's dilemma to interpret the Pre-S1 phenomenon in Hong Kong. Finally, ways are suggested to solve the dilemma. The author stresses that there are two main approaches to solve the dilemma: one is to raise the rational standard of individuals and another is to change the payoffs in the reward system.

Keywords

Education in Hong Kong, prisoner's dilemma, Secondary School Places Allocation

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Career and life planning education in Hong Kong: Challenges and opportunities on the theoretical and empirical fronts

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Abstract

This is a reflection paper written from the perspective of a current in-service career guidance teacher in Hong Kong. The challenges teachers can face at both theoretical and empirical levels when implementing career and life planning education at school are reviewed. This paper also highlights a number of issues that curriculum developers should consider when devising a life planning education curriculum. By understanding these challenges, it is hoped that frontline teachers can be better equipped to develop a life planning curriculum that caters to the pragmatic needs of future generations in Hong Kong.

Keywords

career guidance teacher, career and life planning education, curriculum development, career counseling in Hong Kong

Introduction

By making available the Career and Life Planning Grant (Education Bureau, 2014a), the HKSAR government has acknowledged the rapidly changing landscape of the global economy and intends to assist future generations by raising public awareness of life planning and career guidance in all secondary schools in Hong Kong. The grant has largely served as a catalyst to initiate changes in life planning and career guidance education in Hong Kong, but it is not without its challenges, given the long history of underdevelopment in local education career counseling (Ho, 2008; Leung, 2002).

By showing the perspective of an in-service career guidance teacher in Hong Kong, this reflection paper involves a discussion of how global and cultural factors have helped to shape students' career development needs. The essay is divided into three parts. The first two consist of a literature review of the theoretical and empirical issues that affect the practice of career counseling. Particular focus is placed on discussing what Savickas (1995) refers to as the schisms between theory and practice of career guidance, how these are manifested, and their impact. The final part presents a synthesis of theoretical and empirical issues. The aim of the analysis is to contribute to the development of a career guidance program that can balance theory and practice and that is suitable for the specific pragmatic needs of Hong Kong in the 21st century.

Throughout this article, the terms "career," "career education," and "career guidance" are used. To avoid confusion and the proliferation of jargon, the author would like to clarify some specific definitions. First, "career" refers to the different life roles of an individual over his or her lifespan (Zunker, 2002) and to the totality of their lifetime pursuits. Work activities are only a subset of this total (Sharf, 2013a). "Career education" refers to any educational experience aimed at helping clients to set clear career goals and to understand more about themselves (Fung & Wong, 2012). The focus is on the teaching of attitudes, beliefs, planning, and skills in making career decisions (Savickas, 2011). This is a comprehensive educational experience in the school curriculum, featuring a combination of concepts of career development into learning experiences at all levels in all subject disciplines (California State Department of Education, 1974; Curriculum Development Council, 2017; Hong Kong Association of Careers Masters and Guidance Masters, 2008).

"Vocational education" refers to a similar form of education with a different orientation. It is a form of nonacademic training involving the direct education of practice-oriented or work-based skills for occupations (Georg & Kunze, 1981; Zelloth, 2014). This form of education is often associated with young people from lower social strata (Pahl, 2014) and is also perceived by society as an inferior form with a lower social status (Bosch & Charest, 2010).

Historical Background

When reviewing more than 50 years of development of career guidance in Hong Kong secondary schools, we witness the increasingly important roles played by career guidance and education within the local curriculum. Career guidance first gained attention in the 1950s, with the establishment of the position of Career Master/Mistress in secondary schools (Leung, 2002). Schooling at that time followed an elitist model, in which students who could not make the grades would be forced to leave the system to find work (Chung, 1977), leading to the vocational guidance nature of early career guidance practices.

In the 1970s, the introduction of mass education (Hong Kong Government, 1978) naturally led to an increase in the demand for career services. Many academically challenged students had left school with few or no qualifications and were clearly not suitable for schooling and therefore needed vocational guidance (Li, 2004).

Despite the increase in demand for career services, career guidance still did not receive much support from schools and was regarded as a low-priority extracurricular activity. The career guidance curriculum at that time was usually managed by teachers untrained in the discipline, and services available were mainly career talks and site visits. Little attention was paid to the developmental needs of the students, which was mainly attributed to a lack of resources and support provided by the school heads (Williams, 1973).

In the 1980s, a number of important policies were implemented concerning the governance and provision of guidance practices in schools (Education Commission, 1990; Education Department 2001:2). However, the main objectives of these guidelines (Education Department, 1986) were to manage pupil's behavior and develop remedial education in schools (Lai-Yeung, 2014; Yuen, 2006). There was little elaboration regarding how career guidance could be better administered. A more succinct contribution to the development of career guidance in school in that period was the announcement of the development of career assessment tools in the Report No. 1 (Education Commission, 1984). This initiated the development of aptitude tests for career guidance purposes.

In general, the effectiveness of the newly introduced policies in the 1980s was partial. Scholars raised questions about the narrow focus of the initiatives, the professional capabilities of guidance teachers, and the lack of governance of the human resources deployment strategies of some schools (Hue, 2017; Ko & Wong, 1990).

In the 1990s, a major change occurred when the Whole School Approach (WSA) was announced in Report No. 4 (Education Commission, 1990). The WSA was a new developmental approach to counseling in schools. It stressed the importance of helping learners to meet the differing needs at various stages of their lives. The traditional vocationally oriented elements within the career guidance curriculum had thus begun to diminish. Policy papers of the time emphasized the necessity for strong principal leadership and support for the WSA to function effectively (Education Department, 2001). To assist in the implementation of the WSA, the Education Department also released a series of guidelines and learning resources (Education Department 1993, 1995, for example) for schools, and later the "Operation Guide on the Whole School Approach to Integrated Education" in 2010 (Education Bureau, 2010).

From the beginning of the 21st century, increased public awareness of the need to provide quality career education and guidance to future generations led to the establishment of community initiatives by numerous nongovernmental organizations, including youth service organizations (e.g., the Federation of Youth, the Hok Yau Club, YMCA Hong Kong), charities (e.g., The Hong Kong Jockey Club Charities Trust), and commercial enterprises (e.g., McDonald's Hong Kong). These organizations conducted empirical survey studies (see 香港遊樂場協會賽馬會上葵涌青少年綜合服務中心生涯規劃關注小組，2008; 楊家正、鄭立德，2003) related to the provision of career services and career education services offered (e.g., 麥當勞，2005, 2006, 2008) to young people in local communities.

The opportunities for professional training and support offered to front-line teachers in this period were also unrivalled. For example, commissioned by The Career Guidance Services Section of the Education Bureau, the Hong Kong Association of Careers Masters and Guidance Masters devised a 100-hour certificate course in career guidance at local tertiary institutes. Every year, 30 to 60 teachers were trained in the program (Ho, 2008).

The status of career guidance was further enhanced when Hong Kong underwent a major curriculum review (see Education Commission, 2000). The "Applied Learning" curriculum, which stresses developing occupational skills, was introduced (Education and Manpower Bureau, 2006), and in the "New Academic Structure" (NAS) career education was formalized as a main area of learning. To support this newly enhanced status, "Other Learning Experiences' (OLE) was introduced as a form of compulsory cross-curricular instructional activity. Under the OLE curriculum, career education was provided to students under the domain "Career-Related Learning Experiences." The status of career education and guidance in the NAS curriculum was formalized with the launch of the Career and Life Planning Grant (CLP) in 2014. The aim of the grant was to help schools release manpower and thus allow career guidance teachers to cater for the developmental needs of their own students using the WSA (Education Bureau, 2014b). The grant could also be used to aid the flexible procurement of resources, but relying heavily on external services is not recommended, as teachers best understand the needs of their students (教育局學校發展分部，2014). The launch of the territory-wide career intervention project entitled CLAP for Youth @ JC in 2015 marked another great leap forward.

Local study

Since the inception of the CLP grant, many government survey studies have reported an increase in both the quantity and quality of career services provided by career guidance teachers (Legislative Council, 2015; 立法會, 2017). However, the problems relating to the provision of career guidance in the 1970s and 1990s can still be found today when the CLP is implemented. First, most teachers are still not sufficiently trained in the implementation of WSA (Yuen, Leung & Chan, 2014). Ho and Leung (2016) found in their survey research that compliance work in reaction to implementation of CLP policy initiatives at the school level resulted in workload intensification. Coincidentally, their research data reported that career guidance teachers today, as found in the studies in the 1970s (e.g., Williams, 1973), attributed the cause of their problems to the school management's failure in 1) reducing the workload of career guidance teachers (e.g., lesson remission) and 2) using resources legitimately. Another study revealed that front-line teachers are not confident in providing career guidance services to students, further exacerbating the problem, and only 18.9% of the surveyed students claimed that they understood their interests clearly (香港中文大學，2017).

As a frontline practitioner who has received training in career guidance, the author believes that the above problems can be best understood by first reflecting on the literature and examining the underlying theoretical weaknesses in the theory and practice of career guidance. Then, in the second part of the reflection, the author will critically review several empirical global factors that have helped to shape the current reality.

Part 1 – Fundamental weaknesses within the theoretical foundation of career counseling and life planning education

Here the main career theories are critically reviewed. Important insights are derived in terms of understanding the limitations within the current theoretical framework so that the practice of career counseling can be further refined. The discipline and practice of career counseling originated in the West, mainly in the United States (Chen & Fouad, 2013), and the development of career counseling in Hong Kong is thus heavily influenced by Western ideologies (Leung, 2002; Ng & Yuen, 2016).

A major contributing factor to the emergence of career guidance counseling is to help individuals of different abilities achieve a purposeful life through work (Zunker, 2016:8). Counselors and researchers develop various theories and psychological assessment devices to conduct career intervention to help clients. According to prominent researchers in the field, such as Savickas (1995), Holland (1996) and later Patton and McMahon (2014), despite recent advancements (e.g., systems theories in career counseling) in theoretical development, fundamental discrepancies remain between career theories because they target different aspects of career development. This results in "fragmentation, redundancy, and inconsistency" as identified by the discipline of vocational psychology (Savickas 1995:4).

1.1 Mismatch between theory and practice

To further elaborate, Savickas (1995) explained that the area of vocational psychology has a long history of divergence between theory and practice. This problem has been particularly evident during the development of career theories, which are applied empirically. First, in terms of the development of theories, researchers use different operational definitions to categorize the factors to be investigated in a research study. This is problematic because it makes the comparison of the results across different research studies extremely difficult.

Second, in terms of the empirical application of career theories, psychotherapy theorists and practitioners differ greatly in their views of counseling. The practitioners of psychotherapy argue that career counseling is a redundant subgenre of applied psychology because some evidence suggests an overlap between career and mental health counseling of students (Pace & Quinn, 2000; Savickas, 1995). These practitioners derive their knowledge from field experience and oral tradition, which are proven to be beneficial to clients. Counseling practices developed by theorists and researchers may not provide the same level of assurance in terms of effectiveness because most career theories are untested in formal empirical settings and thus are measured as purely theoretical (Holland, 1996:5). Theorists of career counseling often ignore, or are unaware of, real-world challenges that practitioners often encounter when conducting psychological intervention with their clients. Holland further suggested that many of the dominant theories are not fully supported, and some receive no support at all.

1.2 Mismatch between the theoretical construct and reality: the problem of congruency

As identified by Patton and McMahon (2014), one fundamental weakness within the discipline is that many career theories are prone to the congruency problem. These theories encounter problems of whether a person can fit into the constantly changing labor market and often ignore how sociological and cultural factors have affected the career decision-making process (Holland, 1996:5; Leung, 2008). Two of the most influential career theories, according to Leung (2008), are Holland's Theory of Personality and Work Environments (Holland, 1992, 1997) and Super's Theory of Life Stage Development (1990), and both have received similar types of criticism.

According to the literature, the problem of congruency can be viewed from two perspectives: 1) the fitness between the theoretical and empirical occupational environments; and 2) between the external and internal validity of the theoretical construct.

1.2.1 The fitness between the theoretical and empirical construct

One common criticism of the theories developed by Holland and Super is that their work does not stand the test of time. The constantly changing and volatile contemporary labor market is not fully taken into account. First, in relation to the empirical construct, which is the current labor market, Mitchell and Krumboltz (1996) criticized Holland's theory for assuming stability and rigidity within this market. This can be problematic, because different occupations can be created or made redundant through changes in the economic environment and with technological advancement. Their criticism has reasonable empirical support, such as the report from the International Standard Classification of Occupations developed by the International Labour Office of Geneva. Job classification is reported to be difficult, because not all the tasks or duties of a job are unique and thus it is difficult to specifically fit them with a job classification (International Labour Office, 2012:39).

Second, in terms of human development, Osipow and Fitzgerald (1996) further criticized both Super's and Holland's theories (Gait & Asher, 2001) in failing to account for the changes in individuals in response to changes in the occupational environments. In particular they criticized, as did Super himself (Super, 1990), the segmentation of the Life Span theory, stating that it is simply a series of generalized facts that serve little practical use. The Work Values' Inventory (Super, 1968) was also found to be internally inconsistent when used in Hong Kong (Wong & Yuen, 2015).

1.2.2 The fitness between the external and internal validity of the theoretical construct

Super's theory has been extremely influential, and Holland's even more so (Leung, 2008), but their research validity in terms of their explanatory power has stimulated wide research interest and criticism. Super's theory has been heavily criticized for being untested empirically (Super, 1990), and its internal validity is also questionable because it is segmented in nature (Osipow & Fitzgerald, 1996). It also does not address culture and gender issues (Sharf, 1997).

Holland's theory of typology has been found to be generally consistent (Sharf, 2013b), but it has still led to much academic debate over its internal and external validity. For example, Gati and Asher (2001) suggested that first, vocational interests are difficult to define and measure. Second, the relationship between various types of vocational interests is also controversial. Third, there is also a question of whether the number of types of person and environment fit should be fixed or variable. Fourth, the Holland codes may not be sufficiently defined to enable job screening. Finally, they found the theoretical construct of Holland's theory to be too rigid because it assumes that vocational interests are static and will not change. It ignores the fact that people can change, and therefore, the P-E fit, which is the congruence between an individual's characteristics and the characteristics of his or her chosen occupation stressed in the theory is overemphasized.

Numerous studies provide evidence for the criticisms of Holland's theory. Its central idea of P-E congruence was found to be of low statistical correlation, at below 0.30 (Gati & Asher, 2001) and that there is a need to refine the method and further investigate the congruence issue (Spokane, Meir, & Catalano, 2000). Sharf (1997) suggested that the theory may not be viable in explaining career development because its predictive and explanatory power is questionable (Assouline & Meir, 1987; Tokar, Fischer, & Subich, 1998).

1.3 Summary of Part 1: theoretical implications to career counselors

To summarize, we can see that fundamental deficiencies exist within the theoretical foundations of career counseling. To overcome these challenges, career counselors should become familiar with the most recent developments in the theoretical and clinical aspects of career counseling. Although progress has been made toward reaching a convergence of career theories, the process has encountered many difficulties (Savickas, 1995; Patton & McMahon, 2014). Career counselors must therefore develop a repertoire of skills that encompasses a broad and deep understanding of the strengths and weaknesses of different career theories and the related assessment inventories.

Part 2 – Challenges and opportunities within the empirical context

In this part, an overview of the employment market is described through a review of the literature and relevant statistical technical reports to highlight the career development needs of students of the 21st century.

Teenagers from all walks of life, no matter their race, ethnicity, or gender, are facing increasing challenges in making the transition from education to work. Global vocational demands have progressed from the repetitive, labor-intensive mass production that dominated the 20th century, often referred to as Fordism, to a new knowledge economy in which strong technical knowledge (Drucker, 2002) and life-long learning (European Commission, 2012; Schleicher,2015; Zunker, 2016) are important. Technological advancements have led to increasing interconnectivity. This has helped to create a new 21st century economy that changes rapidly and is volatile. To cope with the demands this brings, students of the 21st century must equip themselves with a completely different skill set to achieve a successful career (New London Group, 1996; OECD, 2013; Pang & Leung, 2008; Schleicher, 2015).

2.1 Reconceptualization of the term "career" in the 21st century

Before we discuss the process of career guidance, it is first important for us to understand how changes in the economic landscape have helped to refine the concept of "career." Zunker (2006:9) first suggested that the term can simply mean having to work to provide the money to meet financial constraints. However, he added that this traditional view of the concept of career may not be applicable to workers of the 21st century, as many of them may make multiple career changes throughout their lives. His view is echoed by Gothard (2000) who also called for an up-to-date interpretation of the term in the 21st century. A more specific definition of the concept of career is offered by Reardon, Lenz, Sampson, and Peterson (2000). A career is in their view a "Time-extended working out of a purposeful life pattern through work undertaken by the person." They suggest that the rapid development of technology and the increasing dependence on international trade have had a major effect on the labor market. Hands-on skills such as manufacturing have become largely redundant. Employees in the 21st century are mobile, good at working in teams, and technologically competent. Employers emphasize cost-saving and efficient deployment of resources. Job stability is becoming less common with fewer promotion opportunities. Long-term, stable positions are commonly restructured as contractual or part-time positions managed by independent contractors, freelance workers, and consultants. In some situations, the entire job functions within a company will be outsourced to achieve cost savings (Zunker, 2016:11).

2.2 Challenges to career guidance and life planning education in Hong Kong

2.2.1 Upward mobility stagnation and global youth unemployment

The recent paradigm shift within the employment market has led to an increase in unemployment, particularly among young people (Gothard 2000:3). Upward mobility is further stifled as higher education in Hong Kong has become more widely available (Lee, 2015).

Youth unemployment has become a worldwide phenomenon (HKSAR, 2012) and is a particularly serious problem in many European countries, where many young people find it difficult to make the transition from education to work. The term "NEET," referring to young people who are "not in employment, education or training" was coined in the United Kingdom and serves to highlight the seriousness of the problem. According to estimates released by the International Labour Organization in August 2016, the global youth unemployment rate has increased from 12.9% in 2015 and is set to remain at 13.1% through to 2017 (International Labour Organization, 2016). The report also revealed the alarming phenomenon of the rise of the class of "the working poor." According to the same report, 37.7% or 156 million working youth are in extreme or moderate poverty. This suggests that stagnation in upward social mobility is a chronic problem experienced by young people around the world.

In Hong Kong, although youth unemployment is not a pressing issue, stagnation in upward mobility is a problem that is becoming more evident. In June 2016, the Research Office of the Legislative Council Secretariat released a report entitled “Challenges of manpower adjustment in Hong Kong,” which revealed that due to the recent economic slowdown the future employment outlook is likely to stay cautious. There will be an increasing amount of young people who have attained degree education who must take up positions in lower-skilled occupations due to a slowdown in the supply of high-end jobs. They are also expected to be paid less than their predecessors (Research Office of the Legislative Council Secretariat, 2016).

From a global perspective, there is a significant worsening of youth unemployment in many advanced economies. NEETs can be found virtually everywhere in the world. According to a report compiled by the OECD in 2014 (OECD, 2014), between 2000 and 2012 about 15% of individuals between 15 and 29 years of age were classified as NEET, and a majority were women. This trend has remained stable throughout the period and is expected to persist. According to the same report, as of 2012 for the same age group, the average unemployment rate was 7% and the average percentage of people outside the labor force, that is, those who were neither in education nor seeking work, was 8% among all OECD countries. In another report compiled by the OECD in 2015 (OECD, 2015), the youth unemployment rates of the United States and United Kingdom were recorded as 11.6% and 13.2%, respectively. In some European countries such as Italy, Spain, and Greece, the youth unemployment rates were higher than 40%.

In Hong Kong, similar findings can also be observed. According to official government statistics, the youth (15 to 24 years of age) unemployment rate was 11.6% in the third quarter of 2012 (HKSAR, 2012). Another salient feature of youth unemployment in Hong Kong is that the labor force participation rate in this age group, which measures the proportion of the working age population engaging in the workforce either by working or looking for work, has shown a sustained downward trend from 1986 to 2010. The Hong Kong government reported that young people in Hong Kong had been delaying employment because of the numerous educational pathways provided to them (HKSAR, 2016). In short, we can see that regardless of geographical location, youth unemployment has become a major global issue that not only has triggered the enactment of different government policies as remedies, but also has posed challenges to educators. A very strong positive correlation between educational attainment and success in securing work has been identified and proven (Dietrich, 2013).

2.2.2 Local factors that serve as obstacles to curriculum change in Hong Kong

The above sections demonstrate that a major revamp of our philosophy of education is needed to prepare for future challenges. However, the cultural factors of 1) leadership style and 2) teacher resistance within the Hong Kong educational context can make a paradigm shift in the already "superficial" career education even more difficult (Ho, 2008).

First, at the school leadership level, the literature shows that the success of comprehensive school reform is heavily influenced by the principal leadership (Desimone, 2002; Education Department, 2001). Hallinger, Theodore, and Szeto's (2013) comprehensive review of more than 15 years of educational leadership research revealed that school leadership in Hong Kong is characterized by 1) a high power distance and 2) a leadership style shaped by Chinese cultural norms.

In times of curriculum change, these two factors can yield mixed results. For example, although principals have been increasingly active in engaging staff in the school management process (Hallinger et al., 2013), this form of staff empowerment may not be welcomed. Lee and Dimmock's (1999) multiple case study research found that staff members view this empowerment as leading to the development of a "fragmented and easily disjointed" school curriculum, because of a lack of central coordination. In addition, cultural values can be a major obstacle. Influenced by the Chinese tradition of embracing social harmony, staff members may be cooperative on the surface but dissatisfied at heart. If staff make their feelings known to the principal they may feel they are disrupting the social harmony, and thus may become overworked (Careless & Dimmock, 2001). Any type of education reform may thus entail more work and pressure for teachers (Poon & Wong, 2007).

Research evidence also suggests that the chances of successful WSA implementation are very low because a majority of teachers are still not adequately trained for this work (Patton & Burton, 1997; Yuen, Leung, & Chan, 2014). This notion is supported by the observations of Hui (2002). The findings of her study, which involved more than 900 teachers in Hong Kong, revealed that a whole-school approach was not practiced in the majority of the surveyed school. Teachers held different attitudes and beliefs toward the concept of a whole-school approach to counseling.

Second, teachers of different abilities and attitudes manage curriculum innovations differently. There are many examples in the literature of failed attempts due to heavy teacher resistance. The strong examination-driven learning culture in Hong Kong has led to the formation of a product view of assessment and teaching, thereby creating a major obstacle to change. Examples of hurdles encountered in the process of curriculum change in teaching and assessment can be extremely informative and can help us understand how such forces can inhibit curriculum change.

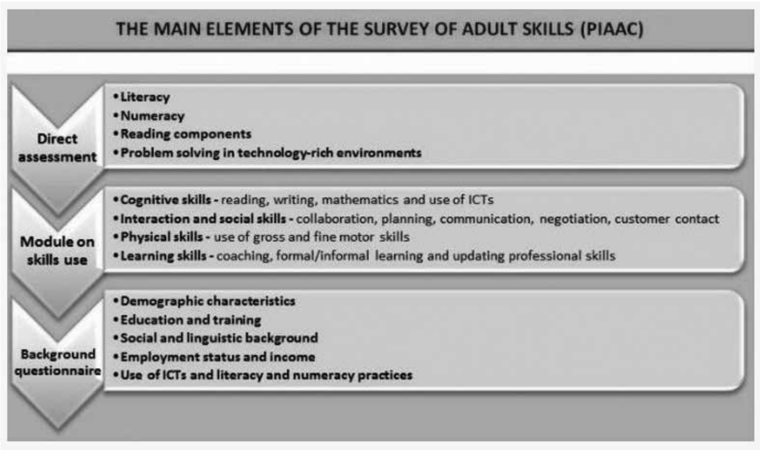
In terms of teaching, a long history of research shows that teachers in Hong Kong may not always welcome policy changes. New teaching approaches, such as the task-based approach and the introduction of the English benchmark examination for teachers, have sparked widespread discontent among local English teachers (Urmston, 2001). How English is taught in the classroom is also a concern, and Lin (1996) reported that code switching is very common, teaching pedagogies are heavily textbook based (McGrath, 2006; Reynolds, 1974; Richards, Tung & Ng, 1992), and over-reliance on the use of mechanical drills and rote learning to prepare students for high stake examinations (Tse, 2017). The newly introduced New Senior Secondary School curriculum has also taken its toll, and teachers have demonstrated a tendency to resist change and revert to the use of traditional approaches (Tong, 2010). This observation is supported by other empirical studies, in which new directions such as the emphasis of the use of formative assessment to promote learning (Lee & Coniam, 2013), the use of school-based assessment to promote the use of formative assessment (Fok, Kennedy, Chan, & Yu, 2006) and the promotion of a constructivist approach to learning (Luk Fong, 2013) have received strong opposition from local teachers. School-based assessment has generated territory wide criticism and is now gradually being simplified (in Liberal Studies, for example) or even phased out (as in Business, Accounting and Finance).

In short, we can see from this section that Hong Kong is now facing many challenges to change at both global and local levels. In particular, questions have been raised in terms of whether teachers and school leaders in Hong Kong have the professionalism to initiate and manage change.

2.3 Opportunities: assisting learners in acquiring 21st century skills

Many national-level educational departments (the OECD, HKSAR for example) have echoed the observations of Dietrich (2013) by suggesting that schools should help learners make the transition from education to work. The OECD has identified a number of "adult skills" (see Figure 1) that are essential for students who are 16 or older to succeed in the 21st century. Proficiency in the use of technology has been identified as a core skill. The Survey of Adult Skills (OECD, 2013), which is an assessment inventory to assess competency in these skills, was later developed. The assessment reported that in most participating countries (30 countries in total), a significant number of adults had very limited technological skills. The report stressed that while connectivity can be an issue, the proficiency of ICT skills is dependent on the level of literacy and numeracy skills. A good level of reading ability is essential for learning, and it is highly likely that information will not be understood or managed effectively without it, thereby affecting the acquisition of ICT skills. In short, if school education does not reflect the current needs of the labor market, it is likely that youth unemployment will persist.

Figure 1 (OECD, 2013)



Part 3 – Discussion and recommendations on career guidance and life planning education in Hong Kong schools

In this part, conclusions made in the previous sections in terms of the theoretical and empirical aspects of career guidance are synthesized into this model, and their implications are discussed. This synthesis can help formulate a situated career education program that is well attuned to the pragmatic needs of the 21st century.

3.1 Theoretical adaptations

The recent development of career theories appears to be limited, which must be recognized from the outset. One factor contributing to this problem is that the research work by Holland and Super was so broad that it is very difficult to develop new perspectives (Sharf, 2013b:4). Efforts should therefore be made to refine the construct portrayed by the theories of Holland and Super, so that career development theories can be more relevant and consistent for empirical use in modern society.

First, one of the main criticisms of Holland's theory is that it is not up to date in terms of the current labor market. It assumes that the employment market is static. This problem can be solved by keeping up-to-date information on job classification (see the International Labour Office, 2012, for example). In Hong Kong for example, the Hong Kong Federation of Youth Groups and the Home Affairs Bureau have collaborated and developed an online job classification database entitled "Job-tionary," which is a source of information potentially reflecting the current developments in the employment market.

Career counselors can update their career assessment inventories (e.g., assigning Holland codes) by making reference to the database. New jobs becoming available in the job market can be identified, and then suitable Holland codes can be assigned to them. Job roles from Holland's initial classification can also be reviewed to see if their nature or skill requirements have changed. If changes have taken place, new Holland codes should be assigned to reveal their current roles in contemporary society.

Second, to enhance the theoretical foundations of Holland's theory, we should not assume that people are static objects that will do little to change to adapt to the environment. Instead, we should follow Zunker's (2002) suggestion of attempting to negotiate with the client to arrive at a decision and avoid being authoritative. Psychological developmental variables in the second stage of counseling can be identified. For example, we can look at motivational factors, such as vocational self-efficacy, to understand where the client lacks confidence at work (Taylor & Betz, 1983).

Third, career guidance emphasizes the totality of the career decision-making process throughout a person's life. Aspects other than person-occupational fit should therefore also be studied. Other prevailing career development theories can be used in conjunction with Holland and Super's theoretical foundations for career education purposes. For example, Howard and Walsh's (2010) Model of Children's Vocational Reasoning can be adapted to the local context to explain the stages of adolescent career development. Gottfredson's (2002) theory of Circumscription and Compromise, and Self Creation can be used to help guide teachers to understand how adolescents compare alternatives and ultimately are selective, enabling career decisions that are most accessible to them. Finally, the Chaos Theory of Careers (Pryor & Bright, 2011) can be used to show how unexpected events can affect an individual's career development throughout their life.

3.2 Empirical adaptations

As mentioned in previous sections, one main challenge to the youth of the 21st century is the difficulty in making the transition from education to work. It is therefore of the utmost importance for career guidance programs to incorporate elements that can facilitate such a transition. The top priority is thus for schools to help learners develop proficiency in 21st century skills. A number of transnational organizations, such as OECD and the European Commission, have formulated policies to help schools nurture students in developing these skills. Although termed and categorized differently, there appears to be a consensus on the main elements of a 21st century skills set, which consists of the following three core competencies: 1) literacy, 2) digital technology, and 3) math and science (European Commission, 2012; OECD, 2014; Schleicher, 2015).

Essentially, the overarching theme is that school curricula should be able to familiarize students with the use of technology in problem-solving and communication. In terms of the development of literacy skills, contrary to traditional forms of learning, students in the 21st century should be proficient in both decoding and producing printed and digital texts effectively (New London Group, 1996). In terms of the development of technological skills, being competent in using and applying ICT skills in communication for work and leisure is essential (European Commission, 2012); for example, the teaching of computer programming skills in schools and producing multimodal texts for work and leisure.

In addition, the consistency and congruence of psychological tests can be checked before local empirical use (Leung, 2005), and it is encouraging to see that a number of large scale research studies such as CLAP for Youth @ JC have been launched, in an attempt to develop a career intervention tool that is consistent and congruent with the indigenous culture of Hong Kong. Also, a range of career guidance frameworks (e.g., Ng & Yuen, 2016) and intervention tools (e.g., Chui, 2012; Lee, 2007) have been developed locally. These useful resources can be made available to career guidance teachers for counseling purposes in the future.

3.3 Overall conclusion: What are the challenges and opportunities for career guidance and life planning education in the 21st century?

To summarize, by drawing on the information presented in the above sections, it is clear that a major challenge for career guidance teachers is that it is increasingly difficult for young people to make a smooth transition from education to work. Technological advancement in the 21st century has led to this problem, because it has shaped a labor market that is cost conscious, volatile, knowledge-based, and constantly changing. Young people are more vulnerable to unemployment, but we can see that there are opportunities for career counselors to help. Their work must be supported by a principal who acts as the expert and a leadership spearheading curriculum change. Together with the career counselor(s), the principal can design and devise a school curriculum that can assist learners to develop proficiency in 21st century/adult skills in school, to better prepare them to enter the job market (New London Group, 1996; OECD, 2013; Schleicher, 2015). Counselors can also prepare learners to understand that throughout their careers they need to constantly change and adapt to the environment. They are highly likely to be working in multiple jobs with different natures. The focus of the career education program, therefore, should be to develop proficiency in 21st century/adult skills to facilitate life-long learning and to enable learners to better understand themselves so they can develop flexibility in coping with career changes in the unstable employment market of the 21st century.

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香港的就業輔導和生涯規劃教育：理論層面和實際推行上的機遇與挑戰

王柏穎

香港

摘要

本文以一位現任職業輔導老師的角度，反思在香港中學實施就業輔導和生涯規劃教育時，在理論層面和實際推行上遇到的挑戰。此外，本文亦提出一些設計生涯規劃教育課程時應注意的問題。作者希望透過瞭解這些挑戰，可使前線教師發展相關課程以更有效地裝備學生，幫助他們把握未來生涯的機遇。

關鍵詞

就業輔導老師，就業輔導和生涯規劃教育，課程規劃，香港的就業輔導

《香港教師中心學報》，第十六卷

校園美學融入寫作課程之探究

吳善揮

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摘要

歷年的公開考試報告都載有批評香港學生寫作能力不濟的相關論述，而他們的寫作能力日益下降與他們欠缺日常美感經驗不無關係。事實上，筆者發現以直接講授的方式教授寫作能力，初中學生都顯得較被動，而寫作內容亦顯得空洞無物。在這樣的背景下，筆者嘗試把校園美學融入描寫文教學之中，即透過校園寫生豐富學生的美感體驗，然後再讓他們進行文章創作，以使寫作教學的過程變得更活潑；結果發現學生們都很喜愛這樣的寫作活動，而他們的寫作能力也能夠得以提升。本文旨在分享校園美學融入寫作課程的經驗，並對當中的教學成果進行反思。

關鍵詞

中國語文的教育，寫作課程，美感教育，校園美學

甲、研究緣起

寫作能力有助學生提升自身在社會的競爭力。寫作能夠讓我們達到與人進行溝通、說服他人的目標，是我們在日常生活之中不可或缺的基本能力（陳瑋婷、蕭金土，2012）。陳瑋婷（2007）認為學生能否於未來順利升學、就業及獨立生活，與他們書寫表達能力的高低，有著極為重要的關係。謝文英、賴瑩蓉（2014）也指出學生能否掌握一定的寫作能力，對於他們未來的生涯發展有著重大的影響。因此，寫作能力在語文教學之中，佔有極為重要的地位，是語文教師不可忽略的一環。

事實上，改善學生寫作能力的前提，在於加強他們對日常生活或事物的感知能力。何晨卉（2015）指出學生寫作能力低下的主要原因，在於他們缺乏對生活之感知力，而在缺乏生活體驗的情況下，學生根本不可能把所見、所聞及所感，透過文章創作表達出來。吳善揮（2014）指出香港學生對生活缺乏深刻的觀察，這不但使到他們未能夠儲積寫作材料，同時，他們亦因而不能形成自己的生活品味。由此可見，寫作能力的教學活動必然需要引導學生觀察日常生活的細節及事物，以讓他們累積不同的生活體驗，進而使他們從中產生深刻的體會，那麼在日積月累的情況下，他們的寫作能力定必能夠得以提升。

在真實的教學現場裡，筆者也發現所任教的初中學生對寫作欠缺興趣，同時他們亦欠缺對生活的觀察，致使美感經驗不足，最終他們所創作的文章內容亦顯得浮泛空洞。有見及此，筆者嘗試善用任教學校的校園美學優勢（我校多次獲得環境大獎），以校內寫生活動加強學生對事物的觀察力，結果發現學生不但喜歡這樣的寫作教學活動，而且更願意認真地創作自己的文章。而最重要的，就是他們在經歷了美感體驗後，所創作的內容比從前變得更為具體，寫作能力亦因而得到提升。因此，本文之主要目的在於探討校園美學對寫作教學的影響、分享校園美學融入寫作課程的經驗，以及當中的教學成果反思。

乙、文獻回顧

一、校園美學的意涵

所謂校園美學，就是指建築美學，當中強調人類運用不同的建築方法，創造出具體的美感形式，包括：外觀、結構、色彩、韻律、風格等，而由此創造出來的建築空間之美，將引發出美感及教育的作用，並影響到人們的思想和情感（張德銘、劉修祥，2015）。具體而言，校園美學就是指校園建築、環境景觀、教育所反映出來的教育精神及美學理念，並包含了形象美、意境美，空間美及生態美，而最重要的，就是當中的校園設計能夠使到學生從中認識美、感受美及實踐美（黃庭鈺，2015）。事實上，學校不但是學生學習和生活的日常地方，而且更是形成學生美感的重要場所，因此校園應該向學生提供一個看見美麗、聽聞美聲、以及體驗美感之空間，讓他們可以從校園環境之中建構美感經驗（賀宏偉，2015）。由此可見，校

園美學具有極為重要的價值，這是因為其能夠創造出美感教育的空間，讓教師可以運用校園美麗的人文景觀，教育學生認識美、感受美，並使他們可以從中累積不同的美感經驗，最終建構出內在的審美觀。

二、美感教育的意涵

近年，美感教育日益受到國際社會的重視，這是因為其能夠提升國家整體的競爭力，而當中的教學重點在於發展學生鑑賞美、感受美的能力，其不限於藝術課程的學習，舉凡與美感經驗相關的活動皆可被視為審美能力培養的階梯（于承平，2013）。另外，美感教育可以透過人們的創造力，滲透於衣、食、住、行、育、樂等各生活面向（何育真，2014）。事實上，美感教育對於學生而言具有很多不同的裨益，包括：增進生活美感及生活品質、陶冶品格、培養創意及創造力、促進全人發展（李鴻生，2011）。當然，美感教育的終極目標，在於強調個體生命之適性發展，讓學生透過修身養性、淨化心靈、發展自我的過程，體會大自然的大美、明白真善美的真正價值（閻瑞珍，2015）。由此可見，美感教育旨在透過不同的融入式課程，培養學生的審美能力，發展他們的創新能思維，並強化他們對真善美的追求，最終得以完備他們的人格發展。

三、校園美學對寫作教學的影響

校園美學為學生提供寫作的靈感，使他們的寫作內容變得更為豐富。寫作教學著重運用不同的真實情境，加強學生對生活的觀察，提升他們品味生活的能力，從而讓他們對生活產生深刻的感受，最終使他們得以從中累積豐富的寫作材料，並豐富了寫作的內涵（顏禾，2009）。事實上，校園建築所蘊含的美學元素，正好為學生提供了從生活中接觸美好事物之渠道，使他們能夠從中培養出美感，達到「境教」的作用（廖修寬，2013）。由是觀之，校園美學具體體現於學校所建設的環境及教育設施，而當中所營造出來的美麗景緻，都成為了學生校園生活的其中一部分，語文教師只要善用校園美學來教授學生寫作，如：描寫文，那麼學生便可以藉此加強對美麗事物的觀察力，並豐富自身的美感經驗，進而把眼前美麗的景色、以及從中得到的覺悟轉化為寫作材料，使寫作內容變得更豐富。

校園美學能夠豐富學生的美感經驗，使他們更能夠具體地掌握寫作手法。香港

學生的寫作能力未如理想，例如：學生的描寫能力不足、聯想能力不足、所用比喻欠精準等，這都反映出他們未能夠掌握基本的寫作手法定義及其運用方法（吳善揮，2014）。當然，這也與學生所累積的美感經驗不足不無關係。謝佳穎（2015）認為只有主動參與欣賞藝術或創作藝術的過程，那麼學生才能夠從中建立美感經驗，而最直接接收美感之方式就是感官的知覺，這是因為美感經驗是源自於感官的經驗，學生只有直接感受藝術之美，才能夠從中掌握美為何物，並由此發展出感知能力，即由美之中產生專屬於自己的感受。簡言之，寫作教學也是藝術教育的一種，這是因為學生透過學習寫作手法，來提升自身的藝術表達能力。而最重要的，就是學生可以透過校園建築美學來累積感官經驗，包括：視覺、聽覺、嗅覺、觸覺等，也可以藉著漫遊校園來學習不同寫作手法的定義及運用方法，例如：定點描寫、步移法等，那麼學生便能夠從中提升自己對美的感知能力，並由此強化自身對寫作手法的應用能力。

校園美學所營造的美感情境能夠觸發學生的寫作興趣。秦勤忠（2007）認為寫作教學必須要照顧學生的學習興趣，而當中的具體體現就是讓寫作學習生活化。黃庭鈺（2015）指出校園建築所包含的三美能夠為學生的學習帶來正面之影響，包括：（一）形象美可以為學生帶來愉快的感覺，並激發他們對周遭事物之感知能力；（二）意境美能夠鍛鍊學生的創思能力、情意能力；（三）空間美則能夠誘發出學生的審美情趣，使學習變得更具趣味性，並無形中激發了學生的學習動機。由此可見，校園美學能夠滿足開展寫作教學的重要前提：滿足學生的學習興趣，這是因為美麗的校園環境能夠使到學生感到心曠神怡，並為他們帶來一定的身心愉悅和安全感。若教師能夠把描寫文教學與校園的美景相互結合，讓學生走出教室、在美麗的校園環境中學習，那麼學生們定必更願意學習寫作。

丙、 研究方法

一、研究對象

這次研究的對象為筆者任教的中一級學生，全班共有 21 人（6 名為女學生、15 名為男學生），全班學生的寫作能力一般，而他們所創作的文章內容亦較空泛，少有應用相關的寫作手法；同時，他們普遍欠缺寫作興趣。惟他們與筆者之間存有良

好的師生關係，故此他們都願意聽從筆者的教導。

二、研究問題

本次教學研究之主要目的在於探討以下問題：

1. 校園美學融入寫作課程能否提升學生的描寫能力？
2. 校園美學融入寫作課程能否提升學生的寫作興趣？
3. 校園美學融入寫作課程能否提升學生的寫作信心？

三、研究工具

（一）寫作測試

本研究採取了前測和後測的方法，以瞭解是次研究對於學生描寫能力之影響。首先，為了準確地量度學生寫作能力之變化，筆者也以所任教的另一個中一班級作為對照組（20 位學生），對照組學生同樣接受相同的課文篇章教學、課時與實驗組相同，惟當中的教學過程並沒有進行校園寫生及微寫作創作活動；而此班級主要以教師直接講授為主。此外，在研究開展前，兩組學生參與前測；在研究結束後，兩組學生參與後測。兩次測試內容、題型及深淺相同，以維持測試的準確度；測試內容為寫作描寫文一篇。另外，筆者將以 SPSS 24.0（統計產品與服務解決方案）的 Paired Samples T-Test 對寫作評估進行分析，以瞭解實驗組及對照組之間的差異。

表一　測試題目

測試	題目
前測	試以「校園的四季」為題，寫作一篇文章。
後測	試以「校園的一角」為題，寫作一篇文章。

（二）問卷調查

為檢視本研究對學生寫作興趣、寫作信心之影響，筆者自設問卷（筆者曾與具豐富教學經驗的中文科教師進行討論），並在研究結束後發給學生填寫。問卷共有

16 題，設計採用五欄式選項。在收回問卷後，筆者便運用 SPSS 24.0（統計產品與服務解決方案）對相關的資料進行分析。

（三）半結構式訪談

在研究結束後，筆者分別與 6 位實驗組學生進行訪談（高、中、低語文水平的學生各 2 位 ）。為便筆者進行分析和保護學生的個人隱私，下文將以 P1、P2、P3、P4、P5 及 P6 來代替他們的真實身分。當中的目的，在於瞭解學生對於校園美學融入寫作課程的效益之看法。最後，筆者運用了錄音工具記錄整個訪談的過程，並將之轉化為錄音稿，接著才將相關的資料進行歸納及分析。

四、研究流程

本次研究主要的實施策略，在於以校園寫生活動引發學生的聯想，進而使他們得以掌握不同描寫手法的定義、運用策略，並強化他們創作描寫文的自信心。當中，本研究的實施流程為：（一）實施前測；（二）筆者先教授學生指定的課文篇章（全為描寫文），並輔以師生問答、小組討論等，以讓他們從閱讀教學之中掌握基本的描寫手法定義及其運用方法；（三）筆者帶領學生到學校的魚池、天台花園、不同樓層進行寫生（共計三次），之後筆者便會要求學生按照觀察所得，運用不同的描寫手法分別創作一篇微寫作；（四）筆者向全班同學發還已批改的微寫作，並向他們進行寫作回饋（共計三次）。（五）學生於課後時間自行到學校附近的大圍火車站進行寫生，並按照自己的觀察創作一篇微寫作。 在收回微寫作並完成批改後，筆者便向學生進行寫作回饋。（六）實施後測、問卷調查及學生訪談。本次課程共歷時 21 節，每節教學時數為 35 分鐘。

丁、研究結果與討論

一、寫作測試

整體而言 ，實驗組學生的描寫能力得到一定的提升，以下為寫作測試的結果分析：

表二　實驗組、對照組的前測成績比較

Independent Samples T-Test				
	學生數目	平均差	顯著性	顯著性（雙尾）
A–B	41	1.08333	.942	.627

註：A 為實驗組，B 為對照組。*p<.05、**p<.01、***p<.001。

測試滿分：100 分

根據 Independent Samples T-Test，實驗組（M=39.33、SD=6.83）及對照組（M=38.25、SD=7.35）在前測之成績並沒有顯著性的分別，而 p>.05（p =.489）。因此，實驗組和對照組學生的描寫能力相若。

表三　實驗組、對照組的前測及後測成績比較

Paired Samples T-Test					
	平均數	學生數目	標準差	平均數的標準誤	t 值
A（前測 – 後測）	5.23810	21	2.38547	.52055	10.063***
B（前測 – 後測）	0.65	20	7.60384	1.70027	.382

註：A 為實驗組，B 為對照組。*p<.05、**p<.01、***p<.001。

測試滿分：100 分

根據 Paired Samples T-test，實驗組學生所得分數之平均數有顯著的提升，而 p < .001（p =.000）；而對照組學生所得分數之平均數並沒有顯著的之改變，而 p > .05（p =.706）；故此，校園美學融入寫作課程對於提升學生的描寫能力具有相當的成效。

二、問卷調查

由表四顯示，通過校園美學融入寫作課程，實驗組學生都能夠增加寫作興趣（各題的平均值皆在 4 分之上）。

表四　寫作興趣相關題項

項目	平均數	標準差
1. 我喜歡上寫作課。	4.33	0.73
2. 我喜愛寫作。	4.24	0.65
3. 為了寫作，我會多觀察身邊的環境和事物。	4.14	0.73
4. 我會盡力完成老師給予的描寫文功課及練習。	4.71	0.46
5. 我喜愛以校園寫生為本的寫作活動。	4.00	0.45
6. 校園寫生活動能夠使我寫作描寫文時變得較容易。	4.05	0.74
7. 校園寫生活動讓我感到上課很輕鬆。	4.57	0.68
8. 我願意完成篇幅較短的微寫作。	4.10	0.70

由表五顯示，通過校園美學融入寫作課程，實驗組學生大致能夠加強運用不同描寫手法的信心（題 1、2、3、5、6、7 的平均值皆在 4 分之上）。惟他們欠缺運用間接描寫手法的信心（題 4，平均值為 2.76），這可能是因為間接描寫的運用較複雜，學生需要通過描寫其他事物來突出描寫對象之特點，故此他們沒有信心運用間接描寫手法。此外，他們也有信心寫作字數要求較多的描寫文，筆者推測這是因為他們懂得運用不同的描寫手法，以及校園美麗的景色刺激了他們的創作靈感，乃至他們在寫作時可以有字可寫。

表五　寫作信心相關題項

項目	平均數	標準差
1. 我能夠於寫作之中運用步移法。	4.43	0.60
2. 我能夠於寫作之中運用多感官描寫法。	4.14	0.74
3. 我能夠於寫作之中運用動態描寫及靜態描寫。	4.10	0.77
4. 我能夠於寫作之中運用間接描寫。	2.76	1.14
5. 我能夠於寫作之中運用直接描寫。	4.24	0.63
6. 我能夠於寫作之中運用隨時推移法。	4.33	0.73
7. 我能夠於寫作之中運用定點描寫法。	4.40	0.74
8. 我能夠完成一篇不少於三百字的描寫文。	4.19	1.12

三、半結構式訪談

（一）描寫能力方面

整體而言，受訪學生都認同是次研究能夠提升他們的描寫能力。當中的原因包括：校園寫生活動為學生帶來體驗校園的空間美、生態美、形象美之機會，而這不但讓學生透過觀察學校、以及周邊的環境，具體地瞭解到美的概念，同時也引發了他們的聯想，為他們帶來寫作靈感及角度；而微寫作活動則使他們得以深刻地掌握相關的描寫手法，並可以從快速的回饋中改進寫作技巧。

> 學校像是城市中的花園，為新翠邨增添了幾分美，也讓我可以明白什麼叫美，那麼寫作時我便知道如何描寫美麗的景緻……校園寫生活動非常好，因為我可以從中知道校園、魚池和天台花園有什麼可以寫，令到我不用想來想去也沒東西可寫，而且學校和附近的地方也是我熟悉的地方，所以我自然知道有什麼地方或景物可以寫……
>
> （P1）

> 我從校園寫生活動之中，對校園的景物認識深了一點，而且我也學會以什麼角度和描寫手法去描寫景物，例如：描寫靜態的有機植物、處於動態的小鳥、花朵的香氣等……學校的花園原來是很美麗的，也讓我看到校園不同的美麗景象，使我瞭解到什麼是美……而且寫生活動也能夠引發我對事物的聯想，即是在腦海裡構成一幅更完整的圖畫，並以文字的方式將它描寫出來。
>
> （P2）

> 有時候，我知道有什麼東西可以寫，但是我不能夠寫得很細緻，所以往往寫得不夠具體和深入，所得分數也很低。而校園寫生活動正好讓我可以多角度地觀察那些描寫對象，例如：我要寫一朵花，我便可以透過寫生活動觀察它的形態、香味、顏色等，描寫自然能夠深入一些……而我也從中知道美麗景物的特徵，那麼創作的時候，我便可以寫得更仔細。
>
> （P3）

> 我覺得微寫作非常好，因為可以讓我們針對性地練習某種描寫手法，讓我們可以有練習的機會。
>
> （P4）

> 可能微寫作的篇幅較短，所以老師很快便批改完並發還給我們……我們可以很快便可以得到老師給我們的評語和建議，那麼我們便可以從中不斷改善自己的不足，並在下次寫作時不要再重犯。
>
> （P5）

> 寫生活動讓我明白到多觀察周邊所發生的事、環境的改變等，都能夠有助我儲積寫作材料，讓我在描寫特定的對象時，可以描寫得更具體仔細，而不是走馬看花，輕輕帶過，讓人不能從我的描寫之中感受到描寫對象的全貌。
>
> （P6）

（二）寫作興趣及信心方面

綜合受訪學生的意見，他們都認同本次課程能夠提升他們的寫作興趣，當中的原因包括：觀賞校園美景為他們帶來放鬆身心的機會、「從活動中學習」為他們帶來寫作意念、微寫作減輕了他們的學習壓力、小步子教學使他們循序漸進地掌握所學。

> 平常老師都要我們寫不少於三百字的長文，這對我來說真是很難的，因為我有讀寫的困難……可是微寫作的字數要求較低，一般都是寫一百五十字左右，所以我會更有動力去寫作……
>
> （P1）

> 我不曾試過離開教室上中文課，我覺得可以走出教室，到校園不同的地方進行寫生和寫作，真是令我感到很輕鬆，而且可以動一動，不會那麼沉悶，這使到我更有興趣去寫作。
>
> （P2）

> 校園寫生活動刺激了我的寫作靈感，讓我知道可以寫什麼，不會呆了半天還未想出應該描寫什麼……使我對寫作變得比從前有信心……另外，欣賞天台花園的花草盆栽，也使我倍感放鬆，有一個難得清靜下來的機會。
>
> （P3）

> 我覺得以校園寫生活動去學寫作是非常好的，因為可以讓我們在緊迫的學習過程之中舒展筋骨，減輕一下學習壓力，學習自然會提起勁些，而且看著學校美麗的景色也讓我覺得心曠神怡、壓力全部消失……一方面微寫作不用寫太多字，另一方面畫畫部分也是算分的，老師會把所有所得的分數計算在考試分之上，可以讓我取得多些考試分，減輕我害怕不合格的壓力……
>
> （P4）

> 老師一步一步地教我們描寫的技巧，每一篇微寫作都只針對一種或數種描寫手法進行練習……待我們完成一篇微寫作後，才教我們新的描寫手法，這都讓我有信心用不同的方法去描寫……
>
> （P6）

另外，受訪學生都同意本次教學能夠增強他們的寫作信心，當中的原因包括：校園寫生活動為他們提供了觀察描寫對象的機會、觀賞校園景物讓他們明白何謂美、微寫作為他們提供練筆的機會、老師評改微寫作的回饋能夠有助他們改善不足之處。

> 校園寫生讓我們得以親身觀察描寫對象，使我能夠有信心把描寫對象寫得更具體、更準確。
>
> （P1）

> 校園寫生讓我可以明白什麼是美……那麼我寫作文的時候，便知道什麼景物才值得描繪，而不是什麼也寫進作文中。
>
> （P2）

微寫作為我們提供練習不同描寫方法的機會，使到我們可以變得熟能生巧，不會錯用描寫手法。

（P5）

老師很快便給我們評講微寫作的表現，使到我們能夠掌握自己不足的地方並從中改善……我想這有助我盡快掌握應用相關描寫技巧的方法……我有信心在考試之中把所學到的描寫手法應用出來。

（P6）

戊、結論

本研究以校園美學融入描寫文教學之中，並輔以一系列的微寫作活動，一方面希望藉此誘發學生的寫作興趣，而另一方面也希望能夠提升學生的描寫能力。綜合量性和質性的資料，可以發現學生的寫作興趣、寫作信心及描寫能力都能夠得到相當的提升。事實上，是次研究的設計核心，在於就地取材，善用校園的優美環境，以實地寫生的方式，培養學生觀察的觸覺，以及審美的情趣，讓他們建立出多觀察身邊事物的習慣，從而為他們帶來寫作靈感，促進他們描寫能力的發展。而最重要的，就是這樣的教學設計既能照顧能力稍遜學生之學習需要，也能夠讓高能力的學生得到針對性的訓練，使到不同能力的學生都可以取得進步。當然，課時不足是本課程最大的不足之處，這也影響到他們建立長期的寫作興趣及信心，因此筆者有以下建議：（一）中文科教師可以推動跨學科的學習，例如：在教授寫景方法時，教師可與視覺藝術科合作，即學生在視覺藝術課內完成校園環境寫生活動後，於中文課堂進行寫作活動，以減省課時；又或在教授寫物時，教師可與科學科合作，在學生掌握植物或動物的結構後，於中文課堂內創作文章。（二）中文科教師也可安排生活化之學習活動，例如：教師可以要求學生拍攝一張家居的照片，然後回校進行描寫文創作，又或要求學生走到某街道上，拍攝某街道人來人往的短片（由街頭走到巷尾），之後回來以步移法和多感觀描寫法創作文章一篇。（三）中文科教師也可以實施多元化的寫作活動，例如：攝影比賽（同學在拍攝相片後，就相片的景象寫作一篇文章）、拍攝微電影（同學在拍攝微電前創作一份劇本）、錄音（同學可以錄下街道的聲音，並以文字的方式進行描繪）等，那麼學生的寫作興趣便能夠得以持續增加。

最後，雖然本研究為個案研究，即研究結果未必能夠推論至全香港的學生身上，可是筆者相信本研究對於中文科教師在設計寫作課程之時，仍然具有一定的參考價值。筆者盼望未來的後續研究者，能夠探討除校園寫生活動之外，其他不同類型的寫作活動，能否培養初中學生的寫作興趣，以及提升他們不同方面的寫作能力，使廣大的中文科教育同仁能夠作為課程設計的參考。

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附錄：校園美學融入寫作課程教學大綱

課節	教學目標	教學活動
1-6	1. 掌握多感官描寫手法 2. 認識定點描寫	1. 課文教學：朱自清〈荷塘月色〉 2. 校園寫生活動（一）：繪畫學校空中花園的景象。 3. 微寫作（一）：試以「學校空中花園」為題，寫一篇不少於 130 字的文章，當中須運用至少三種感官描寫手法。 4. 微寫作回饋（一）
7-12	1. 掌握步移法 2. 認識直接描寫和間接描寫 3. 複習定點描寫	1. 課文教學：也斯〈在風中〉 2. 校園寫生活動（二）：繪畫你由學校校門到課室的景象。 3. 微寫作（二）：試運用步移法，撰寫你由學校校門到課室的過程，字數不得少於 100 字。 4. 微寫作回饋（二） 5. 校園寫生活動（三）：繪畫學校魚池的景象。 6. 微寫作（三）：試運用定點描寫法，描寫學校魚池的景色，當中的字數不得少於 130 字。 7. 微寫作回饋（三）
13-18	1. 掌握動態描寫和靜態描寫 2. 掌握隨時推移法	1. 課文教學：金兆梓〈風雪中的北平〉 2. 微寫作（四）：試運用靜態及動態描寫方法，描繪以下的圖片（大圍舊有面貌），當中的字數不得少於 130 字。 3. 微寫作回饋（四）
19-21	1. 複習各項描寫手法 2. 掌握各項描寫手法的定義及作用	1. 課文教學：李白〈望廬山瀑布〉 2. 校外寫生活動：繪畫大圍火車站的景象。 3. 微寫作（五）：試以「望大圍火車站」為題，寫一篇不少於 130 字的文章，當中須運用至少三種不同的描寫手法。 4. 微寫作回饋（五）

Research on Integration of Campus Aesthetics and Chinese Writing Curriculum

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Abstract

In the past few years, the Hong Kong Examinations and Assessment Authority has been criticizing the secondary students' poor performance on writing. Apparently, their poor writing performance is a result of the lack of aesthetic experience. In fact, the author found that when the teachers directly teach the students writing, the junior form students take a passive role in learning. As a result, their writing content is poor. In this context, the author tries to integrate campus aesthetics into the teaching of writing. Through the campus painting activities, it is hoped that students' aesthetic experiences can be enriched, and therefore not only can they write their article more easily, but also have more fun during the learning process. The results found that students like the writing activities, and their writing ability is enhanced. This paper aims to share the experience of implementing the integration of campus aesthetics and Chinese writing curriculum and the teaching reflection.

Keywords

teaching in Chinese language, writing curriculum, aesthetic education, campus aesthetics

徵集論文

我們歡迎教育界同工投稿，內容以教育研究、教育行動研究及教學經驗分享為主，課題可包括：

- 課程的設計理念、實施模式和評估方法
- 創新的教學法設計理念、實施模式和評估方法
- 創意教學
- 家長教育
- 校本教職員培訓，包括教師入職培訓及輔導
- 校本管理
- 學生支援及學校風氣，包括輔導及諮詢
- 學生培訓
- 教育改革評議
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