



在職校長 專業發展需要分析課程

香港校長專業發展需要分析辦公室



焦點六：

學生與學習

焦點



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在職校長專業發展需要分析課程
焦語六·學生與學習

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那麼，我們該為那孩子做些什麼？

許多校長對學生皆秉持「一個都不能少」的信念。校長是**教學及教育**的領袖，每一天都需要就學生的生活、提昇學校整體水平及**為學校爭取更佳成績**作不同的決策。也許，身為在職校長的你，對這些項目實在游刃有餘。但你究竟有多優秀？



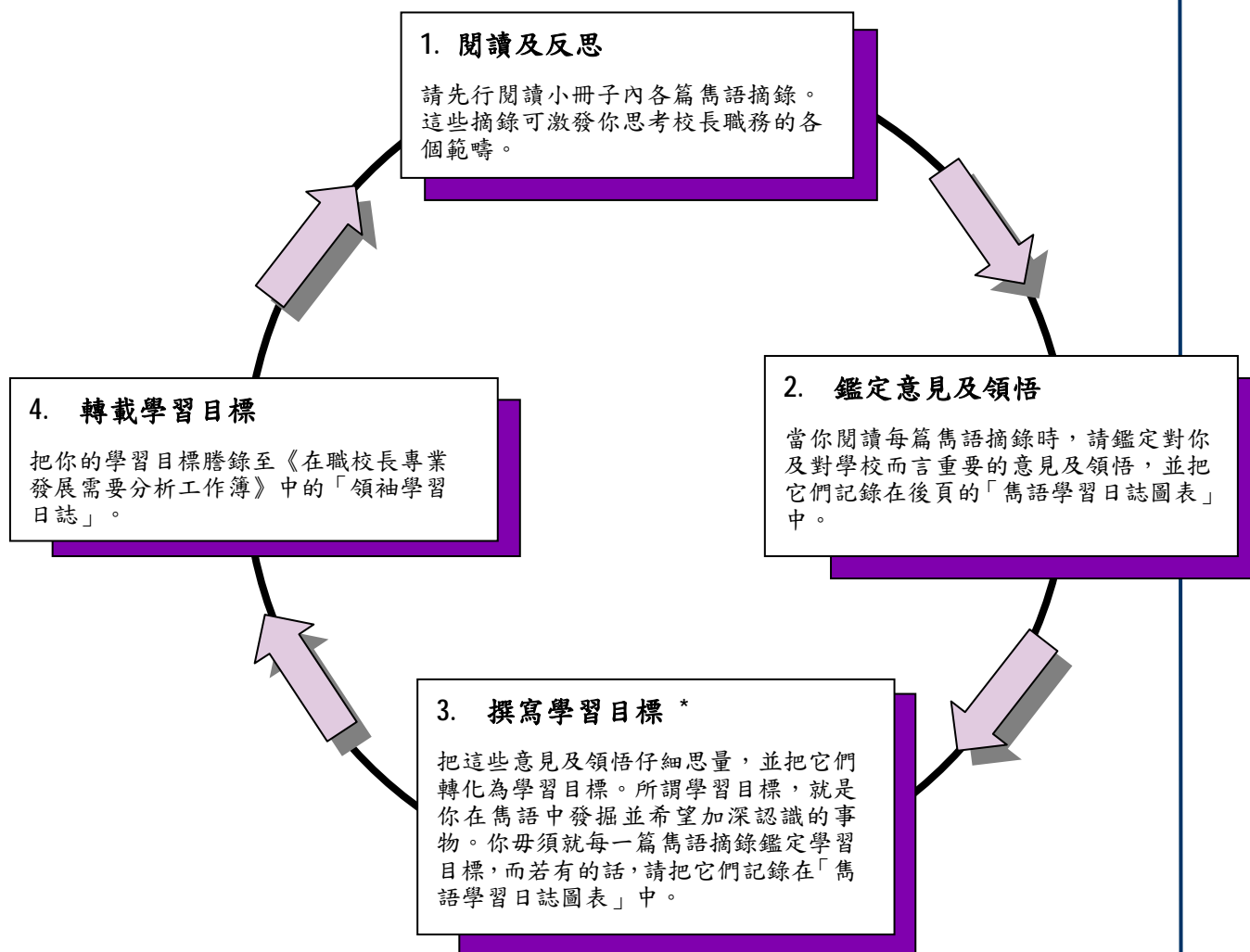
「整體而言，教育就是喚醒年青人天生的求知慾，
然後滿足他們的一種藝術。」

— 阿納托爾·法郎士《西維斯特·博拉德的罪行》
(Anatole France, *The Crime of Sylvestre Bonnard*)

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使用說明



* 學習目標就是你在雋語中發掘並希望加深認識的事物，它應與你從雋語中所鑑定的意見及領悟相關。

雋語學習日誌圖表

日誌是一份記錄或日記，記載你在閱讀雋語後所取得的進展。

下列為「雋語學習日誌圖表」的結構及騰錄例子。

日期	雋語篇章	從雋語中啟發的意見及領悟	學習目標
8/5/05	雋語（六）： 什麼是電子書本？	什麼是電子書本？它們是否物有所值？	目標： 探視在自己學校中使用電子書本的可行性 - 聯同英文科主任及圖書館主任發展一項計畫，研究這個提議是否可以節省費用。

當你閱讀小冊子內各雋語摘錄時，請填寫下頁的圖表，然後將學習目標騰錄至《在職校長專業發展需要分析工作簿》中的「領袖學習日誌」。

雋語學習日誌圖表：學生與學習

日期	雋語摘錄	從雋語中啟發的意見及領悟	學習目標

*將最重要的學習目標騰錄至《在職校長專業發展需要分析工作簿》中的「領袖學習日誌」。

焦點學習日誌圖表：學生與學習

日期	雋語摘錄	從雋語中啟發的意見及領悟	學習目標

*將最重要的學習目標騰錄至《在職校長專業發展需要分析工作簿》中的「領袖學習日誌」。

雋語摘錄一 • Confessions of an Instructional Leader

When I entered the principalship a quarter century ago, the research on effective schools warned that without strong administrative leadership, the disparate elements of good schooling could be neither brought together nor kept together. I heeded the message and embraced my role as a strong leader with gusto. I was determined to rise above the mundane managerial tasks of the job and focus instead on instruction—I hoped to be an *instructional leader*. I asked teachers to submit their course syllabi and curriculum guides so that I could monitor what they were teaching. I collected weekly lesson plans to ensure that teachers were teaching the prescribed curriculum. I read voraciously about instructional strategies in different content areas and shared pertinent articles with staff members.

But my devotion to the clinical supervision process at the school was the single greatest illustration of my commitment to function as an instructional leader. I developed a three-part process that required me to be a student of good teaching and to help teachers become more reflective and insightful about their instruction.

During the pre-observation conference, I met with teachers individually and asked them to talk me through the lesson I would be observing in their classroom. I asked a series of questions, including, ‘What will you teach? How will you teach it? What instructional strategies will you use? What instructional materials will you use?’ During the classroom observation, I worked furiously to script as accurately as possible what the teacher said and did.

During the postobservation conference, the teacher and I reconstructed the lesson from my notes and his or her recollections. We looked for patterns or trends in what the teacher had said and done and we discussed the relationship between those patterns and the lesson’s objectives. Finally, I asked the teacher what he or she might change in the lesson before teaching it again. I then wrote a summary of the classroom observation and our postobservation discussion, offered recommendations for effective teaching strategies and suggested ways in which the teacher might become more effective.

The observation process was time-consuming, but I was convinced that my focus on individual teachers and their instructional strategies was an effective use of my time. The process was not without benefits. As a new pair of eyes in the classroom, I was able to help teachers become aware of unintended instructional or classroom management patterns. I could express my appreciation for the wonderful work that teachers were doing because I had witnessed it firsthand. I observed powerful instructional strategies and was able to share those strategies with other teachers. I learned a lot about what effective teaching looks like.

In Hot Pursuit of the Wrong Questions

Eventually, after years as a principal, I realized that even though my efforts had been well intentioned—and even though I had devoted countless hours each school year to those efforts—I had been focusing on the wrong questions. I had focused on the questions, ‘What are the teachers teaching? How can I help them to teach it more effectively?’ Instead, my efforts should have been driven by the questions, ‘To what extent are the students learning the intended outcomes of each course? What steps can I take to give both students and teachers the additional time and support they need to improve learning?’

This shift from a focus on teaching to a focus on learning is more than semantics. When learning becomes the preoccupation of the school, when all the school’s educators examine the efforts and initiatives of the school through the lens of their impact on learning, the structure and culture of the school begin to change in substantive ways. Principals foster this structural and cultural transformation when they shift their emphasis from helping individual teachers improve instruction to helping teams of teachers ensure that students achieve the intended outcomes of their schooling. More succinctly, teachers and students benefit when principals function as *learning leaders* rather than *instructional leaders*.

Extracted from

Du Four, R. (2002) *The Learning Centered Principal. Educational Leadership*, 59(8): 12-15.
<http://www.ascd.org/frameedlead.html>, 9 October 2003.

Principals as Instructional Leaders

The six standards focus on building the principal's ability in:

- Leading schools in a way that puts student and adult learning at the centre.
- Promoting the academic success of all students by setting high expectations and high standards and organising the school environment around school achievement.
- Creating and demanding rigorous content and instruction that ensures student progress toward agreed-upon academic standards.
- Creating a climate of continuous learning for adults that is tied to student learning.
- Using multiple sources of data as a diagnostic tool to assess, identify, and apply instructional improvement.
- Actively engaging the community to create shared responsibility for student and school success.

Extracted from:

National Association of Elementary School Principals (NAESP) (2001). *Leading learning communities: Standards for what principals should know and be able to do*. Alexandria:VA

雋語摘錄二 · How to be an Instructional Leader

Current literature about instructional leadership falls into four broad areas. First, prescriptive models describe instructional leadership as the integration of the tasks of direct assistance to teachers, group development, staff development, curriculum development and action research; as a democratic, developmental and transformational activity based on equality and growth; as an inquiry-oriented endeavour that encourages teacher voice; and as a discursive, critical study of classroom interaction to achieve social justice. Second, studies of instructional leadership, though few in number, include exploratory studies of indirect effects of principal-teacher instructional conferences and behaviours such as the effects of monitoring student progress. Third, studies of direct effects of principal behaviour on teachers and classroom instruction include synthesis of research demonstrating the relationship between certain principal behaviours and teacher commitment, involvement and innovation. Fourth, studies of direct and indirect effects on student achievement include reviews of studies investigating the principal's role (e.g. use of constructs such as participative leadership and decentralized decision making) in school effectiveness.

In sum, *talking with teachers to promote reflection* and *promoting professional growth* are the two major dimensions of effective instructional leadership, as reported by teachers. Overall, our data indicate that each of the instructional leadership strategies described above have strong "enhancing effects" on teachers, emotionally, cognitively and behaviourally. We also note that principals who are defined as effective instructional leaders by teachers tended to use a wide range of the strategies described in this article. These strategies were used frequently and seem to enhance one another.

Moreover, principal leadership reflected a firm belief in teacher choice and discretion, nonthreatening and growth-oriented interaction and sincere and authentic interest. Teachers were not forced to teach

in limited ways, nor were they criticized by their instructional leaders. Put differently, our findings suggest that effective instructional leadership should avoid restrictive and intimidating approaches to teachers, as well as approaches that provoke little more than "dog and pony shows" based on a narrow definition of teaching; administrative control must give way to the promotion of collegiality among educators.

Our findings, which expand the research that demonstrates direct effects on teachers and classroom instruction and which focus precisely on the principal's work behaviour and its effects, suggest that effective instructional leadership is embedded in school culture; it is expected and routinely delivered. Our findings also emphasize that effective instructional leadership *integrates collaboration, peer coaching, inquiry, collegial study groups and reflective discussion* into a holistic approach to promote professional *dialog* among educators.

Implications for practice and training

Generally speaking, principals who are attempting to develop as effective instructional leaders should work to integrate reflection and growth to build a school culture of individual and shared, critical examination for instructional improvement. To do this, principals may:

- Acknowledge the difficulties of growing and changing, including teacher resistance and the difficulty of role changes.
- Recognize that change is a journey of learning and risk taking.
- Demonstrate fundamental respect for the knowledge and abilities of teachers; view the teacher as intellectual rather than teacher as technician.
- Talk openly and frequently with teachers about instruction.

- Make suggestions, give feedback and solicit teachers' advice and opinions about classroom instruction.
- Develop cooperative, non-threatening partnerships with teachers that are characterized by trust, openness and freedom to make mistakes.
- Emphasize the study of teaching and learning.
- Model teaching skills.
- Support development of coaching skills and reflective conversations among educators.
- Provide time and opportunities for peer connections among teachers.
- Provide resources and support for redesign of programs.
- Apply the principles of adult learning to staff development programs.
- Promote group development, teamwork, collaboration, innovation and continual growth, trust in staff and students, and caring and respect to enhance teacher efficacy.

In addition, the preparation and continuing development of instructional leaders should de-emphasize principal control of and encouragement of competition among teachers. Programs should teach practicing and aspiring principals how to develop professional dialogue and collegiality among educators. Based on our data, training in group development, theories of teaching and learning (*vis-à-vis* both adults and children), action research methods, change and reflective practice should anchor such programs

Extracted from:

Blasé, J., and Blasé, J. (2000). Effective instructional leadership. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 38(2): 130–141.

雋語摘錄三·素質教育與中國新時期課程教材改革

素質教育要求我們重視學生全面素質的和諧發展，重視學生身心素質的健康發展，以促進學生生活質量的提高、社會的持續發展和全面進步。素質教育反對只是向考試的應試教育—考試可能考到的就學，不考的不學，重點考的重點學，不重點的就不重點學；紙筆考試能反映的素質就特別強調去培養，無法反映的那些素質就不重視培養和發展。

在一個信息化的社會裡，知識與資料變得易於通過互聯網等各種渠道快捷地獲得，課程能啟發學生的創新意識、創新精神、創新能力等創新素質變得日善益重要起來。從這個角度講，學校裡多學知識還是少學一點知識，也已不像過去那樣重要了。從某種意義上說，學會學習，學會思維，樂於不斷獲取新知和主動探索，善於搜取、辨別和加工各種可得信息，能根據自己的個性設計近期的發展和計劃，已成為現代社會越來越重要的「頂尖級」素質。學校教育更重要的是通過知識的學習，使學生形成對課程內容的濃厚興趣和進一步汲取新知的持續發展的願望，並習得一些思維方法，形成一些思維的習慣。

本文內容摘自：

任長松 (2001)。素質教育與中國新時期課程教材改革。〈走向新課程〉。香港：中文大學出版社。

焦語摘錄四 · Constructivism in the Classroom

Learners control their learning. This simple truth lies at the heart of the constructivist approach to education.

As educators, we develop classroom practices and negotiate the curriculum to enhance the likelihood of student learning. But controlling what students learn is virtually impossible. The search for meaning takes a different route for each student. Even when educators structure classroom lessons and curriculums to ensure that all students learn the same concepts at the same time, each student still constructs his or her own unique meaning through his or her own cognitive processes. In other words, as educators we have great control over what we teach, but far less control over what students learn.

Shifting our priorities from ensuring that all students learn the same concepts to ensuring that we carefully analyse students' understandings to customize our teaching approaches is an essential step in educational reform that targets increased learning. We must set standards for our own professional practice and free students from the anti-intellectual training that occurs under the banner of test preparation.

The search for understanding motivates students to learn. When students want to know more about an idea, a topic or an entire discipline, they put more cognitive energy into classroom investigations and discussions and study more on their own. We have identified five central tenets of constructivism.

- First, constructivist teachers seek and value students' points of view. Knowing what students think about concepts helps teachers formulate classroom lessons and differentiate instruction on the basis of students' needs and interests.
- Second, constructivist teachers structure lessons to challenge students' suppositions. All students, whether they are 6 or 16 or 60, come to the classroom with life experiences that shape their views about how their worlds

work. When educators permit students to construct knowledge that challenges their current suppositions, learning occurs. Only through asking students what they think they know and why they think they know it are we and they able to confront their suppositions.

- Third, constructivist teachers recognize that students must attach relevance to the curriculum. As students see relevance in their daily activities, their interest in learning grows.
- Fourth, constructivist teachers structure lessons around big ideas, not small bits of information. Exposing students to wholes first helps them determine the relevant parts as they refine their understandings of the wholes.
- Finally, constructivist teachers assess student learning in the context of daily classroom investigations, not as separate events. Students demonstrate their knowledge every day in a variety of ways. Defining understanding as only that which is capable of being measured by paper-and-pencil assessments administered under strict security perpetuates false and counterproductive myths about academia, intelligence, creativity, accountability and knowledge.

Extracted from:

Brooks, M. G., & Brooks, J. G. (1999). The courage to be constructivist *Educational Leadership*, 57(3).

雋語摘錄五 • School Leaders Look at Student Work

During the past year we have been involved in a project called *collaborative assessment*. Along with other school leaders, we devote one afternoon a month to looking at, describing and wondering about student work. Such assessment addresses the question posed by many school leaders: 'How do we know whether our students' work is good enough to meet the imposed standards?'

Through the collaborative assessment, school leaders employ a simple structure to hold a critical, yet supportive conversation to develop a common understanding of standards by following the steps:

Steps in the Collaborative Assessment

Participants read or observe the student work in silence, then:

1. Describe the work. Suspend judgment.
2. Ask questions about the work, the child and the assignment.
3. Speculate about what the student is working on.
4. Listen to the presenting teacher, who reveals the context of the work.
5. Discuss implications for teaching and learning.
6. Reflect on the assessment.

During the exercise, we find that we see many things and through the eyes of many we begin to see things differently. When the context of the work is revealed in the fourth step and we come to know the grade level and details of the assignment, we are often surprised to learn the truth. The assessment has led us to ponder a number of questions, these include: 'What are the implications of the assessment for teaching and learning? What do grades signify? When do we evaluate and when do we assess? How do we measure understanding? Can all students learn well?'

Obstacles of this kind of work in schools and among school leaders abound. Our administrative team wrestles with the problem of creating conditions to promote deep understanding of the relationship between student work and statewide standards. Yet the daily pace of school life conspires against us.

First, school leaders have little time for sustained in-depth conversation. Neither teachers nor administrators have time for reflecting on their practice. Second, we have found that it is much easier to complain about state regulations and to endure the budget process than to have conversations about teaching and learning. But by participating in structured conversations about the real work of schools – teaching and learning – we encourage fundamental discourse which keeps the technical aspects of school leadership in perspective. Finally, we have come to discover that we do not share a common language or vision about standards or student work.

The *collaborative assessment* has shown us that we hold different, often contradictory, assumptions about teaching and learning. As school leaders are charged with raising student achievement across the district, what do we do when faced with the knowledge that we do not share a systemwide vision? How can we help move our school forward when we often do not agree on where we should be going? There are no easy answers.

Extracted from:

Graham, B., & Fahey, K. (1999). School leaders look at student work. *Educational Leadership*, 56(6): 25-27.

焦語摘錄六 · Outcomes Based Education (OBE)

OBE, like most concepts in education, has been interpreted in many different ways. The term is often used quite inappropriately as a label for a great variety of educational practices that pay little more than lip-service to the fundamental principles of OBE. To clarify some of this confusion, realise that OBE can be viewed in three different ways—as a theory of education, as a systemic structure for education or as classroom practice. Ultimately, we need to align the systemic structure and the classroom practice with the theory if we are to have genuine outcomes based education.

We can think of OBE as a theory (or philosophy) of education in the sense that it embodies and expresses a certain set of beliefs and assumptions about learning, teaching and the systemic structures within which these activities take place.

Spady (1994) explains that: “Outcome-Based Education means clearly focusing and organizing everything in an educational system around what is essential for all students to be able to do successfully at the end of their learning experiences. This means starting with a clear picture of what is important for students to be able to do, then organizing the curriculum, instruction and assessment to make sure this learning ultimately happens” (Spady, p.1). Such an approach presupposes that someone can determine what things are “essential for all students to be able to do,” and that it is possible to achieve these things through an appropriate organisation of the education system and through appropriate classroom practices.

The main idea behind Spady’s definition is that OBE is an approach to planning, delivering and evaluating instruction that requires administrators, teachers and students to focus their attention and efforts on the *desired results of education*—results that are expressed in terms of individual student learning. Within this broad philosophy, there are two common approaches to OBE. One approach emphasises student mastery of traditional subject-related academic outcomes (usually with a strong focus on

subject-specific content) and some cross-discipline outcomes (such as the ability to solve problems or to work co-operatively). The second approach emphasises long term, cross-curricular outcomes that are related directly to students’ future life roles (such as being a productive worker or a responsible citizen or a parent). These two approaches correspond to what Spady (1994) calls traditional/transitional OBE and transformational OBE.

Spady clearly favours the transformational approach to OBE in which outcomes are “highquality, culminating demonstrations of significant learning in context” (Spady, p.18). For Spady, learning is not significant unless the outcomes reflect the complexities of real life and give prominence to the life-roles that learners will face after they have finished their formal education. This notion of orienting education to the future needs of students, and of society in general, is the underlying principle of the Key Competencies in Australia. In a less formal way, it is behind statements which suggest that learning outcomes comprise the knowledge, understanding, skills and attitudes that students should acquire in order to reach their full potential and lead fulfilling lives as individuals and at work. For the remainder of this paper, all references to OBE refer specifically to transformational OBE.

In addition to the idea that outcomes should describe long-term significant learning, OBE is underpinned by three basic premises:

All students can learn and succeed, but not all in the same time or in the same way.

Successful learning promotes even more successful learning.

Schools (and teachers) control the conditions that determine whether or not students are successful at school learning.

These are similar to the philosophical base suggested by Mamary (1991) in his discussion of decade old outcomes-based schools:

All students have talent and it is the job of schools to develop it.

The role of schools is to find ways for students to succeed, rather than finding ways for students to fail.

Mutual trust drives all good outcomes-based schools.

Excellence is for every child and not just a few.

By preparing students every day for success the next day, the need for correctives will be reduced.

Students should collaborate in learning rather than compete.

As far as possible, no child should be excluded from any activity in a school.

A positive attitude is essential. (If you believe that you can get every student to learn well – then they will!).

Extracted from:

Killen, R. (2000). *Outcomes-based education: Principles and possibilities*. Unpublished manuscript, University of Newcastle, Faculty of Education.

馬語摘錄七·柔性管理

學校在現今的年代可被看為一個企業，故此，由錢肇基先生所提出七個有關企業管理的“S”因素亦可應用在學校管理上。

三個硬性的“S”，即策略 (Strategy)，結構 (Structure) 和制度 (System)，為學校將來的發展制定和打下重要的基礎。但由於教育的策略，結構和制度，均受教統局的規定，所以本港學校在這方面都大同小異。

但另一方面，在上述三個硬性因素的範籌下，校長可透過運用另外四個柔性的“S”因素，發揮柔性管理的作用，產生差異較大的管理效果。

四個軟性的管理因素為員工 (Staff)，風格 (Style)，技能 (Skill)，以及崇高目標 (Super Goal)。校長可透過這四個因素，去充分調動人力資源 (員工)，發掘每個人的特點，發展其才能，提高工作效率 (技能)，培養團結互助的學校文化，強調群策群力，共同承擔的精神 (風格)，以達到提昇學校的崇高目標。所以說在相同的資源條件下，「柔性管理」可以產生差異很大的管理效果。

柔性管理強調管理者 (校長) 應注重人性的管理，而內部的相互信賴尤其重要。「信」在學校管理上包括兩方面：

一. 大眾 (教師、職工) 對管理者 (校長) 的信任 校長對員工守信用，講信義，必須基於一個先決條件，就是不可輕諾。身為管理人員，失信於員工，就不能維繫學校的士氣，對學校團隊的精神造成致命的打擊。

二. 管理者 (校長) 自身的信實

校長除了自身要慎承諾，守信用，令下屬信服外，也應該盡量信任下屬，把相應的職權交給下屬，讓他們有機會發揮自己的聰明才智。這種信任往往會激發下屬的工作熱情，為學校作出重大的貢獻。

校長在內部管理中重「信」，不是單指在某一件事上，而是要把「信」推廣到學校的每一個環節，例如學校目標，學校使命，和學校服務承諾等。一間信譽卓著的學校，在校內可以激發出員工高昂的士氣和高漲的工作積極性，在校外可以得到社會公眾的廣泛支持。既然信譽無價，作為學校的管理者，必須令學校在社區中樹立良好形象和信譽，以贏取家長和社區人士的信賴和支持。

本文內容摘自：

鄧薇光 (2000)。【校長領導新方向—柔性管理】。香港：香港中文大學、香港教育研究所、香港教育領導發展中心。

雋語摘錄八 • What is Asperger Syndrome, ADD and ADHD?

The disorder is named after Hans Asperger, a Viennese pediatrician who, in 1940, first described a set of behaviour patterns apparent in some of his patients, mostly males. Asperger noticed that although these boys had normal intelligence and language development, they had severely impaired social skills, were unable to communicate effectively with others and had poor coordination. According to the Asperger Syndrome Coalition of the United States, the onset of AS is later than that typical in autism - or at least it is recognized later. A large number of children are diagnosed after the age of 3, with most diagnosed between the ages of 5 and 9.

Asperger syndrome is characterized by poor social interactions, obsessions, odd speech patterns and other peculiar mannerisms. Children with AS often have few facial expressions and have difficulty reading the body language of others; they may engage in obsessive routines and may display an unusual sensitivity to sensory stimuli (for example, they may be bothered by a light that no one else notices or prefer to wear clothing made only of a certain material). Overall, people with AS are quite capable of functioning in everyday life, but they tend to be somewhat socially immature and may be seen by others as odd or eccentric.

Because the symptoms of AS are often hard to differentiate from other behavioural problems, it's best to let doctors or other health professionals evaluate symptoms. It's not uncommon for a child to be diagnosed with attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (AD/HD) before the diagnosis of AS is made later on.

The following are a number of signs and symptoms that might be present in a child with AS:

- inappropriate or minimal social interactions
- conversations almost always revolving around self rather than others
- stilted or repetitive speech

- lack of "common sense"
- problems with reading, math or writing skills
- obsession with complex topics such as patterns or music
- average to above-average verbal cognitive abilities
- average to below-average nonverbal cognitive abilities
- awkward movements
- odd behaviours or mannerisms

It's important to note that, unlike children with autism, children with AS may show no delays in language development; they usually have good grammatical skills and an advanced vocabulary at an early age. However, they typically do exhibit a language disorder; they may be very literal and they may have trouble using language in a social context. Often there are no obvious delays in cognitive development or in age-appropriate self-help skills such as feeding and dressing themselves. Although individuals with AS may have problems with attention span, problems with organization and skills that seem well developed in some areas and lacking in others, they usually have average and sometimes above average intelligence.

Children who have ADHD may know what to do, but they are not always able to complete their tasks because they are unable to focus, are impulsive or are easily distracted. For example, children with ADHD often cannot sit still or pay attention in school.

The American Academy of Pediatrics (AAP) estimates that ADHD affects between 4% and 12% of all school-age children. ADHD can create problems for these children at home, at school or in their relationships with friends.

But what is ADHD? You may be more familiar with the term **attention deficit disorder**, or **ADD**. This disorder was renamed **ADHD** in 1994 by the American Psychiatric Association and includes **ADD** or **ADHD**

1. An **inattentive** subtype (formerly known as **attention deficit disorder**, or **ADD**), with signs that include:

- inability to pay attention to details or a tendency to make careless errors in schoolwork or other activities
- difficulty with sustained attention in tasks or play activities
- apparent listening problems
- difficulty following instructions
- problems organizing tasks and activities
- avoidance or dislike of tasks that require mental effort
- tendency to lose things like toys, notebooks or homework
- distractibility
- forgetfulness in daily activities

2. A **hyperactive-impulsive** subtype (formerly known as **attention deficit hyperactivity disorder**, or **ADHD**) with signs that include:

- fidgeting or squirming
- difficulty remaining seated
- excessive running or climbing
- difficulty playing quietly
- always seeming to be "on the go"
- excessive talking
- blurting out answers before hearing the full question
- difficulty waiting for a turn or in line
- problems with interrupting or intruding

Extracted from:

National Institute of Mental Health NIH Publication No. 96-3572. Printed 1994, Reprinted 1996.

雋語摘錄九 • Spiritual Development and School Leadership

The stressful and turbulent environment surrounding today's principal makes it difficult not to focus all of one's attention on the technical and managerial side of school leadership. Educational theorists contend that administrators are not neutral technical bureaucrats: they operate from their values. These values should be clarified and articulated.

Starratt (1996) describes a 'fully human person' as possessing three main qualities: (1) autonomy, (2) connectiveness and (3) transcendence. He cautions us against viewing these as a list of virtues which we set out to acquire or create in others. The qualities are found in the actions of a leader and his or her interactions with others.

- Being autonomous as a principal means being your own person and taking responsibility for your actions. Paradoxically, "a principal cannot express autonomy except in relationship with other people" (p.157).
- A principal expressing connectiveness is aware of relationships with others, the relationship with culture and tradition and the relationship with nature and the natural universe.
- A leader with transcendence displays a desire to turn toward something greater than or beyond oneself.

Spiritual development unfortunately carries a religious or mystical connotation. For this reason, many principals and their school communities hesitate to openly discuss morality and spiritual development and their place in school leadership. In discussing the religious connotation to morality and spirituality in education, Starratt (1996) suggests that to never engage in discussion about moral values is to communicate, by default, the message that moral issues are irrelevant to the public life of the community and that the lessons learned in schools exist in some impossible, fictional moral vacuum. One of the major lessons of an educational process is the importance of the *discussion* of moral values as they are embedded in the circumstances of everyday life.

Spiritual development ought to be demystified. Some contend that although moral belief and theory is undoubtedly a mixture of experience, perception and maybe even a little superstition, it can endure challenge and confrontation. The inclusion of morality and spirituality in educational leadership programs must be more intentional and purposeful. Millions of training dollars are being spent annually to develop traditional managerial skills - planning, organizing, vision building, instructional leadership, strategic planning and team building. These are undoubtedly important, but, are they enough? What is still missing are the core values of the leader. What does the person *care* about? What *matters* to the person? What is at the core of the person's *being*?

Bolman & Deal (1995) draw attention to signs pointing toward spirit and soul as the essence of leadership. There is growing consensus that we need a new paradigm to move beyond the traps of conventional and traditional thinking. Or perhaps we may need to rediscover and renew an old paradigm: one that has the necessary humanistic and spiritual components.

Extracted from:

Creighton, T. (1999). Spirituality and the principalship: Leadership for the new millennium. *International Electronic Journal For Leadership in Learning*, 3(11): 1-6.

Reference:

Starratt, R. J. (1996). *Transforming educational administration: Meaning, community and excellence*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Bolman, L.G., & Deal, T. E. (1995). *Leading with soul: An uncommon journey of spirit*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

焦語摘錄十· 校本課程開發意味著什麼

校本課程開發是相對於國家課程開發而言的，是對研究—開發—推廣模式的一種回應，倡導「問題解決」的實踐—評估—開發模式。

由專家決定的非校本課程往往有這樣一種傾向：忽視了學校這一教育主體，容易把學校工場化，把教師工具化，把教育產品標準化，把複雜的教育康熙情景簡單化，把具體的教育對象抽象化。事實上，學校中教育共同體(校長、教師、學生及家長)本來就應是學生到底學什麼的決定者之一。因此，學校應該有課程的一部分自主權。否則，如果學校中的校長和教師只是課程的執行主體，而不是開發主體，那麼他們就不能意識到自身承擔的課程責任，導致「校校同課程、師師同教案、生生同書本」的局面，課程就會失去應有的適應性和本來的功能，我們的學生也不能在學校教育中得到應有的發展。校本課程開發就是針對這種現象，倡導課程開發主體的多元化，提升教師的專業水平，實現課程的適應性與本來的魅力。

總的來說，校本課程：

- (一) 有利於形成學校的特色，校本的課程開發需要學校明確自己的教學哲學，調動全體同仁的積極性和能動性，充份利用校內外的教育資源，形成教育合力以減少教育衝突甚至相互抵消的現象，同心協力地實現既定的目標，促使學校特色的形成。
- (二) 有利於促進教師的專業發展，校本課程開發是以學校為基的課程創新，教師意識到這一切所要承擔的課程責任，能夠體驗到自身素質的挑戰。

有利於實現學生全面而主動地發展，校本課程開發首先必須評估學生的需要，然後經歷一次有學生代表參加的審議，最後把一部分課程的選擇權交給學生，這一程序確立了學生真正擁有的主體地位，體現了學生在受教育中的自主性與學習自由。

本文內容摘自：

杜育紅 (2001)。校本課程開發意味著什麼。
【新課程與學校發展】。中國教育部基礎教育課程教材發展中心。教育科學出版社。

雋語摘錄十一 • Teacher-centred and Pupil-centred Activities

Hong Kong classrooms have often been described as teacher-centred with an emphasis on learning by rote. Influenced by Western practices, teaching methods that emphasize student activities have been strongly promoted. The Target Oriented Curriculum (TOC) reform attempted to promote a pedagogical shift in classroom practice which it portrays as requiring a move away from that associated with a behaviourist model towards a social constructivist model of learning.

The following summarizes the major changes presented in the Programme of Studies (PoS) prepared by the Curriculum Development Council for Chinese Language and Mathematics.

Modules in Chinese Language

Changes made to this subject included: (1) listening and speaking are now two different dimensions, instead of being integrated as a single theme in the old curriculum; (2) penmanship/calligraphy, which was an independent theme in the past, is now integrated in the writing dimension. According to the TOC PoS, a Chinese Language module is a combination of different teaching components. However, the rationale for selecting the different focuses for a module is not explained and there are no detailed suggestions.

Modules in Mathematics

The content of this subject is divided into five learning dimensions, which are content-based and follow clear boundaries. The learning targets and objectives for each key stage are extracted from the 1983 syllabus. Although suggestions are made as to how the contents might be arranged into modules and units, in terms of teaching content or sequence, there was no change from the 1983 syllabus.

Analysis of key documents indicated that despite the intention of reform changes were very much operationalized in a way which involved fitting the old curriculum into a new framework of dimensions and modules. Consequently, advice on pedagogy was merely symbolic. On the one hand, it appeared

that teachers were given autonomy in designing their own lessons; on the other hand, the empowerment of teachers could be seen as illusory. Thus, any change in the pedagogical strategies in classroom practice depended on the teacher's initiative and perception of TOC. In addition, careful interpretation showed that interaction in the classrooms was still very much controlled by the teacher and influenced by textbooks, despite the use of group-based activities.

Despite the fact that pupils were active in TOC classrooms, teacher-controlled features remained dominant. Two possible factors for this include: (1) the suggested pedagogical shift implies a change of classroom culture which cannot be changed easily, (2) the intention concerning pedagogical changes became less explicit in the top-down process, especially when the reform was operationalized by some common curriculum procedures in the PoS. Consequently, teachers interpreted TOC differently.

Extracted from:

Mok, I., & Ko, P. Y. (2003). Beyond labels – teacher-centred and pupil-centred activities: Curriculum, learning and assessment: - The Hong Kong experience. In P. Stimpson, P. Morris, Y. Fung and R. Carr (eds.), pp. 308-328. Hong Kong: Open University of Hong Kong Press.

焦語摘錄十二 · Schools as Learning Communities

Hollywood films such as *The Blackboard Jungle*, *To Sir With Love*, *Mr. Chips*, *Dead Poet's Society*, *Stand and Deliver*, *Dangerous Minds* and *Mr. Holland's Opus* all follow what is now a remarkably predictable story line. Good teaching is shown to be the result of individual character and will, while schools are portrayed like out-of-touch churches that either ignore or persecute their own saints. Similar images of schooling exist in non-U.S. movies: In the recent French film, *Butterfly*, a village teacher is portrayed as a highly effective educator of children, but is left unprotected by the local population when World War II begins.

Film portrayals of the lone teacher hero reinforce an educational research tradition that attributes classroom success or failure to an individual teacher variable, such as personal characteristics, subject-matter knowledge, pedagogical competence or decision-making skills. The problem with these movies, however, is that while the lead characters thrive through personal creativity and commitment, those in the adjoining classrooms or schools often flounder and rarely benefit from the nearby brilliance.

Lortie foresaw this problem in his groundbreaking 1975 work *Schoolteacher*. He documented that the typical result of teachers working in isolation, each behind a closed classroom door, is the reinforcement of a culture of "presentism, individualism and conservatism." This condition is not limited to the United States. Scholarship from the Netherlands suggests that many teachers, rather than lamenting this predicament, actually choose isolation over collaboration. Moreover, it has been shown in Pakistan that educational leaders may oppose the prospect for greater collegiality when it challenges existing status arrangements. Despite these challenges, educational leaders are increasingly asked to take their role as "culture-builders" of collegial work environments seriously.

The Concept of Professional Learning Community

By using the term professional learning community we signify our interest not only in discrete acts of teacher sharing, but in the establishment of a school-wide culture that makes collaboration expected, inclusive, genuine, ongoing and focused on student outcomes. The term integrates three robust concepts: a school culture that emphasizes professionalism is "client oriented and knowledge based"; one that emphasizes learning places a high value on teacher professional development; and one that is a communitarian emphasizes personal connection. The hypothesis is that what teachers do together outside of the classroom may be as important as what they do inside in affecting school restructuring, teachers' professional development and student learning.

From an international perspective, this hypothesis may be surprisingly heretical in many countries. In many cultures, for example, school systems are "highly hierarchical." The teachers' role is to obey the district officer who in turn receives instructions from the director. Those things that most affect teachers' work (e.g. curriculum, textbooks, modes of examination and professional development topics) are prescribed.

Although the *idea* of professional learning communities might appear more accepted in many Western countries, its *practice* challenges a fundamental assumption about school improvement as governments enact it. Barth (2001) recognized a remarkable and often overlooked bias in his review of the school reform literature published since 1983: "It dawned on me that behind the models, the rubrics, the principles, the analyses of the problems and the prescriptions for improving them was a very chilling assumption: *schools are not capable of improving themselves*. Those who labor each day under the roof of the schoolhouse...(were not seen as) capable of getting their own house in order. Else, why do you need these outside interventions" (p. xxi)?

The concept of professional learning communities rests on several other core assumptions about the nature of teaching and about how teachers learn. These include:

- That teaching is inherently complex and challenging (i.e. nobody can ever know it all).
- That teachers will need to engage in continuous improvement throughout their whole careers (i.e. nobody ever fully arrives).
- That teachers improve by engaging with others in “analysis, , evaluation, and experimentation” (i.e. nobody can do it by themselves).

Extracted from:

Toole, J. C., & Seashore L. K. (2001). The role of professional learning communities. In International Education. CAREI Papers and Presentations at University of Minnesota Centre for Applied Research and Educational Improvement (CAREI). Retrieved 9 October 2003, from <http://education.umn.edu/carei/Papers/>

Reference:

Barth, R. (2001). *Educating by heart*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

技能稽核

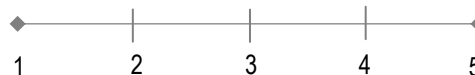
在扶持學生學習方面，我表現如何？

我們建議你使用這裏提供的「工具」，作為一般全方位回饋問卷調查的一部份，以便向員工、家長或其他人士收集與你個人學習需要相關的資料。請先閱讀一些雋語摘錄，再使用這項工具。

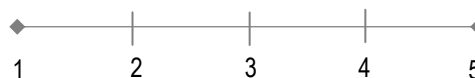
請按這個評量等級，為下列各題評分。

十分不同意	不同意	部份同意	同意	十分同意
1	2	3	4	5

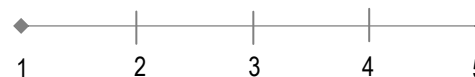
第 1 題 在課程與教學領導方面，
我扮演積極的角色。



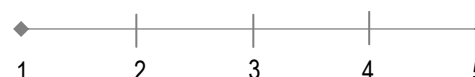
第 2 題 我願意鼓勵他人成為校內
課程或教學的領袖。



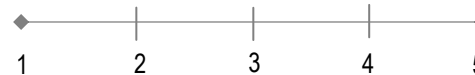
第 3 題 我對當前的課程學及教學法
的實踐有豐富的認識。



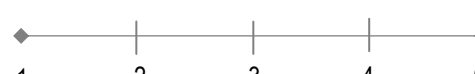
第 4 題 我以合宜的方式監察教師
在課堂內的表現。



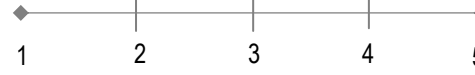
第 5 題 我願意投放資源提升教師在
課程及教學實務方面的認識。



第 6 題 我願意表彰及獎勵教師的
辦事能力。



第 7 題 我矢志追求課程及教學的
長遠籌劃。



總分：

總結

我們希望你喜愛這本小冊子，並希望這小冊子帶給你來自認知衝突的一些張力。

小冊子中的雋語摘錄未臻完備；其中並未涵蓋所有在職校長需要認識的學生與學習課題。

這些摘錄只是一個起點，希望觸發你思考各種有關學生與學習的問題。我們希望這些摘錄已催動你對領導才能的求知慾，由此思考你認為應該知道的學生與學習事項。我們也希望這些雋語所表達的意念，可促使你開展個人專業發展需要的敏覺易位反思。

至此，你已經完成你的雋語學習日誌圖表，並設定了一些學習目標。如你仍沒有把這些學習目標記錄在「在職校長專業發展需要分析工作簿」上，你應立即把最重要的目標騰錄至你的「領袖學習日誌」中。

		核心範疇					
		策略性導向及政策環境	教、學及課程	領袖、教師成長及發展	員工及資源管理	質素保證及問責	對外溝通及聯繫
學生與學習： 雋語編號	1.	✓	✓	✓			
	2.	✓	✓		✓		
	3.		✓				✓
	4.		✓	✓			
	5.		✓				
	6.	✓	✓			✓	
	7.	✓		✓	✓		
	8.		✓				
	9.	✓		✓			
	10.		✓		✓		
	11.	✓	✓				
	12.		✓	✓			