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2013 年各國中等教育 Secondary Education in the World

■ 本輯主題: 2013各國中等教育

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編輯弁言

本期所刊登之中國大陸、馬來西亞、英國和義大利等國中等 教育議題的來文均通過本刊匿名制度的嚴謹審查和編輯委員會的 認可,篇篇精彩,尤其馬來西亞和義大利的教育對國人而言都相 對陌生,本刊能獲作者賜稿,有助於國人掌握更多國際教育的發 展趨勢,並可提供國際比較教育學者研究之參考,不勝感激。期 盼今後能持續開展更多國家的教育議題,以饗國人。

首篇爲中國廣州大學教育學院副教授蘇啓敏之大作,該文旨在分析與批判中國大陸國家行政機關分別於1984~2012年頒布之12項與中學教師職業道德有關之政策。作者明確將此階段的中等學校教師職業道德之政策和法規,分爲從口號到立法;從抽象轉向具體;以及從總體適用轉向分級適用等三階段,並呼籲社會應重視教師專業成長,不應將之與其他行業之職業倫理等同視之,甚具見識。

其次爲馬來西亞華文獨立中學教育工作者黃禎玉之文,該文作者以其執行與推動教師專業發展之經驗,進行行動研究,對馬來西亞吉隆坡中華獨中、尊孔獨中和循人中學三所華文獨立中學實施之「校本教師專業發展」的內涵與特色進行實際觀察和分析,發現雖然校本教師專業發展剛起步,但卻有助於提升教師專業素質,故她建議應健全該機制,俾使「校本之業發展」師資培育發揮更大效益。

第三篇乃新竹教育大學教育學系教授沈姗姗之文,該文作者 以其對英國教育發展動向的精湛研究,分析英國中等教育的入學 制度,期對臺灣刻正推動之十二年國教之產生他山之石的殷鑑功 能。文中指出,英國自 1960 年代以來中等學校入學制度大抵分 爲消除界限或市場導向兩個走向,作者也呼籲臺灣的入學制度在 追求教育機會均等的同等,亦應避免造成社會隔離的弊端。

最後一篇爲羅馬市 Federico Caffé 中學從事特殊教育的教師 G. Villanella 所撰之文,由於 Villanella 博士不但親自參與義大利中

學融合教育之推動,也鑽研政策之探討,對義大利正在實施之融合教育甚爲熟悉,該文對國人認識消極與積極方向的融合教育提供實際的案例和作法,值得參考。該文除闡述義大利融合教育政策在中學實施之現況外,也分析對此融合教育政策正反兩面的論點,言簡意賅,對臺灣推動教育機會均等或倡導校園公平正義,有一定程度的啓發。

本刊編輯小組依據 OECD 及教育部之教育統計資料,彙整中等教育相關教育指標,提供讀者參酌。本期感恩撰稿者的投入,及審查者和編輯委員的嚴謹審度,更感恩張雲龍主任及陳賢舜組長所帶領之編輯團隊的付出。本刊雖不是生活或休閒雜誌,但教育畢竟與每個人息息相關,在梅雨和酷暑可能引發人心中煩躁之際,期本刊能喚起更多人重視教育,也請關心教育的各界人士不吝賜教,以光本刊篇幅。謹祝各位健康喜樂!

總編輯

温 明 麗 謹誌2013年六月 於臺北・月之軒

中國大陸中學教師職業 道德建設的政策演變: 1984—2012

蘇啟敏*

摘要

中國大陸國家行政機關從 1984 年到 2012 年先後頒布 12 項與中學教師職業道德建設有關之政策。本文從歷史發展角度,對國家層面中學教師職業道德建設的政策演變歷程進行分析和批判。1984 年至 1996 年的政策著力在闡明國家對教師職業道德的基本要求;1997 年至 2009 年之政策主要以法律爲依據,完善教師職業道德建設的各項制度;2010 年至 2012 年之政策則嘗試從教師專業化角度,規定教師做爲專業人員應具備的專業道德素養。本文最後總結中國大陸中學教師職業道德建設政策之四大轉型:(1)從單純以口號動員教師恪守職業道德,逐漸轉向通過立法保障教師職業道德的落實;(2)教師職業道德政策在語言上,逐漸從抽象模糊轉向對教師的行動及目的做出具體清晰的規定;(3)從制定各級各類學校總體適用的教師職業道德政策,逐漸轉向爲不同層次學校制定分類適用的教師職業道德政策;(4)政策制定者對教師職業道德的理解,逐漸從各行業一體適用的職業道德轉向反映專業人員特性的專業道德。

關鍵詞:中學教師、職業道德建設、政策演變

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The Change of Policy of Secondary Schools Teachers' Professional Ethics in Mainland China:1984-2012

Qi Min Su*

Abstract

From 1984 to 2012, the State Administration Department of Mainland China has promulgated 12 policies relating to professional ethics of middle school teachers. This paper is an analysis and an evaluation of the making of policy of professional ethics of middle school teachers at national level from the historical perspective. In 1984, the Ministry of Education (MOE) of the People's Republic of China (PRC) has promulgated the first policy of teacher professional ethics. After that relevant promulgated policies displayed obvious political characters of a national ideology. With the implementation of the 1993 "Teachers law of PRC" relevant policies began to seek legal basis with a focus on improving the system of teacher professional ethics. In 2010, new programmatic policies of education reform came out with the creation of "professional teachers team". As consequence, relevant policies concerning professional standards of different types of teachers with a strong emphasis on professional ethics are made. In the conclusion, a summary of the transformation of middle school teachers' professional ethics change is given: from slogan mobilization to legal safeguard; from abstract policy to specific policy; from general application to classification application; from vocational ethics to professional ethics.

Keywords: Secondary school teacher, professional ethics construction, policy change

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壹、前言

教師職業道德歷來受到中國大陸教育界的重視。1995 年頒布的 《中華人民共和國教育法》曾明確指出:

教育必須為社會主義現代化建設服務,必須與生產勞動相結合, 培養德、智、體等方面全面發展的社會主義事業的建設者和接班人。(中國大陸全國人民代表大會,1995:第1章總則第5條)

其中,道德發展在全人發展中處於優先地位。國家教育政策受《中華人民共和國教育法》主導思想影響,凸顯「德育爲先」的理念。若要培養良好道德發展之人,則需要施以良好的德育,而良好德育之實施則依賴於具備良好道德尤其是具有職業道德的教師。孔子曾言:「其身正,不令而行。其身不正,雖令不從。」此正好說明良師的職業道德對實施德育具有極爲重要的意義。

既然教師職業道德具有如此重要的意義,那麼,何謂「教師職業 道德」?檀傳寶(2009:21)總結中國大陸學界的各種觀點,認為:

教師職業道德,簡稱「師德」,是教師和相關教育人員從事教育活動時,必須遵守的道德規範和行為規則,以及相對應的道德觀念、情操和品質。

上述定義隱含著對教師職業道德的兩種基本理解:第一,從外在 的觀點言之,教師職業道德是一種「規範」,是特定社會下對教師職 業行爲的基本要求;其次,從教師本身的觀點言之,教師職業道德是 一種「品質」,是教師作爲職業教育者應該具備的素養。

事實上,「規範」是從「品質」衍生而來的概念。教師的職業道德「品質」透過行爲表現出來,而「規範」乃是職業道德「品質」及「行爲表現」的價值標準。正因爲教師職業道德「品質」及行爲對學生道德發展意義重大,所以國家往往通過制定教師職業道德準則等,

以「規範」教師職業道德行爲的「品質」,這些「規範」亦構成教師 職業道德建設的基本內容和架構。上述所稱之「規範」主要指由國家 或地方行政機關制定、頒布和推行者。

中國大陸的中學教師主要指任教於普通中學(分為初級和高級中學,但不包括職業中學及其它中等教育機構)的教師,師德是整個教師職業道德建設體系不可或缺的部分。中國大陸的國家行政機關自1984年到2012年之間,先後頒布12項與教師職業道德建設有關的政策,其中或詳或略地論及中學教師職業道德建設。下文從歷史發展的角度分析與批判此12項政策內容。

表 1 1984 年以來論及中學教師職業道德建設的國家政策文本

時間	發布機關	名稱
1984	中國大陸教育部、全國教 育工會	《中、小學教師職業道德要求(試行)》
1991	中國大陸原國家教委、全 國教育工會	《中小學教師職業道德規範》
1993	中國共產黨中央委員會、 中國大陸國務院	《中國教育改革和發展綱要》
1997	中國大陸原國家教委、全 國教育工會	《中小學教師職業道德規範(1997 年修 訂)》
2000	中國大陸教育部	《關於加強中小學教師職業道德建設的 若干意見》
2005	中國大陸教育部	《關於進一步加強和改進師德建設的意見》
2008	中國大陸教育部、教科文 衛體工會全國委員會	《中小學教師職業道德規範(2008 年修 訂)》
2010	中國大陸教育部	《國家中長期教育改革和發展規劃綱要 (2010-2020 年)》
2011	中國大陸教育部	《全國教育人才發展中長期規劃(2010-2020年)》
2011	中國大陸教育部	《中學教師專業標準(試行草案)》
2012	中國大陸教育部	《中學教師專業標準(試行)》
2012	中國大陸國務院	《關於加強教師隊伍建設的意見》

1984年到2012年,中學教師職業道德建設的政策演變大致經歷了三大階段:第一階段是1984年至1996年的初步階段,相關政策主要闡明國家對教師職業道德的基本要求;第二階段是1997年至2009年的法制階段,主要以法律爲依據,並完善教師職業道德建設的各項制度;第三階段是2010年至2012年的專業化階段,主要從專業化角度提出教師成爲專業人員應具備的道德素養。值得注意的是,三大階段政策演變是疊加式的發展過程,即每個階段的發展均保留前一階段的基礎特點,前後兩個階段既有聯繫,亦有區別。

貳、政治導向:體現國家意志(1984— 1996)

中國大陸自1978年開始執行「改革開放」(對內改革,對外開放)的基本國策,伴隨而來的社會政治、經濟、文化、教育等領域均嶄露新面貌,教師的職業地位亦日益受到政府重視。1984年,中國大陸教育部、全國教育工會頒布了改革開放以來,教師職業道德建設的第一個政策文本——《中、小學教師職業道德要求(試行)》(以下簡稱《要求》)。《要求》共列出6項條目(中國大陸教育部、全國教育工會,1984):

- 熱愛祖國,熱愛中國共產黨,熱愛社會主義,熱愛人民教育事業。
- 執行教育方針,遵循教育規律,面向全體學生,教書育人, 培養學生德、智、體全面發展。
- 認真學習馬列主義、毛澤東思想,學習科學文化知識和教育理論,鑽研業務,精益求精,勇於創新。
- 4. 熱愛學生,了解學生,循循善誘,誨人不倦,不歧視、諷刺、 體罰學生,建立民主、平等、親密的師生關係。
- 5. 奉公守法,遵守紀律;熱愛學校,關心集體;謙虛謹慎,團

結協作;與家長、社會緊密配合,共同教育學生。

衣著整潔,舉止端莊,語言文明,禮貌待人,以身作則,為人師表。

第 1、3 條具有明確的政治導向性,即教師職業道德必須與國家基本意識形態保持一致,爲達到此項要求,教師應該學習有關理論,加強國家基本意識形態做爲教師職業道德基本前提的認識。除了上述兩項條目,第 2、4 條主要提出關於教師如何對待學生的基本要求,第 5、6 條則對教師的道德行爲準則做出具體規定。

1984年頒布的《要求》雖然只有 6 項條目,卻是中國大陸改革開放後,在教師職業道德建設方面所作的初步探索。隨著改革開放的逐步深入,中國共產黨中央委員會於 1985年發布《關於教育體制改革的決定》,揭開了中國大陸教育改革的序幕。在教育改革的進程中,《要求》逐漸滯後於教育改革對教師職業道德的新期待。因此,1991年,中國大陸原國家教委¹、全國教育工會又頒布了《中小學教師職業道德規範》(以下簡稱「1991年《規範》」),作爲教師職業道德建設政策的新內容,其重要內容如下(中國大陸原國家教委、全國教育工會,1991:13):

- 1. 熱愛社會主義祖國,擁護中國共產黨的領導,學習和宣傳馬列主義、毛澤東思想,熱愛教育事業,發揚奉獻精神。
- 2. 執行教育方針,遵循教育規律,盡職盡責,教書育人。
- 不斷提高科學文化和教育理論水準,鑽研業務,精益求精, 實事求是,勇於探索。
- 4. 面向全體學生,熱愛、尊重、了解和嚴格要求學生,循循善誘, 誨人不倦,保護學生身心健康。
- 熱愛學校,關心集體,謙虚謹慎,團結協作,遵紀守法,作 風正派。

¹ 國家教委,全稱中華人民共和國國家教育委員會,成立於1985年,前身是中華人民 共和國教育部,1998年,國家教委又重新更名爲教育部。

 6. 衣著整潔、大方,舉止端莊,語言文明,禮貌待人,以身作則, 為人師表。

相較於 1984 年的《要求》,1991 年《規範》將國家意識形態置於第 1 條,簡化政治導向性的基本要求;關於教師如何對待學生的基本要求,亦集中在第 4 條中加以說明;第 2、3、5、6 條則均爲對教師職業道德操守和行爲的具體要求。析言之,在對待學生的基本要求上,該《規範》取消「培養學生全面發展」、「不歧視、諷刺、體罰學生」、「建立民主、平等、親密的師生關係」的內容,補充「熱愛、尊重學生」、「保護學生身心健康」的相關內容;但在教師職業道德操守和行爲方面之內容並未有太大改動,只是說明方式上稍有變化。

值得注意的是,該《規範》除了6項條目外,還附加如何貫徹落 實《規範》的7點說明。例如,將《規範》要求列入教師考核中,對 嚴重違反該《規範》各項要求的教師審慎處理。

1993年,中國大陸正式頒布《中國教育改革和發展綱要》(以下簡稱「1993年《綱要》」),爲中國教育改革勾勒基本路線圖。 1993年《綱要》涉及教師職業道德建設的內容如下:

教育的改革和發展對教師提出了新的更高的要求。教師是人類 靈魂的工程師,必須努力提高自己的思想政治素質和業務水準; 熱愛教育事業,教書育人,為人師表;精心組織教學,積極參 加教育改革,不斷提高教學品質。(中國共產黨中央委員會、 中國大陸國務院,1993:第5部分第40條)

該部分再次強調,「思想政治素質」是教師職業道德的核心,並提出「熱愛教育事業,教書育人,爲人師表」等較爲宏觀的要求。由於 1993 年《綱要》是個提綱摯領式的政策,涉及到教育改革全方位的議題,因此並未以較大篇幅論述教師職業道德建設的問題,其中提到教師職業道德的相關內容,與 1991 年《規範》相差無幾。

參、立法保障——強調依法執教(1997—2009)

在頒布 1993 年《綱要》的同一(1993)年,《中華人民共和國教師法》(以下簡稱《教師法》)正式頒布(中國大陸全國人民代表大會,1993)。《教師法》明確規範教師的專業身分(總則第3條)、權利和義務(第1章第7、8條)、法律責任(第7章第37條),爲爾後制定教師職業道德建設政策,提供必要的法律依據。

1997年,中國大陸原國家教委、全國教育工會修訂 1991年《中小學教師職業道德規範》,稱爲《中小學教師職業道德規範(1997年修訂)》(以下簡稱「1997年《規範》」)。1997年《規範》開宗明義地指出,本版《規範》是根據《教師法》對 1991年《規範》所進行的第一次修訂,由此可見,此與《教師法》之間關連性的密切。1997年《規範》之內容分爲「意見」和「正文」兩部分。

「意見」一方面強調教師職業道德建設的緊迫性,另一方面解釋 貫徹實施1997年《規範》的意義,對於該版《規範》的法律依據,「意 見」第3條環特別說明:

《規範》的許多內容是《中華人民共和國教師法》條文的具體 化,各地教育行政部門和學校在貫徹時,應注意把它和教育法 規的教育統一起來進行。(中國大陸原國家教委、全國教育工 會,1997:11)

1997年《規範》的「正文」共包括8項條目,內容詳如表2:

表 2 1997 年《規範》的「正文」內容

條目	內容
依法執教	學習和宣傳馬列主義、毛澤東思想和鄧小平同志建設有中國特色社會 主義理論,擁護黨的基本路線,全面貫徹國家教育方針,自覺遵守《教 師法》等法律法規,在教育教學中同黨和國家的方針政策保持一致, 不得有違背黨和國家方針、政策的言行。
愛崗敬業	熱愛教育、熱愛學校,盡職盡責、教書育人,注意培養學生具有良好 的思想品德。認真備課上課,認真批改作業,不敷衍塞責,不傳播有 害學生身心健康的思想。
熱愛學生	關心愛護全體學生,尊重學生的人格,平等、公正對待學生。對學生 嚴格要求,耐心教導,不諷刺、挖苦、歧視學生,不體罰或變相體罰 學生,保護學生合法權益,促進學生全面、主動、健康發展。
嚴謹治學	樹立優良學風,刻苦鑽研業務,不斷學習新知識,探索教育教學規律, 改進教育教學方法,提高教育、教學和科研水準。
團結協作	謙虛謹慎、尊重同志,相互學習、相互幫助,維護其他教師在學生中 的威信。關心集體,維護學校榮譽,共創文明校風。
尊重家長	主動與學生家長聯繫,認真聽取意見和建議,取得支持與配合。積極 宣傳科學的教育思想和方法,不訓斥、指責學生家長。
廉潔從教	堅守高尚情操,發揚奉獻精神,自覺抵制社會不良風氣影響。不利用 職責之便謀取私利。
爲人師表	模範遵守社會公德,衣著整潔得體,語言規範健康,舉止文明禮貌, 嚴於律己,作風正派,以身作則,注重身教。

資料來源:中國大陸原國家教委、全國教育工會(1997)。中小學教師職業道德規範規(1997年修訂)。**人民教育,10**,11。

由於 1997 年《規範》是《教師法》的具體化,因此,第 1 條即 爲「依法執教」,強調教師應「自覺遵守《教師法》等法律法規」。 此外,「意見」在說明「正文」時也指出:

> 《規範》體現了對中小學教師應具有的道德品質和職業行為的 最基本要求,其核心是愛崗敬業、教書育人和為人師表。《規 範》的八條內容,是通過對教師在學校生活中,經常涉及到的 及防止出現的道德行為作出的規範,確定了每個教師在學校工

作中,必須遵守的道德基本原則和應該做到的道德行為。(中國大陸原國家教委、全國教育工會,1997:11)

就上述說明而言,第 2、3、4、7、8 條是 1997 年《規範》的核心內容,而且 8 項條目均以「不能(或禁止)」和「必須(或應該)」兩個維度,提出教師職業道德的基本要求,例如「不傳播有害學生身心健康的思想」、「不諷刺、挖苦、歧視學生」、「不體罰或變相體罰學生」、「不利用職責之便謀取私利」和「注意培養學生具有良好的思想品德」、「關心愛護全體學生」、「模範遵守社會公德」等具體內容。

中國大陸教育部又於 2000 年發布《關於加強中小學教師職業道德建設的若干意見》(以下簡稱「2000 年《意見》」)。2000 年《意見》的政策包括以下四大旨趣:第一,不遺餘力地強調教師職業道德建設的必要性;第二,再次強調教師職業道德建設必須以 1993 年《教師法》和 1997 年《規範》為依據。

2000 年《意見》除提及教師職業道德的基本要求,其內容與 1997 年《規範》大致相同,另外補充若干因應現實存在的問題所提出 的新要求,例如(中國大陸教育部,2000:2000年《意見》第2條):

- 1. 要宣傳普及科學知識;不宣揚封建述信和歪理邪說,不參與 邪教活動。
- 不強制學生購買教學輔助材料,不向學生推銷商品,不向學生和家長索要財物。
- 3. 不賭博,不酗酒。
- 4. 要努力實施素質教育²,不斷提高教學品質,正確評價學生; 不公開排列學生的考試名次,不單純以學習成績評價學生。

^{2 1999}年《中共中央國務院關於深化教育改革全面推進素質教育的決定》(簡稱《決定》)正式頒布,標誌著「素質教育」做爲基本教育國策正式實施。《決定》指出:「實施素質教育,就是全面貫徹黨的教育方針,以提高國民素質爲根本宗旨,以培養學生的創新精神和實踐能力爲重點,造就「有理想、有道德、有文化、有紀律」德智體美等全面發展的社會主義事業建設者和接班人。」從上述中明顯看到《決定》對 2000年《意見》的影響。

第三,開展各種形式的教師職業道德教育內容包括政治理論、教育方針與政策、法律法規、教師職業道德規範、教師心理健康教育等,教育形式可多樣化。如2000年《意見》第2條指出(中國大陸教育部,2000):

要大力宣傳教師職業道德建設取得顯著成績的單位和職業道德高尚的教師的先進事蹟和經驗,組織報告會和巡迴演講,開展向先進典型學習活動。師範院校要設立專門課程對在校學生進行教師職業道德教育,並在相關課程中滲透教師職業道德教育;教育學院、教師進修學校和職業教育師資培訓基地等教師培訓機構要積極承擔教師職業道德教育任務。

第四,健全教師職業道德建設的保障制度,其目的有二:一是充分發揮學校中各種管理者(教育行政部門領導和學校校長)、教師組織(教育工會、中國共產主義青年團(簡稱共青團)、教職工代表大會)的作用,以完善教師職業道德建設的領導和管理制度;二是建立和完善中小學教師職業道德考核、獎懲制度,即

大力表彰宣傳職業道德高尚的教師和職業道德建設成績卓著的單位,對違反職業道德的教師要嚴肅處理,情節嚴重的要依據有關法規解聘教師職務,調離教師崗位,堅決取消品行不良、侮辱學生、影響惡劣者的教師資格。(中國大陸教育部,2000)

三是建立有效的教師職業道德監督制度,即

教育督導部門要將教師職業道德建設做為教育督導評估的一項 重要內容,加強對中小學教師職業道德建設的檢查評估工作。 積極鼓勵學生、家長和社會有關方面對中小學教師職業道德狀 況進行監督和評議。(中國大陸教育部,2000)

2005年,中國大陸教育部又頒布《關於進一步加強和改進師德

建設的意見》(以下簡稱「2005 年《意見》」)。從標題來看,2005 年《意見》與2000 年《意見》的主旨有異曲同工之處,其目的均在於透過政策推動教師職業道德建設。2005 年《意見》包括四部分,內容共15條,總體上與2000年《意見》相同。值得注意的是,2005年《意見》第5條爲「樹立正確的教師職業理想」,此條目是從未出現內容,意味著政策制定者開始認識到培養良好教師職業道德品質比單純的外在約束更爲重要,而正確的教師職業理想正好是良好職業道德品質形成的基礎和前提條件。

繼 1997 年第一次修訂《中小學教師職業道德規範》後,2008 年中國大陸教育部進行第二次修訂(簡稱「2008 年《規範》」)。此次修訂事實上是對 1997 年《規範》的濃縮和簡化。整個 2008 年《規範》僅有 6 項條目,除第 6 條「終身學習」要求教師「樹立終身學習理念」外,其餘條目均爲 1997 年《規範》已強調過的「愛國守法」、「愛崗敬業」、「關愛學生」、「教書育人」、「爲人師表」等內容的重複,並無太多新意。

肆、專業釐定——推動教師專業化(2010—2012)

2010年,中國大陸的教育改革進入新一輪的週期,其標竿就是中國大陸教育部頒布的《國家中長期教育改革和發展規劃綱要(2010-2020年)》(簡稱「2010年《綱要》」),這是繼 1993年《綱要》後頒布的第二份綱領性的教育改革政策方案。2010年《綱要》闡明 2010-2020年的教育改革方向,也包括教師隊伍建設的總體設想,繼承前一時期注重立法保障和制度建設的理念(中國大陸教育部,2010):

健全教師管理制度。完善並嚴格實施教師准入制度,嚴把教師 入口關。建立教師資格證書定期登記制度。(第4部分第17章 第55條) 圍繞這一思路,教師職業道德建設的制度也逐漸成爲有關政策的重要議題。2011年,中國大陸教育部頒布《全國教育人才發展中長期規劃(2010-2020年)》和2012年中國大陸國務院頒布《關於加強教師隊伍建設的意見》,此兩大政策均具體說明教師職業道德建設的構想,後者更指出:「構建師德建設長效機制,建立健全教育、宣傳、考核、監督與獎懲相結合的師德建設工作機制。」(中國大陸國務院,2012)

除了傳承既有理念外,首次確定了今後教師隊伍建設的發展方向。2010年《綱要》第4部分第17章第51條提及(中國大陸教育部,2010):

嚴格教師資質,提升教師素質,努力造就一支師德高尚、業務精湛、結構合理、充滿活力的高素質專業化教師隊伍。

2010年的《綱要》首次把培育專業化教師隊伍列入規劃,在國家政策層面對教師專業化給予高度肯定。事實上,教師專業化的理念早在1993年《教師法》頒布時就已露出端倪。《教師法》明確指出「教師是履行教育教學職責的專業人員」(中國大陸全國人民代表大會,1993:總則第3條)。既然教師是專業人員,則專業化就是教師成爲專業人員的必經之路,且需要通過建立完善的專業標準體系。

2010年《綱要》頒布後,中學教師隊伍建設也迅速給予回應。 2011年,中國大陸教育部推出《中學教師專業標準(試行草案)》(以下簡稱「專業標準」)旨在徵求社會各界對《專業標準》的意見。於廣泛徵集意見後,中國大陸教育部 2012年正式頒布《專業標準(試行)》,此與過去不分類別的師德建設政策不同,政策制定者專門針對幼稚園、小學和中學教師分別設計三類《專業標準》,以凸顯不同層次教育機構教師的專業特性,以下僅闡述中學教師《專業標準》³中有關職業道德建設的內容。

2012年《專業標準(試行)》包括「前言」、「基本理念」、「基

³下文如無特別說明,文中的《專業標準》均指中學教師《專業標準》。

本內容」、「實施建議」四大部分。「前言」明確指出,該《專業標準》 是任何中學教師做爲專業人員都必須遵守的基本要求:

《專業標準》是國家對合格中學教師的基本專業要求,是中學教師實施教育教學行為的基本規範,是引領中學教師專業發展的基本準則,是中學教師培養、准入、培訓、考核等工作的重要依據。(中國大陸教育部,2012:前言)

2012年《專業標準(試行)》比2011年《專業標準(試行草案)》 更強調教師職業道德在教師專業化的首要地位。2011年《專業標準 (試行草案)》闡述「基本理念」時,曾把「師德爲先」放在「學生 爲本」之後,位居第二位,而在2012年《專業標準(試行)》中, 兩者的重要性互換,將「師德爲先」放在第一位。此外,2012年《專 業標準(試行)》還增加了「依法執教」的字眼(中國大陸教育部, 2012,基本理念,第1條)。事實上,2012年《專業標準(試行)》 接續既有政策的理念,同時也有新的轉變,如教師應「熱愛中學教育 事業,具有職業理想,踐行社會主義核心價值體系」以及「以人格魅 力和學識魅力教化中學生,做中學生健康成長的指導者和引路人」等 文。(中國大陸教育部,2012)

上述變化除說明國家對中學教師思想上的要求,逐漸從思想政治 的層面轉移到核心價值體系的踐行,更說明中學教師將承擔更多透過 身教對學生實施德育的責任。

2012年《專業標準(試行)》的「基本內容」包括3個維度、 14個領域、63條基本要求。第1個維度就是「專業理念與師德」, 包括「職業理解與認識」、「對學生的態度與行為」、「教育教學的 態度與行為」、「個人修養與行為」4個領域,詳如表3所示。

表 3 2012 年《中學教師專業標準(試行)》的「基本內容」

	維度	領域	基本要求
基本內容	專業理念與師德	職業理解與認識	 貫徹黨和國家教育方針政策,遵守教育法律法規。 理解中學教育工作的意義,熱愛中學教育事業,具有職業理想和敬業精神。 認同中學教師的專業性和獨特性,注重自身專業發展。 具有良好職業道德修養,爲人師表。 具有團隊合作精神,積極開展協作與交流。
		對學生的 態度與行 爲	 6. 關愛中學生,重視中學生身心健康發展,保護中學生生命安全。 7. 尊重中學生獨立人格,維護中學生合法權益,平等對待每一位中學生。不諷刺、挖苦、歧視中學生,不體罰或變相體罰中學生。 8. 尊重個體差異,主動了解和滿足中學生的不同需要。 9. 信任中學生,積極創造條件,促進中學生的自主發展。
		教育教學 的態度與 行為	 10. 樹立育人爲本、德育爲先的理念,將中學生的知識學習、能力發展與品德養成相結合,重視中學生的全面發展。 11. 尊重教育規律和中學生身心發展規律,爲每一位中學生提供適合的教育。 12. 激發中學生的求知欲和好奇心,培養中學生學習興趣和愛好,營造自由探索、勇於創新的氛圍。 13. 引導中學生自主學習、自強自立,培養良好的思維習慣和適應社會的能力。 14. 尊重和發揮好共青團、少先隊組織的教育引導作用。
		個人修養與行爲	15. 富有愛心、責任心、耐心和細心。 16. 樂觀向上、熱情開朗、有親和力。 17. 善於自我調節情緒,保持平和心態。 18. 勤於學習,不斷進取。 19. 衣著整潔得體,語言規範健康,舉止文明禮貌。
	專業知識	教育知識	 20. 掌握中學教育的基本原理和主要方法。 21. 掌握班級、共青團、少先隊建設與管理的原則與方法。 22. 掌握教育心理學的基本原理和方法,了解中學生身心發展的一般規律與特點。 23. 了解中學生世界觀、人生觀、價值觀形成的過程及其教育方法。 24. 了解中學生思維能力、創新能力和實踐能力發展的過程與特點。 25. 了解中學生群體文化特點與行爲方式。

	專業知識	學科知識	26. 理解所教學科的知識體系、基本思想與方法。 27. 掌握所教學科內容的基本知識、基本原理與技能。 28. 了解所教學科與其它學科的聯繫。 29. 了解所教學科與社會實踐及共青團、少先隊活動的聯繫。
		學科教學知識	30. 掌握所教學科課程標準。 31. 掌握所教學科課程資源開發與校本課程開發的主要方法與策略。 32. 了解中學生在學習具體學科內容時的認知特點。 33. 掌握針對具體學科內容進行教學和研究性學習的方法與策略。
		通識性知識	34. 具有相應的自然科學和人文社會科學知識。 35. 了解中國教育基本情況。 36. 具有相應的藝術欣賞與表現知識。 37. 具有適應教育內容、教學手段和方法現代化的資訊技術知識。
	專業能力	教學設計	38. 科學設計教學目標和教學計畫。 39. 合理利用教學資源和方法設計教學過程。 40. 引導和幫助中學生設計個性化的學習計畫。
		教學實施	 41. 營造良好的學習環境與氛圍,激發與保護中學生的學習興趣。 42. 通過啓發式、探究式、討論式、參與式等多種方式,有效實施教學。 43. 有效調控教學過程,合理處理課堂偶發事件。 44. 引發中學生獨立思考和主動探究,發展學生創新能力。 45. 發揮好共青團、少先隊組織生活、集體活動、資訊傳播等教育功能。 46. 將現代教育技術手段整合應用到教學中。
		班級管理 與教育活動	47. 建立良好的師生關係,幫助中學生建立良好的同伴關係。 48. 注重結合學科教學進行育人活動。 49. 根據中學生世界觀、人生觀、價值觀形成的特點,有針對性地組織開展德育活動。 50. 針對中學生青春期生理和心理發展特點,有針對性地組織開展有益身心健康發展的教育活動。 51. 指導學生理想、心理、學業等多方面發展。 52. 有效管理和開展班級、共青團、少先隊活動。 53. 妥善應對突發事件。

	教育教學評價	54. 利用評價工具,掌握多元評價方法,多視角、全過程 評價學生發展。55. 引導學生進行自我評價。56. 自我評價教育教學效果,及時調整和教育教學工作。
專業能力	溝通與合作	57. 了解中學生,平等地與中學生進行溝通交流。 58. 與同事合作交流,分享經驗和資源,共同發展。 59. 與家長進行有效溝通合作,共同促進中學生發展。 60. 協助中學與社區建立合作互助的良好關係。
	反思與發展	61. 主動收集分析相關資訊,不斷進行反思,教育教學工作。62. 針對教育教學工作中的現實需要與問題,進行探索和研究。63. 制定專業發展規劃,積極參加專業培訓,不斷提高自身專業素質。

資料來源:中國大陸教育部(2012)。**中學教師專業標準(試行)**。取自 http://www.moe.gov.cn/publicfiles/business/htmlfiles/moe/s6991/201212/xxgk_145603.html

從上述 4 個領域所涵蓋的 19 條要求來看,有不少新意,例如,第一,「職業理解與認識」領域第 3 條「認同中學教師的專業性和獨特性,注重自身專業發展」,即首次提出中學教師應注重自身專業發展;第二,在「對學生的態度與行爲」方面,第 6 條「保護中學生生命安全」,也是首次把保護中學生生命安全納入中學教師職業道德的要求中,第 8 條「尊重個體差異,主動了解和滿足中學生的不同需要」和第 9 條「信任中學生,積極創造條件,促進中學生的自主發展」,均強調中學教師應注重學生的個別需要和自主發展;第三,在「教育教學的態度與行爲」方面,第 11 條「爲每一位中學生提供適合的教育」、第 12 條「激發中學生的求知欲和好奇心,培養中學生學習與趣和愛好,營造自由探索、勇於創新的氛圍」,以及第 13 條「引導中學生自主學習、自強自立,培養良好的思維習慣和適應社會的能力」等,皆強調中學教師應該因材施教,注重培養學生的創新能力和實踐能力。

相較於2011年《專業標準(試行草案)》,2012年《專業標準(試

行)》新增了四條,包括第 14 條「尊重和發揮好共青團、少先隊 4 組織的教育引導作用」,強調中學教師需要借助學生組織實施德育;在「個人修養與行爲」方面,第 15 條「富有愛心、責任心、耐心和細心」、第 16 條「樂觀向上、熱情開朗、有親和力」,以及第 17 條「善於自我調節情緒,保持平和心態」等,均一一臚列良好職業道德的中學教師應有的態度與行爲。

2012 年《專業標準(試行)》的頒布,對中國大陸中學教師職業道德建設具有里程碑的意義,一方面延續了原有三個版本的中小學教師職業道德規範,體現國家意志和依法執教的思路;另一方面也根據 2010 年版《綱要》造就專業化教師隊伍的理念,邁出建構教師專業標準系統的第一步,奠定教師職業道德專業化的政策基礎。

伍、中學教師職業道德建設的政策轉型

回顧 1984-2012 年中國大陸中學教師職業道德建設的政策演變歷程,可以從以下四方面看到國家政策制定轉型的態勢:

第一,從口號動員轉向法制保障:在教師職業道德建設早期,相關政策大多是政治作用和口號的移植。如「熱愛祖國、熱愛中國共產黨、熱愛社會主義、熱愛人民教育事業」,「認真學習馬列主義、毛澤東思想」。政治口號的移植和使用目的,在於激發中學教師的責任感和使命感,動員中學教師在國家主流意識形態的指導下,履行自身的職業道德義務和責任。不過,口號動員能夠發揮多大程度的作用,其作用又能持續多久有效期卻令人存疑。

有鑑於此,中國大陸的中學教師職業道德建設自 1993 年《教師法》頒布後,開始進入以法律爲依據的制度建設時期。隨後頒布的

⁴ 中國少年先鋒隊,簡稱「少先隊」。少先隊是中國少年兒童的全國性組織,由中國共產黨委託中國共產主義青年團領導。該組織成立於 1949 年 10 月,當時稱爲中國少年兒童隊,後於 1953 年 6 月改爲中國少年先鋒隊。該組織主要吸收 7 周歲—14 周歲的少年兒童參加,其目標是:把少年兒童培養成有理想、有道德、有知識、有體力、有紀律的一代新人,使之立志爲建設社會主義現代化強國貢獻力量,做共產主義的接班人。

1997 年《規範》、2000 年《意見》、2005 年《意見》,對中學教師職業道德的基本要求主要以《教師法》作爲釐定教師權利、義務和法律責任之主要依據。此外,1997 年後所頒布的政策,透過開展教師職業道德教育及建立教師職業道德保障制度等措施,完善中學教師職業道德的制度框架,使教師職業道德建設有法可循。

第二,從抽象模糊轉向具體清晰:無論是 1984 年的《要求》,還是 2008 年《規範》所列舉的要求,在語言上均顯得抽象模糊。如「執行教育方針,遵循教育規律,面向全體學生,教書育人,培養學生德、智、體全面發展」;「忠誠於人民教育事業,志存高遠,勤懇敬業,甘爲人梯,樂於奉獻」等要求,大多是對教師職業道德理想狀態的扼要描述,而少有針對教師行動及目的做具體規定。此與 1975 年全美教育協會(National Education Association, NEA)的《教育專業倫理守則》相較,在「對學生的承諾」方面有所不同,如第 1 條爲「不應毫無理由地限制學生的獨立學習和探索」;第 8 條爲「不應洩漏學生的任何資訊,除非這種公開有充分的專業理由,或者爲法律所允許。」(NEA,1975, p.1)

由此可見具體清晰的要求,以及具有較強的可操作性,能讓教師清楚知道應該做什麼或不應該做什麼;反之,抽象模糊的要求因爲缺乏問題指向和行爲描述,容易導致教師無所適從。對此,2012年《專業標準(試行)》做了較大幅度的改進,如第6條「關愛中學生,重視中學生身心健康發展,保護中學生生命安全」;第12條「激發中學生的求知欲和好奇心,培養中學生學習興趣和愛好,營造自由探索、勇於創新的氛圍」。這些條目表明中學教師職業道德建設的政策正由抽象轉變爲更明晰具體化的風格。

第三,從總體適用轉向分類適用:在2012年《專業標準(試行)》 頒布以前,並未針對各階段或各類型教師職業道德建設制定相應的政 策。此可從政策的標題上看出,已頒布的政策之主要適用對象是中 學和小學教師。如1984年《要求》、2000年《意見》和不同版本的 《規範》。另外,也有少數政策的適用對象擴大至「在各級各類學校 和其他教育機構中專門從事教學工作的教師」,如1993年《綱要》、 2010年《綱要》和2005年《意見》,均未根據適用對象分類,而且 所制定教師職業道德建設的政策亦缺乏對各級各類學校教師專業特性的掌握,容易流於虛疏空泛,失去妥適性。2012年《專業標準(試行)》首次打破以往教師職業道德建設政策的籠統呈現方式,把適用對象細分爲幼稚園、小學和中學教師三個類別的《專業標準》,姑且不論此是否真能把握其適用對象的專業特性,但至少在形式上實現分類適用的目的,落實中學教師職業道德的專業化。

第四、從職業道德轉向專業道德:早期職業道德建設的政策, 在語言表述上仍停留在非專業的水準,對教師專業特性反映不足,一 些法條的語言表述亦可通用於其它行業的職業道德規範,如鑽研業 務、精益求精、語言文明、禮貌待人、愛崗敬業、團結協作等。「專 業特性」最重要的判斷標準應該指某一行業行爲主體規則之「不可替 代性」。如果不考慮教師的專業特性就提出教師職業道德規範,這些 規範就只能是各行業一體適用的職業道德(vocational ethics)層面, 而無法幫助教師成爲教育專業人員。1993年《教師法》提出「教師 即專業人員」,2010年《綱要》提出「造就專業化教師隊伍」後, 教師職業道德規範開始轉變爲對教師專業特性的重視,所以 2012 年 《專業標準(試行)》涉入更多教師專業特性,逐漸浮現教師專業道 德(professional ethics)的輪廓。教師專業道德乃在教師專業生活中, 藉由實踐行動,建構道德觀念的總和,成爲調節教師在專業生活中各 種主體之間關係的道德準則。如 2012 年《專業標準(試行)》將中 學教師職業道德分爲職業理解與認識、對學生的態度與行爲、對教學 的態度與行爲、個人修養與行爲四大面向,此劃分正反映政策制定者 對中學教師專業生活中之教師與國家、教師與學生、教師與自我等不 同主體關係的認識。然而,在專業道德轉變過程中,2012年《專業標 準(試行)》雖已展現某些專業化特徵,但仍屬啼聲初試,未能深入 觸及「職業道德」與「專業道德」的差異,以致兩者常被混用,亦未 能明確說明具體適用的教學情境,更未嚴格藉由行動及目標說明其基 本要求,再者,條目的內涵多指向「教」,少指向「學」(李高峰, 2012) , 此硕需在後續的教師職業道德政策制定中改進。

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馬來西亞華文獨立中學 「校本教師專業發展」 之現況

黄禎玉*

摘要

華文獨立中學教育是馬來西亞國內一個民辦的中等教育體系,全國共有 60 所獨中,師資的來源多元,教師於職前缺乏正規的養成教育,教師的素質對獨立中學的辦學是一大挑戰。校本的教師專業發展工作一方面是獨立中學發展所需,另一方面也是教師教育發展的趨勢。目前許多華文獨立中學的校本教師專業發展工作處於探索階段,因此本文分析獨立中學已開展校本教師專業發展工作的實務經驗,希望能提出可供友校參考,也促進獨立中學教師對校本教師專業發展的認識。本文首先介紹馬來西亞華文獨立中學的性質,說明學校落實校本教師專業發展的需要。繼之,分別介紹吉隆坡中華獨中、尊孔獨中和循人中學 3 所華文獨立中學實施之校本教師專業發展的內涵與特色,包括專職部門的設立、校本教師進修計畫的內容、落實的情況和特點等。文末也指出,華文獨立中學的校本教師專業發展工作仍處起步階段,機制未臻成熟,發展之路充滿挑戰。

關鍵詞:華文獨立中學、校本教師專業發展、吉隆坡中華獨中、尊孔獨中、循人中學

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School-Based Teacher Professional Development in Malaysia Chinese Independent Secondary Schools

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Abstract

Malaysia Independent Chinese Secondary Schools (MICSS), which consists of 60 Independent Secondary Schools, is a community-run and non-profit secondary school system. Teachers who teach in MICSS have various academic backgrounds; some of them even lack pre-service training. In view of the special background and context of MICSS, some of the schools resort to school-based teacher professional development to deal with the challenges of enhancing teachers' quality. Hence, by reviewing the practices of the school-based teacher professional development in three independent schools, i.e. KL Chung Hwa Independent School, Confucian Private Secondary School, and Tsun Jin High School, the thesis intends to introduce their initial experiences and to argue that quite a number of problems and challenges are still anticipated.

Keywords: Malaysia Chinese independent secondary school, school-based teacher professional development, KL Chung Hwa Independent School, Confucian Private Secondary School, Tsun Jin High School.

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壹、前言

馬來西亞華文獨立中學(以下簡稱「獨中」)是馬來西亞華人民間自主辦理的中等學校,以13至18歲的青少年爲教育對象,學制六年(初中3年,高中3年),其教育目標、課程設置、教育教學方法等皆以中等教育原理爲主要依據。目前馬來西亞共有60所獨中,分佈在全國各地,2013年學生人數逾76,000人(「鄒壽漢:比去年增3,407人。全國獨中初一生18,145人」,2013)。獨中各學科的教學媒介語除了英文和馬來文之外,還有華文。自1961年開始至今,獨中未被馬來西亞政府納入國民教育體系內,也不獲政府的資助,辦學經費完全仰賴華人社會長期的出錢出力,至今已成爲馬來西亞一個獨立自主的民辦中等教育體系。

獨中雖然有統一的課程與教材,也在初中和高中三年級設全國統一考試,但卻沒有專屬的師資培養機構,所以獨中的師資來源是多管道的,而且大部份的教師未經過職前的專業培養。各校通常按本身的需要,公開招聘教師。應徵者最基本的資格是大學畢業,有的畢業自馬來西亞的大學,有曾在如新加坡、中港臺、歐美等國家留學的大學畢業生。由於具備教育專業背景者不多,所以獨中一般不會特別要求教師必須畢業自師範大學,或曾修習教育學分。這樣的現實,促使獨中必須重視教師的在職教育,以彌補職前養成教育的不足。

事實上,從各國師資教育的文獻與研究可看出,教師在職教育從二十世紀七、八十年代開始受到的關注已不亞於職前養成教育。越來越多的教育工作者認爲,教師的在職教育或持續進修是教師專業化的重要途徑,學校本位(school-based,以下簡稱「校本」)的教師進修模式逐漸成了教師教育的重要研究領域。一些已開發國家更將教師校本培訓納入國家教育政策,並通過法令,責成地方教育當局撥款,以資助校本進修計畫(中國教育部師範教育司,2001)。

近年來,馬來西亞一些較具規模的獨中也相繼設立教師進修部門,推動校本教師專業發展。這些獨中一般集中在城市地區,辦校歷 史悠久,學校的行政運作較穩定,對教師專業發展工作也有一定的認 同。爲促進獨中校際的經驗交流,2013年1月25日,循人中學舉辦了「獨中教師專業發展專題講習會——校本教師專業發展工作如何規劃?」邀請目前已設立教師進修部門的三所吉隆坡地區的獨中分享工作經驗。

下文分別介紹吉隆坡中華獨中、尊孔獨中和循人中學 3 所學校的 校本教師專業發展工作的現況。

貳、吉隆坡中華獨立中學

一、簡介

按學生人數來看,吉隆坡中華獨中(以下簡稱「隆中華」)在全國獨中屬於超大型的學校。根據 2012 年的資料(「教職培訓處」, 2012),該校共有 4,969 名學生,269 位教師。該校於 2007 年成立教師培訓處,以「提升教師的專業水平,促進教師終身學習的理念」爲宗旨,將教師培訓的工作制度化,包括擬定年度培訓計畫,年度培訓計畫納入學校行事曆,制定管理辦法、照章則行事。

二、管理與運作

從組織結構上來看,隆中華教師培訓處的主管爲校長,第一副校長擔任督導,下設主任、副主任和助理教師。該校校本培訓的對象細分爲行政人員、學科主任、班主任、職員、新進教師和全體教師,其中新進教師又分「諳中文」和「不諳中文」兩組(葉天送、陳玉麗、蘇慧珊,2013),不諳中文的教師主要是印度裔和馬來裔教師,其專業學習的內容基本上與語中文組教師相同,只是以不同的語言進行。

隆中華制定相應的管理辦法以落實校本師資培訓。首先,培訓活動進行前,發給全體教師《培訓須知》,其內明定各項教師必須遵守的條文。培訓活動結束後,教師必須在學校網頁上填寫回饋表和心得報告。同時,教師也有《個人在職進修記錄》表,於每年的10月1日,連同課程出席證明書的副本呈交教師培訓處。

隆中華教師培訓處主任蘇慧珊(葉天送、陳玉麗、蘇慧珊, 2013)表示,隆中華將每個月的最後一個星期六定爲教師集體培訓日: 學生停課,教師則參加進修活動。全年的培訓時數爲 20 小時(葉天 送、陳玉麗、蘇慧珊,2013)。該校教師培訓處將教師集體培訓的範 圍設定在兩個方面,正面的工作心態以及班級學生的管理與輔導。

以學科爲單位進行的教師學習活動可說是隆中華校本教師專業發展計畫的特色之一。該校稱學科教學的培訓爲「科本」培訓,由各科科主任規劃,於年初制定培訓計畫,由校內相關學科的資深教師擔任講師。例如,2012年2月25日共有15個學科同時舉辦科本培訓活動。表1節錄了當天部份學科組的培訓主題和主講教師名單。從表1可看出,培訓活動的主題和內容都是教學實務導向,而且全由校內教師擔綱主講,該校的科本培訓有時也會邀請校外講師蒞臨專題演講。

表 1 吉隆坡中華獨中 2012 年 2 月 25 日科本培訓總表(節選)

序	科目	題目	講師/主講	出席者
1	華文	2011 年華文教師研習班(中國)心得 分享	周秀君、林美鳳	全體華文老師
2	美術	管理班級的方法	卓硃趣	全體美術老師
3	國文	Pengajaran dan pembelajaran dalam	陳素湄	全體國文老師
		kelas		
		Pengurusan e-class	鄭慧儀、黃如君	
		Penilaian/ujian e-class dalam kalangan		
		pelajar		
4	英文	1) Scheme of work	Form 1&2:	全體英文老師
		2) Oral Assessment	Ms.Lam,	
		3) Exam format	Murugan	
		4) The teaching of literature	Form 3: Mrs.Loo	
		5) Brainstorm ideas for Newspaper in	Form	
		education	4&5: Mdm.Jaspal \	
			Harmender	
			Senior3: Nicky	
			Chin	
5	數學	數學教材教法:	黃莉娟	全體數學老師
		正負數的四則運算		
		聯立方程組		
		高初中統考考生常犯錯誤檢討及延伸	劉明華	

資料來源: 教職培訓處(2012)。吉隆坡中華獨立中學年刊,31,84。

三、新進教師培訓

培訓新進教師是隆中華安排教師專業成長的重點工作。新學年開學首兩天,學校舉行新進教師的相見歡活動,並帶領他們認識各處室,學科組的主任也安排教學觀摩和視察。該校在特定某週六的下午2時15分到3時45分,安排主題講座,包括班級管理、華文教育簡史、課堂教學與心理與教學評量等。

隆中華教職培訓處主任蘇慧珊指出(葉天送、陳玉麗、蘇慧珊, 2013),從2010年開始,隆中華還新增師徒制新進教師培訓措施, 即學校挑選資深教師成爲師傅教師,與新進教師配對並簽訂正式的 《師徒結對協議書》,明定雙方的職責和任務。師傅必須定時與徒弟 面談、視察徒弟的教學,也讓徒弟觀摩他/她的教學爲期1年,但可 視情況需要延長至2年。

吉隆坡中華獨中是一所規模較大的學校,教師人數接近300人,要規劃和管理如此龐大的教師專業發展甚爲不易。因此,該校選擇從建制著手,將校本的教師專業發展作法規章化,規範並指引全體教師在校參加進修和研習。事實上,該校「科本」研討活動就是專業社群的學習方式——資深教師扮演領導者的角色,針對特定的教學議題,整理與分享自身的教學想法和經驗,供同科的夥伴在團體中討論與對話;個人與夥伴在這樣的互動方式中獲得共同的學習與成長。至於專爲新進教師設立的師徒制,採教學視導的形式;同時,由於「師傅」(視導者)不侷限於如校長和主任等上層領導,也包括資深教師,此舉體現了同儕互助的精神。

參、吉隆坡尊孔獨立中學

一、簡介

尊孔獨中的教師專業發展自 2003 年開始實施校本教師專業發展。 根據尊孔獨中教育研究部(2010)「尊孔獨中教育研究部的工作報告: 2009-2010」一文指出,2009年該校設立「教育研究部」,聘請教育研究員(同時也是學校的教師),嘗試階段性的總結7年的教改經驗,並建立理論基礎,據此擬定後續的行動計畫,其研究項目包括《網上教學的推動與改革》(王利潤老師負責)、《勞育制度的探討與建構》(葉家強老師負責)、《特別輔導班制度的探討與建構》、《高中時事教育的推展》(兩者均由謝映紅老師負責)。此外,該校也調整上課時間,即學生上課時間集中在星期一至星期五,星期六則進行戶外的教學活動(如學生社團的練習活動、戶外教學、社團會議等)。隨著上課時間的調整,星期六學生社團活動後的時間,即可進行教師專業進修。全校教師專業進修分成進修組、教研組和不諳華文教師組三組,進行培訓(謝映紅,2012b)。

2010 年,學校成立「進修教研委員會」(尊孔獨中教育研究部,2010),下設「教師進修部」,並由各科科主任組成 17 位種子教師,系統性的展開教育研究的培訓,以掌握基本的教育研究知識和方法,其教育研究的研習課程包括 Google 協作平臺簡介與操作、教育研究的選題、研究報告的格式、測量工具的設置、統計學的基本概念和SPSS 的應用等等。在這一年裏,各科教師共完成了 8 份研究成果,包括華文科的「習寫豎捺撇,醞釀橫折勾——探討習寫『楷書鋼筆字帖』對學生的績效與影響」、馬來文科的「活動課(kelas aktiviti)對改善初一學生聽與說教學的學習成效和動機之研究」、英文科的"Education reform:Going beyond classroom teaching towards acquiring English language competency and exploring students' interest in second language learning"(through activity lessons and computer assisted language learning,簡稱 CALL Lessons)、數學科的「特輔班實施『成功教育』教學策略前後的學生學習表現及學習心態之比較」,以及其他 4 份教育專題研究。

2011年,學校人事重組,教師進修部與教育研究部合併爲「教師進修與研究處」,簡稱「修研處」,其總體工作目標爲:推動教師專業發展、提升教師的進修和研究意識、促成區域性的獨中師資培訓策略聯盟(謝映紅,2012b)。同時,學校擬定了5年的教師培訓計畫,每年選派20名教師參加教育專業文憑課程。此外,從2011年開始,

教研工作的方向也作了調整:教研不再只由少數幾位的研究員負責, 研究的主題也不只是集中在學校的教改項目;學校鼓勵教師進行行動 研究,並將研究成果在校內發表與分享。

二、關於教育研究的研習活動

尊孔獨中鼓勵教師開展教育研究工作,將教學實踐所發現的問題,化爲研究課題,擬定有效可行的行動方案付諸實施。這類研究與教學實踐過程,即在促使教師有更高層次的教學知能。因此,滿足教師專業發展需要的校本進修活動,在馬來西亞乃因應而生。由學校所開展的教師進修課程包括以教育研究爲主體的系列學習活動,如研究報告的寫作格式、研究工具的設置、統計學的基本概念、SPSS 軟件應用等行動研究課程。

2010年該校針對教研工作進行了一項調查後發現(謝映紅, 2012a),大部份的教師都表示,學校所安排的教育研究培訓課程對他們是有幫助的,但由於時間不足和教學負荷過重,影響教師投入教育研究的熱忱;另一方面,針對學校教改項目所進行的研究結果大都對學校政策或教改提供參考,惟對幫助教師解決日常教育問題未能提供直接的參考價值(謝映紅,2012a)。因此,2011年修研處調整了工作方向與優先順序,把重點放在教師對自身教學的反思,並將反思的內容化爲文字「教師與自我對話」:即根據教學反思的內容開展「教師與同儕對話」,最後再將這對話結果提到行動研究的層次,進行「實踐與理論對話」,希望藉此能逐步引導教師從被動的參與培訓,逐漸意識到自己是教學主體的角色,並向主動探索方向邁進(謝映紅, 2012b)。

三、讀書會與新進教師成長計畫

除了教育研究方面的培訓課程之外,教師讀書會是尊孔獨中校本 進修的另一特色。該校館藏資源豐富且定期組織不同學科教師的讀書 會,資源館主任陸素芬老師彙整 2011 至 2012 年間教師閱讀過的書, 主要包括《沒有資優班》、《希望教師》、《老師如何跟學生對話》、 "101 ways to love your job"等;觀賞的影片則是《街頭日記》(陸素 芬,2013)。讀書會的進行方式不拘一格,有的教師甚至採用演劇的方式,呈現閱讀心得。該校教師通過這樣的互動方式,打破學科的疆界,落實跨科的同儕學習,形塑出分享與互助的學習文化。

至於新進教師方面,該校的教師進修部工作報告(尊孔獨中教師進修部,2010)指出,2010年開學前,尊孔獨中舉辦「新進教師一日營」,協助新進教師認識學校的理念、使命、教務制度、教改計畫與措施等。此外,由於新進教師對同儕支持的迫切需要,2012年推展「教師互助成長計畫」,旨在縮短新進教師對教學的摸索期,減少他們的孤立與挫敗感,提高他們的工作信心,並促進夥伴教師(資深教師)與新進教師之間的互助關係與專業成長。修研處於年初安排夥伴教師與新進教師正式會面,建立夥伴關係;隨後,他們相互聽課,並針對教學進行對話和討論;修研處於學期末總結這項計畫,提出學校各行政部門的支援是計畫成功與否的關鍵,這些支援包括夥伴教師工作量和工作時間的調整,以及修研處與夥伴教師的定期會面和協商,俾共同研擬與協助新進教師的行動研究。

尊孔獨中的校本教師專業發展工作可說由行動研究領航。該校「教育研究部」的設立先於「教師進修部」,部內聘請專任研究員,帶領教師針對該校的教改項目,開展行動研究。因此,以「教育研究」為主軸,由教研部策劃推展教師研習活動,以提高教師的行動研究能力。若以學者所指出的行動研究內涵(張德銳、丁一顧,2008)來檢視尊孔獨中教師的教研工作,則該校的教研確實具備以下特點:

- 1. 研究者即是教學實務工作者。
- 2. 研究情境是教師們所面對的真實教學情境。
- 3. 教師以協同合作的方式來開展教研工作。
- 4. 研究的資料包括質性和量化資料。
- 5. 研究歷程有一定的持續性。
- 6. 教師應用研究的成果來解釋教學現象、解決教學問題。
- 7. 教研工作促進了教師的成長、提高其能力,同時促使他們在教育理論和實務之間找到一道溝通的橋樑,學習用理論來關照自身的教學實踐。

肆、吉隆坡循人中學

一、簡介

吉隆坡循人中學(以下簡稱「循中」)於2009年設立教師進修處。 早在這個處成立之前,學校已陸續推動校本教師學習活動,包括集體 備課、新進教師成長團體、教育研究與發表會等。教務處在排課時會 將集體備課與新進教師成長團體納入教師上課時數中,這一舉措意味 著這兩項學習活動屬於教師教學時間的一部份。「定時」在一定程度 上保障了學習活動的量,也逐漸形成一個制度,讓教師們在規劃個人 工作時間時有所依循。資深教師在這些學習活動中貢獻自身的經驗和 智慧,扮演分享者的角色,在教師群中形塑很好的分享文化。這一切 都爲後來的校本教師專業發展奠定了良好的基礎。

2009年開始,該校實施「週六教師專業成長日」(週六11時至 12時40分),學生自主展開聯課活動,教師則集體參加由教師進修 處策劃的進修活動。

循中教師進修處推動校本教師專業成長的工作方向包括以下六項 (黃禎玉,2012):

- 1. 促進新進教師對新的工作環境和角色任務的適應。
- 2. 促進新任班導師對新的角色任務的理解,並發展相應的班級 經營能力。
- 3. 促進資深班導師之間的經驗分享,深化教師個人班級經營的 知能。
 - 4. 促進全體教師教育專業知能與情意。
 - 5. 促進全體教師總結教育教學經驗和教育寫作的能力。
 - 6. 增進獨中教師校際的交流。

上述工作方向涵蓋新手教師、班導師和全體教師的學習活動。以下分別闡述不同類群的教師所設計的進修活動。

二、新進教師的校本進修活動

本文所稱「新進教師」,指新學年到任的教師,大部份爲甫從大 學畢業的社會新鮮人,「探索和適應」是必經的歷程,因此這個階段 所設計的課程旨在幫助他們認識學校、適應新的環境和角色。

新學年開始前1週,學校會策劃爲期兩天的入職培訓,其內容包括認識學校的歷史與校園環境、參觀各處室、校務彙報等等;此外還有三場分別由教務處、訓導處和輔導處主任主講的講座,內容包括教學管理、學生紀律管理和師生溝通。

「沒有經驗」是新進教師最大的共同點。開學後,新進教師通常會遭遇相同的經歷,例如生活節奏改變、對繁雜的事務無所適從、有挫敗感、不知道如何應對學生的問題等。除了需要專業認知的充實外,也亟需在心理上的支持。因此,開學後,學校也會安排每週兩節課的「新手教師成長團體」,促進新手教師間的情誼,並營造互相加油打氣的團體氣氛。另外,也會邀請資深教師分享教學經驗,提供實用的方法與技巧。上述課程每週兩節爲期1年,新手教師在過程中演練教學並邀請同儕回饋意見(黃頑玉,2012)。

學校在新學年的一月下旬或二月上旬定期舉辦「教育新鮮人工作坊」,曾邀請臺灣新北市立永平高級中學的李玲惠校長帶領與主講, 充實新進教師班級經營與教學活動設計的知能。

教學觀摩與視察則安排在三、四月間,新進教師根據教務處所編 訂的時間表,進班觀摩資深教師上課,並讓各學科組長和教師進修處 主任進班聽新進教師上課,於課後進行交流。觀摩與視察的目的不在 評鑑新進教師的表現,而是幫助新進教師更快的掌握教學方法,提升 自我的教學知能。

三、班導師的校本進修活動

2013年,循中共有59班(初中31班,高中28班)。59位班導師可分爲新任班導師和資深班導師,前者係指第一次擔任班導師的教師。新任班導師的學習活動從年底輔導處策劃的「初中新生訓練營」即開始。新生營開始前,輔導處安排數次密集的研習活動,讓新任班

導瞭解學校班級管理的理念與運作,以及進行「閱讀教學」、「成立 班級幹部」、「教會學生寫命題日記」等項目的教學演練。一月份開 學後,輔導處和教師進修處也會定期召集新任班導師,瞭解其帶班情 況,並給予支援;必要時也會邀請資深班導師針對不同的主題(如「學 生不交作業怎麼辦?」、「如何辦好班級家長日?」),分享理念和 經驗。對資深班導師來說,在分享的同時,也梳理了自身的內隱知識, 促進了自身的專業成長。

資深班導師方面,教師進修處利用週六教師專業成長日的時間, 安排至少每學期2次的「同級班導師交流會」,同年級的班導師在這 段時間內,針對該年級的學生學習和生活情況互相交換信息和意見, 或研擬適合全年級學生進行的活動(黃禎玉,2012)。

四、集體的教師進修活動

週六教師專業成長日是學校落實校本進修的重要管道。教師進修 處嘗試將教師的學習活動分爲教育專業、學科教學、社會與人文和自 主學習四大類別。扣除期中考和期末考、學校假期、公共假期、學校 特定的活動等之外,一個學年共有約 25 次的週六,可安排學習活動; 其中,教育專業類的學習活動占的比重最多(例如,2011 年占 57%, 2012 年占 40%),其次是學科教學,而每一年則有 2 至 3 場的社會與 人文講座。學習活動不侷限於講座形式,大多數是教師之間的研討與 經驗分享,例如同一學科的教師或同一年級的班導師形成合作小組, 共同擬定教學或班級經營的活動設計。自主學習則完全由教師自行決 定其內容與形式,有的教師利用這段時間進行學科小組的討論,有的 則安排教師個人閱讀或備課。

此外,學校也鼓勵教師開展教育研究工作,每年歲末舉辦「教育研究成果發表會」,邀請教師發表研究成果。因此,教師們會利用週六自主學習的時間來進行個人的教學反思、小組合作研究以及論文寫作。以 2012 年爲例,共有 16 組教師在爲期 2 天的發表會上展現研究成果,主題涵蓋「班導師心得與班級經營」如徐亦里老師的「與高三商四」的孩子們一起蛻變——『一期一會』戶外教學」、「學科教育

¹ 獨中高中一至高中三年級分流爲理科班和商科班,此班爲高中三年級商科班第四班。

與教學」如化學組三位教師合作撰寫的「那些年我們一起背的化學」和「教育專題」如張慧容老師的「淺談學生社團經營——以循人中學學生警察團『Cadet』爲例」(循人中學教師進修處,2012)。

五、校際合作的教師進修活動

2010年起,馬來西亞中部地區(吉隆坡、雪蘭莪州與森美蘭州) 10所獨中開始了校際的合作培訓活動。各校輪流主辦主題或學科交流 會,在會上各校的教師分享教育行政與學科教學的經驗。

校際合作培訓是獨中教師教育發展歷程中新的內容,另一方面 也可說是推動獨中教師專業發展的務實做法,與理論性的培訓課程相 較,最大的不同點在於教師學習的內容,建基於第一線教師自身的 實踐經驗,對於要分享的教師來說,須反思自身的經驗,發掘和提取 實踐經驗裡具有學習價值的元素,將這些元素和經驗用自身的思維 和語言和參與者展開專業對話。對於參與的教師來說,藉由友校教 師的分享,教師們聽到與看到的事物,源自於自身熟悉的專業領域, 談論議題與自身息息相關,教師不是學習活動的旁觀者,無論認同或 不認同發表教師的見解,至少獲得了檢視自我教學觀的機會。發表的 教師與傾聽發表的教師之間,沒有如「專家-學員」般分明的界線, 在校際合作的教師進修活動中,彼此平等地進行專業對話(黃禎玉, 2011)。

從 2009 年開始,循人中學的校本教師專業發展展現一定的結構性,包括設立專職部門、由專任教師負責、設置週六教師專業成長日、擬定全體教師的全年研修計畫,同時將全體教師分爲「新進教師」、「班導師」、「學科教師」、「全體教師」不同的學習社群,且分類爲教育專業、學科教學、社會與人文等學習活動,用定時、定點和定量爲基礎,開展多元的學習活動,形成了一個覆蓋全體教師的學習網絡。

此外,循人中學規定該校教師必須參加的研習活動包括全體教師的人文講座、新進教師的「教育新鮮人工作坊」,還有許多係由教師自主設計研討內容與進行合作方式的學習活動,例如同級班導師的研討、學科教研組的備課或特定議題的研討、按研究興趣形成的合作小

組所開展的教研和論文寫作等,讓教師發揮專業自主性,與同儕互動 的過程中,提供自省和對話的機會,形成以教師爲主體、自我負責和 自我管理的學習文化。循人中學的教師專業發展在規範性和自主性之 間努力尋求平衡,期有利於整體校務發展的推進。

伍、三校推動校本教師專業發展的比 較

吉隆坡中華獨中、尊孔獨中和循人中學三所學校的校本教師專業發展,各有其不同的背景與路徑。各校亦經過探索與調整,逐漸發展出自己的特色。縱觀這3所獨中校本教師專業發展之路可以發現,促進專業成長的教師專業發展工作必須具備以下的要點:

一、校內設立專門組織

三所獨中相繼設立教師進修部門,專司校本教師培訓與學習的業務。其中尊孔獨中不僅設立部門,還在董事會的層級設立「教師進修委員會」。專職部門的設立,意味著教師專業發展在學校組織架構中有明確的定位,再加上配給的資源,爲所有的校本研習活動提供了支持性的系統。在操作層面上,3校的校本教師進修也編列計畫與預算、配置時間和規劃空間,各項研習活動按計畫循序漸進,引領教師朝專業成長的方向前進。

二、強調以學校做為教師專業成長的第一環境

校本教師專業發展最重要的精神在於教師的成長需求,源自教師在教學現場上所遭遇的問題或困難並探究解決之道。三校的教師所討論和研究的如班級經營、教學方法、學生輔導等問題,不是教育理論書籍上的教條文字,或是大學教授抽離了現場感的教誨,而是鮮活深刻、撲面而來、亟待被解決的教學議題。此外,在教師之間互動和研討的過程中,教學的知識得以在校園內分享、驗證、擴散,最後在教

師身上蓄積和沉澱,教師的專業發展實現了「由教師而起」、「爲教師所有」的意義。

三、重視不同教師社群的需求

從生涯發展的角度來看,處於不同生涯階段的教師自然有不同的 成長需求,再加上教師的年資與任教科目不同,規劃校本專業發展計 畫時有必要考慮這些差異性,學習活動也必須以多元的方式進行,以 保持甚至促進教師參與學習的積極性。因此三校的校本教師進修活動 分不同的群組進行,既有集體的學習,也有按資歷、學科、年級、任 務或主題的分組學習,特別是新進教師的專業成長。三校教師的進修 活動都不約而同地占有重要地位,更是馬來西亞獨鍾推動校本教師專 業發展的重點。

四、側重校內和校際的專業夥伴學習

校本教師專業發展除了教師學習活動在校內舉辦之外,還有一個重要的特點就是校內的教師也是學習活動的主導者、知識的分享者。從三校的教師進修活動內容而言,一方面邀請校外專家學者到校主講,另一方面著重校內教師之間的夥伴學習;後者所占的時間比重往往比前者還多,例如隆中華的師徒制、尊孔獨中的行動研究和讀書會、循中的同級班導師交流會與教學研究成果發表會。此外,自2010年開始持續舉辦的獨中校際合作交流會發生夥伴學習的效應,來自不同獨中的教師,同臺發表教育教學經驗,提供教師觀摩和學習機會,因此,獨中教師與校際之間逐漸形成了知識共享、夥伴成長的教師文化,促進學校組織與獨中教育內部的知識流通與更新。

陸、結語

獨中的校本教師專業發展之路時間尚短,各校的工作模式與制度 未臻完善,對於一個完全獨立自主的教育體系來說,發現問題、調整 做法是一個循環的持續過程,科學性與系統性評估機制也仍待建立。 無論如何,校本教師專業發展是個別獨中校務發展的新產物;但對整 體獨中教育而言,它是獨中教師教育發展史上重要的里程碑,讓教師 爲自身的專業成長負起更多的責任,用實踐學習,持續教師與學生共 同成長的教育理想。

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英國中等學校入學制度 分析——兼論對臺灣 十二年國教中學入 學制度之啟示

沈姗姗*

摘要

本文探討英國中等教育的入學制度,以官方文件與學術研究文獻作爲分析依據。第一部份描述英國中學升學制度現況,包括法源依據、中小學類型、入學流程、篩選標準以及對弱勢學生入學之優惠等面向;第二部份則以升學制度所訴求之機會均等、優惠弱勢等理念以及程序正義等視角,分析英國中等教育入學制度之相關議題,最後則兼論英國中學升學制度對於臺灣即將推行的十二年國教有關升學機制的啓示與思考。研究結果指出英國自 1960 年代以來中等學校制度與入學規範的改革大致有兩個走向,一個是消除學校類型分界、促進社會融合與改善弱勢者的教育成效;另一個則是在準市場的教育改革下,滿足消費者(家長及學生)的學校選擇,卻易形成社會隔離。此二者本質上並不相容,故而形成英國入學制度上兩股方向相異的拉力。

關鍵詞:中等學校、入學制度、英國教育、十二年國教、臺灣

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The Secondary School Admission System in UK — The Implications for the National Twelve-Year Basic Education System in Taiwan

San San Shen*

Abstract

This paper studies the system of secondary school admission in the United Kingdom based on official documents and relevant research papers. The first part of the paper provides a brief overview of secondary school admission system in UK, including the laws and regulations, the categories of schools, the application procedure, the screening criteria and the special consideration for disadvantaged children. The second part of the paper examines the related issues in terms of equal opportunity, special care for the disadvantaged, and procedural justice. Finally the paper discusses Taiwan's secondary school admission system, particularly on the changes expected in the National Twelve-Year Basic Education System. In conclusion, the paper draws attention to the tensions between two forces in UK education since the 1960s; one is the reorganization of secondary schoolsto diminish the differences, to promote social integration and improve the care for the disadvantaged students, the other is to satisfy parental choice of their ideal schools in a quasi-market mechanism, which may lead to social segregation.

Keywords: secondary school, admissions system, United Kingdom Education, the National Twelve-Year Basic Education System, Taiwan

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壹、前言

若從縱軸來檢視學校制度,中等教育具有接續初等教育並延伸至高等教育雙重銜接的地位;就橫軸來看,中等教育學生正處於學習的分化、性向區隔、生涯發展探索的關鍵階段。因而中等教育入學制度的各個面向—如與小學教育的銜接?早期分化或延緩分化?進入何種性質的學校(學術導向、技術導向或職業準備)?入學過程的公平與均等、方式入學(考試或申請)等經常成為許多國家關切的焦點。

拜英語具有「準世界語言」之賜,往往以英美教育爲「前瞻」與「啓示」的習性影響下,英國的教育改革與作爲對臺灣的教育發展有其參照意義,故今欲陳述與探討英國中等教育的入學制度,除分析制度特色及問題外,也意圖對照臺灣 2014 年即將實施的十二年國民基本教育(以下簡稱「十二年國教」)入學機制,企盼具有「前車鑑、後車戒」之意涵。

英國正式國名爲「大不列顛及北愛爾蘭聯合王國」(The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland),係由英格蘭、威爾斯、蘇格蘭及北愛爾蘭四個地區組成,由於各地區有其各自的教育系統及教育管理權之歸屬,本文所論之英國教育僅限於英格蘭地區的教育,故文中英國與英格蘭會交互使用。英國教育管理的最高權力歸屬於教育大臣(The Secretary of State for Education),中央由教育部(Department for Education,DfE)負責業務,地方則由各地方當局(Local Authorities,LAs)行使職權。自1988年教育改革法施行以來,中央積極擴權,地方當局的教育權力相對限縮,近年來更鼓勵新設「公辦民營院校」(Academies)及「自由學校」(Free schools),以中央經費作爲誘因,鼓勵學校脫離地方當局之管轄(Croxford,2011),有關「公辦民營院校」及「自由學校」將於後文學校類型內敘述。

英格蘭義務教育年限從 5 歲到 16 歲,自 2013 年起政府提高學生「參與(教育及訓練)年紀」(participation age)至 17 歲;預定 2015 年提升到 18 歲。「參與年紀」的要求,不同於義務教育,並非

強迫性,但規定英格蘭 16 歲到 18 歲的學生,必須就以下方案擇一參與(DfE, 2013):1.繼續接受教育(中學、大學或在家自學教育)。2.擔任學徒。3.若已就業、自營事業或擔任全時志工,則每周至少 20 個小時必須接受教育及訓練。

依據《1996年教育法》,英格蘭學生在義務教育時期的學習分爲四個階段(Key Stage,KS),中等教育包括階段三(KS3,11-14歲)及階段四(KS4,14-16歲)。在階段三,學校須提供國定課程規範的普通學術性課程;階段四則授予因應外部資格考試要求的普通學科或部分職業學科課程;後義務教育階段的 16-19歲則有中學第六級制(the six form)課程及進修教育學院(Further Education College),提供學生繼續接受教育或訓練(International Bureau of Education,2012)「學校」(schools)一在英國詞,若不特別標明,均意指中小學,且相關的制度及政策大多中小學一體適用,故本文主旨雖探討中學升學議題,但有時難以完全與小學切割。

本文先概述英國現行中等教育升學制度狀況,如法源、學校類型、入學流程、篩選標準以及對弱勢學生入學之優惠等;第二部份則以升學制度所訴求之機會均等、優惠弱勢等理念以及公開、透明等程序正義等視角,分析英國中等學校入學之議題,如改革政策、教育準市場化趨勢、家長學校選擇權以及因家長與學校雙向選擇所造成的社會隔離現象等,最後則兼論其對於臺灣即將推行的十二年國教的升學機制相關問題之啓示。

貳、英國中等學校升學制度現況

在分析英國中等學校入學制度前,先描述英國現行中學入學規定 的法源依據、適用不同入學規範的學校類型以及入學程序等,做為下 節分析的背景知識。

一、法源依據

(一) 1998 年《學校標準與架構法》 (The school standards and

framework act)

1997 年工黨執政,次年通過此法案,在其第三部份《入學制度》(School admissions)內規範了新的入學制度的法律架構,並據此訂定《中小學入學規定》(the School admissions code)以及《中小學入學申訴規定》(the School admission appeals code),做為英格蘭地區入學制度實施之法源。

(二) 2012 年《中小學入學規定》與《中小學入學申訴規定》 英國 2013 年入學新生適用的《中小學入學規定》與《中小學 入學申訴規定》係 2012 年新修訂。英國之所以新修定入學規則, 是爲了落實 2010 年白皮書《教學的重要性》(The importance of teaching)內政府的承諾,就是對學校入學制度進行全面性的檢討, 使其程序能夠更爲簡化、透明,以便學校及家長理解並遵行(教育部 電子報,2011a)。

二、中小學類型

前述的入學規定,因學校類型差異,入學適用的規定也不盡相同,茲將現行英格蘭學校類型略述於下:

英國的學校建制歸屬,與臺灣熟知的公私立概念頗有差異,除了 以經費來源區別外,尚以管理權隸屬差異、是否受國定課程規範、以 及宗教屬性等作爲分類。以下概述之:

- (一)公立維持學校(state-maintained schools):經費來自公共 財源且歸屬地方當局管理,因此地方當局主管所有的入學事務。此類 學校又區分爲兩種:
- 1. 社區學校(community school)——即臺灣概念裡的公立中小學,與商業及宗教團體無關聯。
- 2. 受監管捐助學校(voluntary-controlled school,VC)——通常 是教會學校,校舍與校園爲宗教或慈善團體所擁有,地方教育當局負 責聘用教職員工和招收學生。除了其自身的宗教課程外,教學上必須 謹守國定課程的規範。
 - (二)公立資助學校(state-funded schools),有以下類別:
 - 1. 受協助捐助學校(voluntary-aided school, VA)——與 VC 相

- 同,多爲教會之類的慈善團體擁有的學校。由於不是全部經費都來自政府,所以較 VC 擁有較大的自主權,但並不歸屬於地方當局(LAs)管理,設有自己的學校董事會,可自行聘用教職員及訂定入學標準。 也如同 VC,除了宗教課程之外,必須遵守國定課程規範。
- 2. 基金會學校(foundation school)——此類學校的前身大多由 1988 年教育改革法設立的「中央津貼學校」(grant maintained schools)改成。其經費來自中央政府,但由各校自設主管部門(the governing body),負責聘用教職員、入學事務及訂定入學標準,並擁有校舍及校園。此外有些學校也被稱爲「信託學校」(trust schools),有自己的基金會或企業,並擁有校產。
- 3. 公辦民營院校:包括「自由學校」、「大學技術學院」(University technical colleges)與「學徒學校」(studio schools)——其經費除了中央政府(非地方政府)資助外,尚有來自企業、宗教或捐助團體支援;不受地方當局管理,擁有其自身的董事會(academy trust),可聘用教職員並可依據學術能力甄選學生入學,且並不受國定課程規範,享有非常大的自主權。
- 4. 城市技術學院(City technical colleges, CTCs)——係都會區的獨立學校(the independent schools),強調技術與實用技能,也是由工商業或中央政府提供經費,此類學校數量非常少,亦由學校董事會決定入學事務。

綜合上述學校,共有五種型態的入學許可單位,分別是:負責社區學校及 VC 的地方當局, VA、基金會學校、公辦民營院校及 CTCs 的各自學校董事會。

2011年開始,英格蘭實施類似美國特許學校的「自由學校」的改革即允許家長、教師、慈善團體及企業設立學校。2010年的《公辦民營法》(the Academies Act 2010)允許新設「自由學校」,也可由既存的公立學校轉型。根據教育部 2012年一月的統計資料,2012年三月開始新設了 24 所「自由學校」,2012年九月已增至 79 所(DfE, 2012a)。

2011年的統計資料顯示,英格蘭地區接受公共經費維持或資助的中學共有3,310所。其中社區學校1,505所(27.2%)、VC有99所

(2.9%)、VA 有 521 所(15.7%)、基金會學校有 811 所(24.5%)、 CTCs 有 3 所(0.09%)、公辦民營校院有 371 所(11.2%)(DfE, 2011)。由此資料可看出,符合完全公辦公營的社區學校與受監管捐助學校概念者,僅占所有學校的三成,顯現英國學校教育的民營化與 私有化趨勢。

另外,若以學校性質來區分,根據 2009 年的統計資料,在英格蘭公立資助 (state-funded)學校中,有 79% 的中等學校屬於綜合中學、 5% 是選擇性的文法中學、 5% 爲中等現代學校,另有 4% 的公辦民營院校,此外尚有少數宗教屬性的學校 (as cited in Croxford, 2011)。可知英國中學的類型以綜合中學數量最多,然而免試入學的綜合中學是否因此就能滿足英國學生入學意願?

三、中學入學流程

英國學生完成初等教育後通常是 11 歲,故申請進入上述各類的中等學校亦從 11 歲開始。雖然申請過程各個郡不一,但大致採取以下流程(DfE, 2012b):

- (一)所有中學必須訂定入學規範,並將入學的相關資料(包括超額申請時的篩選標準):此須事先(約1年前)寄送給該學區小學最後1年(六年級)學生的家長。
- (二)家長向其居住地區的地方當局申請:即透過網路填寫線上申請(志願)書(common application form, CAF),至少填寫3個喜好的學校(每個地區允許選擇志願學校的校數不同,有3-6所學校數不等),也可跨學區申請,申請截止日期爲10月31日。
- (三)確立申請學校數:如果一個學校的申請者低於招生名額, 則該校必須無條件接受所有申請者入學;如果申請者超出學校預定招 生名額,學校必須依據原先已公告的篩選標準,排定申請者符合順 序,送回地方當局。
- (四)根據學校處理回報的入學資料:地方當局核對所有家長意願之後,全英格蘭中學統一於每年3月1日公告學生分發結果,稱爲「全國公告日」(National offer day)。
 - (五)家長約有半個月期間回復接受分發之意願。

(六)若不接受被分發的學校,家長大約有 10 天或半個月的時間(三月底)提出申訴。

英格蘭中學入學的申請制度,允許家長擁有拒絕地方當局分發決定之申訴權利。地方當局必須設置一個獨立的申訴委員會,以處理申訴案件,最後做出維持或推翻原決定;一旦原決定被推翻,其申請學校必須允許該學生入學(DfE, 2012b)。

四、超額申請之篩選

英格蘭各類型學校負責入學的行政當局必須訂定各校的招生 名額(published admission number, PAN),以及「超額申請標準」 (oversubscription criteria),做爲申請者數目超過學校招生名額時的 篩選標準,但是對於那些具有「特殊教育需求」(special educational needs ,SEN)學生所選擇的學校,依法該校必須優先准許入學。此外, 有些學校會採用學術能力或性向測驗選擇學生入學。

(一)篩選標準排序:各校依據事先公布的標準,排序決定學生的入學。各校標準與順序不一,但大致有以下標準:1.已有兄姐在此學校就讀。2.住家與學校距離,住得愈近者愈能優先入學。3.住家屬於學校地理範圍內的學區。4.鄰近小學(the feeder school)畢業。5.需要社會福利與醫療照顧之學生(須提出社工或醫師證明在教育上須受到特殊照顧)。6.學生宗教信仰與該校宗教屬性相符(指教會學校)。7.學校教職員子女。8.一般來說,公費資助學校並不允許面試,但住宿學校例外,可採面試評量申請住宿學生之適宜性。綜合英國一般學校的篩選標準,最常見的優先順序通常擺第一的是「受照顧學生」(looked after children¹)、接著是已有兄姐在校就讀、學校與住家距離遠近以及所屬學區(Croxford, 2011;West,Barham & Hind, 2009)。

(二)依據能力或性向選擇學生

申請超額時,除採用前述一般的篩選標準外,某些公立學校尚可依據學生能力或性向差異進行篩選,這其中包括 164 所的文法學校(grammar school)(Allen & Burgess, 2011)。文法學校可以完全根

¹ 下文將解釋。

據學術能力招生,若學生能力未達標準,也可以不足額招生,並且不 需給予「受照顧學生」優先入學之待遇。

若學校採取依性向篩選學生,此類學生名額不得超過所有招生名額的 10%。學校可依其特色學科招收性向適合的學生,如體育運動、表演藝術、視覺藝術、現代外語以及設計、技術與資訊科技等。根據 2009 年 West 等人的研究顯示(引自 Croxford, 2011),大多數(89%)英格蘭的中等學校具有專攻某些學科(subject specialism)之特色,有 5% 的學校會採取以學科性向篩選學生。

除了前述以能力或性向作爲入學篩選依據外,另有採取「學生能力分組化」(pupil ability banding)入學方式的學校。此類學校採取對學生學術能力進行分組,然後從不同能力組別中選取所需要的學生入學(West, 2005)。若學校採此入學方式,「受照顧」學生與「特殊教育需求」學生仍須被優先安置。另外,也有學校兼採依性向入學及能力分組入學的雙重方式。

(三)能力或性向篩選之測驗

一般而言,大多數文法學校會有超額申請的狀況,對此,有些學校採用 11⁺ 的篩選測驗,由「全國教育研究基金會」(National Foundation for Educational Research, NFER)負責試務。11⁺ 的測驗有口語推理測驗(verbal reasoning tests)、非口與推理測驗(non-verbal reasoning tests)、數學測驗與英語測驗四種,學校可要求學生須參加 2 科,有時 3 科、甚至 4 科的測驗成績(Slough Borough Council, 2012)。

另外,採「能力分組化」(banding)篩選的學校也會要求學生參加某類測驗,以區分學生能力,如在 Slough 地區的公辦民營院校—— The Langley Academy 就要求入學學生須參加「非口語推理測驗」。此種測驗非智力測驗、也非英語或數學的能力測驗,測驗結果沒有所謂及格分數,只是依據測驗分數將學生分爲 9 個能力組別(bands)入學(Slough Borough Council, 2012)。

(四)特殊教育需求學生之入學優惠

英格蘭中學的入學制度對於有特殊需求或關照的學生往往給予優先入學的待遇。自 2007/08 學年度開始, 法律規範必須對於那些

「受社會照顧」孩童(children in public care, 通常指由地方當局協助安排入住寄養家庭的學童),在學校申請超額時給予優先入學;而學生在填寫申請表時須註明其「特殊教育需求身分」,除了完全以學術能力選拔的學校之外,這些學生往往可就讀其指定的學校(Slough Borough Council, 2012)。

依據篩選標準以及招生的能力要求差異,1999-2002年曾擔任「學校仲裁者主席」(chief schools adjudicator)的 Peter Newsam(2003), 將英格蘭學校大略分爲以下八大類型(部分重疊):

- 1.「高度選擇性學校」(super-selective):幾乎所有入學學生取自同年齡群組能力最高的前 10%。這些學校通常是少數採高度選擇性入學的文法學校。
- 2.「普通選擇性學校」(selective):幾乎所有入學學生取自同年齡群組能力最高的前25%。這些學校多處於仍採取「三分制」(文法、中等現代與技術學校)舊制學校系統的地區。
- 3.「優等綜合中學」(comprehensive plus):招收各種能力學生,但多屬於前 50% 能力群組。這些學校有些採用舊的「部份選擇制」(partially selective schools),以及少數不採篩選制地區的聲譽高(high-status)的宗教學校(faith schools)。
- 4.「普通綜合中學」(comprehensive):招收學生的能力分配 狀態符合人口比例。這些學校最常見於鄉村地區以及鄰近沒有篩選學 校存在的小鎮學校,但也有少數會在都市地區。
- 5.「弱勢綜合中學」(comprehensive minus):招收各種能力學生,但很少有來自前 25% 能力群組學生。這類學校多數是鄰近地區存有其他篩選學生的綜合中學,因鄰近學校往往聲望較高而「掠取」(skimming)這類學校原本可招收的學生。
- 6.「中等現代學校」(secondary modern):所收的學生幾乎沒有來自前 25% 能力群組學生,但是在其餘 75% 學生中,則是各種能力學生均衡招收。這類學校多數沒有採用篩選制、維持舊的「三分制」中等學制的地區。
- 7.「弱勢中等現代學校」(secondary modern minus):所收的學生沒有來自前 25% 能力群組學生、也沒有來自第二個 25% 能力群

組內的前 10-15% 的學生。這類學校最常見於都會地區,而這些地區 也可選擇前述五類學校。

8.「次中等現代類」(sub-secondary modern):所收學生絕大多數屬於能力群組最末端的學生。

綜上所述,超額申請大多是普遍受歡迎學校、舊文法學校或是走 學術取向路線的學校,這些學校普遍採取入學考試或某類測驗篩選學 生,表面上看來是以「能力差異」做爲入學篩選;實際上社會階級或 家庭背景因素往往發揮影響,故均等受到質疑。另外在冤試入學的情 境下,表面上看似合理的排序標準,如學區或住家遠近,其實是對應 不同社經的社區,更突顯學校篩選機制不均等的問題。

參、英國中等學校入學制度分析

描述英格蘭的學校類型與升學流程後,繼而分析英國中等學校升學制度。切入角度係以教育機會均等之「進入機會」(access to education)均等,強調每個學生皆有公平機會進入其理想的學校,不因自身屬性(性別、種族、身障等)及家庭背景因素而造成不公。本節首先闡述英國中等學校組織沿革及 1980 年代以來,市場化導向的教育改革政策對升學制度的影響背景,進而分析其對現行升學制度所造成的計會隔離。

一、綜合中學改組功敗垂成,選擇性的升學制度殘存

二次大戰後英國現代學校制度建立的法源係《1944 年教育法》(Education act 1944),根據此法設置了文法中學、現代中學以及技術中學的「三分制」中等學校制度。小學生畢業時須參加 11+ 考試,依照成績決定學生進入不同類型中學。當時的觀念認爲學生依據能力及性向差異進入不同類型學校,可獲得「不同但均等」(equal but different)的對待,不會有機會不均等的問題。但事實上,學校類型的區隔反而加深英國原本就存在的階級現象,即來自不同家庭背景的學生,進入不同類型學校的社會隔離現象更爲明顯(教育部電子報,

2012; Coldron, Cripps & Shipton, 2010) •

對於學校類型造成的社會隔離以及因爲過早分化,導致不利學生潛能發展等問題,1960-80年代英國政府對中學制度進行改革,企圖將入學的選擇性制度廢除,轉變爲所有學生均能免試進入的綜合性學校制度。經過長時間的努力,結果原本三分制學校(文法、技術與現代中等學校)界限變得模糊,11-16歲學生就讀綜合中學的比率已從1965年的8%,上升到1980年代的83%(ascited in Coldron, Cripps & Shipton, 2010)。然而,即使大多數地區的中學入學已變爲綜合性,仍有些地區堅持保留11⁺考試以及選擇性的中學(Glaesser & Cooper, 2012),綜合中學改組的努力終究功敗垂成。

雖然英國綜合中學成爲主流後,確實減少了學校間社會隔離的「標籤」,但廣義言之,並未減少生社會隔離的經驗。其原因除了各綜合中學所在地仍反映了不同社會群體居住的社區外,學校內部仍然持續以學生不同的社會背景來區隔(Coldron et al., 2010)。Ambler與 Neathery 的研究發現(引自 Glaesser & Cooper, 2012),在二次戰後教育擴張情境下,法國、瑞典與英國進行的中等教育綜合中學化的改革,並未顯著減少社會階級造成教育成就的不均等。1980年代末期,隨著英國 1988 年《教育改革法》(1988 Education reform act)的實施,看在批判者眼裡,更是在毀損已然成爲主流的綜合中學制度,讓選擇性的中學入學方式復甦(Croxford, 2011)。以下分析教育政策面向。

二、1980年代市場化導向的教改政策

自 1980 年教育法施行以來,英國政府給予家長學校選擇權、發行有關學校資訊以協助家長行使選擇權、授與學校自主管理權力(相應的則是減少地方教育當局的權力)、並鼓勵學校多樣性、且要求學校以績效對「利害關係人」(stakeholders)負責等學校本位的準市場的方針,此種準市場的改革主要由保守黨在 1979-1997 年間進行,其中最具影響力者乃《1988 年教育改革法》(Croxford, 2011)。

自 1990 年代開始,英國政府對於中小學入學制度進行許多法令 上的改革,建立更公開的制度,並給予家長更多的學校資訊、學校選 擇權以及要求掌管入學事務的行政當局更積極回應家長的選校偏好。相關具體作爲包括:增加特殊性質學校(如城市技術學院、公辦民營院校)擴張學校的多樣性、修訂入學規定,以及 1998 年通過的《學校標準與架構法》(The school standards and framework act),做爲公開透明入學機制的法源(Gibbons & Telhaj, 2007, p. 1282)。

2001 年開始,新工黨政府(New Labour Party Government)更加努力促成學校的多樣性,如鼓勵燈塔學校(beacon schools)、公辦民營院校、宗教學校(faith schools)以及學科重點學校(specialist schools)的設立(Croxford, 2011, p. 2)。此種改革趨勢持續至今,仍給予學校自主權、學生與家長有更多選擇權(Gibbons & Telhaj, 2007, p. 1282)。2010 年由保守黨(The conservative party)領軍組成新的聯合政府,發展更多由教育部直接資助,但法律上獨立的公辦民營院校及自由學校,這些學校既不受國定課程約束、也不受地方當局入學制度限制,在教師薪資與聘用條件上更不受拘限(Croxford, 2011)。以下分析教育準市場(quasi-markets in education)對中學升學制度的影響。

三、教育準市場對中學升學制度之影響

如果視教育爲商業市場,H Gintis(1995)認爲,應先了解市場成立的五項要件:許多供應商(國家、私人、企業、宗教、社會團體等)、產品的性能應爲消費者熟知、消費者係理性的且知自身喜好、市場的價格由供需均衡來決定、以及產品係私人財貨。若教育要符合市場的律則;以上五項要件落實如下:一個學區內至少需2所以上學校、學校表現須標準化評量且公告周知、消費者(家長)有能力與意願去選擇學校、學費由市場決定而非以行政規範、以及須預防個人利益可能凌駕於社會利益(如造成社會隔離)之上(Gintis,1995)。據此檢視英國教育準市場的改革趨勢,可發現英國政府的確努力充備市場化條件,如多樣化學校、提供客觀公開的學校表現資訊以滿足家長的選擇權;然而卻也無法迴避市場化教育的困境,例如並非所有家長皆是理性且有能力爲子女選校,且也難以克服滿足家長意願後形成的社會隔離問題。茲論述如下:

(一)家長學校選擇權:真正擁有或海市蜃樓?

英國《1998年學校標準與架構法》內第三章第86條「家長喜好」(parental preferences),係以法律要求地方教育當局必須確保家長可以表達其對子女學校的偏好及理由。可見英國對於家長意願的重視,然而每位家長雖然可以填寫3至6個志願,且學生被分配到學校的過程也都遵循公平的入學規定,但並非所有家長選擇權的實質內涵都相同,如英格蘭都會倫敦地區因競爭激烈,家長學校選擇權的壓力易讓綜合中學採取不公平的入學標準(Croxford, 2011)。

Baker (2009)對英國政府一直標榜的「家長選擇權」入學改革 有所質疑,主張此種學校選擇權只是海市蜃樓,雖然政府提供許多官 方報告書及學校表現排行榜的資訊,提供多樣化學校滿足家長,讓家 長有權利表達選擇學校的偏好或志願,但此並不等同於實質擁有選擇 權讓其子女進入理想學校,且政府亦很少提醒家長,此制度之選擇可 能更競爭、入學更複雜以及希望更可能的易落空等後果。

此外,家長在行使學校選擇權的經濟與教育程度均有能力上的差異,使家長教育選擇權難以完全落實。以經濟面向來看,當入學制度限定地區或學區的住民時,住房的成本即形成入學選擇的差異。Allen與 Burgess(2011)指出,儘管家長可以選擇學校,然而住家地點仍對獲得入學機會具有關鍵影響力。此外,教育程度較高的家長容易理解學校品質的資訊,有研究(Gibbons & Telhaj, 2007, p. 1283)證實,高社經地位家長較可能使用學校表現排行榜及相關資訊,幫其子女選校,也較清楚入學篩選標準,不會受困於交通因素而無法讓子女就讀較遠但較理想的學校。

家長行使學校選擇權積極作法是對於分發結果不滿意而進行申訴的權利。2008年,反對分發學校而申訴的家長人數高達 86,020名,比2007年增加了6,010名,其中有61,950位家長參加申訴公聽會(DfE, 2012c)。雖然申訴的家長越來越多,然而申訴成功的人數卻從前一年的 19,450人次下降到 19,150人次,申訴案件的增加,顯示愈來愈多的家長對於學校分發結果的不滿(「家長爲入學名額打官司」,2009)。2012年英國教育部公布中學入學申請結果,全國有 95.6%的學生取得其所選塡的前三志願入學許可,與 2011 年相較,成長了

0.3%。但是也有超過 79,000 人,約 1/6 的學生無法進入第一志願學校 (DfE, 2012c)。進一步從各地區第一志願來分析,全英格蘭地區仍然有將近 14.7%,即 74,000 名 11 歲的學生無法進入其理想的中學就讀,其中只有英格蘭東北部約 95% 的學生能進入第一志願,倫敦地區能順利進入第一志願的學生僅約 67%(教育部電子報,2012)。此外,在倫敦南區、西區及中區某些地特定區域,中學入學機會的競爭狀況更爲激烈,學生能順利進入第一志願的機會約 50%,相對較低(教育部電子報,2012)。

(二)公告學校資訊以利家長選擇

英國大多數家長仍然以學術成就做爲選擇學校的重要指標,在此社會情境下,協助家長行使學校選擇權的重要配套就是提供學校品質及表現的有關資訊(Allen & Burgess, 2011)。Allen 與 Burgess(2011)以「功能性」(functionality,能預測其子女未來入學的考試成就)、「關連性」(relevance,知曉與其子女能力及社會特質的考試表現)與「可了解性」(comprehensibility,家長容易有意義地詮釋資訊)三個面向,檢視英國政府提供的「學校表現排行榜」(school performance tables),研究發現所提供的學校品質與表現相關資訊,仍有許多缺陷。舉例言之,Allen等人(Allen & Burgess, 2011)認爲,雖然提供關學校表現的功能性及關聯性資訊,將有助於減少社會差異造成弱勢家庭家長在學校選擇時的影響,但在「學校表現排行榜」對於家長進行學校選擇是否真的有用,仍難定論。

(三)學校多樣化

要滿足家長選擇權的另一項必要條件就是市場的多樣化。2001年開始,新工黨政府致力於學校多樣化,鼓勵發展燈塔學校、公辦民營院校、宗教學校與學科重點學校(Croxford, 2011)。雖然學校多樣化可滿足不同家長的偏好,但增設許多獨立學校,接受政府經費資助,卻又不受地方當局管理,也無須遵守如國定課程及師資聘用等相關規範,引發其他學校不平之鳴。

英格蘭地區的公辦民營學校數從 2009 年大選前的 200 校,急遽攀升到 2011 年約 2,000 所,自由學校已於 2011 年核准 24 校開辦,到 2012 年九月已增至 79 所,英國教育部未來三年將再投入 6 億英鎊(約

臺幣 270 億),設立 100 所新的自由學校(教育部電子報,2011b; DfE, 2012a)。由於中央政府投入大量經費設立新的自由學校,相對地削減了地方政府的教育經費,在政府提供經費的誘因下,學校轉型爲公辦民營學校的風潮自然形成。此外,部分地方政府因補助經費的萎縮而影響一般公立學校的運作,也會造成學校與學校間的對立與競爭以及地方社區的分化現象。

(四)入學制度造成的社會隔離

學校教育產生計會隔離是工業化國家的普遍現象(Coldron. Cripps & Shipton, 2010)。英國中等教育入學規範雖力求公開、公 平、透明與機會均等,但仍然無法減緩此現象。根據 2008 年英國「兒 童、學校與家庭部」(Department for Children, Schools and Families, DCSF)委託雪菲爾哈倫大學 (Sheffield Hallam University)大學與「全 國社會研究中心」(National Center for Social Research)共同研究英 格蘭 2006 年入學安置的有效性與家長經驗,結果發現持續性學校間 的社會隔離,不但是家長失望的原因,更是造成不均等教育機會的來 源,不遵守入學程序的規定與隱藏性地選擇學生,只是社會隔離原因 之一(DCSF, 2008, p.5),其他諸如居住地的區隔、不可能申請成功 的預期(the likelihood of an unsuccessful application)以及財務與計會 成本的缺乏等,均可解釋爲招生所出現的社會隔離,而並非一般家長 無能力去理解或協調一個複雜的升學制度而產生的社會隔離。所以造 成隔離的因素應定位在學校選擇的結構與環境因素,而非某類家長的 能力缺陷,據此 DCSF 此份研究報告反對某些論述將學校出現社會隔 離現象歸諸於家長無能的指控,故其主張:

比較適當的解釋應該聚焦於入學制度究竟如何區隔招收的學生 以及這樣的區隔是如何導致不均等的教育機會。 (DCSF, 2008, p. 2)

2011年11月19日數個教育團體聯合主辦一場「無處可逃-努力對付教育大臣 Michael Gove 的新教育法案」(Caught in the act—a conference to get grips with Michael Gove's new education act)的研討

會(引自教育部電子報,2011b)。會議主要批判目前的自由學校及公辦民營院校的改革,期望阻止逐漸私有化、傷害地方民主及加深社會分化的教育政策走向。倫敦大學教育學院教育社會學教授 Stephen J. Ball 在會中表示,商業教育公司已經滲入到政府的政策中,教育政策私有化的情形益發嚴重,政府、私人公司、慈善團體及學校經營已形塑成一種新的關係型態,教育成了商業計畫的一部分,所追求的只是跨國企業的商業利益(引自教育部電子報,2011b)。英國學者Rachel Gooch 於 2011 年針對 24 所自由學校進行的調查顯示,自由學校學生中僅有 9.4% 的屬於低收入家庭(須由政府提供營養午餐者),相較於全國公立學校學生平均的 18% 來得低。與其最鄰近的 5 所公立學校相比,有 22 所自由學校都錄取較少的弱勢學生(引自教育部電子報,2011b)。

對學校入學選擇的研究,John Micklewright 與 Rebecca Allen 認為,由於公辦民營院校擁有對學生入學資格的自主權,可以招收想要的學生,因此自然會形成一個新的菁英學校集團(引自楊博智,2006),如此將會形成更嚴重的社會隔離。由於家長與學校的雙向選擇,使得來自社經地位較高家庭的學生會聚集在特定學校,學生更不可能與那些能力及社會背景不同的學生融合,弱勢學生難以從中受益(楊博智,2006)。

2012年新修訂的《中小學入學規定》中,對於前述的問題或現象力圖改善,強調政府對於弱勢家庭孩童的關注,以及希望能夠藉此縮短貧窮家庭孩童學業成就落差(DfE, 2012b)。新的學校入學機制中,除了授予學校有權優先通過教職員子女的申請案之外,也主張公辦民營院校與自由學校應讓來自弱勢家庭背景的孩童優先入學(DfE, 2012b)。然而,此新修訂的《中小學入學規定》最爲人疑慮的是讓「受歡迎的學校」(popular schools)能夠免於地方當局與教育國務大臣的同意而自由擴張(expand without permission),藉由學校招生名額的增加,使得家長選擇權不受限制,充分落實。反對者質疑大部份受歡迎學校均設於大城市中,此類學校自由擴張的受惠者不會是中下階層的孩童,反而是來自中產階級且高社經背景的孩童。再者,受歡迎學校的擴張對在發展中或發展困難的學校產生排擠效應,而此類學校

正是大多數弱勢孩童接受教育的地方(教育部電子報,2011a)。

此外,英國有些中學雖以客觀的能力篩選超額申請者,但「篩選能力」似也等同於以社會背景及族裔篩選。Gibbons 與 Telhaj(2007)引用之前研究結果指出,當學校被允許以學生參加考試的成績做爲篩選入學的基礎時,社會隔離的情形自然會增加,一旦教育政策擴張家長能選擇學校的校數時,就會增加社會階層化的效果。

綜上所述,英國準市場化的教育改革,落實在中學入學制度上的 是提供多樣化的產品(學校類型)、充分的產品資訊(學校表現排行 榜等)之後,滿足消費者(家長)選擇其所喜好的產品。此從需求面 來詮釋的「家長選擇權」,表面上滿足了家長主導子女教育的權力意 識,然而若從市場供給面來看,一旦受歡迎的商品數量有限,供應商 (學校)或者以價制量(提高學費,讓申請者因經濟力不足自動知難 而退),或者訂定販售標準(主導權歸屬賣方),家長的選擇權在市 場的律則下,除非足量供應的商品都是相同品質,否則無法讓家長們 都滿意,此時社會階級或個人社會關係等遂成爲影響入學的因素。

肆、兼論對臺灣十二年國教中學入學 制度之啟示

臺灣的教育選擇制度在學生完成九年義務教育之後,進入高中教育階段才開始。自2001年起,國中學生基本學力測驗(簡稱國中基測)的分數被用來作爲國中畢業生升學高中、高職或五專的入學篩選依據。原本國中基測的規劃,定位在測驗「基本學力」,只是提供一個入學的能力參照,但實際上卻發展成與過去聯考相似的篩選機制。根據教育部的說帖:

國中基測的目的在於評量學生能力表現及發展潛能,期望 能在維持制度公平的前提下,消除入學考試對於國民中學教育 的不利影響,進而充分發展學生的潛能。(教育部,2007:2) 說帖中除指出,現今升高中的入學考試影響國中教學的問題外,也訴求國中基測的命題,應評量對學生未來學習與生活有幫助的基礎、核心與重要的知識與能力。由於「基礎、核心或重要的能力」均只是籠統性說法,無法從官方文件中具體看出臺灣在教育篩選制度的能力訴求,或針對升學高中職不同能力的要求或是性向差異的篩選。

2014年即將實施的十二年國教將改變現行以「基測」做爲主要篩選學生的依據,其主要的法源是《教育基本法》第11條:「國民基本教育應視社會發展需要延長其年限;其實施另以法律定之。」其所訴求之理念乃建立在九年國民教育基礎上,採取有教無類、因材施教、適性揚才、多元進路及優質銜接五大理念。其中與升學制度較關聯的「多元進路」,旨在訴求發展學生的多元智能、性向及興趣、找到適合自己的進路,以便繼續升學或就業;「優質銜接」則訴求高級中等教育與國民中學教育的銜接,促使正常教學及五育均衡發展;並藉由高中職學校的均優質化,均衡城鄉教育資源,使學生能繼續升學或進入職場就業,並能終身學習。

一、十二年國教升學方式概況

雖然十二年國教接續原本的九年國教,也稱之爲「國民教育」,卻不同於一般概念的免試「義務教育」。就現行規劃的高中職入學方式來看,大多數學校得以免試,改採申請制,但是某些學校仍然可以依據「特色招生」。以下概述十二年國教的升學方式(教育部十二年國民基本教育網站,2013)。

(一)入學方式

原則上,當招生名額大於申請數時,全部免試入學申請的學生都能錄取,此與英國相同。但若遇到超額申請時,學校得採特色招生,但此類學校必須是事先通過認證之優質高中高職或通過評鑑優良之五專,且必須提出特色課程及招生申請,經核定後方可實施。此特色招生係採考試分發入學,雖然教育部及各縣市在宣導十二年國教時,聲稱「特色招生學校」不等於「明星學校」,但從102學年度基北區高中職免試入學簡章來看,北區「明星高中」僅提供有限的名額,使原本希望在十二年國教實施前逐年提高「明星高中」免試名額的計畫落

空,未來似乎仍難以擺脫「明星高中」的標誌。教育部原希望國立、 公立明星高中都釋出30%的免試名額,但102學年度國立師大附中 只提供20%,臺北市立建中、北一女中則各僅15%的免試名額(基 北區102學年度高中高職免試入學委員會,2013)。

(二)學區劃分

全臺分爲 15 個高中高職免試就學區:一爲單一縣市的學區,即臺南市、高雄市、彰化縣、雲林縣、屏東縣、臺東縣、花蓮縣、宜蘭縣、澎湖縣及金門縣;二爲跨縣市的學區,有桃園區(桃園縣、連江縣)、嘉義區(嘉義縣、嘉義市)、竹苗區(新竹縣、新竹市、苗栗縣)、中投區(臺中市、南投縣)、基北區(新北市、臺北市、基隆市),雖然學生可以不限居住地跨學區參加,但僅限一個學區。

(三)身心障礙學生及原住民等特種學生

就身心障礙學生而言,其若參加免試入學之優待措施,在招生額滿之學校外加2%名額;若其參加特色招生,則獲得的優待措施是成績總分加25%,外加2%名額。原住民等特種學生免試入學時,先和一般生比序,若未能錄取,則額外增加2%名額錄取;如同身分的特種生超額,另採比序競爭。另有以外加名額,且不占一般生名額的方式辦理特色招生,考試以加分優待,至多增加該校招生額度的2%。臺灣與英國在對待特殊學生的升學同樣皆採弱勢者優惠或優先入學方式。

(四)國中教育會考

自民國 103 年起,每年五月舉辦 1 次國中教育會考,做爲國中學 習成就的評量。一旦申請超額需要比序時,即成爲升學篩選中的一項 關鍵。考試內容與原本國中基本學力測驗相同,包括國文、英語、數 學、計會、自然及寫作測驗。

(五)超額比序的篩選

若申請入學人數超過招生名額時,則依「超額比序項目積分對照表」進行比序。比序項目包括志願序、多元學習表現(含均衡學習、服務學習)、國中教育會考;多元學習表現比序,依國中在校健康與體育、藝術與人文、綜合活動領域之成績。超額比序總積分爲90分,志願序、會考配分比重各30分;多元學習表現總分30分,其中「均

衡學習」採計上限爲 18 分(符合 1 個領域 6 分、未符合 0 分),「服務學習」採計上限爲 12 分(每學期服務滿 6 小時以上採計 4 分)(教育部十二年國民基本教育網站, 2013)。

(六)特色招生的考試

「特色招生」分爲兩種,一是考試分發,依據前述高中職 15 個招生區範圍;另一是甄選入學,分爲藝術才能班、體育班、科學班等。測驗內容則依學校所申辦之特色課程內容規劃;學科測驗可就國文、英語、數學、社會、自然五科,由主管機關或學校擇科測驗及規劃計分方式;術科則依特色課程內容,設計考科數目及計分方式(教育部十二年國民基本教育網站,2013)。原本「基北區特色招生考試方案」規劃的特色招生考試,將考「學生能力國際評量計畫」(Programme for international student assessment,PISA)題型的「閱讀素養」及「數學素養」兩科此消息一發布,想讓子女進入「明星高中」的家長開始焦慮孩子另類的補習問題(陳俊雄,2013)。現在特色招生的類PISA考試,在民意反彈下取消(基北區不考類PISA增加非選擇題,2013)。規劃中的新的考試型態,考試科目仍是朝向閱讀素養、數學兩科去規劃(臺北市政府教育局,2013)。

二、英國中等學校入學制度對我國之啟示

綜合前述英國與臺灣中等教育的入學方式與篩選標準,分析英國 制度對臺灣之啓示:

(一)原則上均爲免試入學,超額時篩選標準差異大

英國中等教育的入學主要聚焦在小學畢業轉移到中學的過程(11-16 歲階段);臺灣十二年國教的入學的重心則是在初中升學高中階段,在小學進入國中階段,因學校類型單一,且採學區制,故除私立學校外,沒有篩選的問題。由於受到世界教育普遍的延緩分化、關注受教權利與機會均等理念之影響,兩國均以免試升學爲主,但在超額篩選標準上,英國較多以兄姐在學、學校與住家距離或學區、畢業學校、宗教信仰等個別家庭關連或社會面向爲篩選標準(Croxford, 2011;West,Barham & Hind,2009);而臺灣則以學生個人在校學習的狀況、會考成績或服務表現做爲比序依據,據此在英國學校間產生的社

會隔離或階級區隔現象,在臺灣並不明顯。

(二) 超額時的篩選最能彰顯計會隔離或階級差異

英國與臺灣都以免試入學爲主,當申請人數低於招生名額一時般學校都全都錄取,不會凸顯學生家庭背景的差異;只有在英國的「受歡迎學校」或臺灣的「明星學校」遇到超額申請而需篩選學生時,社會階級的因素才會出現。英國超額篩選時採用考試篩選學術能力,或用個人關係或宗教、社會屬性排序;而臺灣則以個人在學校學科或術科能力、綜合表現及服務狀況爲比序依據。雖然兩國篩選標準不同,但都與家庭社經狀況、家長的培育資源、教育程度等因素有關,社會或階級差異在此情境下最易彰顯。

(三)對於特殊學生或需要關照學生均給予優先入學或優惠待遇 基於積極的教育機會均等理念(如早期英國積極性差別待遇或美 國的補償教育理念),英國和臺灣對有特殊教育需求的學生,都給予 優先入學或優惠加分,可見教育機會均等在身心障礙或特殊社會需求 面向上,較性別、階級等其他面向的落實度更高。

(四)入學流程均能秉持公開、公平、透明原則

英國學校入學程序的公開、公平、透明原則均在《中小學入學規定》中以法律位階保障(見 DfE, 2012b, School admissions code, 1.8-1.9, 1.31, 1.32),且在此「規定」中援引相關的《人權》與《均等法》(如 Equality act 2010,Human rights act 1998)爲依據,顯現對程序正義之強調。我國教育部「十二年國民基本教育實施計畫」內也提及「超額比序」時應重「公平性」(教育部十二年國民基本教育網站,2013)。事實上,一個民主法治國家的制度在法律的規範下,入學的形式上或程序上的公開、公平已然是基本訴求,較不可能出現不公平狀況,因而可能出現不公平往往是在制度訂定時讓某群體學生較爲有利,如英國政府開放設置獨立學校,可任其自訂較有利於某些家庭或階級的入學選拔標準;臺灣在訂定「超額比序」項目、配分以及「特色招生」的「特色」及「考科」時,是否已有利於某些身分或能力的學生,有待十二年國教正式上路後觀察之。

(五)英國中學入學制度讓家長有申訴機會 英國的家長若不滿意地方當局的分發,對於自己子女未能進入第 一志願學校時,可以提出申訴。依據《1998年學校標準與架構法》 訂定的《中小學入學申訴規定》,以下兩種狀況允許提出申訴:一是 由家長(某些狀況可由學生本身)對於主管入學當局拒絕入學;另一 種則是在地方當局負責入學事務的社區學校或受監管的捐助學校, 對於地方當局要求讓已經2次以上被退學的學生進入其學校(DfE, 2012d)。由於後者屬於英國行政特殊情境,又非本文焦點,故以下 只就家長申訴闡述之。

當家長提出申訴對分發學校不服時,由入學行政單位(如地方當局或學校董事會)組織獨立運作之申訴委員會,並派1位熟悉相關法規的職員協助。此申訴委員會至少包括1位主席以及2位成員,成員中至少有1位必須是以下兩類人:一般民眾或懂教育、熟悉此地區教育狀況或有子女在學者。這些成員必須接受訓練,了解入學相關法規、1998年《人權法》、2010年《均等法》、正義與公平原則,以及成員們該扮演的角色(DfE, 2012d);之後再舉行公聽會,由申訴者及入學行政單位提出雙方的理由,最後由申訴委員會做出維持原狀或允許入學的決定(見DfE, 2012d)。就實踐家長選擇權而言,此制度確實績密,或許這是在英國學校類型眾多、篩選標準繁雜以及家長參與子女教育意識漸高的情境下,必然的發展趨勢。相對於臺灣,未來十二年國教超額比序項目相對單純的狀況下,建立申訴制度、採積極方式處理升學議題,或許短期間難以出現。

伍、結語

入學機會的均等、公平與照顧弱勢是檢視一個國家實踐教育機會 均等的重要面向。英國自 1960 年代以來中等學校制度與入學規範的 改革大致有兩個走向,一個是消除學校類型分界、促進社會融合與改 善弱勢者的教育成就;另一個則是在準市場的教育改革下,滿足消費 者(家長及學生)的選擇。此二者本質上並不相容,因而形成其入學 制度改革上兩股方向相異的拉力。尤其現在的聯合政府參考美國特許 學校(美國公辦民營學校,接受政府資金,但不受一般公立學校法規 限制以發展其特色)的模式,建立許多獨立自主,又讓企業可以介入的學校改革,激發英國社會對於教育私有化及民主化的兩極論辯(教育部電子報,2011b)。

英國中等教育的入學制度關係到學生的學習成就,進而影響到社會流動。一份研究英國、美國、加拿大與澳洲四國關於社會流動與教育的報告(Social mobility and education gaps in the four major Anglophone countries research findings for the social mobility summit)發現(The Sutton Trust, 2012),英國學習成績的差別在學生進入青少年後明顯加大,其主要原因是接受過良好教育的父母更可能透過投資、家教、輔導等手段,讓孩子進入最好的中學(The Sutton Trust, 2012)。所以英國中學的社會隔離是影響社會階級流動,也是英國教育的主要障礙之一。

然而改善入學制度的公平或消除篩選制的學校,卻未必是達到 教育機會均等或更公平社會的保證。Judith Glaesser 與 Barry Cooper (2012)質疑某些研究認爲不篩選學生入學的綜合學校制度較能提 供學生(特別是勞工階級子女)獲得均等教育的結論,進而探討篩選 制與綜合制學校學生的成就差異,結果發現,制度差異的影響並不明 顯,僅影響某些高能力學生的教育結果。那些能力最好的「非服務業 階級」(non-service-class)學生在選擇性學校的教育成就與「服務業 階級」(service-class)學生的相似性甚至高於其在綜合性學校就讀。 因而 Glaesser 與 Cooper 建議,若要減少教育機會或學習成就的階級 差異,或許並不在於選擇制或綜合制的學校類型,而是致力於減少學 生的社經及文化差異,以及改善弱勢學生的學校教育成效(Glaesser & Cooper, 2012)。參照於此,臺灣十二年國教若欲藉著消滅「明星 學校」或免除升學考試,來達到更公平的教育機會可能會落空。如雪 菲爾哈倫大學與「全國社會研究中心」關於中等學校入學所做的研究 報告(DCSF, 2008,p. 6) 指出,單獨一個比較公平或有效能的入學制 度並不能解決教育機會不均等或社會流動的問題,但若配合其他政策 共同解決時,則一個公平有效的入學制度還是能有莫大貢獻。

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義大利中等學校融合教育 實施現況

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摘要

關鍵詞:義大利教育制度、融合教育、中等教育

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The Implementation of Inclusive Education in Secondary Schools in Italy

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Abstract

Over the past forty years, schools in Italy have worked on the development of non-discriminatory social and professional networks. The inclusion of students with disabilities in regular classes has contributed to this renewal and promoted a better school for SEN students, SLD students and, in fact Inclusive education is realized through experimentation, educational planning, collaboration, networking and commitment sharing. This article expands and updates what has already been discussed in a previous article, and also introduces the features of inclusive education in its different stages of implementation. The recent debates on anti-segregation (integrated) education and inclusive education will also be discussed Particular attention is paid to the reform on the level of secondary schools, which represents one of the most significant changes in Italian educational system, the effect of which we will be able to evaluate in the near future.

Keywords: Italian education system, inclusive education, secondary education

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I. Introduction: Inclusive Education

Notion of inclusion (and inclusive education) has been emerging since the Salamanca Statement (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization [UNESCO], 1994) and through UNESCO actions aimed to shift the focus from the challenging education of students with special deficiencies to the idea of education for all the children, in order to promote inclusive education and to eliminate barriers and of all kinds, that may cause social and cultural discrimination.

The *Salamanca Statement* shows that inclusive education requires that educational systems develops a pedagogy centered on the individual child (child-centered Pedagogy), responding flexibly to the needs of each student. This pedagogy is based on the idea that innovative differences should be regarded as a resource and not as an obstacle. In fact, the full realization of inclusive education implies the transformation of the school into a place where the openness and acceptance of the different educational needs of pupils become precisely what characterizes and qualifies the educational system, the educational organization and teacher training.

In recent years there has been a paradigm shift with respect to the philosophy of education of people with disabilities. First, the student with disabilities is now seen as a student with special educational needs, which leads to the decline of the use of the old categories of disability; secondly, it has expanded the area of the issues covered by the so-called special educational needs so as to cover all issues related to the educational needs of pupils, such as learning and behavioral difficulties:

The notions of normality and specialty can explain very little of the complexity inherent to educational processes. Normality and specialty, in fact, are not to be understood as ways of being (there are no *normal* people and *special* people), and it no longer makes sense to think that

there are special people alongside normal people. The reality is that every person, as a result of special needs with regard to different types of problems, contexts and / or situations, may be in a position to have special needs (Lascioli, 2011, p.26-29).

A milestone in the history of the Italian educational system is the start of full inclusive education:

Inclusion of students with disabilities and learning difficulties into common educational contexts was called with the Italian term *integrazione scolastica* (school integration) and is ascribable not only to Montessori's idea of education understood as "help" to children, so that they conquer independence getting free of the oppression of ancient prejudices on education (Montessori, 1909), but also to that of Don Milani, both a priest and a school teacher on the side of those being in a condition of poverty and exclusion, due to socio-economic difficulties and to linguistic and cultural disadvantages (Canevaro & Goussot, 2005, p. 82).

Don Milani claimed the school of all students and urged reflection on a targeted teaching for each of them, thus creating the conditions for a school of differences that can give space to individual needs and expectations and to the educational needs of each and every student (Milani, 1967).

According to Kerstin Göransson (2009), what today is called inclusion or inclusive education was universally called "school integration" before 1994 as also admits Plaisance, albeit underlining innovation of *inclusive* practice with respect to what is now internationally defined *integrative* practice—that is an education pattern still closely linked to disability and special education, influencing teaching methods in common schools but not resulting in a change of educational context and

of teaching for all the students (Plaisance, 2009a).

According to Charles Gardou and Denis Poizat, "integration" refers to ideas of repair and incorporation of an external element in a pre-existing context (Gardou & Poizat, 2007); the notion would therefore be connected to a mainstreaming approach, and then to admission to common context only for those eligible for adaptation: and therefore it wouldn't be connected to participation and sharing for each and any student, through a substantial change in educational context. Gardou (2006) stresses the innovative meaning of inclusion, due not to its etymology, but to the anthropological and cultural meaning of the notion as being the opposite of exclusion.

This debate has been particularly intense in Europe, and is also due to differences between member states:

the common trend is to develop policies towards inclusion in mainstream schools; yet two-path and multipath systems exist and differences still remain in educational policies and practices and in the very definition of special educational needs and disability (Meijer, Soriano & Watkins, 2003, p. 142).

I dwell on this issue because in research the two concepts of integration and inclusion are generally contrasted.

Integration may be referred even to education in special educational context, provided it helps mainstreaming and/or social inclusion (e.g., by promoting vocational training and work insertion). Inclusion is regarded as broader and more democratic than integration; it is not limited to disability and is seen as a challenge that promotes innovation through the theory of heterogeneous groups in educational context and through the practice of curriculum individualization: inclusive education will help to remove the causes and consequences of any discrimination and inequality (de Anna, 2007a, 2007b, 2007c). And yet, in those countries where there

are still special contexts, following two-path or multipath systems, we are often faced with references to *partially* inclusive, or to *fully* inclusive educational practices (meaning those contexts and occasions where all students eventually meet), while this is a contradiction because the idea of inclusion is not merely descriptive of what happens sometimes in a school, of what can be done in times and occasions particularly defined, but is equivalent to a change of perspective that starts from the idea that there are no exclusive contexts where special/different students may be marginalized, and that all students learn and grow together in common school

Italian schools have been achieving inclusive education paths since the 1970s and those could come into being because of Italian education policy that finally allowed admission of any disabled student, notwithstanding the kind of disability, in common school and in common classes (de Anna, 2007a, 2007b). In the papers by Falcucci Commission it is stated that(Ministero della pubblica istruzione, 1975, Chapter 1):

··· the possibility of implementing a school structure suitable to tackle the problem of handicapped children presupposes the belief that people with developmental, learning and adaptation difficulties should be considered protagonist of their own growth ··· In a school that, by getting organically ready through operational forms richer and more varied than those offered by traditional teaching, gives the students a chance of growing thanks to a plurality of languages and experiences, it is difficult and factitious to distinguish between "educational" activities, to be understood as teaching "core subjects", and "supplementary" activities, and to distinguish between "normal" teaching and recovery/support activities.

At the end of the 1970s, this policy expressed the will to achieve a school for all, able to meet the educational needs of each student, as already apparent in the works of the so-called *Falcucci Commission* and

in the subsequent promulgation of Law No. 517/1977, also known as *Falcucci Law* (Norme sulla valutazione degli alunni e sull'abolizione degli esami di riparazione nonché altre norme di modifica dell'ordinamento scolastico, 1977). Italian scholars have been supported those issues, providing the necessary theoretical framework and the hints to provide methodology and tools that could be effective in operational teaching (Canevaro, & Goussot, 2005; Canevaro & de Anna, 2010; de Anna, 1991, 1992, 1997, 2007a, 2007b, 2007c¹).

In institutional papers and regulations "inclusion" is usually found together with "integration", which comes both from Italian pedagogical tradition and from the meaning of the two corresponding terms in spoken Italian, where *integrazione* has a broader meaning than *inclusion* (Giangreco & Doyle, 2012).

The Ministry of Education, University and Research (Ministero dell'istruzione, dell'università e della ricerca, MIUR), in the recent guidelines for inclusive education of students with disabilities, still uses the notion of "school integration" (*integrazione* scolastica) to describe a process that is called "irreversible" in Italian educational system and that shares many features with what is now called "inclusive education" in international debate (MIUR, Direzione Generale per lo Studente, l'Integrazione, la Partecipazione e la Comunicazione, 2009). The same term *integrazione* is also used in other Ministry guidelines (MIUR, Direzione Generale per lo Studente, l'Integrazione, la Partecipazione e la Comunicazione, 2009), for example, in those devoted to the immigrants' children, who are not in a position of disability and are not conceived as "external elements" in our schools and in fact are fully included thanks to

¹ Not to mention the recurring international conferences organized in Rimini by Erickson academic and educational publishing house, and attended by thousands of scholars, experts, teachers and professionals, coming by all the corners of Italy and by all the world. Most of Italian scholars and researchers have been supporting full inclusive issues through the works of *Società Italiana di Pedagogia Speciale* (Italian society of special pedagogy).

Ministry educational policies.

As a matter of fact, the Italian educational system has been promoting full inclusion since the late 1970s: inclusion of students with disabilities has helped to change the very perception of people with disabilities in Italian society, and it has helped innovation, fostering the entry of new professionals in schools and universities and promoting a synergistic taking care of the child, that also involves parents and local authorities, in collaboration with educational institutions and training organizations.

According to nomenclature used by international organizations and to the use of English as vehicular language, the notions of inclusion and inclusive education have been spreading also in Italy: a debate has sparked about the meaning of the innovative concept of inclusion with respect to our past (Ianes, 2008b, 2009):

Different experiences provide opportunities to explore and to look at other contexts, to understand different strategies and interventions that sometimes have other roots. It is not a question, necessarily, of making judgements about which approach is better than another but such an approach provides the opportunity to engage in dialogue and be open to different ideas and experiences in order to achieve anewunderstanding, while keeping ourownidentity; one possible outcome could be a greater awareness and a strengthening of our policy choices. (Canevaro & de Anna, 2010, p. 205).

According to Hinz (2007) reported in Plaisance (2009a) and in Plaisance (2009b), there are substantial differences between integrative and inclusive educational practices; however, those described by Hinz as main features of the integrative educational context do not match the Italian educational practice of *integrazione* that has developed in the same direction of what is now called inclusion and inclusive education.

To give just one example: the specialized teacher² is assigned to the

school only if it is attended by one or more disabled students,³ but even in Law No. 517, school is depicted as an inclusive context, where all the teachers shall be able to meet the different expectations and needs of their students; besides, the workforce of specialized teachers is determined annually (at national, regional and school level) according to the number of disabled students and to the kind of disability (which means that students may benefit of a different amount of supporting interventions), but the specialized teacher is not assigned to the disabled student (or to a class/group of disabled students) but to the school and then to the common class, with the task of supporting the teaching team's educational planning and practice; the specialized teacher participates in the evaluation of all the students in the class, voting for their admission or non-admission to the next grade.

Disabled students can also benefit of assistants, assigned annually by municipalities or by provincial administration (in the upper secondary) to help autonomy and communication according to a project for special assistance that schools have to prepare and submit yearly to local authorities (Giangreco & Doyle, 2012). Assistants help those in need to reach autonomy and communication, supporting daily needs and helping in overcoming barriers; assistants of students with sensory disabilities help them manage specific tools and expression means. They can be involved in

² Italian support teachers have never been called 'special' teacher, but specialized teacher, because they acquire an additional training.

³ Law No. 104/1992 ("Legge - quadro per l'assistenza, l'integrazione sociale e I diritti delle persone handicappate", 1992) fixed a standard ratio of one specialized teacher every four disabled students, though the actual ratio has long been (and still is) of one specialized teacher every two disabled students. It's possible to assign even more specialized teachers to schools ("Misure per la stabilizzazione della finanza pubblica", 1997b), but Government has been trying to reduce spending. If a class is attended by one or more students with disabilities, the number of pupils in will be reduced: standard classes should not exceed 26 pupils in primary schools and 27 pupils in junior and senior high schools, but general criterion are often contradicted by local reality. Currently the Ministry of Education only *recommends* extreme caution in the constitution of first classes 'as far as possible'. Directions about the classes subsequent to the first are not clear (Nocera, 2012).

educational planning.

In Italy, until the mid 1990s, educational inclusive processes were mainly focused on inclusion of students with disabilities (then called school integration) because for these students the school system had been developing and could provide specific measures and, above all, an model of intervention based on group working, for both school planning of general organization, and for school and class educational planning. School inclusion of students with disabilities has not been limited, then. to the assignment of specialized teachers to support other teachers, but it has been and is still geared on school working groups and class working groups. After the drafting of a functional diagnosis (Diagnosi Funzionale, DF) for each student, where medical territorial teams give advice on the student's situation and potentials (being then crucial for educational planning), individual working group for each student (called Gruppo di Lavoro Handicap [GLH] or Gruppo di Lavoro Operativo [GLO]) have to meet periodically: the same social and medical referring people meet the teachers and the family at school; those workgroups are entitled to draft functional and dynamic outlines (Profilo Dinamico funzionale, PDF) on the student's level and potentials in different areas (cognition and meta cognition, social and affective area, expression and communication...), and finally have to draft an individualized educational project (Individual educational planning, IEP), that is included in pedagogical class planning and periodically monitored.

These interventions, although reserved for students with disabilities until 2010, can be defined fully inclusive, because they are founded on the assumption that all students must learn together in ordinary schools. School inclusion has never been, therefore, the simple admission of disabled children, or their simple insertion, in common schools (mainstream), nor can one describe it as a set of special methods, of different teaching models depending on the type of disability.

In his juxtaposition of inclusive educational practices and integrative

educational practice, Hinz (2007) mentions special resources allocation for *labelled* children as a feature of integrative practice, but in Italian school system it has been steadily emphasized that the allocation of special resources and tools can improve the learning context for all students, and that it constitutes a resource for the entire school. We have already focused that the specialized teacher is not a specialist, that s/he is assigned to the class and not to the student with disabilities who attend it, that the educational planning must stem from a common reflection and it is not subject to the recurring control of experts but by a workgroup which includes the social and health experts, but also includes the class teachers and the student's family and meets in schools.

According to scholars, Italy is the only country where, from kindergarten to university, there are no longer two separate educational systems, common and special, because the right to education is exercised by everyone in common schools and in common classes (de Anna, 1997; European Agency for Development in Special Needs Education, 2003; de Anna, 2004; Giangreco, Doyle & Suter, 2012), which means that the Italian educational system is not two path nor multipath, but one path (European Agency for Development in Special Needs Education, 2003; Mejier, 2003; Mejier, Soriano & Watkins, 2003).

In Italy special school no longer exist (They were finally abolished at the beginning of 1990s), nor special classes in common schools (abolished in 1977). In 1980s and 1990s, also due to international exchange and European Comenius projects, schools were encouraged to document inclusive good practice and develop inclusive intervention patterns, not a blueprint but a series of effective pathways fit to individual situations and context (a model of inclusive process, regarding a down syndrome student in upper high school is described) (Villanella, 2003; Ianes, 2005b).

To demonstrate the substantial success of inclusive education in Italy, we can mention the high number of students with disabilities, including mental and physical disabilities, enrolled today in Italian universities,

where special reception and mentoring services have been functioning over the years (Istituto Nazionale di Statistica, n.d.; MIUR, Direzione Generale per lo Studente, l'Integrazione, la Partecipazione e la Comunicazione, 2011a).

In Italy, special education has influenced common schools but has also transformed them, resulting in the change of educational practices (common and special) and of the whole school system, which today is called to meet the needs of all students, after the Ministry's interventions in favor of foreign students and in favor of those with specific learning disorders (which will be examined below). Following the most recent guideline of the Ministry of Education and the Ministry Circular (MIUR, 2013), any school and teaching team will have to introduce, starting from the next school year, the drafting of an individualized education plan for each student presenting special educational needs, thus achieving the full inclusive aim of Italian school system.

The issues facing us today affect primarily the ability to achieve these objectives in common schools: in fact, the reference to the special educational needs of each student implies that teachers have to ask themselves what a special educational need is and what it means that a student has a special educational need; teachers have also to understand who can and should determine that condition of the student, considering that a diagnosis may be available (e.g., for special learning disorder children) but that is not always the case (e.g., for students with behavioral difficulties and social and cultural disadvantage), and then the class board of teachers will have the task to identify them, to involve families and draft individual educational planning.

The recognition of the category of Special Educational Needs (SEN) dates back to the late 1970s of the last century (Warnock,1978), it has been studied in a number of international relations, in pedagogical works and is normally adopted in European countries and in North America. even in Italy this notion has been spreading and, in view of the instances

represented, it is natural to expect that the group of students in need of enhanced teaching and additional resources line up at least 4-5 students in each class, if not more.

The Ministry guidelines fit the individualized interventions within a school model being clearly inclusive, with the aim to redefine and complete the Italian traditional approach, settled in over thirty years.

The task of ensuring inclusion policies in each school is left to the Board of Teachers, that has been given for years the task of drafting the plan of educational offer, and then to some school organisms and boards, whose names and tasks have been redefined: e.g., the research school working group and (Gruppo di lavoro e di studio di Istituto) turns to the working group for inclusion; also the area network actions have been enhanced, e.g., through connections with the *Territorial Centers for Inclusion* (Centri Territoriali per l'Inclusione, CTI) formerly known as Territorial Support Centers (Centri Territoriali di supporto[CTS], functioning in pole schools).

To the board of individual class teaching team is then assigned a heavy responsibility: to identify pupils with SEN (based on diagnosis when available, or following a resolution of the board itself) and to decide on whether to resort to additional educational interventions and / or to individualized personalized teaching, and finally to meet both the special needs of some students and the mission of managing the class as an inclusive community. It is a very difficult task, because it is to reconcile an individualistic vision of the student with a systemic vision, threatening to revive the contradiction between the medical—diagnostic model and the pedagogical model, between the specialization of interventions and the inclusive model, and finally between this and the risk of marginalization of the student into the frame of an individual project, other than organic and joint educational class planning (Pavone, 2013).

These are the main issues that are being debated today in the Italian school, and that relate to the ability to turn it into an increasingly inclusive

context, reconciling the needs of students, those of teachers and the adjustment of resources with the cuts in public spending and the heavy funding cuts to the school system. In fact, the Italian school is part of a social system that is undergoing a profound and dramatic economic and institutional crisis.

Considering the complexity of the Italian school system, the many recent reforms of the school that have occurred especially in recent decades (particularly in lower and secondary schools), and considering the long history of inclusive processes in the Italian educational system, this article attempts to provide a broad and comprehensive view for those who are interested in exploring these issues. Therefore, all main Italian legal sources have also been reported, and can be viewed in bibliography.

II School Integration and Inclusive Education in Italy

The progressive democratization of Italian society is entwined with the implementation of the educational system and is linked to the increasing attention paid to students' individual needs and to special education needs in common schools (Canevaro & de Anna, 2010).

The end of nineteenth century can be considered the initial phase of Italian educational policy: national unity, formally achieved in 1861, will be gradually extended to Veneto and Friuli, and then to Papal State, and will be completed only with the first world war. Quality education was not at all lacking (Italian universities are among the oldest in Europe), but Italian population, different in traditions, culture and language, was composed mostly of farmers and did not have access to primary education, so it was mostly illiterate, especially in the southern regions. The extension of compulsory education is linked to the fight against illiteracy, but also to the gradual extension of the right to vote, which had long been limited on

the basis of gender, wealth and education. The Italian educational system retained a centralized and hierarchical structure, together with a marked separation between education and training courses. In 1859, *Casati* Law started the nationalization of education, establishing a four-year primary school, of which only the first two years were expected to be attended by all the children (Riordinamento dell' Istruzione pubblica, 1859; Felici, 2010); only those who had accomplished the four year course could access the lower and upper secondary school that allowed the continuation of studies and admission to university. There were also *complementary* schools (to train new primary school teachers and for work insertion) and various types of three-year technical schools that allowed to be admitted to technical institutes, but most of these technical institutes did not allow to enter university.

The same *Casati* Law provided for implementation of special elementary schools, municipal or provincial and that is considered a first step towards social and educational inclusion, because the school system was now expected to meet special educational needs, at least of those students who were considered eligible for education, i.e. those with censorious or motor disease (Macro, 2010).

In 1923, at the beginning of the fascist period, the Ministry of Education enacted the so-called *Gentile* reform which raised compulsory education up to 14 years of age.⁵ At the end of primary schools, students could choose several options: among them *ginnasio*, which required an

⁴ Finally, laws of 1912 and 1919 introduced universal suffrage for all male citizens over the age of 30, but only in 1946, after the Fascist period and the struggle for liberation, universal suffrage was extended to women. In republican Italy, all citizens with at least 21 years of age could vote until 1975, when all citizens with at least 18 years of age were also allowed to vote.

⁵ The reform consisted of Royal Decree Laws (R.D. or r.d.l.) redefining the entire education system. It established a not mandatory preparatory degree (kindergarten) and a five-year primary school (6 to 10 years). The most significant innovations were: *Liceo Scientifico* (senior high school on mathematics and science) and *Istituto Magistrale* (teacher training school), even the school of arts and *complementari* schools were reorganized; a state exam at the end of each school cycle was introduced.

entrance examination and was the only kind of education that allowed admission to senior high schools (classical grammar, scientific and "female") and then enrolment at university. The reform was nevertheless in a line with the past: it still assigned the primacy to classical grammar education and to the philosophical-humanistic ambit (*Liceo Classico*), relegating technical and vocational education in a subservient position; schools for industry remained entrusted to the Ministry of Agriculture, Industry and Commerce (later to that of National Economy).

The same reform brought in special classes in common schools, called *classi differenziali*, that provided education for students who had been excluded from the common context but might be subsequently reintegrated in common classes (it did not concern disabled students), and this step clearly shows the authoritarian vision of society and school. According to *Section 415 of Regio Decreto 26 Aprile 1928 No. 1297* ("Regolamento generale sui servizi dell'istruzione elementare", 1928), students who committed "acts of permanent indiscipline ··· such as to raise doubt that they may arise from mental abnormality" would be assigned to special classes, or hospitalized "in institutions for juvenile offenders" with the agreement of the family (Tenuta, n.d.).

It has been generally emphasized that *Gentile* reform was guided by a classist and elitist vision of culture, but an aspect that is often forgotten is that it encouraged the education of people with disabilities. Section 175 of consolidation laws relating to primary education ("Approvazione del testo unico delle leggi e delle norme giuridiche, emanate in virtù dell'art.1,n.3,della legge 31 gennaio 1926, n.100, sulla istruzione elementare, post-elementare, e sulle opere di integrazione", 1928), still the only kind of education that most people could attain, widened compulsory

⁶ Only the graduates from classical humanistic high school (Liceo Classico) could enrol at all university faculties. Graduates of maths and science high school could be admitted only to technical-scientific university faculties, all the other graduates (from technical and teacher training institutes) could not apply for university.

education to students with visual and hearing impairments who had no other "abnormality" preventing them from complying. For students with hearing impairment, compulsory education was granted until 16 years of age. More special institutions were founded and educational institutes were adapted, providing also that special kindergartens could be attached. The reform encouraged the *schools of method* (that is schools for special teaching training) and developed training for teachers of kindergartens, to employ them in special institution and special classes of common schools, thus laying the groundwork of modern teacher training. In the early '30s, the establishment of special elementary school was promoted, with attached vocational courses meant to work insertion.

The concept of special educational need was still to come, but Italian special pedagogy could number experimental pedagogues convinced that people with disabilities were eligible for education.⁷ The first *Scuola Magistrale Ortofrenica*,⁸ founded in Rome by Giuseppe Ferruccio Montesano in 1900 (Montessori, 1909), was directed by Maria Montessori who developed her *method* of *scientific pedagogy* applied to child education thanks to the experience with psychic or psychophysical impaired children.

The post-world war I period saw the tragic increase of the disabled, military and civilian, together with the birth and development of associations of people with disabilities. The collaboration between

⁷ Since the Fourteenth century, some Italian educators had pledged in favour of those who were then called "deaf and dumb", such as Bartolo della Marca d'Ancona and Girolamo Cardano, or such as Ottavio Assarotti, Tommaso Pendola and Tommaso Silvestri between the end of the eighteenth century and the first half of the nineteenth century. By the end of the nineteenth century, Antonio Gonelli-Cioni devoted himself to the education of frenastenici, that is of the 'feeble-minded'.

⁸ Meaning: School for teaching the mentally impaired.

⁹ A First World War hero was Enrico Toti, with one leg amputated, who managed to join the Italian army (though he couldn't be officially enrolled); he died in battle, they say, throwing his crutch against the enemy: this occurrence has been long emphasized by holography and then mainly connected to nationalism, but a closer knowledge of his adventurous life. could reveal that Toti was also one of the first inclusion heroes, a feature that is generally undervalued.

the Minister of Education Gentile and Augusto Romagnoli, the great pedagogue of people with visual impairment, contributed to the emergence of "schools of method" for teachers and educators of special schools. They promoted a process of "normalization" for blind students to be developed in special elementary school, in order to allow mainstreaming in common schools up to university. Students with sensory and motor disabilities could attend common school, provided they were eligible to follow the common courses and syllabuses without significant changes in school environment and teaching: even before the educational policies to develop inclusion, mainstreaming was encouraged and there were already many students with physical and sensory disabilities attending common high schools, with the support of common teachers and classmates. Therefore, from the 1920s until the 1960s and 1970s, the number of students with disabilities (especially visual) in common secondary schools and university courses would gradually increase.

At this stage of pedagogy and special pedagogy, it still existed, however, a clear separation between common and special school context. Between 1960 and 1970, Italy experienced very strong internal migration due to economy and industrial development: migration from the country to cities and from south to north affected the Italian school system and had to face new responsibilities, also due to the emergence of new learning difficulties caused by social distress. The response was to implement and reinforce separate pathways and settings, in other words special classes and special schools, which determined a reaction, involving both teachers and parents (Canevaro & de Anna, 2010). This separation was reasserted in 1962 ("Utilizzazione di fondi per il finanziamento del piano per lo sviluppo della scuola,1962; Istituzione e ordinamento della scuola media statale", 1962): special schools for students with "psychophysical" disabilities ¹⁰ and for "social re-education" were set up; special classes in common schools

^{10 &}quot;Psychophysical" is the term used in Italy to define both mental and physical disability, this term can be still found in official instruments and records.

were increased and extended to junior high school in order to allow compulsory school completion; the same laws ensured functioning by promoting several steps: among them the courses of specialization to train special school teachers. The reform of the lower secondary grade dates back to the early 1960s with the establishment of the *Scuola Media Unica*: a three–year junior high school, compulsory and free, for students from 11 to 13: section 11 provides "update classes" for pupils with learning difficulties and section 12 provides for the establishment of special classes (classi differenziali) for misfit students (Giangreco & Doyle, 2012).¹¹

The idea that students with severe and mental disabilities could be educated in common school context was affirmed, however, just in those years: the reform stressed the importance of ordinary school, and parents and teachers were increasingly orienting towards full integration in common classes, according to the regulations on the right to education in sections No. 34 and No. 38 of the Constitution of the Republic, setting up that "school is open to all students" and that "basic education (which was then imparted for at least eight years) is compulsory and free" (Assemblea Costituente,1947). Asserting equality includes recognizing the other person with the awareness that diversity belongs to each of us and cannot justify discrimination; problem students' admission to common schools, though in separate classes, arose both uneasiness for their marginalization and teaching experimentation that developed a change of conceptual framework in education (Canevaro & de Anna, 2010).

In the 1960s and 1970s, the process of democratization in schools

¹¹ Law No.1859 (Riordinamento dell' Istruzione pubblica,1859; Istituzione e ordinamento della scuola media statale,1962): students could apply at *Scuola Media Unica* after a five-year primary school ended by a state exam. Other laws focusing school democratization in the 1960s: Law No. 444 (Ordinamento della scuola materna statale, 1968)) implementing not mandatory state nursery school for pre-school children from three to six. Law No. 820/1971 implementing full time school in basic education (scuola a tempo pieno) and reducing the number of pupils in classes. The same law implemented additional activities alongside curriculum subjects.

kept pace with that of society and often anticipated regulatory policies; the principle that education should take place as a rule in ordinary schools was introduced by law ("Conversione in legge del D.L. 30 gennaio 1971, n.5 e nuove norme in favore dei mutilati ed invalidi civili", 1971), which also regulated the complexity of measures required by social inclusion: it addressed all areas of intervention, including the health and social sector and the allocation of pensions and allowances. Besides, it established, after compulsory education completion, the right to attend guidance and vocational training courses organized by the Ministry of Labor and Social Security ("Conversione in legge del D.L. 30 gennaio 1971, n.5 e nuove norme in favore dei mutilati ed invalidi civili", 1971). That law introduced steps to develop protected job opportunities that foreshadowed placement quotas reserved to disabled workers and targeted job placement that would be introduced at the end of 1990s (Norme per il diritto al lavoro dei disabili, 1999).

At the end of 1960s the extended time was introduced in elementary and junior high school, which helped to implement the students' right to study. A law ("Norme sulla valutazione degli alunni e sull'abolizione degli esami di riparazione nonché altre norme di modifica dell'ordinamento scolastico", 1977) allowed school inclusion of people with disabilities, giving a great space to the creation and management of a new system (with particular regard to specialized teachers and their training) but this process is part of a broader transformation of education, through the introduction of educational planning and new rules for evaluation and examination. It was started a process of school amendment that came from the awareness that mainstreaming and mere admission are insufficient when context and teaching transformation are not provided, that students shouldn't be requested to adjust to school context: it is the educational environment, instead, that should be adapted to the needs of all students (including those with disabilities).

This has profoundly influenced the educational system towards full

participation of all students in a school where the anthropocentric model that enhances the pedagogical logic is opposed to the functionalist model of useful learning, though drawing strongly the focus on the development of those capabilities, skills and competencies that will promote metacognition, enabling the operational workgroup (and the student) to devise a life project. According to Italian scholars, educational needs are *special* not only when referring to disability, but also when we refer to any student, because each and all students are entitled to enjoy *special* care and to receive all due attention to their individual needs (Ianes, 2009; Ianes & Demo, 2009; Canevaro & de Anna, 2010). Diversity is seen as a positive value and as an occasion of enrichment for the whole educational community. The emphasis is laid on attention to context, of sociological matrix, but with a holistic approach that encourages individual participation and fosters full social integration:

Behind the "daring" choice of the Italian school system to open common classes so that they could become "common" indeed and for all, there is a concept of education as high as the human person, who finds in education the overriding time for his/her own development and growth····School is an educational community that welcomes every student in the daily effort to build relational conditions and pedagogical situations such as to allow the maximum development. A school not only to know, therefore, but also to grow···(MIUR, Direzione Generale per lo Studente, l'Integrazione, la Partecipazione e la Comunicazion, 2009, p. 3).

Canevaro and de Anna (Canevaro & de Anna, 2010) a have pointed out two important consequences of school inclusion of students with disabilities: it has helped the identification of problems that may cause learning difficulties, it has focused attention on adaptive and cognitive strategies, and on methodologies based on cognitive strategies, with potentially beneficial outcomes for students with dysgraphia, dyslexia,

and other impairments, and in general for all students. It has allowed to experience together both disability and normality in a context where peers can learn a great deal from each other, and then enrich each other: research has widely shown that benefits are reciprocal.

In the early 1970s, inclusive education was widely experienced in basic mandatory education, with interesting outcomes and increasing involvement of teachers, who pushed for a policy change and for full inclusion (Gelati, 2007).

Finally, Law No. 517/1977 abolished special classes in mandatory education (elementary school and junior high school), which fostered a change of conceptual framework even in the upper secondary, where teachers now felt the inadequacy of mainstreaming approach and where inclusive education was finally extended with a judgment by the Constitutional Court, in 1987: the same educational interventions provided in mandatory education had to be granted in upper secondary schools. The final abolition of special classes and special schools is owed to a law "Legge - quadro per l'assistenza, l'integrazione sociale e i diritti delle persone handicappate", 1992, which also promoted university attendance through the creation of support bodies, specific measures and resources in all Italian universities; inclusive education in universities was finally ordered by another law ("Integrazione e modifica della legge-puadro 5 febbraio 1992, n. 104, per l'assistenza, l'integrazione sociale eidirtli delle persene handicappate", 19).

Even students with very severe disabilities could now be included in the upper secondary; in this level of education the purpose of attending school may vary, because only those students who can reach the aims of the common curriculum (even modified in strategies, tools and resources) can have a final diploma valid for profession and/or admission to university. Therefore disabled students in the upper secondary can have both a IEP (individual educational plan) ¹² meant to common curriculum achievement, or a IEP geared on autonomy and participation, though

linked to general planning and class planning: those IEPs' final aim is developing competences that will be useful for social and work inclusion, but also to foster friendship, collaboration and peer tutoring in the class, together with a knowledge of disabilities, which is considered crucial for enrichment of both school context and society.

In the 1980s "judgments" were introduced for assessment in elementary school, instead of traditional rating votes and evaluation report cards, ¹³ democratization in basic education was carried on and finally elementary school was profoundly altered at the turn of the new century; ¹⁴ instead of the *solo* teacher, the child could face a plurality of educators, included specialized teachers, with different experience and pedagogical styles merging in a common educational plan, which supported inclusive education in elementary school. This organisation of basic education has been modified by the so-called *Gelmini* reform ¹⁵ by the centre—right government, that reintroduced the grading system and the single teacher from school year 2009/2010, but regulations on school autonomy give joint decision—making bodies the task to decide about teaching

¹² Individual educational planning (IEP) is called PEI in Italian.

¹³ The new programs can be found in DPR No. 104 (Approvazione dei nuovi programmi didattici per la scuola primaria,1985)

¹⁴ The principle of teaching collegiality was reaffirmed and a didactic modular organization (of three teachers in two classes or four teachers in three classes) was implemented by Law No. 148/1990 ("Riforma dell'ordinamento della scuola elementare", 1990).

¹⁵ By 'Riforma Gelmini' one commonly indicates the collection of legislative acts come into force during the tenure of Minister Gelmini contained in Laws No. 133/2008 ("Conversione in legge, con modificazioni, del? decreto—legge 25 giugno 2008, n112—Schema di piano progranmatico del Ministero dell'Istruzione, dell'Universitá e della Ricerca, di concerto conil Ministero dell'Economia e delle Frnanze, dicui allart.64 del decxeto—leggellz", 2008) and No. 169/2008 ("Conversione in legge, con modificazioni, del decreto-legge 1° settembre 2008, n. 137, recante disposizioni urgenti in materia di istruzione e università", 2008b). Law No. 240/10, that is the reform of university ("Norme in materia di organizzazione delle università, di personale accademico e reclutamento, nonché delega al Governo per incentivare la qualità e l'efficienza del sistema universitario", 2010b) came into force in 2011. Regulations about reordering of secondary schools, technical institutes and vocational institutes were issued in 2010 and will be explained further.

organization, which theoretically should allow collegiality and some teaching modularity in elementary schools, notwithstanding the cuts in staff numbers (due to extended time classes' reduction) modular teaching organisation has therefore been preserved.

Legge No. 104/1992 faced the widespread need to overcome the medical approach to school inclusion of disabled students; before that law, students with a disability had to be certified in order to be entitled to receive an IEP and the support of specialized teachers in common context (Giangreco & Doyle, 2012). This certification of disability has been maintained, but Legge No. 104/1992 stressed the importance of a dynamic and educational approach by formalizing and regulating, from basic school up to the end of senior high school, the periodical drafting of a functional diagnosis (Diagnosi Funzionale, DF) in addition to the mere certification, and of a functional and dynamic outline (Profilo dinamico Funzionale, PDF) for each student with a disability (Ianes, 2004, 2005a, 2008a, 2008b). 16 The same law permanently established both the general workgroup of the school and the operational individual workgroups for each disabled student, in order to define a "project for life" (Ianes & Cramerotti, 2005). 17 Those organisms had already being developed in schools, to foster shared educational planning, shared assessment and adequate evaluation, they focused on the disabled student's relation with his/her own context (individual, family, educational, local···) giving birth to a model system (Lin & Villanella, 2008).

During all school attendance, DF and PDF shall be the premise for drafting the IEPs ¹⁸ whose aims are fostering learning and full participation (e.g., assistance, transportation).

¹⁶ The Italian acronyms are given in brackets;

¹⁷ It is traditionally called GLH (workgroup on disability) or GLO (operational workgroup) and shall be attended by the principal and all class teachers (including the specialized teacher), by the family, by a representative of local social and sanitary service (ASL) and by other significant people, if any (for example, special assistants).

¹⁸ IEPs are issued by individual operational workgroups.

In 2008, some changes were proposed, due to the closer collaboration between schools and local authorities/organisms after Legge No. 30/2000 (Nocera, 2008): a reinforced DF should have superseded DF and PDF, but this change hasn't been actually implemented everywhere; however, many initiatives have been updated, both for principals and teachers, and for social and health workers, with the goal of reaching a truly dynamic and functional vision of students' special needs. The international classification of functioning, disability and health (World Health Organization, 2001) has represented an innovative tool for the definition of personal and environmental factors that may be a barrier to educational and social inclusion: the International Classification of Functioning Disability and Health (ICF) perspective does not stress the deficit, but enhances individual potential and contextual factors' role; it can help overcome the biomedical model's limitations in detecting individual educational needs of students with disabilities (Booth & Aiscow, 2008; Plaisance, 2009). Ianes (2004) states the importance of the International Classification of Functioning Disability and Health (ICF)-children and Youth (CY) for special educational needs' recognition, stressing that it responds to a vision of the person/student that is complete, comprehensive, holistic, systemic, not just reducible to biological aspects (Ianes & Demo, 2009). Other authors point out that the current understanding of disabilities and special needs is based on a dichotomy between individual and social factors, but this duality does not grasp the complexity of the issue, therefore they suggest the capability approach, based on ICF (Borgnolo et al., 2009); some scholars illustrate the importance of ICF in a Professional Training Center in order to ensure continuity in the education and rehabilitation objectives during the training programme and within the life project (Bortolot & Pradal, 2009). Life project perspective is crucial in individual educational planning of common schools and recurring refresher courses are, therefore, organized almost yearly: e.g., the MIUR Circular No. 5 (MIUR, Ufficio Scolastico Regionale per il Lazio, 2012) recommends school network organization to plan inclusive projects and activities and to organize refreshment courses about ICF and its use in schools to help detecting students' individual needs.

Finally, we must not forget the contribution of special pedagogy which, as we have mentioned, in Italy defines a field of study and research that does not apply to special education of disabled people, but to the special attention paid to the needs of each and all students in common schools: pupils are inserted in an inclusive background (sfondo integratore) marked by the sense of belonging: a dimension, then, as wide as possible, enhancing meta-cognition and autonomy (Pavone, 2009).

One of the challenges now facing the Italian school is the inclusion of foreign students, generally the children of immigrant parents, regular or irregular. Although the economic crisis has significantly reduced the new entrances in Italy, the presence of foreign students has become a structural feature of the education system: it affects more than 87% of primary school complexes and about 90% of lower secondary schools. About 70% of schools detect a presence of foreigners that does not exceed 15%. However, the proportion of immigrant pupils is more than 30% in about 470 primary schools and in 140 lower secondary schools. Even many illegal immigrants attend school, thanks to regulations on right to education (Servizio Statistico, 2010). The percent is higher in north and center Italy, where parents are included in the social fabric and actively collaborate with schools. The main difficulties are encountered in the southern regions, where the school is an outpost of law and where the lack of stable work encourages illegal child labor, impose frequent shifts of the entire family, and reduces the time to devote to the education of children: all factors hindering the motivation to attend school regularly.

The definition of "intercultural education" is used for the first time in the Ministry Circular No. 205/1990 ("La scuola dell'obbligo e glialumni stranien, L'educazione interculturale", 1990): "cultural diversity" is seen as a further positive resource for the complex process of growth of both

individuals and society; intercultural education shall promote the ability to live together in a multifaceted cultural and social context, and involve not only acceptance and respect, but also the recognition of different cultural identities, from a perspective that enhances the different cultures of origin. Even in the absence of foreign students, the educational context and disciplinary teaching shall prevent the emergence of stereotypes and ethnocentric prejudices, promoting human rights through understanding and cooperation between peoples, in the shared aspiration to development and peace. This delicate task entrusted to School is reaffirmed in the rules concerning immigration, e.g., in Presidential Decree No. 394 ("Regolamento recante norme di attuazione del testo unico delle disposizioni concernenti la disciplina dell'immigrazione e norme sulla condizione dello straniero, a norma dell'articolo 1, comma 6, del decreto legislativo 25 luglio 1998, n. 286",1999) which establish the right of immigrant children to education, in the form and manner prescribed for Italian citizens. Regardless of the legality of residence and documentation, immigrant students are required to attend school and can enrol at all levels. The Teachers' Board has a crucial role in making proposals for their distribution (avoiding the establishment of classes where the presence of foreign students is predominant), it shall adapt the curriculum as far as possible, adopt specific interventions (individually or for groups of students) and even activate courses, projects and workshops with external staff (to facilitate the learning of the Italian).

In Ministry circular No. 24/2006 we can find the *Guidelines for the reception and integration of foreign students* ("Direzione Generale per lo studente, Ufficio per l'integrazione degli alunni stranieri", 2006). The principles governing the guidelines are: Universalism, common school for all the students, centrality of the person and of his/her relationship with the context. Intercultural education is seen as a process where the role of principals and teachers is crucial, together with school autonomy and exchange of experiences between schools and through networks of

schools.

The guidelines give the Italian school the task of mediation in the three areas in which hospitality develops: administration, communication and relationships, education and teaching. The MIUR Circular No. 2/2010 sets a maximum limit of 30% of non-Italian pupils in the class: the limit has been gradually introduced, starting from the first classes, but it can be (quite easily) raised by the General Director of the Regional School Office, due to territory features and needs (MIUR, Dipartimento per l'Istruzione, Direzione Generale per gli Ordinamenti Scolastici e per l'Autonomia Scolastica, 2010a). Coordination structures planned at national, regional and local level include pole schools that should manage enrolling on the territory: currently, school with the highest percentage of foreign students can insert newcomers without any problems and use network to help resource sharing.

The Italian teachers, called once again to deal with the social and cultural changes in the country, have accepted this role, confirming the inclusive model of the Italian school system. The main obstacle is that of having to use existing resources and the modest resources that become available in this time of economic crisis and recession.

A further step in the implementation of inclusive education has been the recent *Guidelines for the right to education of students with specific learning disorders*, Disturob Specifico d'Apprendimento (DSA) being the Italian acronym (MIUR, Direzione Generale per lo Studente, l'Integrazione, la Partecipazione e la Comunicazione, 2011b). The guidelines were issued in accordance with a law which acknowledged dyslexia, dysgraphia, dyscalculia and dysorthography as specific learning disorders ("Nuove norme in materia di disturbi specifici di apprendimento in ambito scolastico", 2010). It is important to point out that the English SLD (Specific Learning Disability) does not correspond exactly to what we define DSA in Italy, because dyslexia, dysgraphia, dyscalculia and dysorthography cannot be considered nor defined a "disability" according

to the Italian law.

Giangreco & Doyle (2012, p. 69) point out that:

Notably, Italy does not generally consider students with "learning disabilities" (as the term is used in the United States) to be "disabled".

The term specific learning disorders (DSA) defines all specific difficulties in automating the interpretation of graphic signs that may occur in people in whom the neurological and cognitive features are intact; in Italy you can talk about DSA only in the absence of other symptoms or side/secondary conditions (like mental retardation, cognitive disabilities, serious socio-cultural disadvantages etc., although DSA can be found together with attention deficit and hyperactivity disorder (ADHD also called Disturbo da Deficit di Attenzione Iperattività, DDAI). Nevertheless, the student's specific learning disorders must be certified by a reliable source (generally by the local health service and/or a hospital) and documentation must be forwarded to school and kept there at teachers' disposal.

A SLD can damage learning (difficulty in transcending written signs into sounds, reading impairment, problems in understanding the text, impairment of the ability to study, frequent association of reading difficulties to dysorthography, dysgraphia and, sometimes, to dyscalculia), but a SLD may also have psychological and emotional consequences and may result in lacking motivation, negative self-concept, anxiety and low self-esteem, tendency to avoid the task, lacking sense of responsibility and behavioral risk: an unrecognized DSA can manifest itself with behaviors that can be interpreted as ADHD (although ADHD typical behaviors may also lead to the development of learning disorders, which makes it hard to focus).

The enactment of Legge No. 170/2010 ("Nuove norme in materia di disturbi specifici di apprendimento in ambito scolastico", 2010)¹⁹ brings

to the foreground the cultural and professional reflection on what today means to act as a teacher, asking once again the Italian school, through flexibility and autonomy, to put at the center of its activities and care the singularity and complexity of any person, of his/her own identity, aspirations, ability and fragility. It is underlined the importance of teaching professionalism together with that of class context and family's contribution, in order to determine the SLD student's centrality in his/ her own learning process. The importance of class context is linked to the development/ strengthening of pro-social skills, to the education towards awareness of diversity, in order to arise a correct affective-relational attitude in all students; and to arise a positive affective - relational attitude in SLD students, in order to develop awareness of their having to live with their own difficulties, and then of their having to deal with a training on specific skills through the available means and resources. Families' contribution is focused on correct methods of communication, on coresponsibility with school, on a positive relational attitude and on sharing.

Teaching professionalism involves: methodological flexibility, flexibility in context organization, ability to observe, formative evaluation, correct affective and relational attitude, ability to group managing, coresponsibility and sharing. The difficulties of the pupil with DSA can be managed using learning methods that take advantage of the visual channel and the oral one as channels of information access. A multimedia equipment is recommended and should be part of the educational project of the class, it should be placed in the classroom to be used in the natural teaching practice by the whole class: the teacher must have a basic

¹⁹ Even before the Law, the enactment of measures to help SLD students' right to study were encompassed in a number of MIUR interventions, through a number of Ministry circular letters concerning: educational compensatory and dispensatory measures; SLD diagnosis, compensatory and dispensatory during state exams; SLD students evaluation in general, and evaluation of SLD students during first cycle exams and state exams. Those circular letters have been followed by many others because they have been issued yearly, mainly for state exams organization and evaluation.

knowledge of the multimedia tools, and is noticeable the importance of interactive whiteboards (known as Lavagna Interattiva Multimediale, LIM), on which teachers and students can write, draw, attach images, display text, video or animations, and whose use in schools has been encouraged by the MIUR since school year 2009/2010. Multimedia whiteboards have been appreciated during the visit of a Taiwanese delegation in school year 2010/2011, but there are also other new technologies that may be of use to reduce the gap between those who are able to read and write properly and those who are not able to do so, and need alternative means or alternative channels for access to the text and to learning. Teachers can use aids for access to the written text, aids to enable reading, compensatory aids together with cooperative learning to aid rehabilitation.

The voice synthesizers can easy the access to written texts; word processing helps to overcome the problems in handwriting and spelling, allowing automatic correction. Voice synthesizer and word processing can reduce physical and psychological space between the SLD student and other students, allowing the SLD students to perform activities independently, and also allowing to reduce the distance between student's performances and teachers' demands, in order to achieve the same general objectives of the class: they allow, in short, to reduce the distance between performance and requests, in order to achieve the same objectives as the companions. They also "treat" the disorder by practicing deficient skills: word processing reinforces lacking/insufficient skills of grapheme/ phoneme transposition; it enhances meta-cognitive strategies because it involves an additional operation: the letters must be traced between the symbols on the keyboard, then passing from reading to writing, and this allows the student to reflect on what he/she has to write, as well as to strengthen and exercise the ability to phonological analysis. The corrector graph and/or self-correction require reading, but also retyping: and then they allow the student to correct the text immediately after the mistake, which corresponds to unemotional correction which does not affect the student's self-esteem. Educational software allows the intervention on deficient skills and on learning customizing; it promotes motivational aspects and encourages a greater attention effort. The strengths of educational software are as follows: although it does not solve all reading problems, its use may increase students' self-esteem, unless it is seen as a tool for negative differentiation; nevertheless it has to be integrated into an educational project and into teaching common practice.

Compensatory aids are used to support the SLD student during the learning process, bridging the gap due to the specific disorder; the most known are the following: Pythagorean table, software for the creation of conceptual (mental/cognitive) maps, tape recorder, calculator, e-book, hypertext. With regard to the practical steps: simple measures are sufficient to make more accessible a written document, they include: the choice of font (Arial, Verdana...), line spacing (e.g., 1.5—double-spaced), the choice of space between words (e.g., double spacing), the use of the printed upper case, etc. Finally, the school cooperative model transforms the class in a learning community promoting diversity in sharing: each student can provide his/her own skills for the global growth of the class through the appropriation of other students' skills, through peer tutoring, mutual aid, relationship for help, cooperative learning, etc.

The right to education of pupils with specific learning disorders is ensured through various initiatives promoted by the Ministry of Education, through the training of principals and teachers and the construction of individualized and/or personalized paths in schools. The difference between individualized and personalized paths lies in the level and type of the changes required (i.e., in teaching strategies, teaching resources and flexible time of performances allowed to SLD students; or in making use of specific tools, like keynote maps and talking books, or even in being excused from foreign languages' written tests...) being understood that these students' attendance is aimed at achieving a regular diploma, and

therefore at acquiring all knowledge, basic skills and competences that are required by the course of studies.

Therefore, in all types and grades of school, pupils with specific learning disorders have the full right to enjoy specific tools and measures that may be necessary to overcome their difficulties (i.e., even in the upper secondary they can use calculators, computers and computer automatic correction in writing, they can keep notes and charts…). The same tools may also be purchased during the tests for periodic and final assessment, including the state examination and university exams.

It is not expected the assignment of specialized teachers: teachers of the discipline have the task to update and implement new teaching methods and specific teaching strategies on the basis of individual education needs and learning styles. This gives teachers' observation and skill a key role, not only in kindergarten and primary schools, but also throughout the school career, in order to identify the cognitive characteristics on which to focus for achieving educational success. According to experience, most students with specific learning disorders will profit only partially of the measures and tools allowed, either because they do not need all of them, or because they do not want to feel "different", and therefore prefer to learn thanks to teachers' professional skill, facing school challenges thanks to small aids. It is, therefore, crucial that all the measures required may be fully shared in the class, thus reducing the gap and perceived "differences", and also enriching the learning context for all the class, following the true inclusive perspective and approach of the Italian model.

The regulations on students with specific learning disorders provide for the establishment of a SEN contact person and introduce the obligation to summon special meetings of the class teachers (at least one at the beginning of the school year, and even more when needed), with the presence of parents and of the people entitled to the student's care outside school (i.e., psychologists, private tutors, if any ...); also the student can be summoned, when necessary, especially when of age. The aim is to draft

student's IEP

an IEP that will include all the strategies and resources required for the

III. The Upper Secondary School and the Reformation of Cycles

School autonomy is the process of allocating administrative, teaching and organization autonomy in all Italian schools and is crucial to understand the functioning of the educational system, particularly of the secondary level after its reformation in 2010, which requires each high school to make choices about curriculum and its implementation.

In the mid-1970s Delegation Decree Laws (Decreti Delegati No. 416, 417, 418, 419 & 420 according to Presidential Decree May, 31 1974 ²⁰) established joint decision–making bodies (collegial governing bodies called "Organi Collegiali" in Italian) at the national, district and school level, for educational, didactic and administrative management of all educational institutes. This organization was confirmed in 1990s, by a law and a President's decree law: Law No. 59 ("Delega al Governo per il conferimento di funzioni e compiti alle regioni ed enti locali, per la riforma della Pubblica Amministrazione e per la semplificazione amministrativa.", 1997) and Decreto del Presidente della Repubblica (DPR) No. 275 ("Regolamento recante norme in materia di autonomia delle istituzioni scolastiche, ai sensi dell'art 21 della legge 15 marzo 1997,

²⁰ With Law No. 477/1973 the Parliament had entrusted the government to issue rules on school management and school staff. The Law has been enacted through Delegation Decree Laws (DDL): Istituzione e riordinamento di organi collegiali della scuola materna, elementare, secondaria ed artistica. (1974a); Norme sullo stato giuridico del personale docente, direttivo ed ispettivo della scuola materna, elementare, secondaria ed artistica dello Stato. (1974); Sperimentazione e ricerca educativa, aggiornamento culturale e professionale ed istituzione dei relativi istituti. (1974).

n. 59", 1999a).). In each school those bodies are still providing the direct participation of teachers, non-teaching staff and parents to all decisions concerned. Those joint bodies are still in force because they fully merged into the General law on school ("Testo Unico delle disposizioni legislative in materia di istruzione",1994) and underlie school autonomy, that was implemented in the late 90's.²¹

Each school is considered like an autonomous institution, it draws up an annual Plan of Educational Offer (POF), being organized in policy areas (i.e., "inclusive education and inclusion of differences", "intercultural education"...) that are coordinated by willing teachers elected by the Board of Teachers and called "instrumental functions" ("Funzioni strumentali" in Italian). Teachers can also submit projects to promote POF educational activity. The Board of Teachers—according to the clues and instructions by the territory (Local Authorities, Enterprises, Board of Associations of Disability...), by families and by the School Board (Consiglio di Circolo o d'Istituto' in Italian: a management and administrative body chaired by a parent)—processes and approves yearly the plan of educational offer which is finally adopted by the School Board. The latter has the task of issuing the school regulations, but also to direct, control and approve an annual plan, which is the accounting document that has to be prepared by all educational institutions to develop and implement their educational offer.

Instrumental functions, project coordinators and class coordinators are key figures in managing effective education: all those teachers are paid with modest bestowals, from the school fund or from other school allocations. The most recent reforms have institutionalized departments (that already existed in some way as organization bodies of the Board of

²¹ That Decree Law was also meant to rationalize the educational system, that was now divided up as follows: state nursery school (not mandatory), elementary grade, secondary grade (junior and high) and schools of art education. This structure will be changed in 2010.

Teachers).

Effective organization, administrative transparency and democratic management of schools is closely linked to a quality educational offer and, therefore, also to development of quality education pathways leading to quality inclusion, as required by students and families and as recommended by Italian educational policy. This is particularly true in recent years, characterized by cuts in public spending and economic recession.

We must, however, specify that the draft bill No. 953, known as Aprea, aims at reforming the collegial bodies, by restricting the space of democracy and paving the way for the statutory autonomy of each school (which would have a board of administration instead of the present school board), resulting in the questioning of the national system of public education and with the dangerous speeding up of the role of the private sector which will have the opportunity to be part of the collegiate bodies and, because of their external financing to heavily influence the plan of educational offer. Those issues will be discussed below.

Unlike basic school, the upper secondary system remained essentially unchanged from the Gentile reform of 1923 up to 1968. In 1969 a fiveyear experimentation was started in all vocational schools, and admission to universities was fully liberalized: students could apply for any faculty after a five - year course (or after a four—year course, like in schools for primary teacher training, followed by an extra fifth year).²² No comprehensive school reform of the upper secondary was carried out

²² As a result of student protests of the late 60s, a new state exam at the end of the upper secondary education was finally implemented, which would remain unvaried until the Law No. 425 (Legge n. 495, 1997c) and Presidential Decree No. 323/1998 (Regolamento degli esami di Stato conclusivi dei corsi di studio di istruzione secondaria superiore, 1998b). Currently, the upper secondary state exam includes three written tests (one multidisciplinary) followed by and oral exam on several disciplines. Evaluation is percent bases (100 is the maximum) and deserving students can be awarded, according to achievements of each of the last three years, an additional education credit for a maximum of twenty points.

until the new century, but the Ministry allowed hundreds of experimental pathways based on local context needs and aimed to update the technical and vocational competences that students could acquire, which led to proliferation of experimental courses that widened the educational offer for students, but increased public spending. Finally, reforms in the early years of the new century have been changing the education system and particularly the secondary grade.

At the beginning of the new century, a framework law, the so-called *Berlinguer* reform, ²³ divided the education system into: kindergarten, primary grade (or basic school) and secondary grade. Through that first reordering of cycles, compulsory education was raised from the fourteenth to the fifteenth year of age: this reform of the center-left government was aimed at overcoming the "classiest model" of secondary school, still modeled on the pattern of *Gentile* reform. The upper secondary, yet organized in courses rigidly separated from each other, was now subdivided into a first two-year period—mandatory, unitary and with the goal of orientation—followed by a three-year period that was to foster the professional skill development.

Berlinguer reform was entirely repealed by Legge No. 53/2003 (the so-called Moratti reform, of the center-right government),²⁴ which guaranteed the right to education and training for at least twelve years, or at least up to the attainment of a qualification by the age of eighteen, but this *right-duty* was considered fulfilled also through training from 14 years onwards, which did not envisage necessarily school attendance. It was thus made possible a school–work alternation, aimed at acquiring practical skills for employment: students could enter primary school

²³ This reform is contained in Law No. 30 (Legge Quadro in materia di Riordino dei Cicli dell'Istruzione, 2000).

²⁴ Moratti reform is contained in Law No. 53 (Delega al Governo per la definizione delle norme generali sull'istruzione e dei livelli essenziali delle prestazioni in materia di istruzione e di formazione professionale, 2003).

even at five (a voluntary opportunity that these days has been revived as structural change), but the choice between school attending and other kinds of training was judged to be done too early, already at 13 years, like in early 60s: the right to education and school attendance could actually stop shortly after the end of the lower secondary, which caused a lot of criticism. The reform proposed a new structure of the education system, including a first cycle (primary school (+) secondary junior school) and a second cycle (senior high schools called *Licei* (+) vocational education and training) with the possibility to change domain during the first two years.

In 2005, a Decree law reshaped again the whole system of the upper secondary into a dual system based on *Licei* (senior high schools with different domains: art, classical studies, economy, language, music and dance, science, technology and human sciences) and vocational education and training ("Norme generali e livelli essenziali delle prestazioni relativi al secondo ciclo del sistema educativo di istruzione e formazione, a norma dell'articolo 2 della legge 28 marzo 2003 [53]", 2005). The first remained the responsibility of the state, while the latter became the exclusive competence of regions. That caused a lot of criticism: education and training should be the competence of the state (as enshrined in title 5th of the Constitution of the Italian Republic) and this was seen as a backward step, which re-proposed a distinction between high schools and technical and vocational training.

The policy of center-right governments on education was also characterized by a downsizing of state intervention and of funds allocated to state schools, by the allocation of funding to private schools, in the name of freedom of choice and free competition, and by the substantial reduction in resources for extended time and full-time schooling. The Ministry of Public Education (Ministero della Pubblica Istruzione, MPI) changed its name into Ministry of Education and was merged with the Ministry of Higher Education and Research, which gave birth to the MIUR also responsible for private educational institutions and universities. An aside

of center–left government entailed the extension of compulsory education up to 16 years, a threshold that has no longer been changed, also technical and vocational education were restored and re-launched in paragraph No. 13 of Law No. 40 ("Conversione in legge, con modificazioni, del decreto-legge 31 gennaio 2007, n. 7, recante misure urgenti per la tutela dei consumatori, la promozione della concorrenza, lo sviluppo di attività economiche e la nascita di nuove imprese", 2007).

Currently, students are entitled to compulsory education from the sixth to the sixteenth year of age; students with disabilities can complete compulsory schooling even until the age of eighteen: to fulfill compulsory education, students have to attend the *Primary cycle* (primary and lower secondary school), and the first two-year period of the upper secondary ("Disposizioni per la formazione del bilancio annuale e pluriennale dello Stato [legge finanziaria 2007]", 2006).²⁵

The *Decreto ministeriale* (*D.M.*) *No.* 9 of 27 January 2010, introduced in high schools the model certificate of basic skills acquired by the student at the end of compulsory education. This must be prepared by the class council, shall be issued at the request of the student and refers to the following areas: languages axis, math axis, and scientific-technological axis, historical and social axis.

Schooling in common context is guaranteed to all students, even to those with severe disabilities. In evaluation, it's possible to administer different tests, though equivalent to the standard ones, and to take into account student's difficulties to a certain extent, otherwise one can also customize tests and evaluation, using non-conventional forms of assessment: but the operational workgroup will have to decide, in that case, whether it's possible to award a diploma valid for all purposes.

A MIUR circular letter (MIUR, 2010e) confirms that students with disabilities who have not acquired a diploma at the end of the lower

²⁵ The extension of compulsory schooling started in school year 2007/2008.

secondary (but just a certificate on training credits) may nevertheless enroll at the upper secondary, but a limit is introduced: the disabled student wishing to enroll must not have exceeded the eighteen years of age; after the end of the chosen course, in case of subsequent enrollments in other upper secondary courses, he/she won't be entitled to supporting teaching. One alternative solution is provided by afternoon/evening courses for adults, where supporting interventions may still be provided, though this solution is rarely chosen by students with severe disabilities and their families: at the end of schooling, in default of a diploma, they prefer to join vocational projects implemented by local authorities, territorial centers, cooperatives and private adult institutions. Further information on student assessment in cycles, different courses and in training are available in the papers by the European Commission (Anonymous, 2013).

Moratti reform first and then Gelmini reform have been launched not without controversy in schools and in society: this complex explanation of the various changes in the last twenty years is aimed at clarifying the persistence of traditional denominations, such as "elementary school" and scuola media (meaning junior high school), not only in spoken language but even in official documents and international papers.

Gelmini reform underlies the current educational system: after kindergarten (still not compulsory and admitting children from 2 and half), we have a primary cycle that can be started at 5 and ends with a state exam: with the introduction of comprehensive schools (Istituti comprensivi in Italian). Primary cycle is connected on one side to kindergarten and on the other side to upper secondary education, because it encompasses both the existing primary (or elementary) school and the lower secondary level (former scuola media). Therefore, what is officially defined "secondary education" now corresponds to the upper secondary, that follows the primary cycle and lasts four or five years (according to the chosen domain and to possibility of admission to higher education): upper secondary schools shall now be referred to as "secondary institutes". Connection between the first cycle of education and secondary education is pursued by schools through autonomy, useful to organize, even through network, suitable guidance projects focused on educational continuity.

The Reform of Higher Secondary Education is available in Ministry documents called *Riforma della Scuola Secondaria Superiore*, which is Presidential Decree Laws No. 87, No. 88 & No. 89 containing the regulations of high schools (called in Italian *Licei* from the Latin *lyceum*), of vocational institutes (the Italian Istituti Professionali), and of technical institutes, that is Istituti Tecnici in Italian (MIUR, 2010b, 2010c, 2010d). Special guidelines from the MIUR were issued, to help transition to the new system. Given its complexity, it is the case to illustrate the reform just in its essential.

The *Licei* system consists in six kinds of senior high schools, some of them with different options: art (six different domains), classic (Grammar), foreign languages, music and dance (the two sections have different paths), human sciences (with an economy and social option) and science (with an applied sciences option gathering the experience of existing Liceo Tecnologico, a significant trend of innovation in the aftermath of Moratti Reform). Licei last for five years: a first two-year period, aimed at completion of compulsory education and at acquiring basic learning and skills required by course type, is followed by a second two-year period and by a fifth year. The educational institution may modify the curriculum within a certain share of autonomy (20% of total hours in the first twoyear period, 30% in the second period and 20% in the fifth year) according to the educational, cultural and professional outlines that complete the reform, and to the indications by regions. The curriculum of each subject cannot be reduced by more than one third over the five years and school cannot delete any of the subjects of the fifth year.

The main innovations concern: the enhancement of Latin, law and economy; time increasing for mathematics, physics and science; foreign languages' reinforcement; in the fifth year, a non-linguistic discipline shall

be taught in a foreign language. The standard timetable will be annual, rather than weekly, to promote flexibility: from the last two-year period, the school can activate pathways to foster schoolwork alternation.

The widening and strengthening of educational offer can be pursued through the introduction of quotas for flexibility. From the second twoyear period, pathways for partnerships can be introduced: with university, with higher education institutions of art, music and dance, 26 with higher technical education, (Istituto Tecnico Superiore, ITS), and with higher technical and vocational education or (Istituto di Formazione Tecnica Superiore, IFTS) (Istituto Nazionale di Documentazione Innovazione e Ricerca Educativa [INDIRE], n.d. a; Castellini, 2011).

Higher technical education is a newly established sector based on foundations for participation—including schools, training institutes, businesses, universities and research centers, local authorities. The goal is to create post-secondary "special schools of technology", with a path parallel to those of university, which will train high technicians in strategic technology areas for economic development. Students can be admitted to ITSs after a four-year or five-year secondary course; at the end of ITS it's possible to continue at university with a shortened pathway.

Higher technical and vocational education (IFTS) is a part of integrated higher technical education (Formazione Integrata Superiore, FIS) having more and less the same characteristics of ITS and providing higher technical education and training. It can be attended by youth and adults (even employees) who graduated from high schools, or were admitted to the fifth year of high school, or obtained a diploma at the end of education and vocational training. The paths shall be characterized by flexibility and modularity; they are planned by the regions on the basis

²⁶ AFAM in Italian; they are: the Academy of Fine Arts and legally recognized Academies of Fine Arts, the National Academy of Dramatic Art, the National Academy of Dance, the Conservatory of Music, the equalized Music Institutes, the Higher Institutes for Artistic Industries (ISIA) and other institutions authorized to issue AFAM certificates.

of their economic and financial planning, with the participation of social partners.

In new technical institutes the existing fragmentation of courses (39 normal and 200 experimental), is overcome by identifying two broad areas and 11 options. Economy domain provides courses in: administration, finance and marketing; tourism. Technology sector provides courses in: mechanics, mechatronics and energy; transport and logistics; electronics and electrical engineering; computer science and telecommunications; graphics and communication; chemistry, materials and biotechnology; fashion industry; agriculture, agro-food and agro-industry; construction, environment and territory. Most of them provide additional courses to target education and training.

New technical institutes are characterized by an area of general education common to both paths and by separate address areas that can be organized on the basis of a national list continually updated. They are structured in a first two-year period, to complete compulsory education and to acquire the basic knowledge and skills required by course type, followed by a second two-year period and by a fifth year, whose curriculum can be modified to meet the demands of the territory, of the working world and professions. The fifth year will end with the State Examination and allow admission to university. Technical institutes may use flexibility to organize training options, but for now flexibility is possible only in the second two-year period and in the fifth year, where curriculum can be changed by 30% (last two years) and by 35% (last year). Flexibility is added to the 20% share of autonomy. Students will have a weekly time corresponding to 32 hours of lessons: the widespread use of laboratories for teaching purposes is considered an essential tool for effective teaching (INDIRE, n.d.b).

Even the relaunch of vocational education is based on autonomy and flexibility allowing adjusting and modifying curriculum to meet the interests and aspirations of young people, local needs and demands of the world of business and professions. The previous five areas of vocational education, with 27 address areas are replaced by two macro-sectors: service sector and industry and handicraft sector, the first providing six courses (services for agriculture and rural development, health services, services for food, wine and hotel business; commerce services) and the second providing two courses (craft and industrial production, maintenance and technical assistance). Students will have a weekly time corresponding to 32 hours of lessons.

In new professional institutes flexibility applies to all courses and consists of a portion of the annual timetable that can be used to integrate educational training with vocational training provided in the regional system. Flexibility must be traced back, however, to a framework of general criteria established at national level to prevent the risk of training fragmentation. In the first two-year period, flexibility share must not exceed 25% of timetable and 35% in the third year; flexibility is added to the 20% autonomy share. Schools may stipulate work contracts with experts from the working and profession world who have a specific and documented experience, the diploma issued after the state exam must certify the skills acquired and the chosen options.

Within some limits and thanks to autonomy, all secondary institutes can change the standard timetable and devise different ones, based both on compulsory activities and courses for all the students and on other subject—matters included in the plan of educational offer. Within the limits of the available budget, they can either increase the compulsory courses or organize the elective ones (that shall be consistent with the profile of educational, cultural and professional studies). Elective subjects become mandatory for students who choose them and contribute to evaluation: in short, it now opens the possibility of curriculum diversification and personalization (even with the assistance of external experts and/or networks). Secondary institutes can adopt new organizational models, such as Departments, for better training planning, and Scientific and Technical Committees aimed at strengthening collaboration with local stakeholders,

especially for guidance to profession and to carry out internships, apprenticeships and school-work alternation.

IV The Training and Recruitment of Teachers

The training and recruitment of Italian teachers has experienced many phases and a wide variety of models, even different depending on the order and type of studies: to mention only the secondary grade, in the 1980s, after a long period of qualifying courses for teaching alongside recruitment based on disciplinary rankings, the Ministry decided to announce public competitions both useful to gain a teaching qualification and for the recruitment, depending on available employment positions. In the 1990's competitions were no longer announced, except for some disciplines: recruitment took place on the basis of rankings where both educational qualifications and service credits merged. Meanwhile, in service updating for permanent teachers could take various forms: for some time updating and refreshment courses (still being one of teachers' most important duty) were considered a mandatory requirement to be eligible to the expected salary increases linked to service length.

Currently, in-service updating can be organized at central, regional or provincial level, but it can be provided also by schools — or by networks of schools — because it falls under "autonomy of research, experimentation and development" ("Regolamento recante norme in muteria di autonomia delle istituzioni scolastiche ai sensi dell'art. 21 della legge 15 marzo 1997, n. 59", 1999): schools can design staff training, and enable research (i.e. on assessment, on methodological/didactic and curricular innovation, on inclusive education…), and can design new solutions to document their experiences. Not to mention that Italian schools have been joining

national and international projects (i.e., European union projects) that have profoundly changed staff professional and didactic skills.

Over the last decade the network model has been asserting: the MIUR has been funding project-based refreshment courses for networks of school: the national project—ICARE (Imparare, Comunicare, Agire in una Rete Educativa) aroused a number of methodological and didactic projects, based both on pedagogical experimentation and on refreshment courses, mainly on ICF (Villanella, 2010); the above mentioned MIUR Circular letter No. 5, October 2012 (MIUR, Ufficio Scolastico Regionale per il Lazio, 2012) called for school network projects on inclusion of students with disability, based both on methodological innovation, new technologies and teachers' updating; only 18 network projects in Latium have been selected and allocated of € 13,000 (about NT\$ 542.880) each: that sum has to be divided between the schools involved in each network, after having saved a part of it, to pay a compulsory updating course on ICF: e.g., in a network of five schools, each of them will have no more than €2,000 (about NT\$ 83,520) pre-tax, that will be greatly reduced by taxation. The commitment to update teaching competences is nevertheless relevant.

Special teacher training for support interventions was launched in the 1970s; those specialization courses also included practical training and were firstly biennial for each "category" (sensory visual/hearing or "psychophysical") of disability, and therefore valid both in common and in special classes still existing. Subsequently, they became biennial but multi-purpose (for teaching in common school). They were organized by the Ministry of Education at provincial level, or by various qualified and licensed entities, including universities, category associations of disability and special institutions where special schools and "schools of method" had been functioning.

From the late 1990s until 2008, training of all new teachers was carried out by the schools of specialization for primary and secondary teaching (Scuola di Specializzazione per l'Insegnamento Secondario, SSIS), organized by universities at regional level; specialization courses lasted two academic years (four semesters), with examination for admission and limited enrollment established according to the availability of employment positions (as set by the Ministry of Education in each region), and with a final academic defence.

To be admitted, a student had to be in possession of a four/five-year degree (according to the old university system, prior to "Bologna System"), or of a postgraduate two-year degree (Master's degree). Training, of equal dignity for all teachers both of the primary and the secondary grade, took place in universities; a part of the basic course was intended to cover the issues of inclusive education. SSIS training could continue with a further year of specialization for would-be supporting teachers; (Lin & Villanella, 2008). SSIS frequency was mandatory and students had also to attend direct traineeship in schools and indirect traineeship (group works) under the guidance of supervisors (in Italian: tirocinio diretto/indiretto). Supervisors were expert teachers having the task to start reflection and discussion and to link the theoretical part of the course to teaching practice: to be employed they had to win a SSIS competition, and worked part time in their schools and part time for the SSIS.

The experience of the Schools of Specialization officially ended in 2008, but some of them worked until 2010, to ensure the specialization course completion to all enrolled trainees: section No. 5 of Law No. 53 (Delega al Governo per la definizione delle norme generali sull'istruzione e dei livelli essenziali delle prestazioni in materia di istruzione e di formazione professionale, 2003) and section No. 3 of Ministerial Decree No. 270 (MIUR, 2004) had established Master of Science courses at university (second-level) that would end by a qualifying examination and could be followed by a master course to train specialist teachers for support activities (de Anna, 2007). The MSc degree was finally implemented in

2011 and includes a traineeship called TFA (Tirocinio Formativo Attivo meaning: "active training traineeship") which consists of 475 hours at state schools; TFA is also necessary to complete the path of graduates under the old system wishing to gain teaching qualification.

Most recently, contradicting both the training system of the old SSIS and the new teacher training system pivoted on MSc and TFA, the MIUR launched a new competition to recruit more than 11,500 teachers, with a cost of about €1,000,000 (about NT\$ 41,760,000). This has triggered a reaction of some 160,000 temporary teachers, already qualified by universities and enrolled in rankings for teaching but still without a permanent position.

V. The Italian School of 2000s

In the late 90s and the first decade of the new century, the entire educational system has been hit by a wave of regulatory interventions and "reforms" that have to be at least mentioned, because they definitely characterize today's Italian school and particularly secondary school.

In addition to the *Reform of educational* cycles, the MIUR has issued new regulations on achievement evaluation and students' behavior, on lifelong learning and adult education, on certification of competences and even on textbooks, whose digital (or at least mixed) version has become mandatory since the present school year ("Conversione in legge, con modificazioni, del decreto-legge 25 giugno 2008, n. 112-Schema di piano programmatico del Ministero dell'Istruzione, dell' Università e della Ricerca, di concerto con il Ministero dell'Economia e delle Finanze, di cui all'art.64 del decreto-legge 112", 2008a). Other rules set the integrated education and training system managed by the regions and the digital administration code which provides for the computerization of administrative acts ("Codice dell'amministrazione digitale", 2005a.). All these provisions are intertwined with many others, on administration and accounting management, on labor regulations and standards for civil servants. Reforms are in part due to renewal, in part to the adjustment of the legal and institutional national framework to European framework, and in part to the need for simplification, rationalization and cost containment, as for the implementation of the principle of subsidiarity (which underlies decentralization) and for what is called in Italian "Dimensionamento" (meaning: "resizing"): the school management system is now under the jurisdiction of the Regions. Every year regions have to make a program of their own school network, in accordance with section No. 138 of Decree Law No. 112 (Conferimento di funzioni e compiti amministrativi dello Stato alle regioni ed agli enti locali, in attuazione del capo I della legge 15 marzo 1997, n. 59, 1998a) and with the reformation of TITLE V the Constitution (Modifiche al titolo V della parte seconda della Costituzione, 2001).

This resizing is aimed to cut expenses, and section No. 19 of Law No. 111/2011 sets comprehensive schools of at least 1,000 pupils through unification ("Conversione in legge, con modificazioni, del decreto-legge 6 luglio 2011, n. 98 recante disposizioni urgenti per la stabilizzazione finanziaria. Art.19: Razionalizzazione della spesa relativa all'organizzazione scolastica",2011)—That has led to the cancellation of many preschools and primary cycle schools, with substantial impoverishment of schools' socio-cultural identities and of educational provision in many areas of Italy, and that will have its effects even on inclusive education. Law No. 111 has been judged unconstitutional by the Corte Costituzionale della Repubblica Italiana (Decision No. 147, 2012), but it still remains in force, despite the damage it can cause in a context where organizational autonomy granted to individual schools has been weakened.

The regulations on upper secondary education have a number of innovations designed to improve the educational offer in relation to

specific demands of the territory and working world: schools can equip themselves with a scientific committee which advises and make proposals for the organization and use of autonomy and flexibility share, but at no cost to public finances; the results of this innovation are to be assessed in future, but for now, the choices about the areas of autonomy and flexibility are left mostly to schools, i.e., especially to the board of teachers.

It remains to be seen, whether resources allocated will help fully achievement of reform goals: there are many possible actions allowed to schools, but it is repeatedly stressed their not having to result in staff redundancies, and that they will not result in additional fund allocation. The rules provide the possibility to assign an enhanced contingent of human resources at a single institution and/or make it available to schools through network arrangements, but this perspective does not appear achievable for the time being, considering general staff reduction.

The full implementation of the reform, then, clashes with the limited financing: managers and teachers are faced with a series of conflicts and doubts, even of administrative sort, which hinder the realization of innovation. Autonomy shares, rather than flexibility shares, relate to teaching organization and can be realized with the teachers already assigned to the school: here innovation is the product of pedagogical and organizational capacity of individual schools, or of network/s of schools. A separate issue is flexibility, because this may lead to a change in the path of study that requires accurate controls and, to a certain extent, even appropriate authorizations.

The law theoretically provides for the implementation of a new type of organic, defined as "functional" to autonomy and school networks, which would be made permanent for at least three years and would complement the human resources already allocated to individual schools. This measure, however, is connected to the corrective measures of public finances ("Disposizioni urgenti per lo sviluppo economico, la semplificazione, la competitività, la stabilizzazione della finanza pubblica e la perequazione Tributaria, in attuazione del capo I della legge 15 marzo 1997, No. 59", 2008), while an organic actually functional to needs should be free from constraints clearly oriented to rationalize human and financial resources in the direction of maximum savings and low investment.

The reform redesigns the curriculum in terms of disciplines and time reduction, with a smaller number of teachers employed and an additional burden of responsibility for those in service (i.e., "experimental" scientific and technological licei had much more laboratory hours). It opens a time, then, when teachers' professionalism will have to be redefined and upgraded, also based on new disciplinary combinations, and this raises doubts and questions. These observations are not intended to criticize the reforms, which would not be possible if the Italian schools had not given evidence of their ability to organize, adapt and improve the educational offer in the interest of students, but to have a broad vision of education policies and of secondary education it is necessary to highlight both the strengths and the possible weaknesses in the school system.

According to recent data by Centro Studi Investimenti Sociali (CENSIS), in 2010 the proportion of young people aged 18 to 24 years with only a junior high school diploma and no longer included in training courses has dropped from 19.2% to 18.8%, a datum which is confirmed in all regions of Italy, except in those of the center in which it stood at 14.8%. The proportion of young people aged 15 to 29 who do not study and do not work has, instead, increased with the onset of the economic crisis, rising from 20.5% in 2009 to 22.1% in 2010 (CENSIS, 2011). Lifelong learning covers only 6.2% of the population and adult education has seen a decrease in resources allocated from €16 million (about NT\$ 6,681,600,000) in 2009 to €4.4 million (about NT\$ 1,837,440,000) in 2011.

Economic crisis and government interventions in education continue to operate heavy cuts, which seem geared to mere cash criteria. Recently, the bill "Stability decree Law" by Monti government has proposed an increase of teachers' "front" working time ("front" hours meaning the time 122

for classroom lessons) that was to increase from 18 to 24 hours per week, both in lower and upper secondary schools, with no increase in salary.

Such a choice, besides being illegal—because it corresponds to an unilateral cancellation of the National labor contract--showed very little knowledge of the teachers' workload, which goes far beyond the "front" hours spent in classrooms.²⁷ Besides, those 18 front hour per week are in line with the schedule of European colleagues (who are nevertheless better paid) as indicated by the information network about education in Europe called Eurydice (about school year 2009/2010) (Anonymous, 2013).

The one third workload increase would result in a series of extremely negative consequences in upper secondary schools: the increase in the number of classes (and then in the number of students) for each teacher would determine teachers' burnout and they impoverishment of educational offer. The mobilization throughout Italy, which saw teachers and students march together in daily demonstrations against government educational policy has, for now, blocked this attempt and resulted in the

²⁷ In addition to classroom teaching, service obligations for secondary school teachers include 80 hours per year of 'functional activities' to teaching and routine joint activities (class councils, teachers' board assemblies, department/disciplinary meetings ...); to those we must add: records' compilation and interviews with parents; coordination and verbalizations of class meetings; board, class and individual planning; lesson planning and class assignment control; written test and exam preparation; checking and mark assignment, results' transcription, national INVALSI (Istituto Nazionale per la Valutazione del Sistema dell'Istruzione) tests' checking; a very important routine activity is IEPs' planning for pupils with learning difficulties and students with disabilities. To those we add: textbook evaluation for possible adoptions (and written reports for new adoptions); recurring updating courses and self-updating activities. Day trips (such as exhibitions, conferences, visits tours, theater performances...), school trips and camps, language stages and cultural exchanges require preparation and assistance. Most teachers are involved in disciplinary and interdisciplinary projects for the widening of the educational offer: they are required to plan, supervise and monitor those projects, and often to attend committee meetings. Many teachers are involved in remedial/reinforcement courses additional to teaching (e.g. for foreign students) that are underpaid with the meager funds of the school. To all this we must add the tasks of instrumental functions (POF coordinators) whose workload, additional to teaching, is underpaid and not based on a scheduled service timetable, but project and result based.

cancellation of that measure from the bill on "stability"; nevertheless, both teachers and students went on with protestation against cuts to state education: most teachers have been reducing their involvement in projects and non–routine activities, and students have been taking up many senior high schools for squatting ("Aumento delle ore, la scuola protesta mille iniziative di studenti e professori", 2012). In fact, there is still the possibility that the number of frontal hours remains unchanged, but that each formal "hour" is reduced to 50 minutes, with the consequent increase in the number of classes and students for each secondary school teacher.

The reduction of resources devoted to state education does not encourage efficiency, does not eliminate the deadwood, but it takes away the lifeblood of a growing tree, because it hampers the process of education and training of new generations: The Ministry of Economy has not yet indicated the amount of funds that will be allocated to the schools' fund, making it impossible to start most activities in the POF. Another worrying signal is the so-called Aprea bill ("Proposta di Legge d'iniziativa del deputato APREA: Norme per l'autogoverno delle istituzioni scolastiche e la libertà di scelta educativa delle famiglie, nonché per la riforma dello stato giuridico dei docenti", 2008). It planned to modify school governance, and namely those joint bodies described above, introducing private intervention and private funding to equate state schools and private schools: even the legal status of teachers could be changed and their role would become functional to a privatized school run by external parties and stakeholders.

A final consideration concerns the secessionist pressures and glocal issues that have emerged in the last two decades, along with cultural changes due to globalization and, finally, to the dominance of mass media: all those, combined with the economic crisis and the substantial impoverishment of the welfare state, can undermine the unitary, national and democratic features of Italian educational system.

This scenario requires a strong commitment from the world of

education and beyond, in order to prevent the denial or loss of quality experiences, good practices and of the values standing behind them: it is necessary to defend the value of the results achieved in the interest of the students and their families. The school system is now called upon to face the economic, social, scientific and cultural changes and has to compete with a functionalist model that imposes the economy logic on pedagogical logic, and which is increasingly at the service of economic progress and of a learning that is considered "useful" merely because it is suitable for market demands (Fiorin, 2007).

The first fifty years of the history of the Italian Republic have seen an evolution in education in a country with prospects for economic and social development that are now failing; nevertheless, the Italian school (especially public school) is still the repository of heavy and delicate tasks that put it at the center of policies for inclusion and progress of the whole society. Cuts in state schools and public education are likely to create social exclusion and only in the future we will be able to evaluate the effects of this phase of our history: for these reasons, an understanding of the education system cannot be separated from that of its history, which has helped the implementation of full inclusion in schools, as this article has tried to show, as it does not obviate the stubborn commitment of those teachers who, although they are the worst paid in Europe, are still struggling to break down the causes of early school leaving and social exclusion. The liberalist pressures, though definitely influencing the society and culture of the new century, are not always in harmony with the respect for citizens' constitutional rights and with the right to education as a tool for achieving citizens' autonomy and self-determination. School inclusion and inclusive thought are key tools to promote a better school and a better society.

The quick evolution of terminological and conceptual scenarios, of policy choices and of the economic and market logic—that influence, by now, any social and cultural development in a globalized world - require

a strong reference thought that may result from reflection, but also from research on the field, and that cannot be separated from the awareness and knowledge of other historical, cultural, linguistic and social realities.

International comparison is a look at realities that are geographically distant, but it brings us closer and can strengthen us in achieving our inclusive objectives: international comparison may arise new lifeblood, so that the respective experiences will serve to renew the commitment and motivation of those who dedicate themselves to young people in achieving the objectives of education for all and of developing civilization and society. International exchange is to be understood, therefore, as a means of understanding and as a means to develop relevant and profitable international links: it falls, therefore, fully in the inclusive approach, in inclusive practice and in the framework of cooperation and inclusion.

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各國中等教育相關指標統計資料

編輯小組

配合本輯「各國中等教育」主題,本集刊編輯小組特別收集整理各國重要教育指標,本期重要教育相關指標與統計表則自 2012 年九月經濟合作暨發展組織出版之《2012 年教育概覽:OECD 指標》(Education at a glance 2012: OECD indicators),提供讀者展讀本輯時可以參閱。

以下就各圖表資料來源及圖表中重要名詞與指標所代表的意義, 簡要說明如下:

一、名詞及指標說明

- (一) OECD:經濟合作暨發展組織(Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, OECD)於1961年正式成立,總部設在法國巴黎,前身爲「歐洲經濟合作組織」(Organization for European Economic Co-operation, OEEC)。
- (二) OECD 國家:目前經濟合作暨發展組織計有30個會員國,包括:澳洲、奧地利、比利時、加拿大、捷克、丹麥、芬蘭、法國、德國、希臘、匈牙利、冰島、愛爾蘭、義大利、日本、韓國、盧森堡、墨西哥、荷蘭、紐西蘭、挪威、波蘭、葡萄牙、斯洛伐克、西班牙、瑞典、瑞士、土耳其、英國、美國等國家。
- (三)EU21:歐洲聯盟,簡稱歐盟(European Union,EU), 歐盟目前有27個會員國,EU21係指OECD會員國中屬於歐盟之21 國,21國包括:奧地利、比利時、捷克、丹麥、愛沙尼亞、芬蘭、法國、 德國、希臘、匈牙利、愛爾蘭、義大利、盧森堡、荷蘭、波蘭、葡萄牙、 斯洛伐克、西班牙、瑞典、土耳其及英國等國家。
 - (四) GDP: 國內生產毛額 (gross domestic product, GDP) 係

指一個領土內的經濟情況的度量。它被定義爲所有在一個國家境內一 段特定時間(一般爲1年)內全部生產之最終財貨與勞務的市場總價 値,包括本國居民在國外所生產的,以及外國居民在本國所生產的財 貨與勞務。

- (五) PPP:購買力平價指數(purchasing power parity, PPP)是一種根據各國不同的價格水準計算貨幣之間的等值係數,俾對各國的國內生產總值進行合理比較。舉例來說,一個麥香堡在美國的價格是2.2 美元,在法國是2.84 歐元,則根據購買力平價指數,法國的2.84歐元兌美國的2.2 美元,即1.29歐元兌1美元;此意味在美國用1美元買的漢堡,在法國需花費1.29歐元才能購得到同樣數量和質量的物品,此相對應的指數即所謂的「麥香堡指數」(big mac index)。此爲一項簡化的購買力平價指數,換言之,乃按照各地相同產品之不同價格來衡量真實購買力。但由於各國生活習慣及社會經濟環境背景不同,商品服務和消費數量亦不盡相同,若僅以單一商品來衡量普遍的消費水準,則難免失之偏頗,仍應謹慎使用。
- (六)學校分類定義:經濟合作暨發展組織出版之《2011年教育概覽:OECD指標》中將學校分爲公立學校、政府補助之私立學校、獨立經營之私立學校等三類,簡要說明如下:
- 1. 公立學校:指由教育部(局)或其他公家機構直接管理者, 學校大部分的成員由政府任命或直接派任者;
- 2. 政府補助之私立學校:指超過 50% 資金來自政府的經費, 其主要資金來自政府機構,而非完全由政府獨自管理者;
- 3. 獨立經營之私立學校:指由非政府組織(即教會、工會或企業)管理者,其內部成員由私人經費聘用之。
- (七)ISCED:國際標準教育分類(International Standard Classification of Education,ISCED)。依據 1997 年國際教育標準分類,學制分類如下:

「0」: 學前教育 (pre-primary education)。

「1」:初等教育 (primary education)。

「2」:初級中等教育(lower secondary education)。

「3」:高級中等教育(upper secondary education),又細分如下:

- 「3A」進入 5A 預備課程, 爲普通教育;「3B」進入 5B 預備課程, 爲職業準備教育;「3C」爲進入就業市場。
- 「4」:非高等教育的後中等教育(post-secondary non tertiary education) •
- 「5」:高等教育第一階段(first stage of tertiary education):又 細分 5A ——以理論爲基礎的高等教育課程(如:大學),進一步取 得進階研究之入學資格;5B ——實務取向或職業明確之學程(如: 技專院校)。
 - 「6」:指高等教育第二階段(second stage of tertiary education)
- (八)在圖表中出現「(1),(2),(3)」,其中的數字分 別指 1-3 欄;看到「x(數字)」,意指該資料(x)與「欄內的數 字相同」,例如x(3)表示該資料與第三欄內的數字相同,其餘類推。

二、圖表資料來源

- (一)表1-表9整理自《2012年教育概覽:OECD指標》中關 於中等教育部分的資料(線上版),該資料網址為 http://www.oecd. org/edu/eag2012.htm •
- (二) 我國教育相關資料取自教育部網站《教育統計指標之國際 比較》,該資料網址爲 https://stats.moe.gov.tw/files/ebook/International_ Comparison/2012/i2012.pdf •
- (三)OECD 發布之統計指標皆與該年度相差2年,以《2012 年教育概覽:OECD 指標》爲例,僅可參閱至 2010 年統計資料。在 不影響比較效果下, 遂提供我國與 OECD 發布相同年度之相關統計指 標資料,俾利參閱。

三、各國主要中等教育指標

表1

2010 年我國與 **OECD** 國家各中等學校生師比——按專任教師計算 Table 1

Ratio of students to teaching staff in secondary educational institution (2010): By level of education, calculations based on full-time equivalents

單位:人

	初級中等教育	高級中等教育	全部
	(1)	(2)	(3)
中華民國	14.3	18.6	16.5
澳洲 1,2	x (3)	x (3)	12.0
奧地利	9.3	10.1	9.6
比利時 ³	8.1	10.1	9.4
加拿大2	17.7	15.8	17.1
丹麥	11.5	_	_
芬蘭	9.8	17.1	13.7
法國 ³	15.0	9.7	12.3
德國	14.9	13.2	14.4
義大利 ²	11.9	12.1	12.0
日本	14.4	12.2	13.2
南韓	19.7	16.5	18.0
荷蘭 2	x (3)	x (3)	16.5
紐西蘭	16.3	14.4	15.3
挪威2	9.9	9.4	9.7
瑞典	11.4	13.1	12.3
瑞士 1,2	11.8	10.3	11.4
英國	17.1	15.2	16.0
美國	14.0	15.0	14.4
OECD 平均	13.7	13.8	13.8
EU21 平均	11.7	12.5	12.3

^{1.} 僅包括高中教育的普通課程。

資料來源:中華民國資料取自中華民國教育部(2012)。 其餘各國資料取自 OECD(2012)。

^{2.} 僅包括公立學校。

^{3.} 不包括私立學校。

表 2

2010 年我國與 OECD 國家公私立中等學校女性教師百分比——按人 數計算

Table 2

Gender distribution of teachers (2010): Percentage of females among teaching staff in public and private institutions by secondary education, based on head counts

單位:%

	初級中等教育 -		高級中等教育				
	炒 椒中守教自	普通課程	職業課程	全部			
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)			
中華民國	68.1	60.3	52.2	57.7			
奧地利	70.1	61.7	49.5	53.1			
比利時	61.5	x (4)	x (4)	60.2			
加拿大¹	72.4	x (4)	x (4)	72.4			
芬蘭	72.0	69.6	52.4	57.9			
法國	65.1	55.0	51.2	53.9			
德國	63.1	53.2	42.2	49.7			
義大利2	77.0	74.7	56.5	63.0			
日本	40.7	x (4)	x (4)	26.4			
南韓	67.5	46.5	41.0	45.0			
盧森堡	54.6	54.0	45.4	49.7			
墨西哥	51.0	45.2	48.0	45.5			
荷蘭 2	x (4)	48.1	49.8	48.6			
紐西蘭	65.2	59.4	54.2	58.5			
挪威 2	74.2	x (4)	x (4)	49.7			
葡萄牙	71.7	x (4)	x (4)	66.7			
西班牙	57.2	x (4)	x (4)	50.0			
瑞典	67.5	48.1	54.3	52.1			
瑞士2	51.7	43.4	_	43.4			
英國	59.9	60.0	59.6	59.8			
美國	65.6	x (4)	x (4)	56.5			
OECD 平均	68.1	59.4	53.0	56.3			
EU21 平均	69.5	63.5	55.1	59.4			

^{1.} 參考 2009 年資料。

資料來源:中華民國資料取自中華民國教育部(2012)。 其餘各國資料取自 OECD (2012)。

^{2.} 僅公立學校。

表 3

2010 年我國與 OECD 國家接受高級中等以上教育人口百分比——按 年齡分

Table 3

Population that has attained at least upper secondary education (2010):

Percentage, by age group

單位:%

	年齡組別						
	25-64 歳	25-34 歲	35-44 歲	45-54 歲	55-64 歲		
中華民國	72	91	83	62	41		
澳洲	73	85	77	69	58		
奧地利	82	88	86	82	73		
比利時	70	82	78	66	54		
加拿大	88	92	91	88	82		
丹麥	76	80	81	74	68		
芬蘭	83	91	89	85	70		
法國	71	84	77	67	56		
德國	86	86	87	86	83		
希臘	65	79	72	62	44		
義大利	55	71	59	51	38		
南韓	80	98	95	73	43		
盧森堡	78	84	80	75	69		
墨西哥	36	44	37	33	23		
荷蘭	73	83	78	71	61		
紐西蘭	73	79	77	72	62		
挪威	81	83	83	78	79		
波蘭	89	94	92	89	79		
葡萄牙	32	52	34	22	16		
西班牙	53	65	60	48	32		
瑞典	87	91	91	87	77		
瑞士	86	90	87	85	81		
土耳其	31	42	28	24	19		
英國	75	83	78	74	65		
美國	89	88	88	90	90		
OECD 平均	74	82	78	72	62		
EU21 平均	75	83	80	73	64		

資料來源:中華民國資料取自中華民國教育部(2012)。 其餘各國資料取自 OECD(2012)。

表 4 2010 年我國與 OECD 國家中等教育學生百分比——按公私立學校分 Students in secondary education (2010): Distribution of students, by type of institution

單位:%

_	췸	刀級中等教育	Î	F	高級中等教育			
	公立	私立—政 府補助	私立—獨 立經營	公立	私立一政 府補助	私立—獨 立經營		
_	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)		
中華民國	90.1		9.9	53.2		46.8		
澳洲 ¹	65.5	34.5	_	68.3	31.5	0.2		
奧地利	91.0	9.0	x(2)	89.3	10.7	x (5)		
比利時1	40.2	59.8	_	43.3	56.7	_		
加拿大2	91.4	8.6	x(2)	94.2	5.8	x (5)		
丹麥	74.1	25.2	0.7	98.0	1.9	0.1		
芬蘭	95.5	4.5	_	83.9	16.1	_		
法國	78.2	21.5	0.3	68.4	30.6	0.9		
德國	90.8	9.2	x(2)	92.7	7.3	x (5)		
義大利	95.9	_	4.1	89.0	5.9	5.1		
日本	92.8	_	7.2	69.0	_	31.0		
南韓	81.8	18.2	_	54.8	45.2	_		
盧森堡	81.2	10.6	8.2	84.2	6.5	9.3		
紐西蘭	95.1	_	4.9	86.0	9.1	4.9		
挪威	96.8	3.2	x(2)	88.4	11.6	x (5)		
葡萄牙	81.3	6.1	12.7	76.4	4.9	18.6		
西班牙	69.0	27.9	3.2	78.0	12.2	9.7		
瑞典	88.5	11.5	_	84.3	15.7	_		
瑞士	92.0	3.0	5.0	93.2	2.9	3.9		
英國	78.5	15.6	5.8	54.0	40.2	5.8		
美國	91.6	_	8.4	91.6	_	8.4		
OECD 平均	86.1	10.5	3.4	81.4	13.3	5.3		
EU 21 平均	86.8	10.5	2.7	83.3	12.4	4.3		

^{1.} 不包括私立獨立經營學校。

資料來源:中華民國資料取自中華民國教育部(2012)。 其餘各國資料取自 OECD (2012)。

^{2.} 參考 2009 年資料。

表 5 **2010** 年我國與 OECD 國家初級中等教育平均每班學生人數——按公 私立學校分

Average class size, by type of institution (2010)

單位:人 私立 公立 總計 私立總計 私立一政府補助 私立一獨立經營 (1)(3)(4)(5) (2) 中華民國 32.7 31.9 41.7 澳洲 22.8 25.3 23.7 25.3 奧地利 21.9 22.8 x (2) x (2) 22.0 丹麥 20.7 17.3 17.3 20.0 芬蘭 21.7 21.7 20.3 20.2 法國 24.3 25.3 25.5 13.4 24.5 德國 24.7 25.2 25.2 x(3)24.7 希臘 22.0 24.3 24.3 22.1 匈牙利 21.5 20.4 20.4 21.4 義大利 21.3 22.4 22.4 21.3 日本 32.8 34.9 34.9 32.9 南韓 34.9 33.8 34.7 33.8 盧森堡 19.3 19.9 20.0 19.8 19.4 墨西哥 28.0 24.1 24.1 27.6 波蘭 23.2 17.7 23.7 15.9 22.9 葡萄牙 22.1 22.6 23.4 21.5 22.1 西班牙 23.7 25.6 25.8 23.9 24.3 瑞士 18.5 英國 21.1 14.9 18.9 9.6 19.4 美國 19.4 19.4 23.2 23.7 OECD 平均 22.4 22.7 23.4 23.3 20.6 EU21 平均 21.9 21.2 21.7 18.9 21.8

資料來源:中華民國資料取自中華民國教育部(2012)。 其餘各國資料取自 OECD(2012)。

表 6

2010 年我國與 OECD 國家中等教育教師工作時數配當表——按學年 教學週數、日數、淨教學時數、須在校時數,及工作總時數分

Organization of teachers' working time (2010): Number of teaching weeks, teaching days, net teaching hours, and teachers' working time over the school year

單位:小時

	教學	週數	教學	日數	淨教 ^員 (須在核	交時數	總規定時	
	初級	高級	初級	高級	初級	高級	初級	高級	初級	高級
	中等	中等	中等	中等	中等	中等	中等	中等	中等	中等
	教育	教育	教育	教育	教育	教育	教育	教育	教育	教育
小菜豆圆 1	40	40	200	200	720	560				
中華民國 1	40	40	200	200	880	720	_	_	_	_
澳洲	40	40	196	193	819	803	1,135	1,135	_	_
奧地利	38	38	180	180	607	589	_	_	1,776	_
比利時(Fl)	37	37	180	180	675	630	_	_	_	_
比利時 (Fr.)	38	38	183	183	671	610	_	_	_	_
丹麥	42	42	200	200	650	377	_	_	1,680	1,680
芬蘭	38	38	189	189	595	553	709	629	_	_
法國	35	35	_	_	646	632	_	_	_	_
德國	40	40	193	193	756	713	_	_	1,793	1,793
希臘	31	31	153	153	415	415	1,176	1,176	_	_
義大利	39	39	175	175	630	630	_	_	_	_
日本	40	40	201	198	602	500	_	_	1,876	1,876
南韓	40	40	220	220	627	616	_	_	1,680	1,680
紐西蘭	38	38	192	190	845	760	1,251	950	_	_
挪威	38	38	190	190	654	523	1,225	1,150	1,688	1,688
葡萄牙	37	37	173	173	761	761	1,283	1,283	1,456	1,456
西班牙	37	36	176	171	713	693	1,140	1,140	1,425	1,425
英國	38	38	190	190	703	703	1,265	1,265	1,265	1,265
美國	36	36	180	180	1,068	1051	1,381	1,378	1,977	1,998
OECD 平均	38	38	185	183	704	658	1,171	1,114	1,673	1,676
EU21 平均	38	38	182	182	660	629	1,057	1,049	1,598	1,584

^{1.} 根據教育部出版的《教育統計指標之國際比較(2012年版)》第35頁之附註,我國教 師「須在校時數」及「總規定工作時數」尚無明文規範,俟配合《教師法》修正,將 明定高中以下學校教師在校服務工作時間。另「淨教學時數」計算以1節之時間換算。

^{2.} 資料來源:中華民國資料取自中華民國教育部(2012)。 其餘各國資料取自 OECD (2012)。

表 7

2010 年我國與 OECD 國家公立中等教育學校教師初任、15 年資歷與 最高薪資表——以美元和購買力平價指數換算後統計

Teachers' salaries (2010): Annual statutory teachers' salaries in public institutions at starting salary, after 15 years of experience and at the top of the scale by secondary education, in equivalent US dollars converted using PPPs

單位:美元

								平	<u> </u>
	_		初級中	等教育			高級中	等教育	
		最低 起薪	15 年教 學資歷 教師平 均年薪	40 年教 學資歷 教師平 均年薪	40 年教歷平新低比率(%)	最低 起薪	15 教資教平年	40 年教 學資歷 教師平 均年薪	40 學教均占起案(%)
	學士	8,642	27,456	34,921	1.87	18,642	27,456	34,921	1.87
中華民國 1,2,	碩士	21,619	33,146	35,515	1.64	21,619	33,146	35,515	1.64
	博士	23,839	36,106	36,106	1.51	23,839	36,106	36,106	1.51
澳洲		34,321	47,445	47,445	1.38	34,321	47,445	47,445	1.38
奧地利		32,236	44,179	63,361	1.97	32,680	45,425	66,487	2.03
比利時 (Fl)		31,193	44,076	53,949	1.73	38,939	56,638	68,278	1.75
比利時 (Fr.)		30,202	42,792	52,509	1.74	37,736	55,157	66,613	1.77
丹麥		43,393	50,253	50,253	1.16	44,640	58,256	58,256	1.31
芬蘭		31,351	40,451	42,879	1.37	32,276	42,809	45,377	1.41
法國		27,184	35,583	51,301	1.89	27,420	35,819	51,560	1.88
德國		51,058	61,784	68,592	1.34	53,963	66,895	76,433	1.42
義大利		29,122	35,583	43,666	1.50	29,122	36,582	45,653	1.57
日本		25,454	44,788	56,543	2.22	25,454	44,788	58,075	2.28
南韓		26,670	46,232	74,043	2.78	26,670	46,232	74,043	2.78
荷蘭		38,001	61,704	66,403	1.75	38,001	61,704	66,403	1.75
挪威		28,127	42,062	42,062	1.50	28,535	43,116	43,116	1.51
瑞典		29,245	34,481	38,951	1.33	30,650	36,429	41,675	1.36
英國		30,204	44,145	44,145	1.46	30,204	44,145	44,145	1.46
美國		36,772	45,049	55,259	1.50	37,267	48,446	55,199	1.48
OECD 平均		29,801	39,401	47,721	1.60	30,899	41,182	49,721	1.61
EU21 平均		30,202	40,211	47,287	1.57	31,346	42,470	50,139	1.60

^{1.} 教師月薪及年薪計算,均不含兼任行政職務者,及支給主管職務加給。

其餘各國資料取自 OECD (2012)。

^{2.} 年薪係 12 個月月薪加上 1.5 個月年終工作獎金及 1 個月考核獎金。

資料來源:中華民國資料取自中華民國教育部(2012)。

表 8 2010 年我國與 OECD 國家中等學校教師年齡結構百分比——按年齡 分齡分

Age distribution of teachers (2010): By age group, based on head counts

單位:%

		初級	D 中等教	育			高網	級中等	教育	
_	< 30	30-39	40-49	50-59	≥ 60	< 30	30-39	40-49	50-59	≥ 60
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
中華民國	16.4	42.8	30.9	9.3	0.7	12.1	38.6	33.8	13.5	2.0
奧地利	6.5	15.8	33.1	41.9	2.7	5.8	20.0	35.3	34.6	4.2
比利時1	18.1	25.3	24.4	28.8	3.4	15.2	25.2	26.1	29.8	3.8
丹麥	8.6	30.8	23.5	28.1	9.0	_	_	_	_	_
芬蘭 1	11.2	30.2	28.8	25.7	4.1	5.1	21.0	31.4	30.9	11.7
法國	10.8	34.0	25.6	26.3	3.4	5.6	27.1	32.4	30.6	4.4
德國	4.8	19.9	23.5	40.5	11.3	3.1	21.7	28.1	36.3	10.8
義大利2	0.5	11.6	28.1	50.0	9.8	0.4	7.9	32.8	50.0	8.9
日本1	10.8	26.8	40.5	21.2	0.8	8.0	24.2	36.7	28.2	2.8
南韓	14.8	29.8	38.6	16.0	0.7	13.1	29.5	35.6	20.6	1.1
盧森堡	27.0	31.4	20.9	18.7	2.0	12.7	26.5	31.2	26.2	3.4
荷蘭 1,2	12.1	19.1	22.9	35.9	10.0	12.1	19.1	22.9	35.9	10.0
紐西蘭	12.0	23.4	24.6	28.1	12.0	11.1	22.1	24.1	29.5	13.3
挪威 2	12.2	29.6	23.1	24.0	11.1	4.9	20.6	25.9	31.1	17.5
葡萄牙¹	9.9	34.0	32.8	21.2	2.1	10.1	36.4	32.8	18.6	2.1
西班牙	6.2	29.5	35.3	24.5	4.5	5.9	28.9	35.6	25.3	4.4
瑞典	6.8	30.4	26.1	22.7	14.0	6.8	22.9	25.1	27.1	18.1
瑞士 2,3	12.3	26.7	25.5	29.6	5.9	6.9	26.5	29.6	29.6	7.4
英國	22.7	30.3	22.0	21.8	3.2	19.1	27.6	24.4	23.5	5.4
美國	18.4	26.7	23.1	25.1	6.7	15.6	25.8	23.1	26.7	8.8
OECD 平均	11.6	27.2	28.0	27.1	6.2	9.4	25.1	28.7	28.6	8.2
EU21 平均	10.8	27.0	27.8	28.4	5.9	8.7	24.9	29.0	29.6	7.8

^{1.} 高級中等教育包括後中等以上非高等教育。

資料來源:中華民國資料取自中華民國教育部(2012)。 其餘各國資料取自 OECD (2012)。

^{2.} 僅包括公立學校。

^{3.} 僅包含一般普通高中課程。

表9

2009 年我國與 OECD 國家中等教育每生教育經費占平均每人生產毛額比率

Annual expenditure on secondary education per student for all services relative to GDP per capita (2009)

單位:%

	初級中等教育	高級中等教育	全部
	(1)	(2)	(3)
中華民國	23	20	21
澳洲	26	25	25
奧地利	32	33	32
比利時	x (3)	x (3)	29
加拿大 1,2	21	27	23
丹麥	29	29	29
芬蘭	32	22	25
法國	27	38	32
德國	23	31	26
義大利 ²	28	28	28
日本	28	29	29
南韓	28	42	35
荷蘭	28	29	29
紐西蘭	25	30	27
挪威	23	27	25
葡萄牙2	34	36	35
西班牙	30	35	31
瑞典	26	28	27
瑞士2	31	38	35
英國	29	29	29
美國	27	29	28
OECD 平均	26	29	27
EU21 平均	25	29	27

^{1.} 參考 2008 年資料。

資料來源:中華民國資料取自中華民國教育部(2012)。 其餘各國資料取自 OECD(2012)。

^{2.} 僅計入公立學校。

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《教育資料集刊》作者基本資料表

Bulletin of Educational Resources and Research Basic Information of Contributors

姓名 (Name)	中文 (Chinese): 英文 (English): (last name) (first name)	投稿日期 (Date of Submission)	年 (Year, m	月 onth, c	日 day)		
投稿題目 (Paper-Title)	中文 (Chinese): 英文 (English):						
共同撰稿者 (Co-authors, if there is any)	請依作者之排行順序列出共同 冤塡(in alphabetic order)1),如爲	單一作	F者 —		
擬投稿之性質 (Column)	專輯主題 (Topic) : 輯別 (Vol.) :						
稿件字數 (Word Count)	稿件全文(含中英文摘要、正文 (請務必填寫) Total Word Count: [] wor references, figures, etc.	文、參考文獻、圖表等 rds, including Chines			字。 ract,		
服務單位與職稱 (Institution & Position)	中文 (Chinese):服務單位〔 英文 (English): Institution〔	〕職和 〕Posit)		
最高學歷 (Highest Academic Degree)		學術專長 (Academic field)					
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茲保證以上所填資料無誤,且本文未同時一稿多投、違反學術倫理、或侵犯他人著作權,如有違反,責任由作者自負。 I hereby declare that the above information is correct, that no part of my paper has been published							
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作者簽名 (Author's Sig	作者簽名 (Author's Signature):						

《教育資料集刊》徵稿辦法

中華民國 95 年 8 月 18 日編輯委員會訂定 中華民國 96 年 6 月 08 日編輯委員會修訂 中華民國 97 年 8 月 13 日編輯委員會修訂 中華民國 98 年 4 月 15 日編輯委員會議通過修訂第 6 點 中華民國 100 年 1 月 10 日編輯委員會議通過修訂第 5 點 中華民國 100 年 11 月 15 日編輯委員會議通過修訂第 1、 2、3、4、5、6、7、8、9、10 點

- 一、本院《教育資料集刊》自95年度起針對歐、美、亞、澳洲等國各級教育發展趨勢及其重要教育政策興革等深入探討,期透過系統地搜集與匯整國外教育發展及教育政策等重要資訊,提升對各國教育與發展之比較研究,俾促進國內教育之國際化發展。
- 二、本刊爲季刊,每年出版4輯,於3、6、9、12月出刊。
- 三、本刊全年收稿,隨到隨審,來稿將於收件後5個月內回復審查結果。

四、撰稿原則

- (一)來稿請用電腦橫打(請用 Word 文字、新細明體 12 號字、單行間距存檔),並必須符合國科會人文與社會處「臺灣社會科學引文索引」資料庫(Taiwan Social Science Citation Index, TSSCI)之學術規範,文長以 13,000 字為原則,不超過 20,000字(含中英文摘要、注釋、參考文獻、附錄、圖表等);稿紙大小以 A4 紙張為準。
- (二)來稿文字請附件中英文摘要(含關鍵字 3 5 組);中文摘要請勿超過350字,英文摘要請勿超過200字;行文請言簡意賅。
- (三)來稿所附之 Word 電子檔的檔案名,請務必依來稿的西元年月日、第一作者姓名、篇名全名等順序書寫。如投稿者王秀英於2005年2月9日寄來一篇「臺灣教育研究資料數位化和運用之分析」,則檔名應如下:「20050209王秀英臺灣教育研究資料數位化和運用之分析」。
- (四)來稿之編排順序爲中文摘要、英文摘要、正文、附錄、附注、

參考文獻(請用APA格式);APA格式請參考本刊或本刊之「撰 稿格式說明」,並請在中文參考文獻中加討英文譯名(詳見撰 稿格式)。若不符合此項規定者,本刊得退稿或請作者修改後 再行送審。

- (五)若有致謝詞,請於涌知稿件接受刊登後再加上,並至於正文後, 長度請勿超過60字。
- (六)爲審查客觀故,正文及中英文摘要中請勿出現任何可辨識個人 資料者。
- 五、來稿如有一稿兩投(含投送其他刊物正審查中,或研討會發表論 文後編輯成專書者)、抄襲、違反學術倫理、侵犯他人著作權和 涉及言論責任之糾紛,除由作者自負相關的法律責任外,2年內 本刊不再接受該作者投稿。
- 六、本刊於出刊前1個月寄發收稿證明或退稿通知,如投稿後1個月 未收到仟何涌知,請來電或來兩查詢。本院地址爲臺北市大安區 (106) 和平東路一段 179 號 8 樓,國家教育研究院教育資源及 出版中心, 傳真: (02) 23582497, 電話: (02) 33225558 轉 112 或 115; 本刊聯絡電子信箱爲: quarterly@mail.naer.edu.tw
- 七、本刊採匿名審查制度,由本刊總編輯或編輯委員聘請相關學者專 家 2 人審查之; 凡經審查委員要求修改之文稿, 應干作者修改後 再由編輯委員會決定是否刊登。
- 八、來稿若經採用,發給「正式接受刊登證明」;惟因本刊編輯需要, 保有文字刪修權。
- 九、來稿一經刊登,本刊將敬贈作者當期集刊2冊,中文稿件每千字 新臺幣800元,英文稿件每千字新臺幣1,000元,最高新臺幣8,500 元;民國102年以後不再給稿費,但屬特殊性及特殊激稿者例外。 著作財產權歸屬本刊所有,凡經本刊錄用刊載之稿件,本院可全 文刊載於本院刊物、網頁或相關出版品。爾後作者另行出版或轉 登其他書刊,依本院著作授權利用作業要點規定辦理。
- 十、本辦法經本刊編輯委員會議通過後實施,修正時亦同。

《教育資料集刊》徵稿主題

每年截 稿月份	每年出 刊月份	出版主題	說明
10 月	3月	各國初等教育 (含幼兒教育)	一、各國各級教育之「教育理論與思潮」、「教育政策與行政」、「課程與教學」等發展趨勢及主要議題、實
1月	6月	各國中等教育	務現況或優、缺點分 析、特色說明,其及 對我國各級教育之啓 示或可供借鏡者;各 主題均可涵蓋師資培
4 月	9月	各國技職教育	育相關內容。 二、自民國 98 年起,原 「各國教育變革與發 展」融入各級教育論 述。
7月	12 月	各國高等教育	三、各國教育重要議題與 趨勢之比較等文稿更 受歡迎。(亦歡迎兩 個及以上之國家教育 之比較)

《教育資料集刊》徵稿審稿辦法

中華民國 95 年 10 月 13 日編輯委員會訂定 中華民國 101 年 11 月 16 日編輯委員會修正

青、審稿流程

本刊之審查包括預審、初審、複審。

一、預審

- (一) 本刊編輯部門就來稿做初步預審,凡符合本刊之性質、形式要 件(包括字數、格式、體例等)及嚴謹程度者進行審查。
- (二)不符合本刊性質、形式要件、嚴謹程度者,由主編(總編輯) 確定後,逕予退稿。

二、初審

- (一) 預審通過之文章由主編(總編輯) 聘請兩位評審人匿名審查。
- (二)初審意見分爲4類:1.推薦採用、2.修正後不必再送原審者看 過即採用、3. 修正後再送原審者審查、4. 不予採用。

刊登建議
□推薦採用
□修正後不必再送原審者看過即採用
□修正後再送原審者審査
□不予採用

(三)初審之稿件依兩位匿名審查者之審查意見決定稿件之處理方式 (詳見下表所示)。

【審查標準表】

意見二	推薦採用	修正後 即可採用	修正後再 送原審者	不予採用
推薦採用	採用	採用	作者修改	送第三審
修正後 即可採用	採用	採用	作者修改	送第三審
修正後再 送原審者	作者修改	作者修改	作者修改	退稿
不予採用	送第三審	送第三審	退稿	退稿

三、複審

- (一)凡審稿者建議「修正後再送原審者審查」之文稿,由編輯委員會去函請作者修改,作者需於兩星期內修改完畢,將修改後之文章,連同「修改說明」及「答辯說明」,寄回編輯委員會,由編輯委員會交原評審人審查。編輯委員會則於複審意見寄回後,根據複審意見及稿件數量決定採用與否。
- (二)複審之審查規準與表格同初審意見表,惟刊登建議之部分只分 「推薦刊登」、「修正後不必再送原審者看過即刊登」、「拒 絕刊登」三級。

貳、稿件修正與刊登

- 一、凡經編輯委員會決議考慮接受刊登之文章,投稿者須根據審查委員意見及本刊格式要求修改,並於規定之期限內寄回修正稿件、 修改說明、答辯說明,否則恕難如期刊登。
- 二、寄回之修正稿件將交由編輯委員會審查,如未能依照審稿意見及 本刊格式要求修改或提出適當答辯者,經編輯委員會之決議,得 暫緩或撤銷刊登。
- 三、修正之稿件經主編審查合宜者提請編輯委員會複審通過後,將發給<接受刊登證明>,作者於接獲本刊之<接受刊登證明>後,需於一星期內寄回修正稿件、磁片或 E-mail(以 word 檔儲存)、授權同意書,以利出版,否則恕難如期刊登。

參、審稿作業原則

- 一、編輯委員會就來稿主題,推薦國內外該領域之專家進行評審。
- 二、編輯委員會積極了解審稿者之審稿品質,並建立審稿者資料庫, 作爲推薦審查委員之依據,以確保本刊稿件品質,提升學術對話 水準。
- 三、本刊之編輯委員及編務相關人員如有投稿本期刊,不得出列席參 與所投文稿之任何討論,亦不得經手處理或保管與個人稿件相關 之任何資料。
- 四、審查委員名單之推薦,編輯委員會除本最大知能推薦適合之專業

- 審查人員外,並斟酌考量投稿者與評審人間之利害關係(如論文 指導關係、同事關係等),迴避不適合之審稿者。
- 五、不論審稿中或審稿後,編輯委員會及編務行政人員對於投稿者與 審稿者之資料負保密之責,稿件審查以匿名爲原則。
- 六、審查委員進行審稿作業,請依審稿標準表列之條件註記審查結果 與建議修正意見,並於期限內完成審查作業,若有特殊情況,得 由主編(總編輯)另聘審查委員審稿。

建、撤稿

- 一、投稿者撤稿之要求,需以書面(掛號交寄)提出。
- 二、爲避免資源浪費,凡投稿本刊之文章,如於初審階段提出撤稿要 求,本刊1年內不接受投稿。
- 三、初審完成,編輯委員會去函要求修改之文章(含修改後再審及接 受刊登者),需於正式通知寄出後兩星期內修改完畢並寄回本刊 編輯委員會,否則視同自動撤稿。
- 四、因大幅修改需延期交稿者,需以書面(掛號交寄)通知本刊編輯 委員會,本刊統一給予4星期之時間修改。如未能於規定期限內 修改完成者,亦視同撤稿。惟有特殊原因者,得提出書面說明, 修改期限另外計算。

《教育資料集刊》撰稿格式說明

中華民國 96 年 1 月 30 日編輯委員會議通過 中華民國 99 年 1 月 26 日編輯委員會議修正通過 中華民國 100 年 1 月 10 日編輯委員會議依照 APA 六版格式修正通過

本刊撰稿格式除依照一般學術文章撰寫注意事項和格式外,內文和參考文獻一律採用 APA 格式第六版手冊(Publication manual of American Psychological Association, 6th edition, 2010);且爲符合 SSCI 格式,中文參考文獻請同時用英文呈現,若無英文者,請用漢譯。茲舉隅說明如下:

一、年代部分,無論中、西文,一律統一以西元呈現;中文括號以全 形()、西文以半形()的格式爲之。

- 羅肇錦(2008)指出,臺灣客家話的推展是個尷尬地帶。
- $\cdots\cdots$ Kessler (2003) found that among epidemiological samples $\cdots\cdots$ \circ
- 二、文末「參考文獻」之括號,中文以全形()、西文以半形()、 英譯部分以中括號[]爲之:第二行起空4個位元。 參考文獻範例:
 - 施正鋒(2007)。臺灣少數族群的政策探討。**教育資料與研究雙** 月刊,專刊,59-76。 [Shih, C. F. (2007). Minority policy in Taiwan. *Educational Resources and Research, Special Issue*, 59-76.]
 - 溫明麗(2006)。PACT 道德規範模式在網絡倫理的運用——本質與內涵分析。**當代教育研究 14**(3),1-24。 [Wen, M. L. (2006). PACT ethical mode and its application for internet (IT) ethics. *Contemporary Educational Research Quarterly*, *14*(3), 1-24.]
 - Mountifield, H. (2004). The Kate Edgar information commons: A student-centred learning environment and catalyst for integrated

learning support and e-literacy development. Journal of E-literacy, 1(2), 82-96.

- 三、文稿若以中文爲之,則引號一律使用「」;西文稿件則用英文標 號格式 ""。
 - (一)中文稿件範例:
 - ……研究者決定選自「自我規範」、「情緒調整」及「激發動機」 等三個層面來選題。
 - (二) 两文稿件節例:
 -, the researchers developed a "Teachers' Beliefs about Teaching Art" questionnaire to conduct this survey.
- 四、文中段落標號格式分別如下:

賣、(不用空位元,須粗體)

一、(不用空位元,須粗體)

(一) (4個位元) 1. (6個位元) (1)(8個位元)

五、文中使用之圖、表標題皆須置於上方,並靠左對齊,且與內文前 後各空一行,除作者自行製作者外,均須註明如參考文獻般詳細 的資料來源(含作者,篇、書名,頁碼,年代,出版地,出版單 位等);表號用新細明體12號字、不粗體,表名另起一行,新 細明體 12 號字且須粗體;圖號與圖名同一行,均不須粗體,但 圖名需用新細明體 14 號字。

節例:

表 1 表號自行一行;表名稱須粗體,且須與表格對齊;表內年代置中,數字靠右對齊 少子化與高齡化的對照表 單位:萬人

年別(西元)	大學學齡人口 (18 - 21 歲)	65 歲以上人口	
2006	128	226	
2016	123	302	
2026	80	475	
2051	51	686	

資料來源:作者整理自簡太郎(2007)。臺灣人口政策與人口結構變遷之探討。教育 資料與研究,74,19。

表 2 九年一貫課程改革前後之課程比較表

改革前之舊課程		
課程標準		
學科知識本位		
國定本教科書		
固定課程		

資料來源:溫明麗(2008)。**教育 101:教育理論與實踐**(頁 284)。臺北市:高等 教育。

表3

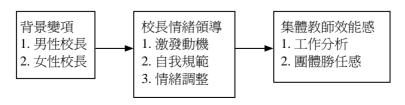
多元文化在臺灣課程改革中的定位一覽表

歷年的課程標準 對多元文化 的詮釋與處理	生 1993 年以前的 課程標準	1993 年的 課程標準	1998 年 課程綱要
對多元文化的銓釋	壓抑多元文化的論 述,強調中華文化 的主流價值。		鼓勵、強調多元文 化
課程處理多元文化 的方式	排除	添加	融入

資料來源:陳美如(2004)。多元文化社會如何可能?——多元文化課程在課程改革 之後的省思與作爲。載於莊明貞(主編),**課程改革:反省與前瞻**(頁 152)。臺北市:高等教育。

圖1 研究概念架構圖

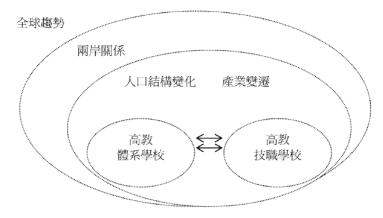
標題須置左,圖號 12號字,圖名稱為 14號字,均不必粗體



資料來源: 蔡進雄(2009)。國民中小學校長領導之研究: 專業、情結與靈性的觀點(頁 193)。臺北市: 高等教育。

圖 2 影響高等技職教育發展的重要環境因素關係圖

標題須置左,圖號 12 號字,圖名稱為 14 號字,均不必和體



資料來源:吳靖國、林騰蛟(2010)。臺灣高等技職教育發展的理論性反思。**教育資** 料集刊,47,6。

六、(一) 超過 40 字以上之全文引用: 本刊文章統一使用電腦 Word 「新細明體」12號字體;文中引用其他說明、佐證或直接引用若 超過 40 字,均須將前引文內縮 6 個位元,並以「標楷體」11 號 字體呈現,該引言與內文前後各空一行;中文年代後用「:」, 英文年代後用逗點,並須加上「p.」,請參見範例一~四。未超 過40字之全文引用,請參見範例五。

範例一:

日本的綜合學習課程主要是:

回應鬆綁、競爭政策、全球化等日本政府和財經界朝向的經濟 結構改革、國家改造以及社會變化所要求的人才,是在培育競 爭主義的人力和資質。(歐用生,2005:19)

範例二:

······Ricoeur 及 Ihde 指出現象學不足之處。他說:

現象學一方面批判人文科學間接採用自然科學的客觀性的方 法,此批判直接間接地與詮釋學相關。狄爾泰也同樣地企圖讓 人文科學具有自然科學般的客觀性。 (Ricoeur & Ihde (Eds.), 2000, p. 8)

範例三:

·····年會中,Counts 指出:

除非進步主義教育走向無政府狀態或極端個人主義,其最大的弱點在於缺乏社會主義之嚴謹理論。(引自 Graham, 1967, p. 64)

節例四:

……楊深坑(2008:14) 認為

解除了壓抑和宰制結構是否即足以導致公義社會的實現,仍有個人是否有足夠的能力自我實現之問題。

節例五:

······國家重要學術獎項之評選上亦應重新調整,避免理工領域、期刊爲主,產生壓倒性之影響(王如哲,2011:106)。

七、字詞使用一律依據教育部「法律統一用字」之規定爲之。 節例:

公「布」(非「佈」)、「教」師(非「老」師,除非冠上姓氏)、「占」20%(非「佔」)、「了」解(非「瞭」解)、「臺」灣(非「台」灣)。

八、文中數字的使用,請用阿拉伯數字表之。

範例:

……以臺東縣爲例,英語科抽測 48 人,母群有 3,220 人……答對率 0.71(或.71),95% 信賴水準之信賴區間爲 0.13(或.13)。 ……2003 年臺灣國二學生的數學得分爲 585 分,排名第 4,排在前 3 名的國家依序是新加坡、韓國及香港,其分數分別爲 605 分,589 分和 586 分。 九、表格使用水平線條(直線線條毋須呈現),表號與表名分行,表 名需粗體,且資料來源須依照撰稿格式五之說明;表格若跨頁需 在跨頁前註明「續下頁」,跨頁表頭不須註明「續」;表若非引 自其他資料者,不必標示資料出處。

範例:

表名稱須粗體,且須與表格對齊

表 4 品質標準取向下品質內涵之向度表

向 度	品質定義	實例	測量方式
範疇	品質無法界定,但可 被認知。	天生智能或美貌。	無法測量,但可被具 敏銳度者所知覺。
產品本位	在每一個價值屬性的 單位上表現出無價的 特質。	超越消費者渴望之特徵。	超越期待之特徵。
使用者本位	適用:滿足消費者。	實現消費者之期待。	消費者滿意之水準。
過程本位	與規格相一致。	可信的。	根據所承諾的測量。
價値本位	最佳價格、實際上最 好用。	把錢花在刀口上。	每單位成本之效率。
系統本位	提供服務以滿足消費 者之制度。	與品質保證相一致的 制度。	制度是適當的與一致 的。
文化	組織透過訓練、科技 及工具之整合,以確 保消費者滿意度之常 態性文化。	品質是組織各部門間 之共識。	檢測組織是否以統整 方式確保消費者滿 意。

十、統計資料表之註記與符號均須清楚說明,數字須靠右對齊,只需 呈現上下格線。

節例:

表 5 批判思考能力總量表及各項技巧之t考驗表

量表/技巧	人數	平均數	標準差	<i>t</i> 値
批判思考能力總量表				-5.99**
前測	22	13.41	2.97	
後測	22	15.59	2.77	

(續下頁)

量表 / 技巧	人數	平均數	標準差	t 値
「辨認假設」技巧				-1.32
前測	22	2.77	1.27	
後測	22	3.14	1.04	
「推論」技巧				-2.22*
前測	22	3.09	0.75	
後測	22	3.55	1.06	
「演繹」技巧				-2.00
前測	22	3.32	1.32	
後測	22	3.73	1.20	
「解釋」技巧				-2.14*
前測	22	1.95	1.25	
後測	22	2.55	1.06	
「評鑑」技巧				-1.32
前測	22	2.27	0.90	
後測	22	2.64	0.98	

^{*}p<.05 **p<.01

十一、參考文獻格式

(一)期刊類格式包括作者、篇名、期刊名、卷期數、起迄頁碼等均須齊全,且中文期刊刊名爲粗體(中文須英譯或漢譯;但請盡可能英譯),西文爲斜體,並自第二行起空4個字元。

節例:

吳清山、高家斌 (2008)。臺灣中等教育改革分析: 1994-2007。教育資料集刊,34,3-24。 [Wu, C. S., & Kao, C. P. (2008). The analysis on the reform of secondary education in Taiwan: 1994-2007. Bulletin of National Institute of Educational Resources and Research, 34, 3-24,]

楊深坑(2008)。社會公義、差異政治與教育機會均等的新視野。**當代教育研究,16**(4),1-37。[Yang, S. K.(2008). Social justice, politics of difference and a new perspective of educational equity. *Contemporary Educational Research Quarterly*, 16(4), 1-37.]

Wilson, B. (2003). Of diagram and rhizomes: Visual culture,

contemporary art, and the impossibility of mapping the content for art education. *Studies in Art Education*, 44(3), 214-229.

(二)書籍類格式包括作者、出版年、書名、出版地、出版單位 等均須齊全,且中文書名爲粗體(中文須英譯或漢譯), 西文爲斜體,並自第二行起空4個位元。 範例:

- 溫明麗(2008)。教育哲學——本土教育哲學的建構。臺北市:三民[Wen, M. L. (2008). Philosophy of education: The construction of Taiwan's idea of education. Taipei: Shan Ming.]
- Murier, T. (2009). Indicator of job's market of 2009— Commented results for the period 2003-2009. Switzerland: Federal Statistical Office.
- (三)書籍篇章格式包括作者、出版年、篇章名、編著者、書名、 起迄頁碼、出版地、出版單位等均須齊全,且中文的書名 爲粗體(中文須英譯或漢譯),西文爲斜體,並自第二行 起空4個位元。

- 林天祐(2004)。校務評鑑專業化的探討。載於張明輝(主編),教育政策與教育革新(頁319-340)。臺北市:心理。[Ling, T. Y. (2004). Xiaowu pingjian zhuanyehua de tantao. In M. H. Chang (Ed.), *Jiaoyu zhengce yu jiaoyugexin* (pp. 319-340). Taipei: Psychological Publishing.]
- 秦夢群(2004)。教育的基本課題。載於**教育概論**(頁 1-39)。臺北市:高等教育。〔Chin, M. C. (2004). Jiaoyu de jiben keti . In M. C. Chin (Ed.), *Introductaion* to education (pp. 1-39). Taipei: Higher Education.〕
- Bordo, S. (1990). Feminism, postmodernism and gender-scepticism. In L. J. Nicholson (Ed.), *Feminism*/

Postmodernism (pp. 133-157). New York & London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.

(四)翻譯書籍格式包括譯者、出版年、原作者、書名、出版地、 出版單位等均須齊全,目中文書名爲粗體,而文爲斜體, 並自第二行起空4個位元。

範例:

- 黄 藿 (譯) (2001)。 哲 學 概 論 (原 作 者: R. P. Wolff)。臺北市: 學富。「Wolff, R. P. (1998), About philosophy. (H. Huang, Trans.). Taipei: Pro-Ed.
- Habermas, J. (1987). The theory of communicative action (T. McCarthy, Trans.). Cambridge: Beacon. (Original work published 1981)
- (五)附註需於標點之後,並以上標爲之;附註之說明請於同一 頁下方區隔線下說明,說明文字第二行起應和第一行的文 字對齊。

節例:

1864年法國政府首次允許勞工享有及結計權。1

- ……第五站也是最後一站——「徐家夥房」。教師從外面 的堂號2介紹起,東海堂的堂在中間的是客家式建築,堂 在後面的是閩南式建築。
- (六)國內、外會議之硏討會論文皆須列出作者、會議舉辦年及 月份、發表文章篇名(若有主持人,則該場次主題名稱或 **該文文題須粗體**,西文須斜體)、會議舉辦地點、會議名 稱(若無主持人,則會議名稱須粗體,並加上「」;西文 須斜體,且第一個字母均需大寫)、及會議地點等,若有 主持人須加註「(主持)」,且自第二行起空4個位元(中 文均須英譯或漢譯)。

¹臺資方(老闆)在稍早之前即已取得結社權。

² 爲 品 先 發 祥 地 的 郡 號 或 地 名 , 由 堂 號 可 以 看 出 這 個 家 族 在 大 陸 的 祖 籍 。 姓 氏 堂 號 意 味 著飲水思源,慎終追遠不忘根本之意,不同姓氏其堂號各異。

- 蔡錦玲(2007年10月)。臺灣的海洋教育:推動海洋科技教育與產業的連結。賴義雄(主持),**日本、美國、及臺灣的海洋教育**。海洋教育國際研討會,國立科學工藝博物館,高雄市。 [Tsai, C. L. (2007). Marine education in Taiwan: Building a closer link between marine science/technology education and industries. In Lai, R. Y. (Chair), *Marine education in Japan, the United States, and Taiwan*. International Symposium on Promotion of Marine Education, National Science and Technolocy Museum, Kaohsiung.]
- Robbins, J. H. (1995, February). School partnership enacted:
 The consociate school. Paper presented at the *Annual Meeting of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education*, Washington, DC.
- Muellbauer, J. (2007, September). Housing credit and consumer expenditure. In S. S. Ludvigson (Chair), *Housing and consumer behavior.* Symposium conducted at the meeting of the Federal Reserve Bank of Kansas City, Jackson Hole, WY.
- (七)網路資料的格式包括作者、出版年、篇名(中文粗體,西文斜體)、網址等均須齊全;若爲電子郵件或部落格資料等,則須加註日期,名稱不需粗體。第二行起空4個位元(中文均須英譯或漢譯)。

- 楊國賜(2006)。**我國大學自我評鑑機制與運作之探討**。 取自 http://www.kmu.edu.tw/~devel/school-devel/236. doc [Yang, K. S. (2006). *Woguo daxue ziwo pingjian jizhi yu yunzuo zhi tantao*. Retrieved from http://www.kmu.edu.tw/~devel/school-devel/236.doc]
- Glocal Forum. (2008). Glocalization: What does it mean? Retrieved from http://www.glocalforum.

範例:

org/?id=197&id_p=193&lng=en

- Smith, S. (2006, January 5). *Re: Disputed estimates of IQ* [Electronic mailing list message]. Retrieved from http://tech.groups.yahoo.com/group/ForensicNetwork/message/670
- (八)學位論文格式包括論文作者、年份、論文名稱(中文爲粗體,西文爲斜體)、論文校、系所名稱、學位類型、出版狀況、學校所在縣市、鄉鎮等均須齊全且自第二行起空4個位元(中文均須英譯或漢譯)。
 - 嚴振農(2010)。女性校長職業生涯困境與轉折:批判俗 民誌的應用(未出版之博士論文)。國立暨南國際大 學教育政策與行政學系,埔里鎮。[Yen, C. N. (2010). A study on professional career barriers and transition of primary female principal: The application on critical ethnography (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Department of Educational Policy and Administration, National Chi Nan University, Puli.]
 - Wilfley, D. E. (1989). *Interpersonal analyses of bulimia:*Normal weight and obese (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Missouri, Columbia.

國家教育研究院期刊雜誌著作授權利用書

作者(即撰稿人)於《 》所發表之	
論 文:	
, 同意下列所載事項:	
一、作者擔保本著作有授權利用之權利,並擔保本著作並無不	法
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