I. Background to Multilingualism in Hong Kong

Hong Kong is a multi-lingual city with both Chinese and English as official languages of state. However, the adjective “Chinese” is rather imprecise in the Hong Kong context since the
Chinese spoken by the majority of its citizens is Cantonese, a dialect of the Putonghua (Mandarin) spoken across Mainland China. These two forms of Chinese are habitually used by students in neighbouring Chinese-speaking countries and in many homes in Hong Kong. Although Cantonese is the lingua franca spoken across Hong Kong, the official form of written Chinese used in school is “Standardized Modern Chinese” (現代漢語), the form of Putonghua-linked writing used across Mainland China. The mental lexicon of words and the syntax in Cantonese and Putonghua are in fact similar, but they differ noticeably from the “Chinese” used in spoken and written Cantonese. After its reunification with Mainland China in 1997, Putonghua became more widely heard in the streets of Hong Kong due (a) to the transfer of sovereignty; (b) to the sudden expansion of immigrant families entering Hong Kong; and (c) to the explosion of cultural, commercial and social media links with the Mainland.

Since 1997, Hong Kong has gradually changed from being a mainly bilingual society (Cantonese and English) to being a trilingual community where Cantonese, English and Mandarin are official languages of state. Robust public resistance to the compulsory use of Putonghua in schools has regularly resurfaced since, one year after the reunification, the Hong Kong Special Administrative Region (HKSAR) Government changed the choice of medium of instruction (moi) used in almost all schools from English to Cantonese. The Hong Kong Education and Manpower Bureau (EMB) has repeatedly affirmed the benefits of using
Chinese as the moi in the classroom (Education and Manpower Bureau, HKSAR, 2005), and the HKSAR Government has resolutely stuck to achieving the long-term objective of eventually using Putonghua as the moi in all Hong Kong schools (HKSAR Government, 1997; Li, 2009; Evans, 2013). State policymakers still remind citizens that its business-people's fluency in English contributed enormously to making Hong Kong an international hub of commerce and a global trading city. Support for a return to using an English–Cantonese moi in schools is regularly raised in the social media and among the educated elite in Hong Kong (Ho, 2008). The Government has responded by emphasising the notion of "bi- and tri-lingualism", which makes possible the co-existence of Cantonese, Mandarin and English as principle languages of education rather than the use of a single designated moi (Adamson, 2007; Li, 2009; Evans, 2013).

The linguistic environment in Hong Kong educational circles is further complicated by the increasing number of non-Chinese speaking (NCS) students entering Hong Kong schools whose mother tongue is neither Chinese (Cantonese or Putonghua) nor English. These NCS students are for the most part the children of ethnic minority families living in Hong Kong and they include Filipinos, Indians, Indonesians, Nepalese, Pakistanis and Thais (Legislative Council, HKSAR, 2014). They even include some students from Mainland China who speak neither Cantonese nor Putonghua. Government statistics report that NCS students
comprised about 12.1% of the total student number in pre–primary K1 to secondary school S6 in the 2012/2013 academic year (see Table 1). The proportion of NCS students in the education system increased by 29.5% from the figure of 20,999 in the 2009/2010 school year. It is confidently predicted that the number of NCS students in primary and secondary schools will grow in coming years as the incidence of pre–primary NCS students is increasingly evident in early–years classes.

Table 1: Composition of NCS students in the Hong Kong education system from pre-primary education to secondary education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Education Level</th>
<th>No. of NCS students$^{1,2}$</th>
<th>Total no. of students$^5$</th>
<th>Percentage of NCS students among all students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre–primary (K1 to K3)$^3$</td>
<td>12,324</td>
<td>164,764</td>
<td>7.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary (Primary 1 to 6)</td>
<td>7,945</td>
<td>272,802</td>
<td>2.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary (Secondary 1 to 6)</td>
<td>6,919</td>
<td>396,836</td>
<td>1.7%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes:
Figures refer to the position as of September, 2012.

a) The data include students whose ethnicity is Chinese but who are non-Chinese speaking (based on the spoken language used at home.)
b) Figures for pre–primary level include students in kindergarten-cum-child care centres.
c) Figures for primary and secondary levels only include students in the public sector and in Direct Subsidy Scheme schools. They do not include special schools.
d) The total number of students includes students who have not indicated any information about their spoken language at home in the annual Student Enrolment Survey.

Before 2008, all NCS and Chinese–speaking students whose L1 or L2 was Cantonese or Putonghua were exposed to an identical
Chinese-language curriculum in the primary school. NCS students consistently had poorer Chinese language skills than did Chinese-speaking students due to the lack opportunity to practise Chinese at home, invariably resulting in most NCS students struggling in Chinese Language lessons. Poor Chinese proficiency also often resulted in NCS students having low self-concepts and feeling alienated from school (Lam and Phillipson, 2009). There was thus a vicious circle of inferiority in the students’ mastery of Chinese reading and writing (Hau, 2008), a lack of steps being taken to apply new strategies to overcome the problem, and a reluctance on the part of the education system to face and tackle the problem. The general public were increasingly concerned about this situation, especially the lack of determined steps by schools to apply new approaches to overcoming the situation. The Mingpoa daily newspaper of January 2014 reported that some NCS schools were using the very same pedagogy, textbooks and examination materials they were using to teach Chinese-speaking students to teach Chinese to NCS students. In other words, lessons were being delivered without the assistance of English or the NCS students’ own mother tongue. In these circumstances, the NCS students were wasting their primary school years at a critical period of language development. Consequently they possessed very low levels of Chinese language, preventing them from doing well in school and finding a well-paid job on leaving school.

Longitudinal research commissioned by the Education Bureau
(EDB) found that NCS students in mainstream schools were significantly underperforming in Chinese language lessons much more than their Chinese-speaking counterparts in Primary 1. The RDB Report noted that, even when “sound improvement” in Chinese language mastery was evident in the first year of their primary education, the children’s Chinese language proficiency progress was notably “insubstantial” from Primary 1 to Primary 3. The Report also highlighted the finding that NCS students’ competence in Chinese language was crucial for their later, all-round academic development (Hau, 2008). Sadly, the education system was failing to provide tailor-made assistance to NCS students: a failing that the students themselves or their parents could do nothing to overcome.

The EDB soon noted the shortcomings on this kind of ‘integrative’ education policy in which NCS students with low attainment in Chinese were studying in classrooms alongside Chinese-speaking students with high attainment levels. In fact, the same curriculum, syllabus and lesson content were being presented to the whole class, regardless of the students’ responses. By way of remedy, in 2008 the EDB released a document entitled “Supplementary Guide to the Chinese Language Curriculum for NCS Students”, clearly setting out guidelines and principles for teaching Chinese to NCS students (Education Bureau, 2008). Although the guidelines encouraged schools to customize lessons to teach the Chinese language in ways that met the needs of NCS students, few schools seemed capable of
doing this. Many schools failed to deploy appropriate resources, plan programmes that met the needs of individual students or offer a separate syllabus targeting minority students. Schools also lacked access to professional support from experts about teaching Chinese as a second language, developing appropriate school-based curricula and monitoring success and failure.

The EDB responded to this situation by launching remedial programmes for NCS students after school hours and during holidays and paying tertiary institutes to provide teacher training and school-based support for teaching NCS students the Chinese language at different levels. The Faculty of Education in the University of Hong Kong was one of the first institutes to provide support and guidance about teaching a foreign language in a multi-lingual, multi-cultural context. The present paper delves into the topics of differentiated curricula, differentiated teaching materials, differentiated teaching and the teaching of Chinese in a multicultural context. Real-life examples extracted from programmes introduced to support NCS students to learn Chinese are provided.

II. Promoting Reading Literacy in the Multi-cultural. 
Multi-Lingual Hong Kong

This paper focuses on utilising methods and specialist materials
to promote students' reading literacy in the Chinese language. The Education and Manpower Bureau of the HKSAR (2004) highlighted the importance of devising a suitable curriculum framework and planning lessons that catered for students with very diverse needs. This latter situation certainly applies in Hong Kong where students in many classes have widely varying levels of Chinese at their disposal, so much so that, whilst some students cope with ease, others struggle or lack the wherewithal to even attempt to complete work the teacher had set. A single lesson plan is inadequate and it is futile to expect all students to progress at the same pace, complete the same work and acquire identical snippets or levels of new knowledge. Clearly, teachers had to differentiate in their planning, target work at individual students and take into account the language competence that each students was bringing into the classroom. The situation was eased if students could be placed into groups of learners with similar levels of learning ability, power to comprehend lesson tasks and motivation to learn.

Such differentiation of curriculum, lesson content and input to students of varying proficiency levels is common-place in the United Kingdom, Canada and the USA (Weston, 1998). Differentiation in lesson planning and preparation, and in planning the learning programme of individual students with diverse learning needs in the same class is a tried-and-tested strategy (Hart, 1996; Weston 1998). Montgomery (1998) suggests that differentiation in lesson and programme planning can be broadly organised along two
main lines: “structural” approaches that centre on subject matter and its complexity and “integral” approaches focusing on individualizing lesson content and subject matter for learners of varying proficiency. The Office for Standards in Education, Children’s Services and Skills (OFSTED) in England includes six criteria in its framework for the management of differentiation. The framework suggests the needed for (1) a suitable assessment policy; (2) suitable targets and methods of evaluation; (3) curriculum planning associated with assessment information and target-setting; (4) lessons that anticipate students’ motivation; (5) students’ ability to learn under their own volition; and (6) equal opportunities in the sense that students with learning difficulties and special educational needs have access to the curriculum on the same basis as their more intelligent or able peers (Weston, 1998). Incorporating differentiation approach in curriculum is comparatively straightforward in the education system of the United Kingdom as schools and teachers enjoy more autonomy over curriculum design, lesson planning, presenting the same subject matter differently to children with differing levels of motivation; and differing levels of linguistic sophistication within the same class.

Since the Plowden Report (Department of Education and Science, 1967), primary schools in the United Kingdom have been advised to customize lesson content for children with varying degrees of proficiency in the subjects taught, from the gifted to the slow learner. Teachers have also been strongly encouraged to
take account of different learning styles when planning learning activities for children of different ability. Gregory and Chapman (2007) suggest that teachers adopt various kinds of teaching approach, from whole-class approaches and group-based teaching to individualized teaching instruction. They suggest approaches that take various aspects of lessons into account, for instance the conceptual complexity of the subject matter; the availability of appropriate teaching aids and materials; what is known about every student’s prior knowledge of the subject matter; the time available in the lesson and how long learners will need to grasp lesson objectives; the ability of every student in the class to organise their own learning; the methods to be used to monitor lesson progress and its impact; and the extent to which lesson content takes account of prior learning and lays the foundation for future learning.

Terwel (2004) examined factors influencing the quality of learners’ learning in various differentiation situations, including the cognitive, social and emotional characteristics of the learners and the approaches favoured by the teacher. Sims and Sims (2006) suggest different teaching styles and the provision of different formats of lesson content for different students. They also remind teachers about the differences between teacher–student and student–teacher classroom interactions. Tse et.al (2012) took note of points raised in the above discussions, and suggestions and recommendations that possibly apply to the situation in Hong Kong. Several initiatives have been tried out
and put into practice in schools in Hong Kong, but not in a systematic, well organised way in similar samples of schools.

**III. Differentiated Curricula**

A sound, fully-functional curriculum aims at dealing with differences in language proficiency and attainment among learners in a teaching environment, teaching content to all so that all students constructively participate in the learning process. Planned strategies whereby expected learning outcomes are strategically targeted and accomplished are examined, note being taken of the rather chequered progress in Hong Kong, and the extent to which recommendations have been fruitfully put into practice (see Western, 1998; Tse, 2011, 2012).

In the 2014/2015 academic year, the EDB presented a “Chinese Language Curriculum Second Language Learning Framework” for all NCS students in primary and secondary schools. Teachers were advised to consider specific learning outcomes against the progress made by NCS students and the difficulties they experienced at different stages of the lesson, from the planning to the evaluation of outcomes stage. This framework had built-in time for teachers and educators to design flexible and differentiated programmes, but it did not designate the texts to be taught and the age-equivalent language targets. In other words, it
still seemed to assume an element of the “one size fits all” principle. Implicit in the recommendation seemed to be a belief that the same teaching content and learning outcomes were envisaged for students at all levels of language competence in the

Table 2 shows how the same teaching content (e.g. a particular story) might be differentiated into four levels in a Chinese reading curriculum plan, enabling NCS children at various levels to participate. At each level of the syllabus, the linguistic requirements for comprehending the same story differ. For instance, Level 1 is set for beginners who are mostly new immigrants into Hong Kong. Therefore the linguistic requirements and learning outcome are deliberately simplified (simple sentences, verbs and nouns). Level 2 is for students with a fundamental Chinese language background, so the linguistic requirement is higher than that at Level 1. Level 3 is planned so as to be similar to the standard expected from lower forms students in Chinese–speaking mainstream schools, and Level 4 is constructed for students with high reading proficiency.

With different requirements at linguistic levels in this curriculum, it is anticipated that there will be an increase in the complexity of language at different levels; a progressive extension of demand at each level; and similar rates of progression for all Chinese–speaking students in the class. The next two sections demonstrate how teaching materials and teaching approaches can be co-ordinated within this differentiated curriculum in the teaching of NCS students.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Target learner</th>
<th>Storybook Lv1</th>
<th>Storybook Lv2</th>
<th>Storybook Lv3</th>
<th>Storybook Lv4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Beginner (e.g. new immigrants)</td>
<td>With foundation in Chinese language</td>
<td>With general Chinese language proficiency comparable to HK mainstream school students at lower form</td>
<td>With Chinese language proficiency comparable to HK mainstream school students at senior form</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Story content</td>
<td>Simple</td>
<td>Simple</td>
<td>Simple</td>
<td>Reflexive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of Lexicons</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>245</td>
<td>354</td>
<td>588</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Types of Lexicons</td>
<td>Simple verbs and nouns</td>
<td>Stimulating mental lexicons (e.g. verbs, nouns, numerals)</td>
<td>Substantial connectives</td>
<td>Cultural lexicons, metaphors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentences</td>
<td>Simple sentences</td>
<td>Simple sentences with some complex sentences</td>
<td>Mainly complex sentences</td>
<td>Metaphoric sentences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Repetitive sentence structures</td>
<td>Simple metaphoric sentences</td>
<td>Discourse learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Various sentence structures</td>
<td>Complicated and various sentence structures</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
IV. Differentiated Teaching Material

To make a differential curriculum feasible and practical, teaching materials and teaching approaches have to be purposefully designed. For instance, with the same content and in the same lesson, the teacher can select more difficult materials and tasks for students with higher Chinese proficiency. They can also select easier materials for students with lower Chinese proficiency. An example is illustrated in Appendix I. The same story can be developed into three levels of learning outcomes. The “easiest” teaching material only consists of simple Chinese words and exercises designed for students learning Chinese at an elementary level. A higher level of the same teaching material uses simple sentences to demonstrate the same story. The highest level, originally designed for Chinese-speaking students, tells the story using more complex sentences. In the case of a higher-form, mainstream Chinese-speaking students might be assigned to read original texts of a novel that involves more complicated linguistic features, whilst NCS students might be asked to read a simplified version with ample pictures presented. As both groups of students are reading the same story, the teacher can stimulate discussion of the same content in the lesson and students can be more interactive with one another. The content of the teaching material is coordinated by the macro-topic taught in the lesson. Hence students with differing levels of
attainment can simultaneously be engaged in processing the teaching material and the tasks assigned.

V. Differentiated Teaching

As the Chinese proficiency of NCS and Chinese-speaking students can confidently be expected to differ greatly, teaching in the classroom has to be adjusted to suit the language capability of all of the children. The aim of differentiated teaching is to promote students’ engagement in the learning process whilst catering for individual differences in the class (Versey et al., 1993; Lo, Morris and Che, 2000). One approach to differentiated teaching in the classroom is to separate students into groups according to their language proficiency. Heterogeneous grouping might involve placing a high proficiency student in a lower proficiency group to lead the group in the learning. Homogeneous grouping refers to placing students with similar proficiency in the same group. In the case of NCS students’ lesson in the example used in this paper, homogeneous grouping was chosen. For instance, in the Chinese reading comprehension lesson, four groups with hierarchical proficiency in Chinese were assigned different tasks according to their Chinese language level (Table 2). Students at a higher level can perform commentary tasks on both the content and linguistics feature of an article, whilst students at a medium level can be asked to synthesize and
explain the overall meaning of the article. At a lower level, the students might be asked deduce the central message from parts of the whole article, and the lowest level students might simply search for obvious information and make guesses about the passage. Using this differentiated approach, the teacher can use the same story to design tasks that cater for NCS students at various levels of Chinese language capability in the same class.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Requirement in Reading Comprehension Tasks</th>
<th>Level of Questions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4. Comment on the content and linguistic features of the literature (Changed from comprehension alone to commentary)</td>
<td>For high level students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Synthesize and explain the meaning of the literature (including gist and structural organization)</td>
<td>For medium level students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Deduce messages from the passage</td>
<td>For medium and low level students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Seek obvious information from the text</td>
<td>For low level students</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Besides designing different tasks according to the students’ Chinese language proficiency, the teaching approach can be fine-tuned for different levels of student comprehension ability. For example, in the situation of NCS students in Hong Kong, lower level students might sometimes require English, which is often the second language of many NCS students present consolidate their Chinese language learning, often the third language of many NCS students. The teaching material (see
Appendix I), shoes that instructions and explanation might be prepared in English (or other languages) to prevent NCS students losing interest in the task. The teacher might also provide flexibility of task requirement, especially for students with poor Chinese language proficiency. For instance, when students perform exercises on writing down word lists, they might be asked to find and write down words relating to a set topic. The teacher might allow students with lower Chinese language proficiency to draw pictures to stand for words, the meaning of which they do not know. They might also teach them the correct words later, if this seems appropriate.

VI. Design of activities and materials in a multi-cultural context

When designing appropriate lesson activities and materials, the teacher might utilize Reader–Response Theory (Davis, 1989; Rosenblatt, 1995; Hirvela, 1996) to make use of students’ own cultural knowledge and interests. Reader–response theory focuses on the reader’s role and background in learning the meaning of text and how factors relate to the reader’s interpretation of text. This is highly suitable for use in the multi-lingual and multi-cultural environment of Hong Kong. To make the theory more practical and concrete, supplementary picture book reading
and writing exercises have been found by the writer to be effective approaches in the school support programme for non-Chinese speaking students in Hong Kong. The programme chose famous picture books, such as the Chinese version of Sino Yuko’s The Cat Who Lived a Million Times, which has repetitive sentence structures and is easy to read by NCS students. As part of a reading comprehension session, the teacher might provide guidance and preceding reading activities (e.g. asking students to guess the plot development and the end of the stories, to discuss the story in differentiated groups) based on the students’ Chinese language proficiency. After reading and comprehending the contents of picture books, the teacher might assist NCS students to draft their own picture books with text written in Modern Standard Chinese. The drafted picture books may be an extension of the picture book studied; a revised version on the part of the text that the NCS students liked or disliked the most; or perhaps a similar story based on the students’ own culture. These activities aim at encouraging the NCS student to use the Chinese language and visual construction to create their own expressions. In the design of the students’ picture books and the development of content, the teacher might ascertain how and why the students selected particular cultural elements when presenting their concepts and ideas. Perhaps this might spotlight possible conceptual conflicts between the Hong Kong Chinese culture and the culture of the NCS students in question. Importantly, this approach allows students to initiate self-discernment in their
Chinese language usage.

Clearly, teachers should try to anticipate the level of expression of the NCS students’ Chinese language through their own cultural experiences. Appendix II shows two examples of NCS students’ work in the programme mentioned above (Ki, Poon and Kosar, 2011). Example 1 is a love story co-written by a Pakistani and a Nepalese student in Secondary 1. The story reflects the students’ wish for free love as, sometimes, their marriage choice may be restricted on religious or cultural grounds. Example 2 is written by an Indian and a Philippine student. The story is a metaphor for the students themselves and portrays their difficulties (e.g. feeling isolated among Chinese schoolmates) in school and how they might seek social network support. Grasp of linguistics levels and content structures can also be assessed in these stories written from the standpoint of the writer’s own culture. For instance, students in Example 1 might manipulate detailed, descriptive complex sentences, with the use of connectives to maintain the coherence of the story. Students in Example 2 might use appropriate metaphors, although to an extent the story may be fragmented.

The above examples show how teachers might investigate and circumnavigate NCS students’ cultural and personal barriers in learning Chinese through picture writing practice. The type of lesson might also enable the teacher to assess the Chinese language level of the students.
VII. Conclusions

As an international city and a global business centre, Hong Kong is renowned for its high standard of bilingual education in English and Chinese. Teachers in Hong Kong have a history of enabling students to acquire Chinese as their first language and English as their second language. However, they have not fully come to terms with helping immigrant children acquire Chinese as a second language and to use this facility to study all subjects on the school curriculum. The Education Bureau implements regular reviews of the Chinese and English language curricula, and provides substantial resources for enhancing students’ Chinese and English proficiency. However, far-reaching global changes have led to Hong Kong becoming a multilingual city whose citizens come from a range of multicultural backgrounds. Support for NCS children to participate in Hong Kong’s culture is important to avoid potential conflict between South-East Asian minorities and Hong Kong domestic residents. It is thus very important for immigrant-background youngsters to learn the Chinese language spoken by the people of Hong Kong. Sadly, the predominant approach in classrooms in the past in Hong Kong was to expect all NCS students to follow the Chinese language curriculum designed for students from a Chinese linguistic background. Now that the number of children in schools for whom Chinese is a foreign language has grown, it is even more
important that the Hong Kong Government implements a language policy that efficiently enables all of its citizens to use Chinese (at present, Cantonese, and in the future, Putonghua) as a comfortable and ready medium of social and business communication.

Applied too hastily, this might be regarded as indoctrination by NCS students and, rather than being integrated into the Chinese culture, it may potentially generate among NCS students feelings of being disenchanted with education, alienated with Hong Kong society, and trigger emotional and behavioural problems that foster delinquency (Ho, 2001; Heung, 2006).

This paper accepts that some past school curricula presented to NCS students have been inappropriate. There is a need for language support programmes, differentiated curricula, differentiated teaching materials and differentiated teaching approaches that enhance and bolster NCS students’ Chinese language progression. The Chinese Language learning programme within the multi-cultural context mentioned above shows how a curriculum programme designed for learners from one culture can be modified so that it is acceptable and suitable for teaching students from other cultures. The students’ cultural and personal barriers should be seriously researched by teachers so that negative, value-laden practices are not presented in lessons. It is apparent that a single approach is unlikely ever to suit all learners in a multicultural, multilingual society, and that approaches that comfortably suit the wider majority may not be effective with learners from every
non-Hong Kong background.*

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국문초록

다국어·다문화 사회에서 리터러시 교육
– 홍콩의 사례를 중심으로 –

체석감

1997년 중국과 통일한 이후 영국의 식민지였던 홍콩은 이중 언어(광둥어와 영어) 사용 국가에서 삼중 언어(광둥어, 영어, 만다린어/보통화(普通話)로 중국 본토의 표준음) 사용 국가로 변화되었다. 이와 더불어 독립 이후, 홍콩은 중국어를 구사하지 않는 이민자들의 끊임없는 유입을 목격하면서 이러한 상황에서 중국어를 구사하는 교사들은 중국어를 구사하지 못하는 이민자들의 자녀들이 학교에서 중국어로 대화하고 글을 쓸 수 있도록 만들어야 하는 문제에 부딪히게 되었다.

이러한 홍콩의 상황을 해결하기 위한 하나의 방편으로, 이 글에서는 중국어를 구사할 수 있도록 학습자를 교육하는 틀(framework)을 다루었다. 이 교육적 틀은 비중국어 화자인 학습자를 가르쳐 본 교사들의 경험과, 관련 분야의 전문 학술 제적, 그리고 홍콩 교육부에 의해 규정된 교육과정의 권장사항에 의거하여 체계화된 것이다.

이 글에서는 학교 현장과 교사들이 문제를 해결하기 위해 사용했던 행동 전략들에 대해 논의하였으며, 특별히 차별화된 교육과정의 운용과 다양한 교재 및 교구들의 사용에 대해 논의하였다. 또한 모든 학생들을 배울 수 있도록 만드는 교수 전략에 대해서도 다루었다.

[주제어] 다국어, 다문화, 중국어, 차별화된 교육과정, 비중국어 화자로서의 학습자
Abstract

Literacy Education in Multi-lingual and Multi-cultural Societies

- The Hong Kong Experience -

Tse Shek Kam

Since its reunification with China in 1997, the former British colony of Hong Kong has changed from being a bi-lingual (Cantonese and English) to a tri-lingual state (Cantonese, English and Mandarin/Putonghua, the language spoken across Mainland China). Since gaining independence, Hong Kong has witnessed a steady influx of non-Chinese-speaking immigrants whose children present a worrying problem for their Chinese-speaking teachers since all pupils are expected to learn, converse and write in Chinese in school. This paper presents a framework for teaching Chinese to non-Chinese speaking pupils in Hong Kong, a framework assembled from the experiences of teachers who teach non-Chinese-speaking pupils; from the recommendations in the curriculum prescribed by the Hong Kong Educational Bureau; and from scholarly publications on the matter from experts in the field. The actions taken and strategies used as teachers and schools attempt to tackle the problem are discussed, particularly the use of differentiated curricula, the use of diverse teaching materials and resources, and experimentation with teaching strategies so that all pupils may learn.

[key words] multi-lingualism, multi-culture, Chinese Languages, differentiated curricula, non-Chinese speaking students
**[Appendix I] Differentiated Teaching Material for Reading Chinese**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of Difficulties: Word Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Chinese</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><img src="image1.png" alt="Image" /></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><img src="image2.png" alt="Image" /></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>English</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><img src="image3.png" alt="Image" /></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><img src="image4.png" alt="Image" /></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Level of Difficulties: Elementary**

| **Chinese**                       |
| ![Image](image5.png)              |
| ![Image](image6.png)              |

小蜜蜂飞了一天，
又累又饿。
小蜜蜂才知道，
妈妈每天采回家的蜜糖，
是最美味的食糖。
After flying around all day, little bee was tired and hungry.
He knew then that the honey made by his mom was the best food in the world.

小蜜蜂飛了一整天，又累又餓，他很想吃蜂蜜。
小蜜蜂現在才知道，
媽媽每天辛勞採蜜的蜜糖，
才是最美味的食物。

After flying around for the whole day, little bee was tired and hungry.
All he could think about was honey.
Now Little bee knew that the honey made by his mom was the most delicious food in the world.
[Appendix II] NCS students’ works in a picture book reading and writing programmes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Background of Authors</th>
<th>Story</th>
<th>Capture of picture and texts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Example 1:
Cooperative work from a Pakistan and a Nepal student at Secondary 1

Title: Happy Love Story
Main theme: Choices between friendship and love
Example 2  
Cooperative work from an India and a Philippine student at Secondary 4  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Background of Authors</th>
<th>Story</th>
<th>Capture of picture and texts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Title: Small sparrow of minority</td>
<td><img src="image1.png" alt="Image" /></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Main theme: Support from friends and family can overcome setbacks</td>
<td><img src="image2.png" alt="Image" /></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For other works written by the NCS students, please visit:  
(With the permission of Dr. Ki W. W.)