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「學會學習 2.0」，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，共有十四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六篇，內容包括：以庫伯學習圈改善通識教育獨立專題探究的應用研究、香港課程改革下的價值教育、香港的幼兒價值觀教育、視像課業教學成效初探、淺談香港學校價值觀教育的理念與實踐及樂高認真玩對生涯希望感之影響。作者們透過不同角度透視香港學生如何學會學習，並透過不同的方法和技巧去實踐，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，合共五篇，內容包括：論教育與社會流動、擁抱個別差異──課堂策略和課程調適概觀、基於中美高校視域下的教師發展運動研究、香港天主教小學教師對本地及國民身份教學的理解與啟示，以及「一帶一路」倡議作為教學課程的啟示。作者透過對政策及理論的分析，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，有三篇文章，內容包括：從學生的角度看回饋、前饋與對談的效能、在一所小學推行生死教育的經驗實踐生命教育，以及在香港幼稚園推行 STEM（科學、科技、工程及數學）教育的挑戰之初探。前線教育工作者的經驗分享是非常可貴的，透過三位作者們的分析，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：盧錦玲博士、劉慧中博士、王偉倫博士、張慧真博士、何瑞珠教授、楊沛銘博士、趙淑媚博士、林偉業博士、胡志偉博士、胡少偉博士、李少鶴先生、李子建教授、張國華博士、李偉雄先生、甘志強先生、黃金耀博士、黃少玲女士。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。在此，我要感謝每一位為學報付出的同工。

《香港教師中心學報》主編
余綺華
二零一八年十二月

目錄

Contents

一、主題

二、理論及政策評論

三、教育實踐與經驗分享

徵集論文
稿例
徵募審稿員

A Study of the Applicability of Kolb's Learning Cycle to the Improvement of Independent Enquiry Study in Liberal Studies

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Abstract

This is a theoretical study of the possibility of applying Kolb's Learning Cycle (KLC) to enhance the conduct of Independent Enquiry Study (IES) in Liberal Studies (LS) in Hong Kong. By going through the KLC repeatedly, with a strengthened Reflective Observation phase, students will be able to review their work in various phases of the cycle and make improvement in the conduct of IES. Besides, based on the principles of learning put forth by Hein (1991), students' motivation to conduct the KLC for IES can be raised by providing more choices, greater autonomy, tasks of appropriate levels of difficulty and more opportunities for collaboration.

Keywords

Kolb's Learning Cycle, principles of learning, Independent Enquiry Study, enquiry skills, motivation

1. Introduction

Kolb put forth a model of learning process, underpinned by the belief that 'knowledge is created through the transformation of experience' (as cited in Konak et al., 2014, p.13 and Tomkins & Ulus, 2016). This study will evaluate whether Kolb's Learning Cycle (KLC) could be applied to improve students' learning process, in terms of students' motivation and enquiry skills, via the conduct of Independent Enquiry Study (IES), the School-based Assessment (SBA) task of Liberal Studies (LS) in the Hong Kong Diploma of Secondary Education (HKDSE) Examination. The possibility of introducing enhancement measures will be investigated with regard to the capacity of the HKEAA and that of school teachers. The limitations of applying the KLC in the conduct of IES will also be discussed.

2. IES as an SBA task

As part of the assessment requirement of the HKDSE, each student has to conduct an enquiry study on a contemporary issue 'with social bearing either in the local, national and/or global scale' (HKEAA, 2017 (will be referred to hereafter as the Handbook), p.4). Students can formulate an enquiry question of their interest, then design the enquiry plan and tools to gather relevant data to make judgement in response to the enquiry question.

IES is expected to be conducted by phases, with opportunities for revision and further improvement. To facilitate assessment for learning, according to the Handbook, IES Reports comprise four parts: (A) Problem Definition (an explanation of the focus and scope of the IES); (B) Relevant Concepts and Knowledge/Facts/Data; (C) In-depth Explanation of the Issue; (D) Judgement and Justification (justifications of arguments in response to the enquiry questions).

School teachers assess the performance of students in their final reports on the enquiry study and the initiative of students in the learning process through IES (10%), which may comprise their performance on the proposal for IES, interim worksheets or other forms of assignments facilitating students to conduct IES, time management or motivation of students. Marks awarded by the school teachers, subject to moderation by the Hong Kong Examinations and Assessment Authority (HKEAA), constitute 20% of the total subject mark of the LS Examination.

IES, as a learning activity, is characterised firstly by the freedom of choice. Besides the autonomy in formulating enquiry questions and designing enquiry plans, students may also present the enquiry results in writing or in other forms, such as videos or PowerPoint presentations.

Secondly, it is a learning-oriented assessment, termed by Carless et al. (2006), as a learning process in which the 'learning elements are emphasised more than measurement

ones' (as cited in Carless, 2007, p.5). The major objective of IES is to build up students' enquiry skills. With reference to Black's (2004) notion on assessment for learning, feedback should be one of the key elements to promote students' learning in the conduct of IES, which is also an assessment-for-learning task.

3. IES as a Manifestation of KLC

Students learn actively by going through four cyclical stages, consisting of Active Experimentation, Concrete Experience, Reflective Observation and Abstract Conceptualisation. According to Kolb, all the four stages are necessary for a complete learning experience.

The process of conducting IES enables students to go through the various stages of the KLC (Figure 1). In Parts A and B, students go through the Active Experimentation stage. They start off the enquiry study by exploring the concepts or information related to a topic of their interest and then they formulate titles, devise the enquiry tools and plan their active learning activities. The data collection is a process in which they 'experience' with their enquiry plans. Subsequently, they analyse the data and reflect on the findings and draw conclusions in response to the enquiry questions in Parts C and D, undergoing the Reflective Observation and Abstract Conceptualisation stages.

Figure 1. Stages in KLC (modified from the model by Konak et al. (2014) (p.13))
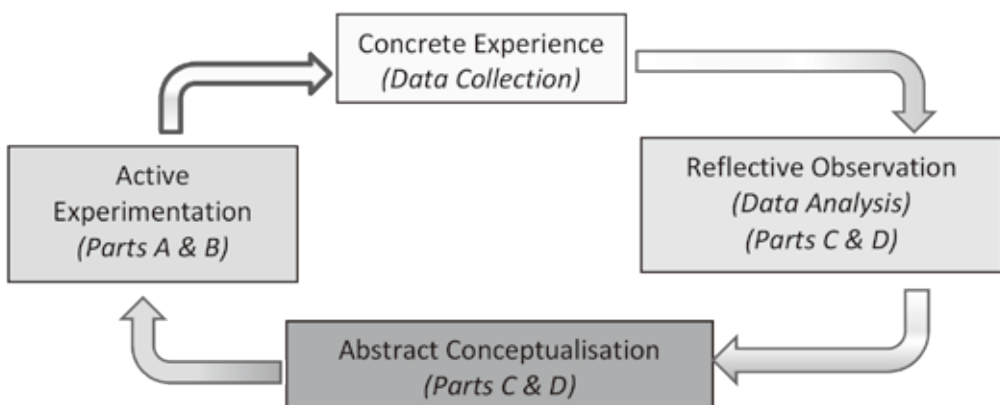
As mentioned by Konak et al. (2014), constructivism is the theoretical basis for KLC. In other words, students construct meanings while going through KLC, fulfilling the principles of learning postulated by Hein (1991) (Table 2). Even though Hein's major concern was museum learning, reference can still be made to his discussion of the general principles of learning. For the sake of comprehensive and deeper learning by conducting IES, these principles set the directions for enhancing the learning process. In the following sections, the ways to facilitate the achievement of these principles in the learning cycle of IES will be discussed.

Table 2. Principles of learning (Hein, 1991)

1. *Learning is an active process.*
2. *Learning consists both of constructing meaning and constructing systems of meaning.*
3. *The crucial action of constructing meaning is mental.*
4. *Learning involves language.*
5. *Learning is a social activity.*
6. *Learning is contextual.*
7. *One needs knowledge to learn.*
8. *It takes time to learn.*
9. *Motivation is a key component in learning.'*

4. Areas of concern with the implementation of IES

To gauge the views of the major stakeholders (teachers and students) on the implementation of IES, the HKEAA conducted a longitudinal study from 2011 to 2014 (HKEAA, 2014). The findings show that there is still much room for improvement with regard to the process of learning via IES and students' attitude towards it.

Even though in these three years, both teachers and students became more positive on the impact of IES on the learning of skills, such as enquiry skills, as well as helping 'students become more independent learners', the ratings[1] in these areas were just slightly over the positive side on a six-point scale in 2014, ranging from 3.5 to 3.8 (p.11, p.15). Respondents' views on the learning process also displayed a similar pattern. For the question about whether students 'have received appropriate feedback … from the teacher and other schoolmates' and opportunities for collaboration with fellow students, the ratings

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1 *From the longitudinal study in 2014, the ratings on the statements: 'IES helps improve students' enquiry skills.' and 'IES helps students become more independent learners.' were 3.8 and 3.5 respectively among teachers, and 3.5 and 3.6 respectively among students on a six-point scale (HKEAA, 2014, p.11, p.15).*

were 3.8 and 3.4 respectively in 2014 (p.12, p.14). There is a long way to the maximum rating of six.

A more worrying sign was about whether IES 'motivates students and gives them a valuable assessment experience'. The rating by teachers was 3.4, while that of students was even lower, standing at 3.2 (p.11 and 16), reflecting that respondents had reservations about students' motivation to conduct IES.

5. Applying KLC for Enhancing Learning via IES

The longitudinal study provided insights into the areas deserving enhancement, namely the learning process of enquiry skills and motivation of students. In this section, ways to improve these two areas via the KLC will be discussed.

5A. Enhancements on the Learning Process of IES

As an assessment-for-learning task, the implementation of IES takes place in schools, falling back on the administration of teachers. As such, the role of the HKEAA is mainly on the design of the task and assessment framework.

Starting from 2019, students will be given the freedom to choose between the four-part structure of the IES and a streamlined structure by integrating Parts C and D in the Abstract Conceptualisation stage of the KLC, thus aligning closer with the school of thoughts of constructivists, which underpins the KLC. Under constructivism, as explained by Hein (1991), knowledge must be constructed by individual learners and there are 'different entry points for different learners'. To facilitate the learning process, learning situations should be provided 'for learners to carry out their own mental actions' (Hein, 1991) freely. This freedom in the learning process goes in line with the nature of IES, which allows students to formulate enquiry questions to explore topics of their own interests. Only a freer structure in the presentation of enquiry results can accommodate the multitudinous enquiry questions and learning processes of individual students.

With reference to the comments of IES Examiners[2] on the samples of IES Reports from students in 2017, it was evident that students had difficulties in making good use of Parts C and D. Instead of analysing the issues in Part C to pave the way for the arguments in Part D, redundancies and disjunction of the evidence in Part C and arguments in Part D were common weaknesses of IES Reports. Take a concrete example of a popular enquiry question: 'Should Country Parks be Used for Housing Developments in Hong Kong?' Disappointingly, a common problem with the IES on this topic, as identified

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2 *In the mark moderation process of IES, six samples of IES are taken from each school for external examiners to mark. These examiners have to report on the performance of candidates after marking.*

by examiners, was the redundancy in Parts C and D. Students merely explained the positive and negative impacts of developing country parks in Part C, followed by an explanation of his/her standpoint towards this enquiry question in Part D, repeating some of the impacts mentioned previously. This phenomenon might stem from the uniqueness of the enquiry question, making it difficult to separate the analysis of the impacts and the justification of his/her stance in Parts C and D respectively. Besides, the knowledge construction of some students may not be in two distinctive stages as suggested by Posner et al. (1982), i.e., assimilation and accommodation. Students might assimilate their prior knowledge of the impacts the development of country parks while evaluating these impacts one by one. In this manner, any efforts in differentiating the mental output of assimilation and accommodation may result in a report lacking in coherence. In fact, the KLC makes no attempt to distinguish between these two stages. Students may go through the Abstract Conceptualisation phase when working on both Parts C and D (Figure 1).

As a school-based activity, the processes in the KLC of IES are mainly in the hands of school teachers. Though the structure of the report of the enquiry results is stipulated by the HKEAA, there is still much room for teachers to design learning activities in each stage of the KLC to facilitate students to conduct an IES.

Enhancement in which stage of the KLC will be more effective? Although there has been inadequate empirical evidence of the relative impact of various stages of the KLC on learning (Konak et al., 2014), research pointed to the benefits of reflection. The study by Konak et al. (2014), for instance, provided evidence for the enhancement of learning outcomes by a KLC task with group discussions and self-reflective questions in the Reflective Observation stage.

From Carless's (2007) practices of learning-oriented assessments in tertiary institutions in Hong Kong, 'timely and forward-looking' (p.8) feedback is the key to promoting current learning. Along a similar vein, Black et al. (2004) believed that marks only encourage students to compare among themselves, but comments help them to improve on their work. Wakefield et al. (2014) quoted Nicol's (2010) view that providing feedback to peers 'involves a higher level of reflection' (p.260), which may help them to improve on their own work. Even though Carless, Black et al. and Nicol did not aim at applying the whole KLC, they have provided insights for the positive impact of feedback (as a form of reflection) not only on future learning activities, but also on current learning/ tasks. From these studies, various forms of feedback, such as group discussions, peer feedback and self-reflection, could constitute the Reflective Observation phase in the KLC for IES.

On the premises that reflection plays a significant role in the KLC, the stages of KLC could be rearranged to incorporate more phases of Reflective Observation to promote IES learning. This is theoretically sound as Forrest (2004) put forth that the phases in KLC

may be overlapped (as cited in Konak et al., 2014). The KLC could be a continuously spiraling process by which knowledge is constructed and thinking skills are enhanced. Along this line of thought, if students can go through the KLC repeatedly, improvement could be brought about by reviewing the previous stages in the phases of Reflective Observation and Abstract Conceptualisation.

Figure 3 shows a suggestion for the design of a continuous KLC for IES, allowing self-review and improvement after reflection.

Figure 3. A continuous KLC (modified from KLC in Konak et al., 2014, p.13)
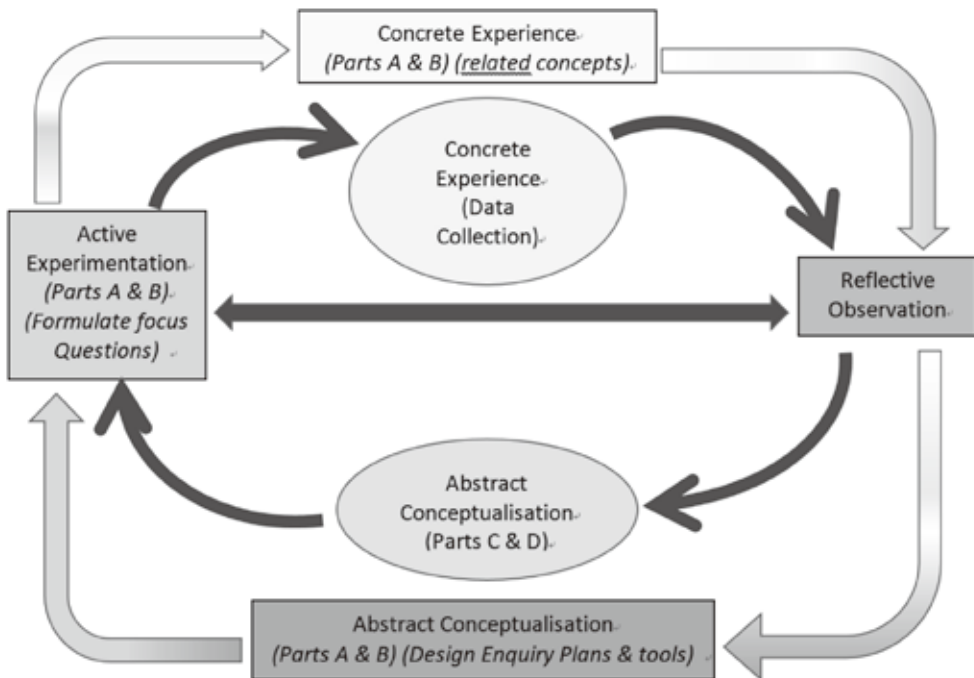
Students may embark on an IES by Active Experimentation and then go through the outer cycle, followed by the inner cycle in Figure 3 (along the purple arrows). They may revisit the previous stages of work after Reflective Observation. In the Active Experimentation stage, students identified enquiry topics of their interests and formulate the enquiry/ focus questions. They may conduct desk research for concepts related to their enquiry (Concrete Experience). With Reflective Observation, some students may deem it necessary to amend the enquiry focus (Active Experimentation), while some of them may go on to the Abstract Conceptualisation phase to design the enquiry plan and the data collection tools. They may then revise their focus questions based on their assessment

of the practicability of the enquiry (Active Experimentation) or deploy the tools for data collection (Concrete Experience).

In the inner cycle, students may analyse the data collected and make judgements in response to the enquiry questions (Reflective Observation and Abstract Conceptualisation). All the stages could be reviewed as shown in the arrows in Figure 3. By going through a continuous KLC with Reflective Observation as the hub determining the pathway of the learning process, a more thorough learning process in relation to the enquiry question formulated by the student could be experienced and continuous improvement could be made. Undergoing the Reflective Observation phase repeatedly will help build up metacognitive skills, which are conducive to active learning (Bransford et al., 2000). Students 'take control of' and plan their enquiry studies by 'defining learning goals and monitoring their process in achieving them' (p.18). Besides, the continuous learning cycle offers ample opportunities for students to reflect on their previous stages of work, which is one of the key strategies of metacognition.

5B. Enhancements on Students' Motivation

The second concern on the conduct of IES as found from the longitudinal study (HKEAA, 2014) was the lack of motivation of students. In Hein's (1991) terms, 'motivation is a key component in learning'. He also posited that learners should 'know the reasons why' they have to learn. This section will focus on suggestions to motivate students to carry out the KLC of IES.

To raise students' motivation, as discussed earlier, what the HKEAA can do is limited since the KLC is solely conducted in schools. There have been suggestions for providing more incentives for students to conduct IES by increasing the proportion of Initiative in the marking guidelines. However, the existing weighting of Initiative, which is 10%[3] of IES, is deemed appropriate by the majority of teachers in consultations.

What can be done to promote motivation? Paris (1997) identified five factors contributing to motivation towards learning in museums: *choices, challenge, context, control* and *collaboration*. Although Paris (1997) made reference to learning in museums, the factors put forth are applicable to 'constructive and active learning' (p.22) and thus the KLC of IES. In the following, ways to enhance motivation will be discussed with reference to these factors. However, as IES is a task for students to learn in context by nature, *context* will not be the targets for enhancement.

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3 *The IES constitutes 20% of the whole subject mark of LS. Therefore, Initiative accounts for 2% of the subject mark.*

Choices and Control

First of all, students should be given *choices* and *control* of the enquiry questions and methodology. Evidence of the importance of this factor can be drawn from the research of Ryan and Grolnick (1986), which showed that students were more interested in their schoolwork if they enjoyed greater autonomy in the classroom (as cited in Paris, 1997).

The greater the freedom, the higher the motivation. IES is designed to allow autonomy for students. As stipulated in the *Handbook* for LS (HKEAA, 2017), one of the assessment objectives is 'setting goals and plans' (p.3) for enquiry studies 'of interest to them' (p.4). Students should also be given the freedom to choose pathways in the KLC. For instance, they may go back to the Active Experimentation phase subsequent to Reflective Observation, instead of going on to the Abstract Conceptualisation phase (Figure 3).

As a matter of fact, the *Handbook* is only a set of guidelines. The HKEAA is not in the capacity to oversee the details of teaching and learning of IES in schools. If teachers provide students with some topics for IES for the sake of administrative convenience, students' freedom to choose topics of their own interests will be limited. The downside of this practice is that students lose motivation for completing the IES, not to mention going through the KLC in a circular manner.

Challenges

Paris (1997) quoted Clifford (1991), Schunk (1989) and Zimmerman (1989) that tasks given to students should be 'moderately difficult' 'to enhance perceptions of their competence and self-efficacy' (p.24). This was concurred by Carless (2007), who believed that appropriate tasks are one of the key elements of learning-oriented assessments, which resemble the nature of IES. Though the assessment task is stipulated by the HKEAA as IES, teachers have the autonomy to make the difficulty level of IES more appropriate to keep students engaged. Examples are providing specific feedback by teachers or the peers, targeting the potential problems in the Reflective Observation phase. As suggested by Carless (2007), feedback is more effective in promoting learning if the criteria are made known to students and the feedback helps students to envisage their progress in terms of the achievements of the criteria. Along this line of thought, students' self-perception of competency in conducting IES could be enhanced by making clear of the requirements of IES and providing feedback on the strengths and weaknesses in conjunction with the requirements.

Besides, the compartmentation of the whole IES task into Parts A, B, C and D (or the integrated Parts C and D) and the various phases in the KLC will help to make the task more manageable to students. Going through the KLC continuously for the revision of the

previous parts or phases will allow room for improvements. However, the number of times reverting to the previous stages should also be appropriate so that students will not be made frustrated, undermining self-efficacy.

Collaboration

Paris (1997) identified social supports as one of the factors promoting motivation, in turn facilitating learning, converging with the principles of learning posited by Hein (1991): 'learning is a social activity'. Students learn through interactions with the peers, teachers or people in the learning contexts. The impact of collaboration on learning was evident in the research by Konak et al. (2014) and Hrastinski and Stenbom (2013). The factor analysis by Konak et al. (2014) on KLC showed that more student-to-student interactions through group work raised students' perceived competency. Furthermore, the research of Hrastinski & Stenbom (2013) on peer coaching, which is termed by Vygotsky (1978) as a form of 'collaboration between a learner and a more capable person', found more positive attitudes towards the subject with peer coaching.

Collaboration can be incorporated in various phases of the KLC of IES. For instance, brainstorming exercises in groups may help students to formulate enquiry questions in the Active Experimentation phase. Literature search and data collection in the Concrete Experience phase can be done in collaboration with students of similar enquiry topics. The Reflective Observation phase has the greatest potential to be collaborative, such as peer feedback and peer coaching.

By increasing the autonomy of students, adjusting the level of difficulties of IES and providing collaborative activities in the KLC, students' motivation in conducting IES and the learning process could be enhanced.

6. The Limitations of Applying KLC

In this section, the limitations of the KLC in promoting learning via IES will be discussed in terms of the theoretical underpinning and the validity of KLC, the practical issues in classrooms and cultural characteristics in Hong Kong.

From a theoretical viewpoint

The views of critics on the theoretical underpinning of the typology of the KLC model and experiential learning will be examined.

Firstly, academics like Reynolds (2009) critiqued that experiential learning, from which the KLC was developed, lacked a theoretical foundation (as cited in Tomkins &

Ulus, 2016). Bergsteiner et al. (2010) also quoted the comment of Coffield et al. (2004) on the weak association between Kolb's learning styles (action, reflection, feeling and thinking when moving through the KLC) and Jung's types. Price's research (2004) (as cited by Bergsteiner et al. (2010)) also suggested discrepancies between the self-reported learning styles and the actual learning processes adopted by students when going through the various phases of the KLC. Critics argued that doing, reflecting, feeling and thinking are by no means stable personality traits as learners need to shift among these when performing various activities in the KLC. Instead of being learning styles, these are believed to be learning processes, which may not be unique in each stage of the KLC. They might be found concurrently in a stage. For instance, learners may be 'thinking' about the concepts while writing up ('doing') Part B of the IES in the Concrete Experience stage. In view of the contentions, learning processes are not specified in my suggested model of continuous KLC in Figure 3. The adaptation of the KLC in this manner was also concurred by Tomkins & Ulus (2016), who concluded their research by denoting that it was unnecessary to make the distinction 'between thinking and action, detachment and engagement, mind and body' (p.171, 172).

Another epicentre of contention was the epistemology of KLC, which is based on constructivism. To Kolb, learners create knowledge by transforming experiences in the KLC (Tomkins & Ulus, 2016 and Bergsteiner et al., 2010). Radical constructivists, for instance, Glaserfeld (1993) postulated that 'truth is replaced by the notion of viability' and 'all knowledge is only subjective, provisional and uncertain' (as cited in Osborne, 1996, p.56, p.57). Knowledge can only be constructed and there is no truth that can be transferred to learners.

In contrast to the beliefs of radical constructivists, the research findings of Tomkins & Ulus (2016) demonstrated the significance of prior knowledge in learning. In their study, a series of content-rich lectures prepared students for the role play exercise and discussions in the KLC. They concluded that the lectures played an important part in reducing anxiety in the subsequent tasks in the KLC. In fact, their findings were in line with the principle of learning by Hein (1991), which delineated prior knowledge as a pre-requisite for learning.

To align better with the nature of LS, social constructivism, as opposed to the radical branch, is a more appropriate theoretical perspective to be adopted in applying the KLC. Lave (1988) and Brown et al. (1989) believed that knowledge is constructed in social contexts (as cited in Osborne, 1996). Social constructivism also underpins Hein's (1991) principles of learning: 'learning is a social activity' and 'one needs knowledge to learn'. The implication on the KLC for IES is that prior knowledge plays a role in various phases of the learning cycle. Equipping students with knowledge of enquiry skills and the requirements of IES is essential to learning through the KLC.

From the perspective of validity

Some academics have been skeptical about the impact of KLC on learning. For instance, Kirschner et al. (2006) contended that experiential learning might bring about student satisfaction rather than learning (as cited in Tomkins & Ulus, 2016). Nevertheless, research findings, such as that of Tomkins & Ulus (2016), displayed a reduction of anxiety in experiential learning tasks. Even though their research did not provide any direct measurement on the learning outcomes of KLC, the reduction in anxiety was a positive impact that might pave the way for better learning outcomes. Therefore, the benefits of KLC on the performance of students cannot be dismissed.

IES, being a School-based Assessment task, is designed with marking criteria for assessing the learning outcomes. Therefore, self-reflection or self-reports on learning processes and attitudes may be the activities in the Reflective Observation phase and an indicator for implementation evaluation (such as the longitudinal study), rather than a tool for measuring students' performance as adopted by Price (2004) in his research (as cited by Bergsteiner et al. (2010)). The validity of the continuous KLC suggested in Figure 3 for promoting enquiry learning is yet to be verified by research on the performance of the IES in terms of the stipulated marking criteria.

Cultural influences

Students from different socio-demographic backgrounds may show different learning outcomes in the KLC. Konak et al. (2014) also pointed out in their research on KLC that the lack of consideration of the socio-demographic background of students could be one of the limitations. More direct evidence for the effect of cultural differences on learning was provided by a research on the teaching styles in several Asian cities conducted by Hallinger (2010). He concluded that Asian teachers were more used to rote learning and teacher-directed instruction and 'student-centred learning as "foreign" in origin and in nature' (p.412). One of the Taiwanese respondents in his research pointed out the traditional Chinese culture 'values uniformity' (p.412). Carless (2007) also perceived that the majority of people in Hong Kong 'equate assessment with grading' (p.13) and thus focussing on the learning outcomes in the form of marks. Inferring from these cultural characteristics, the implementation of the KLC for IES, which is student-centred and process-, rather than outcome-oriented, may face resistance from teachers and students. The concerns about marks may also hinder the collaboration work among students in the KLC.

Practical Issues in Classrooms

The resistance to IES may also stem from the workload on teachers. Since the class size in Hong Kong can be relatively big (about 30 to 40 students in a class) and

some teachers may need to take up more than one class of LS in a form, it may involve much work in providing feedback to students with a large variety of enquiry topics and a diversity of ability, thus undermining the effectiveness of learning through the KLC of IES, especially with the continuous KLC.

7. Conclusion

IES is a learning process through experiencing a KLC of an enquiry study on a contemporary issue. To promote the learning of enquiry skills and motivation of students, the design of the KLC of IES could be enhanced by allowing students the freedom in the report structure (choosing between a four-part structure or a three-part structure with the integrated Parts C and D) and in the enquiry process, incorporating more reflective experiences by going through the KLC repeatedly, strengthening the experiences by collaboration and facilitating students to tackle the challenges on the way. However, the effectiveness of learning via KLC of IES hinges on the possibility to raise the acceptance of this new mode of learning in the Chinese culture and to alleviate the workload of teachers.

In 2019, the HKEAA will allow more flexibility in the IES report structure - candidates may integrate Parts C and D in the reports. Whether greater freedom in the Abstract Conceptualisation phase of the KLC will bring about positive impacts as suggested in this theoretical study is yet to be verified by empirical studies on the authentic performance of the IES Reports which will be available in 2019. Furthermore, an investigation on the views of teachers and students will shed light on the learning processes of the KLC of IES and the motivation of students.

Acknowledgement

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以庫伯學習圈改善通識教育獨立專題探究的應用研究

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摘要

本文為理論研究，探討庫伯學習圈（KLC）可否改善香港的通識教育獨立專題探究（IES）。若學生能反複經驗有強化的「體驗反思」階段的 KLC，他們可檢視自己在學習圈較前階段的工作，並改善其 IES。另外，根據海因（1991）的學習原理，可從以下的方向提升學生在進行 IES 的 KLC 時的動機：提供更多選擇、更大自主性、難度合適的工作及更多協作機會。

關鍵詞

庫伯學習圈，學習原理，獨立專題探究，探究能力，動機

香港課程改革下的價值教育：回顧與前瞻

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摘要

1990 年代之後，香港因應主權回歸中國，教育局當局推動一系列的課程改革，其中最為受到矚目與關注點之一就是「價值教育」。首先，本文將從課程歷史文件中彙整香港價值教育的發展沿革，並討論價值教育在課程改革中的定位與角色；其次，本文也將檢視新一波課程改革如何重新修正價值教育理念與實施方向，討論價值教育改革的蛻變；最後，結合價值教育回顧後，從「課程設計理念」、「教學實踐」、「學習回饋」與「反思與批判」四個面向提出對於香港價值教育的反思。

關鍵詞
香港課程改革、價值教育、德育、公民教育

香港價值教育之演變：政策發展史與課程定位

　　　　　價值教育身為德育重要一環，在未有正式的官方定位前，香港的價值教育往往依賴於不同學科中教授（林智中，1994）。直至 1981 年頒佈的《學校德育指引》，才正式確立德育的課程地位（教育署，1981）。不過，價值教育仍從屬於德育及公民教育課程之中。自教育署（1985）推出《學校公民教育指引》開始，香港的道德教育便直接滲入於德育與公民教育的課程之中，成為推動價值教育的重要基礎。故此，香港的公民教育在推動價值教育也是不可或缺的（唐欣怡，2016，頁 4）。在《教育制度檢討：教育目標》文件中明確指出學校不但有責任培養學生社會、政治與公民意識，更要幫助學生了解公民責任的內涵（教育統籌委員會，1999，頁 7），這是香港建立世界公民（Global citizenship）的重要契機，並確立成為香港價值教育的本源。不過，教育統籌委員會（1999，頁 29）改革文件則表明學校教育首要推動德育、公民教育與中華文化，以培養學生國民身份認同及勇於承擔的精神，顯然香港的價值教育仍建基於學生必須回應中華文化特質的脈絡上。

　　　綜合不同文件所示，「價值教育」的概念首次出現於 2000 年的諮詢文件（課程發展議會，2000，頁 29-30），文件建議教師透過「生活事件設計價值教育課程」（參閱諮詢報告書附錄七，頁 93-97）教育學生[1]。2002 年的《基礎教育課程指引》，便提出香港需要培養學生建立積極的人生態度和正面的價值觀 (課程發展議會，2002，頁 1），也具體指出學校教育應培育五項價值觀，包括：「國民身份認同」、「責任感」、「尊重他人」、「堅毅」和「承擔精神」（課程發展議會，2002，頁 2-3）。該報告書也強調價值教育應該整合不同教育範疇，包括環境教育和性教育等。Liu（2000）有關台灣價值觀研究發現，社會連結、民主價值與國家認同等三項價值在公民教育課程之中受廣泛的重視，顯示以公民教育推動價值教育漸成主流趨勢。教育局（2008）的建議書更進一步提議通過各學科課程培育學生積極態度的正面的價值觀，從積極推動國民教育，並透過生活事例，在上述五項價值觀延伸至培養七種首要價值觀（加入「誠信」與「關愛」）。課程發展議會（2014）公布的文件中，建議學校理應從三個層面（認知層面、實踐層面、感情層面）推動培養學生的正面價

1　2001 年的《學會學習：課程發展路向》報告書中，指出德育及公民教育除需達致全人發展的目標，亦應以全人發展的概念融入於學習經歷之中，協助學生在德、智、體、群、美五大範疇的發展（課程發展議會，2001，頁 1-3）。因此，嚴格的意義來說，「價值教育」之概念定立於 2000 年之《學會學習：課程發展路向》諮詢文件上。

值觀[2]與教育。由於 2014 年的文件是推動價值教育最新發展的指引性文件，故本文主要的闡述是根據 2014 年的指引為主。

2014 年課程改革下價值教育之概況與蛻變

在 2014 年的文件中，不但由五種首要的價值觀延伸至七種，並在「國民身份認同」的價值觀教授中特別強調學生對於《基本法》與「一國兩制」的理解，並建議透過價值教育課程加深非華語學生對於中國的認識，這隱含價值教育服膺於德育及公民教育的模式依然不變，甚至帶有國民教育色彩。同時，要扭轉傳統的價值教育並強調價值的認知層面，忽略價值與實踐層面在價值教育中的重要性。有關轉變實際上呼應 Lickona（1991）以道德認知（moral knowing）、道德情感（moral feeling）和道德行為（moral behavior）回應外界一切的道德爭議，因為三者盡皆息息相關。因此，新的課程改革強調從認知、情感和實踐三方面互補不足，認知層面強調學生對事情的判斷能力之外，還有是對正面價值觀的認識程度；情感層面強調關懷與樂於助人之心，實踐層面重視如何在日常真實情境中呈現正面的價值觀與態度（課程發展議會，2014，頁 6）。

相對於 2002 年的指引，2014 年指引中的價值教育範疇增加了「可持續發展教育」、「生命教育」、「基本法教育」、「禁毒教育」和「性教育」，而且這些的價值教育範疇在不同年代已經引入。整體而言，價值教育的課程發展確實有不同程度的演變，惟有個別價值教育的範疇已有長時間未有更新（如「性教育」）[3]。即使「可持續發展教育」是新加入的價值教育範疇，除更新於幼稚園的最新課程指引外，卻未有涉獵於小學和中學課程，可見香港價值教育在不同範疇的發展並非一致（請見表一）。

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2 學會學習 2.0 相關文件將價值觀界定為：「學生理應建立內在或外顯的信念作為判斷決策和作出行為的準則，態度則是完成工作所必須具備的個人特質（課程發展議會，2014，頁 18）。」

3 而就個別價值教育範疇而言，亦有不同的課程內容更新。德育和公民教育 / 國民教育仍然是主要推行價值教育的核心部份，其課程目標是培養學生全人發展，加上歷史因素下必然成為學校課程的一部分。兩者分別教授不同的主題，但都是以跨學科的形式進行。不過，實際推行時，德育著重中國人的品德培養，而公民教育的課程內容，亦因強調國民教育，又礙於香港仍是傳統的華人社會，包括教授中國傳統的道德價值觀。縱然政府曾提出設立「德育及國民教育科」獨立成科，以取代「德育及公民教育」，卻最終因社會的激烈反對下取消。法律教育、基本法教育與人權教育則提倡加強學生認識《基本法》及其與日常生活的關係之外，學生也要明白其人權和自由受《基本法》保障，從而進一步提升學生的人權意識，培養尊重人權的態度和價值觀。生命教育則從「珍惜生命」和「成功人生」的論調，轉化成培育學生認識生命的意義與價值，並從認知、態度和技能三個層面幫助學生建立正面積極的態度，面對將來的挑戰（教育局，2016）。

表一：回歸後個別價值教育範疇的發展沿革（因篇幅所限未能逐一範疇列明）

價值範疇類型	不同範疇的價值教育	重點轉變與發展
個人與社會	德育和公民教育/國民教育	2001 年的教育改革建議「公民教育」變動，並在 2008 年提出加強了國民教育的部份。2010/11 年的施政報告進一步提議廢除「德育及公民教育」，由「德育及國民教育科」取代，卻因社會的激烈反對下在 2012 年取消有關建議（Wong et al., 2015; Wong et al., 2016）。
個人與社會/國家	法律教育、基本法教育與人權教育	學校需要令學生了解《基本法》的內容及其與日常生活之間的關係，從而加強學生對《基本法》的理解。並確保學校的法律教育，以加強價值教育（教育局，2017，頁 12）[4]。
個人與生命	生命教育	學生應該認識生命的奧妙，確立生命的價值；從探索生命的意義尊重每一個生命個體；以及欣賞生命的價值接受生命的轉變。新的生命教育應從認知、態度和技能三個層面幫助學生建立正面積極的態度，以面對將來的挑戰（教育局，2016，頁 25）。
學個人與人際關係	性教育	1986 年教育署首次出版《學校性教育指引》，不但為學校提供引導性的教學方向，並就性教育課程提出實際建議（教育署課程發展委員會，1986）。有關指引在 1997 年修訂，期望老師可以從中培養學生對婚姻和家庭的觀念，積極的價值觀及鼓勵學生承擔自己抉擇的後果[5]（課程發展議會，1997，頁 10-11）。

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4 人權教育方面，老師既要引入《基本法》條文的教授，還要學生明白《基本法》有關對香港公民有關自由民主和人權方面的保障。同時，通過討論和反思，學生應該清楚如何在日常生活生活中體現保障人權的精神（教育局，2018）。

5 1997 年修訂指引提出性教育是一種「均衡」性教育課程的觀念，學生應該對性的認知和掌握性行為的後果，作出知情的判斷。

個人與環境社會	環境教育 / 可持續發展教育	1992 香港首次制訂《學校環境教育指引》，並在 1999 年修訂[6]。2002 年發佈的文件，進一步建議學校可以考慮以「環境教育」為基礎，藉以推動「可持續發展」教育（教育署課程發展處，2002）。2010 年的進度匯報文件，進一步強調應該從「認知」、「行動」和「態度」三方面，以全方位方式，推行可持續發展教育（可持續發展委員會教育及宣傳工作小組，2010，頁 6）。2017 年發佈《幼稚園教育課程指引》則建議培養幼兒對生活與大自然現象的好奇心和探索（李子建，馬慶堂，黃群英，2005；課程發展議會，2017，頁 34）。

資料來源：作者根據不同政府文件自行整理。

香港價值教育之聚焦、深化、持續與批判

　　德國哲學家康德（Kant）（1803/1983, p.699；湯志民，1989，頁 161）有言：「教育的本質，在於使人成為人（Man can only become man through education）。」。價值教育應該培養學生的個人判斷力和批判能力，避免以灌輸的形式決定哪些價值才是應該用作成為具有普遍性的行為準則（李奉儒，2006，頁 188；郭佳靈，2016，頁 142）[7]。為此，因應上述的概況和蛻變，以及回應價值教育「應教甚麼」、「怎樣去教」、「為何要教」、「由誰來教」與「何時去教」（麥陳尹玲，1996，頁 2-3）五大原則，本文將從「聚焦」、「深化」「持續」和「批判」四大原則，分析香港價值教育的未來方向。

6　修訂內容指出，學生應該致力在其一生也關注環保議題，並且為未來的環境保育身體力行，致力創建一個可持續發展的環境（課程發展議會，1999，頁 4）。

7　價值教育之目的就是透過思辨的實踐使人成為人的過程，教學者與學習者是「互為主體」的關係，透過價值觀的思辨歷程，建構社會上可欲的質素與德行，培養公民良心（Nucci, 2001, p.125）。價值教育必須由「吸收知識」（know what）變成「實踐知識」（know to），和「懂得如何實踐知識」（know how）取向，否則將落入 Kohlberg（1981）強調道德價值認知倚賴個人認知階段的循環，而忽略了情意因素（Kohn, 1997）。

1. 香港價值教育之「聚焦」面向

　　香港價值教育的改革首先強調聚焦的面向，主要是扭轉價值教育過份強調工具與技術取向，強調重視總結性的評鑑結果（例如：記錄學生價值觀與態度的改變），而忽略實施的過程的課程理念、教學方法與學習回饋，無法彰顯價值教育的成果。有鑑於此，筆者嘗試從價值教育可以從課程設計理念、教學實踐與學習回饋進行討論。（一）「課程設計理念」的面向而論，課程設計的理念應該把價值觀的理念融入「過程」與價值教育的「效能」。（二）「教學實踐」的面向而論，價值教育之持份者可透過整合不同學科（生活領域）與生活事件教學法實踐價值觀教學，並重視實踐的過程與反思實踐的效能。（三）「學習回饋」的面向而論，教學者可以透過學習回饋修正與調整課程理念，並強化其教學實踐之過程與效能，持份者又可以透過學習回饋聚焦在價值觀的培養與教學之效能[8]。

　　回顧不同的研究數據，亦反映過份強調工具與技術取向對價值教育帶來的負面影響。基督教女青年會（2012）的研究指出，不但超過三成學生[9]從未參與學校的品德教育活動，超過一半的受訪者甚至質疑學校品格教育的效用。在老師的角度，也體現出類似的觀點。在較早期的研究中，吳迅榮與梁恩榮（2004，頁81）便指出以「滲透式」方法推行公民教育，基於老師的專業水平與教學技巧質素參差，成效容易不彰。以「綜合課程方法」教授，則出現內容過於廣泛，老師容易偏重於某一範疇的問題。另一項研究數據則反映超過一半受訪老師缺乏足夠時間推行品德和倫理教育，超過七成的受訪老師希冀政府協助製作合適教材推行品德和倫理教育（香港教育學院，2014）。石丹理、林立（2017，頁19）的調查卻仍認為學校是影響個人品格發展的重要場所。石丹理和馬汶詩（2017，頁22-23）的最新研究顯示，在約560名的受訪老師中，約有一半並不同意現時學校提供了足夠的品德教育，超過七成的老師則不同意現時的正規課程能夠充份提供有關的生活技巧和知識予學生，而且推行形式較為單一，相信這是價值教育未來其中一項挑戰。

8　余忠權、陳淑英、陳惠君、黃家玲、吳懷燕、屈嘉曼（2013）有關常識科案例分享指出，透過情意價值教學有助學生從既有的價值觀，學生逐漸在學習的過程中吸收所學的價值，作出最後的判斷。情意價值教學有五大步驟，牽涉不同價值的涉獵和考慮，以及決策判斷的基礎，期望學生從觸動情意達致不同價值取向交流的終極目標。相信這項模式可以成為未來香港價值教育的發展方向。

9　受訪學生接近500名中學生。

綜合上述研究數據可見，香港價值教育的實施情況仍有改善空間。

2. 香港價值教育之「深化」面向

香港價值教育的第二個面向是在開放的課程架構下，並按校情需要設計校本課程，推動價值教育的實施。同時，卻要緊扣教授七種價值觀。筆者嘗試從三個面向進行討論：（一）課程設計理念可以將七種價值觀與全人教育的發展進行結合，深化七種價值觀的正面影響；（二）教學實踐而論，不同的持份者可以透過教學實踐活動將七種價值觀融入於課程活動之中，或整合於不同的事件與科目當中，深化學習者對於價值觀的認識與理解；（三）學習的回饋而論，學習者的回饋應該深化對於價值觀與態度的理解，亦可以作為教學者反思教學實踐之依據[10]。

事實上，在多元文化的影響下，對於在華人實踐價值教育帶來挑戰。一方面學生深受儒家傳統的價值所熏陶，另外也受西方價值的衝擊，如何取捨及平衡對學生確實一大難題（舒志定，2011，頁 62）。香港身為國際大都會，有關情況亦值得我們深思。Nieto（2000）有關多元文化教育的分類，更凸顯多元文化教育強調學習不同文化價值的前題下，能否配合不同文化背景學生的需要，建立正向的價值和態度，協助思考、選擇和決定社會行動，是未來香港價值教育的一大重點（Banks, 2013）。另外，從 Arthur（2016a, pp. 59-71）有關全校參與模式推動品德教育的個案探討分析，全校參與不但有助釐清老師在品德教育的促進者（facilitator）角色，還可藉成為角色模型（role modelling），結合家校合作與課外活動的形式，成為未來學校推行品德教育的新方向。當英國的經驗顯示全校參與模式有助在學校全面推動品德教育，香港應如何結合校本形式與全校參與模式推行價值教育，將成未來的探討方向（Devine & Parker, 2016）[11]。

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10 現時，坊間也有一些教材套協助學校設計校本課程。譬如教育局於 2015 年中學生制作了一套教材套：「明法達義」（請參閱 http://basiclawebook.edb.hkedcity.net/bookweb/index.php，登入日期為 25-1-2018）。教材內容主要講述《基本法》之法治地位與「一國兩制」之間的關係，深化國民身份認同之價值觀。再者，香港廉政公署（請參閱 http://www.me.icac.hk/icac/ebook2015/tc/ebook.html?level=3，登入日期為 25-1-2018）亦製作「小學生德育電子故事書」，透過不同的主題深化價值觀的正面影響。

11 有案例顯示，全校參與是推行價值教育的關鍵因素之一，因為通力合作方可避免課程零散，教學活動也可變得多元化，提高學生課堂參與。同時，有賴不同的老師配合，方能有系統地進行跨學科的課程統整（朱慧珍，2016，頁 354-355）。屈嘉曼、吳懷燕、黃勵德（2014）便分享道其學校推行價值教育的經驗，以情意導向的教學方法，發展校本「情意價值教育」課程，培養學生的「價值思考能力」。相信未來價值教育的發展，可從上述推行的方向作為藍本。

3. 香港價值教育之「持續」面向

　　香港價值教育之持續面向主要是強調價值觀之持續的評估與發展，並持續的提升課程品質。（一）從課程設計理念而論，價值教育的設計理念應該強調持續的評估與專業發展，取代過去總結性的評估與評鑑方式。（二）從教學實踐而論，推動價值教育之持份者可透過不同的實踐活動，持續與學習者對話。持份者也應該重視價值教育之專業發展，透過不同的進修活動（例如：官方或民間的工作坊）保持對於教學實踐的熱誠。（三）從學習回饋而論，教學者可以透過學習者的回饋思考如何持續提升課堂品質，持份者也能透過學習回饋加強價值教育之持續專業的發展[12]。

　　參考 Raths, Harmin & Simon（1966）的「價值澄清法」，價值教育不應過份強調固定的道德價值，避免成為道德批判的場所，反之是透過引導學生反思及分辨自己確立的價值，成為判斷社會不同事件的標準。胡少偉（2015）分享一間學校的課堂實況，展示如何借用「價值澄清法」，以引入 - 珍視 - 行動模式，透過不同的議題交流，讓學生能夠從中激發他們對價值取向的思考與動機。Sivan & Chan（2013）的研究則反映老師不但是教授道德與倫理價值的重要人物，價值教育需要滲入於跨學科課程來提升教授的靈活性，因為學生往往在非正式途徑學習倫理價值。若學校現時的實際情況如一項於 2012 年的研究所示，學校偏重於發展知識技能，多於培育道德品格，並較強調灌輸而缺乏實踐價值的機會，則無助於香港價值教育的健康推展（突破機構，2012）。

4. 香港價值教育之反思與批判

　　筆者就香港價值教育之批判，從三個面向進行討論，包括：課程設計理念、教學實踐與學習回饋。課程設計模式主要可以分為三種取向：(1) 目標模式；(2) 歷程模式；(3) 情境模式（黃光雄，1996）。根據上述之分析，香港價值教育的「課程設

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12 教育局會舉辦不同類型的教師工作坊與研討會，持續地鼓勵教師在價值觀教學的專業對話與學習；再者，政府設立「兒童權利論壇」（Children's Rights Forum）（參閱 http://www.cmab.gov.hk/tc/issues/child_forum.htm），目的是為政府、兒童與非政府組織提供持續對話的平台，鼓勵不同領域的持份者可以就「兒童權利議題」交換意見。縱然一項調查顯示，老師對「兒童參與權 (participation rights)」的認識不足，並擔心兒童權利的普及容易產生更多的價值衝突（香港城市大學，2016）。香港小童群益會（2012）的研究結果卻反映香港兒童並不追求財富獲得，可見價值教育在香港初見成果。

計理念」面向也呼應 Tyler（1949, p.51）[13] 所提出的四項學校課程發展與教學計劃之基本原則，其主張四項學校課程發展與教學計劃之基本原則包括：「1.學校應達到哪些教育目標？；2.學校需提供哪些學習經驗才能達成這些目標？；3.如何有效地組織這些教育性的經驗？；4.我們將如何確認這些教育目標已經被達成？。」。從課程設計的理論來說，香港價值教育方案較接近課程設計的「目標模式」，重視技術性手段與目的之工具理性價值；相對來說，比較容易忽略教師的專業成長（歷程模式），以及學校本位的課程需求（情境模式）。價值教育的「聚焦」如何兼顧目標模式、歷程模式與情境模式是課程改革可以思考的方向。

再者，價值觀的教學實踐面向，不同身份的持份者應該反思價值教育的多元的價值取向，除了將不同的社會與教育資源引入價值教育當中，仍需要考量到學習者的文化因素，這也是官方的政策文件中甚少提及的部分。在教學的脈絡當中，Nieto（1992）從文化與學習的關係中提出三種解釋：首先，教師必須關注學習者的性別、種族、語言與社會階級的差異，否認差異性常導致學校和教師將學生的學習成果予以標籤化。其次，學生的身分可能影響他們如何學習。最後，教師應提供必要的條件給學生，將學生的自身的文化建構視為幫助他們學習的力量。價值觀的教學實踐面向，教師應該思考文化因素如何回應價值觀教學。筆者認為，教師若能考量學習者身份的文化差異，才能促進價值教育產生多元的價值 [14]。

從學習回饋的面向，價值教育的學習回饋不僅應重視教師或學生一方的觀點，應該強調重視持份者之間（包括：課程領導者、課程教學者與學習者）間的對話與共識。依據 Habermas（1984）的溝通行動理論，持份者應該共同創造無限制的溝通情境，鼓勵學習者與教學者能夠在對等的師生關係下分享多元的學習成果 [15]。同時，亦需要致力追求 Noddings（1984）有關「教育與關懷」（Care and Education）的基

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13 Tyler 的課程設計理念受到行為主義之影響，建議課程設計應符合科學理性之精神，並兼顧社會發展之需求，主張課程設計者透過社會生活的行動來確定教育目標，課程目標的設定亦是選擇教學內容、選擇學習內容、組織學習內容和設計評量工具之基礎（歐用生，1994；宋明娟，2007）。

14 Nieto（1992, p.109）提出「一樣不等於公平」（equal is not the same）的格言，指出：「同等地對待每一個人並不必然獲致公平，反而有可能造成不平」。

15 Habermas（1990）根據溝通行動理論發展出「論辯倫理學」（discourse ethics），強調言說者間的關係是互為主體。據此，師生之間的對話應該建立在理性溝通與論辯基礎之上，教師應培養學生對於公共事務的關心，引導學生將知識與價值轉化為具體的行動，共同為建構理性化的社會而奮鬥（楊深坑，2000，頁 106-107）。具體來說，持份者應該針對學習的目標、學習的歷程、學習的成果進行評估與對話，以符合 Habermas（1984）的溝通行動原則 15。

礎。老師應該與學生建立一個關懷的對話情境，老師應用心和接納學生的感受，從而以道理說服學生摒取自我中心角度思維，主動了解和尊重別人想法，並會作出自我反省（李子建、黃顯華，1996；丁心平，2017）。總結來說，價值教育應該結合「論辯倫理」與「關懷倫理」之教育理念，重視學生的聲音與持份者間的對話，創建包容關懷的學校氛圍與多元價值的理性化社會。

總結與啟示

本文旨在探究香港價值教育的發展沿革，並從 2014 年課程改革三大目標（包括：聚焦、深化、持續）闡述價值教育之課程設計、教學實踐與學習回饋。整體來說，香港的價值教育改革具體的回應全球環境的變遷與社會的發展，筆者認為香港價值教育改革有兩項進步的教育特質：

價值教育突破以「認知主導」的模式：價值教育除了對價值觀與態度的認識之外，2014 年的指引具體地的提出，課程與教學也應該兼顧情感與實踐的層面，也擴大了價值教育的學習歷程，除了課堂的學習之外，也應兼顧實踐體驗與學習氣氛。換句話說，價值教育不僅是認知的教育，亦是情感和實踐的教育。

價值教育為「跨學科統整」的軸心：價值教育可以貫穿不同的學科領域，並結合不同的社會議題進行教學，成為跨學科統整的軸心。其中，2002 年與 2014 年的指引皆指出，生活事件教學法可以協助教師進行課程的設計與教學實踐活動，促使課程可以更貼近學生的生活，協助學生轉化抽象的價值觀為具體的生活實踐。

無可否認，在華人地區推動價值教育，傳統的儒家價值佔有無可取代的地位（Chou, Tu and Huang, 2013）。然而，Arthur（2016b, pp.18-33）有關東方與西方品德教育分析就透視西方的個人主義與東方強調集體主義是存在衝突，儒家價值仍主導不同東亞國家的品德教育發展。儒家有關尊師重道的觀點，往往令老師的角色轉型帶來困難。加上亞洲地區重視考試風氣依舊，往往導致價值教育仍停留於價值應用的層面及知識的灌輸（劉國強，2006）。此外，現時價值教育的發展仍呼應 Fok（1999, pp.10-13）對香港推行價值教育的限制分析，特別是道德準則與儒家思想強調紀律的衝突，以及考試制度主導下的教育系統會忽略對學生德育的成長。因此，面對廿一世紀的挑戰，香港學生必須學習廿一世紀技能，培育聯合國教科文組織要

求下「世界公民」所具備的品德。因為廿一世紀的人才，不但需要貢獻於生產型經濟，還要推動在全球社會建立社會凝聚力。未來香港價值教育所邁向的目標必須為學生提供充裕的空間，課程的改革應該能夠逐步推動學生的價值建構由知識主導，轉化至以行動實踐為主導的方向，以及協助讓學生思考甚麼是美好人生，否則仍只是一種「價值灌輸」的教育（香港集思會教育課題組，2012）。

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Values Education in Curriculum Reform of Hong Kong: Retrospect and Prospect

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Abstract

Since the 1990s, because the sovereignty of Hong Kong has returned to China in 1997, the education authorities have promoted a series of curriculum reforms. One of the most particular attention was "values education". The primary purpose of this article is to re-examine the development of values education in Hong Kong based upon the context of curriculum reform. First of all, this article will shed light on the development of value education in Hong Kong on the basis of the analysis of curriculum documents, and also discuss the position and role of values education in curriculum reform. Secondly, this article will examine how the new curriculum reform will revise the concept and implementation direction of the values education, and discuss the transformation of values education. Finally, aligning with the reviews of values education, the reflection of the Hong Kong values education will focus on four aspects, including "the idea of curriculum design", "teaching practice", "learning feedback" and "reflection and criticism".

Keywords

香港的幼兒價值觀教育 — 一個衍生自課程指引的論述

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摘要

從社會學的觀點來說，價值觀的傳遞和塑造是教育的一個十分重要的功能；幼兒時期的價值觀教育或品德教育不論對兒童和社會將會是十分重要的。本文分析了《幼稚園教育課程指引（2017）》中有關價值觀教育的內容，並就著在幼兒階段推展價值觀教育，從幼兒階段的核心倫理價值、價值觀教育的模式、幼兒教師價值觀教育的培訓、營建推展價值觀教育的氛圍、促進家校合作以建立品德培育的夥伴等方面作出建議。

關鍵詞

幼稚園教育、價值觀教育、品德教育、道德教育

導言

　　自 2007 年 9 月實施「學前教育學券計劃」，以及在 2017 年 9 月實施「優質免費幼稚園教育」計劃，香港政府介入幼稚園教育日益明顯。隨後，教育局向立法會教育事務委員會提交有關免費幼稚園的最新發展，提出在 2018 年中將會公布有關幼稚園校董會組成的要求，以明確規定幼稚園校董會的組成。現時在教育局註冊的幼稚園均須設有校董會，但對幼稚園校董會的組成要求並不如資助中小學的法團校董會。根據有關免費幼稚園的最新發展的文件，教育局將要求幼稚園的校董會由最少三人所組成，其中最少一人來自該幼稚園的辦學團體、最少一名是來自家長、教師、校友或社會人士，校長可以毋須擔任校董，但必須出席校董會會議（明報，2018）。這是對幼稚園的管治作進一步的規範。除此以外，教育局亦會把對幼稚園所作質素評核的報告上載至教育局網頁讓公眾人士查閱。種種措施均顯示政府對幼稚園教育的介入隨著給予幼稚園教育資助的增加而有所加強。

　　政府介入教育的原因很多，然而，大概可以從經濟學和社會學的觀點來加以了解。經濟學的觀點基本上是以人力資本理論為基礎的。教育是一項花在人力資本上的投資，受過教育的人比沒受教育的人具備較高的生產力。個人生產力的提升促進了社會整體生產力的提升（Becker, 1993, Pencavel, 1993; Schultz, 1987; Thomas, Wang & Fan, 2001；Woodhall, 1997）。而且，人們透過教育能夠使他們所擁有的知識和技能得著更新，從而促進創新和科技發展，使社會生產力得著進一步的提升，社會因此便更為繁榮進步（王善邁，1996；曾滿超、魏新，1997）。此外，教育亦可提升人們應付轉變的能力，有助人們應對知識型經濟和科技不斷發展的需要（Chan, 2010; Schultz, 1975）。社會學的觀點大致上可以功能學派和衝突學派為依據，教育是一個重要的社會化代理人，政府介入教育的基本的目的是謀求社會穩定和控制。藉培育青年人接受和遵從社會沿用的價值規範，以達致社會安定、和諧與繁榮（Althusser, 2001; Ballantine & Hammack, 2012）。當然，政府亦會透過教育改變社會的價值規範，從而促進社會應對轉變和向前發展。從社會學的觀點來說，價值觀的傳遞和塑造是教育十分重要的社會功能。

因此，除了加強對幼稚園管治的監管以及幼稚園營運的透明度外，幼稚園教育課程的規範自然也是政府介入幼稚園教育的一個切入點。假若在兒童早期施加於他們的行動，是有助他們日後在個人發展和學習上有所裨益的話（Reynolds et al., 2001），幼兒時期的價值觀教育或品德教育，不論對兒童和社會將會是十分重要的。本文將分析《幼稚園教育課程指引（2017）》中有關價值觀教育的內容，並就在幼兒階段推展價值觀教育作出建議。有關品格發展的文獻中，常常會涉及品德教育和道德教育兩個用詞。論者認為品德教育較著重培養個人內在的美善素質；而道德教育除了個人的素質外，更涉及倫理的考慮（吳清山、林天佑，2005）。雖然如此，兩者均涉及個人的美善素質，也同時涵蓋了對美善價值的認知、情意和行為，因此品德教育和道德教育可以被涵蓋於價值教育或價值觀教育。而品德教育、道德教育和價值觀教育也常被視為同義詞（陳埩淑，2004）。本文亦將交錯使用品德教育、道德教育和價值觀教育這三個用詞。以下將先就《幼稚園教育課程指引（2017）》在幼兒價值觀教育的不足加以闡釋，然後再就如何加強幼兒價值觀教育作出建議。

《幼稚園教育課程指引（2017）》中幼兒價值觀教育的勾勒

在實施了《學前教育課程指引（2006）》十年後，課程發展議會因應社會的轉變和幼兒的需要，對《學前教育課程指引（2006）》予以檢視，以求進一步優化幼稚園課程。為了配合《免費幼稚園教育委員會報告》所訂下的教育目標及相關措施，在2017年課程發展議會推出了《幼稚園教育課程指引（2017）》，其中凸顯了幼稚園、小學及中學課程的延續性，以期學前教育和中小學教育構成一個連貫和互相配合的教育體系。幼稚園教育是為幼兒未來的學習與成長奠下良好的基礎，促進他們在德、智、體、群、美各方面的均衡發展，從而達至全人教育的目的（課程發展議會，2017）。《幼稚園教育課程指引（2017）》承接《學前教育課程指引（2006）》的理念，以「兒童為本」作為課程的核心價值，以及持守「認識和尊重每個幼兒的發展獨特規律」的原則。與此同時，由於教育政策（例如「優質免費幼稚園教育計劃」的推行）和社會狀況的轉變（例如家長抱持「贏在起跑線」的觀念以及人口結構的改變），課程發展議會訂出了是次學前教育課程修訂的重點如下（課程發展議會，2017，頁12）：

- 強調培育幼兒的均衡發展；
- 加強推展品德教育；

- 闡釋各學習範疇的學習目的；
- 加強照顧幼兒的多樣性及推動共融文化；
- 提倡以生活化的主題貫通各學習範疇的內容；
- 提倡幼兒從遊戲中學習，並加強遊戲中的自由探索元素；
- 加強幼稚園教育與小學教育的銜接。

《幼稚園教育課程指引（2017）》指出幼稚園教育課程須以促進幼兒的全面和均衡發展為原則，涵蓋「品德發展」、「認知和語言發展」、「身體發展」、「情意和群性發展」和「美感發展」五項發展目標，透過「體能與健康」、「語文」、「幼兒數學」、「大自然與生活」、「個人與群體」和「藝術與創意」六個學習範疇加以落實，從而體現德、智、體、群、美的五育發展方向（課程發展議會，2017，頁18）。然而，從《幼稚園教育課程指引（2017）》的篇章結構來說，總共八章之中，第一章是「概論」，第二章是「課程目標與架構」，第三章是「學校整體課程規劃」，第四章是「學與教及評估」，第五章是「照顧幼兒的多樣性」，第六章是「入學適應與幼小銜接」，第七章是「家校合作與社區參與」，第八章是「教師專業發展」。雖然課程發展議會以加強推展品德教育為是次學前教育課程修訂的一個重點，惟《幼稚園教育課程指引（2017）》在「品德發展」方面的闡述，比起其他重點則顯得有點不足。關於「加強推展品德教育」這一個重點，《幼稚園教育課程指引（2017）》在第二章的課程目標中，提出了要「培育幼兒正面的價值觀和積極的態度」，從而期望幼兒能夠「認識自己，尊重和關愛別人，熱愛生活，展現良好的行為；樂觀自信，勇敢面對生活和成長的轉變」（頁 19）；「樂於參與群體活動，遵守秩序及尊重他人，建立自信和勇氣，發展社交技巧；學習與他人相處，培養團隊合作精神；勇於嘗試，不怕失敗、能持之以恆，明白群體生活中互助合作的重要，增強對團體的歸屬感和責任感」（頁 27）。然而，《幼稚園教育課程指引（2017）》並沒有對幼稚園的品德／價值觀教育的推展作出有系統的闡述。

從哲學觀點，品德教育須抱持著一些重要、被廣為認同、以及成為良好品格基石的核心倫理價值；這些價值包括關愛、誠信、公平、負責、以及對自己和他者的尊重（Lickona, Schaps & Lewis, 2002）。《幼稚園教育課程指引（2017）》也認同這觀點。因此，在「課程目標」中提出了期望幼兒能夠「認識自己，尊重和關愛別人，熱愛生活，展現良好的行為；樂觀自信，勇敢面對生活和成長的轉變」（課程發展

議會，2017，頁 19）。其中除了「尊重和關愛別人」和「展現良好的行為」這兩點較為接近倫理價值外，其餘的都是關乎個人以及個人生活的態度的。然而，什麼是「良好的行為」呢？什麼是幼兒階段中應有的良好的行為呢？《幼稚園教育課程指引 (2017)》對此並沒有作充分的闡釋。

　　Lickona, Schaps & Lewis（2002）認為把成為良好品格基石的核心倫理價值，讓學校中的每一個人都能充分認識、了解和認同，對推動品德教育是十分重要的。因此在幼兒教育階段中，讓兒童和教師清楚什麼是「良好的行為」是十分重要的。《幼稚園教育課程指引 (2017)》雖然在《附錄一》列出了「建議納入學校課程內的核心及輔助價值觀和態度」，但《附錄一》只不過是把《學會學習 —— 課程發展路向》（課程發展議會，2001）中有關「學校課程中的共通元素：價值觀及態度」的附錄移植過來，再在「核心價值：社會」這條目中加上「國民身份認同」這一點。《幼稚園教育課程指引 (2017)》的建議只不過是借用了學校教育中的價值觀。在所借用的「學校課程內的核心及輔助價值觀和態度」中，關乎個人的核心價值和輔助價值分別有 11 項（包括生命神聖、真理、美的訴求、真誠、人性尊嚴、理性、創作力、勇氣、自由、情感、個人獨特性）和 14 項（包括自尊、自省、自律、修身、道德規範、自決、思想開闊、獨立、進取、正直、簡樸、敏感、謙遜、堅毅），而關乎社會的核心價值和輔助價值各有 13 項（核心價值：平等、善良、仁慈、愛心、自由、共同福祉、守望相助、正義、信任、互相依賴、持續性、人類整體福祉、國民身份認同；輔助價值：多元化、正當的法律程序、民主、自由、共同意志、愛國心、寬容、平等機會、文化及文明承傳、人權與責任、理性、歸屬感、團結一致）。在態度方面包含 17 項（樂觀、樂於參與、批判性、具創意、欣賞、移情、關懷、積極、有信心、合作、負責任、善於應變、開放、尊重、樂於學習、勤奮、對核心及輔助價值有承擔），在「尊重」這一項上更細分為 9 項（自己、別人、生命、素質及卓越、證據、公平、法治、不同的生活方式信仰及見解、環境）（課程發展議會，2017，頁82）。從核心價值的角度來說《幼稚園教育課程指引（2017）》的有關建議顯得冗長，不容易讓人對幼兒教育階段的兒童所應養成的價值觀得著提綱挈領的認識。以台灣推行品德教育的經驗，政府教育局也會為品德教育制訂核心價值，但遠較《幼稚園教育課程指引（2017）》簡潔和清晰，使人易於了解和掌握。例如台南市政府教育局以「誠信、孝順、感恩、尊重、關懷、負責、自信、自律、正念、正義、友善、

信賴、寬恕、合作、勇敢、勤儉、尊重生命共 17 項為各級學校品德教育的核心價值」（黃彩碧，2013，頁 64）。

Nucci（1982）認為價值觀教育須使加諸學生的社會經驗與他們的發展階段配合，價值觀教育的課程設計和發展應該與兒童發展緊扣在一起。然而，《幼稚園教育課程指引（2017）》卻沒有就在香港社會中學前兒童所應培養的價值觀作出具體的建議。香港在幼兒品格發展方面的研究是很少的。從台灣有關幼兒品德教育方面的研究中，家長認為「幼兒階段最重要的 10 項品德核心價值是負責、尊重、感恩、孝順、關懷、誠信、自信、自律、尊重生命和勤儉（黃彩碧，2013）。香港和台灣兩地社會當然存在著一定的差異，但被廣為認同、成為良好品格基石的核心價值理應沒有很大的分歧。台灣的經驗和研究，可以為香港在幼兒階段推動品德教育提供不俗的參考。價值觀教育的目的就是要讓學生發展他們對道德和社會規範（social convention）的思考方式（ways of thinking）。要達到這目的，Nucci（1982）認為有兩個原則是須予以依循的。除了上文提及加諸學生的社會經驗須與他們的發展階段配合外，另外一個原則是：用以發展學生對社會價值觀的教育經驗須與有關價值觀的道德和社會規範配合。《幼稚園教育課程指引（2017）》雖然指出「家長應對子女建立合理期望，考慮他們的興趣和能力，為他們選擇合適的學校」（頁 73）、以及「家長關注子女可能出現的情緒變化……為家長提供具體建議，以幫助子女建立正面的價值觀和積極的態度，適應入學所帶來的轉變」（頁 69），但重點還是放在兒童的入學和學習，並不是兒童價值觀的發展。

總的來說，《幼稚園教育課程指引（2017）》在幼兒教育階段品德教育／價值觀教育方面所作出的闡述和指引實在是有所不足的。假若國家（或政府）在道德價值觀的設定和傳遞上應扮演直接而具體的角色（Cragg, 1979），以及對兒童作出及早的介入是有助於他們日後的發展和學習（Reynolds et al., 2001）的話，有系統地向幼兒推行清晰的、正面、積極的價值觀教育，對兒童和社會都是重要的。

推展幼兒價值觀教育的芻議

既然政府正擬加強對幼稚園教育的介入，幼兒的品德教育自應予以重視，以期加強兒童對自己和他者的尊重，懂得感恩和關懷，養成負責和誠信。但《幼稚園教

育課程指引（2017）》並沒有就此作出詳細而具體的建議。以下將就著如何加強香港幼兒的價值觀教育提出一點建議。

制訂幼兒階段的核心倫理價值

　　Lickona, Schaps & Lewis（2002）認為在學校裡有效地推動品德教育，雖然並不會有一個成功推動品德教育的獨步單方，卻有一些有助推動品德教育的原則。這些原則包括：

1. 把成為良好品格基石的核心倫理價值讓學校中的每一個人都能充分認識、了解和認同。同時也須把這些倫理價值清晰地闡明為在學校生活中可被觀察的行為。學校須抱持這些價值並對這些行為予以充分的肯定並加以實踐；

2. 良好的品德教育應涉及道德生活中的認知、情意和行為等三個層面。對倫理價值的了解、關注和行動是品德教育的內涵；

3. 品德教育的推行必須刻意地和積極地規劃，不能守株待兔的等待時機；

4. 須把學校營建成為一個能夠幫助學生養成對別人關愛的道德社群；

5. 讓學生不斷經歷品德教育的核心倫理價值，例如減少打架和欺凌；

6. 品德教育應包含一個具意義而且具挑戰性的課程，對學習者給予尊重和幫助；

7. 應培養學生擁抱核心倫理價值的內在動機；

8. 學校的教職員應發展為一個德育的學習型社群；

9. 具備道德領導力的領袖；

10. 與家長成為品德培育的夥伴；

11. 對學校關愛社群的發展、學生品德表現、以及教師在品德培育方面的專業發展作評估。

從上述 11 項原則之中，第一項原則是最根本的。若要在幼兒階段有效地推動價值觀教育，首要的是須弄清楚什麼是幼兒階段的核心倫理價值和良好行為。Nucci（1982）認為價值觀教育的內容不但要發展兒童對公平公正的理解，也應按他們對社會規範概念的建構以及由文化所確定的準則所界定。因此，教育當局或幼兒教育學者可就香港社會中幼兒階段的品德內涵予以探討；從而按著兒童身心發展的特徵，制訂幼兒能夠明白和實踐的核心價值。而且，這些核心價值必須讓幼稚園教師和家長知悉和了解，讓幼稚園和家長刻意地和積極地規劃相關的活動，幫助兒童不斷經歷這些核心倫理價值、以及培養他們擁抱這些核心倫理價值的內在動機。

採納合適的價值觀教育模式

推動品德教育，大致上可循價值澄清模式（value clarification approach）和德育發展模式（moral development approach）（Leming, 1981）。價值澄清模式認為先向學生釐清所須追尋的核心倫理價值將有助於價值觀的建立；而德育發展模式基本上是建基於關乎道德推理的認知發展模式（cognitive-developmental approach）的（Kohlberg，1969, 1978; Lockwood, 1978）。Leming (1981) 檢視了在道德教育 / 價值觀教育中價值澄清模式和德育發展模式的研究，指出價值澄清模式能夠幫助小學生對學校環境建立較正面的態度，也對他們在有關主題的認識上具顯著的影響。然而，德育發展模式只對四年級以上的學生帶來顯著的影響，對三年級以下學生並沒有產生明顯的效果。兒童的道德發展是階段性的，幼兒階段的兒童較難掌握抽象的道德概念（Kohlberg, 1981），而且是從「無律階段進到他律再到最高層次的自律階段」（吳培源等，2010，頁 202）。因此，在幼兒階段推動價值觀教育採取價值澄清模式是較為適合的。

為幼兒教師提供價值觀教育的培訓

要成功推展價值觀教育，教師必須對價值觀教育有所了解，同時也須對合乎學生發展階段的核心倫理價值和行為有所認識和認同。幼稚園課程以及學與教活動的推行，基本上是以兒童的生活體驗為重心的。縱使《學前教育課程指引（2006）》提出遊戲為本的模式對幼兒的學習會大有裨益，以及《幼稚園教育課程指引（2017）》也一再強調幼稚園須採納遊戲為本的模式；但幼稚園教師在運用遊戲為本的模式時

往往出現落差，未能充分掌握遊戲為本模式的精髓；兒童很多時都只不過是跟隨教師的指示（Cheng, 2001; Cheng et al., 2008, cited in Wong et al., 2011; Lau, 2006）。此外，有關幼兒品德教育的研究指出「透過繪本、行動劇、討論發表、體驗活動等的學習歷程，不但增進幼兒的品德認知⋯⋯對於幼兒的品德態度與行為也有明顯的改變」（吳培源等，2010，頁 215）。因此，加強幼兒教師對價值觀教育的認識、強化他們運用各種活潑的教學方式以及教學活動設計的能力，將會促進幼兒價值觀教育的推展。

刻意地營建推展價值觀教育的氛圍

　　制定了幼兒階段價值觀教育的核心倫理價值後，幼稚園的領導者亦因此有著明確清晰的價值觀教育方向，同時也較易於制定具體的校本價值觀教育課程目標。他們可在進行學校發展規劃時，刻意地營造一個有利於情意發展的教學氛圍，並在教師培訓上作出相應的安排；從而幫助教師在課程設計上設計具意義的活動，讓兒童從活動的過程和生活體驗中，建立對有關核心倫理價值的認知，並在活動和生活中加以實踐。由於幼稚園一般都不會像中、小學般採用分科教學的方式，現就以「天氣變變變」主題教學為例，說明制定校本價值觀教育課程目標對推展價值觀教育的影響。假若學校沒有制定具體的校本價值觀教育課程目標，教師通常會把教學活動的重點和目標放在兒童對不同天氣的認識、以及怎樣配合天氣的狀況穿著合適的衣服。但假若學校制定了校本的價值觀教育課程目標，而教師也充分明白要在教學活動中須達至這些目標，他們便會在設計教學活動時加入相關的元素。例如在上述的主題教學例子中，教師清楚知道幼兒階段的品德核心價值，便可以運用《北風和太陽》繪本的故事引起學習動機，除了讓兒童了解天氣的不同之外，可在延展活動中，讓兒童了解當看見有同學汗流浹背時，可向他遞上紙巾或一杯涼水；又或在看見同學受風寒時遞上衣服等。從而幫助他們養成對別人友善、樂於與別人分享以及關懷他者的品格。當然，教師更可利用「太陽」幫助兒童在語文方面鞏固對一、人、大、太等字彙的認識。在兒童的學習和活動過程中，幼稚園教師要對他們給予尊重和幫助，並對這些行為予以充分的肯定；把幼稚園營建成為一個能夠幫助兒童養成對別人關愛的道德社群。此外，由於家校合作會為教師帶來額外的工作，幼稚園的領導者亦須在資源運用上為教師創造空間，從而加強教師接觸家長的信心，促進教師與家長的溝通和合作。

促進家校合作建立品德培育的夥伴

　　根據何瑞珠（2008）有關家校合作的研究，家校合作對培養關愛氣氛是十分重要的。家校的聯繫愈多、舉辦親職教育活動愈多、愈多協助家長輔導子女，便愈能對關愛氣氛產生正面的影響。故此，教育當局除了在幼稚園的「管理與組織」方面予以關注外，更應為參與「優質免費幼稚園教育」計劃的幼稚園提與資源並為它們創造空間，以推展家校合作，並促進學校與幼兒的家長建立品德培育的夥伴關係。幼稚園在與兒童家長溝通和進行家校合作的活動時，可向家長傳遞幼兒階段的核心倫理價值，讓他們擺脫「贏在起跑線」的競爭性思維；並在家中實踐有關的核心倫理價值，向兒童作出鼓勵，成為品德培育的學校夥伴，從而幫助兒童養成一貫的價值觀和行為，使幼兒的價值觀教育得著更有效的推展。

結語

　　香港不少家長要求幼稚園能夠幫助其子女在知識的學習上取得相當的掌握，務求在升讀小學後能夠盡快適應小學的學習。他們不但希望其子女能夠及早執筆寫字外，更要求幼稚園為其子女提供「兩文三語」的教育，使他們「贏在起跑線上」。至於子女的價值觀教育，並不是他們首要的期望。幼稚園為了迎合家長的訴求，把兒童學習的重點放在不同學習範疇的課業上（例如：教育局，2012，2016），幼兒的價值觀教育往往都是較為受到忽略的。因此，政府在加強介入幼稚園教育時，宜順勢藉課程的更新強化幼兒階段的價值觀教育，以糾正兒童的競爭心態，並建立正確積極的價值觀和養成應有的行為。本文剖析了《幼稚園教育課程指引（2017）》在幼兒價值觀教育上的可予以改進的地方；同時也從有效地推展價值觀教育的觀點作出一點建議。唯甚麼是香港社會認同的幼兒階段的核心倫理價值，還有待教育當局和幼兒教育學者加以探討和制訂。

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Early years values education in Hong Kong: A discussion derived from the curriculum guide

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Abstract

The formation and transmission of values are an important function of school education. Values/character education at early years plays a crucial role in the growth of children as well as societal development. This paper does not only discuss the issue of values education proposed in the *Kindergarten Curriculum Guide (2017)* but also has made some suggestions to the implementation of values education in Hong Kong kindergartens from the dimensions of core ethical values, approaches of values education, teacher development in values education, environment for values education, and the establishment of partnership with parents through home-school cooperation.

Keywords

Kindergarten education, values education, character education, moral education

以說話為本的學校－視像課業教學成效初探

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摘要

個案學校配合香港基礎教育課程指引，在本學年以說話能力為重心，發展一套「以說話為本」的校本課程。學校希望「以說話促進學習」，通過說話，讓學生有更多展示學習成果的機會。視像課業是學校其中一項重點教學安排。通過視像課業，學生可以進行自評，繼而修正及完善自己的視像課業，從而進一步提升個人的語文能力與學習能力。本文將介紹個案學校「以說話為本」的課程發展概念，並初步分析視像課業的學與教成效。

研究背景

香港小學課程文件《基礎教育課程指引聚焦‧深化‧持續（小一至小六）》列出新修訂的七個基礎教育學習宗旨，包括責任心、國民身份認同、閱讀習慣、語文能力、學習能力、八個學習領域的知識和健康生活方式（課程發展議會，2014）。七個學習宗旨，涵蓋了知識、能力、態度三大範疇。在能力範疇方面，課程指引強調語文能力和學習能力的培養。

個案學校配合香港基礎教育課程指引，在本學年嘗試以說話能力為重心，發展一套「以說話為本」的校本課程。學校希望「以說話促進學習」。通過說話，讓學生有更多展示學習成果的機會。另外，視像課業是學校其中一項重點教學安排。通過視像課業，學生可以進行自評，繼而修正及完善自己的視像課業，從而進一步提升個人的語文能力與學習能力。

本文將介紹個案學校「以說話為本」的課程發展概念，並初步分析視像課業的學與教成效。

文獻回顧

個案學校嘗試發展「以說話為本」的校本課程，源於說話能力是培養語文能力和學習能力的關鍵。視像課業的安排，則是希望學生在進行視像課業時，可以通過重覆觀察自己的學習成果展示，進行自評和修正，從而達到提升語文能力與學習能力的效果。以下為相關文獻回顧。

說話能力

聽說讀寫能力是兒童智力、社交和情感發展的核心（Rose, 2006）。口語是兒童組織思維和意義的必備工具，兒童通過說話來思考和學習（Dawes, 2008）。Pinnell & Jaggar（2003）明確指出，兒童對口語的組織、經驗和知識，是他們學習閱讀的基礎。而說話能力同時影響學生的寫作能力（Dyson & Genishi, 1982）。

從以上不同學者的意見，可以知道說話能力是學生進行學習的關鍵能力之一，學生通過說話來思考和學習。同時，說話能力影響閱讀能力和寫作能力的發展。由

此可見，說話能力的培養，對提升學生學習能力與語文能力有重大作用。

視像課業

所謂視像課業，就是通過視像錄影的方法，展示學生的學習成果。這有別於傳統的紙筆課業，前者以說話能力帶動，後者以寫作能力帶動。視像課業是一項新穎的評估方式，較少文獻提及。而視像課業的教學安排，與雲端學習資訊、評改量表和作為學習的評估的理念互相關連，有關文獻可反映出視像課業的好處。

雲端學習資訊

雲端學習資訊是新世代教育的重要技術及資源。Shorfuzzaman et al.（2015）指出雲端學習資訊令分散於不同地理位置的學習者與教育者能分享共同的學習場景，學習者的需要能夠得到即時解決，並可以及時得到所需的學習資源。Lin et al.（2014）指出發展良好的雲端學習資訊，可以推動反思學習，幫助教師管理反思活動並發展學生的反思技巧。

學生通過雲端系統提交視像課業，教師能通過雲端系統，分享及解說同學們的視像課業，在學與教過程中提供更充裕的學習資源。教師同時能通過雲端技術，設置學生的反思作業，以提升學生的反思能力。另外，雲端系統可為學生建立有系統的學習歷程紀錄。這些都是視像課業與雲端技術較傳統教學先進之處。

評改量表

在視像課業的學與教過程中，評改量表（Scoring rubrics）發揮重要的作用。Bresciani et al.（2004）認為，評改量表不但令評分員更清晰評分的標準和準則，更可以令學生對於如何達到良好表現的準則有更清晰的觀念，從而讓學生更有方向地完成一份達到良好水平的課業。

學生在進行視像課業時，會得到一份評改量表作為學習參考。通過評改量表，學生更清楚視像課業的學習內容和學習目標，有效同時提升學生的語文能力與學習能力。

作為學習的評估

　　作為學習的評估（Assessment as Learning, AaL）包括個人學習和合作學習，強調學習過程，由學生和教師訂立學習目標，共享學習因由與成功準則，並透過對話、自評和互評的方法評估學生的學習表現（Clark, 2012）。在作為學習的評估的過程中，學生是學習和評估的主要連繫者，學生的身份是一個主動的批判思考者，他們需要運用資訊，連繫已有知識，以創建新的學習（Earl, 2012）。

　　學生在進行視像課業時，會自評學習表現，從而修正和完善自己的視像課業，達到以自評促進學習的效果。

「以說話為本」的課程發展概念

　　個案學校嘗試發展一套「以說話為本」的校本課程，從「說話」中學習、學習運用「說話」、用「說話」作為評估。以下是學校在學與教方面的安排。

	教 師	學 生
說話機會	提供大量的說話的機會（包括：師生及生生的互動），說話成為了課堂上學與教的重要部分。	能積極參與教學單元主題的知識建構，並能從教師和同儕的說話中，學習到： —課堂的正式用語； —與主題和學科相關的專門用語； —有系統及合乎邏輯的表達方法。
說話內容	—鼓勵「放開式」對話，不會讓課堂對話受限於「標準答案」。 —運用科學語言進行課堂對話。 —教授學生知識的遷移，除讓學生明白「甚麼」外，還有「為何」、「如何」及「何時」。	—有機會深刻地思考學習主題及引入與主題相關的新意念。 —能以配合學科的思考模式進行課堂對話，並會嘗試運用與主題和學科相關的專門用語。 —能在不同的情境下，靈活運用所學到的知識。
說話策略	透過不同的提問策略，引導學生從不同方面思考學習主題。	能透過不同的說話模式解釋及深化其個人的想法。
說話文化	營造課堂上互相尊重的氣氛，重視課堂上每位同學的發言，並培養他們成為積極的聆聽者。	能感受到他們的發言是被別人重視的，並感受到教師對他們的說話內容感興趣。

以說話作鷹架	運用出聲思維、兩人對話、小組討論、全班討論、師生對話等,逐步為學生構建學習的鷹架,並照顧學生的不同學習需要。	能透過專家例子、同儕例子、及同儕協作中學習,逐步掌握相關的知識及能力。
以說話促進學習動機與自信	讚賞學生在學習過程中的嘗試與努力。	能以策略及努力作為歸因。
以說話作評估	運用與學生的說話作為「進展性評估」的工具,並根據評估的結果即時調整教學安排。	透過教師的回饋掌握改善學習的方法。

　　從上表可見,學校在不同方面加強學生說話能力的培訓,包括提供說話機會、深化說話內容、培養說話策略、建立說話文化等,從以達到「以說話促進學習」的效果。

視像課業

　　學校在不同科目也設置了視像課業,有關視像課業和相關自評表的示例,可參考附件 1 至附件 4。

視像課業的教學成效分析

　　雖然視像課業在個案學校的不同年級和不同科目皆有進行實踐,但是次教學成效分析,則以學校的五年級、六年級學生為主要對象。其原因是高年級學生的認知發展更完善,能更準確地回應問卷和訪談的題目。除了學生問卷和學生訪談外,學校亦在上學期完結時,進行了教師問卷和家長問卷的調查,當中加入了「視像課業」的相關題目。在調查教師和家長對學校教與學的整體意見的同時,了解教師和家長對「視像課業」的同意程度。有關「視像課業」的題目如下:

一、教師問卷相關題目

1.　本學年的「視像課業」能有助學生加深對該課題的認識。(只供五、六年級科任回答)

2. 本學年的「視像課業」能有助我評估學生對該課題的認識。（只供五、六年級科任回答）

二、家長問卷相關題目

1. 本學年度的「視像（錄影）課業」能有助加深我的子女對該課題的認識。我期望在將來繼續保留有關安排。（只供五、六年級學生家長回答）

三、學生問卷相關題目

1. 與「紙筆功課」比較，我更喜歡做「視像功課」。
2. 本年度的「視像功課」，能幫助我對有關課題有更深入的了解。

四、學生訪談題目

1. 視像課業對你的學習有甚麼幫助？對哪方面有幫助？
2. 在完成視像課業的過程中，你會運用自評表嗎？在甚麼時候用？
3. 自評表對你有幫助嗎？有甚麼幫助？
4. 要完成視像課業，你會拍攝多少次？為甚麼你要重覆拍攝？

視像課業的教學成效分析結果

教師問卷結果

　　是次問卷調查共有 33 位五、六年級科任教師回應。在有關「『視像課業』能有助學生加深對該課題的認識」的題目中，30.3% 教師表示非常同意，57.6% 表示同意，總計非常同意和同意的百分比為 87.6%（見表 1）。在有關「『視像課業』能有助我評估學生對該課題的認識。」的題目中，27.3% 教師表示非常同意，57.6% 表示同意，總計非常同意和同意的百分比為 84.9%（見表 2）。從教師問卷的回應可見，個案學校內大部分教師都認為「視像課業」在學與教有一定程度的幫助。

表 1：教師問卷回應—本學年的「視像課業」能有助學生加深對該課題的認識。

（N=33）	非常同意	同意	一般	不同意	非常不同意
人次	10	19	3	1	0
百分比	30.3%	57.6%	9.1%	3.0%	0.0%

表 2：教師問卷回應—本學年的「視像課業」能有助我評估學生對該課題的認識。

（N=33）	非常同意	同意	一般	不同意	非常不同意
人次	9	19	4	1	0
百分比	27.3%	57.6%	12.1%	3.0%	0.0%

家長問卷結果

　　是次問卷調查共有 22 位五年級家長、17 位六年級家長，共 39 位家長回應。在有關「『視像課業』能有助子女加深對該課題的認識」的題目中，22.7% 五年級家長表示非常同意，68.2% 五年級家長表示同意，總計五年級家長非常同意和同意的百分比為 90.9%。六年級家長方面，11.8% 六年級家長表示非常同意，76.5% 表示同意，總計六年級家長非常同意和同意的百分比為 88.3%。而五、六年級總計非常同意和同意的百分比為 89.7%（見表 3）。從家長問卷的回應可見，個案學校內的五、六年級家長大部分都認為「視像課業」有助加深子女對學習課題的認識。

表 3：家長問卷回應—本學年度的「視像（錄影）課業」能有助加深我的子女對該課題的認識。我期望在將來繼續保留有關安排。

（N=39）	非常同意	同意	一般	不同意	非常不同意
五年級人次	5	15	0	0	2
五年級百分比	22.7%	68.2%	0.0%	0.0%	9.1%
六年級人次	2	13	1	0	1
六年級百分比	11.8%	76.5%	5.9%	0.0%	5.9%
總計百分比	17.9%	71.8%	2.6%	0.0%	7.7%

學生問卷結果

　　是次問卷調查共有 310 位五年級、六年級學生回應。在有關「與『紙筆功課』比較，我更喜歡做『視像功課』」的題目中，45.5% 學生表示非常同意，18.1% 表示同意，總計非常同意和同意的百分比為 63.6%（見表 4）。在有關「『視像課業』能幫助我對有關課題有更深入的了解。」的題目中，33.2% 學生表示非常同意，35.5% 表示同意，總計非常同意和同意的百分比為 68.7%（見表 5）。從學生問卷的回應可見，個案學校內有一定數目的學生喜歡做「視像課業」，亦同意「視像課業」能幫助他對學習課題有更深入的了解。

　　至於約三成學生表示一般、不同意和非常不同意，研究員曾探討有關原因。初步發現原因有二。其一，這是學生首次接觸「視像功課」，相對於學生所熟悉的「紙筆功課」，學生尚未適應這種新的評估方法。其二，部分學生會認為做「視像功課」很費時，因為平常他們可以很快地完成「紙筆功課」，但進行「視像功課」，他們會花較長時間，導致他們需要更多時間來完成家課。

表 4：學生問卷回應—與「紙筆功課」比較，我更喜歡做「視像功課」。

（N=310）	非常同意	同意	一般	不同意	非常不同意
人次	141	56	65	20	28
百分比	45.5%	18.1%	21.0%	6.5%	9.0%

表 5：學生問卷回應—本年度的「視像功課」，能幫助我對有關課題有更深入的了解。

（N=310）	非常同意	同意	一般	不同意	非常不同意
人次	103	110	67	12	18
百分比	33.2%	35.5%	21.6%	3.9%	5.8%

學生訪談結果

　　是次訪談共有 3 位學生參與，高能力、中能力、成績稍遜學生各一位。有關視像課業對學習的幫助，同學三表示「我認為視像課業可以提升我們的說話能力，而

且我們錄影時會知道自己有甚麼不明白的地方，然後尋求答案，務求令自己對這個課業更加了解。」而與傳統課業比較，同學三認為「我們做傳統課業時，可能完成了就算，不會做太多的檢查，但視像課業不一樣，我們首先會做足準備，然後才錄影，再檢查自己有沒有做得不足的地方。」由此可見，學生同意視像課業有助提升他們的說話能力，而同學在進行視像課業時，亦會主動尋求答案，養成主動學習的態度。與傳統課業比較，視像課業讓學生更願意檢視自己的表現，同時會為了完成功課作出準確。這反映視像課業很大程度提升了學生的學習態度。

有關自評表的運用和幫助，同學三表示「我會使用自評表，我通常在錄影完成後再看自評表，看看自己有沒有不足的地方，跟著再去改進，這樣就可以知道自己的程度。」由此可見，自評表可以協助同學檢視個人的學習表現，再根據個人不足的地方進行改進。而同學二表示「我認為自評表對我很有用，因為好像有一位老師在我身旁，提醒我怎樣取得更高的分數。」反映自評表有助學生掌握評估要求，以取得更好的學習成績。

至於學生為了完成視像課業，會否重覆拍攝。同學一表示「如果我第一次錄影的表現不好，我會多錄幾次，當自己覺得某個片段錄影得很好時，才會把影片上載。如何為之很好的片段呢？第一，必須要講得流暢，第二，答案是正確的，不會錯。」同學三亦表示「如果發現自己有不足的地方，其實我們通常都會重新錄影。」而同學二則表示「有一次我為了交一份好的視像功課，我錄影了三十多次，原因是我一直未能達到自評表所寫的要求，所以我前後錄影了三十多次才完成。」從三位同學的回應可見，同學們進行視像課業，是會為了表現得更好而重覆拍攝。由此可見，視像課業提升了學生對個人學習表現的要求。

總結及討論

個案學校發展「以說話為本」的校本課程，源於說話能力是培養語文能力和學習能力的關鍵。而視像課業的安排，則是希望提升學生的語文能力與學習能力。從教師問卷、家長問卷和學生問卷的回應可見，不同持分者亦同意視像課業有助學生加深對學習課題的了解。而在學生訪談中可見，學生除了認同視像課業提升了個人的說話能力，同時表示在進行視像課業時，他們會根據自評表的評分準則，檢視和

完善個人的學習表現成果。從學生的視角出發，視像課業確實能提升學生語文能力、學習能力和學習態度。

　　在推行視像課業的這一個學期，我們亦有遇到一些困難。例如：學生不適應視像課業這一種新的評估方式，以及學生認為做視像課業很費時。對於這些困難，我們構思了一些改善建議。我們建議在布置視像課業時，不要求學生急於即晚完成，而是在周末或假期前，多給數天時間學生完成課業。另外，我們亦建議視像課業作為常規的評估，讓學生多實踐。學生在熟習有關評估模式後，相信更能發揮提升學生語文能力、學習能力和學習態度的作用。

　　由於是次成效分析屬初探性質，當中有不少局限，例如：沒有進行大規模的前後測成績對比、只進行了有限學生人數的訪談等。這些事項，在進行下一個教學循環時，值得補充。而本文主要為視像課業教學提供了一個概括的情況，有關不同科目的學生表現，以至學科與學科之間的相互交流，研究員可以另文進一步探討。

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A Talking School: Implementation and Effects of Video Assignments

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Abstract

The School-based Curriculum focusing on speaking competence proposed by the case school is built on the requirements of the Basic Education Curriculum Guide. In the current academic year, the case school aims to promote Speaking to Learn, to provide students with opportunities to showcase their skills and achievements through different speaking tasks. Video assignment is one of the key elements in the teaching arrangements. Based on the video assignments, students can be taking part in self-assessment for improvement and perfection of their own work and further enhance their language proficiency and learning capacity. This article provides a brief explanation of the concept of focusing on speaking competence in the school curriculum and a preliminary analysis of the effectiveness of learning and teaching through video assignments.

Keywords

video assignments, speaking competence, cloud learning resources, rubrics, assessment as learning

淺談香港學校價值觀教育的理念與實踐

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摘要

價值觀是跨時空、跨地域和跨文化的恆久概念，緊密連繫個人、家庭、團體、社會、國家、世界等不同層面，無論對個人成長或社會發展，均有舉足輕重的影響。價值觀教育是不少國家及地區關注的教育範疇，在香港學校教育系統的發展由來已久。本文首先梳理價值觀教育的本質和內涵，再探討它在課程文本展現的理念和策略，以及香港學校的實踐經驗，進而提出建議。期望本文為價值觀教育的持續進步，引發思考及帶來啟迪。

關鍵詞

價值觀，價值觀教育，德育及公民教育

導言

　　追溯漫長的教育發展史，以培育個人素質為核心的美德教育，從古希臘時開始便廣受關注。請看思想家柏拉圖（Plato）的一段話：

> 「我心目中的教育是從童年起所接受的一種美德教育，這種訓練使人們
> 產生一種強烈的、對成為一個完善的公民的渴望，這個完善的公民懂得
> 怎樣照正義的要求去進行統治和被統治。我認為我們要把這類訓練和別
> 的訓練區別開來，為它單獨保留『教育』這名稱。」（引自張智仁、何
> 勤華譯，2001，頁 27）

　　儘管「正義」的內涵在學界尚無定論（O'Neill, 2016），但是它作為一種價值觀，展示這段話對後世的啟迪：美德教育立足於價值觀的探求與彰顯。

　　在美德教育的傳統之下，各種教育理念紛陳多姿，價值觀教育是其中一種。不過，價值觀教育的內涵不容易確切把握，舉英國學者羅伯•威廉（Robb William）的觀點為例，他認為價值觀教育以價值觀培育為支柱，門類繁多，包含德育、宗教教育、公民教育、性教育、健康教育、環境教育、多元文化教育、個人及社會教育等（Robb, 1996）。這一系列教育範疇，雖然在理念和實踐方面都有相異之處，但是大體上都是以培養學生具備正面的價值觀和積極的人生態度作為依歸。

　　價值觀教育的整體概念，一直在香港的學校以不同形態和步伐發展。配合近年教育局提出持續更新課程（又稱「學會學習 2.0」）的方向，推廣價值觀教育成為學校課程持續更新的發展重點之一（課程發展議會，2015）。本文旨在探討價值觀教育的知識系譜，首先梳理其本質和內涵，並從香港學校教育的脈絡，探討其理念、推行策略與實踐經驗，進而提出建議。期望為價值觀教育的持續發展，引發思考及帶來啟迪。

價值觀的界說與分類

　　討論價值觀教育的本質和內涵，首要回歸「何謂價值觀？」的基本問題。價值觀屬於跨時空、跨地域和跨文化的恆久概念，蘊含於個人、家庭、團體、社會、國家、

世界等不同層面，而各個層面中不同主體都有其價值觀，從而形成信念和看法，產生思想和行動，對於個人成長或社會發展，均有舉足輕重的影響（Morris, 2014）。

學界關於價值觀的界說與分類，可謂層出不窮。舉例說，以美國學者米爾頓·羅克奇（Milton Rokeach）的觀點為例，他認為價值觀是持久的信念，可分為兩類：工具性價值觀和終極性價值觀。工具性價值觀指道德或能力，是達到理想化終極狀態所採用的行為方式。至於終極性價值觀，指個人價值和社會價值，用以表示存在的理想化終極狀態和結果，是個人希望實現的目標（Rokeach，1973）。

又舉德國學者斯普朗格（Euard Spranger）的架構為例，他認為追求人生的價值觀，可以分為六種：理論型，追求真；社會型，追求愛；藝術型，追求美；宗教型，追求聖；經濟型，追求利；政治型，追求權。這六種價值觀難以分割，在生命匯聚，而不同價值觀和態度亦會影響生活（Euard, 1983）。

再以美國學者艾爾（Eyre）夫婦的意見為例，兩人基於塑造孩子價值觀的出發點，提出內在的品質和給予他人的品質兩類，合共十二種價值觀。內在的品質方面，包括誠實、勇氣、平和、自立與潛能、自律與節制、忠貞；給予他人的品質方面，包括忠誠與守信、尊重、愛、無私與感知、友善、正義與仁慈。至於孕育這十二種價值觀最理想的地方，則是家庭，因為父母肩負孩子價值觀培育的基本責任（Eyre & Eyre, 1993）。

學界對於價值觀的分類和序階沒有一致的意見，有關價值觀重要性的討論卻是殊途同歸。大體上都認為價值觀會影響個人的思想與行動，對個人成長有重要的作用，亦會對於社會發展帶來影響，所以價值觀教育尤其重要。關於學校教育環境的價值觀教育，較常採用人文主義的取向，引領學生理解人生意義，逐步發展價值觀體系和生活方式，達到培育良好品格之目的。價值觀教育融入教育體系當中，是全體教育工作者的職志（劉濟良，2007）。

價值教育與價值觀教育的討論

學界對於價值觀教育和價值教育的命名，提出不同觀點。依照「雙語詞彙、學術名詞暨辭書資訊網」所載，價值教育（values education）中的價值是 values，與

value 有不同的意涵。value 若作為名詞，意指「價值」；若作為動詞，value 意指「認為某事物是重要的」。至於 values，在性質上是基於對好和壞的規範判斷，而且有情感的投入，可以是道德或非道德的，也可以從外在工具或內在基礎來作判斷。在教育上，價值系統的建立（包括 value 和 values）都是發展健全人格的重要指標（呂美慧，2012）。

就概念的表述，石中英（2009）指出價值觀教育和價值教育，在英語表達中同樣是一個短語（value education），兩者本無區別，但是在中文語境之下，價值觀教育和價值教育的重點各有不同。價值觀教育主要側重於價值觀念的呈現、解釋和宣傳，而認知色彩較濃厚。至於價值教育，關注更廣泛的教育目標的達成，例如正確的價值態度和情感的陶冶、價值理性和自主性的培育、價值信念的建立、將價值觀念整合到日常生活中的行動等（石中英，2009）。

價值教育和價值觀教育的用語有別，卻有異曲同工之妙。正如（姚林群，2011）在其博士論文《課堂中的價值觀教學》提出，無論價值教育或價值觀教育的內涵和外延，在不同文本和學者的論述中，都有相同和相異之處；有趣的是，一些學者雖然採用價值教育的名稱，但是從目的與內容看來，跟價值觀教育並沒有實質的區別（姚林群，2011）。

環球視野下的價值觀教育

價值觀教育備受國際社會重視，正如聯合國教育、科學及文化組織於 2000 年發表的《兒童早期價值觀教育行動框架》提出：

> 「兒童的價值觀定位由他們達到接受正規學校教育年齡的時間來決定。為了讓兒童在其一生中進行和平而非暴力的活動、尊重自己和他人、欣賞多樣性，在兒童早期就可以採取初步措施，因為在這個時期孩子們開始發育成熟並且他們的認知結構和情感結構開始形成。」（聯合國教育、科學及文化組織，2000，頁 2）

按照這個行動框架，價值觀培養對個人成長至為重要，而且為配合認知結構和情感結構的形成，在兒童早期階段便應透過合適的措施，為他們奠定價值觀教育的基礎。

不少國家及地區早已為價值觀教育投放大量心力和資源，根據王熙（2015）的比較研究，自 20 世紀 80 年代以來，美、英、澳等國家相繼將價值觀教育發展為「國家工程」，通過確立理想的價值觀、進行有系統的課程安排、建議有效的學與教策略、運用可行的評估機制等方式，促進學生在各階段的價值觀教育。基於有目的、有計劃、有組織和有策略的推行，價值觀教育得以發展。

價值觀教育在學校課程的理念和策略

價值觀教育在香港一直深受重視。教育署於 1981 年發表適用於學前階段、小學和中學的《學校德育指引》，當中明言：

> 「推行德育的目的在透過啟發性思想培養兒童有正確的道德和社會價值觀。」（課程發展委員會，1981，頁 1）

其後，課程發展委員會和課程發展議會相繼於 1985 年和 1996 年發表以學前階段、小學和中學為對象的《學校公民教育指引》。《學校公民教育指引》（1996）表明學校公民教育的宗旨是：

> 「使學生認識個人作為公民與家庭、鄰里社會、地區社會、民族國家以至世界的關係，培養積極的態度和價值觀，從而對香港及中國產生歸屬感，並為改善社會、國家及世界作出貢獻。」（課程發展議會，1996，頁 5）。

從上述兩份教育政策文本可見，無論是德育還是公民教育，同樣以價值觀培養作為方向，而這個方向主導德育與公民教育的課程內容、推行策略、資源運用、學習評估等各方面的計劃與實施。

課程發展議會於 2001 年公布《學會學習 —— 課程發展路向》，將德育及公民教育列為五種基要的學習經歷（課程發展議會，2001）。其後，《基礎教育課程指引 —— 各盡所能‧發揮所長》（2002）將德育及公民教育，列為四個關鍵項目之一，鼓勵學校納入課程規畫，並提出應首要培養學生五種價值觀和態度，即：堅毅、尊重他人、責任感、國民身份認同和承擔精神（課程發展議會，2002）。2008 年公布的《新修訂德育及公民教育課程架構》在原有的五種價值觀和態度之上，新增兩種

價值觀和態度（誠信和關愛），成為七種首要培育的價值觀和態度，並列明初小至高中各階段的學習期望，讓學校進行有系統和連貫的課程規劃（教育局，2008）。

至於價值觀教育的推行策略，《基礎教育課程指引——聚焦 • 深化 • 持續（小一至小六）》（2014）建議學校可從五個生活範疇，即「個人成長及健康」、「家庭」、「學校」、「社交」及「社會及國家」，選取合適的生活事件，作為學習內容。此外，教師可因應學生的成長和興趣，選取社會時事或議題作為學習材料，例如成長與生涯規劃、選舉與《基本法》、環境與廚餘的處理等（課程發展議會，2014a）。結合課程文本的建議，學校為學生提供寬廣而生活化的學習經歷，讓學生進行思辨，藉生活中實踐，內化價值觀。

課程發展議會在 2015 年 12 月發表《學校課程持續更新：聚焦 • 深化 • 持續概覽》，預告未來五至十年的香港教育，進入持續更新課程的階段，鼓勵學校根據其現實情況，找出可持續、深化發展的領域，並着力於需要發展的新焦點，切合未來需要（課程發展議會，2015）。這個課程發展的路向，在課程發展議會編訂的《中學教育課程指引》（2017）進一步落實。該指引提出的八個主要更新重點，當中包含「加強價值觀教育（包括德育及公民教育、《基本法》教育）」，鼓勵學校配合其發展優次，以更連貫和有系統方式規劃課程 (教育局，2017b)。至於價值觀教育的推行策略。該指引的 6A 分冊就加強價值觀教育，提出七項策略：認知、情感及實踐並重；提供全面而均衡的學習經歷；加強協調不同範疇的價值觀教育；學校整體課程規劃；以學生為中心的課程規劃；各學習階段之間的銜接；營造有利氛圍（課程發展議會，2017b）。這些策略有助促進價值觀教育的課程領導與發展，提升學與教的成效。

價值觀教育揉合知、情和行三大元素，首先使學生對價值觀有正確的的認識，再引導他們對價值觀產生體驗和誘發情感，進而在實踐中分析、判斷和選擇（劉濟良，2007）。考查香港教育政策文本，同樣展現知、情和行並重的價值觀教育特色。

根據 2014 年公布的《基礎教育課程指引——聚焦 • 深化 • 持續（小一至小六）》，在價值觀教育的整體概念之下，德育及公民教育包含認知、情感和實踐三個層面。認知層面，旨在提高學生對正面價值觀和態度的認識，明白在不同的人生階段或社會崗位所要面對的困難和挑戰；懂得辨識不同生活事件和議題所蘊含的價

值和意義，作出理性分析和判斷。情感層面，旨在培育學生的同理心，懂得推己及人，關心別人的處境和感受；並擁有積極的人生態度，以適當的方法表達自己的情緒。當面對困難和挑戰，仍能堅守原則，勇敢面對。實踐層面，旨在為學生提供生活化的學習經歷，讓他們從真實的情境中，體驗如何克服各種局限，抗拒身邊的誘惑（課程發展議會，2014a）。透過認知、情感和實踐的扣連與互動，學生建構個人價值觀。

培養學生的正面價值觀和態度，向來是香港學校教育的重要方向之一。價值觀教育蘊含於中、小學不同科目。小學教育方面，常識科設有六個學習範疇，包括：健康與生活、人與環境、日常生活中的科學與科技、社會與公民、國民身份認同與中華文化、了解世界與認識資訊年代。該科重視價值觀教育，鼓勵學校透過生活事件與時事分析，為學生提供各價值觀教育範疇（例如性教育、健康教育、環保教育、人權教育、《基本法》教育等）的學習經歷。此外，學校可引入不同的生活情境，讓學生從多角度思考問題，以理性和客觀的態度分析（課程發展議會，2017a）。

中學教育方面，通識教育科是四個核心科目之一，蘊含價值觀元素。正如其課程及評估指引列出六項課程宗旨，包括「在多元社會中欣賞和尊重不同的文化和觀點，並學習處理相互衝突的價值觀」，以及「建立正面的價值觀和積極的人生態度，使他們成為對社會、國家和世界有認識和負責任的公民。」（課程發展議會，2014b，頁 4）。該科的課程內容由三個學習範圍（自我與個人成長；社會與文化；科學、科技與環境），以及六個單元（個人成長與人際關係、今日香港、現代中國、全球化、公共衛生、能源科技與環境）組成。學生除了要明辨和理解其他人的意見和價值觀外，也須建立自身的價值體系，作為反思、判斷和決策的依據（課程發展議會，2014b）。

價值觀教育貫通中、小學階段不同科目，常識科和通識教育科只是其中兩個例子。除了展現於課程框架以外，學校亦透過舉辦與課程配合的學習活動，推廣價值觀教育，包括周會、比賽、專題研習、服務學習、生活體驗、參觀、遊學等。舉例說，邀請運動員在周會分享其奮鬥及勵志經歷，讓學生領略堅毅精神；安排學生到護老院進行服務學習，實踐關愛的美德；藉學生參加團隊比賽競技，體會公平和合作的重要；組織學生境外交流活動，體驗多元文化，學習尊重和欣賞的美德。這些學習

活動體現全方位學習的理念，將學習空間從課室拓展至其他地方，運用多樣化的環境和社區資源，讓學生獲得在課堂上難以體會的經驗。

價值觀教育在學校的實踐經驗

討論價值觀教育在香港學校的推行情況，需要留意學校教育的特色。學校各有辦學團體，種類繁多，包括慈善團體、宗教組職、同鄉會、舊生會等，而不少學校會因應辦學團體的歷史和宗旨，制訂價值觀教育的目標和內容，例如在校本課程中介紹辦學團體的歷史。以東華三院為例，近年推展院本的德育課程，揉合其歷史發展和慈善服務的核心價值；於 2015 年籌辦「懷善披遠－東華三院學生洛杉磯及開平參訪團」計劃，安排屬下中學的學生接受培訓後，遠赴美國洛杉磯及廣東省開平進行訪問及研習，除了親身感受東華三院昔日為海外華人提供原籍安葬服務的仁愛美德，亦由學生攝製短片以增潤學習經歷（東華三院，2016）。由此可見，學校可結合辦學團體特色、課程內容和學生需要，設計價值觀教育的學習經歷。

從宏觀層面探索價值觀教育在學校的推展，可以借助教育局按學年發表的《周年視學報告》。以《2015/16 周年視學報告》（下稱《報告》）為例，那是建基於局方於該學年在小學、中學和特殊學校進行 80 次外評和 250 次重點視學，當中對學校推行價值觀教育有以下觀察：

「學校價值觀教育的課程定位清晰，以七個首要培育價值觀為切入點，透過全校參與模式，結合倫理或宗教教育課、成長課，以及其他不同學習領域或科目的德育及公民教育元素，幫助學生建立正面的價值觀及培養積極的人生態度，其中較多以『關愛』及『責任感』為發展重點。」（教育局，2017a，頁 11）

從這段描述可見，香港學校推行價值觀教育扣連教育政策文件，重視全校參與，方式多元化。至於學校推行價值觀教育有待改進之處，《報告》亦有說明：

「然而有學校的價值觀教育目標甚為廣闊，欠缺焦點；較多學校未能作出適切的縱向規劃，科組間的協調和聯繫不足，職能和從屬關係不清，令推行工作的力度過於分散。」（教育局，2017a，頁 11）

這段描述指出價值觀教育的成效，有賴科組協作。對於評估策略，《報告》也有建議：

> 「尚有學校在檢討時側重於個別推行的活動或策略，未能緊扣價值觀教育的目標作整體成效檢視。」（教育局，2017a，頁 12）

由這段文字可見，通盤考量是價值觀教育的要素，也是持續發展的關鍵。

從微觀層面探索價值觀教育在學校教育的實踐，可以參閱不同學校撰述的文本，包括學校概覽、學校發展計劃、學校周年計劃、學校報告、學校刊物、學校網頁等。至於經驗示例，不得不提自 2003 年以來舉辦的行政長官卓越教學獎，雖然不曾以價值觀教育作為主題，但是「德育及公民教育」及其他主題，蘊含價值觀培育的元素。綜觀歷屆得獎教師的成果，在專業能力、培育學生、專業精神和對社區的承擔、學校發展四個範疇，均有共通之處，值得學界借鏡（教育局，2015）。

綜合一系列教育文本，香港學校推展價值觀教育的動態大圖像交織而成。從這幅大圖像所見，不同學校均以培養學生正面的價值觀和態度為立足點，但是發展重心、學習內容、策略方式、評估安排等方面，各師各法，亦各具特色。這種情況跟價值觀教育的本質吻合，因為價值觀的探索本來便源於自由的思辨與對話，尊重教師和學生的自主精神。

價值觀教育推展的建議

儘管價值觀教育面對學校以外的阻力相對較少，但是從學校內部組織思考，無論是校長領導，抑或學與教的實務安排，仍有許多地方需要深思熟慮。價值觀教育從幼稚園教育階段至高中階段，都是以跨課程方式推展。按學校領導的觀點分析，要成功推展跨課程，涉及不同領域的考量，管理與組織、學與教、校風及學生支援等各方面，都需要互相配合。當任何一間學校的持分者有意識推動價值觀教育開始，一連串的問題應運而生，包括價值觀教育的目標、範圍、策略、資源、評估等，以及團隊組織和分工。儘管校長不可能對學校大小事務親力親為，但是以跨課程及全校參與方式推展的價值觀教育，校長的領導角色尤其重要。大量研究證明校長領導是學校效能的關鍵因素，因為校長的角色無可替代，其價值觀和領導行為，對於校

內運作、教學成果和學習表現，均有深遠影響（Arlestig, Day & Johansson, 2016）。

基於校長領導的反思，價值觀教育的推行，可以運用轉型領導和交易領導的觀點加以考慮。轉型領導方面，重點是建立組織的願景是轉型領導的首要任務（謝文全，2014)。舉例說，校長可透過學校刊物、網頁、校務會議等途徑，確立學校的願景，肯定價值觀教育的重要性，並以身作則，鼓勵教師一起參加由教育局、專上院校或教育組織舉辦的課程和活動，或邀請表現出色的友校校長和教師在校本培訓中分享，從同儕合作中帶動教師投入學與教。交易領導方面，重點是領導者給予的回報和成員的服務，構成交易互惠（Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2012）。舉例說，校長可以籌組或重組專責小組以領導價值觀教育，並可授權副校長或教師作為小組領導，或請對方提名合適教師加入，藉領導責任創造專業發展機會。

除了校長領導方面的考慮，價值觀教育在學與教方面的難點亦需要留意。現代社會趨向全球化和資訊化，使多元文化更為明顯，價值觀變得波譎雲詭，為價值觀教育帶來衝擊。首先，身處現代社會，隨時會感受傳統價值觀和現代價值觀矛盾而形成的壓力。以儲蓄為例，昔日視勤儉儲蓄為美德，而現今社會崇尚投資創富，教師要教導學生勤儉儲蓄可能遭受學生質疑，覺得這種觀念不合時宜。由此可見，處身於價值觀充滿對立和矛盾的社會，價值觀教育是絕不容易的事。

面對價值觀念轉變的現實，教育工作者需要廣闊的胸襟。首先，要接納自己與學生同樣是學習者，以開放和理性的態度探討多元價值觀教育的方向。至於價值觀教育的施行原則，不妨參考聯合國教科文組織製作的「可持續將來的教與學」（Teaching and Learning for a Sustainable Future）網上課程，其單元 22 名為 "Values Education"，就涉及價值取向的議題教學，提出兩種主要取向：價值觀澄清和價值觀分析。其中，價值觀澄清主要基於學生處身價值觀紛歧的環境，教師需要引領學生分析和選擇，讓學生澄清在多元社會中自己所持的價值觀。至於價值觀分析，主要在於檢視課題內容，以及不同看法與理據，由教師帶領學生對生活情景進行思考，分析不同人的價值觀念，以及其原因和影響（UNESCO, 2010）。無論是價值觀澄清還是價值觀分析，都不可能缺少教師的參與。由此可見，校長領導固然重要，但是沒有教師團隊的參與及配合，價值觀教育無法在學校推展。

總結

伴隨社會急速發展,知識和資訊日新月異。有些知識和資訊有助我們了解自己、社會及世界,但是有些知識和資訊卻會迷惑我們,而且知識和資訊的增加,不一定使智慧增長。因此,追求紛亂的知識和資訊,不可能是教育的最根本目標。回歸傳統中國文化推崇「內聖外王」的思想,誠如牟宗三所言:

> 「『內聖』者,內而在於個人自己,而自覺的作聖賢功夫(做道德實踐)
> 已發展完成其德性人格之謂也。」(牟宗三,1968,頁 4)

內聖之學,通過道德實踐,完成自己的德性人格,以達到聖賢的境界。同樣,教育旨在育人,而價值觀教育觸及育人的根本,透過實踐培育學生的品德和人格;在智識和資訊唾手可得的現今社會,價值觀教育更顯得重要和可貴。

當代教育範式由教與學,轉向學與教,意即由教師主導的知識傳授,轉為由學生為主導的建構學習。這種教育範式的轉向,容易被誤解為教師的重要性下降。然而,以學與教為主軸的價值觀教育,教師不可能完全退席。從學校組織實務角度作分析,價值觀教育由規劃、實施到評鑑,當中除了有賴教師的專業承擔,也需要校長的有效領導,才可以取得豐碩成果。從學與教的觀點分析,面對價值觀念紛陳、轉變、矛盾及衝擊的現實,連資深教師也會感覺迷失方向,更遑論思想稚嫩的學生,所以教師需要運用適切的策略,讓學生可以透過慎思明辨的方式,釐清、建立和鞏固個人的價值觀。

價值觀教育在香港的學校遍地開花,除了辦學團體、校長、教師和學生的投入參與,塑造良好的校園文化氛圍,還需要社會各界,包括家庭、志願團體、學術組織、政府部門、傳媒機構等,群策群力,發揮協同效應,構築美德教育的大環境,提升教育素質,造福學生。

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A Brief Discussion on Idea and Practice of Values Education in Hong Kong Schools

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Abstract

Values are long-standing concepts across time, space, boundaries and cultures. They are closely related to various domains such as personal, family, organisation, society, country and world, and essential to personal growth and social development. Values education is an area of concern of educational aspect in quite a number of counties and regions, and it is long established in Hong Kong education system. This paper starts with a general overview of the essence and connotation of values education, and then an exploration of the concept and strategies of values education in curriculum texts, and practical experiences in Hong Kong schools as well as recommendations. It is hoped that this article would yield insights into continuous development of values education, and would bring reflection and inspiration.

Keywords

Values, Values Education, Moral and Civic Education

樂高認真玩生涯輔導模式對香港初中生生涯希望感之影響

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摘要

研究者針對 11 位香港初中生，實施三小時的樂高認真玩生涯輔導模式，以相依樣本單因子變異數分析進行生涯希望感的效果分析；在後測問卷增列二題開放式問題，以內容分析探討研究參與者的改變內涵。研究結果：（一）在改變效果部分，研究參與者在生涯意志、生涯途徑與方法的得分，皆呈現顯著性的立即效果。（二）在改變內涵部分，此模式具有「深化自我認同」、「清晰生涯願景」、「促進生涯位移」等正向效應。

關鍵詞

樂高認真玩、初中生、生涯輔導、生涯希望感、生涯位移

前言

　　根據香港青年動力協會在 2016 年針對 550 名 15 歲至 19 歲的香港中學生的調查中，高達 59% 受訪學生對前途感到徬徨。中學生正處於 Super 「生涯發展論」的探索期，透過過往的學習經驗的累積，來探索自己的能力、興趣。就 Erickson 的社會心理論而言，中學生重要的發展任務是形成正向的自我認同。中學生承受學業與生涯選擇的壓力，若此時面臨學習成就、外界評價與自我認知不同，不僅容易形成「認同混淆」，甚而對未來的生涯方向感到迷惘（Erickson,1968; Super, 1980）。

　　近年來，香港教育局開始意識到生涯規劃在中學教育的重要性，自 2014 年起，為每所公營中學班級提供額外經常現金津貼，用以培養學生生涯規劃的能力。學生的生涯焦慮通常來自於生涯目標的不確定感。傳統的職涯教學或輔導模式多以觀念傳授、業師分享或影音媒體教材，或許能給予學生思維上的啟發，然而，對於未有完整職涯經驗的中學生而言，若僅運用抽象思維的運作，此模糊性將難以深化其對生涯目標的確認與規劃。若能將生涯目標與生涯挑戰予以具象化，將更有助於中學生們清晰思考生涯處境與發展因應的策略，此將有助於降低其對生涯目標的模糊不清所造成的焦慮感（韓佩凌，2017）。

　　樂高認真玩（LEGO® SERIOUS PLAY®, LSP）是一種思考與問題解決取向的引導方法，參與成員建構象徵性與隱喻性的樂高積木來回應所賦予的任務，並將此呈現給其他成員，用以來發展個人認同與團隊認同策略（Kristiansen & Rasmussen, 2014）。其中，樂高認真玩的「即時個人認同（Real time for you）」的運用方式在於探究個人自我認同與影響因素、生涯變動、因應策略等，此模式相當有助於協助自我認同與確立生涯定向。

　　Mads 與 Ilion（2017）在其著述《用樂高認真玩來探索正向心理學》（*Explore positive psychology with LEGO® SERIOUS PLAY®*）中闡述樂高認真玩非常適用於建構希望、自我效能、樂觀與復原力等心理資本的主題。「建構」（build）與「分享」（share）是樂高認真玩核心歷程，其源自於正向心理與敘事治療的概念。在建構歷程中，參與者產生全心投入的心流經驗與創意發展的愉悅感。學者 Frederickson 認為正向情緒將有助於人們的認知擴展與資源建立，此效應將有助於中學生拓展其思維與資源。

本研究將運用以正向心理為核心，結合樂高認真玩引導方式，來建構初中生樂高認真玩生涯輔導模式，用以探討此模式對香港初中生生涯希望感的影響與改變內涵，藉此探究可行的樂高認真玩中學生涯輔導的模式。後續，將以 LSP 指稱樂高認真玩。

文獻探討

1. 初中生的生涯發展

目前，香港教育制度採用六年制的中學與四年制大學。初中生雖未立即面臨到升學與就業之選擇，但仍需要為接續的三年高中選科進行準備。在初中階段，學生藉由學習經驗、生活經驗的回饋，開始認識自己的能力與探索自己的興趣，此將有助於未來就業就業與升學的準備。在這階段，學生開始探索「我能做什麼？」、「我喜歡什麼？」、「我想要成為什麼樣的人？」。Super（1957）認為青少年要能具有因應環境改變與理解社會趨勢的能力，發展出生涯探索、生涯決策、與工作世界認識的生涯能力。在針對亞洲中學生的相關調查中，發現初中生相對於高中，普遍感受到樂觀，但是缺乏生涯探索與生涯行動力。此研究結果說明初中生對自我、現實環境與職場樣貌缺乏適切的認識。其中，生涯探索是初中生的重要生涯需求（蘇鈺婷，2001）。因此，如何提昇初中生的自我探索機會、認識自我能力與興趣，並展開生涯行動計畫，實為初中生涯輔導重點工作。

Koivisto、Vinokur 與 Vuori（2011）針對 1034 名芬蘭九年級的初中生的運用生涯規劃技巧的教導、個人優勢的建構、生涯典範的訪問、以及生涯阻礙與選擇的探究，建構 15 小時的初中生生涯工作坊。此份研究結果顯示實驗組生涯選擇自我效能以及生涯規劃態度有明顯的提昇。Tuner 與 Conkel（2010）則以美國 142 位七年級與八年級的學生為研究對象，運用生涯測驗實施與解釋、生涯發展技巧的教導、社會資源的介紹，以此連結到社會阻礙的因應。研究顯示此介入模式能促進學生生涯發展的正向效應。在亞洲地區，金樹人與許宏彬（2003）運用生涯職業組合卡的生涯策略來設計初中生生涯方案，其結果顯示能增進學生的自我效能，在認知方面未能達到明顯的效果。另外，王玉珍（2015）則運用優勢中心生涯諮商於國中生，其結果顯發現優勢中心生涯諮商對提升青少年的幸福感具有立即效果與延宕效果，但對於生涯發展各層面則不具有顯著性效果。

綜述過往的文獻，自我與就業環境的認識，以及生涯行動是初中生重要的生涯需求，此也為後續發展的重要生涯任務。然而，既有的生涯策略仍以生涯知識的傳遞、生涯測驗的實施或生涯技巧的演練為主，鮮少運用創意建構式的模式來進行生涯規劃的輔導策略。因此，本研究旨在運用強調手動思考的 LSP 的引導模式在初中生生涯規劃上的應用，納入初中生自我優勢辨識、職場認識與生涯行動等重要生涯需求，探討此模式對於初中生希望感的效果與內涵。

2. 樂高認真玩的概念與相關研究

LSP 是具有清楚目標導向的「玩樂與工作」的歷程，在樂高積木的建構中產生全心投入的心流經驗，發展生活議題的解決策略。樂高認真玩提供一種手動思考的方式，讓團隊可以分享想法、假設與瞭解。藉由豐富的對話與討論，找出一種具有意義的解決策略。引導者會根據工作坊的目標，提出各種相關的問題，參與者運用樂高積木的工具，以象徵性與譬喻性的方式呈現想法。此為運用心流經驗與正向情緒來建構生活議題的解決策略。

LSP 運用了玩、建構論與心流、手心相連，想像等來形成有效行動策略的理論基礎，其包括：（1）玩（Play）：說故事（storytelling）與譬喻 (metaphors) 是樂高認真玩兩個主要進行方式。說故事能促進產出、再造、轉換與解構個體的價值與信念，產生改變的力量。譬喻則是說故事的方法，允許參與者用新的方法來理解事情（2）建構論（Constructionism）：依據 Piaget 的建構論的概念，當人們在他們的世界中建構出事物，同時也在心中建構出理論與知識，此兩者為相互強化。（3）手心相連（Hand-Mind Connection）：LSP 的概念在於運用手來建構知識、想法與情感的立體物件。雙手不是單純地接受大腦的訊息或是操作事物，同時運用雙手操作也可能產生某種新的思考；（4）想像（imagination）：人們可以運用想像力去跳脫複雜而困惑的世界，尋求新的可能性（Frick, Tardini, & Cantoin, 2013）。

LSP 系統化地使用其技術，包括四個核心歷程與七項應用技術。LSP 核心歷程為語言的句法，協助參與者把他們已知與未知的想法投注其中，包括：提問（Posing the question）、建構（Construct）、分享（Sharing）和反思（Reflection）（Kristiansen & Rasmussen, 2014）。LSP 發展七個應用技巧，用以從點式的個人模型建構，進而串連成線，進而形成脈絡性的思維心智圖像，包括：建構個人模型（Building

individual models）、建構分享模型（Building share models）、創造圖像（Creating a landscape）、進行連結（Making connection）、建立系統（Building system）、浮現與決定（Playing emergence and decision）、形成簡單指導原則（Extracting simple guiding principles）等。在 LSP 中，沒有標準問句。七個應用的技術是一套程序而非內容，內容則是取決於團體內要處理的議題來決定，可依照團體的需要，單獨使用其中一項技術或多項來使用（Kristiansen & Rasmussen, 2014）。

Schulz、Gelthner、Woelfe 與 Krzywinskl（2015）的實徵研究則運用觀察紀錄、作品分析來比較厚紙板、圖片、素描等傳統的操作型工具與 LSP 的使用經驗，其研究結果顯是樂高模型的複雜與多元性甚於傳統的操作型工具，容易形成個別創作之間的連結，增進彼此想法的連結與理解；另外，LSP 較能產生好玩（playful）的行為，為一種具有系統性的引導方式。運用繪畫方式較易進入自我意識（self-conscious）層次，產生不夠完美創作的自我評價；樂高則較易形成直覺式創作，減少自我評價的挫敗感。Burgi 與 Roos（2003）建構 9 人的策略發展的樂高認真玩工作坊。其中一位參與者表示「相較於傳統簡報的方式，LSP 讓我能更多面向去思考策略的發展。」

過往，LSP 多運用組織策略發展，至今，LSP 在教育輔導應用之著述逐漸增加之趨勢。Harn（2017）則運用建構運用優勢取向 LSP 的引導工作坊，探究其對家暴倖存者賦能效應，其研究結果顯示具有內在力量深根、關係優勢開展與生命經驗重構等正向效應。Gauntlett（2007）則運用 LSP 發展個人認同，參與者包括學生、失業者、建築師、社福人員等。其藉由個人覺察、生命故事、社會連結來探索自我認同。Nolan（2010）則是將 LSP 運用高等教育，協助學生整合他們的學習史、目前狀態、學習定向與願景。藉此對於學生的需求、興趣與態度具有更好的瞭解，發展個人化學習計劃。此研究參與者共有 327 位學生與 30 位職員，研究參與者都表示此方法是相當有助益的。Peabody（2015）修正 LSP 的「即時個人認同」的應用方式，將其運用於遊戲治療的督導工作，用以發展遊戲治療師的個別專業認同以及機構的認同。她運建構個別模型、創造圖像、浮現與決定等，來探討治療師的核心認同、他人看法以及影響專業發展的因素與因應之道。2017 年，Peabody 則進一步將 LSP 運用於 29 位職能治療系的反思教學，藉由訪談文本的分析，顯示 LSP 的效益在於促進團隊凝聚、增進全納學習（inclusive learning）、情緒表達與深度意義決策的語言、引領多元學習、較傳統的反思寫作具有更快速地達到思考深化等。

目前，LSP 的教育輔導研究仍以高等教育場域為主，尚未延伸至中學階段的青少年生涯認同之探究。研究者將採用 LSP 的「即時個人認同」的應用方式，融入正向心理的理論，發展初中生 LSP 生涯輔導模式，驗證其實徵性的效果。

研究方法

1. 研究設計

本研究旨在探究 LSP 引導方式在初中生生涯工作坊之應用。研究者以優勢辨識與運用為介入策略，以此來建構生涯願景，來發展生涯增能的行動策略，用以促進初中生的生涯意志思考與生涯途徑思考。在歷程中，運用了韓佩凌等人（2016）所編制優勢賦能卡，以及李華璋、黃士鈞（2011）所發展的職業憧憬卡來作為提示卡。LSP 生涯輔導模式摘述如表 1。

表 1 初中生 LSP 生涯輔導模式摘述表

單元	目標	LSP 的應用技巧	內容
鴨子湖的相遇	1. 協助參與者熟悉 LSP 方法 2. 協助參與者自我探索與成員間的連結	Skill building	1. 建構 LEGO DUCK 2. 建構小組 LEGO DUCK 高塔
生涯亮點	1. 探索與辨識自我優勢	Building individual models	1. 建構美好的學習經驗 2. 運用優勢卡進行優勢辨識
生涯願景	1. 建構生涯願景	Building individual models	1. 運用職業憧憬卡選擇未來理想職業 2. 建構未來理想職業的模型
生涯之橋	1. 運用優勢 2. 發展生涯途徑 3. 提昇生涯意志思考、生涯途徑思考 4. 發展行動策略	Making a connection Building individual models	1. 建構「美好學習經驗」與「理想職業」的生涯之橋。 2. 建構生涯因應模型 - 可強化的能力 - 可運用的支持 3. 將生涯因應模型嵌入生涯之橋

2. 研究架構

(1) 量化研究

　　研究者將採實驗法，採單一群組的實驗設計。所有研究參與者將參與三小時優勢取向 LSP 工作坊，並進行「生涯希望感量表」之前測與後測，其施測時間點分別為工作坊一週前、一天後，由輔導老師協助施測與問卷收集。問卷的資料運用相依樣本單因子變異數分析進行效果之檢核。

(2) 質性研究

　　在後測問卷中，增加兩題開放式問題，分別為「在此次工作坊中，印象最深刻部分為何？」、「在此次工作坊後，學習收穫為何？」。研究者採用內容分析法，進行改變內涵分析（陳國明、彭文政，2010）。

3. 研究對象

　　本研究考量樂高認真玩 Landscape 套組的適用人數，將研究參與者人數設定為12 至 15 位。本研究之研究對象為基督教創辦的一所香港英文中學的初中二年學生，由輔導老師從八年級中隨機選取九名男性與二名女性參與此次方案，其年齡分布為13 歲至 15 歲。

4. 研究工具

(1) 引導師、訪談員與資料分析者

　　　研究者將擔任引導師、訪談員與資料分析師。研究者目前任教於台灣心理系所，具有諮商心理師證照，為 LSP 認證引導師，並邀請一位 LSP 引導師共同帶領。

5. 生涯希望感量表

　　在本研究中採用戴禎儀（2011）所編製之「大學生生涯希望感量表」來進行參與對象的生涯希望感的評估。該量表以 Snyder（1991）之希望感特質量表（The Trait Hope Scale）所提之構念為基礎，融入大學生對未來生涯期許之概念編製。總

題數共計 9 題，分為「生涯意志力」5 題與「生涯方法途徑」4 題。該量表採用李克特式的六點量尺進行計分，得分越高表示填答者之生涯希望感越高。在信度部分，「生涯意志力」與「生涯方法途徑」內部一致性係數 Cronbach α 分別為 .91 與 .88，總量表的 α 值高達 .93。因素分析結果呈現兩向度題項之因素負荷量皆高於 .84。顯示該量表具有良好之信、效度。

研究結果

1. 研究歷程

(1) 鴨子湖的相遇

　　工作坊先將所有成員平均分成兩組，分別由兩位引導師進行小組的帶領。主引導師先請所有成員於兩分鐘內，運用六塊磚於限定的時間內，建構不同的鴨子，用以讓成員熟悉樂高積木的建構。接著，引導師請成員以一分鐘打造自己的小鴨（如圖 1），為自己的鴨子命名，並介紹這隻鴨子的特性。在運用鴨子進行自我介紹時，一些成員都說這隻鴨子沒有什麼特色，此呈現了成員對於自我認識與認同不足。僅有一位女學生覺得自己鴨子很完美。

　　在下一個階段，引導師請成員以組為單位，以不更改各自鴨子的模型，來進行小組所有成員鴨子的堆疊；在三分鐘內，若還有剩餘的時間，則可以增添其他樂高積木，以穩固與疊高為目標 。此活動目的在於提昇成員對於樂高積木建構技巧的建立，以及增加挑戰性來提昇成就感的心流感受（如圖 2）。
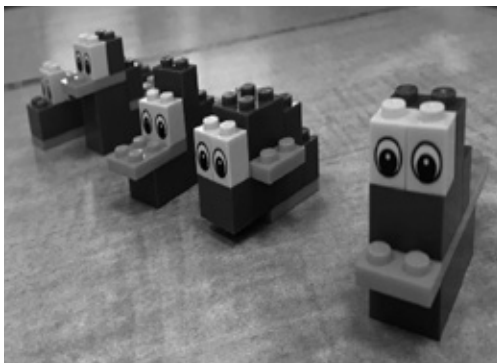
圖 1　建構代表自己的鴨子

圖 2　小組共構鴨子高塔

(2) 生涯亮點

　　引導師邀請成員在限定時間來建構一個樂高模型，來回應「發揮所長的學習時刻」。在完成模型之後，每位成員需要運用樂高模型來陳述學習經驗的亮點。接著，請成員以自己的觀點，選擇一張優勢卡來說明此模型中所展示的優勢；再由右方的成員，以他人觀點，選擇另一張優勢賦能卡說明左方成員的模型所展現的優勢。此活動目的在於藉由自己觀點與他人觀點來協助學生辨識自己的優勢。

　　圖 3 所呈現的是一位女學生的「脫胎換骨」的經驗。左方的骷顱頭表示自己曾經猶如行屍走肉般的迷惘，經由輔導老師的開導；她位移到右方，運用放大鏡更清楚看見自己內在的寶藏與能力，「錢」與「珠寶」代表能力與寶藏。她感謝輔導感謝輔導老師，協助她走出了學習中的迷惘。她選擇的優勢賦能卡是「自制力」，他覺得自己最終能克服誘惑。右方男同學則替這位女同學選擇了「感恩」，他覺得這位女同學懂得感謝師恩。此活動目的，在於讓成員能辨識自己優勢，促進意志思考與路徑思考，建構下一階段的生涯願景。
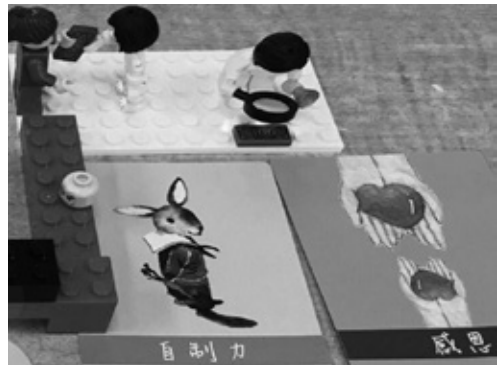
圖 3　「脫胎換骨」樂高模型　　　　**圖 4**　優勢：「自制力」與「感恩」

(3) 生涯願景

　　引導師邀請成員以四分鐘的時間來建構一個樂高模型，來回應「十年後的理想工作」。成員可以參酌職業憧憬卡，或是自行建構十年後的理想工作。在成員所建構的未來職業中，大部分會與前階段所建構的學習經驗有關，例如：曾經受過輔導老師協助的女同學，他期待的理想工作為諮商心理師；有位同學在學習經驗中，萃

取出來的優勢為「喜好學習」，他將來期待成為一名老師。圖 5 所呈現是諮商心理師的工作樣貌，運用骷顱人來代表一位迷惘的當事人，藉由諮商心理師的協助，終究能像模型中的樹叢，產生生機與希望。圖 6 所呈現的是教師的工作角色，白色的人偶代表的是老師，找回平躺在桌面的學生，協助其衝破前方的網子所代表的困惑。右方的梯子與人偶則呈現學生藉由學習，能有所成長。此模型呈現教師在面對不同狀態的學生，都能有教無類。

圖 5　憧憬的職業：諮商心理師　　　　圖 6　憧憬的職業：教師

(4) 生涯之橋

引導師邀請成員以四分鐘的時間來建構連結生涯願景與學習亮點的生涯之橋，來呈現此兩者之間關聯性。成員會各種不同的形式來呈現生涯之橋的意涵。圖 7 的生涯之橋為曲折的形狀，但橋面仍是平坦，成員陳述仍對未來具有相當的正向期待。

在最後一個階段，藉由整體的模型讓成員思考，可以運用的生涯意志為何？將此助力增添在模型上。其中一位女成員陳述面對可能的誘惑的所呈現會讓自己分心的誘惑，要強化自己堅定意志，堅持到底。另外，有位成員則會給自己更多鼓勵與勇氣，面對挑戰，邁向未來（如圖 7、圖 8）。
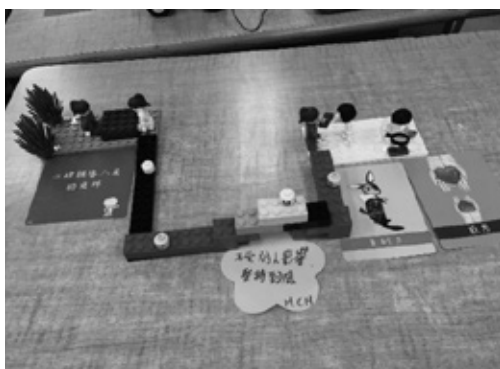
圖 7　意志之橋
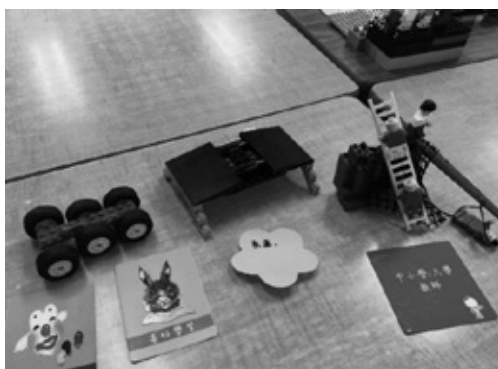
圖 8　勇氣之橋

2. 改變效果

由表 2 可知，研究參與者在參與 LSP 生涯輔導模式後，在生涯意志、生涯途徑與方法都達到顯著性的立即效果。此研究結果 LSP 生涯輔導模式具有提昇中學生生涯意志與生涯途徑之效果。

表 2：生涯希望感量表前、後測各分量表差異分析表

變項	前測		後測		t 值
	平均數	標準差	平均數	標準差	df= 11
生涯意志力	4.33	1.26	4.87	.95	-2.91*
生涯方法途徑	4.55	1.26	4.89	1.13	-2.37 *

註：*p<.05

3. 改變內涵

(1) 深化自我認同

初中生藉由學習成功經驗的建構，辨識自我的生涯優勢，提昇自我價值，進而深化自我認同。例如：「我認識到了自己的能力（B-01）」、「每個人都很獨特，有著不同的長處與特點（F-02）。」

93

(2) 具象生涯願景

多位初中生對於生涯願景建構印象深刻，LSP 在於優勢在於能把生涯目標具象化、視覺化，能讓初中生把模糊的生涯目標思維更清晰化。例如：「我找到生涯目標（G-02）」、「我認清了方向（F-02）」。當初中生能清楚看見生涯方向，此將有助於中學生知道為何而學習，提昇其學習投入。後續，學校輔導老師觀察到此次參與的初中生，確實提昇學習的參與度。

(3) 促進生涯位移

在研究歷程中，有一位初中生在初始的生涯優勢模型中，擺放了一個人偶；接續，至生涯願景的模型，他將代表過往的「我」位移至未來的模型中，此為一種心理位移的呈現。LSP 具有易於建構、解構的操作性，讓傳統輔導中抽象的心理位移轉換成一種具象的生涯位移。此也說明 LSP 生涯輔導模式能提升初中生的意志思考與途徑思考。因此，初中生表達此模式能夠促進生涯能力。例如：「知道如何找出自己的方向（C-02）」、「學習到如何選擇自己的生涯目標（D-02）」。

結論

根據研究結果，可知 LSP 生涯輔導模式具有提昇初中生涯希望感之效。猶如 Peabody（2017）的研究結果所指出，運用 LSP 模式較傳統策略，具有縮短達到療效的時間。一般而言，生涯輔導團體，需經歷一至兩小時才能的暖身用以促進團體成員的凝聚力，若能達到療癒的效果，至少都需要歷經五至六小時。從改變內涵可看見此模式能清晰化初中生生涯目標，促進生涯位移，提昇自我價值，相當有助於青少年自我認同、生涯探索的重要任務的發展。綜述而言，LSP 在中學生的生涯輔導應用與效益具有高度潛力。

此研究僅有十一位研究參與者，未能設置對照組，在研究結果推論有所限制。然而，此篇研究具有開展生涯規劃多元模式之貢獻。後續研究可增設對照組，並增列多元生涯教育的指標，增加研究結果的推論性。

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The Effects of Career Guidance Model with LEGO® SERIOUS PLAY® on Career Hope of Hong Kong Junior School Students

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Abstract

The researchers conducted a 3-hour LSP career guidance model workshop with eleven Hong Kong junior high school students, analyzed and measured the effects of change on career hope with repeated measures one-way ANOVA. Two open-ended questions had been added to the post-test questionnaire exploring the connotations of change by content analysis method of the participants. According to the research results, participants presented significant and immediate effect on career agent and career way. Furthermore, LSP career guidance model showed positive effect on "Deepening Self-identity", "Concerting Career Version" and"Promoting Career Displacement" .

Keywords

LEGO® SERIOUS PLAY®, junior school students, career guidance, career hope, career displacement

Education for Mobility – Factual or Fictional?

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Abstract

The role of education in society is highly contentious amongst sociologists: functionalists contend that education serves for social selection and enables social mobility, whilst conflict theorists assert that education effectuates social reproduction and disables social mobility. Making reference to the education system in Hong Kong, this paper aims at elucidating that the notion held by conflict theorists is more justifiable. In that education reproduces societal class structure in four ways: inequalities in access and participation, incorporation of middle-class attributes into curriculum and pedagogy, training of subservient workers, and biased definition of talent. Establishment of democratic schools and creation of a deschooling society have been put forward by sociologists as alternatives to formal education, yet both are infeasible in the context of Hong Kong.

Key Words

social reproduction, social mobility, conflict theorists, correspondence theory

It is a no-brainer that education can be approached from multifarious perspectives. Whilst being viewed as modification of people's behavior from educationalists' perspective (Tyler, 2009), education is construed as an indispensable segment fashioning societal systems from sociologists' point of view. All the same, for all a consensus on a notion that education primes the young generation for their future lives, the role that education plays in society has provoked controversies amongst sociologists (Giddens, 2001). Functionalists hold stratification principles and contend that education serves for social selection, enabling social mobility by allocating the most talented people to the most essential positions in society, whilst conflict theorists draw upon the correspondence theory and assert that education serves for social reproduction, hindering social mobility by making class background a determinant on which a person's level of attainment counts (Haralambos & Holborn, 1995). As a matter of fact, only is the picture of equitable opportunities for people from all walks of life delineated by functionalists a myth, but education unequivocally serves for social reproduction.

Two Contrasting Views

Views on education held by both functionalists and conflict theorists will first be briefly introduced prior to an elaborated deliberation about application of theories into genuine contexts. It is widely reckoned by people in society that qualifications are prerequisites for well-paid jobs, this entails that only by performing well in the education system in a bid to acquire qualifications can a person seek superior and prestigious occupations (Giddens, 2001). Such a contention concurs with functionalists' view on education. Davis and Moore (1981), two functionalist sociologists, have put forward the theory of social stratification: members of every society have to be allocated to distinct positions for the sake of performing myriads of societal functions. Being more challenging and requiring more specific skills or talents, certain positions are more rewarding than others in terms of prestige and esteem so that momentum will be provided for people to take up those positions; society is thereby stratified with people from distinct social classes arising from their positions (Davis and Moore, 1981). The social stratification theory may provide people with a percept that society is meritocratic, and the most qualified and talented can be rewarded.

In contrast, conflict theorists hold that education disables social mobility but serves for social reproduction; this is backed by the Marxist theory. Possessing essentially conflicting interests, disparate groups in society, be they racial, sexual, or religious groups, contest for power with the hope of creating a social system benefiting themselves most (Feinberg and Soltis, 2004). Placed at an advantageous and privileged position out of their wealth, power, and prestigious status, the ruling class, which chiefly denotes the rich in cases of capitalist societies, yearns for maintaining the current system of relations and power as well as their own interests in society. Building upon the Marxist theory,

Bowles and Gintis, two American sociologists as well as conflict theorists, put forward the correspondence theory: schools are replicas of society, and organization and social relationships in the educational system correspond to those in society (Haralambos & Holborn, 1995). Akin to other Ideological State Apparatuses such as the media, political parties, and cultural and religious institutions, schools serve the function of reproducing a class structure favouring hegemony of capitalists at the expense of the working class (Feinberg & Soltis, 2004). The phenomena of social inequality, class struggle, and even social problems such as the disparity between the rich and the poor will eventually deteriorate.

The present paper aims at arguing that situations of current education systems fit the correspondence theory in lieu of the social stratification theory. Reproduction of class structure is achieved by means of two avenues: enabling middle-class students to excel at school and gain qualifications more easily than working-class students do, and instilling into working-class students' minds a concept of "false consciousness", where some ideas and values espoused by the predominant class are blindly given credence to (Feinberg & Soltis, 2004). More specifically, social reproduction has been effectuated by education in four ways: creating inequalities in access and participation in schooling, embracing middle-class attributes in curriculum and pedagogy, reproducing subservient labour through the hidden curriculum, and judging talent in a way biased to the middle class. The present paper will draw upon instances from the education system in Hong Kong to deliberate upon each of the four aforementioned aspects at length. Attributed to pitfalls of the current education system, two alternatives to formal education have been put forward by sociologists; each of them will be critically evaluated and scrutinized toward the end of the paper.

Contextual Background

Not only the educational context in Hong Kong but the entire global context plays an indispensable role in formulation of educational policies and the entirety of the education system in Hong Kong.

Global Context

The global context is constituted by a multitude of globally shared concepts or values, two of which are applicable in the present analysis: neoliberalism and individualism.

Having been a prevalent and prominent concept since the 1980s, neoliberalism zeros in on several notions: competition, accountability, efficiency, and equality. Laying emphasis on deregulation of economy, trade liberalization, and dismantling of the public sector, neoliberalism originated from fields of economics and finance (Hursh, 2007).

Applied in the field of education, it suggests deregulation of the government of education and empowerment of schools as well as individuals in a bid to encourage competition and ultimately ameliorate educational quality (Ranson, 2008). By no means should education be treated as a commodity albeit existence of a diverse range of autonomous schools creating a quasi-market providing parents and students with choices (Ranson, 2008). Accountable to parents and students, all schools must raise teaching quality for the sake of enhancing their competitive edge and attracting more students. Meanwhile, not only schools but students also have to compete for their desirable schools in the market system by virtue of limited places in each school (Hursh, 2007); such a competition legitimizes standardized examinations, which serve as a quality indicator appearing the most objective information on which schools can lay basis in selection of students.

Another concept moulding the global policy context is individualism, which is acceptance and appreciation of each individual's uniqueness. Students possessing disparate social and cultural background as well as natural dispositions, barely can educators or policymakers expect one uniform policy, curriculum, or pedagogy to fit all students, but multicultural education, which enhances every student's cultural awareness and ensures that all students irrespective of their cultural background, are provided with an equal opportunity to excel academically, is advocated (Crain, 2000; Gay, 2004). Not only does individualism cope with individual variations amongst learners, it also cultivates an inclusive learning community and provides personal care for students (Ranson, 2008). Possessing a feeling of being cared, students can be more connected to their schools; this promotes students' healthy psychosocial development (Erikson, 1963; Smith, 2002). Teachers in contemporary classrooms are thereby characterized as facilitators in students' course of learning in lieu of authorities (Choudhury, 2011).

Local Context

Globalization was the driving force of the education reform in Hong Kong carried out in 2000, which aimed at priming students for becoming qualified citizens in the global village of the modern world.

Industrial and technological advancements paved way for massive changes in economic, social, and cultural aspects of the entire globe. With the advent of modern transport systems as well as telecommunication devices, physical distance had become negligible, and people's communication patterns had also been drastically revolutionized (Virilio, 1997). The special geographical location, political status, and hybrid culture of Hong Kong implied that citizens would enjoy numerous opportunities to meet and converse with people from all over the world. More importantly, having thrived into a knowledge-based metropolis, Hong Kong no longer required mechanical labourers but nimble and creative citizens who could engage in tertiary or quaternary industries instead

(Education Commission, 2000). Possession of merely academic knowledge was thereby insufficient, but students were expected to be equipped with a multicultural awareness, a wide world vision, and an ability to acquire the latest knowledge independently (Curriculum Development Council, 2017). Attributed to a vital role played by education in fashioning people's behavior, an education reform had to be carried out accordingly in response to the aforementioned changes in the world as well as novel demands on people.

One goal of the education reform was promotion of life-long learning, which was intended to be achieved through three avenues: enabling students to acquire basic knowledge in school education, assisting students in developing their potentials, and beefing up students' confidence in learning. Basic knowledge being the overarching prerequisite for students to engage in life-long learning, the reform aimed at raising the overall quality of students and providing them with requisite knowledge for life-long learning (Education Commission, 2000). Besides enabling students to acquire basic knowledge, the reform also hoped to assist students in developing their potentials through construction of a diverse school system. Should students manage to develop their potentials in certain aspects successfully, it would be more likely for them to carry out life-long learning in those particular aspects (Education Commission, 2000). Added to the above, the reform targeted on beefing up students' confidence in learning. Laying basis on the "student-centred" and "no-loser" principles, the reform hoped that students could become active learners and would not be given up by teachers in the course of learning (Education Commission, 2000).

Inequalities in Access and Participation

First and foremost, one of the roots of social reproduction is undoubtedly inequalities in access of and participation in education.

Inequality in Access

The social class of a person heavily contingent on his/her career as well as qualifications, an unequal opportunity to access education amongst students from different classes certainly deprives working-class students of chances to move upwards in the social hierarchy. Access to schools is considered the entrance to qualifications, and working-class students have been found to possess much fewer opportunities to access schools than middle-class students do. Despite provision of twelve years of free primary and secondary education for all children in Hong Kong, inequality in access to education exists in the level of post-secondary or tertiary education. University places in Hong Kong are so competitive that only can fewer than twenty percent of students who have completed senior secondary education enter universities for academic pursuit; the overwhelming majority of university students have been discovered to belong to more affluent families by

virtue of the expensive tuition fees (Post, 2004). Even though students who are financially challenged are eligible to apply for grants offered by the government in a bid to cover their tuition fees, only can those grants cover the entirety of students' tuition fees given that their family income falls below a certain threshold (Student Finance Office and Working Family and Student Financial Assistance Agency, 2015). As suggested by Wong (2011), working-class parents prefer their children to be financially independent and capable of making financial contribution to the family as soon as possible. Working-class students' inability to obtain full exemption from tuition fees through government grants may demotivate students from receiving tertiary education and provide an economic incentive for them to start working upon completion of secondary education. Students' opportunities of accessing education are thereby determined by their family resources to a certain extent; this creates a source of educational inequality.

Whilst expensive tuition fees are overriding obstacles to working students' access to tertiary education, the disparity between primary and secondary education received by middle-class and working-class students also places working-class students at a disadvantageous position in competition for university places. Hong Kong students can enjoy twelve years of free primary and secondary education in government schools or aided schools albeit availability of Direct Subsidy Scheme (DSS) schools for students from families that are prosperous enough to afford tuition fees. Under the Direct Subsidy Scheme launched by the government, DSS schools receive fewer financial subsidies from the government than government or aided schools do; they are nevertheless provided with freedom to obtain additional income through collection of tuition fees from students, which government or aided schools do not enjoy (Education Bureau and Hong Kong Direct Subsidy Scheme Schools, 2013). Possessing more funds, not only can DSS schools provide economic incentives to attract quality teachers to join the schools by employing them at a higher pay scale, they can also employ more teachers and detract from class size, making it plausible for teachers to spend more time on and cater for each individual's needs (Working Group on Direct Subsidy Scheme, 2011). Both measures manage to ameliorate teaching quality in DSS schools. Students opting for such an alternative educational option, who are likely to be middle-class students, can thereby secure for university places more easily on account of more quality education in DSS schools. In spite of provision of financial assistance in terms of scholarships for economically challenged children, Tse (2008) argues that DSS schools are largely choices of certain in lieu of all families in Hong Kong.

Being more capable of affording tuition fees and entering DSS schools, middle-class students possess more chances of receiving tertiary education than their working-class counterparts do. Even if some middle-class students fail to compete for a local university place, possessing a handsome amount of economic capital that can be converted to other forms of capital, their parents can make use of their social capital, which is associated with

their social network, to be informed of alternative study options. They can subsequently send their children to local community colleges or overseas universities for further studies (Bourdieu, 1997; Wong, 2011). In contrast, lacking both economic and social capitals, neither can parents of working-class students obtain much information of alternative study options nor afford expensive costs of those options (Wong, 2011). It is thereby be revealed that middle-class students possess many an opportunity to access education, however their academic performance is, whilst middle-class students enjoy much fewer choices; this hinders them from obtaining qualifications or moving up the social hierarchy.

Inequality in Participation

Besides inequality in access, inequality in participation, which largely stems from tracking and streaming, definitely results in social reproduction. Notwithstanding originally intending to assign students to different groups in accordance with their abilities with a hope of facilitating learning, tracking often founders in that students of similar abilities may be allocated to discrepant ability groups owing to certain factors (Arum & Beattie, 2000; Pallas et al., 1994). A concrete instance is that it is more likely for impoverished students to be allocated to less prominent schools, which are predominantly regarded as low-track schools, yet they do not necessarily perform worse than rich students do academically (Arum and Beattie, 2000). Such a phenomenon is probably accounted for by the fact that richer families possess a higher competitive power to purchase dwellings in neighbourhood where prominent schools are situated, so they have higher chances to enter those schools (Johnson, 2008).

In Hong Kong, primary and secondary schools students enter are inextricable from districts where their dwellings are situated. The Hong Kong Professional Education Press, a non-government educational organization in Hong Kong, assesses educational input, pedagogical process, and pedagogical efficacy of every secondary school and releases a list of fifty schools possessing the most competitive edge in Hong Kong every year; schools on the list are generally perceived by parents and the public to be prestigious schools. Amongst those fifty schools on the list of year 2015, ten of them were situated in the Central and Western District and the Wan Chai District, which were overwhelmed by rich or middle-class families (Census and Statistics Department [CSD], 2012; Hong Kong Professional Education Press [HKPEP], 2014). In contrast, only did the list embody four schools from the Sham Shui Po District and the Kwun Tong District, which are densely populated by poor or working-class families (CSD, 2012; HKPEP, 2014). Such figures appear to imply that disproportional distribution of prestigious schools in distinct districts in Hong Kong effectuates unequal chances of entering those schools shared by students from varying social classes.

The overarching discrepancies between high-tracked and low-tracked schools lie in teachers' instructional practices and their expectations on students, which pose far-reaching impacts on students' psychology, behavior, and academic performance. A positive correlation exists between quantity as well as quality of instruction and the level of the track; this implies that teachers are disposed to incorporate more challenging and advanced instructional content into their lessons and conduct their teaching at a faster pace in high-track schools and classes whilst both the depth of knowledge taught and the teaching progress are relatively low in low-track schools or classes (Arum and Beattie, 2000). Moreover, however students' academic performances are, teachers possess a tendency to have lower expectations on students allocated to low-track schools or classes (Pallas et al., 1994). Teachers' expectations being highly influential in the ways student perceive themselves as suggested by the self-fulfilling prophecy, students in low-track schools or classes may possess a low self-esteem on themselves and lack impetus to excel academically (Rosenthal and Jacobson, 1968; Schunk, 1991). A combination of inferior teaching quality and teachers' low expectations on students creates unequal chances of participation as well as academic outcomes between students from high-track and low-track schools. For all not necessarily being academically weaker than others, poor students in Hong Kong are more likely to be affiliated to low-track schools out of locations of their dwellings; they are thereby most likely to suffer from the practice of tracking.

Confronting inequality in both access to schools and the learning process, working-class students or poor students are rendered much fewer chances to excel academically and obtain qualifications for the sake of upward mobility than middle-class students do.

Incorporation of Middle-Class Attributes into Curriculum and Pedagogy

Apart from inequalities in access and participation, another contributing factor of social reproduction is undeniably incorporation of middle-class attributes and values into the curriculum and instructional design.

Middle-Class Attributes in Curriculum

Attributed to an infinite amount of knowledge in the world, by no means can curricula encompass all knowledge, but selection of knowledge ought to be carried out (Poincare, 2001). Barely should ideal education confine children's learning scope, which complies with Rousseau's tenet that every child possesses his/her own natural disposition (Crain, 2000; Holt, 1981). All the same, such an ideal case is easier said than done, for the reality is that the ruling class, which mainly comprises people from the upper classes in society, is entitled to design curricula, so some so-called "official knowledge" is selected and incorporated into the curriculum (Apple, 2000a). Belonging to the ruling class,

curriculum planners may deliberately select content or values more familiar to middle-class students as the "official-knowledge"; this benefits middle-class students and assists them in excelling in the education system.

In Hong Kong, the intended curriculum of senior secondary English Language education requires students to "discuss critically ideas…and attitudes in spoken and written texts", which demands some higher levels of cognitive abilities depicted in the Bloom's Taxonomy, videlicet analysis and evaluation (CDC & Hong Kong Examinations and Assessment Authority [HKEAA], 2007, p.11; Krathwoh, 2002). Designed on the basis of the curriculum document, the Hong Kong Diploma of Secondary Education (HKDSE) Examination, the standardized university entrance examination in Hong Kong, assesses candidates' high-order cognitive abilities such as abilities to "distinguish and evaluate views, attitudes or arguments in fairly complex texts" and "express … evaluative remarks … with suitable elaboration" (HKEAA, 2013, p.2). In the practice paper of the HKDSE Examination, students are asked to "discuss which [of the two opposing views presented in the text they] find most convincing" in the reading paper and orally present their views on the issue of "[whether it is] worth spending money on trying to locate alien life in the universe" in the speaking paper (HKEAA, 2012, pp.7, 73). In the two questions cited, cognitive abilities such as evaluation, making judgments, and even imagination are assessed; they are surely perceived to be biased to middle-class students inasmuch as working-class students appear to perform better in mechanical work in lieu of high-order thinking and critical analysis.

The curriculum is also sprinkled with elective modules correlated with debate, drama, and short stories, which appear to be more relevant to everyday life experiences of middle-class students (CDC & HKEAA, 2007). Even though the official curriculum document opens the floodgate for students to take two to three of the eight elective modules of their own choices so that working-class students can select modules with which they are familiar, barely do most secondary schools in Hong Kong follow the curriculum guide and provide students with freedom to select modules at will, but they tend to assign several modules to all their students instead (Ng, 2014). In such a vein, working-class students may still be required to take modules that they find unfamiliar with and have no confidence in excelling at given that those modules are selected by their schools. More importantly, life experiences more familiar to middle-class students also appear in questions of the HKDSE Examination; this disadvantages working-class students lacking such experiences. For instance, Paper 1 (Reading) of the English Language practice paper requires students to read an excerpt of a short story and answer an array of comprehension questions (HKEAA, 2012). Encountering a literary genre not commonly found in their everyday life, working-class students may possess more difficulty in interpreting the text and working out answers of examination questions than middle-class students, whose parents have managed to afford purchasing English story books for them since they were small, do. Required to learn and be assessed on knowledge that they are neither familiar with nor

fascinated by, working-class students are presumed to possess much difficulty getting through such an education system, let alone to perform well and gain qualifications.

Despite being regarded as professionals who ought to possess authority and professional judgments, teachers are assuredly incapable of precluding instructional content from being biased to middle-class students. It may be argued that teachers are professionals possessing autonomy to decide instructional content in class, but curriculum documents proposed by government officials are not just there to provide guidance for teachers. Instead, barely is it plausible for teachers' instruction in class to deviate from those official curricula when standardized testing, of which questions stick closely to the curricula proposed, exists in the education system. Teachers have no choice but to treat the "official knowledge" as a universal framework (Giddens, 2001). In addition, under the pervasive phenomenon of out-of-field teaching, in which teachers are assigned to teach subjects beyond their field of specificity, lacking professional subject knowledge, teachers are forced to hinge merely on curriculum documents while conducting lessons (Ingersoll and Perda, 2008). Teachers subsequently become estranged labourers, who are alienated in the sense that they cannot consciously decide what to teach but are somehow forced to teach "official knowledge" stated in the curricula (Marx, 1995). Heavy workload caused by loads of administrative work, which has been a pitfall encountered by teachers for long, even aggravates the entirety of the situation (Apple, 2000b). Not possessing autonomy to decide instructional content, teachers are incapable of precluding the bias of the curriculum proposed by the ruling class; social reproduction is thereby an inevitable outcome.

Middle-Class Attributes in Pedagogy

Not only the curriculum but pedagogy employed by teachers also favours middle-class students. Pedagogy is absolutely as crucial as curriculum. Should content of the curriculum be metaphorically compared to ingredients of a dish, pedagogy is the way by which the dish is cooked. For such a reason, pedagogy adopted by teachers also plays a significant role in determining whether students can learn well and excel academically. In traditional classrooms, teachers were expected to employ the explicit instruction pedagogical approach by teaching and explaining meanings directly as well as asking learners to reiterate learnt knowledge (CDC, 2017). All the same, with a booming body of educational research, some novel percepts of and insights into learning have been brought up by numerous scholars: learning has been investigated by constructivists to be a process of knowledge exploration and meaning construction (Alesandrini and Larson, 2002).

It is thereby not uncommon to see that pedagogical methodologies adopted by teachers in contemporary classrooms no longer lay emphasis on direct instruction or robotic drills but stress communications and exploration of knowledge instead. For

instance, co-construction and inquiry-based approaches, in which learners "contribute collectively to creation of knowledge" and "[engage] in enquiry", are advocated in the English Language education in Hong Kong (CDC & HKEAA, 2007, p.71). These pedagogical approaches are in sync with some general learning goals expected by the government to be attained by students within the twelve years of compulsory education; those goals involve possession of a breadth of knowledge by recognizing their own responsibilities for learning as well as developing self-learning skills, cultivation of a habit of reading extensively and independently, and acquisition of a biliteral and trilingual competence (Education Bureau, 2012). Furthermore, the communicative language teaching (CLT) approach, which emphasizes provision of "purposeful contexts" and "learning to communicate through purposeful interaction", takes the place of the conservative grammar-translation method, which zeros in on memorization of vocabulary and grammatical rules, and audiolingual method, which places emphasis on oral repetition of language items (CDC & HKEAA, 2007, p.73; Yule, 2014).

With advocacy of constructivism as well as the advent of the CLT approach, the pedagogical paradigm experiences a radical transformation from being teacher-centred to student-centred; such a transformation is accompanied by a change in the style of learning activities from lecturing to meaningful and communicative tasks, videlicet group projects, portfolios, and process writing activities (CDC & HKEAA, 2007). Teachers' roles in the course of students' learning accordingly shift from authoritative controllers, who transmit knowledge, to facilitators, who provide expert scaffolding for learners (Choudhury, 2011): contemporary teachers are expected to work closely with students and promote students' active learning through strategies of collaborative learning, problem-solving, experimental learning, ongoing reflection, and perpetual feedback (CDC & HKEAA, 2007). Such changes in pedagogy, learning activities, and teachers' roles are favourable to middle-class students, who are prevalently portrayed to be creative, critical, initiative, and open-minded, but disfavours working-class students, who probably prefer mechanical pedagogy requiring solely diligence, determination, and perseverance.

It can be summarized from the above analysis that working-class students are destined to be underprivileged in the contemporary education system in that they are less familiar with the content of as well as values embraced by the curriculum, and the pedagogy adopted is incommensurate with their learning styles.

Training of Subservient Workers

Added to inequalities in access and participation as well as incorporation of middle-class culture and values into curriculum and pedagogy, training of subservient workers through the hidden curriculum is unquestionably a reason why education serves for social reproduction.

Scarcely does the hidden curriculum involve explicitly taught knowledge, but it refers to values or attitudes unconsciously acquired by students through their experience at school such as discovery of the setup of the entire school as well as interactions with different people at school (Haralambos & Holborn, 1995). Attitudes and dispositions transmitted through the hidden curriculum at present such as diligence, obedience, and high motivation are those required for nurturing labourers deferring to the authority of the seniors and so in favour of dominance of the privileged class (Feinberg & Soltis, 2004; Haralambos & Holborn, 1995). Stressing the hierarchical structure at school, schools reward students who obey teachers' orders and punish those who disobey or even challenge teachers (Haralambos & Holborn, 1995). In spite of abandonment of the pedagogical approach of direct instruction, students are still expected to be obedient to a certain extent by following teachers' instructions and obeying classroom rules. In Hong Kong, not only do report cards of primary and secondary students uncover students' academic results, they also unveil students' conduct. Criteria for assessing students' conduct are personal traits such as discipline, diligence, politeness, and sense of responsibility; only can students possessing these desired personalities obtain outstanding grades or positive comments for their conduct. Better grades or comments in conduct enable students to stand out amongst the multitude of candidates while seeking education or career opportunities; such positive reinforcement provides motivation for students to accept values and attitudes conveyed by the hidden curriculum in a bid to grade higher or obtain better comments for their conduct (Corps, 2008). Inducing students to accept the hierarchical structure of society, the hidden curriculum can bestow a sense of "false consciousness" upon working-class students and preclude the working class from challenging the authority or possessing an aspiration of moving upwards in terms of social class (Feinberg & Soltis, 2004); this obviously paves way for social reproduction.

Another avenue through which the hidden curriculum at school trains students to become subservient workers in the future is provision of motivation through extrinsic rewards. "Official knowledge" selected by curriculum planners and incorporated into official curricula being uninteresting to most learners and incommensurate with what students are curious about, students possess a tendency to lack motivation to learn knowledge taught at school (Apple, 2000a; Holt, 1969). Examinations nonetheless motivate students to learn the dull knowledge by heart since students understand that only by taking in the dull knowledge can they obtain desirable results in examinations. Students receiving formal education at school are thereby motivated to work hard and excel academically by external rewards in lieu of their intrinsic curiosity; such an educational setting is compatible with the working setting that students will encounter after they have grown up, where work may be intrinsically unsatisfying, but hard work can be rewarded extrinsically (Haralambos & Holborn, 1995). Even though Hong Kong has thrived into an international metropolis where tertiary industry prevails, a vast number of subservient working-class labourers are still required in disparate service industries. Notwithstanding

not necessarily being fond of such monotonous work, those workers are still willing to engage in their career and perform their assigned duties for the sake of livelihood of themselves and their families; their motivation to work thereby originates from extrinsic rewards. Nurturing workers who are motivated by external rewards, the hidden curriculum in the schooling context provides the ruling class with a conformist workforce that is merely concerned about rewards like salaries or wages, favouring replication of the class structure and social systems.

Biased Definition of Talent

Last but surely not the least, meritocracy is meant to reward people with talents, yet the definition of "talent" in contemporary society is biased and misleading; this doubtlessly impedes meritocracy and contributes to social reproduction. A person's talent is directly proportional to importance of the position that s/he obtains in society under stratification principles (Davis and Moore, 1981). Hence, only by measuring the talent of a person comprehensively can s/he be matched with a position that suits his/her talent most and can mismatch between talent and position be shunned. A person's talent is usually measured in terms of qualifications obtained by him/her, and what makes the situation problematic is that qualifications cannot holistically and efficaciously reveal a person's talent.

Dissociation between Intelligence and Qualifications

To begin with, the correlation between a person's intelligence and his/her qualifications has been found out to be insignificant. A person's intelligence is viewed as his/her adaptability to unfamiliar scenarios; this implies that an intelligent person, when encountering intractable pitfalls or difficulties, keeps an open mind and is bold enough to get them over (Holt, 1969). Attributed to the ever-changing nature of society, occupations and positions of paramount importance in society ought to be assigned to the most intelligent people, who can adapt to new environments and handle pressing crises at ease, in a bid to cater for societal needs and yield profitable effects on society. However, not tantamount to a knowledgeable person, an intelligent person is not necessarily capable of excelling academically and performing well in standardized examinations. As manifested from some research findings, only does the intelligence coefficient (IQ) of a person exert negligible influence on his/her educational attainment (Haralambos & Holborn, 1995). In other words, it is not the case that the more intelligent a person is, the higher educational attainment or qualifications s/he obtains. This piece of research finding thereby suggests that qualifications or educational attainment appear not to be accurate yardsticks of a person's talent or appropriate avenues of matching people with right positions. Measuring people's talent and selecting people in such a way, the current education system and even the entire society are apparently not meritocratic in nature, and talented people are not guaranteed an opportunity to achieve social mobility.

Ignorance of Multiple Intelligences

Another piece of evidence suggesting that measurement of a person's talent using qualifications or educational attainment is biased and inappropriate is that people possess some talents that cannot be represented in terms of qualifications. For all being the commonest means through which qualifications can be obtained, standardized examinations are indeed insufficient to comprehensively tell students' talents. Each person possesses seven disparate intelligences in accordance with the theory of multiple intelligences, yet only do most examinations in the world assess students' linguistic and logical-mathematical intelligences (Gardner & Hatch, 1989). Most examinations are conducted in the written form and require students to write essays on certain topics even for some practical subjects such as music and visual arts. They subsequently merely assess students' linguistic ability while keeping other aspects of students' abilities such as musical and spatial abilities out of consideration (Gardner & Hatch, 1989).

Results of two international assessments, the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) and Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIPLS), are capable of providing empirical evidence corroborating that middle-class students possess a propensity to possess higher linguistic and logical-mathematical intelligences than working-class students do. PISA aims at assessing the extent to which fifteen-year-old students have acquired principal knowledge and skills required by modern societies (Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development [OECD], 2012) whilst PIPILS aims at assessing fourth grade students' reading comprehension skills (Mullis et al., 2012). Statistical analyses have discovered that nearly fifteen percent of discrepancies in students' mathematics, reading, and science performance in PISA 2012 arose from disparities in students' socio-economic status (OECD, 2012). Even though socio-economic status appears not to be a determinant of students' linguistic and logical-mathematical performances, the impact exerted by such a factor ought not to be kept out of consideration. The report of PIPILS 2011 further elucidates that socio-economically advantaged and more educated parents are usually capable of cultivating a supportive home environment at an early stage of their children's intellectual development through provision of learning resources and opportunities as well as engagement in literacy activities with their children (Mullis et al., 2012). Nurturing students enjoying literacy and possessing a solid foundation in literacy, these acts enable socially-economically advantaged students to outperform their socio-economically disadvantaged counterparts in linguistic and logical-mathematical aspects. Should standardized examinations measure talent and ability solely in terms of these two aspects of students' abilities, a student's class background manifestly positively pertains to his/her educational attainment.

Overemphasis on the Primacy of English

The last piece of evidence for inappropriateness of the measurement of people's

talent adopted in the contemporary world is overemphasis on the primacy of the English language in the global village. Being the most popular and pervasive lingua franca in the globe, the English Language has been designated as a mandatory subject in curricula of a multiplicity of countries and even one of official languages of places where inhabitants do not acquire the English Language as their mother tongue. English proficiency has thereby become one of the yardsticks for people's talent and so one of the prime criteria for selection of people. Consequently, a positive correlation has been discovered between a person's English proficiency and his/her income, ease of doing business, and quality of life (EF Education First, 2014). This concurs with findings of a local study conducted by Tsang (2011), which suggests that the English language serves as cultural capital for educational advancement in Hong Kong.

Should people from all social classes possess equitable opportunities to attain a high English proficiency, use of English proficiency as a measurement of talent as well as a tool for social selection will be deemed appropriate; such a description is however far from reality. In Hong Kong, only is the English Language a foreign language in society; this implies that barely is it the mother tongue of most citizens, and people learn the language chiefly for academic or workplace purposes in lieu of for the sake of everyday communications. Encountering the English Language merely at school, most students in Hong Kong possess very few chances to practise listening to and speaking English. Middle-class parents are nevertheless capable of affording and investing in some after-school English classes or English Language self-learning resources (EF Education First, 2014). What is more, unlike working-class parents, most of whom are poorly educated and can barely speak English, middle-class parents can deliberately communicative with their children in English at home in a bid to provide them with an authentic context to develop their communicative competence. Students from a middle-class background thereby possess an advantage when English proficiency is adopted as measurement of people's talent and competency as well as a tool for selecting people.

From the three pieces of evidence, it is evident that educational attainment does not reveal students' talents on a holistic basis, and social reproduction is likely to take place given that positions in society are allocated on the basis of educational attainment.

Alternatives

By and large, it is in evidence that education irrefutably serves for social reproduction in the sense that the education system creates inequalities amongst students of different classes, favours middle-class students, shapes subservient labour through the hidden curriculum, and measures talent and ability in a biased manner. Under the current system, middle-class students can obtain qualifications, prestigious jobs, and high social status more easily than working-class students do. Extending free education to the lower

social classes, the ruling class however attempts to legitimize the status quo by offering an illusion of objectivity, neutrality, and opportunity, misleading people into blaming themselves for their own failure (Feinberg & Soltis, 2004; Haralambos & Holborn, 1995). Two recommendations aiming at providing a way out for the current situation and facilitating social mobility have been proposed by sociologists; both are however infeasible in the context of Hong Kong.

Democratic Schools

Characterized by the notion of democracy, which denotes a mode of governance involving consent of the governed as well as equitable opportunity, democratic schools proposed by Apple and Beane (1995) possess two essential attributes: democratic structures and democratic curricula. Not only professional educators but students from whatever social class, along with their parents, are involved in decision-making processes in democratic schools; all stakeholders collaborate to create an educational context that values diversity and cares about the common good of students from distinct backgrounds (Apple and Beane, 1995). Opinions of disparate parties being put into consideration, neither can unfair tracking systems nor hidden curriculum serving for interests of the ruling class exist; on the contrary, all students enjoy equitable opportunities of participation in learning, and the hidden curriculum embraces values serving for the common good such as democracy and justice (Apple and Beane, 1995). Additionally, teachers in democratic schools design the curricula with students in accordance with students' interests in lieu of blindly following official curriculum documents proposed by the government and teaching the "official knowledge" selected by curriculum planners; they also respect students' multiple intelligences by assessing students' abilities through diverse avenues in lieu of biased and standardized written examinations (Apple and Beane, 1995). In these ways, working-class students will no longer be required to learn knowledge that they are neither interested in nor familiar with, and their abilities can be assessed and revealed comprehensively. Such curricula, pedagogy, and assessments are reckoned to be genuinely capable of piquing working-class students' interests in acquiring knowledge and facilitating their learning; working-class students are thereby more likely to excel academically, gain qualifications, and achieve social mobility.

Unfortunately, hardly can the two attributes of democratic schools be found in mainstream schools in Hong Kong. Concerning the school structure, schools in Hong Kong have attempted to reflect democracy in policy-formulating processes but failed to engage every stakeholder involved. Education policies of local schools are enacted and formulated by the incorporated management committees, which comprise the principal, staff members, parents, alumni, representatives from the sponsoring body of the school, and independent members (Department of Justice, 2005a, 2005b). Even though some parents are entitled to enter the incorporated management committee so that voices from

distinct social classes can be heard and taken into account in policy-making processes, students, upon whom education at school exerts the most impact, are incapable of speaking out or partaking in formulation of school policies; the incorporated management committee thereby fails to represent a democratic structure. Regarding the curricula, hardly can the curricula of both mainstream and international schools deviate from curriculum guides. Under supervision and inspection of the government, mainstream schools are obliged to devise their curricula in accordance with the official curriculum documents provided by the government. Moreover, schools will be incapable of assisting their students in performing well in standardized examinations without covering all content of curriculum guides.

Attributed to these two concerns, it is implausible for mainstream schools in Hong Kong to devise democratic curricula merely on the basis of students' interests and inclinations. Despite possession of a larger degree of autonomy and flexibility in devising their own curricula, international schools in Hong Kong cannot fully incorporate the concept of democratic curricula into their curriculum design either. For instance, even though barely do schools operated by the English Schools Foundation adopt the local curricula, priming students for the IB Diploma, teachers have to ensure that all students have acquired certain knowledge and mastered certain skills prior to promotion to the next grade so that students have sufficient knowledge and skills to take standardized examinations of the IB Diploma eventually (English Schools Foundation, n.d.). As a consequence, students cannot be given the full autonomy to plan the curricula in accordance with what they desire discovering and exploring.

All in all, should universities take students' results in public examinations as predominant criteria in selection of candidates, and employers in society adhere to taking qualification as the only criterion when hiring employees, hardly can democratic schools, which do not prime students for public examinations, thrive in Hong Kong and assist working-class students in achieving social mobility.

Deschooling

A recommendation much more radical than democratic schools is creation of a deschooling society proposed by Illich (2008), who believes that only by abolishing the schooling system can social mobility be achieved. In accordance with Illich (2008), learning ought to be segregated from both qualifications and instruction; this implies that people do not learn for the sake of gaining qualifications or seeking better occupations, and learning does not necessarily take place in a formal schooling context. Being incapable of accurately and comprehensively revealing people's talent, qualifications ought not to be merged with both education and learning, and students should not be disqualified from any education opportunities solely on account of lack of qualifications. In addition, planned

and structured learning, which is the learning mode in formal schooling settings, can facilitate learning albeit unplanned and casual learning such as observations and practices, which are learning modes of apprenticeship, can also be efficacious; learning thereby needs not be confined to education at school (Illich, 2008). Should schools no longer be institutionalized places for learning, but people can learn whenever and wherever they prefer, education opportunities can be more equitably distributed amongst distinct social classes.

In a deschooling society, learning occurs through two avenues: skill drills with masters and liberal education through discussions (Illich, 2008). Entailing mastery of certain behaviors, acquisition of skills counts heavily on intensive and mechanical drills, so anybody competent and skillful in certain skills or abilities is good enough a tutor of those particular skills (Illich, 2008). When instructors of skills are no longer confined to licensed teachers but embody masters of certain skills as well, more tutors of various skills are available in the market, enabling more interested people to be instructed in discrepant skills. Unlike skill training, liberation education is concerned with intellectual development; to be more precise, it places stress on exploration of application of theories or skills in practice (Illich, 2008). Liberal education can be conducted through discussions amongst small groups of people possessing similar interests or pitfalls to be resolved, and intellectual development is presumed to be promoted through such a kind of learning. A combination of skill drills and liberal education taking the place of the present schooling system, a deschooling society, where education opportunities become popularized, and people can learn whatever they like in lieu of taking in merely the "official knowledge", is created; it is subsequently less likely for social reproduction to take place through education.

Such a recommendation is however not feasible in the contemporary society of Hong Kong inasmuch as qualification, which possesses an inextricable relationship with the present schooling system, is one of the overriding, if not the only, criteria in social selection. Judging and selecting people through a comparison between their education and professional qualifications is perceived by many to be objective and convenient in that only can qualifications be obtained after having gone through certain standardized tests, and even mild discrepancies in qualifications can be easily identified. Should the schooling system be abolished, a fixed curriculum applying to all will no longer exist, and students will no longer be evaluated by standardized examinations. In such a vein, hardly can employees be selected in accordance with qualifications, but people have to be selected based on applicants' interests and potentials, which is rather cumbersome and time-consuming. More importantly, the reason why the ruling class moulds the education system in a way that is extremely unfair to and intends to bestow a sense of false consciousness upon working-class students is that it desires precluding working-class students from excelling academically and obtaining qualifications at ease in a bid

to shun social mobility. A class structure favouring the status quo as well as dominance of capitalists can subsequently be replicated as intended by the ruling class. It is thereby almost implausible to completely collapse the schooling system and create a deschooling society proposed by Illich (2008) under capitalists' rule.

All said and done, encouraging social mobility and impeding social reproduction, the two alternatives to formal schooling presented above deprive the ruling class of its own interests and so are easier said than done given that the current societal and political conditions of Hong Kong remain unchanged. It is expected that only by radically revolutionizing the entire social and political systems can education genuinely serve for social mobility as suggested by functionalists and can an utterly impartial society, which does not favour any social groups in particular, be created.

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論教育與社會流動

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摘要

不同社會學家對教育於社會之角色意見迴異：結構主義認為教育用作社會篩選，促進社會流動；衝突理論則謂教育導致社會再製，阻礙社會流動。本文透過香港教育制度闡明衝突理論較貼切，並指出教育從下列四方面促成社會階級結構再製：學生不平等參與、課程與教學法傾向中層特質、訓練恭順員工及才華衡量欠中立。一些社會學家提出以民主學校或去學校化社會取代傳統學校教育，但這兩建議於香港均不大可行。

Embracing Individual Differences: Overview of Classroom and Curricular Strategies with Reference to the Hong Kong English Language Curriculum and Assessment Guide

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Abstract

The essay begins with a review of individual differences in cognitive, sociological, and psychological aspects. The idea of individual differences and differentiation as dynamic and multifaceted concepts is subsequently critically reviewed. Then, with reference to the English Language Curriculum and Assessment Guide (2007), various classroom and curricular strategies for catering individual difference are discussed, including the use of assessment, adjusting learning objectives, adapting contents, adjusting teaching process, and using grouping. The potential benefits or problems of each strategy are discussed with reference to current research, the Curriculum and Assessment Guide, and the author's teaching experience. The essay ends with some general recommendations to different stakeholders concerning the implementation of the curricular suggestions.

Key Words

individual differences, instructional strategies, curricular adaptation

Does catering for individual differences mean teaching 31 different curriculums to 31 different students in one classroom? Or does it mean aiming at the "average" and taking the middle ground in content difficulty, depth and width? In practice, it is impossible to devise a curriculum for each student in a class. However, targeting students of medium learning ability leaves many students bored because they are either overwhelmed or under-challenged. So, how should a secondary school English teacher cater for individual differences within mixed-ability classrooms? The *English Language Curriculum and Assessment Guide (2007)* offers many suggestions. The Curriculum Development Council does call the curriculum "diversified" and notes that it is aimed at catering to the "varied interests, needs and abilities" of learners (Curriculum Development Council [CDC], 2007, p. i). In this essay, ideas surrounding individual differences and differentiation are introduced. Then, the strategies for catering for individual differences such as formative assessment, adapting content, process (electives, direct instruction, and grouping) and product and summative assessment are discussed. Potential benefits or problems of each suggestion are proposed before the essay ends with some recommendations surrounding the implementation of the curricular suggestions.

Individual differences: crisis or opportunity?

Many teachers feel overburdened and stretched in highly heterogeneous classrooms, seeing individual difference as a burden or a problem to be solved (CDC, n.d.). However, instead of aiming to eliminate differences by nurturing students towards a uniform standard, natural individual difference can be an opportunity which opens different ways of delivering the curriculum. Student diversity can be embraced as a useful way of adding variety to classroom practice. Ultimately, the overall aim of the curriculum is to enable every learner to develop English proficiency and unleash potential, not produce similar-looking products (CDC, 2007). This leads to differentiated content, assessment, and teaching methods being governed by the curricular aim (Morris, 1996). However, for real classroom changes to be brought about, individual differences should not continue to be seen as a problem but, instead, viewed as a fundamental curricular aim.

Many scholars agree on the need to cater for individual differences. Taba, when discussing the criteria for choosing curriculum content, for example, emphasized that content must be learnable and related to student interest (Taba, 1962). Similarly, Tyler argued that learning experience must fit student needs and abilities (Tyler, 1949). It should also be noted that ability gaps between students, if left unchecked, might widen as they progress.

Literature review

Several characteristics shared by effective language learners have been identified.

Variation in these factors contributes to different results in second language acquisition. These characteristics include intelligence, aptitude, learning style, personality, motivation, identity and ethnic group affiliation, learner beliefs, and age of acquisition.

Catering for individual differences in learning ability and motivation in Hong Kong schools is an important topic. In Hong Kong, where the clear majority of students must learn English as a second language and approximately a third have English as their primary medium of instruction, students vary widely in cognitive, sociological, and psychological aspects. No two students are identical.

There can be a broad range of differences even within the same classroom. Some aspects (for example, cognitive differences, social differences, psychological differences, learning difficulties or giftedness) might potentially affect teaching and learning, dependent on the availability of different external supports and self-esteem, etc. The idea of individual difference is related to the notion of multiple intelligence, meaning that the intelligence of students is exhibited in various dimensions.

Intelligence, aptitude, and cognitive styles are examples of individual cognitive differences. Some studies have demonstrated that IQ scores are more connected to metalinguistic learning and linguistic analysis than to the communicative capability (Lightbown and Spada, 1999). For example, for students in immersion programs, IQ was found to correlate with L2 reading, language structure, and vocabulary, but not with speaking skills. It is thought that students with high aptitude may learn more easily and faster. Studies have established a clear relationship between performance on language aptitude tests (MLAT) and performance in L2 learning based on grammar, translation, or audiolingual methods (Lightbown and Spada, 1999). When a more communicative approach is adopted, MLAT result seems less related. Group embedded figures tests (GEFT) show that learners with a holistic learning style do better in formal learning, communicative competence, and listening comprehension when compared to learners with more analytic or rational styles. Learning styles can also be categorized into visual, auditory, kinesthetic, or tactile styles.

Students may have different ability or readiness levels. Some learners might grasp a concept while some still need extra teaching. Even the same student may have strengths and weaknesses across different areas. The difference in ability may be due to a difference in working memory, analytic ability, or general intelligence (Molfese, 2002). Some students are better at using conceptual memory and some at using procedural memory when producing English sentences (Hallett et al., 2012). However, the differences are not just quantitative (high and low readiness); the cognitive difference can be qualitative. For example, when learning vocabulary, some students tend to use (both consciously and unconsciously) rote memory while some prefer to use semantic mapping, both of which are effective when used appropriately (Khoii & Sharififar, 2013). Some learners are more

referential and are better at words which name objects, while some are more expressive and better at words about interpersonal interactions and emotions (Goldfield & Snow, 1997). When understanding sentences, some use bottom-up strategies where they construct meaning from individual words, while some are better at top-down strategies where they understand phrases before words (Field, 1998). Even small factors like differences in the movement of eyeballs while reading can affect English learning (Kuperman & Van Dyke, 2011). The pedagogical implication is that a variety of contexts and resources need to be provided, so that students with particular cognitive traits are not unfairly disadvantaged.

Specifically, with reference to Hong Kong, studies agree that there are clear individual differences found in student cognitive ability that affects language proficiency. It was found in two studies that cognitive phonological awareness and visual skills clearly vary between students and that those differences contribute significantly to ability to read English (Chow, et. al, 2005 and Huang and Hanley, 1995). Another study shows a significant variation in general language proficiency in students that is related to cognitive strategies (Bremner, 1999).

Sociologically speaking, students may have different perceptions that include identity, school background, family background, socio-economic status, and family structure. Factors like family divorce, the presence of grandparents, and even birth order can potentially indirectly affect English learning by creating cognitive and psychological implications (Pawlak & Mirosław, 2012).

Specifically, with reference to Hong Kong, studies have not given a clear picture of how sociological factors affect the English proficiency of students. One study showed that the family and socio-economic background of Primary 4 students contributed little to differences in reading ability (HKSAR Government, 2017). However, the reading ability of students has been shown to be affected by the degree of family involvement (HKSAR Government, 2017).

Another sociological factor is identity. One study showed that some students feel uneasy using English because of their Chinese identity, although most see no conflict between ethnic identity and learning English (Liu & Littlewood, 1997). A study of Hong Kong secondary school students brought up after Hong Kong's handover of sovereignty showed that students have different and changing views of the instrumental and integrative value of English, which may affect their language proficiency (Lai, 2005).

Psychological differences between students include those surrounding emotion, anxiety, attitude, aptitude, personality (neuroticism, extraversion, etc.), temperament (adaptability and distractibility, etc.), and motivation. Regarding personality, an active and outgoing student usually performs better when speaking because they seize chances to practice speaking (Wells, 1985). However, in certain contexts, those of a quiet, observant

nature are likely to learn more (Fillmore, 1979). It has been proposed that those who tend to take risks are more likely to make progress in language learning and that motivation is related to the perceived relevance of content (York, 2013). Motivation is also related to the perceived control of students over their performance. If they believe their ability is fixed, they are less motivated than when they perceive ability as malleable and improvable (Skinner, Zimmer-Gembeck & Connell, 1998; Mercer, 2011). Students are also either intrinsically or extrinsically motivated. Another framework for understanding motivation involves categorizing it into integrative and instrumental motivation, respectively related to interest in the communities using the target language and the practical advantages that learning might bring.

Affective factors, like interest, are also psychological. Students with special educational needs (for example giftedness, dyslexia or autism) have different psychological and learning needs (Pawlak & Mirosław, 2012). Anxiety can be both harmful or beneficial depending on several factors (Horwitz et al., 1986). Too much anxiety may hamper working memory and processing functions.

Reports specifically in the Hong Kong context have examined the different psychological traits of students and shed light upon the dynamics of individual difference in different contexts. One study showed that some students, especially those who ended up in universities, have a natural liking for communicative learning activities (Liu & Littlewood, 1997). However, other students do not have a genuine interest in English, especially communicative activities, due to psychological reasons that include low confidence in their ability to speak, the anxiety they feel when speaking, and a sense of unease in impromptu speaking. (Cheung, 2001; Liu & Littlewood, 1997). Another important contributing factor is student attitude and self-assessment (Pierson, Fu and Lee, 1980). Several other factors also contribute to individual difference. One study showed that, in Primary 4, girls had higher reading ability than boys (HKSAR Government, 2017). Another study showed that students taught using English as the medium of instruction enjoyed a better general English reading ability (Tse, 2010).

To conclude, students are different not just quantitatively (rate of learning) but also qualitatively (way of learning). The pedagogical implication is that a variety of contexts and resources needs to be provided, so that different students receive appropriate learning experiences.

Individual differences as a dynamic and multifaceted concept

Student individual difference be a dynamic concept because its factors interplay. Both sociological factors and psychological variables may lead to cognitive differences.

The intricate interaction of the factors means that teachers need to assess students comprehensively and should not understand students through just one facet.

A time dimension is also involved. Students may develop different interests as they grow. They might also have different learning styles or have different readiness levels due to their own learning experiences. Therefore, the individuality of a student is not static.

Education should avoid gender-based and racial stereotypes. While gender and race are noticeable differences, these factors should, in no way, be viewed as important unless they affect teaching and learning. Male students, for example, tend to use the English language to talk about themselves, while female students usually tend to use the language to converse interactively. Efficient differentiation should be able to create contexts for both genders to use the language, without causing unfair advantage or disadvantage to any gender (Shehadeh, 1999).

The implemented curriculum, that is what actually happens at the classroom level, might vary considerably from the formal curriculum document. Teachers, ultimately, are the ones that make curricular and instructional decisions about what happens in their classrooms, which might be different from the stipulations of the curriculum. The incongruity between the implemented curriculum and the one set out in the curriculum document might also be a result of differentiation.

Differentiation, in short, is modified instruction which taps into the different needs of students (Good, 2006). Differentiation, however, is not providing each student in every class with different activities. Differentiation can take place with an individual learner, with a small group, or with the entire class (The Center for Comprehensive School Reform and Improvement, n.d.). Differentiation is multifaceted because it is expressed in the form of options and diversities across a range of pedagogical elements: subject content, the process of learning, grouping, products which exhibit learning outcomes, and evaluation approaches (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2009; Tomlinson 1995). Due to differentiation, learned or implemented curriculums may appear to differ significantly from the formal curriculum. Teachers are no long curriculum transmitters, but curriculum adapters (Shawer, 2008).

Use of assessments

Formative assessments are used to give feedback to students. In our context, it is suggested that formative assessment is used to "help teachers review teaching plans and strategies" (CDC, 2007, p. 52). It is important to note that the authors of the curriculum view assessment as a way to inform teachers how to differentiate. For example, before starting a new chapter, data from formative assessments allows teachers to identify the prior knowledge, strengths, and weaknesses of students to help decide on content and teaching methodology.

Assessments are not necessarily pen-and-pencil tests. Rather, a teacher can pause during instruction to ask questions or discuss progress with learners on a day-to-day basis (Stiggins, 1994; Valencia, 1990). This allows teachers to obtain data allowing adjustment of the learning experience and the provision of additional guidance (Tomlinson, 1995). More conventional definitions of curriculum (for example, those by Tanner & Tanner (1980), Schubert (1987), and Pratt (1980)) include the assumption of an element of pre-planning and desired learning experience. In actual classrooms, asking probing questions, providing clarification, and adjustment can be considered part of the pre-planning process. The core of differentiating end products and summative assessments is providing ample options and choices.

Different areas of assessment are mentioned in the curriculum. Students should have chances to demonstrate their learning or achievements by producing end products, which can also often be used for summative assessment (CDC, 2007). The curriculum guide suggests different options. In the elective language art modules, for example, students may choose between creating scripts, short stories, poems, songs, performances, or writing responses to other language art works and putting them in a portfolio (CDC, 2007, p. 37). A range of assessments means allowing students to demonstrate what they have learned in the diverse learning activities. Depending on the choices of individual learners, everyone might have a different product. However, this open-ended assessment might be difficult to implement in schools. One suggestion is to allow students to produce different types of work for a given scenario. For example, teachers can tell students that they need to promote their products to potential customers. Students can then choose to write a leaflet, a script for a commercial, PowerPoint slides, a poster, or even come up with the lyrics of a jingle to fulfill the task requirement.

Written tests can also be differentiated to suit different needs as well. Students might choose from papers with different levels of difficulty (as in the public examination) or choose individual passages that reflect their interests. The level of difficulty might also be adjusted by providing hints or examples. Students who want more of a challenge might attempt optional questions that test higher abilities like creating, evaluating and analyzing. Further, open-ended questions can further enhance different abilities and skills.

Since assessment is a way to assess if learning objectives have been achieved, diversified learning experiences must entail diversified assessment. This is known as performance assessment in which students perform a real-world task. When students are allowed to produce different text types, for example, the teacher can assess them by using Understanding by Design (UbD)—choosing activities and materials that help determine student ability and foster student learning in preference to specific task type-related criteria (Wiggins and McTighe, 2005). This can encourage students to explore real-world tasks in authentic scenarios and engage their higher-order thinking skills. This is in line

with standards-referenced assessment in which student performance is matched against standards that show what students can achieve at a certain level. The rubrics contain written descriptions of different levels of performance, specifying associated abilities.

Two recommendations about assessment are made. First, although summative assessment is commonly used and it is about assessing outcome, it is suggested that both the outcome and process be assessed by using formative assessment. Also, the result of summative assessment could inform planning in the next cycle. Teachers can make use of data from assessments to carry out curriculum planning and adaptation, although it involves changes in the school culture.

Curriculum adaptation: objectives, process, content and grouping

A common method of differentiation is to vary the learning objective for each student. Students and teachers may discuss producing a learning contract containing the individual learning objective (Tomlinson, 1995). In Hong Kong, teachers are also advised by the curriculum guide that differentiation should not adversely affect the learners' progress towards the learning targets and objectives. In practice, careful planning and implementation is required to achieve a balance between taking care of individual needs and ensuring all students achieve their designated learning goals. Adaptation can also include adjustments to the way the curriculum is organized and the pace of learning, etc.

After knowing student needs, subject content can then be adjusted and schools select can relevant materials to enhance the relevance of the content to student lives and future aspirations (CDC, 2007). Material adaptation can be achieved by using authentic materials, such as newspaper articles about their community in preference to a set text. Teachers can change the level of difficulty, width, and breadth of content to increase or decrease the level of challenge according to the needs of students. Therefore, a variety of content and materials can be used to cater for a range of ability levels and interests. Student needs should be considered in the content decision-making stage of lesson design.

Although nowadays direct instruction is not seen as effective a method of differentiation as using inquiry or co-construction, it can be useful in explaining and demonstrating knowledge with sufficient differentiation (CDC, 2007). Rather than requiring students to simply listen, direct instruction, if used appropriately as an instructional technique, can bring about a wealth of experience, diverse learning paths, and cater for different learning styles. Teachers can tap into different types of intelligence and ensure multi-sensory involvement to cater for different learning styles. Strategies include passing around artifacts, showing video clips, graphs and flash cards, conducting polls, and having conversations with students. According to Tyler (1949), the same objective can be

reached by multiple learning paths and a rich experience is more useful than a monotonous range of activity. Teachers need to know what kinds of activity are more likely to attract a particular type of learner before using these activities to aid direct instruction (Huitt, 1997).

The curriculum guide suggests the use of different kinds of class groupings for active learning and to promote generic skills like communication (CDC, 2007). In actual school environments, teachers may choose to group students by forming homogenous or heterogenous groups based on ability. Grouping learners of similar ability levels together, for example, allows teachers to provide support, challenge, or add complexity by varying hints (CDC, n.d.; Tomlinson, 2000). However, homogenous grouping can be problematic. Research shows that only learners assigned to the high-ability groupings benefit (Huitt, 1997). This might be because the expectations of teachers, and therefore the quality of instruction, may be lower in low-ability groups (Huitt, 1997). For example, teachers are more likely to use disorganized questioning and instructional techniques with lower ability groups (Huitt, 1997). This is what teachers ought to be cautious about. Further, when students realize that they have been assigned to a average or low ability group, their self-esteem or confidence may decline (Jere & Good, 1986). This might create a vicious circle (Jere & Good, 1986). Also, when activities are not properly monitored, students in low ability groups may reinforce mistakes and contribute to iatrogenic effects.

To reduce the stigmatizing effect, it is suggested that teachers do not reveal which group is the high or low ability one. In classes where differentiated tasks and materials are used, it is recommended that teachers substitute names for the groups, like naming the groups after animals or colours. Teachers need to know that their expectations of students can be different, but not perennially low.

Heterogeneous grouping, which is not emphasized in the curriculum guide, can also help teachers address individual difference. Heterogeneous grouping highlights individual difference by putting students of various abilities in the same group. Abler students can help the less able by peer learning or cooperative learning (Huitt, 1997). Students can also acquire learning strategies like monitoring and planning from each other. Heterogeneous groups may bring with them better student achievements than homogeneous groups, partly because higher-ability students can help lower-ability students and deepen their own learning while teaching (Lou, et al, 1996). Scholars like Slavin (1995) have promoted heterogeneous grouping to promote harmony between students. However, the ideal situation of students being cooperative does not always occur. In practice, some teachers may be sceptical to heterogeneous grouping because problems arise when students contribute different amount in group work. There might be problems if weaker students take a free-ride if they let stronger members dominate tasks (*Salomon* and Globerson, 1987). In addition, those students contributing more might benefit more from group work, widening the gap between students.

Students of higher proficiency might also experience inflated self-esteem, as lower ability students begin to feel inferior to their peers (Esposito, 1973). This might cause students to behave uncooperatively during the discussions. Ultimately, the potential problems may outweigh potential benefits (Esposito, 1973), but recent research has established effective mitigations for such problems, such as teaching students collaborative skills before discussions (Gillies and Ashman, 1996) and employing specially-designed computer-moderated discussions (Swan, 2001). It is worth noticing that using ability as the sole grouping criterion may be narrow-minded. It might be wiser to occasionally group students with common interests together to increase motivation (Willis & Mann, 2000), since some activities are readiness-oriented while some are interest-oriented (Tomlinson, 1995).

The use of information technology in learning activities is recommended in the curriculum guide (CDC, 2007). Multimedia presentation tools make lessons more motivating and engaging (CDC, 2007). When compared to traditional textbooks, tools like computer programs, internet tools, or smartphones can offer more modes of participation, such as increasing interactions and student inputs and responses (Lam & Wan, 2010). Multi-modal participation is related to a multi-sensory experience that suits the needs of learners with different learning styles. Information technology can be further deployed to record, track, and analyze the progress of students (Pachler, Daly, Mor & Mellar, 2010). Tests made with the help of computers can help teachers check answers instantly, allowing a rapid identification of which students are able to move ahead and which are not. This facilitates each student learning at a suitable personal pace, instead of having to catch up with or wait for others.

The curriculum guide mentions the importance of catering for learner diversity, including gifted and academically advanced students. It should be noted that these students do not automatically achieve without support. Indeed, if not given specific support, they may under-achieve (Whitmore, 1980). They may benefit from curricular compacting or acceleration to avoid boredom (Hong Kong Academy for Gifted Education). In assessments or classroom interactions, gifted students can be challenged with tasks requiring higher-order thinking skills such as those noted in the upper end of the Bloom's taxonomy, like creating and analyzing (Tomlinson, 1995). It is important to note that gifted students need more challenging tasks (qualitative difference), but not more tasks (quantitative difference), since demanding extra work might seem hollow or punitive (Tomlinson, 1995).

Case 1: A primary school

Catering for individual difference was one of the major concerns of the school and substantial resources, including a dedicated team of teachers and teaching assistants,

were allocated to the task. One major strategy was to provide weekly extra lessons before normal classes begin for lower performing students. Students were selected based on formative assessment performance. English teachers made use of remedial worksheets provided by the textbook publishers that required students to, for example, circle a correct answer instead of spelling entire words, or fill in blanks left in sentences instead of writing whole sentences. Students found this simplified work easier to handle and that it helped them to prepare for later regular work. These lessons lasted for about 35 minutes a week, from 7:50 a.m. to 8:25 a.m. Not all parents consented to their children being given the extra lessons, mainly because the children had to wake up earlier. Younger children sometimes also found it difficult to concentrate for a period in excess of what was already expected of them in regular lessons. Another way was breaking down tasks into smaller steps, providing increased instant feedback, and using more activities to engage students. Students made significant progress: several of them were able to leave the extra classes after one or two semesters. Some students also enrolled in groups where teaching assistants helped them with homework after class. It seemed students that had fallen behind were able to catch up more easily using the extra classes. That student assessment results were used to identify students that might benefit from the classes illustrates the importance of using assessment data to inform teaching adjustments.

Another strategy the school adopted was adjusting student homework. Several homework assignments were open-ended, and allowed students to work in their own way. One example was the 'Word Bank', where students collected vocabulary related to a designated theme and provided an explanation. Students were not told what words to include. Some students chose to write a sentence to illustrate the meaning, some tried to define the items, some used drawings or Chinese translation, while some used a mixture of methods. Students therefore formed their own mental representation of the lexical items when they compiled their word banks. Students seemed to like this process of learning and enjoyed trying to illustrate their meaning by different means. Many of them liked to exchange their word banks with their peers to learn more words and to appreciate drawings.

Another kind of homework the school assigns was free writing. About once a week, students submitted one piece of writing. Students were not necessarily given a topic to write about and no word limit was enforced. In Primary 2, for example, stronger students often submitted extended paragraphs on topics ranging from strange dreams to their favorite cartoon characters. Less able students wrote sentences using the language structures taught in class. These pieces of writing displayed students' personalities, interests, and relative abilities to write when not given much support or guidance. Students who were significantly weaker or had special learning difficulties could be exempted from certain types of homework. These adjustments and exemptions were decided together with the support team, which also coordinated the students' Individual Educational Plans (IEPs) and educational psychologist and speech therapist services.

In Primary Literacy Programme (PLP-R) lessons for junior primary students, students sat in groups according to their reading level. Each group was assigned a teacher (either a Native English Teacher, a regular teacher or an assistant) that engaged the students in different ways depending on that groups' reading level. For example, for slower readers, the reading process included matching pictures with words, letter-sound relations, and sight words, whereas faster readers were encouraged to think what they would do if they were in similar situations as the characters, speculate on the likely development on the plot, or ask questions that probed their imaginations, creativity and critical thinking skills.

Efforts were taken to reduce any possible stigmatizing effects. The names of the groups were colors and students seemed unaware that the groups were based on reading levels. The teachers took turns with each of the groups and tried not to allow students to know about the activities in other groups.

This is an example of homogenous grouping being used to cater for students of different needs and this worked well. Students were also switched to different groups as they progressed—an example of using assessment to inform teaching.

Case 2: A secondary school

In a secondary school, students were given a survey to determine whether they were visual, kinesthetic, or auditory learners. For classes with more visual learners, animated reading texts and presentation slides with more visual elements were used. The animated texts aided students' understanding. In visually-enhanced presentation slides, students learned verbs illustrated with GIFs, which are digital pictures that move, and watched clips from YouTube. In this way, learning styles were used as a roadmap to guide the teacher in the choice of learning experience (The Center for Comprehensive School Reform and Improvement [CCSRI], n.d.).

As discussed earlier, varying the learning objectives for each student using teacher-student contracts is a way of catering for differences. These strategies are goal-setting and students engaged in goal-setting activities regularly throughout the semester. Indeed, they began by setting goals for themselves under the guidance of their teachers and continued to review their progress before making a final evaluation of whether their goals are achieved at the end of the school year.

While this goal-setting activity was multi-disciplinary and not specific to English teaching, many students set goals around how well they wanted to perform while learning English. As in the process of setting teacher-student contracts, teachers were instructed to guide students through the goal-setting process by highlighting impractical goals or helping students find methods that might increase their chances of achieving goals.

As discussed earlier, information technology is a way to cater for individual differences, especially with the use of computer programs which can track and analyze student progress (Pachler, Daly, Mor & Mellar, 2010). An online e-reading platform was used at the school to assess each student and place them in one of the 48 levels according to ability. Students were encouraged to read passages on the platform regularly and answer comprehension questions set by ability. The system tracked individual student performance and allowed the teachers to note progress before the school's formal tests and exams took place. This offered important and timely insights for teachers.

Information technology was also used in the form of Google Classroom to aid cross-level learning. A wealth of English language learning resources had been uploaded to the school's Google Classroom, including grammar learning resources, songs through which to learn grammar, glossaries, support for writing various text types, interesting reading materials, useful expressions used in writing and speaking, general advice on study skills, links to different online learning resources, e-books, and vocabulary self-assessment packages. Form 1 students were able to access resources intended for Form 5 students and vice versa. Google Classroom seemed to be popular with learners who wanted to explore the resources of higher forms, and those who wanted to revisit materials that they had learned in lower forms. This seemed to help students to learn at their own pace.

Further opportunities were extended to faster and gifted learners. The school co-hosted general knowledge quiz competitions with other schools. Form 3 to Form 5 students confident in speaking were given opportunities to become masters-of-ceremonies. Also, a lunchtime 'Writing Lab' offered learning opportunities for students to experiment with various writing techniques. Topics included writing attractive introductions, adjusting register, tone and style to context, as well as various persuasive techniques. Students appeared to learn more because the materials were designed and the topics chosen based on identified needs. The small of the group seemed to make it is easier for the teacher to assess individual needs and adapt the lab sessions accordingly.

Recommendations to teachers

For differentiation to be successful, teachers need to have good knowledge of individual students and deploy suitable instructional techniques and strategies. Differentiation almost inevitably entails less predictable classes. Teachers also need good supervision and communication skills because of the diversity of activities. This places more demand on teachers because, in differentiated classrooms, teachers need to be ready to introduce flexibility to lessons, fully utilize their skills and enlist help from educational psychologists or more experienced colleagues, especially when teaching gifted or students with Special Educaional Needs .

Recommendations to schools and Educational Bureau

Learner needs might be miscalculated and mis-catered for if teachers are not professionally trained. Teachers can be supported with professional development programs that teach them why and how to differentiate. Co-planning meetings may also be an important way for teachers to share best practices. A broad range of school materials and activities are needed and should be supported by increased human, monetary and time resources. More resources should be allocated so that learning programs can be put forward.

Some parents or students may not understand differentiation, especially when considering common notions of fairness. They need to be better informed and prepared. I have experienced queries from parents wondering why their child's work is easier or harder than that of other students. It is important for principals and teachers to be able to explain to parents that temporarily lowered expectations are designed to help their child make progress. Teachers can also help parents understand that extra work or more challenging work for higher-ability students is designed to help them learn more effectively and that students often feel more motivated and satisfied when appropriately challenged.

Conclusion

Does differentiation mean teaching 31 different curriculums to 31 different students? No. But differentiation strategies like using assessment, adapting content, varying process, using different ways to group students, and using technologies help more advanced students move ahead and less able students catch up. Qualitative differences like learning styles need to be catered for and this is done by offering options and ranges of activities tailored to specific needs. Differentiation, perhaps, calls for a fundamental shift in educational goals: from equalizing the students, to helping them unleash their individual potential. This carries implications for the entire education system. The planned elements of the curriculum need to be more flexible because true differentiation gives teachers more responsibility to adapt the curriculum. The "one-size-fits-all" approach to curriculum development and education is outdated.

Catering for individual difference requires fewer interpersonal comparisons be made and that the curriculum be more humanistic and attend to the special traits of each student. A change in mindset is needed: individual difference is not a burden but an opportunity to develop more constructivist, active, and interactive pedagogy. Schools should not only cope with and cater for diversity but bring and encourage difference. It should be a fundamental educational right that all students obtain education suitable for them and receive a reward for reaching their potentials. I believe differentiation and catering for individual difference opens exciting new opportunities both for teaching and learning.

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擁抱個別差異 —— 課堂策略和課程調適概觀 以香港英語課程為例

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摘要

本文首先從認知、社會學和心理方面討論個別差異，將個別差異和差異化視為動態和多方面的概念。然後，本文以香港英語課程為例，討論各種照顧個別差異的課堂策略和課程調適，例如善用評估、調整學習目標、調適教學內容、調整教學過程和使用分組。本文參考了當前的教育研究、課程文件及作者的教學經驗，對每項策略和課程調適的潛在利益或問題都進行了討論，並向不同持分者提出建議。

關鍵詞

個別差異、課堂策略、課程調適

基於中美高校視域下的教師發展運動研究

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摘要

中美兩國高校教師發展運動發生的時間不同，但都是各自高等教育大眾化發展的產物，都發生過由教師學術發展向教師全方位發展的轉變，也經歷了由注重單一類型教師向注重所有教師發展的過程。美國的高校教師發展運動對中國有以下啟示：高校要真正成為教師發展的主體；高校要開展多元化的教師發展工作；高校要開展適切的相關理論研究。

關鍵詞

高校教師發展運動；高等教育大眾化；教師教學發展中心

《國家中長期教育改革和發展規劃綱要（2010-2020）》的頒佈與實施，標誌著在進入新世紀的第二個 10 年後，中國高等教育已由以數量擴張為主的外延式發展階段跨入以質量提高為主的內涵式發展新階段。此後，國務院及教育部、財政部密集出臺相關檔，要求各類高等學校設置教師教學發展中心，積極推進高校教師的專業發展，通過教師培訓、教學諮詢等工作，提高廣大教師的教學能力與教育水平。這些檔的出臺使得高等學校教師發展問題由小範圍的理論研究與探討快速進入大面積的實踐階段，迅速掀起了一場聲勢浩大的「高校教師發展運動」。

　　20 世紀 60 年代後，美國也經歷過一場高校教師發展運動，各高校紛紛建立以促進高校教師發展為目的的專門機構，相關理論研究也異彩紛呈。由於中美兩國的政治環境、經濟水平和文化傳統等環境各異，其「高校教師發展運動」呈現出不同的特點。

一、 美國「高校教師發展」內涵的演變與高校教師發展運動的興起

　　美國有組織的「高校教師發展」最早可以追溯到 19 世紀初哈佛學院的「高校教師帶薪休假制度」（王春玲、高益民，2006）。到 20 世紀 60 年代以後，美國興起了一場「高校教師發展運動」，隨著各個高校教師發展實踐探索和理論研究的不斷深入，高校教師發展的內涵不斷得以完善。美國高校教師發展運動經歷了以下幾個階段：

（一）萌芽階段（20 世紀 60 年代前）

　　20 世紀 60 年代以前，美國的高等教育正處於大眾化發展的初期，而在「精英高等教育階段」，社會對於高校教師的專業水平和教學能力是不會懷疑的，因為他們本身肩負著研究與傳播高深學問的職能，其水平與能力當然也是高深的。據美國學者韋默（Maryellen Weimer）的研究，這個時期大學教師教學水平的提高有兩個理論上的假設：一是好教師是天生的，二是沒有人知道如何才能使課堂教學更加有效（林傑、李玲，2007）。所以，在這個階段，美國大多數高校教師是通過模仿德高望重的教授或者向其他教師取經從而形成自己的教學風格的，很少有教師考慮在自己的課堂上開展最適合的教學活動，努力掌握新的教學方法和技能的教師更為少

見。高校教師普遍缺乏改進教學技能的動力，他們的動機主要還是和科學研究與學術交流密切相關（林傑、李玲，2007）。此時美國的「高校教師發展」以提高教師自身學術研究水平為主要內容，通過模仿、反思、研究來實現其學術研究與教學水平的發展與提高。「高校教師發展」只是大學教師自己的事情，並不存在系統化、組織化、制度化的教師發展機構，高校教師發展尚處於前制度化階段。

（二）興起階段（20 世紀 60-70 年代）

「二戰」以後，為了解決大量退伍軍人的安置問題，美國於 1944 年頒佈了《軍人權利法案》（G. I. Bill of Right），該法案客觀上促使美國高等教育迅速由精英階段跨入大眾化發展階段，高等教育規模急劇擴張。學生規模擴張必然導致教師隊伍的擴大，從而也必然會引起人們 "相當一些大學教師可能不一定是天生的好教師" 的猜想。20 世紀 60 年代開始，美國高等教育界逐漸開始關注教師發展問題，標誌性事件就是一些大學開始著手建立與教師發展相關的專門機構。1962 年，美國密歇根大學率先成立了「學習與教學研究中心（Center for Research on Learning and Teaching，CRLT）」（林傑，2010），隨後，高校教師發展運動在美國興起。這個時期，高校教師發展工作大多以項目資助的方式開展，如丹佛斯基金會、福特基金會都是這場運動的積極參與者，「這些項目得到私人基金會、公共機構和聯邦政府的資助。項目主要針對教師個體，強調教師的作用就在於創造一個共同的組織目標和氛圍以促進教與學的互動」。有研究者認為，截至 20 世紀 70 年代中期，美國有過半數的高等學校都設立了教師發展項目（林傑，2010）。儘管如此，在這個時期成立專門的教師發展機構的高校並不多，據統計，從 20 世紀 60 年代初 CRLT 的成立到 70 年代，美國僅有 12% 的高等學校設立了專門的教師發展機構（王瑜、陳時見，2013）。

（三）深入時期（20 世紀 80 年代後）

進入 20 世紀 80 年代，隨著社會學的「成人社會化」理論與心理學的「認知革命」成果應用到大學教師發展的實踐之中，高校教師發展開始由只關注教師的教學行為向同時關注學生的學習轉變，學生學好才是教學成功的重要標誌。各高校教師發展項目開始關注學生對教師的評價。80 年代末，高校教師發展中「教師」的範圍進一

步擴大，研究生群體也成了教師發展項目的對象，他們中的很多人將在取得博士學位之後走上教師的崗位（林傑，2006）。這個時期高校教師發展運動的另一個特點就是越來越多的高校成立了專門的教師發展機構。據調查統計，到 20 世紀 80 年代中期，在被調查的 1600 所高校中，已有 53% 的高校設立了專門的教師發展機構（王瑜、陳時見，2013）；到 2000 年，全美約有 60% 的四年制高等學校設立了高校教師發展項目或機構；到 2009 年，這個數字已經上升到 75%（林傑，2010）。

20 世紀 90 年代以後，「高校教師發展」的概念進一步清晰化，卡耐基教學促進會主席博耶（Ernest Boyer）提出了「教學學術」的概念，徹底打通了學術研究和教學的界限，解決了大學長期以來存在的研究與教學之間的矛盾問題，儘管從 19 世紀初的「洪堡思想」就提倡「學術研究與教學相統一」的理念，但是，在人們的心目當中，教學還不能與學術研究相提並論。博耶認為，學術包括相互聯繫的四個方面：探究的學術、整合的學術、應用的學術和教學的學術。傑出的高校教師不僅在學術探究方面能夠表現出他們的創造性，而且在傳授知識過程中同樣能夠表現出創造性，這種創造性與學術的探究、整合和應用方面的創造性是同等重要的，必須予以重視（博耶、塗艷國，2002）。

二、中國高校教師發展運動的興起

改革開放以來中國高校的教師發展工作經歷了以下三個時期：

（一）高校教師發展的師資培訓時期（改革開放 - 1997 年）

改革開放以後，中國開始加強高校教師的師資培訓工作，教育部或原國家教委曾就重點大學接受培訓教師和國內訪問學者出臺過相應的政策檔（周慧穎，2014）。1992 年 4 月，原國家教委頒佈了《關於加強各級高師（高校）師資培訓中心建設的意見》，形成了高校教師發展工作的「國家級──大區級──省級」三級培訓模式：國家級主要指北京高校師資培訓中心，大區級主要是指隸屬教育部（原國家教委）的東北、西南、華北、西北、中南、華東高校師資培訓中心，省級是指設立在各省師範大學的省級高師師資培訓中心，三級教師培訓體系主要承擔各個高校的教師發展任務（何東昌，1998）。1996 年 4 月，原國家教委出臺《高等學校教師培訓工作規程》，規定了高校教師培訓包括崗前培訓、教學實踐、助教進修班、在職

取得碩士學位、社會實踐、計算機外語培訓等六種形式，教師培訓的主體由三級培訓中心和有條件的高校承擔（何東昌，1998）。而關於高校教師發展的理論研究也時常能見諸各類學術期刊，主要以介紹歐美發達國家的理論研究與實踐探索為主。

（二）高校教師發展運動的醞釀時期（1998 年 - 2010 年）

1998 年，清華大學設立了「教學研究與培訓中心」，該中心掛靠教務處，歸學校教務長管轄，這開創了高校設立面向本校教師開展教師發展工作的先例（此前的三級中心主要承擔的是其他高校的教師發展任務）。進入 21 世紀以後，開始有一些高校也成立專門的「教師發展機構」。據統計，截至 2010 年，共有 15 所高校成立了相關機構，分別是清華大學、西南財經大學、北京大學、首都經貿大學、中國海洋大學、安慶師範學院、陝西師範大學、上海中醫藥大學、東北師範大學、中國礦業大學、西南大學、南京師範大學、江南大學、北京吉利大學、重慶大學。在這個時期，這些高校開始面向本校教師開展教師發展工作，開創了中國高校教師發展的新時期（朱飛、李榮，2013）。

（三）高校教師發展運動的興起時期（2011 年至今）

2010 年，國務院頒佈《國家中長期教育改革與發展規劃綱要（2010-2020）》（以下簡稱《規劃綱要》），將「加強教師隊伍建設」作為《規劃綱要》實施的具體保障措施之一，要「努力造就一支師德高尚、業務精湛、結構合理、充滿活力的高素質專業化教師隊伍」。為了進一步落實《規劃綱要》，2011 年 7 月 1 日，教育部、財政部聯合發佈《關於「十二五」期間實施「高等學校本科教學質量與教學改革工程」的意見》，首次提出要「引導高等學校建立適合本校特色的教師教學發展中心」，並重點建設一批高等學校教師教學發展示範中心。2012 年 3 月 16 日，教育部發佈《教育部關於全面提高高等教育質量的若干意見》，指出要「推動高校普遍建立教師教學發展中心，重點支持建設一批國家級教師教學發展示範中心」。2012 年 10 月 31 日，教育部高教司發佈了《關於批准廈門大學教師發展中心等 30 個「十二五」國家級教師教學發展示範中心的通知》，計劃在「十二五」期間給每個示範中心分期撥付 500 萬的建設經費。在國務院、教育部的一系列措施的指引下，各高等學校紛紛成立了專門的教師教學發展機構，自上而下地掀起了一場「高校教

師發展運動」，中國大多數的高校都設置了教師發展機構。2016 年 8 月，教育部出臺檔《關於深化高校教師考核評價制度改革的指導意見》，指出要「支持高校普遍建立教師發展中心」。有研究者對中國 69 所高等學校（其中 26 所原「985 工程」高校，26 所原「211 工程」高校，17 所其他高校）進行了調查研究，有 67 所高校設置了「教師發展機構」，占比 97.1%。這 67 所高校中，有 17 所高校的「教師發展機構」是獨立設置並運作的，有 13 所掛靠人事處，35 所掛靠教務處，2 所歸教務處和人事處共同領導。教師發展機構的工作內容包括：教師培訓、教學諮詢服務、教學研究、教學質量評估與監測、教學軟件硬件資源建設、國內外交流合作以及教師資格評定和為學校提供政策支持等工作；教師發展機構的工作對象涉及新入職教師、青年教師、骨幹教師及其他在職教師，有些甚至包括未來教師（博士生）（魏紅、趙彬，2017）。另有研究者對中國設立了「高校教師發展機構」的 54 所高校進行了調查研究，對這些高校的教師發展機構的設置狀況、具體工作及效果、教師參與情況進行了深入研究，該研究也在一定程度上反映了中國高校教師發展運動的發展情況（別敦榮、韋麗娜，2015）。

從 2011 年 7 月教育部倡導高校設立「教師教學發展中心」以來的六年時間裡，中國自上而下掀起了聲勢浩大的高校教師發展運動，發展勢頭之迅猛、工作形式之多樣都令人矚目，同時，關於高校教師發展的研究工作也開展得如火如荼。

三、中美高校教師發展運動的相同點

中國高校教師發展運動的興起雖然比美國晚了 50 年，但是，也存在著一些相似之處，主要表現在以下方面：

（一）二者都經歷了由學術發展向包括教學發展在內的全方位發展的過程

在「精英高等教育」階段，高校教師的成長與發展主要是指教師的學術水平的提高，人們一方面認為好教師是天生的，而高校教師們的能力與水平在民眾的心目中也是毋庸置疑的，高深的學術水平自然也包含了教學方面的高水平。另一方面，人們也不太關注如何提高教師教學水平的問題。到 20 世紀 70 年代中期，隨著美國高校教師發展運動的興起與「教師發展」概念內涵的豐富，「高校教師發展」幾乎涵蓋教師學術與教學發展的所有要素，稱作「共同體發展」，其包括了「教學發展、

組織發展、個人發展、制度發展以及更宏觀的制度環境發展」等要素與內容。在中國的「精英高等教育」階段，高校教師的成長與發展也被認為是教師自己的事情，隨著其學術水平以及學歷職稱的提高，教師教學能力自然也在提高，近年來一直被提倡的「教授要給本科生上課」的說法就是這個觀念的具體體現。社會公眾包括高校及其教師，更多關注的是教師的學術水平的提高。高等教育進入大眾化以後，教師的教學能力的提高問題開始引起了人們的關注，《教育部關於全面提高高等教育質量的若干意見》指出要「加強高校教師分類管理和分類評價」，明確不同類型教師的崗位職責，高校教師的教學能力與水平得到了前所未有的重視。

（二）發展對象都經歷了由注重單一類型的教師向注重所有教師發展的過程

美國高校最早的教師發展制度是哈佛學院的「教師學術休假制度」，美國學者卡特古德（Carter Good）認為：「學術休假是在教師為學校連續服務規定的年數（最初是六年）之後，通過全部或部分補償的休假提供給教師自我提高機會的一個計劃」。後來縈賀斯基（Zahorski）補充：「教師在結束學術休假後被要求必須回學校服務，並提交一個學術休假報告。」（楊榮麗，2010）可以看出，19 世紀初哈佛學院的「學術休假制度」，主要針對的是具有一定工作經歷與學術水平的資深教師，他們利用學術休假的時間，集中精力開展一定的學術研究活動，進而使自己的學術水平與教學能力取得較大程度的提高。20 世紀 60 年代以後，美國高校教師發展對象的範圍開始擴大，越來越多的教師被納入到教師發展項目之中，有新教師的發展、職業中期教師的發展、職業晚期教師的發展（徐延宇，2008），甚至還有今後可能成為高校教師的碩士、博士研究生發展項目。進入 90 年代以後，「讓所有高校教師都能在現有的基礎上得到提高」的觀念已經為全社會所接受。而中國在 2010 年之前的高校教師發展的對象主要是新入職教師，近兩年高校成立的專門的教學發展機構與以往的新教師培訓工作最大的不同就是，將教師發展的對象擴展到所有教師，既包括不同職稱的教師的發展，也包括不同類型的教職員工的發展。

四、中美高校教師發展運動的差異

由於政治、經濟制度及文化傳統的差異，中美兩國的高校教師發展運動也存在著不同，具體表現在以下幾個方面：

（一）推動高校教師發展運動的主體不同

美國高校具有較大的自主權，高校教師發展與其他學術事務一樣是高校自身的事情，聯邦和州政府的參與度並不高。除了高校自身積極開展教師發展項目、成立相關專門機構之外，各類基金會如丹佛斯基金會、福特基金會、卡耐基教學促進基金會都是高校教師發展運動的積極參與者，基金會通過設立項目的形式資助各個高校開展教師發展工作，高校與非政府的基金會是推動美國高校教師發展運動的主要力量。而中國在 2010 年之前，雖然有個別的高校成立過教師教學發展機構，但大多數高校的教師發展工作主要是針對新入職教師的，更多的是一種教師管理行為。而近幾年興起的高校教師發展運動的倡導者與促進者是政府教育行政機關，主要是通過密集出臺政策性檔的形式要求各個高校開展教師發展工作，並以設置國家級高校教師發展示範中心的方式，為其他高校的教師發展樹立標杆。在各級教育行政部門的倡導與推動下，高校紛紛成立專門的教師發展機構，迅速興起了一場聲勢浩大的高校教師發展運動。所以說政府教育行政機關是中國高校教師發展運動的主要推動力量。

（二）理論研究與實踐探索相互促進的方式不同

20 世紀 60 年代，在美國各個高校以開展教師發展項目與成立專門的教師發展機構的方式開展教師發展工作的同時，研究者們也進行了一系列的相關理論研究。韋默和舍曼首先從理論假設上論證了高校教師在教學能力方面得以提高的必要性和可能性，伯格維斯特、菲利普斯和蓋夫則是建立了高校教師發展的理論模型（張俊超，2009），博耶提出的「教學學術」的概念打通了教學與研究的界限，「美國教育聯合會」「美國高等教育聯合會」以及卡耐基教育促進會也對高校教師發展的概念進行了重新界定。關於高校教師發展的理論研究與實踐探索相互促進、有機結合，使得美國高校教師發展運動開展得風生水起。就中國而言，在 2010 年以前，有關高校教師專業發展的研究性文章曾散見於各類學術期刊上，但是，有關高校教師發展的實踐探索並未在大多數高校系統開展，所以理論研究對實踐的指導作用沒有充分發揮出來。在教育行政部門的大力倡導與推動下，中國的高校教師發展運動迅速興起，很多高校都成立了專門的教師發展機構，由於缺乏系統而充足的理論支撐，

相當一些高校的教師發展中心在如何開展工作以及組織機構的性質、定位、歸屬等基本問題上多少顯得有些茫然失措。

（三）高校開展教師發展工作的形式不同

由於美國高校教師發展運動是在高校和民間基金會組織的推動之下自然開展的，教師發展的形式呈現出多元化的態勢：從發展階段上有學術主導型教師發展、教學提升型教師發展、多元推廣型教師發展、綜合一體型教師發展等（王瑜、陳時見，2013）；從發展模式上有多校園合作模式、校園中心模式、特殊目的中心模式、院系教師發展模式等（王春玲、高益民，2006）；從類型上有自我主動式發展、同行協作式發展、大學規劃式發展、社會政策調節式發展（熊華軍、丁豔，2012）；從高校教師發展的形式上，不同高校的教師發展機構都有著具有自身特色的教師發展的工作形式，諸如教師培訓、個人諮詢與輔導、習明納、午餐會、工作坊、獎勵優質教學、支持教學改進項目、課程輔助設計、微格教學、教師教學評價等。而中國高校教師發展運動，在教育行政機關發佈的政策引導之下，在機構設置上進展神速，短時間內許多高校都成立了類似機構，也正是由於是自上而下的「行政指令」的緣故，各個高校教師發展的機構有趨同化的趨勢，所開展的工作也大同小異，開展具有高校自身特色的教師發展工作還需要長期的實踐摸索。

五、啟示

通過對中美兩國高校教師發展運動的深入比較，可以清楚地認識到，中國高校教師發展工作尚處於初級階段，要充分發揮專門的教師發展機構對高等學校乃至整個高等教育事業發展的作用，至少要注重解決以下幾個方面的問題：

（一）實現高校教師發展工作主體的回歸

在中國高校教師發展運動初期，政府教育行政機關是開展工作的主要推動力量，政府通過密集出臺政策性檔、建設國家級示範中心等措施，使得在短時間內各高校普遍設置了高校教師發展的機構。但是，就高校教師發展工作而言，政府教育行政機關只能是運動初期的「推動」力量，而高校則應該是教師發展機構開展工作的當然主體。專門的教師發展機構成立以後，政府的外在推動力就會消失，那麼如

何開展工作就成了各高校自己的事情，高校應當主動擔負起「工作主體」的職責，避免過度依賴外在「推動」力量，如為爭取下一期「國家級示範中心」或「省級示範中心」而開展相應的工作，積極挖掘內部工作動力，成為高校教師發展工作的真正主體。

（二）開展適切的高校教師發展的理論研究

如上文所述，中國在高校教師發展運動興起之時，實踐上具有聲勢浩大、進展迅猛的特點，而關於教師發展的理論研究尚處於介紹歐美國家發展經驗的譯介階段，散見於各類學術期刊，理論研究還不能為實踐探索提供強有力的支撐與指導。所以高等教育的理論研究者和實踐者應該結合中國高校教師發展機構的實踐，對高校教師發展的哲學意蘊、概念、範圍展開深入的理論探究，同時就高校教師發展機構的定位、性質、歸屬、功能及工作內容等實踐經驗進行理論提煉與昇華，形成具有中國特色的高校教師發展的理論體系，為高校教師發展的實踐提供理論支撐，以使理論研究與實踐探索相互促進、相得益彰。

實踐證明，在高等教育大眾化深入推進過程中，高等教育的發展必然會由規模擴大的外延式發展向質量提高的內涵式發展過渡。也就是這個時期，教師的發展問題就必然會引起社會公眾的關注，這既是全社會對高校提出的要求，也是高校發展的機遇。

高等學校要抓住這個發展機遇，借政府重視的東風，借鑒發達國家的經驗與教訓，深入開展高校教師發展的理論研究，在專門機構與制度建設的基礎上，開展具有自身特色的實踐探索，促進所有教師的發展與提高，進而全面提高高等教育的質量。

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Research on teacher development movement based on Chinese and American colleges and Universities

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Abstract

The movements in China and the USA took place in different times, but were both the product of popularization of higher education. Both went through transformation from teachers academic development to omni bearing development. Both experienced the process from focusing on part of teachers to all teachers. The movement of university's faculty development in America has some enlightenment for China: First, university must become the main body of faculty development. Second, university must carry out diversified work form of faculty development. Third, university should carry out appropriate theoretical research of faculty development.

Keywords

the movement of faculty development in university; popularization of higher education; teachers teaching development center

香港天主教小學教師對身份認同教學的理解與啟示

謝均才

香港中文大學教育行政與政策學系

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摘要

因應九七回歸及近年本港推行教育改革，國民身份頓成為教學和學校活動的焦點。以天主教小學教師為例，其日常實踐經驗及見解可助更理解前線老師如何處理身份教學。首先，要在認知基礎上才能談怎樣愛、如何愛及為何愛。其次，學校舉辦相關活動時亦要帶引學生作更深入的瞭解及反思。親身體驗的教育活動能讓學生認識更多及體會身份的內涵。最後，教師也可運用社會議題來與學生進行討論，並以開放的態度引導學生以批判思考處理身份認同。

關鍵詞

天主教小學教師，身份認同教學，香港小學，德育及公民教育

壹、前言

　　隨著香港在二十年前由英國殖民政府回歸中國，從此成為中國領土的一部份，令香港人開始思考其身份內涵。以往殖民政府管治期間一直淡化身份認同，至香港特區政府自回歸以來，一直努力積極推行國民身份認同教育，讓香港人有機會再次反思其本地及國民的身份（莊璟珉，2012）。又近年香港社會充斥著政治問題的討論或爭辯及社會運動漸趨普遍及成熟的情況下，亦令我們反思今天身處在這社會中，要成為一位同時擁有香港人及中國人身份的公民時，在社會上應扮演著什麼角色、履行什麼責任及義務。

　　面對課程改革和教學上的需要，香港教育局視四個關鍵項目中的德育、公民及國民教育是學生在全人教育的重要元素，透過正規課程和一些相關的學習經歷，希望培育學生有正面的價值觀和態度（香港教育局，n.d.）。教育統籌局在有關範疇上還建議學校可培育學生七種首要的價值觀和態度，即：「堅毅」、「尊重他人」、「責任感」、「國民身份認同」、「承擔精神」、「誠信」和「關愛」，作為推動德育及公民教育的方向。學校應以此為方向，運用生活化的題材，整合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、可持續發展教育等各跨學科價值教育範疇的學習活動，為學生提供全面的學習經歷，並加強彼此之間的連繫，促進學生的全人發展（香港教育局，n.d.）。

　　近年的國民身份認同已經成為學校活動和教師教學上的重點。處理國民身份，自然涉及身分的探尋和不同價值觀的定位。香港是個多元社會，每個人都擁有多重的群體身份，包括世界、國家及地域公民身份（公民教育聯席，2013）。在教學上對身分課題會帶出更為根本的問題，就是究竟身為授課者的教師又如何看待自己的身分呢？綜觀研究資料顯示，香港有關身份的實證研究不少（胡少偉，2010），但有關身為授課者的教師如何看待自己的多重身分及價值觀相關的研究則寥寥可數（梁恩榮，2008；譚燕華，2015；Chong, 2012; Lo, 2009）。另外，從文獻發現身分教育在學校教育中是個缺塊。過往在香港的殖民政府，並無以身分教育融入公民教育，從而引導及教化香港人有關的身份教育。就算九七回歸後仍只著重單一的國民身分教育。這樣日後在學校教育中有必要補回這方面的缺失，從而使之更全面讓學生認識和接觸自身身分這部份。

有感於本地相關研究的貧乏，我們曾於 2015 年 11 月至 2016 年 6 月進行一項探索型研究，旨在初步了解香港天主教小學教師如何看待自己的各項身份，以及教師對身份教學的理解。由於篇幅所限，本文僅旨在討論當中對香港人及中國人身份教學的一些初步發現和啟示。

貳、研究方法

這項探索性研究採混合質性和量性研究法（Tse & Fung, 2017）。第一部分的量化研究主要是初步了解受訪者對幾個主要身分（當中包括香港人、中國人、世界公民、基督徒）的認同及相關議題的意見，以及這些身分間彼此的關係。我們於 2015 年 11 月 6 日向出席香港中文大學天主教研究中心「天主教社會倫理」專題師資培訓班的天主教小學教師共發出 160 份問卷，收回有效問卷 144 份，回應率達九成。繼後部分是從問卷回應者中再物色數位志願參與者個別地作維時 2 至 3 小時的半結構式深度訪談，讓受訪者可以充分鋪陳對身分的詮釋。在訪談前先徵得他們同意錄音，並承諾收集的資料只作研究之用及將個人資料保密，以化名來代表受訪者的身份。訪談後經學生助理整理訪談內容成逐字謄錄稿後再作分析。我們以他們的個案為示例，從其具體生動的個人故事剖析身分內涵的複雜性和形成動態（這部分並非本文主題及囿於篇幅，較詳細結果可見 Tse & Fung（2017）。在下文內容，我們只會集中展示教師在對香港人及中國人身份教學上對身份課題的重視程度和對於身份教育的實際教學建議。）

叄、研究結果

問卷量化資料顯示，總體而言，六至七成的受訪教師均重視在教學上處理香港公民身份和中國國民身份課題，認為其重要的分別有 74.3% 和 66.7%。且其平均值（以 5 分為滿分）也處於較高水平，分別為 3.82 和 3.69。相較而言，從平均值上來看，在教學中關於香港公民身份的課題最為受重視。從與受訪者的訪談內容中，我們更能明白他們是怎樣在日常的教學場景中處理有關身份教學的內容。

一、身份認同教育應從認識的層面開始

教育工作者應如何辦好認同教育，有學者曾提出有些準備工作是不能缺少的，

如給學生最起碼的知識背景，例如什麼是國家？現代國家與過去王朝有什麼不同等等這些基本知識可擴大思考向度，也可成為分析架構，或概念的來源（鄧志松，2005）。這與受訪者甲君的意見相近。她認為在學校應推行國民教育，除了讓學生學懂唱國歌外，也要讓學生更認識自己的國家，這樣才能培養出那份身份認同及愛國精神。認知這樣重要，皆因在此基礎上才能談怎樣愛、如何愛及為何愛（謝均才，2011）。在學者 Callan（2006）的論述當中，便提出要辨明愛的理由以及愛的行徑，即既要「值得愛」，也要「愛得合宜」；以及證成愛國心在哪種條件下才是美德。Callan 再把愛國心分為偶像崇拜式（idolatry）和道德上恰當（morally-apt）兩種，前者是盲目狹隘、非理性、妄自尊大、以至排外的。而後者講求的不單是愛，更是「明智的愛」。這種愛不單尊重事實，亦體察其他比愛國更高的道德價值。這與受訪者的看法相若，愛便要愛得明智，在理性的基礎上談愛國才得宜。他們認為首先讓學生有一份身份的認同，知道自己是中國人，然後愛這國家，當它有需要改善的地方時才站出來表達意見。不能說不愛它，而又只是指摘它的錯處。乙君認為國民教育是需要的，但值得深思的一點是，如政府推行國民教育時，除了一些硬知識要人知道之外，還要在情感上一定要偽善地去做，他認為這是一種十分危險的做法。所以不能只是教授光明的一面，也要從反面讓學生知道及進行反思。丙君認為當教授國民身份教育時，可讓學生知道現今中國的現況，不論是好是壞，也要讓學生知道，使他們更清楚理解，最後給予機會，引導他們作思考及判斷。丁君認為國民教育應由認識祖國的歷史開始，無論是光明面，抑或是黑暗的一面，目的是讓學生去了解。

二、身份認同教育從不同的活動中滲入

現時很多學校透過舉辦不同的活動，從而滲入身份認同這元素，當然仍有深淺程度不一的情況。如是一些表面但有持續性的活動，舉例有升旗禮及一些常規課程。乙君的學校都有升旗儀式，但因校舍沒有旗桿，所以只可在電腦上升電子旗。另外也有唱國歌，她也有教授學生唱國歌時應有嚴肅及尊重的態度，學生也可做到。另外她在常識科也講授有關中國的地理、歷史等。但都是以深入淺出的方式教授，因始終她的學生只是小學程度，故此會運用一些簡單易明的方法讓他們明白及掌握。她亦會鼓勵學生，碰到自己有興趣的課題，再上網自己找尋更多及更深入的資料。戊君也表示在教授國民身份認同方面，以往學校每月也有升旗禮。但自從反國教事件後，因社會上的緊張氣氛；傳媒及家長的壓力，現在兩個月才升一次，或者三個

月，又或特別日子如十一國慶和七一回歸才舉行。這些看似有持續性的活動，她反問有時是否只著重「完成工作」這心態，抑或當中也能帶動學生作更深入的瞭解及反思？從而更明白參與升旗儀式及唱國歌的真正意義。因此反思是重要的一環。至於在教授國民身份方面，她認為可加入香港的政制和中國政府有關共產黨的知識。

乙君及己君均有透過「同根同心」的活動，帶領學生前往中國內地不同的省市進行體驗及交流，從而令學生更認識祖國的歷史和文化，以及現今在民生及經濟的發展。在活動的過程中，學生會接觸到祖國的輝煌歷史和發展的同時，也會看到其陰暗的一面，如有部份的中國人在道德情操，公民修養方面稍遜。即使如此，也不需否認，而是讓學生多些去感受，並引導他們思考及判斷，懂得如何在生活中活出好公民的特質。戊君曾帶領學生往內地參與「同根同心」的活動，除了參觀活動外，又曾到過清遠參與扶貧工作。在參觀及進行活動時，教師也會著學生做專題研習，從而讓他們認識更多中國的歷史。

除了上述活動外，親身進入場境的體驗也是身份認同教育重要的一環，可從經驗學習中去學習及體會身份的內涵與特質。甲君表示在其成長時代，較着重社區、鄰舍間的互相幫忙。反而現在的教育忽略了這一環。他在學校中嘗試引入這種社區、鄰舍間的互相幫忙的教育活動。活動名為 "Bring me a book"。他任教的地區的小朋友資源比較貧乏，在大家互相幫助下，這個活動讓每一個學生都有閱讀的機會。讓小朋友都知道大家可以互助，將圖書捐出讓彼此都能受惠。這看似一個簡單的圖書活動，但當中已帶出作為香港人那種守望相助，互相扶持的特質；並在互助的行動中發揮同舟共濟的精神。

三、身份認同教育從討論社會議題入手

除了上述所論及的，還有什麼方法可辦好認同教育，有學者曾提出透過認同教育，讓學生瞭解自我、反思自己的認同。老師要引導學生剖析自己的認同，為什麼這樣想？理由、原因在那裏？藉著刺激學生的邏輯思考，老師可以深刻的對話、議題的導向等來培養學生的自省能力（鄧志松，2005）。從受訪者的表述中也明白及理解此做法。丙君在香港發生佔中事件時，也曾與學生在學校討論相關的課題。因著其學生大多有內地生活的背景，受家庭的影響。他們對於這些事的看法有些不同。

他所採取的態度就是：會坦誠向學生講出自己的觀點，然後請學生再思考及探問。另外還提供一些普世價值讓學生認識及思考。她認為有時很難完全以中立的態度去討論一些有關道德價值觀的事。但在學校，她認為要有討論這些議題的空間，就是將種子播在學生身上。戊君表示如在常識科當講到人權，她覺得可與學生一起討論。討論中國政府對有關人權問題的處理方法，無需給予絕對的答案，也無需要說太多，或者加入自己的情感。

四、身份認同教育應從教師開放的態度開始

擁有專業身份的教育工作者，應讓課堂成為一個開放及自由的討論平台。丙君認為可與學生一起討論香港發生的事件及議題，引導學生去反思。在過程中，老師應持開放的心，以保持中立的態度去與學生討論。又如當教授國歌時，可與學生討論歌詞，並著學生思考，如國家真正面臨戰爭時，我們會否願意上戰場，甚至為國家犧牲？從而挑戰他們思考何謂國民身份及愛國等價值。丁君則認為教授不同議題的同時，首先要調整自己的思維模式，讓自己也以開放的態度去思考問題。戊君及己君也認為要以坦誠的心與學生一起討論不同的政治及民生事件。

肆、實踐建議和啟示

就上述發現的實踐意義來說，也可供身分教學、以及相關的培訓和發展工作作參考之用。儘管特區政府大力推動國民教育，以加強香港人的「國家認同」，但對身分教育的內容和取徑的討論卻頗為單薄，由於教師的自身的身分認同理念會影響其施教，故此若要使教授相關身分議題時達到良好的教育效果，就須讓教師自身深入理解其身份認同，以及相關的價值觀。公民和國情教育培訓者亦須對此有相當認識。例如如何在教學培訓內容設計上作調整，以利身分課題的教學。因應上述的研究資料分析及啟示，我們針對在教學方面作以下幾點建議。

其一是如上文所言，在身分教學上，我們認為對有關方面的認知是十分重要的，皆因在此基礎上才能談認同或愛的對象、行徑和理由。因此，教者首先要對相關的身分內涵有充分的認識和瞭解，才能進一步與學生一起探討及討論，幫助他們建構這些身分，一如本文所探索的本地與國民身分。另外，面對各人身分認同分歧的現象，因此教師弄清楚自身的身分認同是相當重要（梁恩榮，2008；譚燕華，

2015），因其自身的身分理念會左右其教學態度和方法，教師的身分認同也與相關議題教學有緊密的關係。由此可見，處理身分教育，教師須對身分認同有所認識和反思，以及對一己身分有全面和深入的理解，才能有助發展自由和包容性的身分教育。

其二是師生都是獨立的個體，由於背景和人生際遇迴異，各人自然都有不同的想法。身分認同過程涉及認識、瞭解、接受、欣賞、以至委身投入和付出多環節。教育的功用不在強加灌輸「正確一元」的認同，而是促進反思和分享，以及培養人處理身分內（within an identity）和身分間（between identities）張力或衝突的能力，所以不能也不應迴避敏感問題的討論。教育反而是要鼓勵學生深入瞭解自己身處的多重群體，包括實況的美醜優劣；從而刺激思考和評價。學生思想尚未成熟，其身份認同也處於探索中，教師可盡量提供資料和多元觀點，鼓勵學生作出理性和獨立判斷。反之，片面強調「投入」（commitment）而「探索」（exploration）不足則只屬美國心理學家馬西亞 (Marcia，1966) 提出身分狀態類型（identity status pattern）中他主定向的「辨識預定」（identity foreclosure）。要達到成熟及自主定向的「辨識有成」（identity achievement），便需要充分探索和投入。就此教師可藉着討論相關議題，培養學生思考、論證和自我反省的能力，以及尊重和寬容他人不同意見的氣度（鄧志松，2005）。

其三是身分教育應當情理兼備，就理而言，除著重幫助學生建構有關的身分內涵外，也要讓他們有機會及懂得進行反思與判斷。就情而言，身分的建構也受生命中「重要他者」（significant others）所影響，教師即為青少年的重要他者之一。因此身為教育工作者，懂得如何陪伴學生（accompaniment）去建構有關的身分也是重要的。在此陪伴成長的過程中，教師者和學生彼此間其實是互相建構其身分認同。

其四是可透過公民教育去進行身分教育，從討論公民教育的議題時，其實同時幫助學生認識及瞭解一個香港人或中國人的身分內涵和素質。如當探討在香港和中國發生的政治或民生問題時，身為香港人或中國人應怎樣面對及回應，亦有機會反思自身的身分認同。此外，公民教育的理論認為現代人普遍具有多重身分（Heater, 2004）。因此，我們也要讓學生認識及瞭解其自身擁有的多重身分，雖然身處香港，也不應只局限在兩種身分之中，反而應由此引導他們去明白和反思這種多重身份觀。

伍、總結

　　身份認同教學在本地的教育界仍處於探索及發展的階段。是次的探索式研究透過訪問前線教師對理解身份認同教學，使我們有了一些初步的認識及瞭解。經過梳理後，總結了他們一些經驗，即：一、從認識的層面開始；二、從不同的活動中滲入；三、從討論社會議題入手；四、教師抱開放的態度。

　　我們並從他們的實踐經驗中，歸納出一些教學上的建議：一、教師要對相關的身分內涵有充分的認識和瞭解，包括自身；二、身份認同需要充分探索，不用迴避敏感問題；三、身分教育應是情理兼備，教師陪伴學生成長，彼此建構有關身分；四、身分是公民教育一環，並引導學生明白和反思其多重身分。

　　身份教學是小學德育及公民教育的重要主題，從中能帶出不同的權利、責任及義務；參照熹特（Heater, 1990:319）的「公民身份立方圖」（cube of citizenship），我們知道公民其實同時有不同的地理層次身份，故公民教育要讓學生學習「多元公民」的概念是十分重要的。很多教師也重視在教學上處理香港公民身份和中國國民身份課題，但實踐下來，我們還需要檢視現狀和整理經驗，才能為教學、發展和相關的培訓工作提供參考。藉此一小型研究，本文希望拋磚引玉，促使我們進一步去發掘這方面更深廣的研究內容，如其他辦學團體小學教師都可作未來研究方向；並能加強前線教師作更多的經驗交流和分享。

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Findings and implications of Hong Kong Catholic primary school teachers' understanding of teaching identities

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Abstract

With the handover of sovereignty in 1997 and the education reform in recent years in Hong Kong, teaching on national identity has become central to teaching and school activities. We discuss the practical experience and the pedagogical insights with an exploratory study of Hong Kong Catholic primary school teachers. First, teachers should have basic knowledge about identities as the prerequisite for discussions about what to love, and why and how. Besides, making use of many school activities related to identities, it is essential to guide students to comprehend and reflect on that. Learning through experience such as visits, helping the poor, as well as activities promoting mutual help within neighborhoods and communities can enhance students' understanding and experience of their identities. Lastly, teachers could deal with the learning of identities by discussing social issues in a critical and open way.

Keywords

「一帶一路」倡議對教學課程的啟示

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摘要

「一帶一路」倡議是中國的全球大戰略，香港藉此有很大的發展機遇，香港基礎教育應該教導學生去迎接此新一波的全球化機遇。所以，將「一帶一路」倡議放入學校教育，是大勢所趨。「一帶一路」倡議化為課程內容，核心是去培養學生的應對全球化態度和能力。文中以二維四象限的座標分析，探討學校課程規劃如何加入「一帶一路」倡議，從而分析其對學校教育的啟發。

關鍵詞

「一帶一路」倡議，二維四象限，規劃

一．引言

　　「一帶一路」倡議是近年中國崛起的全球大戰略，在香港的大學層面，迅速受到重視，然而在學校基礎教育層面，對此新生課題，仍未有清楚的處理方案。作為學校課程，「一帶一路」倡議的課程規劃如何，實有必要詳細探討。本文就此提出課程規劃的建議。

　　「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。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》（發改委、外交部、商務部，2015），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 2015 年中國發改委等公佈的《願景與行動》文件，「一帶一路」倡議的平台要做到「五通」，即是「政策溝通、設施聯通、貿易暢通、資金融通、民心相通」。依中國政府的願景，「一帶一路」倡議，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」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」倡議是中國未來的百年大計。（MBA 智庫百科，2017）

　　從上述簡單的說明，可見「一帶一路」倡議既是中國未來發展的重點策略，亦是國際合作發展的重大事件。從地緣上來說，香港位於「一帶一路」的東方起點區，從任何一方面而言，香港本身的整體發展，不可能脫離於「一帶一路」倡議的大戰略之外，反過來說，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基礎，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。（許玉麟，2017）現時，香港討論及研究「一帶一路」倡議的智庫組織已經成立了若干，既有研究金融商貿，也有涉及人文文化的，例如「海上絲綢之路協會」等。

綜觀香港各界對「一帶一路」倡議的討論，主要集中在金融商貿範疇，在教育方面，則是以大學層面為重點，在大學層面設置的專門研究所，紛紛出現，同時也有加入相關的國際學術組織的，例如中國「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。（香港商報，2015）然而，對於基礎教育層面的討論，並不多見。大抵「一帶一路」倡議仍是處於起步階段，因此，相關的討論與研究，在未成熟之時，主要集中在大學層面。作為一項國家的百年大計，基礎教育應否以及應該如何具體配合，這是一個以教育來延續及建設社會發展的基本課題。

本文將就學校基礎教育應否以及應該如何配合「一帶一路」倡議，稍作分析。文中重點是，是以「一帶一路」倡議為課題，探討如果將此放置在學校課程內，此課題的價值核心及可能對課程規劃出現的衝擊，來探討其對香港學校教育發展的啟發。至於如何將「一帶一路」倡議此課題具體落實在學校教育之內，實在難在本文三言兩語可以處理。從課程規劃而言，首先是關注課程的核心價值，然後是教學目標，再後是課程內容、教材、教學法等等。表面上，此課題在不同的學科中加入「一帶一路」的教材元素，使學科課程更趨充實即可交差了事，但是這一層次不涉及學科的基本教學理念，只是教材的增潤。從深層的看，應是涉及教育的目的，即是學校教育應該教育出怎樣的學生，以配合或迎接「一帶一路」倡議，又或者是在「一帶一路」倡議下，香港學校教育應培養什麼質素的學生。正因如此，本文重點是「一帶一路」倡議對香港學校教育發展的啟發，從此課題的價值核心，來探討這個啟發。本文以二維四象限的座標分析，探討學校課程規劃如何應對「一帶一路」倡議，從而分析其對學校教育的啟發。

二.「一帶一路」倡議課題的教育實踐意義

若果將「一帶一路」倡議放進學校課程，首先面對兩個問題，第一是為什麼要將此課題納入學校課程之中，跟著是如何將此課題具體落實在課程之內。

回應為什麼要將「一帶一路」倡議放入學校課程。學校基礎教育，承擔了社會生存及發展的教育使命，而「一帶一路」倡議為香港帶來發展機遇，使命與機遇兩者不應忽略對方的重要性。基礎教育的中學教育，一方面是大學教育的預備階段，另一方面，基礎教育又自有其使命，也是人生一個獨立階段。對升讀大學而言，基
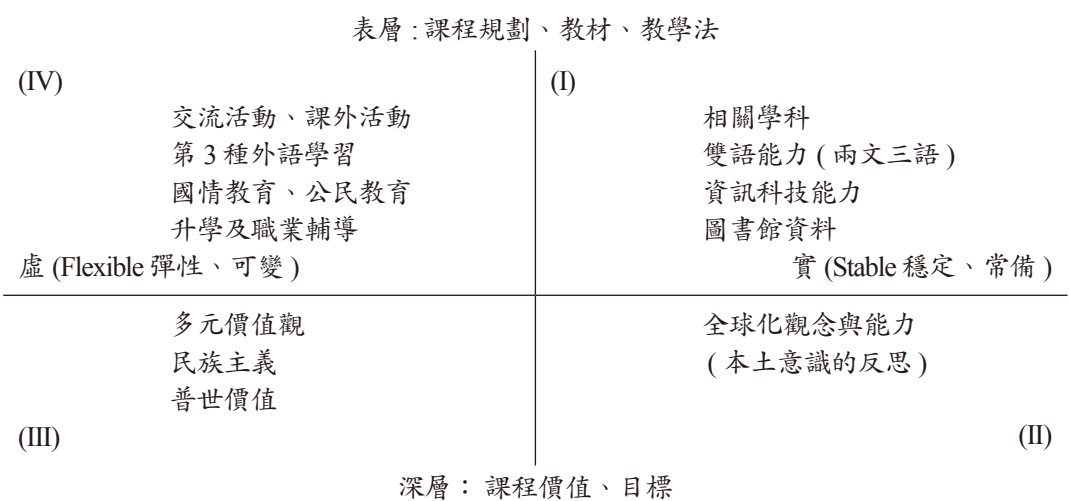
礎教育的中學教育所提供的栽培，包括學識和視野，直接影響學生的在大學時的升學選科和就業準備，「一帶一路」倡議能否與其配合，使學生完成大學學業之後，人生發展更上一層樓，中學教育是起先導作用，可收事半功倍之效。另一方面，部分學生完成中學教育，決定投身社會工作，中學時的裝備，就成為其一生的基礎，正因如此，中學教育應開展學生的視野識見，在基礎教育上，培養學生高瞻遠矚的視野，這才能幫助學生成就人生。「一帶一路」倡議是給予香港社會發展的機會，因此，從各方面考慮，基礎教育應該將「一帶一路」倡議的內容，納入學校課程之中，反過來，「一帶一路」倡議可以使學校課程變得更豐富完備。

今日香港特區，依照中國中央政府的規劃，已經是「一帶一路」倡議中的一個重要城堡，不論是習近平總書記的《中共十九大報告》（習近平，2017）或是李克強總理的《政府工作報告 (十三五規劃)》（李克強，2017），當中的內容已經將香港特區劃入「一帶一路」倡議其中。2017 年 12 月 4 日，香港特區政府行政長官林鄭月娥與國家發展和改革委員會主任何立峰在北京簽署《國家發展和改革委員會與香港特別行政區政府關於支持香港全面參與和助力「一帶一路」建設的安排》，作為香港參與有關建設的方針和藍本。因此，不論香港人自身是高度迎接或極力抗拒「一帶一路」倡議，從任何角度而言，香港人對此都無可能避而不談。香港人回應「一帶一路」倡議，不應局限於金融貿易的商業機會，而是著眼於全球化的世界大趨勢，從全球化入手，所觀察的是人類的未來發展。回歸眼前現實環境，接受或抗拒「一帶一路」倡議，都是離不開全球化認知與本土意識之爭，再歸根究底，還是對全球化大趨勢的認知與態度問題。今天香港在「一帶一路」倡議的規劃下，無論是從國家層面考慮，或是從全球角度出發，此課題必定影響著香港未來的發展。從此點考慮，「一帶一路」倡議作為教育課題，實屬必要，餘下的，是如何在學校教育中實踐出來。

三. 新課題的二維四象限分析

「一帶一路」倡議是中國的百年大計，大學教育界對此的研究或教學，百花齊放，莫衷一是，所以此課題放入基礎教育時，也會令人眼花撩亂，正因如此，借助分析工具來探討此課題的處理，實屬必要。本文以二維四象限的座標分析方法，來討論此課題的核心和相關的教學規劃。

　　本文的二維四象限的座標，以兩個二維為經緯，組成四個象限。這兩個二維，分別是：第一，以表層對深層組成過程，作為二維縱軸，分為深層的課程價值、目標，和表層的課程規劃、教材、教學法等等，於是構成分析課程組成的過程，即從教學理念出發，建構課程教學的流程。第二，是以「實」對應「虛」，這種呈現形態作為二維的橫軸，即將課程內實在的、穩定的、常備的，與可變的、彈性、備用的、可取代的、可轉換的，作為對比，於是得出課程中必要的與次要的分別，同時釐清課程的重點。整個二維四象限的座標，圖列如下：

表層：課程規劃、教材、教學法

(IV)　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　(I)
　　　交流活動、課外活動　　　　　　　相關學科
　　　第 3 種外語學習　　　　　　　　　雙語能力 (兩文三語)
　　　國情教育、公民教育　　　　　　　資訊科技能力
　　　升學及職業輔導　　　　　　　　　圖書館資料
虛 (Flexible 彈性、可變)　　　　　　　　　　　實 (Stable 穩定、常備)

　　　多元價值觀　　　　　　　　　　　全球化觀念與能力
　　　民族主義　　　　　　　　　　　　(本土意識的反思)
　　　普世價值
(III)　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　(II)

深層： 課程價值、目標

「一帶一路」倡議新課程的二維四象限座標分析圖

　　依二維來區分，形成四個象限。這四個象限是此課程的組成元素。第一象限是課程具體呈現的規劃內容，包括課程的內容、相關的要求和配置等等。第二象限是課程必然探討的核心理念、價值和目標等等。第三象限仍然是課程理念的探索，但是在這一象限內，相關的內容並非必然存在，可能因應課程的特性，存在變化。第四象限也是課程的具體呈現，但是這部分並非必然存在，可以是以輔助性質出現。

　　傳統上，對課程建構以「知識、能力、態度」這個三角關係來作分析，或者是以「知、情、行」來分析。二維四象限的分析，也有包括這種三角關係的內容，但又突破有關的局限。二維四象限分析的特點是以座標方式，分析課程內各個元素的位置，好處是座標容易導航，不易迷失。「一帶一路」倡議課題，內容是非常複雜，

畢竟這是一個世界層面的課題，高度綜合，又是無限延伸，所以，單用傳統的分析，根本起不了作用，愈看愈令人目眩，只見樹木不見森林。再者，「一帶一路」倡議，始於 2013 年，算是新興的課題，僅屬起步階段，如何去規劃，並無可考。更重要的是，「一帶一路」倡議於現時仍未能單獨成科，即使是大學教育的層面，亦未是獨立成為一學系，只不過是有獨立的研究所而已。因此，以座標方式來作分析，有利於處理不同的課程元素的不同作用和位置。同時，四維象限，各象限中的內容，可以靈活調節，即使加減也不影響整體的分析。

四．四象限的座標參考

　　　　四個象限展示了一個課題蛻變成為課程時，涉及的規劃元素。第一個象限是展示課程可見、顯露的元素，包括教材、教學法等等，同時也是課程中穩定、常備的部分，此象限內屬於學生的直接學習部分，計有開設學科、培養雙語能力、開設學校圖書館資料庫等等。與「一帶一路」倡議相關的學科內容牽涉很廣泛，大部分的學校科目都可以加入「一帶一路」倡議的元素，舉例而言，中史科可以說是首當其衝，中外交通史及文化交流史的內容，是「一帶一路」倡議的人文基礎知識，世界歷史科亦如是，增加中東歷史部分，實屬必要。地理科則增加西亞及北非等沿線國家的地理課程。家政科可以加入中東的食譜及西亞民族服飾的教材，視覺藝術科加入中東的幾何圖案教材。專題研習的習作，直接研究「一帶一路」倡議或沿線國家研究。即使是中文科，除了教授傳統古人智慧格言，修身立德，亦可以加入中東例如猶太人拉比的智慧教導。凡此種種，不勝枚舉。

　　雙語能力，中文普通話及英語的運用能力不可忽視，今日的香港人，不懂英語，就無法走出國門，踏遍各國，不識普通話，亦不可能得益於中國經濟的騰飛，更遑論開發「一帶一路」倡議的機遇。資訊科技能力是實踐全球化的基本要求，透過互聯網，全球溝通，無遠弗屆，各種新興的應用程式，如雨後春筍，資訊科技的運用已經深入生活各個層面，如果不懂得如何操作這些科技的能力，難於在香港這類國際大都會立足，當然，懂得操作，只是基本生存要求，如果可以用這種能力來創造新價值，才是這方面的目的。至於學校圖書館資料庫，可讓師生得到「一帶一路」倡議的相關新聞內容，當中建議的資料，包括古代絲路及航海歷史，還有現代沿線

國家概況和風貌，並設網站搜尋途徑，方便隨時隨地更新及跟蹤相關資料。其實，運用學校圖書館資料庫也是資訊科技能力的表現。

　　第二個象限是展示課程的價值目的，當然也是課程中穩定、必備的部分。回應「一帶一路」倡議，全球化的認識及認同，還有掌握面對全球化的能力，是此課題的核心價值。上述的認知，隨之而來的，乃是全球化的人文質素，例如契約精神。全球化的能力，例如運用資訊科技能力，上文已經討論，在此不再重覆。相對全球化的認識，本土的認識亦屬重要，此包括本地的歷史、文化等等，立足本地，對外發展才可以有所根據。在此，本地或本土的涵義，以香港人而言，當然指香港這個土生土長之地，也包括個人的宗族籍貫，同時包括中國的國家概念。所以，全球化的認識，不是放棄本土的認同或認知，而是以本土的認識來發展全球策略。全球化與本土意識，兩者可以是互相對立，也可以是相輔相成，本文取相輔相成之義。

　　本文以全球化的認識作為「一帶一路」倡議課題的核心價值，原因顯而易見。「一帶一路」倡議是國際發展策略，如果撇開全球化的認知，根本無從入手。所以，「一帶一路」倡議課題的核心價值，在不變，不可轉換的部分，非全球化認知莫屬。

　　第三個象限仍然是展示課程價值目的，但是此部分的內容，可以是可變，可轉換，可取代的。多元價值觀、民族主義、普世價值等等，屬於此象限內的價值。這些價值在香港人的普遍價值觀之中，是習以為常，然而，在國際間未必如是，各國民族的價值理念不同，其中差異之大，難以想像，作為「一帶一路」倡議課題，對於此類的價值精神，要小心處理。大抵這些分歧來自各國不同的宗教信仰，不同的宗教信仰產生不同的核心價值，所以「一帶一路」倡議課題，應該超越宗教信仰的局限，另闢蹊徑，正因如此，本文以全球化認識作為此課題的不變核心，而將多元價值觀、民族主義、普世價值等等，放置於此象限，以分別出他們的可變、可轉換的、不統一的特性。

　　第四個象限是展示課程可見、顯露的元素，但卻是可變的，可轉換的，可取代的。此象限的內容，主要是學校教育中，屬於教學或學生支援部分，或者是校本的內容，這些包括課外活動（或稱聯課活動）、境外交流活動、第三種外語學習、國情教育、公民教育、升學及職業輔導等等。課外活動方面，可以直接成立「一帶一

路」學會，內容就千變萬化，各式各樣。其他的課外活動亦可以加入「一帶一路」元素，例如英語舞台劇，不必只是《Cinderella》或者《The Sound of Music》，可以加入《辛巴歷險記》、《一千零一夜》的劇種。境外交流活動，地點的變化，無遠弗屆，整條「一帶一路」，任君選擇。而第三種外語學習，早已經是某些學校的語文學習特色，所學的語言，現時流行的有日文、法文、西班牙文等等，未來還可以有其他，例如「一帶一路」必經的俄語區，學習俄語，有利而無害。國情教育和公民教育，獨立成科與否，都可以加入「一帶一路」的元素，培養全球化視野。升學及職業輔導，就要培養學生有「世界僱員」的觀念。

以上四個象限的內容，以座標方式，明確指出「一帶一路」倡議的教學元素的所在位置。當然這些位置，並非一成不變，亦會按校本規劃而有所調整。從校本規劃而言，學校可以將此課題輕描淡寫，走過場，亦可以大張旗鼓，認真地去規劃每一細節。上述的座標，學校可以因應各自的情況，對照座標的位置，規劃各自的校本課程內容。校本課程內容在座標的位置，反映了學校領導層對此課題的認知或態度，因此反過來，可以藉座標的指示，反思此課題對學校領導層的啟示是什麼。

五.「一帶一路」倡議對學校教育的長遠啟示

「一帶一路」倡議課題，上文以二維四象限的座標方式，分析了其中各個元素的內容，教育界各方可以以此來考量規劃相關的教學活動。然而，開展相關課題的教學活動，不應該是趕時髦，搭便車。從香港長遠發展而言，「一帶一路」倡議課題，對基礎教育有其長遠的意義。

香港雖然早已經是一個國際大都會，但是全球化的經濟及科技發展，使香港不可能再憑藉過往的經濟成就而孤芳自賞。香港社會要發展下去，保持國際大都會的地位，使香港人可以安居樂業，香港人本身就要練得全球化的生存本領，才可以持續發展下去。教育的其中一個目的，是使新一代人學習得到求生和發展的態度與能力。

面對全球化的急速發展，香港人無可避開全球化的影響，例如小學教育已經教曉學生到互聯網尋找資料，由此可見，香港的發展離不開全球化的影響。正因如此，香港的基礎教育，就有責任教導學生成為世界公民，一方面有當世界公民的意識，

另一方面，有當世界公民的能力。如果香港仍然孤芳自賞，沉迷於本土意識，不論是懷緬往績，或是產生保護主義，都會因此而失去發展動力，陷入困局。由此可見，香港發展的思考出路，是一個「全球化」的選擇。培育「全球化」的觀念和能力，就是培育世界公民。

　　「一帶一路」倡議是一項國際發展策略，與全球化結連在一起。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」，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，「一帶一路」倡議，是香港迎接新一波全球化的好機會。教育就是教導學生新一代去迎接這個機會。香港的基礎教育，不論是中學或小學，在教育學生掌握成為世界公民的能力方面，有很好的成績，在資訊科技教育，和雙語能力的運用，都是出色的。而香港學生對多元文化的接納，以及多元價值觀的包容，也是有很好的表現。然而，香港人自覺成為世界公民的意識如何，可能仍有改進的空間。學校教育需要培養學生世界公民的意識，而「一帶一路」倡議作為課題，在學校教育的長遠意義而言，就是去培養學生的世界公民意識，為香港持續發展找出路。

　　當社會討論「全球化」的時候，與之相應的「本土化」概念，往往隨之出現。社會大眾很容易將兩者對立起來，非此即彼。其實，「全球」與「本土」並非一定對立。上文亦提到兩者可以相輔相成。香港早在七十年代，大專界提出口號：立足香港，胸懷祖國，放眼世界。可見，「全球」與「本土」之間的重要關係，兩者可以並不抵觸。「本土」的意義在於建立堅固的基礎，而非畫地為牢，拒絕外面世界，反而因為「本土」的堅實基礎，才可以在世界上有立足的根據地，才可以與世界合作。所以，「全球」與「本土」之間的關係，好或壞，成或敗，只是一念之差。正確看待兩者的正面關係，可以創造出一個海闊天空，七海縱橫的局面。「一帶一路」倡議課題，是名正言順去教導學生立足本土，走進世界。

六 . 總結

　　香港在「一帶一路」倡議中，搭上了這趟快車，既然如此，香港的教育也應該作出調適，以配合新時代的需要。「一帶一路」倡議作為課題研究，香港在大學層面，

早已經展開，香港特區政府在大專界設置了「一帶一路」獎學金，但是中小學的基礎教育方面，仍在觀望階段，畢竟，一個國際大策略的課題，牽涉甚廣，如何放置在學校教育中，費剎思量。本文嘗試以二維四象限座標分析方法，為「一帶一路」倡議作為課題教學，釐清各項課程元素，希望以此對學校教育有所幫助，同時，藉此審視學校從中有何啟發。「一帶一路」倡議是一個全球發展的新策略，以此作為教學課題，正好教育新一代學生去面對新一波的全球化發展，成就個人及社會，繼承創造更繁榮的香港。

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The Inspiration of "The Belt and Road" to Teaching Curriculum

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Abstract

The "One Belt, One Road" initiative is China's global strategy. Hong Kong has great opportunities for development. Hong Kong's basic education should teach students to meet this new wave of globalization opportunities. Therefore, putting the "One Belt, One Road" initiative into school education is the general trend. The "Belt and Road Initiative" should be included in the content of the curriculum, and the core is to cultivate students' attitudes and abilities to cope with globalization. In this paper, the two-dimensional four-quadrant coordinate analysis is used to embrace the planning of school curriculum with the "Belt and Road Initiative", and to analyze its enlightenment on school education.

Keywords

"The Belt and Road Initiative", two dimensions and four images, planning

Students' perception of the effectiveness of summative, feedforward and dialogic approaches to feedback

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Abstract

In this paper, I describe how feedback approaches (i.e. summative, feedforward and dialogic feedback) are incorporated into individual-based and group-based assessment tasks in a Hong Kong sub-degree academic writing course. The effectiveness of these approaches is evaluated through a post-study survey questionnaire on students' perception after the course is completed. A total of 118 out of 155 students responded to the survey. Findings were: (1) most participants chose individual-based learning (i.e. summative or feedforward feedback) as their preferred learning method, rather than group-based learning (dialogic feedback); (2) feedback approaches on the individual-based assessment tasks was perceived the most positively among different assessment tasks; (3) perception of the end-of-term test has the strongest association with the perception of the overall course assessment. Findings are discussed and recommendations are made, followed by the conclusion and limitations of this study.

Key Words

Feedforward feedback, summative feedback, dialogic feedback, students' perception, corrective feedback

1.0   Introduction

Some researchers observe that the Confucian culture of passive learning still has a tremendous influence on learning in higher education in major cities in Greater China, such as Hong Kong (e.g. Pang and Penfold, 2010; Crowell, 2008). As described by Pang and Penfold (201, p.15), learning at all school levels under such culture is "dominated by knowledge acquisition rather than creative and critical thinking, on memorization rather than application and evaluation, on passive, teacher-centered learning rather than active, student-centered learning".

This study aims to transform the current learning culture by using formative assessment to support students' learning. Formative assessment takes two major forms. One is the feedback provided by external parties about students' performance at mid-semester, referred as "feedforward feedback" in this study. The other takes a diagnostic form, which enables students and others to rethink their own learning through engaging in discussion with others – we refer to this as "dialogic feedback".

The following research questions guide the study:

1.   Can formative feedback approaches be used in typical academic writing courses to support students' learning at sub-degree level in Hong Kong, in a time-efficient manner?

2.   What is students' preferred feedback approach? Summative and feedforward feedback in the individual-based assessment, or the dialogic feedback in the group-based assessment? -

3.   Among different assessment tasks, which one is the most important for students' overall perception of the assessment methods of the course?

2.0   Course and participants

The course chosen for this study is a 13-week sub-degree academic writing course in Hong Kong. It adopts summative assessment for all the five academic tasks before this study. That is, feedback about students' performance is provided at the end of the semester. In this study, formative feedback approach is adopted to enhance students' learning. Details are shown in the following table (Table 1).

Table 1: Description of the assessment tasks in the course and the feedback approaches adopted in this study.

Task (contribution)	Description	Feedback approach adopted in this study*
1. Critique of a newspaper editorial – 15%	Prepare a 600-word critical thinking evaluation of a newspaper editorial.	Summative
2. A university personal statement – 15%	Prepare a 600-word essay about why students want to study a particular programme at a university.	Formative (feedforward)
3. End-of-term test – 30%	Complete a test that covers a range of topics in the course.	Summative
4. Group project (book review) – 30%	Conduct an oral presentation.	Summative
	Prepare a written report after the presentation.	Formative (Dialogic)
5. Participation – 10%	Actively participate in the class throughout the course.	Summative

- Note: before this study, only summative feedback is delivered at the end of the semester and is often accompanied with grades or marks.

As shown in the above table, the first three items are individual-based assessment tasks. Task 1 and Task 2 are take-home assignments while Task 3 is a timed essay which held at the end of the semester (Task 3). Students are also required to work in a group of four or five and conduct a book review in the form of an oral presentation and a written report (Task 4).

Finally, students are expected to actively prepare for the class, and engage in discussion throughout the semester. Their participation was graded, and contributed to the overall marks for the course (Task 5).

A total of 155 students in 4 classes active during the course in semester 2 of 2013-14 agreed to take part in this study. I am their teacher and they came from the same Health Studies programme in a community college in Hong Kong. Most of them received passive and teacher-dominated learning in secondary schools. Their reading and written Chinese academic writing levels were quite low, but most of them had excellent oral skills when expressing themselves. At the end of the semester, 118 responses were collected (response rate: 76.1%).

3.0 Using formative feedback approaches in academic writing classes

Apart from summative assessment, formative assessment at community colleges is also in place to support students' learning. Some HE teachers may ask students to prepare assignment drafts, so that the feedback received on the drafts may "feedforward" to the work at the next stage. In this study, I have made use of two consecutive tasks (i.e. Task 1 and Task 2) that are similar in nature. As these tasks use the same rubric (Table 2), the feedback that students received in the previous task clarifies the task requirements and improves their subsequent performance (Careless, 2013). That is, the information from summative assessments (Task 1) is used formatively when students use it to guide their effort and activities in the subsequent task (Task 2).

Table 2: Components of the rubric used for Task 1 and Task 2.

Items (% contribution)	Description
1. Content development and organization – 40%	Content is relevant and effective with concrete, appropriate supporting evidence and details.
2. Cohesion and Coherence – 30%	Coherent and convincing to reader; uses transitional devices/ referential ties/logical connectors to create an appropriate style.
3. Sentence structure – 20%	Mostly error-free; frequent success in using language to stylistic advantage; idiomatic syntax.
4. Mechanical aspects – 10%	Meaning clear; sophisticated range, variety; appropriate choices of vocabulary representing the right tones. Uses mechanical devices for stylistic purposes.

However, Nicol (2010) is critical of mere reliance on teachers to provide feedforward feedback in learning since this actually "ignores the active role of the learner and the ubiquity of inner feedback processes" (p. 34). He believes that effective feedback should be dialogic, in which feedback is formed by by engaging students in dialogue with adults or more proficient learners. The concept of "dialogic feedback" originates from the concept of scaffolding proposed by Vygotsky in 1978. According to Vygotsky (1978), scaffolding refers to an active engagement process in which a less proficient learner can achieve a task with the help of the others. Vygotsky (1978) said that such task is designed within the "Zone of Proximity Development" (ZPD). Precisely, ZPD refers to the difference between what a learner can do without help and what he or she can do with help. After scaffolding, students eventually develop their skills and knowledge and they are able to perform tasks independently. Their ZPD is said to be extended, meaning that students can perform more challenging tasks independently.

In Hong Kong, scaffolding is a common form of support provided to students in many colleges and institutions. Teachers assign certain consultation hours every week during the semester to discuss with students' areas of improvement in their academic writing. After hearing students' concerns, teachers provide tailored and individualized dialogic feedback to clarify the questions that students may have or elaborate relevant concepts, with an aim to assist students to achieve the task which is currently beyond their current capabilities (Rassaei, 2014).

In this study, dialogic feedback is adopted for Task 4, which involves two stages. First, students work in a group of four or five and evaluate a book in an oral presentation lasting about 15-20 minutes. They are then invited to evaluate their performance with me in a meeting. Advice is given to students in order to assist them in completing the book review, while I also invite them to share their perspectives with each other. As the rubrics to assess their oral presentation and written review have the following items in common, it is hope that the feedback that formed in the meeting could help improve their performance in the next phase (i.e. the written review). The common assessment items of the presentation and the book reviews are[1]:

- Content development and organization – 40%
- Cohesion and coherence – 30%
- The mechanical aspect of writing (e.g. punctuation marks, formation of words) – 10%

4.0   Data collection and analysis

At the beginning of the semester, I explain to students the purposes of the study, the data collection procedure, as well as study participants' rights. Students who are interested in joining the study needed to sign a consent form. After this, the study formally starts. Different feedback practices are conducted for assessment tasks, and, at the end of the semester, students are invited to complete a questionnaire stating their perception of the feedback practices that were used in the task and the overall course assessment.

The survey consists of three parts. Part 1 includes one question asking students to identify their preferred learning approach. Part 2, Part 3 and Part 4 are about students' perception of the feedback approach of their group-based assessment tasks, individual-based assessment tasks and end-of-term test respectively. Part 5 is about the overall perception of the feedback approach in the course.

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1 *The oral presentation includes an item called "Openings and endings" which contributes 20% of the overall grade. Students need to start with an ice-breaking activity which could successfully draw the attention of their fellow students; the ending recaptures the audience's attention and gets them to focus and remember the key points that connect with the topic of the presentation. The written review does not have this item. Rather, it includes an item called "Introduction and conclusion" (20%). The introduction states the writing purpose, outlines the flow, and reiterates the main points of the essay, while the conclusion summarizes all the points that were previously mentioned in the task.*

To avoid the conflicts that arise from the dual roles (teacher and researcher) that I performed in this study, I left the classroom at the time that consent forms and questionnaires were collected. A colleague who was not involved in this study was invited to collect the signed forms for me. She also helped me conduct the survey exercise at the end of the semester and kept all materials (the consent forms and questionnaires) in a locker until I finished marking. By doing so, I did not know who joined the study or not. The following table shows the major teaching and research activities of this study during the semester.

Table 3: Description of the major teaching and research activities of this study.

Week	Teaching activity	Feedback approach	Research activity
1-2	Providing and explaining the overall course details (e.g. course outcomes, task rubrics) to students.	/	Seeking informed consent.
3-4	Teaching the relevant writing knowledge and skills for Task 1.	/	/
5-6	Teaching the relevant skills and knowledge needed for the book review (Task 4). Submission of Task 1	/	/
7	Reviewing performance of Task 1. Teaching the relevant writing knowledge and skills for Task 2.	Feedforward feedback (Task 1) provided by teachers during consultation hours.	/
8-9	Conduct oral presentation (Task 4)	/	/
10-12	Teaching the relevant skills and knowledge needed for the end-of-term test (Task 3). Submit written book review (Task 4). Submission of Task 2,	Dialogic feedback (Task 4) provided by the teacher.	/
13	End-of-term test.		Conducting the survey exercise.
(N/A)	Returning the marked assignments or tests (Task 1-3) to students about three months after the end of the test.		

5.0 Results

We have already discussed how feedforward feedback and dialogic feedback as formative feedback approaches are designed in a typical academic writing sub-degree course in Hong Kong (Section 3.0). Research question 1 is therefore addressed.

Research question 2 is about students' preferred feedback approach. In the survey, the first question is "what do you prefer?". It was a straightforward question with five options given, namely, "Individual learning", "Group learning", "Individual and group learning", "None" and "Others (please specify)". Survey data reported that a significant portion of the population preferred individual learning (67%) to group learning (33%). No other options were chosen.

This result is consistent with the second survey question, which is about students' perception of group-based and individual-based assessment. The data is reported in Table 5.1.

Table 4: The mean score of students' perception of the survey (Part 2-Part 5).

Survey (N = 118)	M
Part 2: The feedback approach of Task 4 (group-based assessment)	3.56
Part 3: The feedback approach of Task 2 (individual-based assessment)	3.84
Part 4: The feedback approach of Task 3 (End-of-term test)	3.63
Part 5: Overall perception of the feedback in the course	3.67

As shown above, students are generally positive about the feedback approaches employed (all above 3.5 out of 5). Part 3 has the highest mean score (3.84 over 5) compared with the other parts of the survey, and a significant difference ($p = 0.00$) is reported on students' perception of different feedback approaches. This shows that students in the current study prefer individual-based rather than group-based assessment. The second research question is therefore addressed.

To answer the last research question, the multiple linear regression model is used to find out the relationship between students' perception on a particular feedback approach and their perception of the overall assessment methods in the course. A significant difference was found in the end-of-term assessment task ($p = 0.000$). It was found that the end-of-term test has a very strong association with students' perception of the overall course assessment tasks.

6.0 Discussion and recommendations

From my observation, learning in Hong Kong is still strongly influenced by the Confucianism, with most of the Higher Education teachers dominate the lectures. Their feedback about the level of students' academic writing performance is often provided at the end of the course. Sadler (1989, p. 121) criticizes that it is not "feedback" but merely "dangling data." that would not trigger any actions for improvement. This study aims to transform this culture by using feedforward feedback and dialogic feedback in a typical sub-degree academic writing course in a Hong Kong community college.

Previous studies show that most students have a strong desire to receive feedforward feedback before assignment submission (e.g. Beaumont, O'Doherty and Shannon et. al., 2011). The same is true for the current study. From my observation, students were very excited to discuss their task performance with me. However, their enthusiasm is not reflected in our survey. A very strong association between students' perception of the end-of-term test and that of the overall course assessment tasks. While the test used summative feedback without providing opportunities for learners to move forward in learning, we may need to identify potential problems of both feedforward and dialogic feedback. That may give us some clues when we design our formative feedback approach to support learning.

We will now start our discussion on the effectiveness of feedforward feedback. Academic tasks are often complex involving different aspects (e.g. Gibbs, 2006; Hounsell et al., 2008) in HE, and teachers may find it challenging to provide effective feedback to suit students' needs. Even if teachers can provide continuous feedback, students may not prefer to receive feedback on retrospective performance as this could be socially and emotionally challenging for them (Wallis, 2017). Below is what a student of Wallis' studying at a university in the UK says about how she feels about having meetings with tutors in evaluating her task performance:

"Even if you know you should, and it'll be good for you. You don't want to always face the music!" (Wallis, 2017, p. 4)

From this comment, it is clear that Wallis' student knows that the tutor's comments could be useful, even though she would rather avoid this in order not to "face the music" (Wallis, 2017, p.4). To address this issue, some teachers may engage students in discussion in evaluating their performance. That is dialogic feedback, a two-way communication process that the teachers do not instruct students on what they should do. Rather, they give advice about further action for performance after listening to their concerns. Learning with such individualized and tailored feedback did not force students to "face the music", and seems to be ideal to support active learning.

On the other hand, some researchers adopt peer dialogic feedback to engage students in discussion on their assignments with their fellow students (i.e. group work). Although having more interactions are useful to trigger reflection of individual student, it may also involve too much time for students to convince the others about their viewpoints. Apart from that, the assessment of group work could also be complicated. A 'free-rider', for example, might receive a high grade despite having made very little input to the group work. As a result of this, other group members may find it unfair to perform group work. With these two reasons, it may result in the perception that individual learning is more preferable.

Yang and Carless (2013) conclude the effect of feedback in a typical classroom, no matter whether it is feedforward or dialogic, is the result of the interplay of a number of contextual factors. These factors — such as whether teachers could provide effective feedback for every student on complex academic tasks, and whether students think it is worth spending time to coordinate discussion with others—are often regarded as the main barriers to the enhancement of feedback processes. Teachers may consider thinking about these issues carefully when they plan their feedback approach.

For example, to address the issue of discussion being time-intensive, teachers may ask students to evaluate their fellow classmates' performance without having face-to-face discussion with the others. Previous studies showed that students enjoy this reviewing experience and they could learn by reviewing (e.g. Cho and MacArthur, 2011; Greenberg, 2015; Lundstrom and Baker, 2009). That experience motivates students to reflect upon their work without spending time in coordination, and without facing the music.

To those who still prefer having group work, I suggest that teachers consider evaluating group work by making use of modern digital communication technology. Students may conduct discussions on online platforms, which provide important evidence of everyone's contribution. Such technological tools could help to evaluate every member's efforts in the event of intra-group quarrelling.

7.0 Conclusion and limitations

In this study, I report preliminary findings on students' perception of feedback approaches (summative feedback, feedforward feedback and dialogic feedback) and their preferences with regards to learning methods in a sub-degree academic writing course in Hong Kong.

I found that perception of individual-based assessment scored the highest, with significant difference found among all assessment types. This is also consistent with the result of the first survey question, with 67% of the population preferring individual

learning rather than group learning (37%). A possible explanation is that students may not want to spend the time needed to coordinate group work, or they may not want to be unfairly marked in group work, elements that are not present in individual work.

To deal with these issues, the use of online platforms for group discussion is recommended as they provide a record of each student's contribution. That could be useful if quarrelling arises in the group. However, in the long run, the study suggests that in deciding which feedback approach to be used, teachers need to be considered the coordination issues that are associated with group work, in order to work towards making it become acceptable to most students.

Finally, I found that the strongest association was between the end-of-term test and students' perception of the overall course assessment. As Wallis (2017) explained, students may not want to face feedback on work that they had already submitted which could be both socially and emotionally challenging. In such cases, it is recommended to use strategies that encourage self-reflection. Engaging students in evaluating their fellow students' task performance is an example for consideration.

Two limitations need to be noted. This study did not include a control group and it could be argued that the results are caused by other contextual factors, which were not identified in this study. For example, students might not like to read the books they were assigned and as a result, they might choose individual learning as their preferred learning method. In addition, the questionnaire was this study's only instrument for data collection. Without the triangulation of data, its results need to be interpreted with caution.

Acknowledgements

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從學生的角度看回饋、前饋與對談的效能

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摘要

本文是一個副學士語言課程的實証研究，透過學期末問卷調查和施教者的觀察與反思，了解副學士學生對不同學習評核方法的反饋。課程有 155 名學生參與，研究收回 118 份學生問卷意見，結果顯示：（1）大部分副學士學生表示較喜歡個人學習多於小組學習的評核；（2）個人評核的項目獲得較高的觀感評分，顯示這種學習經驗為學生帶來較大的滿足感；（3）期末測驗的觀感與課程整體觀感有很大的相關性。研究結果背後的意義和研究限制均在文內詳細分析。

關鍵詞

促進學習的回饋、結果式回饋、對話式回饋、學生觀感、正誤回饋

香港生命教育的實踐：一所小學推行生死教育的經驗

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佛教林炳炎紀念學校

摘要

生命教育及其相關領域，近年在香港中小學界，日益受到重視；另一方面，因各種原因，這兩三年學童自殺的個案有所上升，亦引起大家關注。我們喜見有學校嘗試探討生命教育一個比較困難的範疇：生死教育的課題。本文透過兩位學者與四位佛教小學老師的合作，闡述這所佛教小學推行生死教育的概念、起動、課程設計、同工對校本生死教育課程的反思，並作出相關的分析與討論。

關鍵詞

香港生死教育，香港生死教育的實踐，生死教育的課程

前言：生命教育與生死教育

　　中華傳統文化一向尊重生命，愛護生命，以人的生命為最高的價值；早在兩三千年前，古代聖賢堯曾問舜曰：「天下孰最貴？」舜曰：「生最貴。」這兩聖人的對話表明中國人自古以來便重視生命的傳統文化。在當代，有關生命教育的內涵，台灣學者張淑美（2006）認為要「著重在從人的生命本質與關係來擴展存在的意義，以及歸宗於向上向善的教育目的與宗旨，以協助個體發展潛能，使能適應與發展於社會環境之中」（頁 10）。而據台灣教育部生命教育資訊網，生命教育涵蓋的內容既深且廣，「從人出生來到這世上，到最後走完生命歷程、面對死亡議題；只要在生與死這兩點間，如何找到自己的價值定位、如何與他人相處、如何尊重關懷有情萬物、如何安身立命並找到方法，都屬於生命教育的範疇」（教育部，2012）。

　　香港社會並不像台灣那般重視生命教育，作為一個東西文化交融的國際都會，香港社會價值既矛盾又多元的，加上競爭激烈、急速轉變、崇尚自由和傳媒發達等因素，課程發展議會在世紀初的課程改革起動時便定位以德育及公民教育涵蓋在學校推行各相關教育，並建議「學校以宏觀的角度理解德育及公民教育，將各種與培育學生價值觀有關的課題涵蓋在德育及公民教育之內；並明確德育及公民教育必須以學習者為中心，透過與學生日常生活有關的事件，提供機會讓學生建立及反思自己的價值觀和態度」（課程發展議會，2001，頁 75）。在這個德育和公民教育的大課程框架內，有些香港學校沿著華人重視生命的傳統，以生命教育形式去推行校本的德育和公民教育。據張素玲和巴兆成（2007）的資料，天水圍十八鄉鄉事委員會公益社中學早於 1996 年便推行校本生命教育課程的探索；其後，天主教教育委員會於 1999 年亦推出了愛與生命教育系列。香港中文大學宗教系於 1999-2001 年獲優質教育基金資助，推行「宗教與人生：優質生命教育的追尋」計劃，是大學界別首個以生命教育為題的項目（本文作者之一何榮漢獲聘為該計劃人員）。

　　在這個世紀，文林出版社分別出版初中生命教育課程《生命是一棵雜果樹》和小學生命成長課程《成長列車》，香港浸會大學於 2001 年推出的小學生活倫理教育研究計劃，復和綜合服務中心於 2002 年推出的生命挑戰教育；與此同時，循道衛理聯合教會學校教育部在屬下中小學於 2004 年開始推行生命教育發展計劃，並聘何榮漢獲為該計劃幹事。其後，「2008 年基督教香港信義會的生命天使教育中心還

開展了專門針對小學生的愛自己、抗壓力和積極生命三個系列專題教育」（李焱林，2013，頁82）；而香港中文大學崇基學院亦於2009年成立優質生命教育中心。可見，生命教育在香港是得到不少團體的支持及推動。在課程方面，教育局則提出以認識生命、愛惜生命、尊重生命和探索生命等四個學習層次，去培育學生的德育和公民教育。據課程發展處網站資料，「學校推行生命教育，首要幫助學生建立正面的價值觀及積極的人生態度，讓他們在面對不同的處境時懂得如何處理相關的情緒；亦要提高學生的解難能力，幫助他們學習如何走出逆境；並引導學生探索和思考生命的意義，從而過一個快樂、充實和有意義的人生」（教育局，2012）。

香港生死教育發展的情況

華人學者詹棟樑（2004）指出「生命是無價的，人死不能復生，所以每個人都應熱愛生命，把生命看成人間至愛、不放棄、不割捨、不偷生，完整的保護生命」（頁231）；在香港不少人會經常面對壓力的困擾，當壓力轉換成負面情緒時，個人身心及生活容易受到影響，並有自毀的傾向；為了服務相關群體的需要，香港撒瑪利亞防止自殺會於2002年獲得香港賽馬會慈善信託基金520萬贊助，成立生命教育中心致力於向社會推廣預防自殺及珍惜生命的信息，並在社區和學校開展含生死元素的生命教育，按該會資料這是香港首個中心專門處理自殺和尋死的預防。因各種原因，於2015年9月至2016年6月期間有35位學童自殺，相關個案上升使香港各界再度關注學童自殺及生命教育；該生命教育中心亦因此開展為期三年的賽馬會生命偶遇資源計劃，「計劃包括為家長及教師提供支援，一方面透過小組訓練讓家長了解自己的育兒方式對子女的影響及提昇與子女溝通的能力；另一方面，亦透過專業培訓提昇教師應對學生自殺困擾的能力」（香港撒瑪利亞防止自殺會生命教育中心）。

在學校方面，香港不少學校推行生命教育時結合日常的生活，讓學生明白珍惜生命的重要性。當中學界公認推行生命教育比較困難的範疇是生死教育，很多學校在推行生命教育時不知不覺間迴避了死亡教育，其中一個例外是香港神託會培敦中學。該校在推動生命教育的卓越表現，常獲香港教育大學「協助中小學規劃生命教育計劃」邀請作專業分享；在相關專業分享中有生死教育的元素，「該校梁校長曾分享一個個案是該校早年組織學生參加因病離世老師的追悼會，借此對學生進行生

死教育」（香港教育大學宗教教育與心靈教育中心，2016）。同時據內地學者的文獻，該校亦曾因「某個教師的愛子去世，全校組織師生關懷大行動，培養學生互助互愛的精神」（李欣，2009，頁 33）。敢於在校內推動生死教育的，該校在香港學界是公認的表表者。該校提供機會讓學生分享對死亡的看法，用意是在生死教育的學習中，讓學生反思自己對生命的看法，從而使學生更懂得珍惜生活和尊重人的生命；正如張淑美（2001）指出「死亡本即伴隨生命而存在，討論死即是在思考生」。

教育局自 2010-11 學年委託大學機構承辦「協助小學規劃生命教育計劃」及「協助中學規劃生命教育計劃」，香港教育大學宗教教育與心靈教育中心連續獲委託承辦小學計劃，並自 2014-15 年的第四屆同時亦獲委託承辦中學計劃。「協助中、小學規劃生命教育計劃」每年均為參與學校的受訓學員組織培訓課程、到境外交流考察、提供校本支援和建立學習社群；下表是該計劃於 2016-17 年度培訓課程的安排。而為了讓讀者了解香港學校推行生死教育的實踐，本文選取一所參加這計劃的佛教小學作個案分享，透過兩位相關學者與四位佛教小學老師的合作，闡述這所佛教小學推行生死教育的概念、起動、課程設計、同工對校本生死教育課程的反思，並作出相關的分析與討論。

表：協助小學規劃生命教育計劃（2016-17）課程

生命教育的內涵及開展模式
生命教育的學與教，包括：課程統整及規劃、教學策略、教學資源分享、評估等
生命教育與校風及學生支援，包括：班級經營、照顧差異、宗教／文化氛圍建構等
生命教育的管理與組織，包括：計劃擬定、執行及評鑑、團隊組建及管理
生命教育行動方案的構思
台灣生命教育課程領導專題講座
台灣生命教育領導學校參訪，學習課程規劃、教學策略及方法、校風學生支援措施等
台灣生命教育資源分享／生命教育機構參訪
專業生命教育團隊到校進行 3 次支援，幫助學校規劃及落實生命教育計劃
教師群組活動（中期分享會／總結分享會）

一所佛教小學生死教育的起動

　　香港佛教學校的校訓是「無緣大慈，同體大悲」，「大慈」要讓所有的人快樂，「大悲」要去除所有人的痛苦；其意義是人人都要相親相愛，人類生存於同一個地球要有同呼吸和共命運的想法。為了讓佛教學校同學認識生命教育，佛教學校多年前便提倡佛化生命教育，正如有佛教信仰學者李焯芬（2008）認為「發展佛化生命教育課程，將佛教教育和生命教育兩者融合，協助青少年培養正面的價值觀和人生觀，可説是全球生命教育的偉大事業，也為香港的佛教中小學課程注入了新的元素」（頁 3）。香港佛教大德演慈法師（2011）在《人間佛法答問》中亦指出「佛教是個古老的宗教，但佛法的哲理卻超越時空，適合任何時代的人類的需要；現代人知識普遍提高，我執愈來愈重，自我的體認反而模糊，煩惱愈來愈多。佛教示人明心見性，就是教人清楚認識自己的內心，掌握人生的方向，改變生命」（頁 6）。明白佛教理念的，都會認同上述一段話，知道佛教理念推廣，有益於人對自己生命的成長。有關人生命的存在，佛教有人生八苦：生、老、病、死與愛別離、怨憎會、求不得和五蘊熾盛的論述；當中的死，是最大的苦，也是不少常人忌諱的事。

　　佛教對人解脱生死提出三種可行方法，分別是四諦、十二因緣和六度，「四諦是一種『依苦尋因，慕滅修道』的解脱法，十二因緣是一種『推因知果，觀果斷因』的解脱法，而六度則是一種『自利利他，攝末歸本』的解脱法」（熊丹、潘倩，2010，頁 34）。在漢傳佛教的八大宗派內，如淨土派、禪宗、密宗和天台宗等派皆重視修行之學，對其修行方式都有其説法；「儘管在整個佛法中的解脱生死之方，有著各種流派和法門，修行的方法次弟和論理模式各有特色，但還是有一個共同的核心問題，那就是破除我執才能真正徹底的解脱生死之苦」（王興黔，2009，頁 17）。可見直面生死、超越生死是佛教的理念之一；與佛教信眾和學生談論死亡，其意義是學習正面地思考死亡，並懂得尊重生命和善用生命。「死亡教育所涉及的是一個有關生命的課程，關係到一個人如何看待親人的離去以及處理自己哀傷情緒；死亡教育是雙向的探討，是關於生命完整性的探討。沒有這樣的探討，我們不能對生有更好的展開」（沈慧，2016，頁 33）。而內地學者鄭曉江（2009）亦曾指出「人的生命是不可重複的、不可讓渡的、是會死的；人生命的存活是唯一的」（頁 15）。只有讓學生從認識什麼是死亡，反思和理解到生命的寶貴，並學會懂得珍惜自己和愛護別人的生命；這也是生命教育的核心內容之一。

校本生死教育課程的設計

　　佛教林炳炎紀念學校曾於 2012/13 年度參加第二屆「協助小學規劃生命教育計劃」，透過參與「協助小學規劃生命教育計劃」，該校已在初小以不同生命教育主題推動生命教育的發展（佛教林炳炎紀念學校，2013），到 2014 年在思考高小的生命教育主題時，該校參加了「融入全球倫理於學校教育」計劃；該計劃邀請學校提出與全球倫理相關的校本主題，而在本文各作者的小組訪談時，有學校同工表示在參與該計劃時已經想到「死」的議題的必要性，故選取了學習主題「從死思生」作為試行校本課程。劉君利、張永超（2017）提出「生死事大，並不因為民俗忌諱，我們就可以回避生死問題，對每個人來說從終極意義上講，生死具有必然性而且不可替代。」該校於 2015 年初在五年級實驗這個校本生命教育課程；在該課堂透過閱讀消防員捨己救人的案例，並透過悼念亡者儀式了解到人雖離世，但憑著善良的內心仍會令在世的人對其思念。該計劃並引入中英劇團戲劇教育的專業支援，經歷半年的生死教育試驗，該校當年亦成功舉辦了「生命循環」佛誕劇；與此同時，正如該校在佛聯會訊的分享「在認識死亡方面，學生在觀賞動畫《媽媽的臉》前，認為死亡是痛苦的，但老師播放此動畫給學校觀賞後，他們改變了看法，並學懂如何正確面對親人離去的痛苦和死亡，以及反思人生的意義」（頁 7），從上述資料可知，該校同工看到引領學生認識死亡對學生的積極意義，並思考將這個校本生死教育課程試驗進一步深化。

　　回想推行校本生死教育的歷程，一位同工提出有些小學生是有接觸死亡話題的。「上了小學的孩子，他們已經具備一定的獨立性，和成年人一樣有悲傷的情緒，會思考，會判斷，什麼是死亡？死亡是什麼？」（家教指南，頁 37），在 2016/17 年度，該校再參加香港教育大學宗教教育與心靈教育中心承辦的第六屆「協助小學規劃生命教育計劃」，嘗試整合佛化教育和生死教育的經驗，結合引入繪本教學，調適「全球倫理」計劃開發的「從死思生」單元，深化校本生命教育的規劃，並將生死教育成為五年級生命教育的分級主題。在這學年之初，適逢香港話劇團推展《活著真好》生命教育劇場的教學活動，該校於 2016 年 11 月為五年級學生安排這次生命教育劇場，亦作為生死教育主題單元的引子；然後在 2017 年 3 月期間，透過「協助小學規劃生命教育計劃」導師專業支援進行跨學科的生死教育（附件一：第六屆協小計劃佛教林炳炎紀念學校試行單元大綱），各科具體內容包括：

- 佛學科教學：教授悉達多太子遊四門的事跡，認識人生的生老病死

- 生命教育組與德育及公民教育科組：在禮堂佈置生老病死四門，讓學生仿傚悉達多太子親歷遊四門一次，然後學生自製繪本表達對生老病死的想像和感受

- 常識科：「全球倫理」計劃開發的「從死思生」單元

在佛學科課堂中，為了讓學生體驗悉達多太子遊生老病死四門的事跡，團隊把禮堂佈置成為遊四門的場景，讓五年級同學進入情景體會聖人事跡，加上精心佈置場景和加上合適的佛曲，使學生經歷一個充滿佛教文化的體驗學習。與此同時，生命教育組同工考慮到 8 格繪本的篇幅限制，如果要求學生都畫生老病死畫面會較困難，因此安排每位學生只做其中一個主題：生、老、病或死，並承接遊四門體驗後讓學生在堂上構思和起稿，然後提供足夠時間在課餘完成相關的繪本。正如蔣秋紅（2017）指出「繪本故事是孩子樂於接受的一種文學形式，也是老師能充分利用的教學手段」，在常識科「從死思生」單元教學中 (附件二：佛教林炳炎紀念學校從死思生單元教學)，教師在課堂上向讓同學提問清明節、佛誕這些公眾假期聯想什麼？思考他們觀察到人們是怎樣渡過的？當中讓學生明白「慎終思遠」的中華傳統文化，由對老一輩亡者的思念，再引入英勇消防員捨生救人的事蹟，然後進行佛教的「往生咒」活動，期令亡者早日離苦得樂。

與此同時，該校五年級老師在「從死思生」單元的課堂教學中引入「彩虹的人生」理念，在課上簡短講解佛祖釋迦牟尼的一生，並把人生分為六個階段，然後啟發學生思考如何活出自己「彩虹的人生」，並請同學將人生分成六個階段：小時候、小學、中學、成年、老年和離世，以圖畫演繹自己人生六個階段。而為了讓學生有機會展示人生四苦的自製繪本，該校生命教育團隊於 2017 年 5 月 19 日在禮堂把選出學生的生、老、病、死繪本製成展板，以類似遊四門的方式讓學生看展板並由創作學生介紹，以重演繪本製作的遊四門作為這個生死教育學習的總結（附件三：學生繪本生老病死的 8 格樣本作品）；從繪本樣本中見到這幾個學生表達了自己對生老病死等人生議題的看法，可見這校相關的生死教育教學有一定成效。

同工對校本生死教育課程的反思

　　「要改變人們傳統的死亡觀念認為討論死亡是不吉利的，或是死亡問題對於青少年是過於沉重的話題」（丁璐，杜學元，2009）。在佛教的理念中，有生必有死，生死輪迴是生命流轉的常態，怎樣讓佛教學校同學明白死亡的意義？是有佛教信仰老師的教學疑難。正如內地學者孫祿（2015）認為「要敢於直面死亡，死亡並不是人生的最終點，它滲透在生命的整個過程之中，人的肉體死亡時其實是另一輪生命獲得新生的開始，這是一個不斷相續的過程」（頁16）。吸收以往生死教育的教學經驗，教師團隊在教案中提示同工在進行佛教「往生咒」的教學時要會說明誦持此咒時，阿彌陀佛會在其頭上護持使亡者可離苦得樂，並接引其入西方淨土。課堂設計了播放「往生咒」分半鐘讓學生可為英勇消防員進行默哀，並思想他的英勇事跡。因應校內有其他宗教信仰的同學，集體備課時亦重申同工教學時需說明其他宗教信仰同學，可信仰在播放佛教的往生咒時，不念誦而為消防員進行默哀或祈禱以表示敬意，而不必跟從有佛教信仰師生進行持咒活動。

　　「課堂觀察中，小學生對死亡有很多我們成年人意想不到的念頭，與其讓同學腦袋裏的想法如野馬脫韁，倒不如由教師百川歸海，加以適當引導，帶領同學及早步入正向人生之路」（教師感言）。在小組訪談中，一團隊成員分享重申在小學階段進行生死教育對小學生是有需要和意義的。正如內地學者羅蕊（2009）認為「為了避免生命力的衰弱、生命之光的暗淡，樹立超越死亡的信念，珍惜生活的每一天，勤勤懇懇地渡過自己的有生之年，實現自身最大的價值，畫出輝煌的生命之圖」（頁274）。為了讓小五學生可正面思考如何面對死亡，該校同工吸收過往經驗，在「從死思生」工作紙中新增了一個「人生最後的三小時」的學習活動，讓學生思考死前最需要處理的事情。與此同時，因應有些學生親人有離世的可能性，團隊在教案中提示老師教學前須留意班內同學家人有沒有類似的經歷，在課堂講解消防員死之方式、用辭內容要小心處理；如發現個別同學有任何異常反應，授課教師要向其瞭解或於課後轉介輔導人員跟進。

　　「今年的生死教育課題中，同工總結了以往的經驗，不但滲入了佛化教育的元素，如太子遊四門、輪迴等，還加入了學生製作繪本這一環」（教師感言）。正如上文佛教學者李焯芬所言，有校內同工一直有意將生死教育和佛教教育結合。另一教

師則指「中國人忌諱談論死亡，推行此活動前曾擔心學生反應，可是製作繪本時出現令人意想不到的情況 － 很多學生都想負責製作以死為主題的繪本，表示學生能在佛家四苦中找到積極的態度，懂得活在當下」（教學感言）。令該校教師欣慰的是，經過生死教育的學習後，小五學生不怕談論死亡，有同學更爭取選取「死」作為繪本主題，勇於在繪本中表達自己對死亡的看法。與此同時，有一位教師在感言中卻側重於體驗學習，她認為「參與互動劇場，親身經歷現代版遊四門，讓學生體會及深思人生短暫，又是無常，但卻要活得積極」（教學感言）。小五學生二次遊生老病死四門的親身體驗，感受到生老病死的人生變幻並感受到生命的無常，正如星雲大師（2008）認為「無常説明：好的會變壞，壞的也能轉好。例如：貧窮的人，只要努力工作、經營，也有致富的可能；人事不和諧，只要肯與人為善，廣結善緣，自能贏得友誼」（頁70）。而可貴的是，在有裝備的老師們帶領下，不少小五學生在工作紙中以積極態度去面對人生四苦，並樂於在當下活得精彩。這反映佛教林炳炎紀念學校近年所推行校本生死教育是有成效的。

討論與前瞻

今年9月10日世界防止自殺日，香港大學香港賽馬會防止自殺研究中心公布「2016年15至24歲青少年自殺率為9.5人，全日制學生自殺率為8.1人，比4年前升76.1%，與同齡組別青少年的自殺率差距逐漸收窄至2.6人，反映學校保護屏障功能減弱」（香港經濟日報，2018）。在學童自殺個案上升之際，加強學校的生命教育，培育中小學生認識死亡和積極面對人生逆境，已是不少香港學校同工的共識。眾所周知，在華人社會中安排小學生學習生死教育是不容易的；然而，正如內地學者易連云、鄒太龍（2015）認為「死亡教育能夠幫助人們澄清、培養、肯定生命中的基本目標與價值，通過死亡的必然性來反思生命的意義及其價值」（頁44）。在這個香港小學校本生死教育的個案中，發現小五學生在生死教育的學習中是能夠理解死亡，從佛學科體驗活動和常識科單元教學中認識到佛家生老病死的四苦，亦可了解到佛陀的人生和實踐佛教「往生咒」的活動，從而透過「彩色的人生」、8格繪本和「人生最後的三小時」的學習活動，去了解佛教理念和生死教育的意義，並對其人生和生活有積極的態度；這校生死教育的經驗是值得香港小學同工學習和參考的。

在這個校本生死教育的經驗累積，除了校內推行教師團隊的持續反思和修定教學設計外，佛教林炳炎紀念學校在短短幾年間，先後兩次引入香港教育大學宗教教育與心靈教育中心專家的支援，透過生命教育學者和前線教育同工的專業互動，這個跨學科的校本生死教育經驗得到延續和優化。在這生死教育的個案當中，有兩點是推行同工必須留意的。一是在與學生談論死亡時，可能會觸動個別學生不愉快的經驗，授課教師必須留意同學異常反應，並於課後轉介輔導人員作跟進。其次是作為一間佛教小學，在教學中引入佛教持咒活動時，要容許非佛教徒學生有另類選擇，並於事前作必要的提示。再者，在這個案不能不說的是學校生命教育的發展過程中，看到大學生命教育專家的介入和支援，促進了前線同工教學生命的成長；正如余曉敏，李春方，章勁元，郭曉麗，雷光輝（2014）「從教師角度入手探討教師生命教育的建構是整個生命教育的前提，應該關注教師的生命狀態和生命品質，從而實現以生命影響生命的教育目的」（頁 122）。最後，這個案採用了行動研究方式進行，當中幾位實踐者也是研究團隊的成員；雖然首席研究員並未有參與相關計劃和教學實踐，但因有教學實踐者的參與和反思，此文行文具一定程度的主觀性，請各讀者留意這實踐案例的限制。

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附錄一

16-17 年度協助小學規劃生命教育計劃
（本計劃由香港教育局委託香港教育大學宗教教育
與心靈教育中心承辦）

試行單元大綱

學校名稱：	佛教林炳炎紀念學校（香港佛教聯合會主辦）
施行年級：	五年級
試行形式：	繪本教學（天、人、我與自己的關係）
試行時段：	2016 年 11 月至 2017 年 5 月
前置輸入：	1. 2016 年 11 月 4 日，生命教育組老師安排學生參與香港話劇團《活著真好》生命教育劇場，內容有關生死教育（**知情**意行｜**起**承轉合）。
生命教育施教流程及繪本教學試行大綱：	1. 2017 年 3 月 3 日，生命教育組和佛學科老師舉行生命教育講座，讓學生觀賞短片《媽媽的轉變》及教導悉達多太子遊四門，體會四苦（生、老、病、死）的經歷。（**知情**意行｜**起**承轉合） 2. 2017 年 3 月 7 日至 10 日，協助小學規劃生命教育計劃導師到校支援，討論本單元的規劃，老師準備在禮堂設置兩套生、老、病、死內容的展板，營造悉達多太子遊四門的場景。 3. 2017 年 3 月 10 日下午 2:30-3:15，德育及公民教育科老師帶領學生到禮堂進行遊四門的經歷活動，生命教育組及佛學科老師向學生簡介展板內容，讓學生親身經歷現代版遊四門的情況（觀照）。回到課室後，把學生分為生、老、病、死小組，各人製作一本繪本，包括封面、封底及六頁內容。承接悉達多太子遊四門的教學，從課本知識，轉化成為學生親身體驗，再透過繪本創作，讓學生表達個人的體會和想法。（知**情意**行｜起**承轉**合）。 4. 2017 年 3 月 13 日至 17 日，常識科老師教授學生《從死思生》的內容。從節日及生日引起學生知道人生必定有生有死，反思自己怎樣才不枉此生。透過牛頭角迷你倉四級大火事件中，消防隊長張耀升先生殉職，以心意卡及默哀儀式對他的懷念及哀悼。利用佛陀生平的六個階段，引發學生思考及繪畫自己六個的彩虹人生。運用影片讓學生思考人生可長可短，反思如果自己的人生只有最後三小時，會怎樣度過，無悔一生。（**知情意行**｜起承**轉合**） 5. 2017 年 5 月 19 日，生命教育組及佛學科老師禮堂給予學生分享自我創作的《生》、《老》、《病》及《死》繪本，讓其他同學對人生有更多不同的領悟，作為整個單元的總結。

附錄二

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佛教林炳炎紀念學校
（香港佛教聯合會主辦）
2016-17 年度生命教育「生死教育」教案

「融入全球倫理於學校教育」計劃
（本計劃由香港教育大學宗教教育與心靈教育中心推行）

第二學習階段（小四至小六）教案
學習主題：從死思生

</div>

該教材收錄於曾家洛、馮智政（編）（2016）：學習主題：由死思生，全球倫理：品德與生命教育教材（小四至小六），香港教育大學宗教教育與心靈教育中心（等出版）。本教案是經過學校老師修訂及調適。

背景：

死亡，困擾人類每一個人，不分貴賤，無人能逃避，每人或多或少都有恐懼。日常生活中，我們可能遇到親戚朋友或遭逢不幸，死亡好像不只屬於老人，而是屬每個人也要面對的命運，是生命的一部分。生老病死這個生命過程下，若要死而無憾，應不在於其長短，而是在世的日子是否有其存在意義，無論這個意義是對自己，或是對他人，這個想法本身就是一個對人生的總結。本教案旨在「從死思生」，接納死亡為人生的一部分，鼓勵學生積極面對人生。

教學策略：

本教案主要基於以下理念設計：禮儀（Ritual）

透過閱讀有關高級消防隊長張耀升的事蹟，了解其捨己為人的精神，並透過悼念儀式，宣示一種崇高道德，了解一個人雖然離世，但是憑著善良的內心對待別人，留下的仍有寶貴思念和感情。

倫理原則：尊重生命

每個人的生命都是寶貴，值得被尊重，所有人均應享有平等對待及發展的機會。

價值觀：尊重生命

教學目標：

1. 讓同學不單以正面態度面對死亡，更能好好計劃整個人生。

2. 讓同學思考離開世界時，希望別人如何評價自己，從而努力與人好好相處。

教學程序（兩教節）：

時間	內容	附件
5 分鐘	**「生死的節日」：** 1. 老師可詢問同學，清明節及佛誕令同學聯想到甚麼？同學是怎樣渡過此節日？（自由作答） 2. 老師帶出在清明節掃墓時，紀念先人，並詢問同學有沒有留意旁邊的墓碑，是否所有人都是年老的人？（原來是有老有幼。不只是老人才會離開這個世界，原來，還有不少人在中年時已經離世。） 3. 老師繼續提問還有甚麼日子，是與生命有關？（生日） 4. 同學如何看自己的出世，對於自己的人生又是有何想法？（自由作答） 5. 老師指出生日是所有人來到這個世界的日子，對自己而言，是很重要的，亦希望好好和別人一起去好好慶祝。但是，同學在慶祝的同時，好好思考自己的人生，應該怎樣去過，才不枉此生？	簡報
25 分鐘	**悼念勇敢的高級消防隊長張耀升先生：** 1. 老師簡介高級消防隊長張耀升的事蹟。 2. 請同學觀看有關張耀升先生的報導，並按角色為他寫上心意卡，表示紀念。（請老師分配三個角色給予同學：政府官員 / 張耀升先生同事 / 普通市民） 3. 老師可引導同學這三個角色，去思考一個人人生如何活得有意義，應有的思考方向。 　(1) 政府官員：可從兩個層面出發，一方面他們可能為梁先生的上司，另一方面他們會面對公眾，表達一個公職人員殉職時，表達的情感。 　(2) 張先生同事：一起工作的同伴，有機會和他進入火場教人，和他一起較長時間生活的一班人。 　(3) 普通市民：主要訊息來自新聞報導，表示對消防員的衰悼。 4. 請老師以簡報，展示張先生照片。 5. 請老師播放有關新聞報導： 　(1) 牛頭角迷你倉大火蔓延至四樓： 　　http://news.now.com/home/local/player?newsId=183442 　(2) 張先生出殯報導： 　　http://news.now.com/home/local/player?newsId=186265 老師請邀請三位同學，分別讀出有關心意卡內容。	簡報 工作紙

	6. 同學宣讀後，請各位同學肅立一分半鐘左右，表示為這位消防員默哀。當中建議播放《往生咒》。https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=vwPEmhtQtHk 7. 請老師指示同學，肅立的意義，並強調應有之態度。 注意：在教授前，老師亦須留意班中同學，他們的家人及親友有沒有類似的背景經歷，請老師在進行該課節時，有關講解方式、用辭內容等，需要特別小心處理。如有任何異常，應向學生瞭解或與輔導人員或社工反映跟進。	
5 分鐘	**小結：** 讓同學了解，人活著的意義不在乎長短，而是有沒有善用自己的才幹，為社會作出貢獻。	
25 分鐘	**畫出彩虹的人生：** 1. 老師向每位同學派發工作紙。 2. 參考佛陀生平的例子，請同學將自己一生畫出來，讓同學自己一生分為六個階段，包括小時候、小學、中學、成年、老年和離世，並用圖畫演釋出來。 3. 同學完成後，老師可能選擇一些作品，作課堂上與同學討論及分享，並詢問同學對人生的看法。 4. 老師讓同學對自己未來的聯想，好好計畫自己的人生，自己由出生至離世，同時是確應存在的生命價值。生命是充滿希望和無限的可能，同學在這六格圖像對自己的未來已有展望，邀請同學不只是停留思考，希望能夠實踐自己今天的理想。 5. 老師收到有關內容後，亦可以在班內與各人討論，並鼓勵同學達成人生目標。建議老師可以選擇向同學提出以下問題： （1）你認為人活到多少歲方感滿足呢？ （2）你認為人一生中，需要完成甚麼東西，才能令自己稱心呢？ （3）離開世界前，你希望甚麼人在自己身邊相伴呢？	簡報 工作紙
5 分鐘	**總結：** 老師可選擇利用文化傳統部份作回應，說明人的生命是有限，或長或短，但最重要的是我們是否能夠努力地每一天，無悔一生。好好思考人生的方向和目標，達致美好人生，和每天有好的生活。	
延伸 活動	**人生最後的三小時：** 要檢討一生看似遙遠，反思自己的生命，可能很短，讓同學思考假設自己人生只有三小時，同學會做甚麼有意義的事情，以及原因何在。	延伸 工作紙

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16-17 年度生命教育「生死教育」

姓名：＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿（＿＿）　　　　班別：五年級＿＿＿＿＿＿＿班

「給張耀升先生的心意卡」

請同學觀看有關新聞報導短片後，代入以下角色：政府官員／張耀升先生同事／普通市民，請利用文字或圖像，完成心意卡，表達對張先生的感覺：

親愛的張耀升先生：

敬上

年　　　月　　　日

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「畫出彩虹的人生」- 工作紙

請將自己一生分為六個階段，同學可參考以下表達方式，包括小時候、小學、中學、成年、老年和離世，並用圖畫演繹出來。

1. 小時候：一個幾個月大的ＢＢ，在地上爬行。	2. 小學：在學校前拍攝畢業照。
3. 中學：取畢業證書，與家人合照	4. 成年：成為一家公司的負責人，有自己辦公室，對着電腦正在工作。
5. 老年：戴着老花眼鏡，手持拐杖，兒孫滿堂。	6. 離世：墓前，有一束鮮花，墓上面提了「珍惜生命」四個字。

佛教林炳炎紀念學校
（香港佛教聯合會主辦）
16-17 年度生命教育「生死教育」

姓名：_____（_____）　　　　　　班別：五年級_____班

《人生最後的三小時》

現在你距離死亡時間只有三小時，你會利用這些時間做甚麼呢？為甚麼？請以不少於 50 字，表達自己的想法。

The Practice of Life Education in Hong Kong: Experience on Life and Death Education in a primary school

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Abstract

Life education and its related fields have been paid more and more attention in Hong Kong's primary and secondary schools in recent years. On the other hand, the number of suicide cases in these years has also increased due to various reasons. We are pleased to see some schools trying to explore a more difficult area of life education: life and death education. Through the cooperation of two scholars and four Buddhist primary school teachers, this paper expounds the concepts, launching, curriculum design and co-workers' reflection of school life and death education curriculum in this Buddhist primary school, and makes relevant analysis and discussion.

Keywords

Life and Death Education in Hong Kong, Practice of Life and Death Education in Hong Kong, Curriculum design of Life and Death Education

在香港幼稚園推行 STEM （科學、科技、工程及數學）教育的挑戰之初探

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摘要

隨著二零一五年《施政報告》發佈，香港教育業界開始關注 STEM（科學、科技、工程及數學）教育；然而，業界的討論主要聚焦於中小學教育，尚未觸及幼稚園處境。事實上，數學與自然科學是本地幼兒教育不可或缺的學習範疇，個別辦學團體及幼稚園已試行 STEM 教育活動，以培育幼兒的探索與科學精神。為了探討 STEM 在香港學前教育的出路，本文將運用質性研究方式，以五位幼兒教育工作者的個案訪談為基礎，透視在本地幼稚園推行 STEM 教育活動時的挑戰，並探討當中給予業界的啟示。

關鍵詞

幼兒教育、STEM、學前教育

前言

　　為了回應特區政府於 2015 年發表的施政報告（香港特別行政區政府，2015），教育局（2015）於同年發佈教育政策文件《推動 STEM 教育：發揮創意潛能》，率先策劃本港中、小學發展 STEM（科學、科技、工程及數學）教育，期望業界培養學生的創造力、協作和解決問題能力，回應現今社會在經濟、科學及科技領域發展的需要。翌年，教育局分階段向全港小學及中學發放一筆過津貼（小學 10 萬元、中學 20 萬元），以加強支援學校推行 STEM 教育活動、增添 STEM 的學習資源、及更新現有課程等等（教育局，2016；教育局，2017a）。在教育局的支持下，香港中、小學近年積極以校本形式推行 STEM 教育，例如製作電池車、以虛擬實境技術教授科學及數學理論、建立 STEM 教育資源閣等等（香港教師中心，2016）。

　　當香港教育業界積極發展 STEM 教育之時，相關討論卻未見學前教育的蹤影。雖然現階段的政策文件並未觸及學前教育範疇，但是為了解現今幼稚園推行幼兒科學與 STEM 教育的現況，香港專業教育學院（沙田）幼兒、長者及社會服務系於 2017 年 12 月，以問卷調查形式訪問了逾二百間本地幼稚園、超過一千位教師及校長（職訓局研究報告，未出版），結果發現少數本地的幼稚園已開始推行校本的 STEM 教學活動。事實上，本地有辦學團體統已籌屬下超過二十所幼稚園暨幼兒園推行 STEM 教育，希望透過多樣性的活動讓幼童明白生活與科技息息相關；個別幼稚園亦推行 STEM 教學活動以啟發幼兒、創造和解難的精神，例如讓幼兒用不同組件製作圓球滾動裝置，並透過觀察圓球的滾動距離，探究背後的科學原則。縱然幼稚園的 STEM 教育仍處於發展階段，但幼稚園作為小學的銜接夥伴（教育局，2017b，p.67-73），其教育角色與處境卻不容忽視。有見及此，本研究旨在展開 STEM 在學前教育的討論，並整理現今港幼稚園推行 STEM 教育的挑戰。基於此研究目的，本文將先梳理近年有關 STEM 與幼兒教育的文獻，說明在幼兒階段推行 STEM 教育的正當性；然後運用質性個案研究方式，勾勒五位幼兒教育工作者實踐 STEM 教學活動的經驗，並進一步分析與討論 STEM 在香港學前教育的出路，供業界參考。

文獻回顧

STEM 教育：變革中的傳統科學教育

　　STEM 教育的源起，可追溯至美國國家科學基金會（National Science Foundation）於九十年代提出的縮略字「SMET」，不過其發音與字詞「SMUT」相近，因此進一步被修正為「STEM」（Bybee，2013；English，2016；Meghan, Amanda & Terri，2014）。不論「SMET」或「STEM」，其四個英文字母同樣指涉一種跨越「科學、科技、工程及數學（Science, Technology, Engineering, Mathematics）」的學習範疇；而根據美國的研究報告顯示（例如：National Research Council，2011；National Governors Association，2007；National Science and Technology Council，2013）），這種跨科學範疇的學習不僅有助學生整合科學知識，甚至能發展學生於未來社會經濟和人力資源所需求的解難能力。

　　面對未來社會的預警，美國政府積極探討 STEM 教育的出路，改革基礎教育中長期分立的科學學科，希望從學前教育階段統整優質的科學教育，以培養美國國內人材，保持國家日後的國際地位與競爭力（National Research Council，2000；2001；2007）。隨著時任美國總統奧巴馬上任並推行《Educate to Innovate》教育計劃（The White House President Barack Obama，2013），美國政府進一步落實與發展 STEM 教育，例如建立 STEM 人材庫、提升 STEM 教育的師資、甚至訂定 STEM 為國家程度的課程改革焦點（National Research Council，2013；2014）。

　　雖然美國政府在過去十年致力提倡 STEM 教育與改革科學教育，但是現階段學界對 STEM 仍有不同理解：Vasquez（2015）認為 STEM 教育是一種學習導向，目的是移除傳統科學教育以科目劃分所帶來的教學障礙，為學生提供切合世界與生活的學習經驗；Bybee（2013, p.5）認為 STEM 教育是為了促進學生應用不同科學範疇的理論與實踐，以面對複雜的生活處境。綜合而言，STEM 仍沒有明確而統一的定義（例如：Breiner, Harkness, Johnson, & Koehler，2012；Burke, Francis, & Shanahan，2014；Bybee，2013；English，2016；Meghan, Amanda, & Terri，2014； 范 & 游，2016）；話雖如此，以上討論都認同 STEM 教育並非是全新而獨立的學科科目，它而是一種以科學為主軸、統整性高的教育理念與策略，指涉跨科學、科技、工程和數學範疇之間的綜合與應用。

STEM 教育與幼兒教育

雖然學界難以定義 STEM 教育，不過從歷史脈絡來看，它可算是傳統科學教育的變革。Yager（2015）便指出 STEM 與傳統科學教育的兩項主要區別：首先，STEM 教育比傳統科學教育更重視學生動手「做科學」，希望學生可仿傚科學家透過發問問題、估算預計答案、搜集證據、決定答案的有效性等過程理解世界自然現象；其次，縱然科學教育被劃分成不同傳統科目（例如生物學、化學、物理學、地球科學），具備各自的學習內容及目標，STEM 教育卻強調學生能否應用跨範疇的科學概念，探索四周感興趣的事物與現象。

作為傳統科學教育的變革，STEM 教育並不限制於中、小學學習階段。相反，學前教育更是實踐 STEM 的重要起點：就課程規劃而言，美國國家研究委員會（National Research Council）於 2013 年發表的全國性 K-12 班的科學教育課程綱領《Next Generation Science Standards: For States, By States》涵蓋學前至高中教育，希望學生能夠於幼兒階段探求四周的事物，以在往後的學習階段持續深化跨科學範疇的要義與概念；就教學實踐而言，Moomaw（2015）規劃了多元化而切合幼兒需要的教學活動，例如以方案、戶外學習等形式推行 STEM 教育，展示了在學前教育實踐 STEM 教育的可行性。

事實上，STEM 教育並不排斥幼稚園的角色。反過來説，於學前階段推行統整而適切的科學教育都能使幼兒獲益（Wang, Kinzie, Mcguire, & Pan，2009）。早於二千年初，在美國國家科學基金會與美國教育部的支持下，羅徹斯特大學（University of Rochester）嘗試於紐約市幼稚園試行統整性的科學教育項目，French（2004）從中發現整合性的科學性教育有助幼兒內化科學知識，並嘗試以問答方式探索世界的運作原則；Mantzicopoulos, Samarapungavan, & Patrick（2009）曾分階段比對伊利諾伊州 193 位幼兒的學習情況，他們發現統整的科學活動能促使幼兒自視為科學的學習者，並嘗試以科學知識與過程解釋生活經驗；近年，學界從 STEM 教學活動個案發現，幼兒透過程式控制機械人行為，能夠促使幼兒認識「速度」概念（Ioannou & Bratitsis，2017），並培養其排序能力（Kazakoff, Sullivan, & Bers，2012）。

雖然學界發現於學前階段推行整合而適切的科學教育有助幼兒成長，不過 STEM 於學前教育仍處於起步階段，尚待不同的實徵研究推動其實踐與發展（Tippett

& Milford，2017）。更重要的是，在僅有的相關文獻中，其研究成果並不是針對香港的教育處境。那麼，當我們嘗試探索 STEM 在本地學前教育的發展方向之先，必須釐清現今幼兒教育工作者推行 STEM 教育的處境；否則，對於教育研究者或幼兒教育工作者而言，所有討論都會失去焦點，亦無助於支援前線教學實踐，更遑論本地幼稚園如何匯合 STEM 元素於科學教育之中。有見及此，本研究旨在開拓本地學界與業界的討論，以前線幼兒教育工作者的實踐經驗為基礎，展示在本地幼稚園推行 STEM 教學活動時的挑戰。希望喚起教育業界關注同時，可從幼兒教育工作者刻下所面對的挑戰中，探索 STEM 教育在本地學前教育的可行性與出路。

研究方法

STEM 教育實踐的成效本身無可避免地受制於不同因素（Rinke, Gladstone-Brown, Kinlaw, & Cappiello, 2016），例如任教老師的教育背景與取向（Allen, Webb & Matthews, 2016; Nadelson, Callahan, Pyke, Hay, Dance & Pfiester, 2013; Radloff & Guzey, 2016; Wang, Moore, Roehrig & Park, 2011）、其事業發展前景（Kirchhoff & Lawrenz, 2011）、課程設計（Sias, Nadelson, Juth & Seifert, 2016）、教師教育培訓（Teo & Ke, 2014）等等。有見及此，本研究運用質性個案研究，嘗試捕捉本地幼兒教育工作者推行 STEM 教育活動的處境與挑戰，因為此研究方法能協助研究者刻劃受訪者的經驗和感覺（Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007, p. 254），以及其工作處境的細節與脈絡（Patton, 2002 p. 227）。

與此同時，本研究採用立意抽樣法，以具代表性的個案促進我們對於整體狀況的深刻理解。進一步而言，為了聚焦於幼兒教育工作者在幼稚園推行 STEM 教育的經驗，研究員以同質性抽樣（Homogeneous Sample）方式於 2017 年 11 月至 12 月，邀請五位幼兒教育工作者進行訪談，所有受訪者都是註冊幼兒教育工作者，並同樣於 2017/18 上學年在所屬的本地幼稚園推行 STEM 教學活動。為了使研究員與受訪者雙方能更聚焦於研究議程，整個訪談以半結構性問題為主（附錄一），目的是在研究員的主導過程中亦能讓受訪者表達個人想法和經驗（Creswell, 2008）。由於現階段 STEM 教育在並沒有明確而統一的定義，為免把 STEM 教育限制於概念上的討論，因此本研究集中搜集教育工作者相關的教學經驗。引申而言，訪問內容主要圍繞受訪者在幼稚園實踐STEM活動時的情況，例如對STEM教育與科學教育的理解、

教學活動內容設計及其原則、其活動對於 3-5 歲幼童的適切性等等。

　　訪談題目已通過職業訓練局的倫理委員會審批。訪談開始前，受訪者皆簽署同意書並知悉是次研究目的。整個訪談約一個小時，以廣東話進行，因為以母語進行訪談，能夠讓受訪者更確切表達其感受與想法。及後，研究員逐字轉錄訪問內容以便進行資料分析。整個分析設置於疊代（iterative）與遞迴（recursive）的過程；換句話說，研究員在整個分析過程中需要不斷檢視所搜集的資料、文獻與研究題目（Strauss & Corbin, 1998），以便有效分析資料並作出討論。研究員根據 Creswell（2008, p. 250-253）的質性研究分析步驟，先反覆翻閱謄錄並初步撰寫資料備忘錄。接著，根據訪問內容的段落與文字進行編碼。然後，就當中 28 項編碼進行分類及組成主題，並重新檢視所有謄錄與節錄相關的訪談內容。整個分析過程設置於 2017 年 12 月至 1 月，經過持續的遞迴過程，本文得歸納以下三項發現與討論，嘗試初步呈現現今幼兒教育工作者在推行 STEM 教育活動時的處境與挑戰。

發現與討論

　　透過個案訪談，雖然我們發現受訪者對於 STEM 的理解有所差異，而在幼稚園內所推行的 STEM 教學活動模式與內容亦有所不同，但是所有受訪者都表示所推行的教學活動必須連繫幼兒的生活經驗，涵蓋科學、科技、工程及數學學習領域，且以幼兒動手做及探索科學原理為原則。基於研究道德之考慮，以下討論將會以代號「教師 A 至 E」代替受訪老師的身份。下表 1 是五位受訪者的背景，以及她們對於 STEM 的理解與活動推行情況：

表 1 受訪者背景，以及對於 STEM 的理解與活動推行情況

受訪者	年資	任教班級	對 STEM 的理解	推行情況
教師 A	約 10 年	K3	STEM 是一個課程統稱，與幼兒科學教育分別不大，最重要是活動需要共通「科學、科技、工程及數學」四個學科知識	主要把 STEM 元素融入校內的科學綜合課程，以幼童動手做為主
教師 B	約 20 年	K1	STEM 是具明確目標的科學教育，主要目標是引發幼童對科學的興趣	較著重於幼兒數學，並且以專題形式進行 STEM 活動

教師 C	約 15 年	K1、K2	除了是教學元素，STEM 更是一種教學方向和老師的教學取向	把工程及科技元素融入現有的數學同科學活動，帶領幼童進行簡單的研習與實驗
教師 D	約 3 年	K2	STEM 是一種讓幼童從玩中學的策略，從實質操作中認識不同的科學概念、認知	以課外活動的方式進行，主要應用外購的積木玩具、陀螺等，為幼童親身進行不同的科學活動。
教師 E	約 3 年	K1 至 K3	STEM 是一種切合幼童需要、生活經驗的學習模式	為興趣班形式進行，每星期一次，以主題與方案教學進行，配合不同自製與外購教材，設定不同的科學活動。

　　基於取樣的限制下，本研究的發現與討論旨反映部份教師自身經驗所歸納的個人觀感，以嘗試展開相關討論，因此未能推論至全港幼稚園推行 STEM 活動情況。綜合而言，受訪幼兒教育工作者在幼稚園實踐 STEM 教學活動時，主要面對三項挑戰：1. 有待發展的教師專業培訓；2. 落實與確立適切的教學內容；3. 製作或添置相應 STEM 教育活動的教材。以上的三項挑戰並不是獨立存在，反之是相互地交錯於受訪者的教學處境之中。以下我們將會展示每項挑戰並進行討論：

1.　教師專業培訓尚待發展

　　STEM 教育強調的是學生學習跨範疇的科學原則，並應用於日常生活之中，探索四周感興趣的事物與現象。那麼，幼兒教育工作者對於 STEM 教育的認識便顯得特別重要，因為其取向直接影響幼兒探索與解難問題的過程。然而，大部份的受訪者卻表示需要進一步認識 STEM 教育，以便修正所推行的教學活動：

　　「最困難的地方就是我們並不熟悉 STEM，因為幼稚園老師的知識立足在幼兒教育，而並非科學教育…如果要推行 STEM 教育，就需要加強教師培訓，（幼稚園老師）需要有 STEM 的知識基礎。」（教師 A，第一次訪談，2018/12/5，受訪者學校。）

「師資是一個大問題⋯真正的 STEM 教育其實有甚麼元素？幼兒需要學懂甚麼？這些問題都是非常重要，老師其實需要先認識 STEM 教育方能教導幼兒。」（教師 B，第一次訪談，2018/12/6，受訪者學校。）

事實上，學前教育的教師培訓尚未涉及 STEM 教育。在此背景下，受訪老師在推行 STEM 教學活動之前都會搜集相關的資料，或是透過幼稚園或坊間所舉行的工作坊認識 STEM 教育。然而，這些工作坊並不是完全對應幼兒教育實踐。反過來説，與 STEM 教育相關的教師專業發展，必須以學前教育中的實踐經驗為基礎：

「我們其實非常需要參考其他人的做法⋯始終有些工作坊或講座比較理論性；但實際上，我們需要參考別人的做法，才可以改善到 STEM 教學活動的質素。」（教師 C，第一次訪談，2018/12/6，受訪者學校。）

「⋯不論活動型式、內容、教案，我們都需要多一些實踐方面的例子。」（教師 D，第一次訪談，2018/12/8，受訪者學校。）

現有的學前教育教師課程即使涵蓋幼兒數學與科學教育，但與 STEM 教育的教學策略與理念有所差距。為了進一步促進幼兒教育工作者認識 STEM，除了 STEM 教育的理論基礎，相關的教師專業培訓或工作坊必須涉及幼稚園的實踐經驗交流分享，以便幼兒教育工作者更全面地掌握 STEM 教育，發展適合所屬幼稚園的 STEM 教學活動。

2. 難以落實與確立適切的教學內容

雖然所有受訪者正在所屬的幼稚園推行 STEM 教學活動，但是他們同樣強調幼兒教育工作者並非專修科學教育，因此在落實與確立適切的教學內容方面，相對於中、小學老師而言是比較困難。特別是，他們表示 K1 至 K3 幼兒的學習能力有明顯差異，那麼幼兒教育工作者如何選取適切教學主題與活動內容，有系統地貫穿各階段幼兒的學習能力與需要，本身已是一項挑戰：

「如果把科技、科學、工程、數學放進幼兒科學是比較困難。例如 K1 幼童很難學會科技與工程方面的內容，對他們而是太深奧，我們需要不

斷修正並花時間把內容簡化至適合 K1 幼兒的程度…」（教師 B，第一次訪談，2018/12/6，受訪者學校。）

「相對於高班，K1、2 的幼兒比較難明白科技與工程範疇的教學內容…現在的課程活動仍不斷在修正中，看看有哪些範疇可讓幼兒進一步觀察與動手做…」（教師 C，第一次訪談，2018/12/6，受訪者學校。）

要有效實踐 STEM 教學活動，幼兒教育工作者必須訂定適合 K1 至 K3 幼兒的教學主題與活動內容。然而，部份受訪老師表示他們同時需要顧及小學 STEM 教育發展：

「問題是，規劃 STEM 教學活動同時，主題與教學內容一方面需要家長明白為何我們需要推行 STEM，另一方面我們亦需要銜接小學的內容。」（教師 C，第一次訪談，2018/12/6，受訪者學校。）

「當幼稚園開始推行 STEM 教育，但小學卻銜接不到，幼兒就會忘記幼稚園所學習的知識，所以幼稚園所教的 STEM 應該盡量能夠銜接小學學程（反之亦然）…」（教師 D，第一次訪談，2018/12/8，受訪者學校。）

大部份受訪者都表示他們曾參考小學的實踐經驗，以修正與訂定適合的教學內容。可是，基於 STEM 於小學教育在香港同樣處於起步階段，當中可參考的教學實踐有限。因此受訪教師只能嘗試把 STEM 元素融滲於現行的幼兒數學與科學課程，或持續修正坊間的教材套，難以落實與確立 STEM 教育活動的適切性。

3. 製作或添置相應 STEM 教學活動教材具困難

為了促進幼兒進行科學探究活動，受訪者表示需要製作或添置相應的教材讓幼兒動手做與操弄，甚至進行簡單的實驗活動，致使幼兒在活動過程中明白背後的科學原則。不過，基於對 STEM 的認識不足（可參考第一點討論），受訪者表示他們難以製作合適的教材進行 STEM 活動：

「其實我們不知道如何融合工程元素於教材之中…例如如何利用一隻光碟、一個氣球、膠樽蓋與幼兒組裝氣墊船…」（教師 C，第一次訪談，

2018/12/6，受訪者學校。）

「…製作教材需要花很多時間，同時間老師未必有充足的知識可以做到。」（教師 D，第一次訪談，2018/12/8，受訪者學校。）

「我覺得於教育層面，如教材、人手比例，比較主導到課堂好壞…我覺得自己設計，就主題去做教材，就會對老師造成很大的工作量…中小學會有教學助理，可以幫手做，但幼稚園沒有。」（教師 E，第一次訪談，2018/12/8，受訪者學校。）

事件上，受訪者表示 STEM 教學活動涉及抽象的科學概念，一些涉及工程或科技元素的裝置（如積木、機械人等）非幼兒教育工作者能夠自行製作，只能過校方撥款添置坊間的教材套與裝置。然而，由於教材套與裝置都是由公司研發，所以基於財政的考慮，幼稚園未必能夠添置足夠的 STEM 教材。如教師 D 表示：

「每次大概 15 至 20 位幼童參與活動。可是，學校只有五套教材，所以教材未必能夠完全適合每位 K1 至 K3 的幼兒。縱使我們會分組進行活動，不過教材數量有限下，幼兒未必能完成整個活動。」（教師 D，第一次訪談，2018/12/8，受訪者學校。）

從深度訪談的過程中，所有受訪者認同合適的教材套與裝置能促進 STEM 教學實踐。不過，由於幼兒教育工作者難以自行製作合適的教材，坊間現存的教材套亦價格昂貴，因此在添置活動教材的限制下，往往阻礙了 STEM 教育在幼稚園的教學實踐。

總結與啟示

隨著政策性文件發佈，STEM 教育頓然成為本地教育業界焦點；在香港政府支援下，本地中、小學亦積極發展校本 STEM 教育活動。然而，作為小學的重要銜接夥伴，相關的討論與政策文件卻從未觸及幼稚園的角色。事實上，回顧 STEM 教育發展脈絡，學前教育從來都是其重要一環，香港個別幼稚園亦開始推行 STEM 教育。換言之，教育當局及業界必須以整全而宏觀的視野，重新檢視幼稚園在推動 STEM 教育的處境與應有位置。因此，本研究採用質性個案研究方法，深入訪問正在所屬

的幼稚園推行 STEM 教育活動的幼兒教育工作者，以了解其教學處境以及當中挑戰。透過個案訪談，我們發現幼稚園現行 STEM 教育的其中一項挑戰，在於幼兒教育工作者對 STEM 理解不足，而同時缺乏適切的專業發展機會與支援下，致使難以落實與確立適切的教學內容。另一方面，部份 STEM 教學活動建基於坊間涉及工程或科技元素的裝置（如積木、機械人等），幼稚園財政未必能夠添置充足的教材，為 K1 至 K3 幼兒各推行最合適的教學活動。

可預期，於學前教育階段開展 STEM 教育將充滿挑戰。然而，當業界尚在摸索 STEM 教育的出路，政府與教育局可順應業界的需要和趨勢，在專業發展培訓及資源配套上積極承擔，並研究以提升 STEM 教學效能和質素為目標的政策性舉措，例如推動大專院校研發合適的教材套、從速進行 STEM 教育的教師培訓、協助業界建立專業社群交流經驗、研究資助幼稚園添置 STEM 教材的可行性；長遠而言，當局亦需要持續檢視 STEM 教育的發展，甚至規劃與製定訂 STEM 教育在基礎教育各階段的活動綱領，帶領業界從小培養幼兒解決問題能力和對科學範疇的興趣，以滿足未來社會發展的人材需要。總結而言，本文並非從 STEM 教育理論分析香港幼稚園現行教學實踐的成效，而是旨在以幼兒教育工作者的實踐經驗為基礎，展示個別處境與挑戰，以便業界借鑒並進一步發展校本的 STEM 教育。事實上，現階段 STEM 教育的討論在本地學前業界並不熱切；還期待日後更多 STEM 教育研究以此為基調，進一步檢視 STEM 教育在香港學前教育的應用實踐及其適切性，延展討論並建立專業社群，以回饋學前教育業界，造福莘莘學子。

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A preliminary study on the challenges of implementing STEM (Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics) education in Hong Kong's kindergartens

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Abstract

Following the 2015 Policy Address, Hong Kong educators started expressing concern about the development of STEM (Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics) education. Nevertheless, related discussions mainly focus on the field of primary and secondary education but yet the early childhood education – indeed mathematics and nature science are the irreplaceable leaning areas in early childhood education in Hong Kong, and even specific sponsoring body and kindergarten have already attempted STEM education to foster children's exploratory and scientific spirit in further. In order to explore the pathways of STEM in Hong Kong's early-childhood education, the study is going to employ qualitative research method, where bases on the in-depth case interviews by five kindergarten teachers, to prospect the challenges of implementing STEM education in local kindergartens, and to discuss its revelation which gives to the educators.

Keywords

STEM, early-childhood education, kindergarten education

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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：
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