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# **Comparative Education Society of Hong Kong**

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## Comparative Education Bulletin No. 12 (2009)

比教教育通訊 第十二刊 (2009年)

- Editorial** 1  
Mark MASON
- The Historical Evolution of the Teaching of Comparative Education at Universities Internationally** 3  
C.C. WOLHUTER, N. POPOV, M. MANZON & B. LEUTWYLER
- 香港與內地高校雙語教學之比較 19  
**A Comparative Study of Bilingual Education in Higher Education Institutions in Mainland China and Hong Kong**  
陳靈  
CHEN Ling
- 臺灣地區技職院校評鑒制度：特徵與成因 27  
**A Comparative Study of the Evaluation Systems of Higher Technological and Vocational Education in Mainland China and Taiwan**  
馬早明、陳淼  
MA Zao-ming & CHENG Miao
- 國家示範性高職院校建設計畫的政策解讀 33  
**National Demonstration Higher Vocational Schools in China: policy background, aims, content and implementation**  
宗秀秀  
ZONG Xiu-xiu
- Can the Capability Approach Provide a Theoretical Framework that Can Contribute to the Advancement of Educational Policies Aimed at *Education for All* in Ethiopia?** 41  
Jana ZEHLE
- 20世紀90年代：美國基礎教育管理政策發展解析 49  
**Policy Development Analysis of American Basic Education Management in the 1990s**  
楊慧敏  
YANG Huimin



## Editorial

The *Comparative Education Bulletin* is the official journal of the Comparative Education Society of Hong Kong (CESHK). The first issue of the *Bulletin* was published in 1998, with the aim of enhancing the profile of comparative education research in Hong Kong and more widely in Asia. The journal has been published each year since then and this, in the 2009 volume, is the twelfth issue. The *Bulletin* is normally printed at the end of each year, in time for distribution at the annual conference of the Society, which normally takes place in the first month of the following year. This issue is no exception, and is published in time for the Society's annual conference on 16 January 2010.

The location of this conference in Guangzhou, co-hosted by the Guangdong Comparative Education Society, marks the second year in succession that the Society is holding its conference beyond the borders of the Hong Kong Special Administrative Region: the January 2009 conference, held in Macau, was the first. This trend marks a strengthening of research networks in comparative education in this part of Asia, and is to be welcomed.

The majority of papers in this issue of the journal are published in Chinese, which in itself marks an enhancement of the Chinese language profile of comparative education research in the region. This selection of Chinese language papers is also a deliberate reflection of the location of the January 2010 conference of the Society at South China Normal University. These four papers are either explicitly comparative, or focused on questions of education policy development. Technical and vocational education and training (TVET) is a theme receiving much attention in the education policy arena globally, and that two of these four papers focus on technical and vocational education in greater China reflects this trend. One of the two English language papers included in this issue looks at the teaching of comparative education in universities across the world; the other is situated in a field closely related to comparative education, that of educational development, and looks at key questions in Education for All policy in a sub-Saharan African country.

This selection of papers from authors in Hong Kong, southern China and more widely afield, from Bulgaria to Ethiopia and Switzerland, shows a strength on which the journal can be further developed, as the Society seeks to establish it as one of the more reputable periodicals in the field globally. It is on that note that I will hand over the editorship of the *Comparative Education Bulletin* towards the end of 2010, in time for the new editor to take responsibility for the issue that goes to press in December that year. I have had the privilege

of editing the journal for four years, or one third of its existence, the first two of these four with assistance from Kokila Katyal as co-editor. These four years have coincided with the two years during which I was President of CESHK, and the two years during which I have served as the Society's Past President. My term as Past President comes to an end with the January 2010 conference of the society, and it is perhaps appropriate that in 2010 I hand over the editorship of the journal. In doing so, I wish to thank my colleagues in the Society for their support during these past four years, and especially those who have assisted in reviewing manuscripts submitted for publication in the journal. In particular, I wish to thank Emily Mang of the Comparative Education Research Centre at the University of Hong Kong for her immeasurable levels of support and assistance to me in my capacity as President and as Editor, to the *Bulletin* as Production Editor, and to CESHK in virtually every aspect of its existence. Comparative education in this region would not be nearly as strong were it not for Emily's experience and expertise in the field, and for her indefatigable commitment to this community of scholars and this field of research. With support such as this from all colleagues, and with the kind of growth in research networks that this issue reflects, this journal can go far, and I wish the new editorial team and CESHK Executive well to that end.

Mark Mason  
*Editor*

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Professor, Comparative and International Education and Development  
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# The Historical Evolution of the Teaching of Comparative Education at Universities Internationally

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*The aim of this article is to investigate the historical evolution of Comparative Education at universities worldwide, as a basis for a critical reflection on its future prospects. Each of the following phases is discussed: a Prehistoric Phase; Phase I: Early years, 1900s and 1910s; Phase II: Classic years, 1920s and 1930s; Phase III: Expansion (Western and developing countries) vs. Constriction (East Block), 1950s to mid-1970s; Phase IV: Contraction (Western Europe and North America) vs. Revitalisation (Greece, Eastern Europe and China), mid-1970s to 1990s; and Phase V: Proliferation: 2000s. In conclusion a fourfold strategy for securing and extending Comparative Education's place in universities is recommended: utilizing the field's excellent international organizational networks; holding onto its place in universities where such exist; placing on the Comparative Education research agenda themes directly and visibly relevant for teachers and for teacher education; and articulation of Comparative Education's significance, at grassroots and at policy-making levels.*

## Introduction

Comparative Education has for slightly over a century figured across the world in teacher education programmes, and therefore enjoyed a presence at universities. With the content and focus of teacher education programmes currently especially topical, a stock-taking of and a critical reflection on the place of Comparative Education at universities is apt. The aim of this article is to describe the historical evolution of Comparative Education at universities worldwide, as a basis for a critical reflection on its future prospects.

Having studied the historical evolution of Comparative Education at universities, the authors describe this history in terms of five phases, preceded by a pre-historic phase, each of which will be discussed:

- Phase I: Early years, 1900s - 1910s
- Phase II: Classic years, 1920s - 1930s;
- Phase III: Expansion vs. Constriction, 1950s to mid-1970s;
- Phase IV: Contraction vs. Revitalisation, mid-1970s - 1990s;
- Phase V: Proliferation: 2000s.

## Prehistory

Before the establishment of formally constituted Comparative Education programmes at universities precursors had existed – both inside and outside universities.

Outside universities, there were throughout the nineteenth century educational travellers: mostly government officials who studied educational developments in foreign countries, with the aim that these studies would lead to the selective borrowing of ideas, insights and practices to help develop their own education systems. A well-known example is Victor Cousin (1792-1867), one time Minister of Education in France, who undertook a study tour to Prussia in 1831, the report of which led to the Guizot Law of 1833, which established the French system of primary education. Other well-known examples include the American “cultural borrowers” who went to Europe to learn about schools: John Griscom, Calvin Stowe, Horace Mann and Henry Barnard. In 1837 the State of Massachusetts created the Massachusetts Board of Education and sent the Board’s first secretary, Horace Mann, on a six month educational fact-finding mission to Europe. These activities were brought into the halls of academe when Sir Michael Sadler, director of the UK’s Office of Special Inquiries and Reports, delivered his famous Guildford lecture in 1900, “How far can we learn anything of practical value from the study of foreign systems of education”, in which he took the educational borrower to task, and also pointed the way to the paradigm which would characterize the first generation of comparativists at universities.

Within universities, rudimentary Comparative Education activities existed in various forms. Scholars learned from foreign education systems, either when studying abroad, or by purposefully studying foreign systems of education. Education associations studied foreign education. For example, a significant activity of the Hrvatski Pedagoški-Književni Zbor, an Education association founded in 1871 in Croatia, was the popularization of the educational experience of foreign countries (Vrcelj, 1008:36). Education journals and books published at universities, too, often featured articles of educational activities abroad. For example, the *Czech Encyclopedia of Education* (1891-1909) contained 100 monographs on school systems from all continents (Walterová, 2008:42). The Education journal *Pedagogische Studiën* in the Netherlands has dedicated, since in inception in the 1920s, much attention to education in other countries (Boerma *et al.*, 2008:96). At the threshold of the twentieth century two important books – Charles Thurber’s *Principles of School Organization: A Comparative Study Chiefly Based on the Systems of the United States, England, Germany and France* (1899), and Michael Sadler’s *How far can we learn anything of practical value from the study of foreign systems of education?* (1900) – contributed



much to laying down the foundations of university Comparative Education. Some university courses contained comparative elements. They did not carry the name “Comparative Education”, but were incorporated into general subjects such as Education or Pedagogy (cf. Takekuma, 2008:229). According to Brickman (1988:6), the nineteenth century ended with a large body of literature and university courses which laid the foundation for Comparative Education at universities. However, it can be assumed that these courses did not contain much of the theoretical, conceptual or methodological bases of Comparative Education.

### **Phase I: The Beginnings: 1900s-1910s**

According to Steiner-Khamsi (2000), James E. Russell, in the spring of 1900, at the University of Columbia, taught the first ever course in Comparative Education in the world. Other places where Comparative Education commenced was Manchester University, where Isaac Kandel began a Comparative Education course in 1905 (Hans, 1959:44) and Southampton University, where Fred Clarke’s course began, also in 1905 (Lauwerys, 1966:15). The university initiation of Comparative Education at the dawn of the twentieth century was considerably helped by the fact that many other comparative sciences had already been established in academia: Comparative Anatomy, Comparative Linguistics, Comparative Literature, and above all – Comparative Sociological Studies (Wolhuter, *et al.*, 2008:323).

### **Phase II: The Classical Years: 1920 and 1930s**

Following Kandel’s (who arrived in the USA from England in 1908) pace-setting course at Teachers College, Columbia University, courses in Comparative Education proliferated in the USA after 1920. Some graduates of Teachers College laid the grounds for Comparative Education at other universities in that country in the 1920s, for example, Thomas Woody at Pennsylvania, William Clark Trow at Michigan, and Paul Hanna at Stanford (Wilson, 1994:462). During the 1920s and 1930s courses on Comparative Education were taught by Robert Ulich at Harvard University and by Isaac Kandel, James Russell, William Russell, John Dewey, Paul Monroe, Thomas Alexander and George Counts at Columbia University. An important moment in the university development of Comparative Education was the Eastbourne Conference held in 1931 and chaired by Paul Munroe, then Director of the International Institute at Teachers College. The conference was focused mainly on examinations, but one of the decisions taken had to do with the introduction of Comparative Education courses at teachers’ colleges and institutes.

Peter Sandiford, author of *Comparative Education* (1918), moved

from Columbia University to Toronto in 1913, and became a trail-blazer of Comparative Education at Canadian universities. He stayed at the University of Toronto until 1941.

During the 1920s courses on Comparative Education were started by G.W. Young and Nicholas Hans in London, and by Sergius Hessen in Prague and Warsaw. Important steps to preparing and offering courses on Comparative Education were also made in Bulgaria, Croatia, Czechoslovakia and Norway.

In the 1930s, Comparative Education was established as a formal course at Beijing Normal University and at Zhongshan University in China (Bray & Gui, 2001:454). Important contributions to establishing the grounds of Comparative Education were also made in Germany by Friedrich Schneider, in Croatia by Albert Bazala, by Franjo Mandić-Higy and Stjepan Pataki in Norway's University of Oslo, and in Mexico by Ezequiel A. Chávez. Jean Piaget contributed to setting the basis of Comparative Education in Switzerland in the early 1930s, by establishing a strong link between the University of Geneva and the International Bureau of Education. In the 1920s and 1930s Comparative Education was acknowledged as an academic field in Japan, due largely to the studies and efforts of Shigetaka Ale, Choichi Higuchi, Kenichi Hida and Masunori Hiratsuka. In Uganda, the teaching of Comparative Education began in 1925 at Makerere University (at that stage the only university in Sub-Saharan Africa, apart from South Africa). In 1940, Comparative Education was established in Brazil by Antonio Carneiro Leão and in Cuba at Havana University by Emma Pérez Téllez.

The classical phase of Comparative Education at universities was related to the rise of nation states, and their employment of national education systems to achieve their objectives. Aptly, then, Comparative Education was taught in the "factors and forces" paradigm of Sadler, Kandel, Hans and Schneider: 'national character' shapes education systems and determines their particularities.

### **Phase III: 1950s – mid-1970s: Expansion vs. Constriction**

The decades from the 1950s to the mid-1970s were characterized by two opposing trends in various parts of the world.

In many countries in the West and in the developing world, Comparative Education made substantial gains. These years, characterized by the prevalence of human capital theory (*see*: Sobel, 1982) and its belief in the societal elevating power of education (*see*: Engelbrecht, Nieuwenhuis, 1988) and by the unprecedented expansion of education worldwide (*see*: Coombs, 1985:74), were particularly favourable for Comparative Education. Amidst these favourable circumstances, and with foreign aid, including education aid to developing countries, a major export of the USA, Comparative Education at universities

flourished, with comparativists such as C. Arnold Anderson and others at the Comparative Education Center at the University of Chicago. In Canada, the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education was founded by David Wilson and Joseph Farrell in 1969. Western Europe, too, experienced times of growth for Comparative Education at universities, with eminent comparativists such as Edmund King and Brian Holmes in England, and Friedrich Schneider in Germany. In Japan, the first chair of Comparative Education was established at Kyushu University in 1952, the first incumbent being Masuko Otake. In the 1950s and 1960s chairs were founded at Hiroshima University, Kyoto University and Tokyo University. As many developing countries attained independence, the belief that they had in education the main agent of development and the role they assigned to education in the nation-building project led to massive educational expansion. These developments boded well for Comparative Education, which obtained a solid foothold at universities in countries such as Korea (*see*: Park & Hyun, 2008:242) and the countries of southern Africa (*see*: Wolhuter (ed.), 2006). Although Comparative Education gained an increasingly firm foothold at universities in the developing world, western dominance of knowledge paradigms and production (*see*: Altbach, 1982; Arnove, 1982) had something of an inhibiting effect on scholarship in the field at these universities. This did, in fact, impoverish Comparative Education in the developed world too (*see*: Biraimah, 2006). In the case of South Africa, the effect of isolation due to the international academic boycott that was set against the apartheid state c. 1960-1990 (*see*: Harricombe & Lancaster, 1995) meant that by 1990, Comparative Education, as practically taught at South African universities, was still wholly in the interwar “factors and forces” mould (*see*: Bergh & Soudien, 2006).

In the totalitarian countries of the Eastern bloc, on the other hand, the state had a stifling effect during the years 1944-1989, which brought an end to the promising inter-war developments. In this repressive atmosphere, when every little interest in Western education was considered a crime, Comparative Education pioneer and stalwart, Christo Negentzov, left Sofia University (Popov, 2007:105). Very reduced contact with the outside world had the same stifling effect on Comparative Education in the Czech Republic (Walterová, 2007:91). In China, Comparative Education went through a similar history. Comparative Education was abolished as a field of study in the 1950s after the establishment of the People’s Republic of China in 1949. The new government considered Comparative Education a “bourgeoisie pseudoscience that worshipped and had a blind faith in things foreign (Chen, 1992:5). Further political upheavals in the 1960s, with the Cultural Revolution in 1966, ushered China into a 10 year period of

international isolation (Manzon, 2007:113). In the Soviet Union, during the 1950s-1970s, the development of Comparative Education in teacher education programmes was similarly obstructed (Wolhuter *et al.*, 2008:326).

#### **Phase IV: Mid-1970s-1990s: Varied Trends: Contraction vs Proliferation**

During these decades Comparative Education had once again opposing fortunes in different parts of the world – although almost mirror images to the preceding era: a contraction in North America and Western Europe, and a revitalisation that accompanied democratisation in other parts of the world.

The downward trend in North America and Western Europe should be seen in terms of contextual forces. The massive educational expansion of the 1960s failed to bear the expected fruits. For example, instead of promoting social mobility, Jencks's (1972) extensive empirical study showed that education was no major determinant of social mobility. Bowles and Gintis (1976) concluded that education actually served to entrench and to reproduce socio-economic stratification patterns. Instead of eradicating unemployment and stimulating economic growth, the 1970s saw the spectre of schooled unemployment and stagflation, especially after the 1973 oil crisis. Other factors which contributed to a reversal of the fortunes of Comparative Education at universities were the decrease in the number of student teachers (Sutherland, *et al.*, 2007:159) and the reform of teacher education programmes (Altbach, 1991:492; Schweisfurth, 1999:94). Some remarkable exceptions do exist, however. In 1998 an international Masters programme, specializing in education and development, and in education in Africa, was developed by Birgit Brock-Utne at the University of Oslo. And in Spain, Comparative Education became a compulsory foundation subject for Education students at all universities (Naya *et al.*, 2008:122-123).

In the USA, conditions were aggravated by the country's inward turning after the Vietnam War. In his 1972 Comparative and International Education Society (CIES) presidential address, Andreas Kazamias (1972) expressed concern about the death of Comparative Education at universities in parts of America. By 1990 it was unusual to find more than one full-time Comparative Education specialist at any university in the USA. Larsen *et al.* (2007:22) wrote about a "fragmentation" of Comparative Education at Canadian universities in the 1980s: as key faculty retired, courses limited in scope were offered by other teachers, for whom Comparative Education appeared to be secondary to their main teaching and research concerns. During the 1990s, the position of Comparative Education at universities in Germany, likewise, weakened (Waterkamp, 2007:58). O'Sullivan (2007:31)

writes that during the 1970s to the 1990s, Comparative Education at universities in England and Ireland went through a “crisis of confidence” and a period of decline. By 1990 in Britain, only the University of London had a chair of Comparative Education, although it was still offered at a further eight British universities (Holmes, 1990:85)

In countries that underwent democratization, on the other hand, Comparative Education enjoyed good fortunes. Comparative Education at universities in Greece came into being during the 1980s and 1990s (Karras, 2007:66). After the fall of the dictatorship in that country in 1974, the Greek Teacher Union demanded the education of more teachers, equipped with scientific knowledge. Comparative Education was first taught in the 1980s by Andreas Kazamias at the University of Crete, by Maria Iliou at the University of Ioannina, and by Panagiotis Peniaris at the University of Cyprus. In time more courses were added, and today Comparative Education is available in most Departments of Education at universities in Greece (Karras, 2007:67).

After Mao Zedong’s death in 1976, China’s opening-up to the outside world marked a renaissance for Comparative Education in that country. Foreign education research became important in the context of national reforms and the open-door policy. Institutes of foreign education were established at Beijing Normal University, East China Normal University in Shanghai, South China Normal University, North East Normal University and Fujian Normal University. In the 1980s, a government policy document classified Comparative Education as a sub-discipline of Education, a compulsory part of teachers’ education in their third year of study (Manzon, 2007:117). From the four institutes of Comparative Education existing in 1989, there are now almost one hundred Comparative Education institutes in China. At the University of Hong Kong, the Comparative Education Research Centre (CERC) is a major producer and publisher of Comparative Education research scholarship.

In the post-1989 context Comparative Education in Bulgaria surged. Ideological and party-political prejudices and restraints in education and research have been abolished and, in spite of limited opportunities for conducting Comparative Education research because of financial constraints, much better conditions exist for the enlargement of academic contacts with countries from all over the world. Since 1997, Comparative Education has been introduced as an obligatory part of all university teacher education programmes (Popov, 2007:107). Similarly, in Croatia, Comparative Education is currently taught in all three faculties which educate teachers (Vicelj, 2007:89). Similarly, in the post-1989 context, Comparative Education became part of teacher education in all nine faculties of education at Czech universities (Walterová, 2006:43). In post-1990 Russia, Comparative Education also gained a

new lease of life from teacher education reforms (Golz, 2008:115), while in Kazakhstan, Comparative Education started to be taught at Masters level after independence in 1991 (Kussainov & Mussin, 2008:238-239).

### **Phase V: 2000s: Dwindling Presence vs Increasing Relevance**

During the 2000s Comparative Education at universities has been characterized by a dwindling presence in Western Europe and North America, and an increasing relevance worldwide.

The widespread disintegration of Comparative Education infrastructure and programmes at universities in Western Europe of the last decades of the twentieth century has continued. Exceptions to the pattern include Switzerland, Norway and Spain. At the University of Geneva, in Switzerland, a new chair of "International Dimensions of Education" has recently been created (Schüssler & Leutwyler, 2008:131). In Norway and Spain, Comparative Education is still benefiting from the reforms of the 1990s. This is also the case in many developing countries, where Comparative Education still holds to its infrastructure and place in programmes acquired a few decades ago, although there are some significant exceptions to this pattern. In Latin America, Comparative Education has not regained its position lost at universities in Brazil in 1969 and in Chile in 1973. In the Asian region, there are signs of receding interest in and marginalization of the field in Japan (Takekuma, 2008:233-234), Korea and Malaysia. In the case of Korea, a lack of specialists and language constraints add up to a comparative lack of student interest in the field (Park & Hyun, 2008:257). Malaysia also reports a shortage of trained personnel (Meerah & Halim, 2008:257). As for the African countries, Rwanda (Nzahalirwa, 2008:291), South Africa and Uganda seem to exhibit some decline in the teaching of Comparative Education. In South Africa, Comparative Education lost its stronger position at universities as a corollary of the post-1994 reform of teacher education (*see*: Maarman & Wolhuter, 2006; Wolhuter, 2006). The way Comparative Education was taught at many universities, serving to justify the apartheid government's segregation policies in education, was also a factor (*see*: Bergh & Soudien, 2006). In Uganda the only university offering a Masters in Comparative Education witnessed a drop in applicants, with some years reporting no applications (Kagoire, 2008:313).

At the same time, a number of global trends make Comparative Education ever more relevant, significant and even indispensable. Globalisation and its related trends have many implications for Comparative Education, for example, the comprehension of global education forces and how they shape domestic education, which Walterová (2007:92) enumerates as one of the aims of Comparative Education courses at universities in the Czech Republic. The growing

influence of international development agendas, such as those associated with the Millennium Development Goals, have attracted both widespread analysis and sustained critical analysis (Sutherland, *et al.*, 2007:166-167). International competitiveness and international comparability, in an increasingly “flat” world (*see*: Friedman, 2008), measured and monitored by studies such as those conducted under the auspices of the IEA (International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement) and the OECD’s PISA (Programme for International Student Assessment), have led to a new appreciation of comparative and international perspectives in Education courses, as pointed out by several comparativists commenting on the position of Comparative Education in their countries (Leutwyler & Schüssler, 2008:129; Karras, 2007:78; Holik, 2007:137; Waterkamp, 2007:147).

Regionalisation is another force promoting comparative and international dimensions in teacher education programmes. Regionalisation is most conspicuous in the countries of the European Union. Education students need to be familiar with, for example, the Bologna Declaration or the Lisbon goals, in order to understand their own, domestic education system. Even in the case of Switzerland – falling outside the European Union – Leutwyler & Schüssler (2008:133) contend that the forces of regionalization have an influence on the education system and policies of Switzerland. The teacher education programme at the University of Athens now includes a course, “European Integration: an educational challenge” (Karras, 2007:69), and that of the University of Ege, Greece, a course, “Comparative Education: education in the European countries” (Karras, 2007:73), while teacher education in the Czech Republic gives special attention to European values, European citizenship, the Lisbon strategy in education and the European Union’s educational programmes, strategies, aims, principles and policy (Walterová, 2007:92).

The increasingly multicultural, multilingual and multireligious make-up of school populations, too, call for an increased presence of Comparative Education content in teacher education programmes. What is relevant here is Noah’s (1986:156-157) Comparative Education as a touchstone to understanding across cultural contexts, and Broadfoot’s (1999:21) view that Comparative Education studies acquire increasing value on the strength of their capacity to relate individual perspectives to societal contexts, and to group culture, individuals and institutions in an intellectually coherent manner that will facilitate learning. Research on Irish students’ experiences in their Comparative Education course found that the most important reason why they were glad they did the course was that it helped to prepare them to teach in multicultural classrooms (O’Sullivan, *et al.*, 2005).

Finally, the ever-growing need for Global Education in schools



(see: Mundy *et al.*, 2007) creates a further imperative for Comparative Education in teacher education programmes. With schools increasingly called upon to prepare students for 'world citizenship' and the formation of a global perspective in schools, there is a corresponding need for a global perspective in teacher education programmes.

The above factors have resulted in, where Comparative Education courses are not taught under that name, a host of courses at universities on themes under which Comparative Education is subsumed, a process Larsen *et al.* (2007:22), referring to the Canadian context, call the "broadening of Comparative Education". Examples of courses under which Comparative Education is subsumed, taught as part of teacher education and graduate Education programmes, are: education systems and school management; democracy and civil education; education and development; Human Rights education; the context of schooling; lifelong education; education system planning; education policy studies; higher education systems; comparative studies of private education; curriculum and instruction abroad; globalization and education; international education policy; European dimension in education; international education policy; European aspects and teaching; comparative teacher education; trends in international education theory; and key issues in international education.

### **Outlook**

A key question, viewed against this historical evolution, has to do with the prospects for Comparative Education in the future.

Comparative Education has at least three strengths, two of which lie outside academia. First is the very nature of the field: although lacking a clear identity with definite borders (Epstein & Carroll, 2005:62), it is an adjustable and resilient field, whose history shows how it has succeeded in renewing itself to remain relevant. Second, Comparative Education has a strong organizational infrastructure in 37 national/regional Comparative Education societies (with their regular conferences and journals) worldwide, confederated in the World Council of Comparative Education Societies. Third, in academia Comparative Education is visibly and strongly presented in the countries of the former Eastern bloc, in many developing countries, in Greece and Spain, and also at some universities in Western Europe and North America.

Comparative Education is also presented with a number of opportunities. Several worldwide societal trends (such as globalization, regionalisation, the technological and communications revolutions, increasingly multicultural populations and the need for Global Education in school) make Comparative Education ever more significant, if not indispensable, in teacher education programmes.



At the same time, Comparative Education at universities is threatened by a number of weaknesses. Generally, Comparative Education is weakly present at universities in Western Europe and North America, and has also lost ground in many Asian and developing countries, such as Korea, Malaysia, Uganda, South Africa, Brazil and Chile. The societal trends identified above have been accommodated in teacher education programmes in an array of *ad hoc* courses in which Comparative Education is subsumed, but does not always appear in its own right. In such an arrangement, as Kubow and Fossum (2007:11) comment, in the American context, comparative perspectives are drawn on only intermittently and very superficially. Students generally do not become acquainted with the conceptual tools or the corpus of knowledge of Comparative Education, and nor are they introduced to the full depth, scope and possibilities of Comparative Education. Comparative Education at universities then, as Masemann (2008) puts it “flows a mile wide but an inch deep”.

It seems that the best strategy to entrench and improve the position of Comparative Education at universities would be to draw on its excellent international organisational network and its infrastructure where it exists at various universities, and from there to place high on the research agenda themes with a direct relevance and value for student teachers (such as the comparative study of pedagogy or teaching methods), and then to “clearly articulate the usefulness of Comparative Education at grassroots level” (Kubow & Fossum, 2007:16). One of the factors which contributed to the decline in the fortunes of Comparative Education at universities in many parts of the world during recent decades was the drop in the number of student teachers. The prediction of a shortage of teachers in many parts of the world in the near future will probably see a substantial rise in enrolments in teacher education programmes. That might lead to the appointment of new academic staff and to the establishment of new education faculties and institutions, and might also present a chance to re-organise teacher education programmes: an opportune moment for Comparative Education to re-claim its rightful place in education programmes.

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## 香港與內地高校雙語教學之比較

### A Comparative Study of Bilingual Education in Higher Education Institutions in Mainland China and Hong Kong

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#### 摘要

雙語教學成爲當前最具有獨特性和新穎性的一種教學方式，並在中國內地高校中蓬勃開展起來。香港自從被英國管治以來，就一直捲入殖民教育和雙語教學的問題之中，香港高校雙語教學的理論與實踐研究均早於內地，且形成了適用的雙語教學方法。它們在雙語教育的辦學規格、師資素養、教學方法、課堂管理以及學業評價等方面形成一系列符合自己的雙語教學模式。內地高校雙語教學起步晚、雙語環境差、師資力量薄弱和學生外語運用能力低。比較兩地雙語教學的差距，並借鑒香港雙語教學的成功經驗，走滿足自身需要的、獨具特色的雙語教學之路，對於發展內地高校雙語教學有著積極的意義。

#### 一、引言

從單語教育到雙語教育是當今世界基礎教育改革與發展的一個潮流。隨著世界經濟文化的全球化發展，隨著中國改革開放的不斷深入，中國與世界各國的交流迅速擴大並深入至各個領域，既精通漢語和中國文化又通曉外語和外國文化的雙語人才，必將成爲中國參與國際競爭的重要人才素質內涵要素。

香港由於其港英政府殖民統治的歷史及國際化的社會環境而成爲中國具有最好雙語教學語境的地區。自鴉片戰爭後，香港在英國人的統治下近百年，語言作爲文化的載體受到英國統治當局的高度重視，在英國統治下一直比較強調英國語言的教育。在這種殖民教育下，香港的大學基本上都採用了“中英並用”的雙語教學模式，但這一模式在各個學校的實施又不盡相同。以香港大學等爲代表的一些高校爲了建設國際化大學而推崇英語爲主、漢語爲輔，並力圖向全英語教學過渡的模式。而與之相區別，香港中文大學的一個重要特色則在於自創校之日起就奉行的“中英並重”的雙語教學理念。所以，香港高校（特別是香港中文大學）對雙語教學理論研究與實踐探索比內地高校要早，且形成了比較穩定的教學模式。

無論是香港還是內地的高校，作爲培養人才的前沿陣地，爲培養高素質、複合型的國際化人才，實現人才的可持續發展，就必須積極開展雙語教學。即強調使用外語於學科教育，在學習該學科先進文化科學知識的同時，要學得與學科發展相關的基本專業外語。這對於中國內地高等教育與世界接軌具有重要的意義，體現了中國內地高等教育的與時俱進。它不僅有利於培養國際化的人才，而且有利於學生素質的提高和學生今後自身的發展。對於兩地高校學生來說，無論他們畢業後從事具體



的工作，還是攻讀更高學位，具備用外語學習專業知識和進行交流的能力都是必要的。

## 二、雙語教學與雙語教育

學界普遍認為，雙語教育 (Bilingual Education) 與雙語教學 (Bilingual Instruction) 是不同地域的兩個同質性概念，國外大都採用雙語教育的提法，在中國內地，一般稱為雙語教學。<sup>[1]</sup>那麼“教學”和“教育”有什麼不同的內涵？一般說來，“教育”的涵義比較廣，是指按照一定的教育目的要求，對受教育者的德育、智育、體育諸方面施以影響的一種有計劃的活動，它包括學校教育、社會教育、家庭教育等一切具有教育作用的活動。“教學”是指由教師傳授知識和學生學習知識的教學活動，主要是指課堂教學活動。教育的活動範圍比教學的活動範圍廣泛的多，教育與教學之間的關係呈主從關係，教學從屬教育，是教育的一個組成部分。<sup>[2]</sup>換句話來說廣義的雙語教育指的是學校中使用兩種語言的教育。而狹義的雙語教育指的是，學校中使用第二語言或外語教授數學、物理、化學、歷史等學科內容的教育。<sup>[3]</sup>內地的雙語教學主要指課堂層面的雙語教學活動，而不是指學校教育、家庭教育和社會教育層面的雙語教育活動。香港的雙語教學跟內地有著很大的相似之處，也屬於課堂層面的雙語教學活動，但香港的雙語教學範圍要比內地的廣一點。它不僅指課堂層面的雙語教學活動，還延伸到學校教育、家庭教育和社會教育，這是因為受到英國殖民主義教育的影響。比如香港目前還有很多高校都使用英語作為唯一的教學語言。總之，教育包含著教學，雙語教學是實現雙語教育的根本途徑，雙語教育是一種宏觀的社會現象，而雙語教學是一種微觀的社會活動。<sup>[4]</sup>

## 三、香港與內地高校雙語教學的比較

下面我們就香港與內地高校雙語教學在以下幾個方面作比較。

### 1. 目的與定位方面的比較

高校雙語教學的主要目的有兩點：一是使學生瞭解和掌握國際學術前沿，使學生的學識與國際接軌，培養國際化人才；二是使學生瞭解另一個民族主要是英語世界的價值觀念、思維方式，尤其是治學方式，培養視野更開闊的人才。所以在高校推行雙語教學是推動高等教育國際化和與國際接軌的重要舉措。但即便國際學術前沿以英語為主宰，但高校推行雙語教學應該以師生已經具備雙語教學能力為前提，其目的只能是學科目的和學術目的，而非語言目的。

毋庸置疑，香港與內地高校雙語教學，主要價值和目的定向是“提升學術水準和提高外語水準”，所以雙語教學的研究重點必然是“學業表現”和“外語熟練”。雙語教學的學科定位能更清楚地表明上述說法。雙語課屬於專業課，是前沿學科性質的專業課。在開設雙語課前，應該首先開設公共外語課、專業基礎課和專業外語課，且都要達到相應要求。例如，香港中文大學的未來發展定位是國際化的，提出要背靠大陸、立足本土、面向世界、與西方接軌，培養具有國際視野的本土人才。這樣的定位既非常大氣、又適合當前世界發展趨勢。但隨著雙語教



學的開展和深化，內地教育界人士發現，雙語教學不僅僅是一個語言教學的問題。因為世界的發展，需要多元文化的碰撞、交流與合作。這一代學生，他們必須有符合開放與發展趨勢的觀念、國際意識和國際視野、寬廣的胸襟，既懂得東方的文化傳統與價值觀念，又能以欣賞的態度汲取西方文化中優秀的傳統與價值觀念。因此開展雙語教學，不僅涉及到未來一代的語言交流與語言水準的提高，更涉及到多元文化的認同和與世界各種文化背景的和諧相處。這將有利於推動雙元文化的認同和發展，擴大與目標語所在國的交往。

## 2. 各自語言政策與背景的比較

在香港，制定明確的學校語言政策學校在營造英語增潤環境 (English-rich Environment) 的過程中必須建立明確的學校語言政策。<sup>[5]</sup>許多 EMI (English as Medium of Instruction) 學校的經驗都體現出建立和執行嚴格的語言政策的重要性，這些政策要求所有學生應該在教室裏講英語，而中文交流只限於操場和走廊。香港是一個以講粵語為主的 (97%) 華人社會。在 1949 之前的很長的一段時間裏，香港使用兩種教學語言，政府支援用英文教學，有愛國熱情的大陸知識份子支持用中文教學。香港使用英語作為教學語言的初衷是要在當地居民中培養出西方化的、能熟練使用英語的精英人才，以扮演港英政府與華人社會之間的仲介角色。而這個語言政策是從 1998 年開始實施的。在此之前，90% 以上的中學生接受全英教育，除香港中文大學外，所有高校都使用英語作為唯一的教學語言。鑒於在 1958 到 1998 年這 30 年間銳減剩下的一些中文學校裏，學校的師生使用英語教學困難重重，港英政府一直建議學校改用中文實施教學，但由於許多學校校長擔心學校的入學率會降低的原因而沒有貫徹落實港英政府的建議。所以即使在官方教學語言為中英雙語的香港中文大學，英語也是主要的教學語言。

在內地，有關漢語和英語之間的雙語教學的相關法律檔尚未提上議事日程，內地實施雙語教學還沒有成爲一項基本國策，立法滯後可能會制約雙語教學實驗的進一步發展，這對推動英、漢雙語教學在內地的發展勢必造成一定影響。漢語與各少數民族之間的雙語教育歷史悠久，內地政府重視維護各民族間語言的多樣性與和諧統一，堅持國內各民族語言一律平等的政策，禁止任何形式的語言歧視，提倡各民族相互學習語言，共同努力克服語言隔閡，在漢語和各少數民族語言之間的雙語教育有相關法律的保障，使之得以健康有序地開展。雙語教學是一項新的舉措，當務之急，就是儘快研究和制定有關雙語教學的相關法律條文，保證雙語教學的順利進行。

## 3. 教學方面的比較

教學方面的比較可以分爲：語言環境的比較、師資力量的比較、學生語言水準的比較、教材比較、教學方法的比較、評價機制的比較。

### 3.1 語言環境的比較

香港的社會語言環境為中英文並重。人們在日常生活中通常使用粵語，而在相對正式的社交場合則使用英語。因此，香港人使用的語言通

常被稱為“兩文三語”，兩文即用英文和中文，而三語指粵語、普通話和英語。香港自鴉片戰爭後在英國人的殖民統治下近百年，語言作為文化的載體受到英國統治當局的高度重視，在英國統治下一直比較強調英國語言的教育。原屬英國殖民地的香港，自 1974 年起，中、英文並列為雙官方語言 (official language ordinance)。這顯然與使用中文交流的內地的社會語言環境不同。語言環境的差異自然導致了高校學生的語言基礎不同。<sup>[6]</sup>

### 3.2 師資力量的比較

在雙語教學中教師的作用是不可低估的，師資隊伍的水準影響到雙語教學的品質。教師水準是個棘手的問題，因為它不僅僅是個教育問題，同時也是情感、社會和政治問題。研究表明，香港高校的教師隊伍多具備國際化背景。在香港擔任雙語教育的教師都是有能力，且富有敬業精神的雙語人才。例如，香港中文大學的近千名教師中，99% 擁有博士學位，擁有海外學歷的教師約占全體教師的 93%。所有應聘的老師其簡歷都被發送到 10 位該領域世界知名學者那裏，以求專家對其學術水準的評估。另大師級人物不在少數，如首位華人諾貝爾獎得主楊振寧教授、諾貝爾經濟學獎得主莫理斯爵士、多名中國工程院和科學院院士等，又加上外籍教師在該校所占比重非常大，教師來自 35 個國家和地區，絕大多數都是在歐美一流大學獲得博士學位，甚至是已在海外任教多年的學者。

和香港雙語教育的師資相比，內地的雙語教師隊伍的素質不容樂觀，儘管很多高校師資力量很強，但是具備國際化背景的教師比例遠低於前者，這也就意味著高校雙語教學的師資力量相對薄弱。內地的教師基本上都是單科型的，即使有少數教師可以勝任兩門以上學科的教授任務，也大多為自我興趣所致，並不具有普遍性。現在很多教師接受的是傳統教育，雖具有扎實的學科功底，但缺少學科的交叉與融合。但雙語教學卻要求教師必須有廣博的系列知識結構，扎實的英語基礎知識和聽說讀寫的交際能力。學科專業教師不能全面駕禦英語，英語教師缺乏豐富的尤其是自然科學的知識。可見，母語、外語和學科知識之間的矛盾會限制許多內地高校開展雙語教學試驗。因此，雙語教學要求教師不僅專業要精深、英語要好，還要求教師能用英語表達專業知識、解析專業辭彙，並能用英語與學生進行科學知識交流。<sup>[7]</sup>

### 3.3 學生語言水準的比較

學生的外語水準和接受雙語教學的能力直接影響雙語教學實施的真正效果和目的。香港學制以教學語言來分，分為中校(以中文為學科教學語言)和英校(以英語為學科教學語言)。大多數的學生在小學接受中校教育,到中學(7-13年級)後，開始接受英校教育。上世紀 60 年代開始，香港一直實施中校、英校雙軌制。香港的這種教育體制使學生在上大學之前就已經具備了良好的英文水準。所以，對於香港高校學生而言，在大學裏接受全英文的或者雙語的教育幾乎不存在任何障礙。總體來說，大陸學生接受大學教育之前的英語水準與香港學生的英語水準存在顯著的差異。內地教育語言主要為漢語，由於我國英語教學的弊端和由此引起

的大學生英語聽力能力不過關，有些大學生英語四、六級都通過了，但英語實際應用能力，特別是聽說能力較差。儘管目前各地區從小學起就開設英語課程，甚至很多地區在幼稚園裏開設英語課程，但是英語僅作為一門課程存在，英語並不是所有課程的授課語言。所以，實行雙語教學也並非每個學生都可以輕鬆接受。<sup>[8]</sup>

### 3.4 教材比較

教材是雙語教學的基本教學素材，也是雙語教學基本理念的拓展和具體化，雙語教材的品質也直接影響到雙語教學的效果和成敗。香港的8所大學全都直接選用國外的原版教材。因為國外的教材，基本上都是團隊在做，兩三年就改一次版，對國際學術前沿成果的吸收非常及時，針對性與實用性都比較強，且有相當多的教材都是一流科學家的傑作。內地的雙語教學所採用的教材主要有三大類組成：國外英文原版教材、中國內地編寫教材和學校自編教材。

香港雙語教學使用國外英文原版教材也存在著問題，如何處理文化背景和價值觀的差異，照顧少數外籍學生而犧牲多數香港本地學生的利益，某些內容脫離香港的社會環境和生活環境等等。為了使雙語教學良性發展，借鑒香港的經念，內地應開發適合中國國情的雙語教學教材。根據學校的不同、課程的不同、年級的不同、學科的不同、各個學校學生的英語能力不同，開發符合不同需要雙語教學教材來。<sup>[9]</sup>

### 3.5 教學方法的比較

香港高校全部採用一種稱為“浸入式”的雙語教學模式。所謂浸入式雙語教學是指用英語作為教學語言進行學科教學的一種教學模式。即學生在校的全部或部分時間被“浸泡”在英語環境中，教師只用英語面對學生，採用全英文（包括教案、教材和授課語言全部採用英文）教授課程。以香港中文大學為例，為學生提供專業課學習語言的選擇，即可以選擇粵語或普通話或英語來學習某門專業課程。也就是說同時存在著只用英文授課的、或者只用中文授課的同一門課程供學生選擇。如果學生選擇英文授課，則主張小班上課，採用英文原版教材，普通講授以英語為主，對於專業辭彙和難點用漢語講授，與學生的交流和討論也基本使用漢語，但學生的作業要用英文來寫作，考試也使用英文。

內地的雙語教學雖起步較晚，但發展迅速。從教學的角度來說，一切還是借鑒國外的經驗，結合本國的國情開展雙語教學。在教學方法上，主要還是以用外語講授學科知識為主，目的在於在學習學科知識的同時掌握外語。根據師資和學生的外語水準與專業知識的實際，在高校開展雙語教學的模式大致存在三種類型：全外型，學生以外文形式接受所學知識，這是屬於高層次的雙語教學模式。混合型，這種雙語教學模式，採用外文教材，教師採用外文與漢語交錯進行講授，對於學生來講易於對知識的接受，這種模式與全外型比較屬於較低一個層次。

半外型，採用外文教材，用漢語講授，主要原因是學生外語基礎知識和接受能力薄弱所致。這種模式屬於雙語教學模式的一種較初級形式。

對於國內第二種類型，老師在一節課中，用漢語和英語兩種語言

進行教學，一個教師能夠在一節課中執行兩種套路，並頻繁地換套路嗎？回答是否定的。其中的重要原因之一，就是沒有吃透高校雙語教學的目的與定位。早期的香港中學教學就是採用了國內的第二種類型雙語教學模式，研究統計表明香港師生之間的語言轉換的頻率大約為每 18 秒鐘一次。<sup>[10]</sup>使用這種方式教學，學生與教師的溝通當然沒有問題，問題的關鍵是，在這樣一種頻繁“混合”與“轉換”環境中，學生既沒學好學科知識又不能提高語英語言水準，香港的這種失敗教訓值得我們重視。<sup>[11]</sup>

### 3.6 評價機制的比較

評價機制的改革是實施雙語教學的保證。香港高校經過多年的摸索與實踐，已經對雙語教學形成了相對比較完善的評價機制。例如，香港中文大學在 2005 年 2 月成立了雙語政策委員會，由前任校長金耀基教授擔任主席，學生、教師以及教學管理人員都直接地參與教學評價。內地高校的雙語教學剛剛起步，由於以上諸多原因，以及各高校的情況不盡相同，因此，尚未形成統一的評價標準，尚未形成可供推廣的評價機制。要進行雙語教學，真正實施素質教育，就必須改變舊有的評價手段、評價內容和評價方法，形成良好的評價機制和導向機制，鼓勵學生向多元化發展，重視學生的文化、語言和知識等各個方面的綜合素養。學生、教師以及教學管理人員都可以真正意義地參與教學評價，嚴格的評價機制是學校激勵教學進步的有效措施，是培養高品質人才的良好保障。只有建立這樣的發展性評價，才能成為學生雙語學習積極性的又一種推動力。<sup>[12]</sup>

## 四、結論

我們在實施雙語教學的過程中，要明確我們開展雙語教學的本質與目的以及雙語教學的方向，始終堅持用漢語與英語兩種語言同時作為教學媒介，使漢語與英語兩種語言相互促進，相互提高。內地開展的雙語教學，旨在通過漢語與英語兩種語言的教學，同時提高學生的雙語水準，培養雙語、雙元文化的複合型人才，這與香港雙語教育的目的基本相同，而且在雙語教學的本質上也屬於強式雙語教育，這是兩國開展雙語教學中的共性所在。雖然內地有許多的雙語教學檔出臺，但由於在內地相關的雙語教學法律檔還沒有健全，這使得雙語教學的開展在力度上不如香港。尤其是內地開展雙語教學還處於嘗試階段，所以，兩地表現出很多的差異性，主要表現在兩地的雙語教學的政策和具體的教學環節上。此外，由於人口結構以及英語在內地屬於外語等其他因素，雙語教師隊伍的建設問題就凸現出來。因此，雙語教師隊伍的建設應進一步加強，可以通過引進外教或派出內地教師到英語為母語的國家進修學習，提高自己的語言水準和學科知識。總之，內地雙語教學試驗和推進要取得成功，必須要做好的是充分掌握過去國內外雙語教育教學的優秀經驗，同時將這些經驗進行研究和學習，根據現有條件，合理定位雙語教學試驗的目標，在充分規劃和可行性研究的基礎上，大膽探索與實踐。在教材編寫和教學方法等方面，我們目前可以效仿香港等國家，因為香港雙語教學的實踐已經積累了許多經驗，值得我們有取捨的借鑒。

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## 臺灣地區技職院校評鑒制度：特徵與成因

### A Comparative Study of the Evaluation Systems of Higher Technological and Vocational Education in Mainland China and Taiwan

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#### 摘要

本文主要從臺灣地區技職院校評鑒制度的法規體系、組織架構、範圍標準、實施程式、品質監控等五個方面展開探討，分析其評鑒制度的基本特徵，總結出一些可供大陸學習借鑒的啓示。

教育評鑒 (Education Evaluation) 中國大陸稱之為“教育評價”或“教育評估”。1971年，Daniel L. Stufflebeam 在其《Educational Evaluation and Decision Making》闡明：教育評鑒是描述、取得和提供有用資料，作為判斷各種決策變通方案的歷程，其最重要意圖不是為了要證明 (Prove)，而是為了改進 (Improve)。<sup>[1]</sup> 20 世紀 90 年代，學校本位評鑒開始受到了國際教育界的重視。Nevo, D. (1994年) 在其論文<sup>[2]</sup> 中指出：學校本位評鑒，系以內部評鑒為主，並融合外部評鑒。1994 年，臺灣頒佈新修訂的《大學法》，賦予“教育部”對大學院校實施評鑒工作的法源依據。

#### 一、臺灣地區高等技職院校評鑒制度的特徵

這裏主要從臺灣技職院校評鑒制度的法規體系、組織架構、範圍標準、實施程式、品質監控等五個方面展開探討：

##### (一) 完備的法規體系，確保依法定期評鑒

臺灣《大學法》第四條第三項規定：各大學之發展方向及重點，由各校依需要及特色自行規劃，報經“教育部”核備後實施，並由“教育部”評鑒之。《大學法施行細則》第二條：“本法第四條第三項關於各大學發展方向及重點之評鑒，由教育部組織評審委員會辦理之”。<sup>[3]</sup> 此外，還有如《技職校院評鑒訪視實施原則》、《教育部獎補助私立技專校院整體發展經費核配及申請要點草案》、《技術學院專案評鑒申請原則》等等法規。

針對《大學法》的規定，高等教育主管單位邀集相關的學者與院校組成“規劃諮詢委員會”，並於 1996 年 3 月間完成“教育部大學評鑒計畫草案”的擬訂，針對計畫依據、計畫目的、計畫原則、經費來源、計畫要項、實施內容、預期結果等，都一一詳加說明。<sup>[4]</sup> 與之相應，還制定了各種配套的規章制度，並規定技職院校每四年要實施一次評鑒。可見，完善的法規體系是臺灣依法行政，定期辦理技職院校評鑒的重要保障。

## (二) 獨立的評鑒機構，體現評鑒公平專業

目前，臺灣的院校評鑒主體有：有政府部門、學術團體及民間評鑒機構和高等技職院校。

1) 政府部門。在臺灣，高等技職院校有公立及私立之分，其中，公立學校大約有 60% 的辦學經費來自於政府，而私立也有 20-30% 的比例。事實上，政府需要通過評鑒來判斷哪些學校及專業是值得資助的。因此，“教育部”技職司會將這項工作委託給民間評鑒機構。

2) 學術團體及民間評鑒機構。臺灣評鑒的組織機構是學術團體及民間的評鑒組織——社團法人“臺灣評鑒協會”。其組成人員為機構成員學校的校長、教授及各方面的專家、研究機構的學者、有關企事業單位的代表。評鑒工作由評鑒機構接受官方委託，嚴格地依據評鑒標準和評鑒程式進行評鑒。

3) 高等技職院校。在臺灣，市場競爭已經滲透到了技職院校，作為獨立法人組織的技職院校，為了在激烈的競爭中避免退場、求得生存和發展，就必須保證品質。因此，高等技職院校作為評鑒的主體，常常也會通過自評，以期達到自我完善、改進及提高的目的。

## (三) 全面的評鑒範圍，務求評鑒客觀公正

臺灣對高等技職類院校實施的評鑒範圍主要分為行政與專業兩大類：

行政類是以學校的整體為受評對象，主要就學校校務行政的業務進行綜合的評鑒，包括有：

1) 綜合校務：主要針對各校的辦學理念與特色、校務發展的計畫與執行、獎補助經費使用情況、教師提供專業服務、整體性的教育效能、產學合作與推廣、國際合作、外語能力的改善措施與成效、社會貢獻與校友服務等等的具體規劃與成效進行評鑒。

2) 教務行政：主要針對受評學校教務行政、課程發展與教學改善、教學評量與追蹤改善、圖書資訊之規劃與推廣、教學支持機制及遠距教學成效、跨科系教學組織或學程運作、計算器中心等業務單位、規劃情形及執行成效進行評鑒。

3) 學務行政：主要針對受評學校學務行政、導師工作、社團活動、生活輔導、輔導咨商、衛生保健等業務單位、規劃情形及執行成效進行評鑒。

4) 行政支持：主要針對學校組織與發展、特色組織或單位、人事業務、會計行政、財務狀況、總務行政、校舍校地面積與規劃、校園安全等業務單位、規劃情形及執行成效進行評鑒。

專業類是針對校內各學院及其科系所的辦學情況進行評鑒，強調的是某一專業領域的教學品質。其內容包括：專業科系的教育理念與目標、師資專長、課程結構、教學實施、實習設備、行政管理、專業圖書、教師提供專業服務、教師在產業的實務研習、產學合作、畢業生專業證照與就業表現、科系辦學成效等。

通過行政類及專業類的評鑒，對一個學校的辦學效能、培養人才的情況及特色專案有了一個全面的、深入的瞭解，是關於學校的總體效能的評鑒。



#### (四) 科學的實施程式，多樣的評鑒方式

在臺灣，技職院校評鑒的實施程式包括：評鑒事宜的準備——評鑒工作的實施——評鑒成績的匯整與公佈<sup>61</sup>：1) 評鑒事宜的準備包括：建立評鑒指標、建制網路填表系統。2) 評鑒工作的實施：評鑒包括學校的自我評鑒及評鑒委員的實地評鑒兩項。實地評鑒則是由各類組評鑒委員，按照預定評鑒行程赴各校進行實地評鑒，以瞭解各校實際狀況。內容包括有校務發展與運作的業務演示文稿、實地訪事與參閱資料、與教職員及學生分組晤談、評鑒委員與受評單位座談、以及綜合座談。3) 評鑒成績的匯整與公佈：其具體步驟：一是統整評鑒報告；二是受理學校審複檢討會議；三是召開審複檢討會議；四是召開總檢討會議；五是辦理學校座談會；六是完成評鑒報告；七是報“教育部”；八是鍵入評鑒資料系統，上網公告各校的評鑒成績和報告，供社會大眾瞭解高等技職教育各校的辦學特色。

目前，臺灣技職院校評鑒分為例行評鑒、追蹤評鑒及專案評鑒：1) 例行評鑒：即綜合評鑒，4年一次，目的是定期檢視全台各校辦學的方向與效益，提供各校自我提升及相互觀摩的機會；同時也是“教育部”管制各項獎補助款及各系科進退場機制的重要參考依據。2) 追蹤評鑒：對於例行評鑒技術學院及專科學校成績三等以下的系科，由“教育部”組成“諮詢輔導團”訪視，次年進行以輔導為主旨的“追蹤評鑒”。3) 專案評鑒：對於需要特殊輔導的學校或科系或是“教育部”具有特殊任務時，不定期辦理項目評鑒。

#### (五) 常態的後設評鑒與透明的評鑒資訊，確保了評鑒品質

在臺灣，評鑒工作完成後還需要對評鑒活動本身進行一個評鑒，即後設評鑒。後設評鑒(meta-evaluation)的目的在於發現評鑒的問題，重視評鑒後的檢討，藉以改進評鑒的品質，其內容包括評鑒的規劃、評鑒的設計、評鑒的實施、評鑒結果的利用等各項活動的表現。在評鑒過程中，由於可能存在個人偏見或某些疏忽而造成結果的偏差，因此需要針對評鑒程式或結果進行檢討。

在臺灣，“教育部”技職司有一個評鑒資訊網，要求受評院校定期把自評材料及評鑒計畫上報評鑒工作小組；小組會及時地把評鑒計畫、工作進展、評鑒結果上傳評鑒資訊網，以公眾瞭解、監督整個評鑒工作。

## 二、臺灣地區高等技職院校評鑒制度成因分析

### (一) 政治因素

政治因素，最為集中的表現是高等技職教育所採取的管理體制。<sup>62</sup>高等技職教育的管理體制是高等技職教育的機構設置、權責劃分、工作運行的組織制度體系。高等技職教育管理體制必定涉及高等技職教育的舉辦者、辦學者和管理者的責、權、利的關係問題等因素，其中舉辦者的性質是決定因素。因而，建立何種高等教育評鑒制度直接取決於管理體制的類型。

臺灣社會深受西方的影響，同時身處東亞文化圈，因此政治上更多的表現為中西方的衝突。一方面其高等教育的權威分配模式體現了倒金字塔型的中央集權式的臺灣模式，即“教育部”位於權力的最上層，大學直接受“教育部”的管理，在這一方面體現出了其政治“中”的方面，表現出了中央集權式的管理體制；另一方面，在政治上追求自由與民主，形成了多元的臺灣政治，在此背景下，各高校力爭權力，爭取更多的自治權。因此，致使臺灣的政治不能直接控制高校，而僅僅能通過宏觀調控來達到管理的目的。在這個意義上來說，臺灣的管理體制更體現出其複合型的特徵，即由臺灣當局與地方政府，或政府與高等技職教育部門共同承擔高等技職院校管理的職能。在這種體制中，臺灣當局、地方和高校分享高等教育管理權，各自行使不同的職責。臺灣高等技職院校的學術團體和法人——“臺灣評鑒協會”共同構建了官民兩套評估仲介機構，既保證臺灣當局對各校設置標準的控制，又保證高校的自治性。

### （二）經濟因素

被譽為亞洲“四小龍”之首的臺灣，其技職教育規劃與發展一直是以配合經濟發展這個主軸來開展，確實靈活地發揮了“培育學生就業能力，加速經濟建設”的實用性教育功能。技職教育所發揮的有效功能對近 50 多年來臺灣的社會經濟發展做出了無可取代的貢獻。自 1953 年開始，臺灣經濟由恢復期逐漸進入發展期，推行四年為一階段的經濟建設計畫，適時地為不同時期重點產業提供具有一定技術水準和技能的人力資源。目前，臺灣已經成為當今世界上第三大資訊產品生產基地。從某種程度上來說，臺灣是一個市場化程度較高的地區。市場競爭滲透到了臺灣高等教育的每一個系統，尤其是在私立高等技職院校比例占多數的背景下，這種競爭愈顯激烈。為了保證和提高教育品質，近年來臺灣開始實施了“退場機制”，即要求舉辦不合格者退出辦學市場。這樣的舉動使得無論是政府還是高等技職院校本身都非常強調評鑒，並且引致了高等技職院校的一種自發行爲，即為了學校的生存和發展必須提高教育品質。

### （三）文化因素

文化傳統是各民族文化在長期的歷史發展過程中積澱成爲的文化心理，對一個民族的影響是潛移默化、揮之不去的，即使社會結構發生根本變革，它仍會於不知不覺中影響當代人們的行爲與活動。<sup>[7]</sup>文化傳統對高等技術教育最直接的影響表現在教育價值觀中。而教育評鑒作為對高等技職教育作出判斷的社會活動，深受文化傳統的制約。同時，一個地區的傳統文化也會受外來文化的影響，這種影響會相應地反映在社會制度層面。中國臺灣地處東亞文化圈，同樣深受傳統中國文化的影響。但是，臺灣歷史具有其特殊性，百年來走過了獨特的歷史發展道路，一直處於文化衝突與交融的前沿地帶。經過持續的社會轉型與文化衝突、交融、演化，一種與中國大陸文化血脈相連，同時又具有濃郁地域特色和多元開放格局的臺灣地方文化已經形成。反映在高等技職教育評鑒中的突出表現是評鑒的多樣化與多元化特徵。

### 三、對大陸的啓示

首先，建立經濟建設、院校發展及評鑒制度之間的互動關係

研究表明：<sup>[8]</sup>半個多世紀以來臺灣經濟建設的巨大成功是與其技職教育，尤其與高等技職教育發展分不開的。這表現為高等技職教育很好地配合了臺灣社會在經濟恢復、起飛、升級等不同歷史時期的成功轉型。教育評鑒作為監控技職院校的手段，其功能之一正是檢驗高等技職教育對經濟發展的配合程度，指導技職院校適時調整培養目標。因此，大陸在對技職院校及地方實用型高校評鑒時，要講究因地制宜，開展特色評估，無論是對院校整體評鑒還是對其專業評鑒都要以服務於地方經濟建設為根本出發點，努力構建經濟建設、院校發展及評鑒制度三者之間的互動關係，促進地區社會經濟發展。

其次，構建完善的評鑒制度，促進評鑒工作科學化

在臺灣，完備的評鑒法規，定期依法評鑒；多元的評鑒主體，獨立的民間評鑒組織；全面的評鑒範圍，注重特色辦學而使評鑒指標的彈性化；科學的評鑒程式，多樣的評鑒模式及方式；人性化的回饋機制，後設評鑒及公開透明的評鑒資訊等等，都是大陸職業院校評鑒制度建設需要學習借鑒的地方。

第三，籌設專業的評鑒仲介機構，打造一支結構合理的專業化的評委隊伍

早期，臺灣技職院校評鑒工作也是由“教育部”一手操辦。隨著社會經濟發展，20世紀80年代開始由學術團體及民間評鑒組織來實施評鑒的各項工作。評鑒機構的改變提高了評鑒的專業性及有效性。實踐證明：專業評鑒仲介機構可以專門負責評鑒的研究、規劃、設計與實施，很好地配合院校內部評鑒，並提供評委培訓、支援與資訊，以解決評鑒的相關問題。尤其，從評鑒委員的遴選原則，到評鑒委員的回避原則，要求評鑒人員在評鑒工作中深入系所評鑒等等，都有一套完善成熟的評鑒委員制度。顯然，籌設獨立的評鑒仲介機構，培養一支結構合理的專業的評委隊伍尤為必要。

第四，建置評鑒的資訊系統，確保評鑒工作的透明與公正

臺灣高等技職院校評鑒的資訊系統是其特色之一。評鑒機構要求各校每年定期在資訊網上更新資料庫，並且讓資訊網公開化。這樣就可以讓所有對高等技職教育有興趣的社會大眾參與及監督其發展，從而促使學校的不斷發展。目前，大陸地區初步建立起“高職高專人才培养水準評估網”，但是評鑒的完整資訊有待進一步公開。再則，就技職院校的評鑒制度而言，政府應與教育機構、社會企業等通過公開的對談方式，建立一套雙方認同的高等技職院校評鑒制度，並通過建立起的評鑒資訊系統，動態地觀察到整個學校評鑒及改進的過程。這樣，通過外部來促進內部的真正進步。

第五，建立評鑒的回饋機制，提高技職院校評鑒品質

通過建立後設評鑒制度來改進評鑒的品質，使評鑒的理論與實踐得到不斷的提高與完善。後設評鑒(meta-evaluation)的目的在發現評鑒的問題，重視對評鑒工作本身的檢討，藉此改進評鑒的品質，其內容可包括評鑒規劃、評鑒設計、評鑒實施、評鑒結果的利用等各項活動的表現。目前大陸地區的后設評鑒制度還有待改進，通過多種方式如“綜合

座談會”、“審複製度”等機制，提高大陸技職院校評鑒工作品質。

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## 國家示範性高職院校建設計畫的政策解讀

### National Demonstration Higher Vocational Schools in China: policy background, aims, content and implementation

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#### Abstract

China's rapid economic development has meant that higher vocational education has been given substantially greater importance in that country's education strategy. National Demonstration Higher Vocational Schools have been established since 2006. This paper discusses the related policy's background, aims and main content. Some problems in the implementation of the policy are identified, with the aim of contributing to the better realization of the policy goals and the further development of higher vocational education in China.

#### 摘要

隨著經濟的高速發展，我國大陸的高職教育也日益受到重視。國家示範性高職院校建設的計畫從 2006 年正式啓動，目前還在實施中。本文主要闡述了此政策出臺的背景、主要內容和目標，並在此基礎上提出政策執行中應注意的問題，以期能夠為更好地實現政策目標，推動高職教育的發展提供參考。

近年來，隨著經濟的不斷發展，職業教育也隨之發展起來，國家政府也越來越重視職業教育的發展，尤其是高等職業教育的發展深受關注。2006 年 11 月 3 日，教育部、財政部在《關於實施國家示範性高等職業院校建設計畫加快高等職業教育改革與發展的意見》(教高[2006] 14 號)中明確提出：“十一五”期間，國家財政將投資 20 億建設 100 所國家示範性高等職業院校。所謂示範性高等職業院校即很好地實現高職院校培養目標的院校。這項被稱為高職“211 工程”的國家示範性高等職業院校建設計畫的政策的具体內容是什麼呢？本文將從一下幾方面進行解讀：

#### 一、政策出臺的背景

##### (一) 經濟背景

職業教育的發展與經濟密切相關，產業結構將影響和制約著人才結構，而人才的需求主要是通過職業教育來培養的，因而，產業結構的發展變化將影響到職業教育的調整。下面我們先來看一下我國大陸 1978 年以來產業結構的演變情況：

表1：我國大陸產業結構演變情況表(單位：%) 資料經整理而得<sup>1</sup>

| 類別   | 年份 | 1978年 | 1990年 | 2000年 | 2006年 |
|------|----|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| 第一產業 |    | 28.1  | 22.6  | 15.9  | 12.0  |
| 第二產業 |    | 44.3  | 41.94 | 44.3  | 49.0  |
| 第三產業 |    | 23.7  | 28.0  | 33.2  | 39.0  |

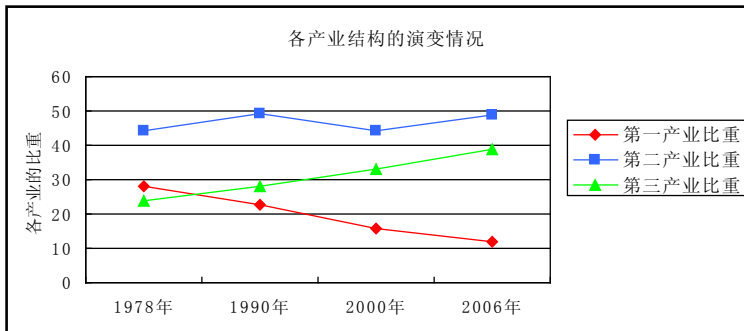


圖1：我國大陸各產業結構的演變情況

從表 1 及圖 1 可以看出，自改革開放以來，我國大陸第一產業所占比重大幅減少，第三產業所占比重有較大幅度提高，第二產業比重也有所提高，但變化趨勢不是很穩定。不過，總體上說明了我國大陸的產業結構水準不斷得到優化。

產業結構的這一重大變化必然帶來職業種類的重大調整，職業種類變化的總體趨勢是朝著對從業人員要求更高的職業發展（服務業對從業人員的文化要求，比及其生產對工人文化的要求，通常更高<sup>2</sup>。）目前，我國大陸無論是裝備製造、鋼鐵有色等傳統支柱產業，還是電子資訊、新材料、生物醫藥及等新興產業和第三產業服務業的發展，都在不同程度上出現了技能人才緊缺現象。各類人才需求量大，人才培育總體上落後於產業發展要求。因此，職業教育在人才培養層次上也是不斷上升的，由培養初級人才為主轉向培養中等層次人才為主，進而以培養高等人才為主的變化過程。

## （二）宏觀政策背景

隨著經濟全球化步伐的加快以及我國大陸市場經濟體制的不斷完善，社會對高技能人才的需求也不斷加大。作為培養技能性人才的職業教育在我國大陸有著廣闊的發展空間，黨中央國務院也高度重視職業教育的發展，不斷加強對職業教育的改革，2000 年就開始提出實施示範性職業技術學院建設計畫。2000 年教育部公佈教發 [2000] 140 號檔，確定北京工業職業技術學院等 15 所高等學校為第一批示範性職業技術學院建設單位。2001 年教育部公佈 [2001] 29 號檔，確定北京聯合大學等 16 所高等學校為第二批示範性技術學院建設單位。2002 年中央下發財政部財



教 [2002] 1093 號檔，投入中央職業教育專項資金12450萬元，並要求各級地方政府支援。2005 年 10 月 28 日，國務院發佈了《國務院關於大力發展職業教育的決定》，明確了今後一個時期我國大陸職業教育改革與發展的指導思想、目標任務政策措施，此次已經提出了建設 100 所國家示範性高職院校的計畫<sup>3</sup>。2006 年 8 月 29 日，胡錦濤同志在中央政治局第 34 次集體學習時指出：“普及和鞏固義務教育，大力發展職業教育，提高高等教育品質，是‘十一五’規劃綱要對教育事業發展提出的三項主要任務，必須切實抓緊抓實抓好。”<sup>4</sup>

此外，黨中央、國務院非常關心和重視家庭經濟困難學生接受職業教育，2005 年，溫家寶總理在全國職教會上明確提出：“要建立和完善職業教育學生助學制度，使貧困家庭學生通過國家幫助和本人勤工儉學得以順利完成學業，進一步體現社會主義教育的公平與公正。”<sup>5</sup>

### （三）高職教育自身發展的背景

我國大陸從 1999 年實施擴招政策，每年高校學生數穩步增長，高職教育作為高等教育的一個部分，在高等教育大眾化背景中，高職教育也得到了發展。近幾年我國大陸高職院校的規模如下：

|       | 招生人數           | 在校生人數        | 院校數           |
|-------|----------------|--------------|---------------|
| 1998年 | 43萬人(39.8%)    | 117萬人(34.4%) | 386所 (45.5%)  |
| 2003年 | 200萬人(52.0%)   | 480萬人(43%)   | 980所 (58.5%)  |
| 2005年 | 268.1萬人(53.1%) | 117萬人(34.4%) | 1091所 (60.9%) |
| 2006年 | 295萬人(54%)     | 795萬人(45.8%) | 1147所 (61.4%) |

資料來源：《全國教育事業發展統計公報》所提供的資料整理而得<sup>6</sup>

由此表可知：1998 年全國獨立設置高職（專科）院校 386 所，到 2005 年底已增加到 1091 所，是 1998 年的 2.5 倍。其中，2005 年全國獨立設置高職（專科）院校數占普通高等學校總數的 60.9%，比 1998 年提高了 14.5 個百分點；2005 年全國高職（專科）招生人數達 268.1 萬人，是 1998 年的 5.6 倍，高職（專科）學生招生占全國普通高校本、專科的比例，由 1998 年的 39.8% 提高到 2005 年的 53.1%，年均遞增 1.9 個百分點；2005 年全國高職（專科）在校生人數為 713 萬人，占本、專科在校生總數的 45.7%，比 1998 年提高 11.3 個百分點。

可見，我國大陸高職教育發展迅猛，短短幾年的時間就已佔據我國高等教育的半壁江山，為我國大陸高等教育大眾化目標的實現做出了巨大貢獻，高等職業教育的快速發展，加快了我國高等教育大眾化的步伐，但也必須清醒地認識到，職業教育在整個高等教育體系中的弱勢地位沒有發生根本性改變，而且高職教育的品質卻一直不容樂觀，溫家寶總理在 2006 年 5 月 10 日主持召開的國務院常務會議中明確提出，高等教育要適當控制招生規模的增長幅度，相對穩定招生規模，切實把重點放在提高品質上來。

此外，教育經費的問題一直是制約職業教育發展的主要因素。由於職業教育的辦學經費通常是普通學校的 4 倍，但政府對職業教育的教育經

費投入卻非常有限，1996 年我國大陸職業教育經費占國家教育經費總額的 11.5%，2000 年下降為 8.4%；1996 年行業舉辦職業教育的經費占職業教育總經費的比例為 11.33%，2000 年下降為 5%，由於對高職教育的經費投入不足，嚴重阻礙了高職教育的發展<sup>7</sup>。

因此，要切實地提高高職的教育品質，建設國家示範性高職院校，增加政策的財政經費投入勢在必行。

## 二、政策的主要內容和目標

### （一）政策的主要內容

《關於實施國家示範性高等職業院校建設計畫加快高等職業教育改革與發展的意見》中明確提出：“十一五”期間，國家財政將投資 20 億元建設 100 所國家示範性高等職業院校。通過重點建設 100 所國家示範性高職院校，帶動全國高職院校深化改革，提升高等職業教育的整體水準。

該計畫實施是從 2006 年-2010 年，按年度、分地區分批推進，穩步發展。中央財政對入選示範院校實行經費一次確定、三年到位，專案逐年考核、適時調整的做法。對年度績效考核不合格的院校，終止立項和支持。中央財政預留部分資金，對專案執行情況好的院校實行獎勵。

2006 年，制訂建設專案總體規劃和管理辦法，啓動第一批 30 所左右示範院校的專案建設（實際 2006 年評審通過了 28 所國家示範性高職院校）。中央財政根據專案建設進度安排資金，地方財政按職責劃分對示範院校專案進行重點支持。

2007 年，啓動第二批 40 所左右示範院校的項目建設；啓動中央級共用型專業教學資源庫建設並完成公共管理平臺建設。繼續執行首批示範院校的項目建設。中央財政根據專案建設進度安排資金，地方財政按職責劃分對示範院校專案進行重點支持<sup>8</sup>。

2008 年，啓動第三批 30 所左右示範院校的項目建設。完成首批示範院校的項目建設並進行驗收，繼續執行第二批示範院校的項目建設。中央財政根據專案建設進度安排資金，地方財政按職責劃分對示範院校專案進行重點支持<sup>9</sup>。

2009 年，繼續執行第三批示範院校的項目建設，完成第二批示範院校的項目建設並進行驗收。中央財政根據專案建設進度安排資金，地方財政按職責劃分對示範院校專案進行重點支持<sup>10</sup>。

2010 年，完成第三批示範院校的項目建設並進行驗收。對因考核不合格而淘汰院校的空缺數額進行滾動補充，安排預留經費對專案執行情況突出的院校進行支援和獎勵<sup>11</sup>。

實施國家示範性高等職業院校建設計畫，是加快高等職業教育改革與發展的重要戰略舉措。各地要充分認識建設計畫實施的重大意義，高度重視國家示範性高等職業院校建設，納入規劃，統籌管理，確保落實改革的各項政策、措施，全面推動高等職業教育健康、快速發展。

### （二）政策目標

我國大陸高等職業教育的主要任務是加強內涵建設，提高教育品質



質。要完成這樣一個戰略任務，主要從兩個方面來推進，一是指導面上所有高職院校辦出特色，提高品質。全國有 1,000 多所高等職業院校，全日制在校生已經接近 800 萬，必須提高每一所學校的教育品質。

二是示範性高職院校建設計畫。根據《國務院關於大力發展職業教育的決定》要求，國家在“十一五”期間實施國家示範性高等職業院校建設計畫，按照地方為主、中央引導、突出重點、協調發展的原則，重點支持 100 所高水準示範院校建設。如此大規模的高等職業院校建設計畫，在我國職業教育發展歷史上是第一次，體現了黨中央、國務院對職業教育的關懷，體現了黨中央、國務院對高等職業教育事業發展的高度重視。

通過實施國家示範性高等職業院校建設計畫，使示範性高職院校在辦學實力、教學品質、管理水準、辦學效益輻射能力等方面有較大提高，特別是在深化教育教學改革、創新人才培養模式、建設高水準專兼結合專業教學團隊、提高社會服務能力和創建辦學特色等方面取得明顯進展。發揮示範性高職院校的示範作用，並總結出可借鑒可推廣的經驗、模式和制度，帶動高等職業教育加快改革與發展，逐步形成結構合理、功能完善、品質優良的高等職業教育體系，更好地為經濟建設和社會發展服務。

### 三、政策執行中應注意的問題

建設國家示範性高職院校是個長期而且艱巨的任務，在當今多變的世界中，特別是突如其來的經濟危機，此項任務更顯複雜。因此，這一政策在執行中要綜合考慮各方面的因素。

#### （一）支援建設國家示範性高職院校的同時防止兩極分化

“十一五”期間，建設 100 所國家示範性高職院校（在我國全部高職院校中僅占十幾分之一）的政策，目的是讓這 100 所高職院校在高職教育中起到先鋒、模範的作用，帶動和幫助其他弱勢高職院校發展起來，最終實現高職院校的共同發展，使高職教育品質的整體水準得到提高。這一政策可用鄧小平同志的先富思想來闡釋：即讓一部分人先富起來，先富的帶動和幫助貧困的，最終實現共同富裕。但如果這一思想用之不當，就會造成兩極分化，危害社會穩定。因此，在投資建設國家示範性高職院校的同時，也要兼顧其他高職院校的均衡發展。

此外，從“非示範性”高職院校的角度來看，他們要想學習“示範性”高職院校的辦學模式、管理體制等各方面的經驗，一個重要的因素就是經費投入，而“非示範性院校”不能像“示範性院校”那樣從政府那裏拿到經費，因此，由於資金的不足，他們很難效仿“示範性院校”的做法。而從示範性院校的角度來看，目前，大多職業院校都是民辦院校，院校間存在很強的競爭意識，這種競爭效應的負面影響（如生源、經濟利益），可能會使“示範性院校”不會主動、積極地扶持和幫助“非示範性院校”，這些都會加劇院校間的差異，加大兩極分化。

因此，政府要發揮宏觀調控的作用，開展一些院校間可以共用的教育教學資源庫，加強院校間的溝通與合作。此外，我國目前的經濟發展

水準相對較低，高職教育的經費還不能完全靠到國家財政投入，這就需要政府去調動社會各方面的力量，調動社會的閒散資金，使其成為高職教育發展的重要資金籌集的管道，真正做到大家的教育大家辦。

## （二）以就業為導向的指導思想中，不能忽視人文素養的教育

建設國家示範性高職院校中，不斷強調“要以就業為導向，加強學生的職業技能的培訓。”但同時不可忽視的是人文素養的教育。任何類型的教育都是先成“人”，然後再成“才”，高職教育同樣如此。如果說高職學生的專業不合格是“殘次品”，那麼人文素質不合格就是“危險品”。進行人文素質教育是學生自身發展的需要，同時也是當代社會對“人才”的需要。現代科技發展迅速，很少有一層不變的工作，崗位對人的要求變化很快，需要不斷更新知識和技能，這就要就高職學生要有終生學習的理念和能力。其次，人文素養也是企業界的需求。企業不僅看重學生的“做事”能力，更看中的是“做人”的水準，只有綜合素質高的人才能適應現代社會的需求。

因此，示範性高職院校在建設中，在加強學生技能培訓的同時，要結合人文素養的教育，秉著為社會服務、為社會負責的信念，培養高素質的全面發展的人才，在高職院校中真正地發揮示範作用。

## （三）示範性高職院校要凸顯“職”的特色

職業教育是與經濟發展關係密切的，當今世界性的金融海嘯，不可避免的要衝擊高職教育領域，對於高職教育來說，既是挑戰又是機遇。高職院校要凸顯自己的“職”，要有自己學校的特色，專業設置要與社會經濟發展適應，要具有一定的前瞻性，能夠很好地利用這次經濟危機的機遇，開創自我的特色。但同時要有清醒的頭腦，不能盲目跟風，有不少院校的專業開設與普通高校沒什麼區別，失去了自己的特色。因此，示範性高職院校的示範性就更顯重要。在辦學上更要凸顯其“職”，從而發揮它的示範、輻射作用，使非示範性高職院校認識到這樣的理念：只能有了自己的特色，才可能有發展的契機。

建設國家示範性高職院校是一項浩大的工程，同時也是一項長期性、持續性改進的過程。其本身也是一個創新的過程，正像鄧小平同志的先富和共同富裕的過程一樣，這個過程需要大膽地改革，同時更需要建設者深刻理解和把握這項工程的核心思想和精髓，合理配置和充分利用各方面資源，從而實現這項計畫的最終目的，全面地提高高職教育的整體品質水準。

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# **Can the Capability Approach Provide a Theoretical Framework that Can Contribute to the Advancement of Educational Policies Aimed at *Education for All* in Ethiopia?**

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## **Education for children with individual needs in Ethiopia – An overview**

The education system in Ethiopia has developed in parallel to religious developments in the country. Christianity has been spreading since 330 AD. Until the end of the 19th century the responsibility for the education fell mainly to the Orthodox Church, the Jewish community and a few Koranic schools. These religious educational institutions have the following in common: “conservative in thought and deed”; and the students are expected to be “quiet, polite, shy, unquestioning, obedient, respectful”. The characteristic methodology “at all levels is based on repetition and memorization” (Teshome 1979, p. 23). The beginning of modern education in Ethiopia can be dated to the opening of the Minilik II School in Addis Ababa in 1908.

The history of education of children with individual needs is quite recent and, generally speaking, has been associated with the perception of persons with disability. Looking at the prevalence of disabilities in Ethiopia, various pre-, peri- and post-natal disabling factors (health of expectant mothers, difficulties at childbirth, infectious diseases, traditional harmful practices, under- and malnutrition, drought and famine) and a lack of early primary and secondary preventive services in the country has led to a high incidence of disabilities. Data on the prevalence and the well-beings of persons with disabilities are fragmentary, incomplete and sometimes questionable. According to the report of the Housing and Population Census of the Ethiopian Government (CSA 1998), persons with disabilities constitute 1.9% of the total population. This estimate is relatively lower than estimates made, for example, by the WHO. The gap between different estimates may be explained by the definition of disability or persons with disabilities, as well as socio-cultural factors. From a socio-cultural perspective, some families may not admit to having a child with a disability for fear of stigmatization. Furthermore, some families may oversee mild impairments such as poor vision, poor hearing, mild developmental delays and linguistic disorders as long as they do not limit the daily activities and duties of a person. Within large parts of Ethiopian society there is a tendency to label persons with disabilities as weak, useless, burdensome and unable to learn (Zehle 2008). Such

misconceptions of causal attribution, added to the misunderstanding of the capabilities of persons with disabilities, have brought about widespread negative attitudes towards and stereotyped judgments of them. A study conducted to explore attitudes of the Ethiopian population towards persons with disabilities revealed stereotyped and insulting expressions used in the Amharic language, for example *Donkoro* and *Duda* (a person who cannot understand, who is tongue-tied), *Ewir* and *Denbera* (a person who is not bright), *Shibba* and *Ankassa Kulem* (a person who is curved or lame), or *Ganel Am* and *Likfit Am* (a person who is possessed by evil spirits) (Tirussew 1998, 2005).

On the other hand, there is a shift in thinking by a segment of the population who are becoming aware of disability as a medical rehabilitation or social issue. Through the efforts of NGOs such as the National Association of Persons with Disabilities, as well as of various professionals and stakeholders, the Ethiopian Government has taken measures to address the individual needs of persons with disabilities. The Education and Training Policy (Transitional Government of Ethiopia 1994) and the Developmental Social Welfare Policy (Federal Republic of Ethiopia 1996) give regard to the importance of education of persons with disabilities. Looking at the history of the education of children with disabilities, one of the first special schools initiated by overseas missionaries addressed the needs of children with sensory disabilities. The first school for blind children was opened in Dembi Dollo, Western Ethiopia, in 1917. With support from Swedish and American missionaries, two more schools for visually impaired children were opened; since 1974, all have been under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Education (MoE). The education of children with mental retardation started with the opening of special classes in Kokebe Tsebeha Primary School in Addis Ababa in the late eighties. However, the intake capacity of the few special schools and classes is insufficient. And children with motor disabilities, learning and behavioural disorders, mild mental retardation and visual and audible impairment attend regular schools, where they do not get educational support and often, consequently, fail. Currently there is a trend towards inclusive education, initiated through the commitment to the Dakar Goals and the Millennium Development Goals.

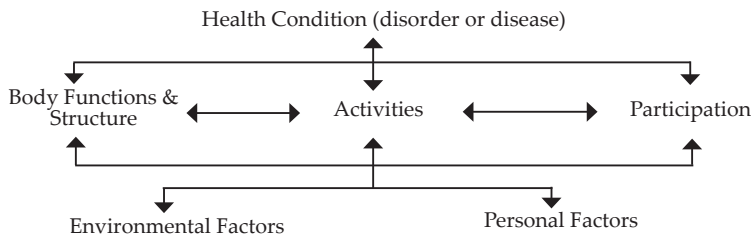
The African Report on Child Wellbeing (2008) shows that Ethiopia still has a long way to go to achieve this goal – regardless of the quality of education. According to the report, the net enrolment ratio (NER) for primary education (2004) lies at 44% for female and 49% for male students. The gross enrollment ratio (GER) for primary education (2004) lies at 69% for female and 85% for male students. However, it is not enough to offer education and minimal support for children with individual needs by placing them in regular classes. First of all,

these children need to be identified, rather than labeled. So far, the assessment of children with individual needs hardly exists in Ethiopia. Recently the International Classification of Functioning, Disability and Health (ICF) has been considered by Ethiopian policymakers and stakeholders to provide an applicable instrument to identify and to define disabilities. A research project to remedy this situation is envisaged at the Addis Ababa University (Department of Special Needs Education), in collaboration with the University of Vienna (Department of Educational Sciences, Special Needs and Inclusive Education).

### **The International Classification of Functioning, Disability and Health (ICF) – an instrument for enhancing quality *Education for All* in Ethiopia?**

A main reason for publishing a revised version of the International Classification of Impairments, Disabilities and Handicaps (ICIDH 1980) was to turn away from the associated bio-medical concept, which is mainly deficit oriented and focuses primarily on the consequences of diseases. The revised classification is built on a bio-psycho-social model (Bronfenbrenner), which looks at a person's functioning and disability as a dynamic interaction between health conditions and contextual factors. Contextual factors are constituted by the physical, social and attitudinal environment of a person. Functioning and disabilities are divided into body function (physiological and psychological functions) and body structures (anatomical parts) on the one hand, and activities and participation on the other. These components are dynamically linked with each other and with environmental factors, and all together construct the conceptual framework of the ICF. Personal factors are not explained in detail. The ICF does not intend to classify people – although it does – but to concentrate on individual situations and on the interaction between persons with a health condition and their contextual factors. Components of health are stressed. The environment thereby plays a key role because it might create barriers or facilitate support in daily life situations, depending on each person's individual circumstances (WHO 2001). Barriers as well as facilitators are of particular interest for the education of children with individual needs and education in general, because they influence a child's activity and participation in educational settings. They are taken into consideration in the ICF-CY (Children and Youth). The ICF-CY was developed in response to a need for a version of the ICF that could be used universally for children and youth in health, education and social sectors (WHO 2007).

## ICF (International Classification of Functioning, Disability and Health)



(ICF-CY 2007:17)

In this diagram, an individual's functioning in a specific domain is a function of the interaction between his or her health condition and contextual factors. These interactions are specific and not always in a predictable one-to-one relationship: the interaction works in two directions. For example: having impairments without having capacity limitations, e.g. disfigurement in leprosy may have no effect on a person's capacity; having performance problems and capacity limitations without evident impairment. The opportunities offered by and the limitations of the ICF will be elucidated in the following case studies, based on my experiences while carrying out research about neglected children, dropouts, street children and children with difficulties and disabilities in selected kebeles (neighbourhoods) in Addis Ababa. These are stories told by victims of discrimination themselves, and the shared experiences of a colleague who works in a related field. To ensure anonymity the names of the persons are fictitious.

Haimanot is a girl in a wheelchair now, who faced difficulties moving around by herself prior to having a wheelchair. She cannot go to the toilet by herself. Consulting the ICF we will find – helpful – classification under 'Body functions and structure' and under 'Activity and participation': there is even a column, 'd530 Toileting', and we can try to quantify Haimanot's disability under the generic scale with 'xxx.4 complete problem'. The question is whether toileting is her problem because of her physical impairment. Haimanot explained that she could not go to the toilet by herself and worried that no one in her family would be willing to help her:

"I have been in the house for 15 years and in this time I never ate three times a day. I was afraid that no one would be willing to bring me to the toilet so I tried to avoid having to go."

Thus, it is less her capacity limitation that creates a problem for her: it is rather her social and familial sphere and her personal feelings



of shame and being a burden for others.

This leads to some criticism of the ICF, which sees it as necessary to include inter- and cross-cultural aspects in the whole classification concept, because it is an international classification. Thus, more than 50 countries and 1,800 experts were involved in its development. But it has to be stressed that disability does not have the same meaning in different cultures and this diversity needs to be accommodated in the classification. Disability cannot be understood in similar ways 'across the world', because the category does not even exist 'across the world'. Beyond cultural differences it is highly questionable whether the ICF considers sufficiently individual differences, as well as socio-economic factors. The potentially significant contribution of the Capability Approach (CA) to enhance the quality of education for all is therefore considered here.

### **The Capability Approach (CA) – A theoretical framework for enhancing the quality of education for all in Ethiopia?**

Within the Capability Approach the possession of commodities is valuable only to the extent that it enables the person to do or be a range of things. A commodity is considered to have characteristics. For instance, for a person with a spinal cord injury a wheelchair has the characteristic of providing transportation; it does not have such a characteristic for a person who can walk. Let us consider a case study of another girl in a wheelchair and evaluate whether for this physically impaired girl a wheelchair possesses the characteristic of a commodity.

Meron was not able to leave the house for eight years until a few months ago, when she received a wheelchair, and is now able to move around in town by herself. But she asserts, "Since I have the wheelchair and started to leave the house, everything is difficult at home." When she asked her father to help her to push the wheelchair out of the house, he refused by using the following words: "If you take a shower outside everybody looks at you like crazy, so if someone saw me pushing a wheelchair it would be similar. I am ashamed of you" (see Boersma 2009). The case study shows that a wheelchair, offering at first sight a commodity for a physically impaired child, turns out not to do so, because in large parts of the Ethiopian socio-cultural context, having a child with an impairment is regarded as a shame. Parents try to avoid contact between the child and the rest of the community. Thus it is again the attitude of the family and the community, the environment, that limits the individual's capabilities and, furthermore, makes persons with disabilities vulnerable to violence. As Boersma (2009) reports, community members attending their focus group discussion stated that the rape of girls with a disability was common in town. Since this violence against blind girls has become common, the

victims have been blamed for being the cause of the violence. The saying is that "Girls who are blind easily fall in love".

Thus the attitudes and prejudices within the community are a disabling factor, a restriction of capabilities for a group of persons who are already disadvantaged because of their personal characteristics. As another, visually impaired, girl, Zufan, states:

"I am afraid of being raped. I am a woman. This often happens.... I do not want to stop my education but if somebody would rape me I will no more be able to think properly and I will no more continue my education."

Hence it is neither her sensory impairment nor a lack of resources or opportunity to attend school, but the cultural-environmental obstacles that limit Zufan's capabilities to continue her education.

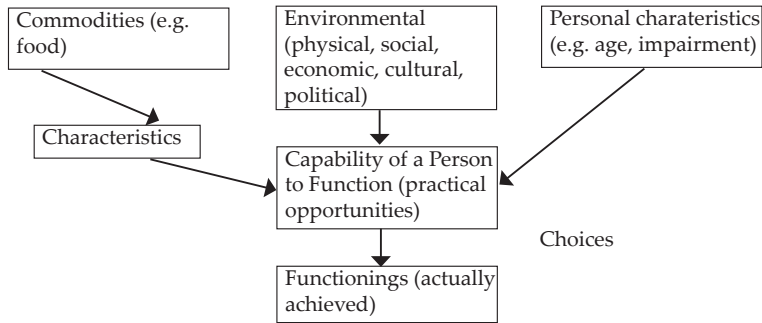
These demonstrated individual life situations of disabled persons in Ethiopia give rise to considering the Capability Approach as a theoretical framework to rethink education that would address the individual needs of students. In the Capability Approach, disability may be analyzed at two different levels, as a deprivation of capabilities, or as a deprivation of functioning. At the level of personal characteristics the concept of impairment is preferred to the term disability, where impairment is defined as a physiological, mental or anatomical loss. In terms of capabilities and functioning, deprivation results from the interaction among the resources available to the person, personal characteristics (e.g. impairment, age, and gender) and the environment. Furthermore a distinction is made between:

- a) Potential disability (capabilities), implying that whether the individual is actually disabled depends on whether the impairment places any restriction on the individual's functioning; and
- b) Actual disability (functioning), implying that an individual is disabled if he or she cannot do or be the things he or she values doing or being. Such assessment would be substantially subjective. A person may change the way he or she values functioning and may well consider himself or herself as disabled right after the onset of impairment but not five years later, or from a different perspective.

The causes for disability result from (a) the nature of an impairment and other personal characteristics (gender, race, etc); (b) the resources available to the individual; and (c) the environment. An impairment is a prerequisite to disability, but it is only one of the

factors, along with the person's other characteristics (gender, race, age), and the resources available, and the environment, that lead to capability or functioning deprivation – in other words, disability. If disability is defined in terms of a deprivation of capabilities (or functioning), then one needs to select a set of relevant capabilities (or functioning) to form an evaluative space. This selection of relevant functioning will be influenced by societal norms and expectations.

### The Capability Approach (CA)



(Mitra 2006, p.240)

First, the Capability Approach allows disability to be differentiated at two levels: at the capability level, or as a potential disability; and at the functioning level, or as an actual disability. The language of capabilities is designed to leave room for choice, and to communicate the idea that there is a big difference between pushing persons in ways their environment considers valuable and leaving the choice to them (Nussbaum 2003, p.40). Second, there is considerable interpersonal variation in the link between a given impairment and the disability resulting from a variety of factors. Finally, among the many factors that influence disability, the Capability Approach encompasses an economic dimension of disability through an account of the economic burden and the economic environment of the person with impairment. The social model recognizes that poverty is disabling. Under the Capability Approach, poverty is seen as a factor that interacts with the individual's characteristics and environment, leading to disability. For the ICF to be a faithful application of the Capability Approach, as noted earlier, it would need to be modified to account for the economic constraints and the economic environment of the person, as well as personal characteristics such as gender.

The Capability Approach thus provides a theoretical framework that establishes an important starting point to rethinking the quality of

education as rooted in an individual's freedom and in education's role in fostering capabilities. The Capability Approach cannot offer a blueprint for policy and practice; however, it can contribute to the advancement of educational policies aimed at a quality *Education for All* in Ethiopia as it considers the wellbeing and flourishing of the individual within her or his cultural, economic, social and natural environment.

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# 20 世紀 90 年代：美國基礎教育管理政策發展解析

## Policy Development Analysis of American Basic Education Management in the 1990s

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### Abstract

With the promotion in the 1990s of the New Curriculum Standards Movement and the implementation of the Educational Accountability System, significant changes took place in the reform and development of basic education in the USA. Roles, authority and responsibilities at the federal, state, and local school district levels have changed profoundly, introducing various contradictions and conflicts. This paper accordingly considers the following trends in the policy development and management of basic education in the USA: the resolution of contradictions and conflicts between centralized and decentralized levels of educational governance; the reintegration of policy and practice; problems in the implementation of educational policies; and the strengthening of reciprocal cooperation in “top-down” and “bottom-up” change.

### 摘要

20 世紀 90 年代，在美國基礎教育改革與發展進程中，隨著新課程標準運動推進以及教育績效責任制管理政策的實施，聯邦、州、地方學區三級教育行政管理在角色、權力、職責等方面發生了極大的變化，各種矛盾、衝突也不可避免。處理集權與分權之間的衝突與協作，針對教育管理政策實施中凸現出來的問題以及相關政策要素進行重新的整合，加強“自上而下，自下而上”相互合作是美國基礎教育管理政策發展的趨勢所在。

美國教育實行地方分權管理體制，管理發展教育的權力和職責一直都是由州和地方政府來承擔的。1958 年國防教育法頒佈以後，聯邦政府通過立法和提供教育經費等途徑開始加強對基礎教育的引導和控制，特別是 20 世紀 90 年代以來，聯邦對基礎教育的影響和引導的力度逐漸加大，這雖然並沒有降低和減少州和地方控制教育的責任，但美國基礎教育管理政策卻隨之發生了變革。目前美國教育管理正經歷從 15,000 個學區的地方性控制向州和聯邦控制的轉變，美國教育傳統所形成的“地方負責經營管理，州承擔主要責任，聯邦施加廣泛影響”管理格局正面臨著巨大的挑戰，主要表現為聯邦、州、地方學區三級教育行政管理在角色、權力、職責的調整、組合之中發生了極大的變化，各種矛盾與衝突也不可避免。本文試圖從教育政策視角對這些變化、矛盾及衝突進行剖析，並對變革後教育管理政策實施過程中凸現出的來問題以及政策發展趨勢進行探討。

### 一、美國基礎教育管理決策中角色、權力和職責的變革

20 世紀 80 年代末 90 年代以來，從喬治·布希總統簽署的《美國 2000：教育戰略》、到克林頓時代的《2000 目標：教育美國法》以及 2001 年 G.W 布希總統提出的《不讓一個孩子落伍》的教育改革法案，所反映出的教育改革政策目標是一致的，其基本政策導向是為美國教育制定國家教育目標，在全國範圍內保障教育平等、促進教育卓越，提升美國教育品質。因此，提升美國中小學教育品質，關注少數族裔和弱勢群體學生的學業提高，追求優質教育成爲了美國最近十多年來基礎教育改革與發展的行動準則，追求教育優異目標開始在美國教育實踐中行動起來。州政府試圖嘗試在教育管理中引入績效管理的機制，通過借助、協調地方政府、聯邦政府的職責以及市場的影響，共同推動基礎教育的改革與發展。但伴隨著這些教育改革措施實施，在基礎教育行政和決策系統中必然就會涉及到如何處理集權、分權的問題，因爲這些教育改革政策的實施必然引起地方學區、州和聯邦在教育決策中的角色、地位、職責發生極大的變化。也就是說，在地方分權管理體制下，教育的集權和分權之間存在著衝突和協作，教育的決策權力和責任關係正在進行著一場重新組合。這主要表現在過去傳統由地方學區掌控的教育決策權正在向州和聯邦這個層級轉移，相應的管理機制以及管理能力都隨之發生變革。這種變革主要體現在以下三個方面：

第一，聯邦政府加大了對基礎教育的影響力。

美國聯邦政府進入 20 世紀 80 年代以後，進一步強化了對中小學的宏觀控制，試圖通過建立全國教育目標與課程標準，逐步擴大聯邦政府對學校的影響力和對教育品質的控制權，以確保美國的教育品質和國際競爭力。20 世紀 90 年代以來，建立課程標準和評價體系逐漸成爲聯邦基礎教育政策的核心力量。儘管聯邦政府沒有權力要求各州強制執行美國的國家課程標準和國家評價標準，但它卻可以通過教育立法的形式來引領美國基礎教育改革與發展的目標和方向。由此，在 20 世紀 90 年代，全國掀起一場新課程標準運動 (The New Curriculum Standards Movement)，隨著這場運動的推進，聯邦政府正在不斷地提升它在美國基礎教育改革中的影響力——美國中小學正在逐漸地執行州和聯邦政府教育目的和政策，這主要通過各州所制定的教育標準和評價體系及績效責任制管理來實現這種影響力。

除此之外，聯邦政府還通過撥款和其他援助方式協助地方教育。聯邦教育部目前管理著 200 多個教育項目和計畫，涉及教育的各個方面和層次。比如：縮小班級規模計畫、21 世紀學習型社會計畫、科技素養提高基金專案、雙語教育項目、公立特許學校行動、高級先修課程計畫、新美國高中計畫等等。聯邦教育部管理的這些教育項目、計畫通常都有配套的經費資助，但其資助也都是有條件的，比如說，凡是接受聯邦資助的州，所有學校三到八年級的學生必須接受州的評估，另外 10-12 年級學生還要有附加測試。它通過這種方式和途徑對中小學教育施加了影響。目前聯邦教育部的中小學教育項目和計畫正在爲全國 15,000 多個學區和 5,000 萬中小學學生提供服務，很顯然它對中小學教育產生潛在的影響是不可忽略的。可見，“現行的聯邦教育政策及其目標多種多樣，這些目標並不直接干預地方學校的自治，卻對地方教育系統的運作造成



了錯綜複雜的影響，某些影響令人困惑甚至彼此相互衝突。但這一切都使聯邦對地方教育實踐的干預範圍逐步擴大，這種干預有些是正式的而直接的，有些則是非正式和間接的。同時，州政府也試圖參與地方政策過程，結果地方學校的‘政策空間’大大縮小了”。<sup>[1]</sup>美國教育地方決策傳統正面臨著巨大的挑戰。

第二，州教育行政管理的角色和目標任務發生變化，教育決策權正逐漸加大。

雖然美國憲法規定，教育的職責在州，美國州政府對公共教育負有主要的責任。但是，傳統上許多州把中小學教育的決策權和管理權都委託給地方政府——具體由地方學區來負責實施管理。州政府過去更多的是從宏觀角度對全州中小學進行監督管理，所以州政府對中小學教育管理權力都不大。但隨著美國基礎教育的改革與發展，州教育管理的目標、角色也隨之發生變化，州教育行政決策權力大大提高了。

從教育管理目標來看，20 世紀 80 年代，美國各州對基礎教育管理目標是提高教育投入的效益和品質，促使學校教育能夠得到均衡化發展。因為長期以來，美國基礎教育主要由地方學區擔當起教育決策和管理學校的職能。這種決策地方化，以及教育財政過度依賴財產稅，已經造成了各學區各學校和各學區之間的教育差異（教育資源、教育品質）在不斷擴大。由於財產稅是以財產的價值為基礎的，財產的多少直接關係到學區的富有程度。地方稅收的這種局限性造成各地方學區教育財政能力的差距，必然就會影響到教育的均衡化發展，教育品質的提高受到很大影響。所以從 20 世紀 80 年代以來，各州要求州政府根據各學區的實際情況，加大對公立基礎教育財政撥款額度。在提高教育品質總目標之下，作為州教育管理目標最主要的是要實現學校教育的均衡發展，而且促使各地教育發展均衡也是美國財政撥款的重要原則之一。

20 世紀 90 年代隨著新課標運動的開展，州教育管理目標則是讓所有學生都達到較高的學術水準。各州要以國家教育標準作為“品質基準”來制定州的教育標準。這就意味著州在教育行政管理中，過去所扮演的是宏觀監督管理角色，現在角色卻要是為全州制定教育標準，成為教育政策重要的決策者。這種角色的變化就意味著州要從過去對學生的學業要求轉移到對學生學業成就的規定上來，美國各州要制定統一的教育學術標準和測試標準。州的教育標準不僅要為全州所有學區提出共同的教育目標以及相應的評估標準，而且為了能夠更好達到國家、州的教育標準要求，還開始廣泛實施績效責任制的管理。到目前為止，美國有 48 個州將績效責任制評估的結果作為衡量學校業績的重要指標，而且這些指標成了州教育財政撥款的重要依據之一。所採取的這些措施對學區壓力非常大，特別是現在州把績效評估的結果與撥款相聯繫，這對學區的教育經費影響是非常大，尤其是對那些比較貧窮的學區顯得尤為如此。因為貧窮的學區，教育品質相對來說就比較低下，它們對州教育財政撥款依賴較大，而現在撥款要與績效相聯繫，很顯然對貧窮學區來說為不利的，貧窮的學區在提升教育品質競爭中本身就處於一種弱勢，這種撥款政策在一定程度上或許會加大它的惡性循環。

第三，傳統的地方教育行政決策權正在削弱，教育政策實施面臨著矛盾、衝突的加劇。

在美國，地方學區是具體實施州教育政策和管理公立中小學的最基層的教育行政機構。可以說，地方學區在美國地方教育管理體制傳統中，一直以來扮演著教育政策的決策者、執行者，他們負責制定教育政策，具體經營管理學校。但在這場標準化教育改革運動中，地方學區教育決策的權力、對學校控制的權力被削弱了，這些權力大都往上移到州層面，一部分權力下放到學校——實施校本管理。

作為一級教育行政管理機構，地方學區在地方教育決策、管理學校權力削弱後，它不可能轉身退出。但要繼續扮演、行使傳統管理的角色、職責，卻已無法適應當前教育改革與發展的要求，可以說它處於一種比較尷尬的地位。因為現在各州都在推行教育標準化運動、實施績效責任制管理，這些政策是州制定的，它要求各個學校要為學生的學業水準的提高負責，要對學校進行評估、問責。很顯然，地方教育局、學校不執行州教育標準、教育績效責任制是不行的，因為廣大公眾、家長不答應。但地方教育局負責人（督學）、中小學校長是受雇於地方學區並為之服務的。所以，他們既要執行州、聯邦的教育政策，為提升學校品質水準負責，又不得不聽從地方學區的管理。因為地方學區掌控人事權，他們必須聽從學區的指令。這就使他們既不能簡單直接聽從州教育政策的指令，也不能不對地方學區負責。但州、地方學區雙方所發出指令、資訊經常是模糊、衝突的，這就讓政策的具體執行者面對著這些矛盾、衝突不知如何是好，比如，教育標準混亂、低劣而模糊，課程和評估標準不匹配；州和學區都缺乏對教師適應改革需要的專業發展的強有力支持，而那些背離了教育標準和課程的考試卻愈來愈控制了學校的教學實踐。對於這種自上而下制定實施的績效教育管理政策，地方學區、學校、校長、教師在一定程度上都是處於被動的參與，他們的積極性並沒真正的調動起來，而績效責任制管理所帶來的壓力卻非常大，這就引發了一些校長、教師、家長、包括一些公眾的反感。

## 二、美國基礎教育管理政策實施過程中存在的問題

美國聯邦、州、地方學區三級教育行政管理政策的變革，使其各自角色、權力、職責也隨之發生了變化。特別是伴隨著美國州的教育行政管理角色、管理目標任務的轉變，以及教育決策權上移，績效責任制管理政策的推廣，一些矛盾與衝突在基礎教育管理政策實施過程中凸現出來。

首先，各州制定的教育標準缺乏操作性。美國教育實行地方分權管理體制的傳統，使其基礎教育發展具有了多樣化的特徵。所以作為美國基礎教育自身來講，向來就缺乏一個統一的標準，而現在所實行的“標準化教育”改革運動，需要制定教育標準、評估標準，這對美國教育管理政策制定者來說，卻是一個新生事物。從目前美國基礎教育實踐看，儘管有國家教育標準為參照，但各州所制定的教育標準的風格品質是參差不齊。教育標準自身還存在著許多的不完善——比如，各州所制定的標準過於寬泛、籠統，與教育物件實際情況不相適應，缺乏對教學和評估指導性等問題。處於教學一線的教師，他們必須要具備相當的能力、資源、時間和專業知識與技能，才可能把這些教育標準融合進學校開設的課程、自己的教學之中。這就說明州在提高自身教育決策權力同時，



並沒有提供相關的服務，比如說，為一線教師提供課程專家或教學策略輔導與培訓。教師由於缺乏對州教育標準和評估要求領會及相關指導，因而對州教育標準的認識是不清晰、不確定的，那在教學實施中就很難制定出合適的教學計畫和教學策略來達到州的教育標準的要求。可見，政策目標的不清晰、不確定也往往對政策執行物件的適用性構成障礙。

其次，教育政策制定主體與教育政策執行主體之間，他們所追求的政策目標在一定程度上是不一致的。作為教育政策制定主體——州教育管理決策者，他們制定教育標準化改革的一個基本目標，就是提高學生的學習成績，達到州、聯邦的教育標準的要求，而衡量評價是否達標——那就是能不能達到州的評估標準——是考試的結果分數，是具體的。而教育政策執行主體——具體教學實施者——一線教師，他們執行政策的目標則是讓學生個體潛能獲得發展，也就是說教師的標準是寬泛的、難於量化的。可見，政策制定主體與政策執行主體在其政策實施過程中，兩者所追求的目標在一定程度上是相背離的。此外，美國中小學校絕大多數教師面對所實施的這種績效責任制，他們感受到這種教育教學改革所帶來的極大壓力，對州所制定的教育標準、評估標準和績效責任標準感到無所適從，甚至有時會覺得這些標準所要求的與自己的教育教學理念相距甚遠。因為過去美國中小學教師在教學中的自我“掌控權”比較大，他們可以自主的進行調節，也無須為自己的教學工作結果承擔太多的責任。但目前所實行的績效責任制管理，對學校、教師的教育教學提出了具體的目標要求，而且目前很多州還將考試制度和績效責任與教師等級評定、工作獎金、甚至飯碗捆綁在一起。現在很多教師感覺他們的教學是“為考試而教”，因為在教學中，他們往往為適應、達到教育標準的要求，他們可能就面臨著要放棄自己在課程和評估方面的個人喜好。所以相當一部分教師認為州的標準化教育改革對教師專業化本身就是一種侵犯，教師自主權正在弱化。而美國教師卻恰恰把教師自主權一直奉為教師職業的一個最基本特徵之一。所以，當這種教師職業特徵遭到削弱時，許多教師雖然聲稱支持實行教育標準，但在現實的教學中，他們反對過分強調績效管理，反對在教學中過多注重考試成績的做法，極端地甚至擔心一代學生可能會葬送在新教育標準之下。

再有，州的績效評估考試與州所制定的教育標準不相匹配。美國在推行績效責任制管理中逐漸加強全州統一評估考試。按理說，各州的評估考試應該以統一的教育標準為基礎，但實際上大多數州所舉行的全州統考與州的教育標準是不相匹配的。長期以來，美國基礎教育都沒有對學生進行統一評估考試，因而在這方面缺乏實踐經驗，也沒有建立一套系統的評估體系。現在要進行全州統考，很多州只好通過向測驗公司購買試卷，對學生進行全州統一的標準化考試。這種做法，很可能會出現這樣的結果，那就是學生的考試結果並不能很好地、真實地反映出學生的學業水準，以及是否真的達到了州的教育標準要求。因為作為那些商業化運作的測驗公司，他們設計考試試卷時所關注的是試卷區分度如何，試卷設計的重點是對學生成績進行比較。因此他們的試卷設計並沒有很好地、系統地與州教育標準或特定的課程內容相匹配。<sup>[2]</sup> 試用這種與州的教育標準不相匹配的考試——標準化測驗來判斷學生是否達到了教育標準要求顯然就不是合理的。但對教師來說，他們卻不得不

面臨著如何提高學生考試成績的巨大壓力——那就是要想方設法讓學生盡可能要達到州的績效責任制的標準和要求。這就可能促使教師在教學中是依據評估考試的要求來進行教學，而不是按照教育標準來進行教學，教育標準的要求和課程的科學性可能就不能得到很好地貫徹執行。甚至極端的還會出現爲了逃避因達不到績效責任的懲罰，乾脆降低州的教育標準的學術要求——因爲標準越低，學校就容易達到績效責任制的要求，那麼學校、教師就可避免懲罰。

### 三、美國基礎教育行政管理政策發展趨勢初露端倪

近年來美國基礎教育管理政策的突出特點是實行州標準化改革與教育決策權上移。試想要在一個傳統的地方分權教育體制之下來實施這樣的政策顯然缺乏現實基礎，有可能導致不同利益集團的強烈反對，政策執行過程中所面對的是種種困難及問題。這些新的管理政策在執行過程中所引發的矛盾、衝突以及存在問題，充分表明有必要對美國基礎教育行政管理政策進行調整，因爲“政策的執行是各種政策要素在空間上的分配、重組、展開和運動的過程，其中一個要素的發展變化以及各要素的分配方式、比例、組合結構等變化都會直接影響到整個政策執行的過程。”<sup>[3]</sup>事實上，美國教育管理政策的變革，確實使其一些重要的政策要素發生了極大變化，甚至引發利益衝突，最爲突出的就是地方教育當局教育決策權被大大削弱，傳統的地方教育決策格局被打破了。因此，政策調整的核心——既要堅持州教育改革目標追求，又要充分發揮地方學區作用，要兼顧州、地方學區雙方的權益，要“將州一級的行動主義 (activism) 和地方權力結合起來，建立‘自上而下，自下而上’ (top-down, bottom-up) 的合作框架。在這樣的框架下，州負責確立總目標、建立績效責任制度、配置足夠的資源；而地方學區貫徹政策、向下屬學校提供指導和支持，各學校可以自主地發揮主動性，調整自己的計畫，增進政策的靈活性，以便實現州政府確立的、爲所有孩子提供優質教育的艱巨目標。”<sup>[4]</sup>這樣政策格局才能各司其職，相互配合協調。

聯邦政府將繼續引領美國教育前進目標方向，在確立教育政策的方向問題上，聯邦法規將成爲指導州教育政策的基本準則。轉變聯邦政府在教育中的作用，不讓一個孩子落伍是聯邦政府教育政策核心理念，聯邦政府所制定的教育目標正在發揮越來越重要的作用。因此，採取有效措施提高少數族裔與弱勢群體子女的學業差距，追求和支持教育公平聯邦政府責無旁貸。

州政府將繼續扮演宏觀教育政策決策者。它不僅要推行聯邦通過的教育法案，而且要爲全州確立統一的教育總目標——設立教育標準和評估制度，建立績效責任制，配置足夠的資源。州所制定的教育標準應該是清楚、具體和連貫的，最好是按年級制定。標準不僅要反映出對學生學業水準的要求，而且要爲所有學區提出共同的教育目標，並能夠爲學校教學和考試提供指引。評估制度則爲教育標準提供了測量的手段。作爲州政府除了制定教育總目標外，它還必須尊重美國教育悠久而穩定的地方自治傳統，在集權與分權之間尋找平衡點，注重加強與地方學區合作，調動他們積極性，並根據地方學區在教育政策執行過程中回饋回來的資訊，對其所制定的教育政策進行修改。因爲沒有一項政策可以在決

策前洞察所有結果，政策執行過程中的回饋資訊則可以幫助糾正決策的錯誤。根據具體情況和變化了的條件以及回饋的資訊，不斷地改變、修正和調整原定的政策應該貫穿於政策執行的全過程。而這一過程恰恰需要州與地方的合作。可見，要能夠更好地落實州的教育政策目標，州必須大力發展與地方學區的關係，不僅要向地方下放必要的許可權，而且還要精心保護和培養地方權力，並使其得到有效發揮。

地方學區要想繼續保持在美國教育管理體制中的重要地位，不僅要認同、貫徹州教育總目標，而且要增強自己的適應能力。在教育管理政策變革時代，它應該重新確立與州的關係，著重應該考慮如何解釋、執行和影響州的教育政策，在州和地方學校之間它應該扮演一種橋樑的角色。“地方認同州政策的總體目標並努力完善這些目標，而且地方學區又願意響應這些目標，能致力於協調學區實際和州目標之間的差異。”<sup>[5]</sup>這就是地方學區在教育管理體制中新的角色定位。要真正扮演好這一角色，地方學區應該依據各州統一的教育標準來“構建整體的、連貫的課程系統，選擇、設計科學的教學內容，開發有效的教學方法。課程系統應明確地與州的教育標準（注意，不是評價或考試）相匹配。”<sup>[6]</sup>學區完備的課程可以讓教師更有效地幫助學生達標，同時又為評估做好準備。兼顧州的標準化要求，提高地方的適應和創新能力，這是地方學區在變革時代被賦予的新使命。同時，地方學區要向下屬學校提供指導和支持，幫助教師提升掌握適應課程系統的教育教學能力，還要注意留給教師依據學生需要而對教學內容進行適當調整的空間，讓教師專業自主權得到更加有效的發展。應該說地方學區的工作就是幫助學校增強適應性，只有爭取校長、教師的支持，讓他們看到州政府的改革成果給學生帶來的好處，各學校可以自主地發揮主動性，調整自己的計畫，增進政策的靈活性，他們在執行州的教育政策時才有一種主人翁的意識和感覺，也才能實現州政府確立的、為所有孩子提供優質教育的艱巨目標。“教育品質的提高需要地方學校教師和行政人員的配合和努力，而這又賴於其下屬的地方主管部門的大力支持。為提高教育品質，實現州教育改革目標，州和地方主管部門之間必須建立一種基本的合作關係。地方和教育官員應該因地制宜地理解州改革的目標，逐步成功地實現這些目標。”<sup>[7]</sup>可以說，致力於協調學區實際和州教育目標之間的差異、增強教育政策地方適應性是地方學區工作重心。此外，地方學區還必須及時提供政策執行的回饋意見，以便讓州教育政策制定者知道哪些方面不能如州期望的那樣發展，以便對政策進行及時修訂。

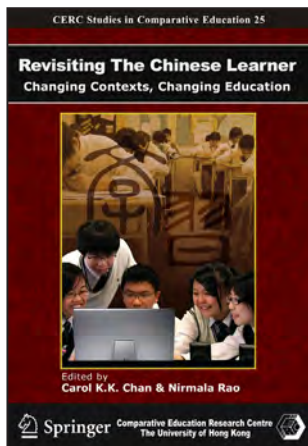
教育改革本來就不是一件輕鬆的事，何況在地方分權體制下，各級教育行政部門的角色、權責面臨著諸多矛盾與衝突。所以理順相互間關係，劃分各自權責，並對相關政策要素進行重新的整合，加強“自上而下，自下而上”相互合作，使聯邦、州、地方學區充分發揮自身功能作用，可以說是美國基礎教育管理政策發展的趨勢。這種發展趨勢不僅沒有損害美國教育地方決策的傳統，而且在兼顧國家目標和地方多樣性的同時，客觀地兼顧州和地方的權益，激發了州的活力和統領教育的責任，同時又保留了地方學區傳統的職責，使學區成了州教育管理體制中基本的組織單位。州和地方學區在教育改革中要更好地協調角色和責任，再加之有聯邦政府強有力的支持、有效獎勵和懲罰，美國三級教育

行政管理才能更加和諧和有效。可見，聯邦、州和地方學區必須達成一種共識——不僅要明確各自的責任和義務，而且相互間要建立一種真正的合作關係以及良好資訊溝通管道。只有通過對三方的角色、權責以及相互間關係的整合，聯邦、州教育政策目標才能被更好理解、執行。只有當教育政策得以成功實施，那麼教育改革、提升教育品質的目標最終才能實現。

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New CERC Publication  
CERC Studies in Comparative Education 25



**Revisiting The Chinese Learner**  
**Changing Contexts, Changing Education**

**Edited by Carol K.K. Chan & Nirmala Rao**

This book, which extends pioneering work on Chinese learners in two previous volumes, examines teaching and learning in Chinese societies and advances understanding of 'the Chinese learner' in changing global contexts. Given the burgeoning research in this area, pedagogical shifts from knowledge transmission to knowledge construction to knowledge creation, wide-ranging social, economic and technological advances, and changes in educational policy, *Revisiting the Chinese Learner* is a timely endeavor.

The book revisits the paradox of the Chinese learner against the background of these educational changes; considers how Chinese cultural beliefs and contemporary change influence

learning; and examines how Chinese teachers and learners respond to new educational goals, interweaving new and old beliefs and practices. Contributors focus on both continuity and change in analyzing student learning, pedagogical practice, teacher learning and professional development in Chinese societies. Key emerging themes emphasize transcending dichotomies and transforming pedagogy in understanding and teaching Chinese learners. The book has implications for theories of learning, development and educational innovation and will therefore be of interest to scholars and educators around the world who are changing education in their changing contexts.

Carol K.K. CHAN is an Associate Professor in the Faculty of Education at The University of Hong Kong. Her research areas include learning, cognition and instruction, computer-supported knowledge building and teacher communities for classroom innovation. She has published in leading journals in these areas and won international research awards on knowledge building conducted in Chinese classrooms. Dr Chan has received Outstanding Teaching Awards from both her Faculty and University. She is currently Co-Director of a Strategic Research Theme on Sciences of Learning at The University of Hong Kong.

Nirmala RAO is a Professor in the Faculty of Education at The University of Hong Kong. She is a Developmental and Educational Psychologist whose research focuses on early childhood development and education. She has published widely in these areas and has engaged in policy relevant child development research in several countries in the region. She has also been actively involved, at the international level, in several professional organizations concerned both with the well-being of young children and research on early child development.

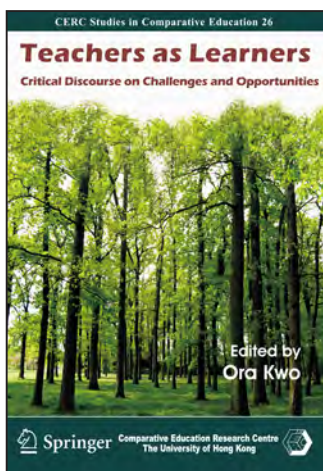
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New CERC Publication  
CERC Studies in Comparative Education 26



**Teachers as Learners**  
**Critical Discourse on Challenges**  
**and Opportunities**

Edited by Ora Kwo

In movements of educational reform across the world, educators are forging new roles, identities and relationships. Leadership is of course vital, but needs to be rooted in a capacity for learning. This volume responds to some of the tensions and paradoxes typically associated with educational reform, presenting a critical discourse on teachers as learners. Contributing authors highlight a range of culturally related challenges that teachers should not face in isolation.

Sustainable teachers' learning ideally requires a collective engagement to turn challenges into opportunities in the quest for meaningful professional development. This book offers a vision of a new relationship among educational workers as a joint force of learners in a cross-boundary endeavour aimed at a renewed moral commitment to education.

Ora Kwo is an Associate Professor in the Faculty of Education at the University of Hong Kong. As a university academic who has been involved in teacher education for three decades, she specialises in research on professional development and on the processes of learning to teach. In 1997 she was awarded a University Teaching Fellowship by the University of Hong Kong in recognition of her excellence in teaching. Since then, her research interests have extended to the quality of teaching and learning in higher education, and to the building of learning communities. In 1999-2000 she held a Universitas 21 Fellowship at the University of British Columbia in Vancouver. Since 2001, she has been an Honorary Professor at Hangzhou Normal University in China, where she initiated the building of a learning community under the theme, "Teachers and Teacher Educators in Action Learning" (TATEAL).

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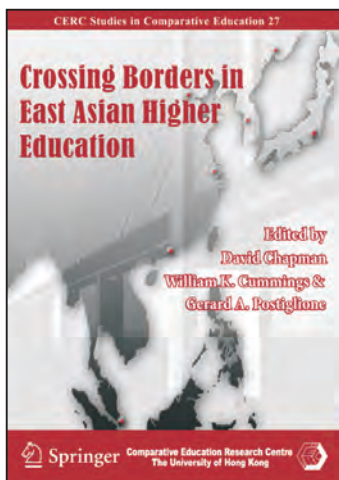
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New CERC Publication  
CERC Studies in Comparative Education 27



## Crossing Borders in East Asian Higher Education

Edited by David Chapman, William K. Cummings & Gerard A. Postiglione

This book examines issues that have emerged as higher education systems and individual institutions across East Asia confront and adapt to the changing economic, social, and educational environments in which they now operate. The book's focus is on how higher education systems learn from each other and on the ways in which they collaborate to address new challenges. The sub-theme that runs through this volume concerns the changing nature of cross-border sharing. In particular, the provision of technical assistance by more industrialized countries to lower and middle income countries has given way to collaborations that place the latter's participating institutions on a more equal footing. At the same time, there is a greater number of partnerships that link higher education systems in the East

Asian region to one another. Even as boundaries become more porous and permeable, there is growing acceptance of the view that cross border collaboration, if done well, can offer mutually beneficial advantages on multiple levels. There is a new recognition that the intensified international sharing of ideas, strategies of learning, and students is not only of enormous value to systems and institutions but essential to their long term survival. To this end, the chapters in this volume examine various motivations, goals, mechanisms, outcomes and challenges associated with cross-border collaboration in higher education.

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**Citizenship Pedagogies in Asia and the Pacific**

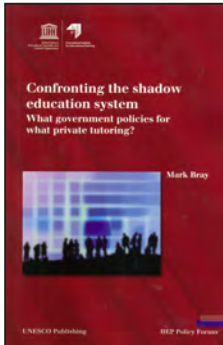
Edited by Kerry J. KENNEDY, Wing On LEE & David L. GROSSMAN

How are students in Asia and the Pacific taught to be effective citizens? Following two successful volumes previously published in this series, *Citizenship Education in Asia and the Pacific: Concepts and Issues* and *Citizenship Curriculum in Asia and the Pacific*, this volume focuses on citizenship pedagogies that are promoted by governments in the region, advocated by scholars, and adapted in the schools and classrooms where citizenship education takes place every day. Thirteen case studies from diverse societies in Asia and the Pacific highlight the ways in which teachers and students think about, experience or plan for citizenship teaching and learning. Different methods – vignettes, student surveys, case studies and literature reviews – are used to portray these experiences, from both macro- and micro-analytic perspectives. The wide array of case studies provides rich information and insights into the realities and possibilities of pedagogies for citizenship across the region.

What we discover from this volume is as diverse and complex as the region itself. Conservative teacher-dominated pedagogies are common in many places, but more progressive pedagogies can also be found. In some places teachers struggle to implement new methods, while in others, students seem to be more radical than their teachers in seeking more engaging pedagogies. Many cases highlight also the pressures of examination cultures that influence teachers' choices of and students' preferences for particular pedagogical approaches. From a comparative perspective, the volume shows how pedagogical approaches from other contexts are interpreted locally, and how government directives are adapted in classrooms. It describes how integrated and hybrid pedagogical approaches evolve when teachers in the region struggle to respond to national, global and person-oriented approaches to citizenship education. As curriculum gatekeepers, some teachers in these case studies seek an appropriate instructional space by judiciously choosing pedagogies to suit their own conceptions of citizenship education. For other teachers there are more limited choices, because of strong societal mandates, perceived community expectations, or simply because of a lack of skills to teach in any other way.

Collectively these chapters constitute a remarkable study of the delivery of citizenship education across the region and of the variety of pedagogies that influence the lives of teachers and students in this context.

**New UNESCO-IIEP Publication**



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<http://www.iiep.unesco.org>  
This book can be downloaded  
free of charge.

**Confronting the shadow education system.  
What government policies for what private tutoring?**

By Mark BRAY

This book focuses on the so-called shadow education system of private supplementary tutoring. In parts of East Asia in particular, such tutoring has long existed on a large scale. It is now becoming increasingly evident in other parts of Asia and in Africa, Europe and North America. Pupils commonly receive fee-free education in public schools and then at the end of the day and/or during week-ends and vacations receive supplementary tutoring in the same subjects on a fee-paying basis.

Supplementary private tutoring can have positive dimensions. It helps students to cover the curriculum, provides a structured occupation for young people outside school hours, and provides incomes for the tutors. However, tutoring may also have negative dimensions. If left to market forces, tutoring is likely to maintain and increase social inequalities, and it can create excessive pressure for young people who have inadequate time for nonacademic activities. Especially problematic are situations in which school teachers provide extra tutoring in exchange for fees from the pupils for whom the teachers are already responsible as part of their normal jobs.

This book begins by surveying the scale, nature and implications of the shadow education system in a range of settings. It then identifies possible government responses to the phenomenon. It encourages a proactive approach through which governments determine which types of tutoring they consider desirable and which types are problematic, and then design appropriate policies.