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Contents

Editorial Board

Editorial

The eight articles of this issue for *APJED* provide valuable insights on educational innovation and leadership, teacher professional development, school curriculum transformation, and student academic achievement improvement. The authors examine the trend of educational reform in different countries and provide suggestions for improvement of teaching and learning.

The first article by Dr. Futao Huang addresses the nutrition of creativity and innovation in university and college students from the perspective of curriculum development. Based on the concepts and key dispositions of creativity and innovation, the author develops a research framework for discussing the correlation between curriculum development and creativity cultivation in university and college. Despite the pattern of competence-based curriculum is not totally accepted and fully implemented in most European countries, it may be utilized as one of the most efficient and effective patterns to foster creativity and innovation in students.

The second article in this issue reviews the positioning of teachers in the World Bank Education Sector Strategy 2020 through the lens of Habermas' communicative action theory. Dr. Athena Vongalis-Macrow addresses the embedding of education systems into other social and economic systems, the move towards the ubiquitous learning for all and the ongoing adversarial positioning of teachers, and the limitations of educators' truthfulness and rightness about education. The paper provides sound basis for rethinking the value and the role of teachers within education systems whose development is influenced by agencies such as the World Bank.

In the third article, Dr. Burhanuddin Yasin and Dr. Yunisrina Qismullah Yusuf investigate the policy outcome and feasibility of school-based management (SBM) in Aceh, Indonesia. Although some concepts of SBM were practiced in some schools, the authors argue there are still immense problems need to be resolved to improve SBM implementation and performance. The problems were rooted from the resource of power, such as in decentralization/autonomy, decision making and leadership. In order to resolve the constraints faced in such implementation, this paper suggests that these authorities should demonstrate their commitment to the implementation of SBM by issuing written policies.

The article by Dr. Xiaoxue Kuang and Dr. Kerry J. Kennedy explores students' perception of 'good' citizenship and important behaviors expected of being a 'good' adult citizen in five Asian societies, including Korea, Taiwan, Hong Kong, Indonesia and Thailand. Their paper shows students' attitude to democratic values and traditional culture were identified as significant direct predictors in all the five societies, and students' perception of the possible characteristics of 'good' citizenship was also predictor for students' perceptions of the importance of conventional citizenship and the social-movement-related citizenship. In other words, there is a link between democratic values and the traditional culture, it has a strong effect on students' perceptions of the possible characteristics of 'good' citizenship.

In the fifth article, Dr. Flora L. F. Kan and Dr. Bob Adamson pay attention to national identity and school history in Hong Kong. Since the retrocession of Hong Kong to the People's Republic of China in 1997, the impact of decolonisation on education is naturally of interest to educators. To promote a sense of national identity through the school curriculum, the government has turned the curriculum to a form of nationalistic propaganda, however, the authors argue that an emphasis on either the Chinese identity or the Hongkongese identity might not be beneficial to Hong Kong, for there is an increasing number of children from China settling in Hong Kong, and a large number of non-Chinese children are also living in Hong Kong.

Investigating the correlation between student reading habit, learning strategies, and their academic achievement in Taiwan, Dr. Huey-Min Wu and Dr. Yu-sien Lin also address the gender gap in reading habit is worth more attention to increase male students' reading interest. To enhance the students' learning achievement by utilizing learning strategies, the authors suggest the students should be provided with learning guidance and individual consultation, the teachers should be provided with training courses in effective teaching of learning strategies. Suggestions for educational policy and TASA assessment improvement are also provided in this paper.

Under the context of reforming leadership and management of higher education, Mrs. Phuong Thi Mai Nguyen, Dr. Linley Cornish, and Dr. Victor Minichiello indicate the pressing need to augment leadership and managerial expertise at the institutional level in Vietnam, to develop skills in decision making and to move from reactive to proactive leadership. The paper shows change from an authoritarian hierarchical culture focused on management to a reciprocal culture focused on distributed leadership requires a cultural change in the way higher education institutions are managed and led. The implications provided are not only relevant to higher education policy in Vietnam but in other countries as well.

Taking Hong Kong as an example, Dr. Magdalena Mo Ching Mok, Mr. Michael Ying Wah Wong, Mr. Michael Ronald Su, Dr. Jim Tognolini, and Dr. Gordon Stanley examine students' personal best goal and self-regulation as possible predictors of academic achievement of primary students. Their paper shows students' personal best goal predicted their subsequent mathematics achievement after controlling student gender and grade level. However, self-regulation had no direct effect on students' mathematics achievement. In other words, self-regulation affected mathematics achievement only indirectly via students' personal best goals. The longitudinal studies of over academic years with more data collection incidences are needed.

As a platform for the researchers to share ideas and knowledge in the form of high quality empirical and theoretical original research papers, *APJED* continues to be a bridge between countries across the Asia-Pacific region.

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The Study on the Development of University Curriculum to Cultivate Students' Creativity and Innovation

Futao Huang[*]
Research Institute for Higher Education, Hiroshima University

Abstract

The aim of this paper is to address the issues concerning the nurturing of creativity and innovation in university and college students from the perspective of curriculum development. Firstly, the paper outlines a research focus and identifies the concepts of creativity and innovation, as well as their key dispositions. By making an analysis of earlier studies of the two terms, this paper suggests that both concepts have general aspects which are transferable across all disciplines but which are domain-specific from the view of university education. They are not only viewed differently in different fields or professions, but are also expressed in a number of different forms, depending on the unique cultures, and environments in which they exist. Secondly, the paper presents a brief introduction to major university curriculum patterns from historical and comparative perspectives, examining the connection between these curriculum patterns and the cultivation of students' creativity and innovation. Thirdly, the paper suggests what strategies and measures should be undertaken in order to develop and encourage students' creativity and innovation. The paper concludes with an argument of the practical implications for nurturing students' creativity and innovation, as well as key research issues to be addressed in the future.

Keywords: creativity and innovation, curriculum development, undergraduate students

1 Introduction

With the advancement of knowledge society and economic globalization, we are entering a new age where creativity and innovation are becoming increasingly important. As argued by a large number of scholars, creativity and innovation are essential qualities not only for surviving and thriving in the knowledge-based society of the twenty-first century, but also for managing the complexity, challenges and turbulence of the economic and social orders in which we live, where knowledge creation is a highly valued commodity (Cremin, Burnard, & Craft, 2006). The response of higher education, therefore, is to support and prepare students to effectively manage and work in such environments by supporting the development of creativity, flexibility and motivation (Knight & Yorke, 2003). Actually, in recent years, more and more countries have recognized the importance of fostering creativity and innovation in students at various education levels. They include not only the OECD countries or mature systems (Looney, 2009), but also emerging countries.

To illustrate (Huang, 2006), prior to the mid- 1990s, one of the most striking features of the undergraduate curriculum in Chinese higher education institutions, a curriculum modeled on the that of the former Soviet Union, was the special emphasis placed on training professional manpower through specialized education for industry and socialist construction, especially with respect to engineering programs. As a result, undergraduate curriculum concerning professional education played a very important role in Chinese higher education institutions. Since the latter part of the 1990s, the Chinese government has carried out various strategies for reconstructing structures of university curriculum, including decreased attention to professional education based on specialty, provision of general education programs, and increased consideration given to developing students' capacities or competencies. With the increasing influence of economic globalization and the growing competition of higher education at a global level in recent years, more efforts have been made to foster the creativity of university graduates through the revision of undergraduate programs and renewal of methods of instruction. For example, the National Middle and Long-Term Plan for Developing Human Resources, issued by the Ministry of Education in China in 2010, described concrete, practical strategies and measures concerning the objectives and methods of cultivating human resources with creativity for the next 10 (MOE, 2010).

The aim of this paper is to address the issues concerning the nurturing of creativity and innovation in university and college students from the perspective of curriculum development. The paper begins by outlining a research focus and identifying the concepts of creativity and innovation, as well as key dispositions of creativity

* Corresponding Author: Dr. Huang Futao (futao@hiroshima-u.ac.jp)
Professor, Research Institute for Higher Education
Hiroshima University

and innovation in university. It then provides a brief introduction to major university curriculum patterns from historical and comparative perspectives, examining the correlation between these curriculum patterns and the cultivation of students' creativity and innovation. Thirdly, the paper suggests what strategies and measures should be undertaken in order to develop and encourage creativity and innovation in students in university and college. The paper concludes with an argument of the practical implications for the nurturing of students' creativity and innovation and the research issues to be dealt with in future.

2 Research Focus and Definitions of Key Concepts

2.1 Research Focus

It is generally considered that curriculum development or course planning plays a central role in producing and training students in any higher education institution. Although many studies have explored issues concerning curriculum development at different levels and in different types of educational institutions (e.g., Dewey, 1938; Dressel, 1963a; Evelyn, 1996; Goodlad, 1979; Goodlad & Su, 1992; Haworth, Lattuca, & Conrad, 2002; Levin, 1977; Stark & Lattuca, 1997; Tayler, 1949), there is relatively little research about the correlation between curriculum development and the nutrition of creativity and innovation in students, especially at an undergraduate level. Therefore, this study will make more intensive efforts towards the analysis of university and college curriculum development, focussing on the following research questions.

1. What are core dispositions of creativity and innovation in university students?
2. How can traditional and current curriculum patterns be used, changed, and coordinated to promote and produce university and college students with creativity and innovation?
3. And what strategies and measures can be conducted to foster students' creativity and innovation and to better promote it?

2.2 Definitions of Creativity and Innovation

Arguably, while there are several English terms which have similar meanings to the Chinese term 創新能力 (*Chuangxin nengli*), it seems that both creativity and innovation are equivalent in meaning to the Chinese expression. This paper employs these two English terms to refer to the Chinese word 創新能力. The following argument is mainly concerned with the issue of how these two terms are understood, both in general and more specifically from the perspective of educational science. Firstly, it will review the major literature of creativity, then it will examine how the concept of innovation is defined in earlier studies. Finally, it will introduce the latest research on both concepts by the OECD research teams.

As both creativity and innovation have diverse meanings and many dimensions, and can be interpreted from different perspectives and at various educational levels, it is extremely difficult and challenging to isolate an accurate definition for them. However, previous research indicates that some common characteristics have been found in the two terms. For instance, some scholars claim that creativity involves the production of novel, useful products (Mumford, 2003). Others believe that creativity can also be defined as the process of producing something that is both original and worthwhile, or characterized by originality and expressiveness and imaginative (Albert & Runco, 1999; Csíkszentmihályi, 1996; Sternberg, 2006).

From the view of the educational field, according to an earlier literature review (Cheng, 2004), in recent decades, there is a growing body of literature that concerns not only divergent thinking, but the integration of divergent and convergent thinking in the productive thinking process (i.e., producing new and useful ideas). Instead of focusing on problem solving, studies also recognize the importance of problem finding and sensitivity in the creative process. In affective aspects, William's Taxonomy of Creative Thought suggested that curiosity, imagination, challenge-taking and risk-taking attitudes are conducive to creativity development, while motivational factors, like interest, confidence and value in creative thinking are also important determinants. Amable's studies emphasized that intrinsic motivation on the tasks and playful attitudes facilitate the emergence of creativity. Some creativity-enhancement programs also involve the learning of specific idea-generating heuristics, like brainstorming, mind-mapping, forced association, check-listing, creating metaphors, and creative dramatics. Among them, the brainstorming technique and the creative problem solving technique (CPS) are the most widely adopted in creative learning activities.

While the above-mentioned scholars concentrated on general aspects of creativity, some scholars believe that creativity is domain-sensitive (Baer, 1999). The former might believe that there exist a set of general creative attitudes and abilities that influence an individual's creative behaviors across a given domain, and, through nurturing these apsects, the overall creativity of a person can be enhanced. In contrast, the latter suggested that training in creativity cannot be transferred across domains. Whether this means that creative activities in specific domains, such as science, can enhance general creative attitudes or abilities of students across the spectrum is still an unanswered question.

Recently, the working definition of creativity used by the OECD research group (Lucas, Claxton, & Spencer, 2013), includes approaches which are deemed to be:

1. Complex and multi-faceted, occurring in all domains of life.
2. Learnable.
3. Core to what it is to be successful today.
4. Capable of being analysed at an individual level in terms of dispositions.
5. And strongly influenced by context and by social factors.

Similarly, the concept of innovation can also be defined as something original and new that "breaks in to" the market or into society. For example, according to Frabkelius' definition, "an innovation is something original, new, and important -- In whatever field -- That breaks in to (or obtains a foothold in) a market or society." (Frankelius, 2009).

Since 2005, the definition of innovation that is recognized by OECD countries with an intention of developing to build an internationally consistent way of measuring innovation is widely adopted (OECD, 2005). It suggests that: *Innovation is the implementation of a new or significantly improved product (good or service)*, *process*, *new marketing method or a new organisational method in business practices*, *workplace organisation or external relations*.

Apparently, innovation is about more than just the generation of novel ideas or the dissemination of knowledge, it is about making a change or doing something in a new way. This second element of innovation, *implementation*, is crucial as only those novel ideas that are implemented can have an impact on society. It is this implementation element that separates *knowledge* and *invention* from *innovation*.

Recently, from the perspective of education, there is increasing consensus about which dispositions might serve as indicators of the strength of creative-mindedness in individuals. For example, in a comprehensive meta-analytical review of the creativity literature, Treffinger et al. (2002) compared 120 definitions of creativity in papers exploring the 'traits,' 'characteristics,' and other personal 'attributes' distinguishing highly creative individuals from their peers. From these 120 definitions they compiled a list of creative dispositions (cognitive, personality, and biographical), cited in at least three sources, clustering them into four categories:

1. Generating ideas.
2. Digging deeper into ideas.
3. Openness and courage to explore ideas; and
4. Listening to one's 'inner voice'.

Furthermore, after carefully weighing the pros and cons of existing lists of creative dispositions in the light of our criteria, Lucas et al. explored the following five core dispositions of the creative mind in their research model, describing creative approaches as:

1. Inquisitive. Clearly creative individuals are good at uncovering and pursing interesting and worthwhile questions in their creative domain.
2. Persistent: Including sticking with difficulty, daring to be different, and tolerating uncertainty.
3. Imaginative. At the heart of a wide range of analyses of the creative personality is the ability to come up with imaginative solutions and possibilities.
4. Collaborative. An emphasis on the social and collaborative nature of the creative process. And
5. Disciplined. As a counterbalance to the 'dreamy,' imaginative side of creativity, there is a need for knowledge and craft in shaping the creative product and in developing expertise.

In the study, though there exist slight differences in the two terms, many more similarities can be found in them through a review of research literature. Therefore, the concepts of creativity and innovation are treated as follows:

1. The two concepts are used interchangeably in the paper.
2. The core dispositions or components of both creativity and innovation consist of a combination of abilities, skills, motivations, attitudes and especially divergent thinking and general problem-solving heuristics which transcend traditional ideas, rules, patterns, relationships, and the like to generate new ideas, artefacts, products, interpretations or ways of viewing situations and/or problems.
3. Both terms have general aspects, which can be transferred across all disciplines but are domain-specific from the view of university education.
4. Creativity and innovation are not only viewed differently in different fields or professions, but also expressed in a number of different forms, depending on the unique cultures, and environments in which they exist.

To sum up, the cultivation of creativity and innovation in university students is mainly concerned with the production of students who are imaginative, observant, persistent, expressive, explorative, flexible, playful, and critically reflective.

3 Major University Curriculum Patterns

There are a vast number of ways to describe patterns of university and college curriculum. For example, according to Dressel, there are four distinctive types of undergraduate programs. They include liberal education of a non-preparatory nature, preparatory education for graduate study, professional undergraduate programs, and occupational curriculums (Dressel, 1963b). Gellert divided the European university tradition into three strands. The first is a strand in which "scientific education" is emphasized in essence, this strand the Humboldtian

tradition of German university. The second is a strand in which "professional education" is emphasized, and is epitomized by France's *grandes ecoles*. The third is a strand that values "liberal education," which is attributed to the Oxbridge ideal (Gellert, 1993). More recently, Scott discussed the synergies and the contradictions between general education and mass higher education by identifying five main types of general education. These include liberal education, general education, popular education, inter-discipline education, and the education focusing on core competencies, and generic and transferable employability skills (Scott, 2002).

Gellert's earlier research provides a basic conceptual framework from which the argument made in this study was taken. In this study, major patterns of university and college curriculum, particularly at an undergraduate level, are identified from the perspective of objectives of university education. Impacted by various factors, including social, economic and political changes, as well as the advancement of knowledge, from the medieval times to the present day, there have emerged different types of university and college curriculums which are responsive to the diversifying demands of society. In the study, four major patterns are discussed. They include liberal and general education, professional education, scientific or research-oriented education, and competence-based education. Historically speaking, the pattern of liberal education developed as early as the 12th century in Europe. With the appearance of modern states, the pattern of professional education in the 18th century in France emerged. Based on the idea of liberal education, the pattern of general education came into being in the latter part of the 19th century in the United States. Especially since the 1980s, with the growing influence of globalization, the pattern of competence or competency-based education has gradually exerted a considerable impact on graduating students in European countries. As will be discussed below, these four patterns emerged in different phases, are changing over time, and their key characteristics are represented in some typical countries.

During the medieval era, in the later part of the 12th century when the University of Paris took its full shape, evidence shows that both liberal education and professional education had a strong impact on the school's teaching activities. Though liberal education was largely considered a fundamental education program, in which professional educational programs were provided, it almost dominated the entire education approach of the two traditional universities in England: the University of Oxford and the University of Cambridge. At an ideal level, it was aimed at producing well-educated, well-rounded elites and leaders of society; at a system level, it was delivered in small-sized colleges; at a program level, it was mainly concerned with the provision of the "seven liberal arts" which included Greek and Latin languages, literature and history, religious and moral education -- Especially studies in humanities. In the early 17th century, liberal education was introduced into North America and provided the basis for the core curriculums at the Harvard College. However, by the 19th century, nearly 150 years after the term liberal education was exported from Europe, in particular from England, the concept had changed considerably, resulting in an educational approach with clear American characteristics. This is partly reflected in the Yale Report of 1828. Since then, it has been revived as the model of general education in USA and has provided an important basis for the theory and practice of general education, as was evidenced in the report of the Harvard Committee on "The Objectives of a General Education in a Free Society" (Harvard Committee, 1945). Differing from the liberal education, the primary objective of general education is to produce free and responsible citizens with critical thinking, in addition to various capabilities and skills. Mainly provided in the first half of an undergraduate education, its programs include a wide range of elective programs in humanities, social science and natural science, alongside majors chosen according to students' interests and preferences. But since 1980s, the two terms have shared more and more similarities. In a major sense, currently they can be considered as two interchangeable terms in many US universities and colleges (AACU, 2009). Before the 18th century, the model of the liberal curriculum had played a major role in European and North America university education, in particular in traditional universities in England. During the Modern era, in addition to this model, the other three models, which were mentioned earlier, were developed.

With respect to the professional education, after the French Revolution of 1789, a new pattern of professional educational curriculums came into existence. One of its most striking characters was its focus on the preparation of qualified professional and specialized graduates, especially technical manpower, for the state. Normally, this type of education was carried out in the non-university sector, in settings such as specialized colleges or technical institutions. Compared with the broad-ranging instruction in the liberal or general education, more emphasis was placed on the delivery of narrowly and highly specialized scientific, technical and professional training programs, mostly in applied sciences and engineering fields.

Almost at the same time, based on the Wilhelm von Humboldt's concept, the pattern of the research-oriented curriculum was formed in the University of Berlin. By integrating teaching and research in research universities, this pattern aimed to graduate scholars and researchers pursuing pure science and truth without any practical

or utilitarian purpose. At a program level, it stressed the importance of modern studies concerning humanities, social science and natural science with a special emphasis on philosophy, basically in the form of seminars focused on research activities which were chaired by professors in institute or laboratorium. Though this ideal was not put into practice at the undergraduate level in many countries, including its site of inception, Germany, it was used as a model for graduate education systems in the US and affected Japanese academics' preferences for research since its establishment of modern university in later nineteenth century.

Prior to the end of the WWII, the significance of the role of the liberal or general education and professional education at the undergraduate level cannot be overestimated. In a major sense, by the 1950s, the two patterns had significantly shaped undergraduate systems in the vast majority of countries, though their influence differs considerably by region, country, institution, and even by discipline. In some countries, the history of curricular reforms has been essentially undertaken in defense of either liberal/general education or professional education (Rudolph, 1977). And it seems that the familiar debate still continues in more countries nowadays.

Since the 1960s, originated in vocational education and training at a secondary education level, there have appeared two representative approaches to competence-based education at a tertiary education level. The behavioristic approach to competence-related education has typically been represented by the Anglo-Saxon countries, while the holistic or integrated approach to it is more widely accepted in the European Continent countries. To illustrate, the behavioristic approach is essentially concerned with the evaluation of performance, in accordance with established norms. "Competency refers to the group of skills and knowledge which are applied in order to carry out a task or function, in accordance with the requirements imposed by the job." In contrast, the holistic-integrative focus is closely linked to "global professional definitions which place greater emphasis on the improvement of the training process" (Tippelt & Amoros, 2003). Moreover, some scholars claim that competence is seen as a whole, representing the sum of knowledge, capabilities, skills and attitudes displayed in a context with an appropriate level of generality or holism (Hodkinson & Issitt, 1995).

Currently, the competence-based education in Europe is affected by the social constructionism approach at an ideal level. At a system level, it is implemented in technical or vocational institutions, outside of research of comprehensive universities. At the level of curriculum or programs, it is mainly concerned with subject-specific competence and generic competence. However, though many differences exist in the understanding and practice of the two approaches, since the late 1990s, both of them have increasingly emphasized the comprehensive or generic competence-based education and training, in addition to subject-specific competence. It seems that the ongoing reforms of competence-based education include, not only the traditional vocational programs, but also professional knowledge and subject-specific competence, as well as some core value which is pursued in liberal and general education (Huang, 2011).

As mentioned above, since the early 20th century, cultural factors, especially the rapidity of industrialization, the expansion of higher education and the introduction of science and technology have influenced a dramatic change in curricular models. Both the pattern of liberal curriculums (though the term is still employed in many US universities) and the pattern of research-oriented curriculums gradually gave way to the patterns of general curriculums and professional curriculums as well as competence-based education in some countries at the undergraduate level. In a major sense, especially in the most recent years, these three curricular models have exerted an increasingly significant impact on changes and reforms in undergraduate programs worldwide.

It appears that, according to the definition of creativity and innovation employed in the study, all of the patterns of curriculum presented so far include some aspects of developing students' creativity and innovation. Though each pattern has its own focus, in a major sense, each one could be employed to serve the cultivation of students' creativity and innovation, especially the pattern of competence-based curriculum, which holds striking promise. Despite this advantage, it is neither fully accepted nor fully implemented even in most European countries when, at least at an ideal level, it shares many components and dispositions with the concepts of creativity and innovation and might therefore be utilized as one of the most efficient and effective patterns to foster creativity and innovation in students.

4 Strategies and Measures

Since the mid-1980s, several researchers have proposed methods of increasing the creativity and innovation of individuals, including university students. Such ideas range from the psychological-cognitive -- Such as Osborn-Parne's creative problem-solving process, Synectic's science-based creative thinking, Purdue's creative thinking program, and Edward de Bono's later thinking -- To the highly structured, such as TRIZ (the Theory of Inventive Problem-Solving) and its variant Algorithm of Inventive Problem Solving[1], as well as Computer-Aided Morphological analysis.

[1] This approach was developed by the Russian scientist Genricher Altshuller.

From the perspective of curriculum development, tremendous attempts have been made to foster students' creativity and innovation. To illustrate, Nickerson provides a summary of the various creativity techniques that have been proposed (Nickerson, 1999). These include approaches that have been developed by both academia and industry, such as:

1. Establishing purpose and intention.
2. Building basic skills.
3. Encouraging acquisitions of domain-specific knowledge.
4. Stimulating and rewarding curiosity and exploration.
5. Building motivation, especially internal motivation.
6. Encouraging confidence and a willingness to take risks.
7. Focusing on mastery and self-competition.
8. Promoting supportable beliefs about creativity.
9. Providing opportunities for choice and discovery.
10. Developing self-management (metacognitive skills).
11. Teaching techniques and strategies for facilitating creative performance.
12. Providing balance.

In addition, some professional associations in the United States have also made both general and specific suggestions about the encouragement of student innovation in their curriculum development. For example, in 2011 the ABET (Accreditation Board for Engineering and Technology) made the following suggestions regarding how to foster innovation in curriculum (ABET, 2011).

4.1 Program-Oriented Suggestions

- Introduce practice-based problems.
- Innovation with technical electives.
- Have interdisciplinary programs.
- Value innovation in curriculum in tenure decisions.
- Hold professional development education in innovation for professors.

4.2 ABET-Oriented Suggestions

- Perceived "bean counting" about form rather than substance stifles innovation.
- Create awards to recognize innovation.
- ABET could be more explicit about what innovation could look like as part of a program -- More explicit direction and told how students can be brought along.
- Explicitly ask for examples in self-study -- Share examples with visit team.
- Help programs understand the areas where innovation is "permitted" (or won't conflict with essential elements of "compliance").

The direct result of what we have learnt from the review of literature about the concepts of both creativity and innovation, as well as an analysis of changing patterns of university curriculums in the historical and comparative perspectives, suggests that individual strategies and measures should be implemented if the aim of cultivating students' creativity and innovation is to be achieved.

4.3 Facilitating a Collaboration of Various Stakeholders with Academics and Students

In a strict sense, it is a new challenge for most countries and systems to adopt a totally new model of cultivating their students through a partnership and collaboration between government, industry, academics and other diverse stakeholders. Therefore policy makers should first of all develop supportive policies and favorable environments to foster students' creativity and innovation and the resulting positive benefits. Such supportive policies might range from funding both national and institutional curriculum reforms to supporting regulatory change, funding good practices in relation to the cultivation of students' creativity and innovation, and using national frameworks of quality assurance to 'pull' the production of students' creativity and innovation through. In addition, good communication, especially a direct and close collaboration between government, industry, academics, students and other stakeholders is ultimately necessary and important. The integration of government supportive policies and institutional incentives are especially desirable.

In order to create this kind of educational change, on the one hand, individual governments would be expected to develop and implement national policies to stress the importance of cultivating creativity and innovation in their students, both in light of their national context and social background, and also to allocate public funding in supporting each institution to change its curriculum pattern, engage in faculty development activities, renew methods of teaching, and so forth. On the other hand, individual institutions should endeavor to set up their own missions of education and establish supportive systems and environments in which activities concerning the production of students' creativity and innovation could be carried out.

4.4 Building up the Clear Objective and Changing Culture in Overall Curriculum

Although there are no universally-accepted definitions of the concepts of creativity and innovation, and educational systems vary significantly depending on different regions, countries, and systems, the primary and essential strategy that should be conducted is that each system and institution should set up a clear-cut educational objective in which the cultivation of students' creativity and innovation is embedded. More importantly, in some systems and institutions where traditional patterns of professional or general education have a dominant role in curriculum development, the educational culture ought to be changed and improved to devote more efforts to students' creative and innovative development alongside

the existing traditional forms of curriculum and academic programs.

Repeatedly, each system and institution will need to invent its own solutions in ways that are consistent with the society and its cultures, and decide whether the competence-based curriculum will replace the traditional or current curriculum patterns in many countries to become the new paradigm is yet to be seen. Seemingly, it is more directly concerned with the nurturing of students' creativity and innovation, the study suggests that the curriculum development which is indicated in Figure 1 may be considered as an alternative option while students' creativity and innovation is to be produced and encouraged.

4.5 Adopting Diversified Means of Fostering Students' Creativity and Innovation

Related strategies and measures which are expected to be undertaken at an institutional level are that development of flexible, operational and diversified means to foster students' creativity and innovation at an institutional and departmental , and even at program levels. According to the previous research (Ennis, 1989, 1998), it is recommended that at least three approached could be taken to the curriculum development, aiming at cultivating creativity and innovation in students.

1. General approach:
   To develop and design comprehensive and university-wide curriculum and programs with a focus on the aspects of problem-finding, problem-solving and critical thinking and other content which are of relevance to students' creativity and innovation.
2. Infusion approach:
   To incorporate deliberatively content and materials which help students form creativity and innovation in individual programs, including professional, vocational, and technical educational programs.
3. Immersion approach:
   Differing from the general approach, this method does not provide specific programs of fostering students' creativity and innovation, but students are immersed into the process of acquiring relevant dispositions and components consisting of creativity and innovation during their regular learning activities.
4. Mixed approach:
   To combine different types of teaching methods and approach, most often faculty members make a range of approached to the provision of their programs and lectures with an intention of cultivating creativity and innovation in their students.

4.6 Developing Operational Method of Assessing Students' Creativity and Innovation

Another important issue concerning the production of students' creativity and innovation, as pointed out by many previous studies, is how to measure and assess students' creativity and innovation. This is especially true in higher

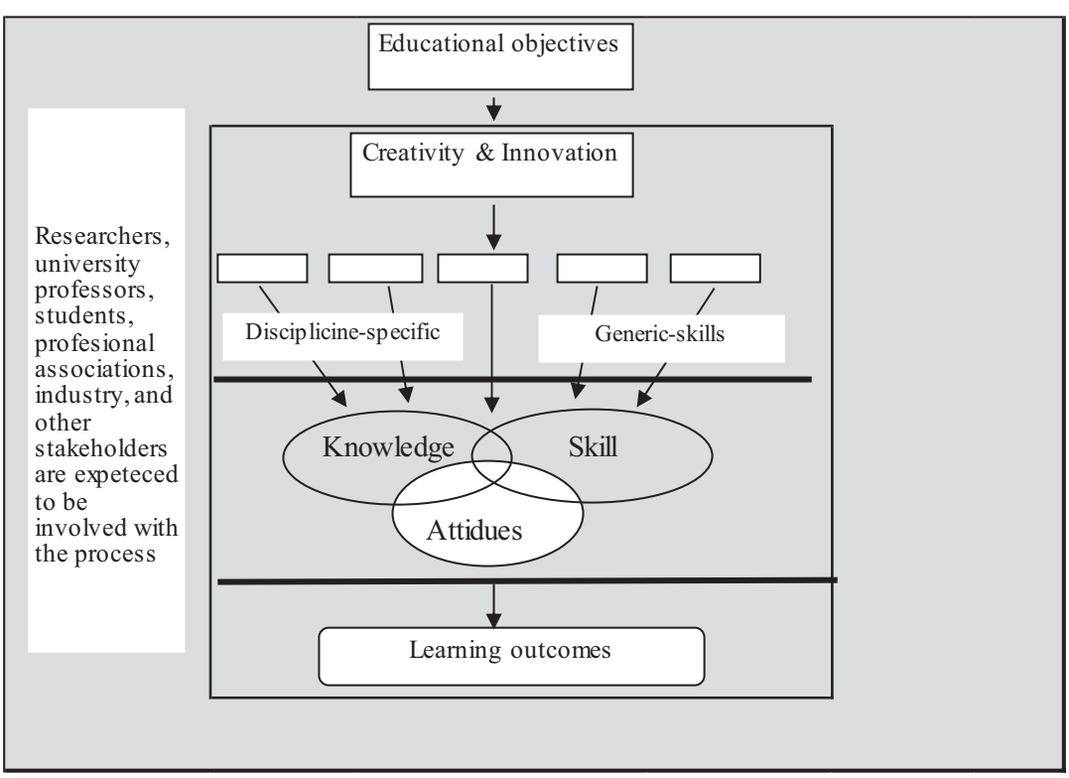

Figure 1 The Curriculum Development of Fostering Creativity and Innovation in Students.

Source: Based on Kouwenhoven (2009) with author's major modifications.

education. For example, as early as 2000, Jackson identified a range of problems that embraced: Creativity and innovation in higher education, the first is assessment and standards as serious constraints (Janson, 2000). In addition, The OECD research group also confirmed that their review found no examples of widely used and credible methods of assessing creativity in schools, although it uncovered some noble attempts and experiments.

However, despite the difficulties, since the early 1980s, a great deal of progress has been made in assessing creativity and innovation in school and university education. One of them is that an increasing consensus has been reached among scholars, faculty members, and policy to assess students' creativity and innovation by looking at their learning outcomes instead of paying attention to what has been taught for them. Consequently, though very complicated and socially situated, developing an operational method of assessing students' creativity and innovation based on various evidence, with a focus on how far they have acquired relevant and key dispositions and components of creativity and innovation, or how significantly students have changed by taking different approaches to learning activities concerning creativity and innovation appears to become a dominant way in assessing students' creativity and innovation.

5 Concluding Remarks

Though there is no universally acknowledged definition of either creativity or innovation from the perspective of education science, several key characteristics of these concepts have been identified. Therefore, except for the transmission of fixed knowledge and mere vocation or profession-oriented skills, all the traditional and existing curriculum patterns and all the disciplines can contribute to the cultivation of students' creativity and innovation though there may be conceptual variations in how it is understood. Among all the patterns, it appears that the idea of competence-based curriculum is more and directly involved with the production and encouragement of students' creativity and innovation.

As discussed earlier, because students' creativity and innovation is culture-based and socially situated, such activities which are implemented through curriculum development and other means tend to be significantly dependent on distinctive contexts, systems and societies. The objective and curriculum pattern based on which students' creativity and innovation are expected to be developed ought to be judged, evaluated and accepted by individual systems, culture and societies.

Any system, institution, or program with a purpose of cultivating students' creativity and innovation, first of all, needs to identify in what context or social background its curriculum is developed and based on what major curriculum pattern its teaching activities are undertaken for the production of graduates. Then it needs to make a decision of whether it should adopt a totally new pattern to foster students' creativity and innovation or just maintain the current pattern but devote more efforts to the nurturing of students' creativity and innovation. Furthermore, it needs to assess what part and at what level of its curriculum, as well as what approach can be best -- Or at least sufficiently -- Employed to achieve its purpose.

As noted earlier, due to the fact that a vast majority of Asian countries established their modern universities by central governments with the clear aim of producing elites and manpower for the state's economic growth. Their university curriculum patterns are fundamentally based on the vocational and professional education models. For example, compared with the United States, the undergraduate educational programs in China, Japan, South Korea, Malaysia, Singapore, Viet Name, as well as well as Hong Kong, all concentrate on providing professional and vocational education content (Barnett & Symons, 2000; Yee, 1994). It is likely to assume that a general approach is expected to be made to the formation of students' creativity and innovation, together with other approaches.

Finally, from the discussions of the production and encouragement of students' creativity and innovation, which have been made from the perspective of curriculum development, it is clear that a great deal more comprehensive and in-depth research needs to be undertaken. For example, on what aspects should the educational approach to creativity and innovation be focussed? What are the typical views of creativity and innovation from the field or profession of education? How does the educational view of creativity and innovation vary depending on different cultures, countries, systems and regions? What are effective ways to foster students' creativity and innovation at an undergraduate level? And how to develop scientific and operational indicators to measure students' creativity and innovation from the perspective of education?

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Invested Truth in World Bank Education Policy: The Exclusion of Educators' Perspectives in the Future of Education

Athena Vongalis-Macrow[*]
School of Education, Deakin University

Abstract

The objective of the paper is to critically review the positioning of teachers in the World Bank's Education Sector Strategy 2020. The review is framed through the lens of Habermas' communicative action theory (CTA) to show how teachers' truth, rightfulness and truthfulness are obfuscated in the new policy. Habermas centres notions of democratization and participation as key requirements for representative systems. However, as the new strategy takes shapes, what is more apparent is the further marginalization of educators and education scholars from education reforms. The review suggests that education and teachers' work is becoming further embedded in broader social and economic systems. This is despite extensive consultations that are a feature of the new strategy and its development. The paper raises questions about the work of teachers and their place within education systems whose development is influenced by agencies such as the World Bank. As more of the analytical and intellectual tasks associated with education and teachings are being taken over agencies and organisations, this paper asks the question; where do teachers belong? Rather than understanding education strategy and reform as a process of engaging only government and policy makers, I will argue that engaging the practitioners and listening to the practical discourse around reform, teachers provide insights into good education policy which shows that they can be spearhead reforms rather than obfuscated agents.

Keywords: education policy, teachers, policy making process, World Bank, Habermas, Education for All

1 Introduction

Much research has been conducted about the value of teachers and the role of those educated members of communities to take leadership (Arnove, Torres, & Franz, 2012). This is nowhere more critical than in developing and middle income countries where teachers are important social and educational actors (Santori, Stromquist, & Torres, 2013). However, the current World Bank Education Sector Strategy (ESS2020) highlights the diminishing place of teachers in more regulated and monitored education systems. This paper analyses the current World Bank policies addressing educational planning for the next decade. World Bank Education Sector Strategy 2020 sets ambitious targets for education in developing countries and has been extensively analysed for its policies on education, languages, accountability (Collins &Wiseman, 2012). The bank has a long history of influence in structuring education in developing countries for many decades (Heyneman, 2012; Spring, 2008). Critics of World Bank policy have focussed on contesting the key methodologies and economic modelling based on forecasting rates of return from education development relied upon by the Bank's policy makers. Critics argued that such measures and methodologies were out of place in education because the neoliberal tenets underlying policy contributed to failures in reforming education systems (Jones, 2007; Spring, 1998). The current strategy has taken on board some of the criticism of World Bank policy making by reforming the policy making process (Collins & Wiseman, 2012). Subsequent discussion will show that in terms of representation in the policy making process, there has been greater involvement of local experts and the World Bank has conducted more extensive and visible consultations prior to policy making.

The emphasis on consultation focussed the primacy of getting more stakeholder and localised involvement in policy making. This priority centres the notion of communication and deliberations at the core of policy negotiations. For this reason, analysis of the ESS2020 is will be analysed by focussing on the quality of communication and representation. Analysis framed by Habermas's theory of communicative action centres notions of representation, democracy and legitimacy as indicators of policy and governance fairness. These themes resonate as critical themes for education development because the Bank does not have a mandate to govern, and is therefore reliant on negotiations and bargaining of its policies with local stakeholders. The quality of negotiations influence the nature of representation and how this is enabled as

* Corresponding Author: Dr. Athena Vongalis-Macrow (athena.vongalis-macrow@deakin.edu.au)
Senior Lecturer, School of Education
Deakin University

fundamental practices of democratic policy making. By referring to the work of Habermas, policy making is inclusive of the political interactions that co-create new institutions rather than reform and change of institutions being thought of as merely part of a planning process (Dryzek, 1995).

Habermas's (1981/1987) theory of communicative acts (TCA) is based on truth, rightness and truthfulness (Figure 1). These three notions are context dependent and represent objective ideas about what is true, the shared social world in which ideas about what is true are negotiated and the internal word of truthfulness which are personal expressions and subjectivities. Habermas's notion of communicative action is theorised as a structure to enable cooperative action resulting from a synergistic construction of truth, right and truthfulness. Creating a synergy of understanding is part of a communicative process and negotiation. As Habermas notes, "coming to an understanding is not an empirical event that causes a de facto agreement; it is a process of mutually convincing one another in which the action of the participants are coordinated on the basis of motivation by reason" (Habermas, 1985, p. 392).

Framing the policy as communicative action that represents different stakeholders' perception and beliefs of truth, right and rightfulness, means that the focus is not only on the outcome, but also on the fairness of the process. If applied to policy making, the focus would be not only on meeting policy outcomes, but on the quality of the interactions and deliberations of the social actors, inclusive of policy takers, as they negotiate ways to reach an understanding about the nature of the proposed changes and how these can be co-operatively achieved. Framing the understanding of policy as a communicative action takes into account the two interconnected purposes of policy that is, as a communication tool which can shed light on the process of making policy and how truth, right and rightfulness are negotiated. It can also act as an enabling tool which will ensure that the effectiveness of policy is based on the shared understanding of the stakeholders in the outcomes.

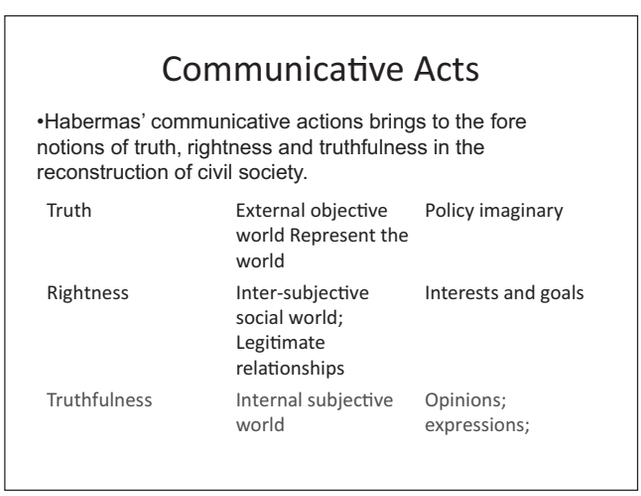

Figure 1 Communicative Action Diagram

2 The Communicative Actions of ESS2020

The Education Sector Strategy plan for 2020 has been developed with extensive consultation with external stakeholders and three different internal working groups aimed at providing clear evidence of wide ranging consultation and policy input (World Bank, 2010a). The Concept Note, which precedes the policy, affirms a clear message the final education policy will be derived from consultations and the input of stakeholders. The conceptual aim is for a consensual reconstruction of civil societies in target nations. It is the within the dynamics of reconstruction and representation that the machinations of policy are evident. The focus on civil reconstruction and representation is the conceptual domain of Habermas. It is within the negotiations over how we should live that Habermas's notions of democracy and legitimacy are predominant and it through communicative acts that these negotiations take place (Dryzek, 2001).

The new strategy asks the question, "What will the world look like in ten years and how can the Bank best tailor its work in education to help countries achieve a prosperous and equitable future?" (World Bank, 2010a, p. 1). The policy is essentially asking how should be live in the future and in doing so, is engaging with others to communicate their representation of their values and beliefs, that is their truthfulness, to be considered in creating a possible future. Communicative acts also consist of a communication of the rightness of the vision about what is possible in ten years' time. In this case, sharing subjective understandings about the rightness of the vision of the future means disclosing the interests and goals of the policy, revealing the partnerships and relationships necessary to create legitimacy, and the nature of the cooperation amongst the social relations, in order to make real the future.

Building upon the basic question and vision around what education will look like in ten years, the creation of a new strategy began with the process of soliciting views and engaging in a range of communicative acts. The elaboration on the consultation and draft strategy, as phase 2 of drafting the new strategy, highlights communicative action, that is soliciting different truthfulness statements and representation. These would be the subjective values and beliefs held by particular actors and stakeholders. For example, the consultations were conducted in different

languages so there is no privileging of English. They were conducted in face to face consultations, blended consultations using Webinar and teleconferencing, online consultations, and feedback to stakeholders. The consultations were encouraging different notions of rightfulness from sector and non-sector staff, internal stakeholders, representatives from client countries, and global partners inclusive of NGOs, teachers' unions, youth groups and the private sector (World Bank, 2010d, p. 14). The policy making process took on a more communicative function, that is inviting different actors to represent their perspectives of the truth and what is right, with a view to reaching some common understanding about the aims of education reforms and how the benefits will be shared. Those who are included in the consultations had an advantage in that their truth and rightfulness values were represented in policy and by participating they had a greater opportunity to participate in creating a form of negotiated truth that will be represented in the outcomes of policy, in this case the ESS2020.

The next section will critically explore the negotiated outcomes of policy deliberations that resulted from the communicative acts evident in and through the consultations. World Bank education reform and change has drawn criticism because of the way the Bank privileged its own policy personnel and their expertise (Heyneman, 2003; Lauglo, 1996). What were often omitted from policy were the deliberations between those affected and impacted by policy, such as teachers. The question remains whether teachers, as critical actors and stakeholder in education, were effectively consulted in the policy process so their collective notions of truthfulness and rightness about education are represented in the outcomes of policy.

3 Systems, Learning and Teachers

Negotiation and argumentation are the staple features of convincing others of intent of strategic actions (Wheelen & Hunger, 2012). Mutual agreements are sought around negotiating what is possible and desirable. This section analyses some of the key features of ESS2020 and then discusses the implications for education and teachers. If it can be summed up in a single phrase, it is the loss of habitat. Education is no longer a distinct site and teachers, no longer inhabitants of a distinct site. In effect, the truth as presented by ESS2020 means that education and teachers become further diffused within broader social and economic systems.

3.1 Systems Wide Embeddeness

Part of the discursive persuasiveness of the new strategy is that it draws education into the interconnected systems of quality necessary for a country's prosperity (World Bank, 2010a, p. 1). The policy stresses a "whole-sector approach" to policy making for education so that education is part of a range of social, economic and civil systems such as agriculture; climate change; energy; environment; gender; governance; health; technology; private sector; transport etc. (World Bank, 2011, Annex 3). Education is no longer an addition to aid development and to aid in the implementation of health policy, as it was largely constructed the 60s. Education is no longer an economic measure adapted to showcase a neoliberal economic growth plan. Instead, the ESS2020 constructs education as a capacity that crosses across all fields of development. Education and learning are embedded in the development of all social and economic systems. For example, Figure 2 shows that education contributes to the development of science and innovation. Education contributes to science and innovation through the training and development of skills and capacity of scientists. In addition, the science and innovation sector also contribute to education by creating knowledge and creating demand for research and study in the field. Similarly, in the development of gender equality, as a social and economic development goal, education contributes to gender empowerment and in doing so, gender empowerment contributes to more demand for education. Education is no longer a stand-alone field, but rather its value, that is the truth about education, is that it is embedded in other systems as a way to build capacity. It is through the embeddedness that education is further enhanced too.

3.2 Learning for All

A key shift of policy moves away from education for all to the notion of learning for all. The Millennium Development Goals target universal primary education and gender equality however, despite the number of children attending school has fallen from 100 million more children to an estimated 72 million, this number still remains a challenge for policy.

> However, progress towards Education for All has been uneven, with many areas of the world not on track to achieve the MDGs by 2015. In 2007, almost half of the world out of school children lived in sub Saharan Africa and a quarter of them lived in south Asia; estimates show that one third of out of school children live in areas affected by conflict. (World Bank, 2010c)

Despite shortcoming and uneven progress towards meeting the Millennium Goals, the demand for education increases. The focus on *Learning for All* compared to *Education for All* concentrates on systemic capacity

Science, Technology, and Innovation Action Plan 2009	1. Form partnerships 2. Carry out inclusive innovation assessments and projects 3. Organize workshops and forums for promotion and dissemination 4. Provide policy advice and capacity building 5. Provide information on what other STI actors are doing	**Education contributes to STI:** •Trains the next generation of scientists, engineers, technicians, and policy makers •Strengthens the capacity of local scientific and engineering institutions to conduct R&D **STI contributes to education:** •Creates knowledge for content development •Creates demand for science education at all levels
Gender Equality as Smart Economics: A World Bank Group Gender Action Plan (Fiscal years 2007-10)	Goal: Advance women's economic empowerment by enhancing women's ability to participate in land, labor, financial and product markets. 1. Engender operations and technical assistance in economic sectors 2. Implement results-based initiatives (RBIs) 3. Improve research and statistics 4. Undertake a targeted communications campaign	**Education contributes to gender empowerment:** • Skilled women will have better chances to participate in productive markets • Eliminating gender disparities in education (MDGs 3) is a highly effective way to empower women **Gender empowerment contributes to education:** • Children of empowered women have better education and health outcomes.

Figure 2 Education Embeddeness

Source: World Bank, 2011, Annex 3.

building aimed at achieving set learning goals and objectives.

> The new education strategy differs from the past strategies in its focus on learning which may be attained partly by more investments in inputs such as more trained teachers or university professors, a better curriculum, and more learning materials, but which needs also institutional changes in the education system. (World Bank, 2010b)

The mere act of attending school is not enough to ensure that learning is taking place. The bank's briefing on education reform states, "Yet access to and completion of schooling is insufficient if children are not learning what they need to learn" (World Bank, 2010b, p. 2). The policy presents a more focussed understanding of not only schooling but also the outcomes of schooling beyond attendance, that is, on learning.

The key focus on learning and skills is referenced against technological progress, globalization and national quotas for skilled workers to enable economies to grow and compete within a global economy.

> Literacy and numeracy are not the only skills that are needed in the labour market. The Bank helps countries provide education that creates a skilled and productive labour force, leading to economic productivity and competitiveness, knowledge generation, and increased earning potential. (World Bank, 2010c, p. 2)

The new strategy reinforces the connection between education, the provision of skilled labour, economic productivity and competitiveness, knowledge generation and earning capacity. In this case, despite the different input from different actors and their versions of truthfulness that represent their values and beliefs about education, the policy rhetoric has much in common with the policy rhetoric in previous World Bank education policies. The policy truth, that is the objective representation, dovetails with the primary interests of the World Bank as a global financial institution with an interest in 'the flow of capital' (Vongalis-Macrow, 2009). It can be argued that the focus on learning is objectified as a traditional World Bank policy, where the definition of policy resembles the World Bank notion of policy as a process or a guide for the flow of money (World Bank, 2001).

The shift from education to learning raises questions about how the value of learning would have been represented in the consultation processes by other groups. It would be questionable to expect that community groups, teachers, and other social agent would abandon the idea of education for all simply because the outcomes have been difficult to achieve. As a global social policy, EFA, has raised awareness and created momentum for educational provision for all children. This policy has been part of the policy truth and imagery about education for decades. Therefore, when ESS2020 suggests that focus change, what is occurring is a major objective change in how education is implicated in creating a policy future. The World Bank's truth that learning should be the focus of policy, suggests

that somehow education and educational institutions are inadequate. The rightness of this position is justified when the Bank suggests that education is somehow not focussed on learning. However, as critics such as Brock-Utne (2013) have argued, the work of the Bank has actively undermined many developing education systems, therefore, the focus on learning rather than education can be interpreted as a way for the Bank to rescript its role in education and shape policy agenda through its version of the truth.

The concept note stresses that consultations were undertaken with non-sector staff, internal stakeholders, NGOs, teachers' unions and youth groups yet it is difficult to associate the notion of learning and potential earning, as stressed in the policy, as the truthfulness and rightness of these diverse groups who have an interest in securing well resourced and effective education systems to create an sustainable, well-educated citizenry (Porter, 2014).

3.3 Teachers

The shift from Education for All to Learning for All has implications for teachers.

> The new strategy adds a systemic view of teacher reforms in which policy goals relate to setting clear expectations for teachers, ensuring that pay and benefits are competitive so as to attract the best into the teaching profession, prepare teachers through both pre-service training and classroom practice, monitoring the performance of teachers, as well as supporting and motivating them as needed. (World Bank, 2010b)

While there is recognition that teachers' unions are stakeholders in the consultation around education reform, they are still identified as potential disruptors of change. Reviewing a World Bank blog on education (Goldstein, 2010) focuses mostly on the political actions of teachers through their unions and the negative impact of such actions. For example, the tendency to strike is an issue. Citing an example from Sao Paolo teachers,

> Sao Paula teachers went to strike over a proposal to make new recruits take tests before they start work to ensure they are qualified; last year they created a furore when the state government asked them to teach from standard textbooks. They proposed a plan to pay staff bonuses depending on their school' performance, but surprisingly went silent since 70% of the state teachers received a bonus. (Goldstein, 2010, p. 1)

Such examples of teachers taking strike action in defiance of government proposals, are supposed to illustrate the self-interest of teachers' unions and that this interest interferes with education reforms and better education systems. However, when the motives for strike action is further analysed, it is not so much the need for reform that is the sticking point, rather there is an issue around the rightfulness of reforms, that is a shared understanding of how it should take place and who should be involved in order to achieve success. For teachers, a large part of achieving success means having an engaged and empowered teaching force that retains the value of teachers and helps to create a professional and quality teaching force. For example, creating esteem in the teaching profession and valuing the work the profession is a critical factor in education systems that are high performing such as Finland, Singapore and Hong Kong (Simola, 2005).

As discussed, the ESS2020 reinforces the connection between education, the provision of skilled labour, economic productivity and competitiveness. In other words, skilled learning is the purpose of education and this learning can happen through other social and economic institutions since schools are only one small part of the learning. This reinforces a technicist view of education, where education is only valued as a tool for social and economic development. However, this is only one truthful understanding of education and only one perspective that represent only particular interests and goals, rightfulness, of education. This view reiterated throughout ESS2020 means that education is only valuable in enhancing the social and economic capacity of other social systems and that learning is a ubiquitous activity related to the learning needs of those systems. In other words, not only schools. This version of the truth has implications for teachers and educators because it no longer socialises a truth that education is a field in itself, a virtue of its own and one in which teachers are critical agents within this field. Instead, education and learning is everywhere, and by extension teachers are too.

ESS2020 targets teachers for reforms and critical to reforms is how their work is "overhauled."

> The effectiveness of teacher policies (e.g., training, hiring, compensation, deployment, supervision) is critical to an education system's performance; this is one area that typically needs a major overhaul in order to motivate and support teachers. These reforms have to be consistent with a quality assurance framework. (World Bank, 2010b)

The World Bank presents its truthfulness about teachers' work and the need for reform through policy pertaining to its "analytical work" (World Bank, 2010b). The analytical work involves the strategic planning of teachers' reforms through collection of data and diagnostics to build a knowledge base around what it means to be

an effective teacher. This means representatives of the World Bank creating a teacher reform platform based on building evidence and developing a set of benchmarks and best practices in a range of measures designed to reform the profession. These measures include guidelines around teacher selection process, teacher management and incentives, best practices around pedagogy, curriculum and assessments, and professional development. The analytical work, evident as System Assessment and Benchmarking for Educational Results, SABER, will cover all facets of teachers' work and professionalism (Fiszbein, Ringold, & Rogers, 2011). In other words, the analytical work, done exclusively by the Bank, will reconfigure what it means to be a quality teacher within a quality education system. A more detailed analysis of the SABER system is available, but the system attempts to establish 'best practice' in education across thirteen benchmarks (World Bank, 2013).

Much research has been conducted about the value of teachers and the role they play in developing and middle income countries where teachers are important social and educational actors in nation building (Howley, 1997; Rumnaz Imam, 2005; Telhaug, Mediås, & Aasen, 2004). The contribution of education and teacher in building national social and economic capacity underscores that their collective truthfulness about their value and belief in education can be incorporated into large scale plans for development. However, it appears that in the ESS2020 policy, educators' truthfulness communications have been overridden in policy representation. Instead, teachers are represented as potentially hostile agents and as such, the configuration of their work and their contribution to the future development is given over to other actors. This perpetuates a policy imaginary that casts teachers as disruptive agents and thus a fuller representation of their truthfulness is not evident in the ESS2020 policy.

ESS2020 perpetuates an ideological divide between government and teachers, insisting that teachers are somehow adversarial actors in the process of educational reform. This notion contradicts the centrality of teachers in building learning communities, leading educational change and developing professionalism that represents the contemporary teacher (Green, 2012; Hargreaves, 2013; Owens, 2010).

Habermas' (1992/1996, 1996/1998) stresses the need for deliberative processes as part of the development of deliberative politics and democratic institutions. A more representative and inclusive truth that reflects the thruthfulness and rightness of education through the perspective of teachers in policy deliberations around improving practice and reforming the profession is an example of deliberative process and politics. However, while the Bank stresses its open consultation, it becomes apparent that there remain clear differences between the truthfulness presented by educators and the truth outcomes of policy.

The deliberative process is not without tensions and friction because the nature of the negotiations can involve argumentation and polarization. However, the purpose of argumentation is to allow diverse arguments to prevail and negotiation to occur. This is perhaps the most difficult element of deliberative policy making because it should not focus on the action plans of only a privileged minority, but seek ways to come to consensual decisions. As Marti (2003) notes, the inclusion of those who are usually policy takers can make for more effective policy that works.

> Traditionally, only a privileged minority has had the chance to participate in the scientific process considering these decisions as objective. If we are analyzing the factors that understand dropouts, for example, we will need to take into account the adolescents' reasons for dropping out or continuing their studies. The scientific explanation about these factors cannot only be based in the subjectivity of the expert or the researcher that is considered objective; it should also be based in the intersubjectivity resulting from the dialogue among the parents and the researchers. (Marti, 2003)

Using the example of understanding school drop outs, Marti argues that by only having the deliberations of researchers on the topic, only one perspective of the problem can be solved. Further understandings leading towards a sustainable solution can be gained from considering intersubjective discussions. If applied to the context of teachers in the ESS2020 policy, then more sustainable solutions in reforming education and improving the quality of learning can be gained from drawing on the subjectivities and truthfulness of teachers and the dialectical dialogues from teachers, other stakeholders and policy makers in expressing their truth about education reform.

It is difficult to argue that educators have been sufficiently represented in the policy deliberations because their arguments encapsulating educators' truthfulness are not evident in policy. Where are the many voices of educators, representing their different and diverse education systems integrated into the knowledge base around education reforms, effective education and quality teaching? What is evident is the authoritative version of the truth that comes from World Bank policy makers engaging with "client countries,"

> When client countries ask World Bank front-line staff how top-performing countries tackle different issues

> related to teacher policies (e.g., teacher training, incentives or accountability), project leaders have to respond to such requests on a case-by-case basis -- either by using Bank publications and databases or taking the initiative to find http://siteresources.worldbank.org/EDUCATION/Resources/ESSU/Education_Strategy_4_12_2011pdf out more about policies in top-performing education systems. This approach has the advantage of being tailored to the specific needs of each country, but it has the drawbacks of being time-consuming, duplicating work, lacking comparability and including few countries. (World Bank Group Education Strategy 2020, 2011)

The representation of teachers' reforms as a World Bank driven enterprise suggests that the omission of educators' truthfulness from shaping the new policy further removes educators from the sites of deliberation over their work and purpose. Work in reshaping the teaching profession is currently underway (World Bank, 2013) and reinforces the obfuscation of teachers' deliberations from policy making. A framework paper states,

> This paper provides a framework for analyzing teacher policies in education systems around the world in order to support informed education policy decisions. It provides a lens through which governments, World Bank staff, and other interested parties can focus the attention on what the relevant dimensions regarding teacher policies are, what teacher policies seem to matter most to improve student learning, and how to think about prioritization among competing policy options for teacher policy reform. (Roger & Demas, 2013, p. 6)

It can be argued that the ESS2020 was a prelude to teacher reforms, largely without sufficient input from teachers. Considering that teachers' domain is in education and the education space, the exclusion of teachers is effectively silencing their truth, rightness and truthfulness in policy making about education. Their legitimate authority as key actors in education systems is undermined and they are being removed from their habitat.

4 Conclusion

Drawing on Habermas's theory of communicative acts enables an analysis of policy that focuses on the core of policy making, that is, policy as a way to influence stakeholders and create a vision of the future. The theory of communicative acts also enables the political debates underscoring policy negotiations to be clarified so that issues of representation, legitimacy and democracy are brought to the fore. The framing of policy deliberations as communicative acts provides a way to theorise a more inclusive and deliberative process of policy making. It draws attention to the importance of consultation and inclusive conversations and negotiations in policy making.

The processes of inclusive dialogue and communication are the basis of arriving at representative policies. The World Bank's ESS2020 aims to capture the educational imaginative by proposing policy that will take developing and middle income countries into the future. By responding to persistent criticism that its policymaking was authoritative and often not inclusive of local concerns, the ESS2020 stressed processes of extensive consultation. The quality of the communicative acts that underpin the quality of the consultations shows that while consultations have been undertaken, the diverse representations of these consultations have not translated into policy outcomes. Critical reforms, such as the shift from the provision of education to the focus on learning, imply that education systems have failed or are inadequate for future direction of educational growth. This recasting of education is contentious in that it suggests that institutions no longer serve populations, however, the Bank's own role in undermining education systems is not implicated in its assessment of justifying the rationale for the shift from education to learning. This appears to be a one-sided representation of the truth.

CTA theory, enables the critical analysis of the objective truth presented in the policy to highlight that, as intimated in the example from the shift to learning, policy does not appear to be a product of a negotiated truth made up of diverse negotiations of different perspectives of truthfulness and rightness that may be expected from different stakeholders. The plight of teachers and their role in future education planning is another case in point. The outcomes of the consultations have produced a policy document, as representative of a consensus arrived at truth about education and the future, with only a limited influence from the deliberations of educators. The three foci of the policy analysis in this paper, the embedding of education systems into other social and economic systems, the move towards the ubiquitous learning for all and the ongoing adversarial positioning of teachers, suggests that educators' truthfulness and rightness about education in the future is limited. They have been effectively cut out of constructing their ideas about what is and should be best practice in education.

The embedding of education as a capacity building tool suggests that education as a field may be under threat. World Bank policy reinforces a technicist view of education, where education is only valued as a useful tool for social

and economic development. The loss of education, as a unique public good and institution, is unlikely to represent the truthfulness of educators seeking to preserve their professionalism, their workplaces and the site of their identity. The movement away from Education for All towards a more ubiquitous notion of learning for all, is also a move away from the social justice imperatives of formal education. Once again, the abandonment of social justice claims from formal education institutions and government obligations to provide free, quality education for all, does not reflect the historical positioning of educators as being responsible for representing marginalised and under privileged in education systems. Teachers have played a key role in delivering quality education for all students. These values underlie and ethical imperative and truthfulness of teachers who value the power of education for all. Finally, the granting of educational authority to policy makers to determine quality markers of professional work also runs contrary to current theory emphasising teachers as leaders. Instead, policy makers and further marginalising teachers from their domain, that is their habitat of education, where they are legitimate, professional actors. In sum, the many representations of truthfulness and rightness held by educators, expressing their different and diverse education systems and their concerns about the future directions of education, have been largely excluded from the policy. It appears that the ESS2020 is a continuation of World Bank education policy in which, to paraphrase Peters (2001) the question of education cannot be detached from the question of capital.

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The Policy Outcomes and Feasibility of School-Based Management in Aceh

*Burhanuddin Yasin and Yunisrina Qismullah Yusuf**
Study Program of English Language Education, Universitas Syiah Kuala

Abstract

This research investigates the policy outcomes and feasibility of school-based management (SBM) in Aceh, Indonesia. This was done by identifying the constraints encountered in its implementation. A total of 520 respondents were surveyed; they came from different schools, elementary, junior high and high schools, and from various ranks of the provincial and district departments of education in Banda Aceh, Aceh Besar, Pidie and Lhokseumawe. Data was collected through a qualitative approach by using a semi-structured interview. In assessing the data, the constraints put forward by the respondents were categorized based on the four resources that are essential for SBM performance improvement, namely *power*, *knowledge*, *information* and *rewards* (Wohlstetter & Mohrman, 1994). The findings showed that most of the constraints identified in SBM implementation were related to the resource of *power*, such as in decentralization/ autonomy, decision making and leadership. This study also found that no formal written policy regarding the implementation of SBM as a component of national education policy was available at either the provincial or district departments of education. This study suggests that these authorities should demonstrate their commitment to the implementation of SBM in Aceh by issuing written policies to start to resolve the constraints faced in such implementation.

Keywords: school-based management, education in Aceh, problems in managing schools, educational reform, education plan

1 Introduction

School-based management (SBM) programs have been adopted by education authorities from around the world (Robertson & Briggs, 1998). These education management programs result in the decentralization of decision making powers from central government to schools and also from principals and teachers as the school management team to include parents as part of the school governing body (Botha, 2007). They are considered effective as they give school stakeholders the authority to participate and develop their schools with educational planning, personnel management and provision of resources to create proper environments to make improvements in their schools and thereby improve the performance of students (Anderson, 2006). United States, Australia, New Zealand, the United Kingdom and Canada have all introduced SBM into their education systems since as early as the 1980s (Bandur, 2008; Bengoteku & Heyward, 2007; Robertson & Briggs, 1998).

In Indonesia, since independence in 1945, the education system had been centralized at the national government level and as a result, school principals and teachers became implementers of the national government policy (Bjork, 2005). Local communities, parents and students became passive beneficiaries because rights, responsibilities and especially sense of ownership of their local schools were constrained by strong political control from the central government (Indriyanto, 2003). The stakeholders in education had to struggle even more with the quality of national education during the financial crisis in the late 1990s which led to economic and social cutbacks. As a result, SBM was introduced to provide for the participation of school and community members in meeting local educational needs (Bandur, 2008).

However, many schools across Indonesia still need improvement in the implementation of SBM (Bandur, 2012). Accordingly, this paper intends to investigate the feasibility of its implementation in Aceh, one of the provinces in Indonesia that has experienced conflict since the earliest days of the country's independence. Political mayhem not only affected the economic, social and other sectors in the province, but it affected the education sector as well. The disastrous earthquake and tsunami that hit the province in December 2004 triggered a peace agreement in August 2005 to end 30 years of civil conflict. As a result, there was an immediate imperative need to reconstruct and redevelop the education sector. This was essential as education is one of the keys to success of other development sectors, especially for social economy and for politics (Yasin, 2007). Nepal and Vietnam, for instance, are

* Corresponding Author: Dr. Yunisrina Qismullah Yusuf (yunisrina@gmail.com)
Senior Lecturer and Head of the Study Program of English Language Education, Faculty of Teacher Training and Education
Universitas Syiah Kuala

amongst countries that have prioritized the development of education post-conflict (Asian Development Bank, 2006) to restore and stimulate other development sectors.

Our preliminary findings also showed us that no technical guidelines for implementation of SBM were provided by the provincial education departments for the district areas. This should be their responsibility as this has been instructed by the Ministry of National Education. This has certainly caused problems in the implementation of SBM in schools. These problems have not previously been investigated comprehensively. This is important because Peterson (1991) and Robertson and Briggs (1998) said that the implementation of SBM must be continuously performed and optimized to sustain successful innovations in education. Local governments are responsible for continually assessing the performance of schools in their districts based on predetermined standards. As the building of school management capacity is an important aspect to improve the overall quality of education, it is important to investigate problems in the implementation of SBM in Aceh that need to be resolved to achieve educational goals. Therefore, this study intends to investigate the problems faced by the schools by answering the following research question:

Which resource caused most problems in the implementation of SBM in Aceh?

The resource that we referred to is one of the four resources for a successful SBM implementation proposed by Wohlstetter and Mohrman (1994), which are *power*, *knowledge*, *information* and *rewards*. The findings are expected to assist the provincial education departments to identify the core problems in the implementation of SBM in Aceh and to identify the further actions needed to improve the reform of education in the province.

2 Resources for a Successful SBM Implementation

Wohlstetter and Mohrman (1994, p. 4) indicate that a successful SBM reform requires the decentralization of four resources in an organization (i.e., school), which are *power*, *knowledge*, *information* and *rewards*. *Power* involves the authority of parties whose decisions have an effect on an organization's practices, policies and directions. The experience of implementing SBM in several schools in the United States shows that the district education authority essentially delegates authority to each school (Peterson, 1991). The schools which receive such delegation tend to have good leadership which empowers others involved. In addition, the parties involved become genuinely committed and ready to accept new roles and responsibilities. The teachers also are prepared to take responsibility and pleased to have the authority to improve the quality of teaching whilst also assuming accountability for their own performance. To demonstrate commitment and positive attitude towards SBM implementation, governments must entrust school principals and school boards with the authority to determine educational goals for their respective schools (Kubick, 1988).

Knowledge is the comprehension, skill and expertise of the organization that set up the employees to contribute to the organization's performance. SBM depends on alliances between various stakeholders (Odden & Wohlstetter, 1995). Therefore, providing professional development and training for teachers and stakeholders is important, especially at the early stage of its implementation. The training should include skills in problem solving, decision making, conflict management, presentation techniques, stress management and interpersonal communication within groups (Kubick, 1988). School leaders, especially principals, need to be equipped with knowledge and training for effective leadership to achieve significant outcomes for their schools and their students (Hui & Cheung, 2007; Msila, 2011).

Information informs the stakeholders about the implementation of the program and other data such as the performance of students, the satisfaction of parents and the community, the schools financial, resources and other educational programs. When participating in any decision making, it is essential for students, parents and communities to have adequate information, which can be provided through effective communications between schools, parents and communities. It has been found that improved stakeholder values, more public participation and greater transparency in school-based management processes also provide opportunities to enhance learning outcomes at school levels (Botha, 2007; Cheung & Kan, 2009). Information is also necessary to build trust and confidence between school leaders and stakeholders for a solid partnership in decision making to implement policies more effectively (Gamage & Zajda, 2005). Written agreements in the form of policies that detail the roles and responsibilities of each stakeholder need to be made and approved together (Kubick, 1988). These agreements should clearly state the standards to be used as the basis for assessing school accountability. Each school needs to develop an annual performance report that conveys its attempts to achieve goals and objectives, the use of available resources, both physical and human, as well as plans for future years.

Rewards acknowledge the performance of the organization, the involvement and contribution of every member involved in the organization and recognizes improvements. Efforts conducted by the members of the organization are to be rewarded and recognized. They can be in the form of extrinsic (e.g., direct praises, prizes

or appreciation notes) or monetary rewards to those who have made accomplishments or who have given extra time to work for better improvement of their organization (Wohlstetter, 1995). Rewards act as motivation for every member to further develop their resources, improve their performance and further bring together members who have different preferences (Wohlstetter & Mohrman, 1994).

2.1 The Development of SBM in Indonesia

Indonesia officially adopted the policy of SBM during its late financial crisis which occurred in the late 1990s (Bandur, 2012). At the time, among the causes of the crisis was that the regional governments in Indonesia did not have much of autonomy to develop their own provinces, including in their educational sector (see Bandur [2012] for the historical development of SBM in Indonesia). Therefore, SBM was seen as the key for a reform for both public and private schools with the passing of a new law to change the national education system, which was the Education Act No. 20/2003 (Bandur, 2008; Indriyanto, 2003). The central government further issued regulations on the roles, rights and responsibilities of governing bodies for schools at the district level including school committees and education boards. A national standard of education was defined, which covered competency, school facilities and equipment, staffing and teacher qualifications, amongst others. This standard was to be tailored to local circumstances and implemented by local governments under their respective departments of education to ensure the involvement of schools in every district. Moreover, this Act directed school committees and local communities to be involved in the planning, supervision and evaluation of educational programs for their respective schools (Bandur, 2008). National and international agencies, such as UNICEF, World Bank, Asian Development Bank, USAID and AusAID (Bengoteku & Heyward, 2007) had aided the government to improve, strengthen and extend basic education delivery through SBM (Pradhan et al., 2011).

Some reports showed encouraging and positive experiences of SBM in Indonesia (Bengoteku & Heyward, 2007; DBE1, 2010). In 2011, the Deputy Minister of National Education, Fasli Jalal, claimed that, 'international research as well as experiences from various areas in Indonesia have demonstrated that SBM is capable of fostering a sense of ownership of schools from both parents as well as students which in turn improves the performance of the students' (Basic Education Capacity Trust Fund [BEC-TF], 2011).

However, some studies showed that the introduction of SBM had not been completely successful across Indonesia. The report by DBE1 (2010) found that SBM implementation was not effective in North Sumatra compared to other provinces in Indonesia (e.g., Java). The less populated provinces apparently received less support from donor-funded programs for SBM implementation. Aceh, specifically amongst other provinces, was found to receive the least funds for the implementation of SBM from the district and other sources (see Heyward, Cannon, & Sarjono, 2011).

Indriyanto (2003) listed various problems in the implementation of SBM in Indonesia in general, namely dependency on the central government, lack of textbooks, lack of quality teachers and inadequate evaluations of the performance of school principals. The latter were typically based on paper evaluations which were centralized at the district level. He further stated that the gradual implementation of SBM could be improved by increasing the quality of SBM features, including preciseness of school budget allocations, discretion in decision making for the principals, a clearly defined explicit and transparent support system for school environment (parents, organizations and communities) and clear roles and responsibilities for both government agencies and community stakeholders. Specifically, some of these issues were also the case in Flores primary schools, where Bandur (2008) mentioned that problems which still required resolution were the lack of appropriate professional development for school leaders, the absence of school facilities and inadequate finances to deal with the process of implementation of SBM.

The guide book for implementation of SBM by Depdiknas (2007) declared that the central officials and agency heads, including their staff, have roles as facilitators in decision making at school levels. Accordingly, departments of education at the central and local government levels are to offer the prospect of applying SBM to every school equipped to implement it. Neglect in doing so may cause the school authorities to remain powerless and to inhibit the ability of teachers to innovate. Moreover, despite the guide book being available, Sumintono (2007) found that previous models and practices of management prior to SBM continued to linger, particularly in the municipality of Mataram on Lombok Island because the SBM policy stated in the decree number 044/U/2002 lacked clarity. It was found that the decree did not set out guidelines for principals, nor distinguish between community involvement at the district and at the school level. Furthermore, the authorities to be entrusted with the implementation of SBM were not clear, in particular the quantity of information and knowledge to be distributed by principals to stakeholders and school committee members in the implementation of SBM.

Marhum et al. (2009) investigated the views of stakeholders on autonomy of both government and non-government schools at all levels in Palu, Makassar and

Gorontalo. They discovered that the regional governments still intervened in the education planning process, allocation of budgets and recruitment of staff and teachers. In addition, a general perception of SBM was still lacking at all levels of government. This resulted in inadequate human resources involvement, insufficient funding and poor communications between the schools and their stakeholders. In conclusion, problems in the implementation of SBM in these three cities were due also to inadequate information from the government.

Article 56 of the 2003 (SBM) Act stated that community members were entitled to participate in achieving and improving the quality of education for their students. However, a case study in Depok by Fitriah (2010) on the parents' involvement revealed that decentralization did not inevitably encourage community participation in education management. After the Free School Program (FSP), which allowed students to get education for free, was introduced by the government in 2009, the parents were found to act as mere beneficiaries and their participation in school management lessened.

Regardless of the shortcomings in the implementation of SBM in Indonesia discovered by these studies, they did claim that the introduction of SBM was a change for the better compared to the past conditions. Back then, education was centralized and the central government used to intercede in all kinds of school management which caused schools all over the country to have no sovereignty to manage their own education programs.

2.2 SBM Implementation in Aceh

Accordingly, this research investigates the policy outcomes from the implementation of School-based Management in Aceh, Indonesia. SBM has been implemented in this province since Indonesia adopted it as a formal education policy in 2003. After the earthquake and tsunami which hit the province in December 2004, the reconstruction of destroyed, damaged, derelict and inadequate schools and the re-establishment of its education sector were aided by various government and non-government programs. Programs which reinforced SBM, such as Decentralized Basic Education (DBE) and Managing Basic Education (MBE) programs (both supported by USAID) had projects running from 2003 until 2007 in 23 provinces, including Aceh. Workshops and seminars were held to provide mentoring and training for teachers and stakeholders in areas such as Banda Aceh and Aceh Besar. These were conducted to encourage provision of resources, education management and funding at the district level. Community participation and training to provide active, creative, joyful and effective learning were initiated at all school levels. Local school supervisors were tutored to become facilitators to assist and develop schools in their districts.

DBE1 (2010) reported there were about 164 schools in Aceh that implemented some programs for decentralizing basic education. However, it was found that these programs did not provide much impact, especially for Banda Aceh. The school programs being performed were mostly not associated with programs for DBE1. One school reported that its foundation did not give any support for the development of their school. The principal was disappointed that the workload in school increased without any compensating equipment or funds. Nonetheless, the strongest impact felt in this province was in school planning because the programs provided a guideline or manual for future planning in schools.

3 Methods

3.1 Respondents

For the selection of research sites, a stratified sampling method was used. Several aspects such as geographical area, school rank and schools that received the most knowledge about SBM (in accordance with the standards from the ministry/department of education) were chosen. Accordingly, the sampling locations were in the districts of Banda Aceh, Aceh Besar, Pidie and Lhokseumawe. Similarly, the sample of respondents came from all school levels: Sekolah Dasar (SD) or elementary schools, Sekolah Menengah Pertama (SMP) or junior high schools and Sekolah Menengah Atas (SMA) or high schools, plus personnel from the provincial and district departments of education. Thirteen schools were sampled in each of the four districts (five SD, five SMP and three SMA). Moreover, at each school, eight stakeholders were surveyed (six internals and two externals). The number of bureaucrats, including supervisors sampled from each district, was nine (one head office, three section heads, two subsection heads and three supervisors). Other stakeholders (such as the education council (Majelis Pendidikan Daerah [MPD]), district parliament (Dewan Perwakilan Rakyat Kabupaten [DPRK]) and community organizations) were each represented by sampling one person only. Therefore, the number of respondents who participated in this study was 520 in total. Complete information on the sampling locations and respondents is available in Appendix A.

3.2 Data

To answer the research question, data was collected qualitatively from an open questionnaire that was designed to identify the constraints in SBM implementation in Aceh (see Appendix B). Every respondent was given freedom to express their opinions by writing in the sheets provided.

To stimulate their opinions, keywords related to the management aspect were given: decentralization/autonomy, decision making, knowledge limitation, community care and funding. Additional spaces were also provided in case the respondents had other constraints they wanted to put forward. Their answers were later categorized into the four resources that are important to be distributed to facilitate improvement of SBM performance, namely *power*, *knowledge*, *information* and *rewards* (Wohlstetter & Mohrman, 1994).

4 Findings

In total, eight constraints in SBM implementation in Aceh were presented by the respondents. The keywords for possible constraints provided in the questionnaire were: decentralization/autonomy, decision making, knowledge limitation, community care and funding. They were all agreed and described by the respondents. Furthermore, other additional problems presented by the respondents were: compensation, leadership and campaigns for FSP (Free School Programs). These constraints were further categorized into the problems that were associated with the resources of *power*, *knowledge*, *information* and *rewards* (Wohlstetter & Mohrman, 1994). In each resource, the problems presented by the informants are:

(1) *Power*: decentralization/autonomy, decision making and leadership.
(2) *Knowledge*: knowledge limitation and community care.
(3) *Information*: Free School Program (FSP) and funding.
(4) *Rewards*: compensation.

From the categorization, we found that all respondents identified the nucleus problems in SBM implementation to be related to the resource of *power*. The problems in *knowledge*, *information* and *rewards* were also presented by the respondents, though not all were agreed by them. This answered our research question that *power* caused the most problems in the implementation of SBM in Aceh. To further understand the problems specified in the resource of *power* (e.g., decentralization/autonomy, decision making and leadership) presented by the respondents, they are further elaborated in the next sub-sections.

4.1 *Power* of Decentralization/Autonomy

Some school boards questioned the fact that although the regional autonomy law no. 22 and 25 of 1999 were agreed and approved by the government (updated with law no. 32 of 2004 regarding a paradigm shift from centralized to decentralized government), the local governments in Aceh, in this case the provincial and district departments of education, had not consistently executed decentralization. The respondents further informed us that no written policies were provided for the schools from the district departments of education (that act as the schools' direct supervisors) on the implementation of SBM following the policies issued by the central government (national ministry/department of education). These led to no specific targets being formulated to ensure successful missions and visions for the schools through the implementation and application of SBM. Consequently, the structure and systematic roles for all school stakeholders were not prepared and formalized.

Furthermore, the problem above becomes the root for vagueness in the principles of democracy, professionalism and accountability that is not transparent from the top management, both within schools and within offices of the education departments. On the other hand, bureaucrats at the district levels claimed that these limitations of competence, capability and distribution of human resources at the district level were not enough (in terms of knowledge and quantity) to apply decentralization in their schools.

4.2 *Power* of Decision Making

As with decision making, the top and middle managers at provincial level felt that the set back in SBM implementation was caused by the lack of decision-making power of the staff at district and school levels. For example, the autonomous decision making authority given to the districts for policy and technical supervision, and there was the division of authority in accordance with the laws and regulations issued by the central government. They deemed that these need to be resolved so that their dependence on the provincial management could gradually be reduced.

The district bureaucrats, however, argued that it was still difficult for them to make decisions on the implementation of SBM in their schools for several reasons. First, technical guidance from the provincial office did not exist and second, training for facilitators was not conducted systematically so that SBM facilitators/trainers were not available at the district level. These problems had implications at the operational levels in schools. Most of them had no instruction manuals or standard guidelines that included the structure of authority for the implementation of SBM. Such guidelines were supposed to be provided by the national department of education and further developed by the provincial departments of education to suit their local needs. As a consequence, the school managers were hesitant to make decisions on the formal administration for its implementation. As a result, the majority of schools still followed traditional management practices. Although some basic principles of SBM were adopted from trainings such as by DBE1 (DBE1, 2010), good decision-making processes related to budgets, personnel and curriculum could not be employed fully according to the patterns and concepts of SBM because most school principals and

school administrators claimed that their training was still limited. They affirmed that behavioral change was difficult to implement without practice, or at least exercises for them in the form of simulations, such as those related to communication practice, interacting with the public practice, stimulating public participation practice and practice in preparation of budgets and school plans -- which would all lead to more effective decision making by them. Furthermore, no training was yet provided for any other stakeholders.

According to the external stakeholders, decision making was still dominated by the school managements, especially those related to projects clearly funded by the government, either from the district, provincial or the national levels. When a school construction or development funding was sourced from the public, a new decision making role was given in full to the internal school committees. Consequently, psychological gaps appeared between the school management and other external stakeholders, and the motivation of these stakeholders, especially the external ones, declined. Their commitment was low due to the imbalance of authority and involvement given to them in the decision-making processes.

4.3 *Power* of Leadership

Bureaucrats at the provincial and district levels alleged that leadership qualities of school principals were insufficient to run SBM concepts in their schools. Recruitment of school principals in this new autonomous era was strongly controlled by the district head, which tended to neglect principles for selection based on performance. School stakeholders (both internal and external) argued that school principals' leadership abilities were still weak and autocratic and the principals showed little managerial skills. Besides, their attitudes and mode of instruction by direction was dominant rather than that of leading by guiding, protecting and facilitating.

School members (school managements, teachers and other internal stakeholders) also indicated that the abilities of school principals in team building, group work and collaboration were low, so that individual activities or decision making was more common than teamwork. Similarly, decision making was dominated by the school management (e.g., school principle) due to the fact that the decision-making process itself was not well structured and systemized. Despite trainings being provided for principals both in country and overseas (such as in Malaysia), some school principals still argued that the training was not enough to implement SBM efficiently. Some of them alleged that the training given to them was still theoretical, not practical. It was just one of the training subjects within the school leadership and teacher training curriculum. A principal wrote that these trainings were "limited only to the introduction and guidelines to conduct SBM." They believed that if the trainings were more oriented to the practice of SBM, participatory leadership skills could be learnt. One of the school principals wrote, "if we are given the opportunity to carry out a pilot project as a follow-up from the training, we are sure that we can do it successfully." Those from the rural areas were rarely given any training on SBM. One of the principals from a rural area wrote, "we've never learned SBM in any special training program, let alone experienced practicing it in some form of simulation."

5 Discussion and Conclusion

Despite the fact that SBM was officially introduced into education in Indonesia in 2003, it was found to have not been formally implemented in Aceh. Even though some concepts were practiced in some schools, the findings of this study showed that there are still immense problems that require immediate attention and action for them to be resolved to improve SBM implementation and performance. Apparently, these problems were rooted from the resource of *power*. In executing autonomy, a formal written policy for the implementation of SBM in the districts was not available at the provincial department of education. Bureaucrats at the provincial and district levels that had authority for education policy making were found to have never provided any commitment regarding the implementation of SBM in the form of written policies. Previous studies, such as those by Sumintono (2007) and Marhum et al. (2009) also mentioned that one of the problems in SBM implementation was the lack of detail in the decrees from these authorities. In fact, this written agreement in the form of policies is very important to provide details on the roles and responsibilities of each stakeholder in its implementation (Kubick, 1988). Therefore, the Aceh government, in this case the provincial department of education, needs to develop written policies on the implementation of SBM following the policies issued by the central government since those policies are already mandated in the 2003 Act for National Education. These policies must then be the guiding principles for every school in Aceh to implement SBM. With these policies in place, vague roles and problems in decision making in the implementation of SBM by managers in schools, internal and external stakeholders can be avoided.

Lack of leadership by principals for the implementation of SBM was alleged to be due to the lack of training for SBM (especially for principals in the rural areas). Even though some programs, such as DBE and MBE, had conducted projects to train teachers, principals and

stakeholders in areas such as Banda Aceh and Aceh Besar, they claimed that the training was not enough as most was theory-based instead of practical. These common constraints seemed to be faced by schools elsewhere in Indonesia as well (Bandur, 2008; DBE1, 2010; Indriyanto, 2003). For that reason, it is recommended that sufficient funding must be provided for intensive training on the implementation of SBM for all school managements and stakeholders. Regular workshops should be held to find effective solutions to any problems occurring in the implementation of SBM. Seeing that Hui and Cheung (2007) deem the espousal of proper leadership styles may possibly be the key to the success of SBM, therefore appropriate training especially for principals, must be programmed by the district departments of education in Aceh.

As mandated in the 2003 National Education Act, the government's commitment and the attitude of all school stakeholders must ensure the implementation of SBM and the overcoming of any obstacles encountered in its implementation. According to Heyward et al. (2011, p. 10), 'the challenge for Indonesia is to implement the policy across its vast and diverse school system'. Therefore, the government of Indonesia, in particular, should take further steps in making the implementation of SBM possible for all schools in Indonesia. As Bandur (2012, p. 33) further acknowledged, "… the effective implementation of SBM (in Indonesia) requires time management expertise and assistance from the government, educational experts, and foreign aid agencies." The government, especially, should then provide support if any particular school faces difficulties in transforming the national vision to achieve a higher quality in its education programs seeing that many of the constraints in the implementation of SBM in Indonesia are generally similar.

This preliminary study is largely based on data which was gathered entirely through questionnaires. Albeit this study has reported some important issues related to the constraints on the implementation of SBM in Aceh, other methods such as prolonged observation and more in depth interviews should also be used in future studies to generate more information which can reinforce or modify the conclusions drawn above.

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Appendix A

Table A-1 Location, Bureaucracy and Communities at the Provincial Level

Province	Stakeholders			
NAD	Internal Respondents	No.	External Respondents	No.
	Head Office of Provincial Department of Education	1	Assembly of District Education	1
	Chairman of Basic Education and Advanced	1	DPRK Commission of Education	1
	Chairman of Secondary Education	1	LSM/NGO (Education)	1
	Chairman of the SBM Program	1		
	Head of SD/SMP Curriculum Section	1		
	Head of SMA Curriculum Section	1		
	Total	6	Total	3

Note: All of the information provided in Table A-1 have been translated into English from Bahasa Indonesia.

Table A-2 Location, Bureaucracy and Communities at the District/City Level

Location	Stakeholders			
District/City	Internal Respondent	No.	External Respondent	No.
Banda Aceh	Head Office of Dist. Dep. of Education	1	Assembly of District Education	1
	Chairman of Basic Education & Advanced	1	DPRK Commission of Education	1
	Chairman of Secondary Education	1	LSM/NGO (Education)*	1
	Chairman of the Program	1		
	Head SD/SMP Curriculum Section	1		
	Head SMA Curriculum Section	1		
	Supervisor of SDs, Primary Schools	1		
	Supervisor of SMP, Middle Schools	1		
	Supervisor of SMA, High Schools	1		
	Total	9	Total	3
Aceh Besar	Head Office of District Department of Education	1	Assembly of District Education	1
	Chairman of Basic Education and Advanced	1	DPRK Commission of Education	1
	Chairman of Secondary Education	1	LSM/NGO (Education)*	1
	Chairman of the Program	1		
	Head of SD/SMP Curriculum Section	1		
	Head of SMA Curriculum Section	1		
	Supervisor of SD, Primary Schools	1		
	Supervisor of SMP, Middle Schools	1		
	Supervisor of SMA, High Schools	1		
	Total	9	Total	3
Pidie	Head Office of District Department of Education	1	Assembly of District Education	1
	Chairman of Basic Education and Advanced	1	DPRK Commission of Education	1
	Chairman of Secondary Education	1	LSM/NGO (Education)*	1
	Chairman of Program	1		
	Head of SD/SMP Curriculum Section	1		
	Head of SMA Curriculum Section	1		
	Supervisor of SD, Primary Schools	1		
	Supervisor of SMP, Middle Schools	1		

Table A-2 Location, Bureaucracy and Communities at the District/City Level (Continued)

Location	Stakeholders			
District/City	Internal Respondent	No.	External Respondent	No.
	Supervisor of SMA, High Schools	1		
	Total	9	Total	3
Lhokseumawe	Head Office of District Department of Education	1	Assembly of District Education	1
	Chairman of Basic Education and Advanced	1	DPRK Commission of Education	1
	Chairman of Secondary Education	1	LSM/NGO (Education)*	1
	Chairman of Program	1		
	Head of SD/SMP Curriculum Section	1		
	Head of SMA Curriculum Section	1		
	Supervisor of SD, Primary Schools	1		
	Supervisor of SMP, Middle Schools	1		
	Supervisor of SMA, High Schools	1		
	Total	9	Total	3
Total in All		36	Total in All	12

Note: All of the information provided in Table 2 have been translated into English from Bahasa Indonesia.
*: except SD.

Table A-3 Location, Schools and School Levels

Location	School Levels				Stakeholders			
District/City	SD	SMP	SMA	No.	Internal Respondents	No.	External Respondents	No.
Banda Aceh	5	5	3	13	Principal	1	Chairman of School Committee	1
					Vice Principal*	1	Student Representative in School Committee	1
					Head of Administration	1		
					Treasurer	1		
					Teacher Rep. in School C'te	1		
					OSIS* Rep in School C'te	1		
Total	5	5	3	13	*52/78	*4/6	Total	2
Aceh Besar	5	5	3	13	Principal	1	Chairman of School Committee	1
					Vice Principal*	1	Student Representative in School Committee	1
					Head of Administration	1		
					Treasurer	1		
					Teacher Rep in School C'te	1		
					OSIS* Rep. in School C'te	1		
Total	5	5	3	13	*52/78	*4/6	Total	2
Pidie	5	5	3	13	Principal	1	Chairman of School Committee	1
					Vice Principal*	1	Student Representative in School Committee	1
					Head of Administration	1		
					Treasurer	1		
					Teacher Rep in School C'te	1		
					OSIS* Rep in School C'te	1		
Total	5	5	3	13	*52/78	*4/6	Total	2
Lhoksemawe	5	5	3	13	Principal	1	Chairman of School Committee	1
					Vice Principal*	1	Student Representative in School Committee	1
					Head of Administration	1		
					Treasurer	1		
					Teacher Rep School C'te	1		
					OSIS* Rep in School C'te	1		
Total	5	5	3	13	*52/78	*4/6	Total	2
Total in All	20	20	12	52	*208/312	*16/24		8

Note: (1) *except SD. Inference: SD = 208 respondents; SMP/SMA = 312 respondents; Total = 520 respondents from 52 schools.
(2) All of the information provided in Table A-3 have been translated into English from Bahasa Indonesia.

Appendix B

Table B-1 Constraints in Implementing SBM in Schools

No.	Constraints
1.	Decentralization / Autonomy?
2.	Decision Making?
3	Knowledge and skills?
4	Community care?
5	Funding?
6	Others?
7	Others?
8	Others?
9	Others?
10	Others?

Note: All of the information provided in Table B-1 have been translated into English from Bahasa Indonesia.

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Asian Students' Perceptions of 'Good' Citizenship: The Role of Democratic Values and Attitudes to Traditional Culture

*Xiaoxue Kuang and Kerry J. Kennedy**
Department of Curriculum and Instruction, Hong Kong Institute of Education

Abstract

The concept of 'good' citizenship has been the subject of debate and discussion across the centuries. Researchers have suggested that there are different conceptions of 'good' citizenship among citizens of different countries (Denters, Gabriel, & Mariano, 2007; McBeth, Lybecker, & Garner, 2010; Theiss-Morse, 1993). This paper explores Asian students' perception of 'good' citizenship and important behaviors expected of being a 'good' adult citizen. There are two aspects of 'good' citizenship that will be explored: Conventional citizenship and social-movement-related citizenship. Using data from the International Civic and Citizenship Study (Schulz, Ainley, Fraillon, Kerr, & Losito, 2010), the paper explores the similarities and differences among students in 5 Asian societies (Korea, Taiwan, Hong Kong, Indonesia and Thailand). The results of structural equation modeling (SEM) show that students' perceptions of 'good' citizenship are affected by their attitude to traditional culture and democratic values and these are mediated through students' sense of importance of becoming a 'good' adult citizen. The impact varies among the five countries.

Keywords: good citizenship, citizenship attitudes, structural equation modelling

1. Introduction

1.1 Concepts of Good Citizenship

'Good' citizenship has been argued about for centuries from Aristotle to Alexis de Tocqueville and Walter Bagehot. (Almond, 1980; Walzer, 1989). Kennedy (2010) showed how 'good' citizenship was equally important to scholars and philosophers in the East and the West. There is, however, still no generally acknowledged, uncontested model of 'good' citizenship. Yet the notion of the 'good' citizen is important, not least for the key role it plays in political discourse, when some behaviors are being encouraged and others discouraged. Maybe it is this role which makes scholars wary; 'the strongly normative and often ideologically motivated nature of good citizen does not chime readily with aspirations to analytical neutrality (Pykett, Saward, & Schaefer, 2010).

Sniderman, Fletcher, Russell, and Tetlock (1996) suggested that under the assumption of the pluralism of civic norms, different conceptions of 'good' citizenship can coexist even within the one society. Some scholars focus on three norms to explain citizenship: A traditional elitist model; a liberal model; and a communitarian model. (Conover & Searing, 2002; Denters et al., 2007; Rose & Pettersen, 2002). In the traditional elitist model, the core norm is law-abidingness and loyalty. In liberal model, general virtues like law-abidingness and loyalty should go hand-in-hand with critical and deliberative values. 'Good' citizens are the individuals with rights and freedoms, who respect the rights and freedoms of others while they pursue their interests. (Pykett et al., 2010).

The previous two models focus on the relation of individuals with their government, whereas communitarians emphasize the importance of members of the community towards one another. Voluntary associations are the main sites where communitarians carry out their civic work (Denters et al., 2007). Solidarity, community participation and tolerance are important principles for their 'good' citizenship. Active participation in social life is the core element of 'good' citizenship from the communitarian view. They also stress civic virtues like solidarity and being socially active for the good of the society (Denters et al., 2007; Kymlicka & Wayne, 1995; Walzer, 1989).

Besides the three models outlined above, there are participatory models. As Kymlicka and Norman (1995) proposed, 'civic republicanism is a variant of the participatory model.' They argued that participatory models value participation in itself rather than as a means of civic education. In their view, it is morally superior and more rewarding to play an active role in social and political life rather than restricting oneself to the pursuit of private pleasures (Denters et al., 2007). Sniderman et al. (1996) pointed out it is inevitable that these models will have some overlap in their conceptions of 'good' citizenship. For example, law-abidingness is the common feature of traditional elitists, liberals, and communitarians; and solidarity is shared by the participatory model and communitarians.

* Corresponding Author: Dr. Kerry J. Kennedy (kerryk@ied.edu.hk)
Professor, Department of Curriculum and Instruction
Hong Kong Institute of Education

Other scholars have adopted different perspectives but they usually reflect the models referred to above. Haste (2004) suggested the rhetoric of 'responsible' citizen can be used for understanding the concept of the 'good' citizen. Responsibility has three contested meanings. It first may mean a citizen's duty and obligation conforming to social expectations and rules. The second meaning is related to connections which are ties of affect and interdependence, relationship in the family or the wider community. The third meaning derives from a judgment of principle. Ricci (2004) identifies three different understandings of citizenship. When citizenship refers to a person's legal status, the 'good' citizen is the one who obeys the country's laws, defends and preserves the local populace. When citizenship is understood as an active sort of belonging with political participation as its hallmark, the 'good' citizen not only obeys the country's law, but also helps to make them. In his third perspective, the 'good' citizen requires more than the former two, it also requires citizens' virtuous behavior.

Westheimer and Kahne's (2004) described three conceptions of 'good' citizen: Personally responsible, participatory, and justice oriented. Using data from two programs, they found the three conceptions embody significantly different beliefs of the capacities and commitments citizens need for democracy to flourish. Dealing further with norms of American citizenship, Dalton (2008a) suggested that the younger generation is developing its own sense of 'good' citizenship as a result of modernization. The great emphasis is given to engagement rather than duty. Using survey data from the U.S. "Citizenship, Involvement, Democracy" (USCID) survey, they proposed that citizenship norms are shifting from a pattern of duty-based citizenship to engaged citizenship. He suggested the change will also change individuals' view of the 'good' citizen (Dalton, 2008b).

Based on analyzing the notion from the perspective of citizenship 'acts' and 'practices,' Pykett et al. (2010) suggested 'good' citizenship is about what citizens do, rather than who they are. 'Good citizens are made, not born.'

Based on the above analysis, there is no consensus about the concept of the 'good' citizen. Nevertheless, its essence is concerned with equality in terms of value and membership in society, and acknowledgement of both rights and duties (Petersson, Hermansson, Micheletti, Teorell, & Westholm, 1998).

1.2 Research about Good Citizenship

The concept of 'good' citizen/citizenship has been the basis of many studies. As Theiss-Morse (1993) pointed out the qualities of 'good' citizenship have been examined in depth, however, there are only a handful of studies on public understanding of the term. For example, Almond and Verba (1963) asked respondents what obligations people owe their country in five nations and summarized the responses into three categories: Parochial, subject, and participant orientations. They found that in the United States the dominant orientation of citizens is participation.

Lane (1965) found the meaning of 'good' citizenship is varied and ambiguous based on in depth interviews with 15 people. The emphases of their responses varied from extensive participation to obedience to laws to private morality and self-control.

Conover, Crewe, and Searing's (1991) used focus groups to investigate U.S. and British citizens' beliefs about the rights, duties, and identities of citizens. They found that U.S. citizens are more likely to hold liberal self-understandings and British citizens communitarian views.

Using Q method and survey research, Theiss-Morse (1993) proposed 4 types of citizens' perspectives on participatory duties of a good citizen "representative democracy," "political enthusiast," pursued interests" and "indifferent" perspective. Theiss-Morse also indicated that most studies of 'good' citizenship fell into two categories: Pedagogical studies, the best ways of teaching 'good' citizenship and theoretical focuses on its meaning. She criticized the empirical political scientists for producing only a handful of studies analyzing the public's understandings of the concept and called on more empirical work on individuals' understandings of good citizenship. Zukin, Keeter, Andolina, Jenkins, and Carpini (2006) proposed that U.S. citizens' political participation is not in decline but just changing. This seems true especially for the younger generations who are more inclined to be involved in civic activities (volunteering and fundraising, or economic-based engagement, such as boycotting) rather than in traditional political activities. The new type of engaged citizenship is contrasted with the more traditional duty-based view.

Denters et al. (2007) examined the public's views of 'good' citizenship in the West and the East. They presumed that there would be different views reflecting the pluralism of civic norms in modern societies. They identified three factors measured by six items that roughly stand for the theoretically expected sub-dimensions of the idea of 'good' citizenship: Law abidingness, critical and deliberative principles, and solidarity, They came to the conclusion that citizenship is a multifaceted concept which includes the traditional norms of law-abidingness, solidarity, criticism and deliberation. McBeth et al. (2010) demonstrated that duty-based citizenship remains the dominant view among the younger though engaged citizenship may be on the rise. They suggested that "engaged citizens" are more flexible in their perceptions of policies, more participatory, more

global in their orientation, and more committed to social justice than their duty-based counterparts. Taken together, there were differences in citizenship conceptualizations among citizens of different countries, even within one country. The definitions of 'good' citizenship are always changing, and are related to the specific context in which its propositions are made (Pykett et al., 2010). For schools today this is an important understanding Developing 'good' citizens and fostering the growth of civic values is a key concern (Galston, 2001; Kaestle, 2000).

Studies about students' perceptions of citizenship indicate that they perceive 'good' citizens are those who follow rules/laws, voting, helping others, patriotism/loyalty, and respect for others (Alazzi, 2012; Conover & Searing, 2000; Martin & Chiodo, 2005). Kennedy (2010), using a sample of Hong Kong students, found that their perceptions of the 'good' citizen were multidimensional involving conventional acts such as voting, voluntary work such as helping the needy and being patriotic. Neither of these studies, however, explored the factors that may contribute to students' perception of being a 'good' citizen. Using data from the International Civic and Citizenship Study (Schulz et al., 2010), paper will explore Asian students' perceptions of 'good' citizenship and behavior's considered to be important for 'good' adult citizens.

The students' perceptions of democratic values and preservation of traditional culture were chosen as the predictors. Dalton (2000) argued that the democratization wave has transformed the political systems and the citizenry in the new democracies of central and Eastern Europe, East Asia, and elsewhere over the past decade. However, the congruence between cultural traditions and political structures has been questioned (Dalton, 2000; Putnam, 1993). As Westheimer and Kahne's (2004) study pointed out the proponents of the democratic purposes of education frequently complain they are fighting an uphill battle. Other possibilities are often crowded out due to the priorities of the traditional academic curriculum and the current narrow emphasis on test scores (Cuban & Shipps, 2000; Noddings, 1999). As educators are often interested in the civic purposes of school, they suggested that it is not enough to argue that democratic values are as important as traditional academic priorities. What and how people think will be affected by culture (Oyserman & Lee, 2008) and values. Using student's attitude to democratic values and traditional culture will help to understand their attitude to behaviors that they regard as important for adult citizens.

Structural equation modeling will be used to explore the factors influencing students' perception of adults who are regarded as 'good' citizens. The conceptual model of the present study is presented in Figure 1.

2. Methods

2.1 Data Resources

The data for the present study were retrieved from the data base of the International Civic and Citizenship Education Study (Schulz et al., 2010) which was conducted by the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA).

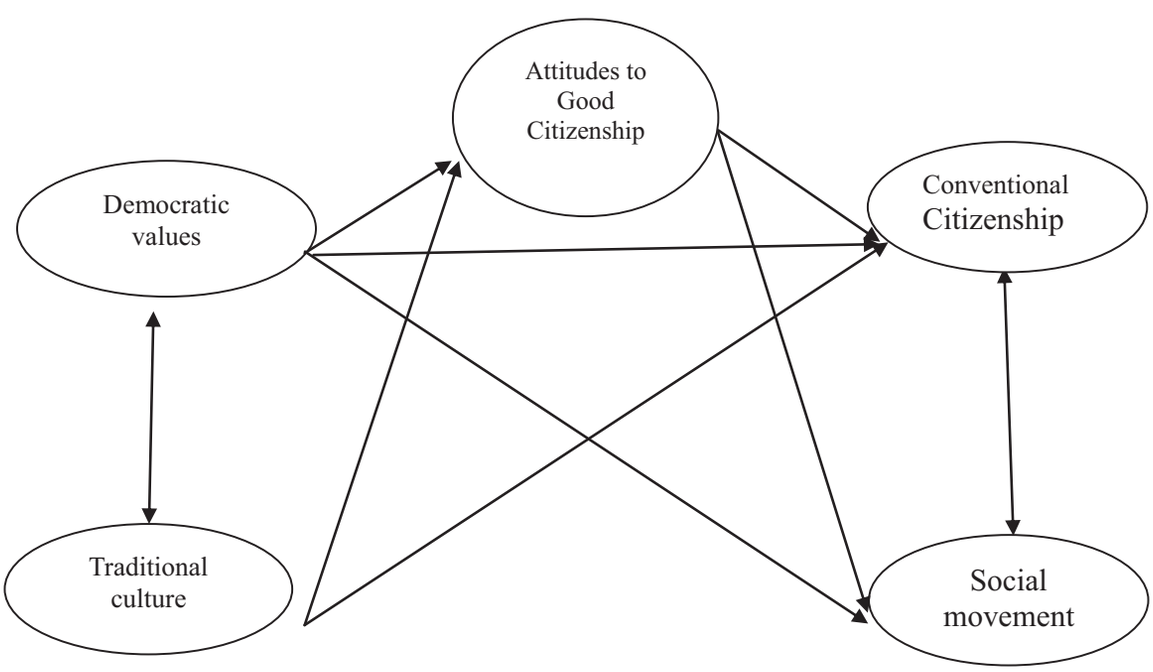

Figure 1 Conceptual Model for Understanding Students. Attitudes to 'Good' Citizenship

2.2 Sample

38 education systems participated in ICCS 2009. For Asia, there were 5 education systems: Hong Kong SAR, Indonesia, Korea, Thailand, and Chinese Taipei. All samples were drawn from grade eight students between the ages of 13 and 14 with the average age 14.3 years (SD = 0.56) (Kennedy, Kuang, & Chow, 2013). Sample sizes were Hong Kong SAR (2,739), Indonesia (5,048), Korea (5,252), Thailand (5,374), and Taiwan (5,152), among them there are 50.6% male students and 49.4% female students.

2.3 Instruments

Two student surveys were conducted: The main international student survey, to which all students responded, and an Asian Regional Module to which students from the 5 Asian societies systems responded. The international student survey asked students about civic values and actions while the regional survey focussed on traditional values and attitudes (Schulz et al., 2010).

Students' perceptions of being a 'good' adult citizen, including the importance of conventional citizenship and social-movement-related citizenship, were measured in the international student survey as well as their democratic value beliefs. Students' perceptions of traditional culture and 'good' citizenship were measured in the regional survey.

2.3.1 Students' Perceptions of Being a 'Good' Adult Citizen

The perceptions of being a 'good' adult citizen were measured by four Likert-type items with a common stem of "How important are the following behaviors for being a good adult citizen?" Example items were "voting in every national election" and "taking part in activities to protect the environment."

There were four response categories: "Very important," "quite important," "not very important," and "not important at all."

2.3.2 Students' Perceptions of Traditional Culture

The scale asked students attitude about the preservation of traditional culture. There were four items with four response categories "strongly agree," "agree," "disagree," and "strongly disagree." Example item was "I would like to have more opportunities to learn about <country of test>'s traditional culture."

2.3.3 Students' Perceptions of 'Good' Citizenship

The scale contained seven items indicating possible characteristics of 'good' citizenship with four response categories ("strongly agree" to "strongly disagree"). Example item was "A person who obeys the law is a good citizen."

2.3.4 Students' Support for Democratic Values

The scale measured students' beliefs about democratic values with four response categories ("strongly agree" to "strongly disagree"). Example item was "Everyone should always have the right to express their opinions freely."

3. Results

3.1 Descriptive Statistics

3.1 1 Students' Traditional Values Related to 'Good' Citizenship

Students' perceptions of 'good' citizens are shown in Table 1. Across the 5 societies, more than 75 % students

Table1 Percentage of Students Who Strongly Agree and Agree to the Items

	Hong Kong	Indonesia	Korea	Thailand	Chinese Taipei
A person who obeys the law is a good citizen.	74.5	97.7	91.5	97.6	74.4
A person who obeys the law but does not behave morally is not a good citizen.	80.3	72.2	86.2	78.9	80.8
One can only be a good citizen if one is a good moral person.	79.1	90.3	62.4	93.8	76.1
Having good morality is more important than having good knowledge for one to be a good citizen.	88.5	76.1	85.5	90.5	91.6
Self-cultivation is an important process of becoming a good citizen.	92.9	94.6	89.3	92.8	93.1
For one to become a good citizen one must have a high quality of spirituality.	86.4	80.8	92.3	94	91.1
Even if a person behaves properly they cannot be a good citizen without a high quality of spirituality.	67.3	76.4	73	86.4	76.3
Mean	3.05	3.16	3.04	3.33	3.11
Sd	0.45	0.36	0.42	0.39	0.47

agreed that a 'good' citizen must have high quality of spirituality, be self-cultivated and they believed having good morality is more important than good knowledge. Most students thought that one can only be a good citizen if one is a good moral person in the four societies, except only 62.4% of Korean students endorsed this item. More than 90% of students in Indonesia, Korea and Thailand agreed "a person who obeys the law is a good citizen" while the percentage in Hong Kong and Chinese Taipei was only around 74%. More than 72% of students of the five societies agreed that "a person who obeys the law but does not behave morally is not a good citizen." More than 70% of students agreed "even if a person behaves properly they cannot be a good citizen without a high quality of spirituality" except In Hong Kong the percentage was 67.3%.

The scale's means for each of the five societies are listed in the last two rows of the table. Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used to test for differences among the five societies. The results showed there were statistically significant differences across societies on the construct ($F(4, 23467) = 402.38$, $p < .000$, partial $\eta 2 = .064$). Korean students registered the lowest level of endorsement while Thailand students endorsed the construct more positively than their peers in East Asia. The post hoc Dunnett's T3 tests indicated each of the differences between the 9 pair-wise comparisons were statistically significant. The exception was the Hong Kong-Korea pair.

3.1.2 Students' Views about Important Behaviors for Being a 'Good' Adult Citizen

Table 2 shows the results of students' attitudes towards adult citizenship behaviors. For conventional citizenship, more than 75% students in the five societies agreed that "Learning about the country's history" and almost 90% students believed that "following political issues in the newspaper, on the radio, on TV or on the internet" were important behaviors for being an adult citizen except for Indonesia (72.6%). More than 95% of students in Indonesia, Korea and Thailand indicated that "voting in every national election" was an important behavior while the percentages were lower in Chinese Taipei (74.6%) and Hong Kong (85.5%).

More than 80% students of Hong Kong, Indonesia and Thailand agreed "showing respect for government representatives" is an important behaviors, while in Chinese Taipei the percentage was 71.6% and Korea (42.4%) had the lowest percentage. About 80% students of Hong Kong and Chinese Taipei thought "joining a political party" were not important behaviors, while in the other three

Table 2 Percentage of Students Who Strongly Agree and Agree to the Items

		Hong Kong	Indonesia	Korea	Thailand	Chinese Taipei
Conventional citizenship	Voting in every national election	85.5	95.4	96.6	96.9	74.6
	Joining a political party	20.4	53.9	60.9	67	16.6
	Learning about the country's history	78.6	93.8	75	92	78.7
	Following political issues in the newspaper, on the radio, on TV or on the internet	89.3	72.6	91.8	90.6	87.2
	Showing respect for government representatives	89	92.5	42.4	82	71.6
	Engaging in political discussions	57	47	75.5	70.5	50.8
	Mean	2.91	3.14	2.96	3.22	2.82
	Sd	0.49	0.39	0.47	0.42	0.52
Social-movement -related citizenship	Participating in peaceful protests against laws believed to be unjust	64.7	78.5	89.9	64.4	63.9
	Participating in activities to benefit people in the local community	84	91	83.4	92.6	88.6
	Taking part in activities promoting human rights	78.4	83.7	83.5	91.9	90.1
	Taking part in activities to protect the environment	88.3	91.4	87.7	94.3	88.4
	Mean	3.06	3.33	3.21	3.34	3.22
	Sd	0.57	0.50	0.58	0.49	0.58

systems, above 50% of the students believed it is important. Almost half of the students thought "engaging in political discussions" is not important in Hong Kong, Chinese Taipei and Indonesia; the percentages were above 70% in Korea and Thailand.

For social-movement-related citizenship, over 80% students thought "participating in activities to benefit people in the local community," "taking part in activities to protect the environment" and "taking part in activities promoting human rights" except Hong Kong (78.4%) were important behaviors for being good adult citizen.

Less than 65% student agreed that "Participating in peaceful protests against laws believed to be unjust" are important behaviors in Hong Kong, Thailand and Chinese Taipei. The percentages were higher in Indonesia (78.5%) and Korea (89.9%).

There were statistically significant differences across societies on the two constructs. The main effect for Social-movement Conventional Citizenship scale was statistically significant indicating there were difference across societies. (F (4, 23404) = 645.849, $p < .0001$, partial $\eta 2 = .099$). Students of Chinese Taipei registered the lowest level of endorsement on this construct, while Thailand students endorsed the construct more positively than their peers in East Asia. The post hoc Dunnett's T3 tests indicated that each of the differences between the 10 pair-wise comparisons was statistically significant.

The main effect for Social-movement-related citizenship scale statistically significant indicating there was difference across societies. (F (4, 23362) = 157.572, $p < .000$, partial $\eta 2 = .026$). Students of Hong Kong registered the lowest level of endorsement on this construct, while Thail students endorsed the construct more positively than their peers in East Asia. The post hoc Dunnett's T3 tests indicated that except Indonesia and Thailand, Hong Kong and Chinese Taipei, each of the differences between the 8 pair-wise comparisons statistically significant.

3.3 Effect of Traditional Culture, Democratic Values and Good Citizenship

Results of the SEM analysis indicated that the fit of the model was acceptable. For the five societies, the CFI (Comparative Fit Index) (Bentler, 1990) and TLI (Tucker-Lewis Index) (Tucker & Lewis, 1973) goodness-of-fit indices were more than 0.90, and the RMSEA (Root Mean Square Error of Approximation) values were all smaller than 0.07 (Table 3). The R-squared of the variables ranged from 0.260 to 0.625 (Table 4).

Table 5 presents the indirect, direct and total effects of independent variables on students' perception of important behaviors for being good adult citizens.

In all five societies, students' perception of traditional culture and democratic values had statistically significant direct effects on students' perception of important behaviors for being 'good' adult citizens (β: 0.175 ~ 0.410, $p < 0.0001$). It also shows that for Hong Kong (0.296), Indonesia (0.297) and Thailand (0.267), students' perception of democratic values were the strongest predictors for students' perception of the importance of conventional citizenship. While for the total effects, students' attitude to traditional culture was the strongest predictor for conventional citizenship in the four societies except Indonesia (0.245). Democratic values were the strongest predictors for students' perception of importance of Social-movement-related citizenship for all the five societies with total effect range from 0.388 to 0.424.

Table 3 Model Fit of the Five Societies

	CFI	TLI	RMSEA
Hong Kong	0.92	0.91	0.058 (0.057 ~ 0.060)
Indonesia	0.91	0.90	0.048 (0.047 ~ 0.049)
Korea	0.91	0.90	0.063 (0.062 ~ 0.064)
Thailand	0.93	0.92	0.047 (0.046 ~ 0.049)
Chinese Taipei	0.91	0.90	0.067 (0.066 ~ 0.068)

Table 4 R-Squared of the Dependent Variables

Variable	Hong Kong	Indonesia	Korea	Thailand	Chinese Taipei
Good citizenship	0.309 (0.020)	0.589 (0.021)	0.302 (0.016)	0.625 (0.017)	0.315 (0.014)
Conventional citizenship	0.290 (0.020)	0.253 (0.017)	0.260 (0.014)	0.286 (0.016)	0.280 (0.013)
Social-movement -related citizenship	0.288 (0.019)	0.368 (0.019)	0.290 (0.014)	0.421 (0.018)	0.377 (0.015)

Notes: All estimates are standardized and significant at the 0.05 level. Standard errors are presented in parentheses.

'Good' citizenship had statistically significant direct effects on students' perception of important behaviors for being 'good' adult citizens in Hong Kong, Korea and Chinese Taipei (β: 0.104 ~ 0.192, $p < 0.0001$). For students' perception of the importance of Conventional citizenship, 'Good' citizenship had significant positive effects ($p > 0.05$). For Indonesia and Thailand, it had no statistically significant direct effect on students' perception of the importance of Social-movement-related citizenship ($p > 0.05$).

'Good' citizenship had an indirect effect on conventional citizenship via traditional culture and democratic values in the four societies (β: 0.02 ~ 0.09, $p < 0.05$) except democratic value in Indonesia (β: 0.01, $p < 0.05$). It also had an indirect effect on Social-movement citizenship in Hong Kong, Korea and Chinese Taipei.

Table 6 presents the total effects of independent variables on students' perception of the character of 'good' citizenship. It shows for the five societies, students' attitudes to traditional culture are the strongest predictors for 'good' citizenship, with the effect range from 0.368 to 0.695.

4. Conclusion

This study explored Asian students' perceptions of 'good' citizenship and important behavior's to be a 'good' adult citizen. It also investigated the predictors for behaviors of being a 'good' adult citizen. Most of the students agreed that to be a 'good' citizen, one should obey the law and have good morality and high quality of spirituality. Self-cultivation was also an important element for becoming a 'good' citizen.

Table 5 Direct, Indirect, and Total Effects on Being a Good Adult Citizen

	Predictor	Hong Kong	Indonesia	Korea	Thailand	Chinese Taipei
Conventional citizenship	Democratic values					
	Direct	0.296	0.297	0.188	0.267	0.175
	Indirect	0.02	0.01#	0.04	0.02	0.05
	Total	0.316	0.307	0.228	0.287	0.225
	Traditional Culture					
	Direct	0.243	0.175	0.329	0.256	0.301
	Indirect	0.09	0.07	0.05	0.05	0.08
	Total	0.333	0.245	0.379	0.306	0.381
	Good citizenship					
	Direct	0.174	0.098	0.124	0.085	0.192
	Total	0.174	0.098	0.124	0.085	0.192
Social-movement -related citizenship	Democratic values					
	Direct	0.368	0.410	0.358	0.404	0.364
	Indirect	0.02	0.001#	0.03	0.02#	0.03
	Total	0.388	0.410	0.388	0.424	0.394
	Traditional culture					
	Direct	0.182	0.251	0.212	0.261	0.280
	Indirect	0.08	0.01#	0.04	0.04#	0.06
	Total	0.262	0.261	0.252	0.301	0.340
	Good Citizenship					
	Direct	0.152	0.008#	0.104	0.068#	0.137
	Total	0.152	0.008	0.104	0.068	0.137

Note:
$p > 0.05$, all other β are significant at $p < 0.05$ without note. Traditional culture and democratic values had statistically significant direct effects on students' perception of the character of 'good' citizenship.

Table 6 Total Effect on Good Citizenship

Variable	Hong Kong	Indonesia	Korea	Thailand	Chinese Taipei
Democratic values	0.115	0.107	0.300	0.272	0.242
Traditional culture	0.513	0.695	0.368	0.599	0.431

A growing number of educational programs seek to further democracy by nurturing 'good' citizens (Westheimer & Kahne, 2002). Yet the definition of 'good' citizen remains elusive. Pyket et al. (2010) propose that "the 'good' citizen is a figure who is 'framed,' or set up, by political and observers alike; framed in the sense of viewed from a certain perspective, and in the different sense of set up for a particular purpose." In the domain of citizenship education, the official framing of the 'good' citizen exist in many forms. However, students may view and act within a political system the way they think 'good' citizens ought to be and act.

Most of the students believed that voting, learning the history of their country, following political issues through media are important behavior of conventional citizenship as well as showing respect for government representatives except in Korea only less than half of the students support this view.

In Hong Kong and Chinese Taipei, around 50% of students agreed engaging in political discussions was important, and around one fifth of the students agreed that joining a political party was an important behavior for social-movement-related citizenship. Whether this reflected most of the students' distrust in political party is worth exploring in the future. In the other three counties, the percentages were more than 50%.

The majority of the students agreed "Taking part in activities promoting human rights, protecting the environment and benefit people in their local community" were important for social-movement-related citizenship. Over 60% students' agreed that "Participating in peaceful protests against laws believed to be unjust" in the five societies.

An overall pattern of variation across the constructs and societies was that Thailand and Indonesian students tended to endorse the constructs more strongly than did students from Korea, Hong Kong and Chinese Taipei. Some caution needs to be exercised with such a generalization since the large sample sizes mean that the smallest changes will register as significant and effect sizes were weak.

Students' attitude to democratic values and traditional culture were identified as significant direct predictors in all the five societies. Students' perception of the possible characteristics of 'good' citizenship was also predictor for students' perceptions of the importance of conventional citizenship in the five societies and the social-movement-related citizenship in Hong Kong, Korea and Chinese Taipei. Democratic values and especially the traditional culture had a strong effect on students' perceptions of the possible characteristics of 'good' citizenship.

The results of the present study have implications for civics and citizenship education since fostering 'good' citizen is one of the goals of education. The democratic values scale measured students' support for democratic values and it had the strongest positive relationship with the behaviors of being adult 'good' citizens. The scale of traditional culture is about students' attitude toward the preservation of traditional culture which was the strongest predictors for student's perception of the possible characteristics of 'good' citizenship and conventional citizenship.

The present study only chose democratic values and traditional culture as the possible factors influencing perceptions of adults who are 'good' citizens. Further study, should consider more factors that may affect students' perception of being 'good' adult citizens. The importance of traditional culture and values and how these sit alongside democratic values is an important area for future research. Pykett et al. (2010) have indicated that given the plurality of conceptions of the 'good' citizen, cross-contextual ways are needed by which to judge varied claims about the capacities, behaviors and attitudes of 'good' citizens. In the future, samples of students from Europe and Latin America can be analyzed for different cultural and social groups' comparison, which can make an important contribution to both political and civic studies.

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National Identity-Building through the School Curriculum and the Two History Subjects in Postcolonial Hong Kong

Flora L. F. Kan[1,*] *and Bob Adamson*[2]
[1]*Faculty of Education, The University of Hong Kong*
[2]*Department of International Education and Lifelong Learning, Hong Kong Institute of Education*

Abstract

Since the retrocession of Hong Kong to Chinese sovereignty in 1997, the Hong Kong SAR government and key curriculum developers have been determined to make use of the school curriculum (formal and informal) and in particular, the two history subjects, 'Chinese History' and 'History,' to promote a national identity among students. This study shows that a Chinese national identity in ethnic, cultural and historical terms has been promoted through 'Chinese History.' At the same time, through the other history subject, 'History,' a Hongkongese identity that includes both an international and a national dimension has also been made possible. However, it is argued that in promoting a sense of national identity through the school curriculum, the government has turned the curriculum to a form of nationalistic propaganda. In addition, the emphasis on national identity would create tension between Hong Kong students, students from China and ethnical minority students.

Keywords: national identity, Chinese, Hongkongese, Chinese history, history, postcolonial

1 Introduction

In the years since the retrocession of Hong Kong to the People's Republic of China (PRC) in 1997 (also referred to as the handover), scholars have been interested in the impact of decolonisation on education in Hong Kong and in particular on the school curriculum, especially the history curriculum, as previous research has shown that the history curriculum was one of the vehicles used by the ruling authority to legitimise its ideology (Kan & Vickers, 2002; Phillips, 1998; Vickers, Kan, & Morris, 2003). What makes the study of education in postcolonial Hong Kong especially interesting is that after the British administration ended, instead of becoming an independent state as in the case of many other former colonies, Hong Kong became a Special Administrative Region (SAR) of the PRC. Moreover, the PRC is ruled by the Chinese Communist Party (CCP), about which severe criticisms are made in Hong Kong's media concerning the 1989 June Fourth Incident, human rights, corruption, freedom of association, expression and religion, and other political issues. In contrast, Hong Kong has become accustomed to espousing and, to a certain extent, practising Western values such as the rule of law, freedom of speech, and other human rights. Recently, the image of the PRC has been raised by China's outstanding achievements, such as the hosting of the Beijing Olympic Games, the Shanghai World Expo and the space programme. More importantly, the PRC's steady economic growth has greatly impressed the rest of the world, especially as the USA and Europe have been experiencing a severe economic recession since 2008. The negative-cum-positive image of the PRC affects the identity of Hong Kong people: Do they feel themselves as Hongkongese, Chinese, Hong Kong Chinese or China's Hongkongese?

Throughout the 156 years of British rule, the identity of the people of Hong Kong was consistently ambiguous. In the 1940s, the political upheaval of the civil war in China forced tens of thousands of Chinese to flee to Hong Kong. When the CCP established its regime in China in 1949, and the Nationalist government (also referred to as the Kuomingtang, or KMT) retreated to Taiwan, and the Chinese immigrants residing in Hong Kong tended to refrain from involvement in politics, particularly in the conflict between the CCP and the KMT. In such circumstances, the colonial government felt that it had to uphold two principles: Preventing anti-British sentiments in Hong Kong, and avoiding upsetting China (Kan, 2007). Hence, the colonial government chose to adopt an apolitical policy which was manifested in the political antipathy towards all political affiliations. As the governor, Alexander Grantham, stated in 1950, "we cannot permit Hong Kong to be the battleground for contending parties or ideologies" (Hong Kong Hansard, 1950, p. 41, cited in Lau, 1982, p. 36).

The intentions of the colonial government were manifested in a depoliticised and decontextualised school curriculum (Kan, 2007; Morris & Chan, 1997). During the 1970s, with the deliberate efforts of the colonial

* Corresponding Author: Dr. Flora L. F. Kan (flfkan@hku.hk)
Associate Professor, Faculty of Education
The University of Hong Kong

government to develop the socio-economic infrastructure of Hong Kong and with the promotion of 'Hong Kong is our home' activities, people in Hong Kong began to establish a sense of Hongkongese identity (Mathews, Ma, & Liu, 2008; Wang, 1997). The most important reason for the emergence of the Hongkongese identity, accordingly to Lau (1997), was a common anti-Chinese Communist Party sentiment particular among those who had fled to Hong Kong after the communist established its regime in China. This sentiment induced them to regard themselves as Hongkongese. Other factors include the laissez-faire capitalist system, rule of law, human rights and Cantonese as a unique popular culture. Margaret Ng, a former legislator, told a reporter from The Guardian that the uniqueness of Hongkongese lies in the fact that "we are Chinese without being only Chinese. We observe universal values without losing our own cultural identity" (March 23, 2012). The establishment of a unique Hongkongese identity can also be attributed to the highly adaptive and industrious nature of the people of Hong Kong during colonialism. Chow (1999) refers to the endurance of Hong Kong people from the 1950s to 1980s as a "Hong Kong sentiment" (p. 30). However, in the transition period leading up to the handover, the government and influential sectors of society were concerned with stimulating the people of Hong Kong to identify with the PRC, even though, for many people, the PRC was a communist state estranged from their daily lives.

Since the handover, the issue of identity has been hotly contested. The SAR government, in relation to Hong Kong people as not yet feeling a complete affinity with the PRC, has promoted *ren xin hui gui* (retrocession of people's hearts). For the SAR government, a Hongkongese identity is undesirable. Instead, the people of Hong Kong should regard themselves as Chinese, or at least "Hongkongese but also Chinese." It was unacceptable to the PRC government when an opinion survey by Albert Chung of the University of Hong Kong in December 2011 showed that the number of Hong Kong people identifying themselves as simply 'Hong Kong citizens' had reached a ten-year high, while the number of those considering themselves as 'Chinese citizens' had dropped to a 12-year low. As a consequence, Chung's survey was severely criticised by the Director of Publicity, Culture and Sports of the Liaison Office of the Central People's Government, Hao Tiechuan. Hao maintained that since Hong Kong is the SAR of the PRC, the identification with both Hong Kong and China is 'unscientific' and 'illogical.' Hao's criticism reflected the displeasure of the PRC government concerning the way in which Hong Kong people identified themselves, which might have led to political pressure being placed on the SAR government with regard to the promotion of Hong Kong people's national identity.

2 Inquiry: Theme and Methods

If the SAR government feels politically obliged to promote a national identity in Hong Kong, fostering that identity in students through the school curriculum becomes an important strategy. Traditionally, the history curriculum is one area that is deemed ripe for revamping in the process of decolonisation (Jansen, 1989). However, given the diverse connotations of national identity, what are the conceptions of national identity as manifested in the education policy and the history curriculum in Hong Kong? The question is rendered more complex by the fact that the history curriculum in Hong Kong comprises two subjects, namely History and Chinese History, for reasons to be explored in a later section. The curricula of the two subjects are worthy of study as they are collectively concerned with the interpretation of national history and indigenous history and hence they are regarded as effective vehicles to cultivate students' national/indigenous identity (Coulby, 2000; Kan & Vickers, 2002; Osborne, 2003; Vickers & Jones, 2005). In order to answer this question, first-hand document sources were collected and analysed, including policy documents, speeches, newspaper articles and official curriculum guides. These documents are deemed relevant as they can reflect the context within which key government officials, politicians, teachers and journalists express their views on national identity and/or the relationship between national identity and the history curriculum. In addition, two sets of the most popular Chinese history textbooks (the 2005 edition) and one set of the most popular History textbook (the 2004 edition) are also analysed so as to reveal the possible identity that history textbooks intend to promote in students.

3 Conceptions of National Identity

With respect to national identity, there are diverse views about its meaning. Smith (1991, p. 15) has presented a comprehensive view of national identity as:

> …Complex constructs composed of a number of interrelated components -- Ethnic, cultural, territorial, economic and legal-political. They signify bonds of solidarity among members of communities united by shared memories, myths and traditions that may or may not find expression in states of their own, but are entirely different from the purely legal and bureaucratic ties of the state.

Milton Esman (1994) regards national identity as identification with an ethnic community:

> The set of meanings that individuals impute to their membership in an ethnic community, including those attributes that bind them to that collectivity and that distinguish it from others in their relevant environment. A psychological construct that can evoke powerful emotional responses, ethnic identity normally conveys strong elements of continuity (p. 27).

Joireman (2003), however, views national identity as:

> The politicised form of ethnic identity that develops when an ethnic group adopts a common political identity and their ethnicity is no longer just a cultural or social identifier (p. 12).

Smith (1991), Esman (1994) and Joireman (2003) have different concerns about the components of national identity. For Smith (1991), it is all-inclusive. Esman (1994) and Joireman (2003) focus on ethnicity; however, Esman (1994) is culturally oriented while Joireman (2003) sees ethnicity as a political attachment. The above views place emphasis on the aspects about the nation with which to identify, but fail to acknowledge that in the process of identification, the 'negative' aspects of the nation have to be ignored or covered up. People are thus induced to see only the 'good' side of the country. In addition, it should be noted that in cosmopolitan cities where multi-ethnicity is a distinctive feature, the cultivation of national identity signifies a distinction between the 'national' and the 'non-national,' hence creating an 'other' that might lead to the marginalisation of ethnic minorities and to racism. This potential outcome is pertinent to Hong Kong as it is an international city with over 450,000 non-Chinese people (6% of the population) (Census and Statistics Department, 2011).

Of the different components of national identity, kinship, cultural or historical ties are hereditary in nature and are regarded by Geertz (1963), van den Berghe (1978) and Smith (2004) as primordial. In contrast, the constructivist approach (Brown, 2000; Joireman, 2003) views national identity as an elusive socially constructed and negotiated reality. The primordial and constructivist views of national identity reflect the two perspectives on Hong Kong's current debate about national identity. For some, their national identity is premised on the inborn ethnicity (primordial). They identify with China's race, geography, history, and culture. Those attached to the constructivist view consider ethnicity as flexible, with people free to make choices about being Hongkongese, Chinese, Hongkong Chinese or China's Hongkongese. This paper adopts the primordial and constructivist approaches in order to understand the notion of national identity as manifested in the education policy and the history curriculum.

With regard to the literature on national identity in Hong Kong, Morris, Kan, and Morris (2000), focus on post-1997 civic education in Hong Kong, argue that "the loyalty being promoted is not to the state per se, but to a sense of national identity based upon a homogeneous and totalising sense of Chinese culture, morality and values" (p. 259). Vickers (2005) concludes in his study that the identity of Hongkongese has been overshadowed by a 'homogenous and totalizing vision of 'one China'" and hence, not promoted (p. 268). On the teaching of national identity in Hong Kong, Mathews et al. (2008) find that "the level of instruction into national identity seems minimal in most primary schools" (p. 87). On the other hand, in secondary schools, teachers were too occupied with examinations to spare time to talk about national identity. Mathews et al. also point out a typical phenomenon in Hong Kong: "Unless examined, national identity will not be taken seriously, by teachers and students alike" (p. 88). They further remark that "many teachers expressed love for the Chinese 'race' or tradition, but almost none we interviewed, even from 'pro-China' schools, expressed love for the Chinese state today" (p. 91). However, Mathews et al. (2008) do not go into other aspects of the curriculum and explore the intended identities to be constructed for students. Hence this paper aims to fill the gap and provide a more comprehensive picture of identity formation through the school curriculum and the two history subjects.

4 National Identity: An Official Perspective

With the establishment of the SAR government, the cultivation of students' national identity became a key issue on the policy agenda for education, as the first SAR Chief Executive, C H Tung, stated in his first policy address:

> We will incorporate the teaching of Chinese values in the school curriculum and provide more opportunities for students to learn about Chinese history and culture. This will foster a stronger sense of Chinese identity in our students..... As we face the historic change of being reunited with China, for every individual there is a gradual process of getting to know Chinese history and culture, so as to achieve a sense of belonging (Policy Address, 1997).

The policy address not only indicates the determination of the Chief Executive in fostering "a stronger sense of Chinese identity" and "to achieve a sense of belonging" but is also geared towards pleasing the PRC government.

In 2000, Hong Kong implemented comprehensive educational reforms. According to the Chairman of the Curriculum Development Council (CDC), Cheng Hon-kwan, the reform was "to cope with the challenges of the 21st century" (CDC, 2001). One of the overall aims stipulated in the policy document *Learning to Learn -- The Way Forward in Curriculum Development* was for students to "understand their national identity and be committed to contributing to the nation and society" (p. 6). Although the meaning of 'national identity' was not defined nor the ways in which students could contribute to the nation, it clearly indicates that the government has no intention to cultivate a distinctive Hong Kong identity in students. In the Key Learning Area (KLA) Personal, Social and Humanities Education (PSHE) grade 7 ~ 9, the document specified its intention for students "to have a deeper understanding of the history, culture, natural and human environments of China, and strengthen their national identity" (p. 46). For General Studies (primary schools, grade 4 ~ 6), students were expected to "develop an awareness of their role in society and national identity through understanding local society, Chinese history and culture" (p. 64), whereas teachers were reminded of "strengthening students' affective development, especially towards their national identity and Chinese culture" (p. 64). A specific section named *The issue of Chinese History and Culture* was included, to highlight the role of Chinese history in nurturing students' national identity. For example, "A sense of national identity is cultivated through understanding elements of Chinese history and culture, (e.g., history events, arts, scientific and technological development, achievements of outstanding Chinese)" (pp. 23-24). Overall, with reference to the primordial approach, this education policy document specifies clearly the intention of the SAR government to develop students' national identity geared towards identification with China's history, culture, and achievements. Political and ideological dimensions were excluded from the official discourse; The government intended to cultivate students' national identity through the development of students' affective commitment.

At a ceremony commemorating the tenth anniversary of the handover in 2007, Hu Jintao, President of the PRC, strongly urged that "We should put more emphasis on national education...foster a strong sense of national identity among the young people in Hong Kong and promote exchanges between them and the young people of the mainland so that they will carry forward the Hong Kong people's great tradition of 'loving the motherland and loving Hong Kong'" (Hu, 2007). Hu's 'advice' might imply that young people in Hong Kong had not yet developed a national sentiment with respect to the PRC. The Chief Executive at the time, Donald Tsang, in interpreting Hu's discourse, recreated the form and structure of national education and included the notion prominently in his policy addresses during his tenure 2007 ~ 2011. In these addresses, 'national education' was not included as an item under 'Education,' but separately under 'Governance,' which indicated that the introduction of 'national education' into the school curriculum was regarded not as an educational initiative but as a political endeavor. In other words, education is seen as a means to achieve the political end of developing students' national identity. The following extract of Donald Tsang's policy address is illustrative:

> …We will attach great importance to promoting national education among our young people, so that they grow *to love our motherland and Hong Kong*, and have *a strong sense of pride as nationals of the People's Republic of China*. ...To enhance our young people's awareness and understanding of our *country's development, the land and the people, the history and the culture*. We will give more weight to the elements of national education in the existing primary and secondary curricula and the new senior secondary curriculum framework to help students acquire a clearer understanding of our country and a stronger sense of national identity (Policy Address, 2007, italics added).

In proposing that students should be encouraged to appreciate "the land and the people, the history and the culture," Tsang wanted to make use of primordial attachments to develop students' affective commitment towards the PRC. In his subsequent policy addresses (2008 ~ 2011), the key theme was a reiteration of the importance of cultivating students' national identity through the school curriculum. At the same time, the government would also provide funding to schools and non-government organizations to organize activities to foster a sense of being nationals of the PRC in students. Activities included study tours, where students could visit historic places and places (such as the Yangtze River Delta) that reflected China's achievements. In all these policy addresses, however, the government tried to avoid associating 'national identity' with the CCP, which can be regarded as the attempt of the SAR government to distance national identity from politics. However, the PRC is a communist regime, and in identifying with the PRC, it would be difficult not to identify with the CCP. The student union of the Hong Kong Institute of Education viewed this promotion of national identity as being skewed because "the Chinese Communist Party has been severed from China's history and culture, thus creating a special national identity and national education of the style of the PRC"

(Mingpao editorial, 2012). According to Smith (1991), this PRC-style national identity, denotes the legal-political ties of the state and it is what many Hong Kong people try to distance themselves from (Fairbrother, 2003; Kan & Vickers, 2002; Vickers & Jones, 2005). Therefore, on the surface of this form of national identity is a connotation of primordial identification; though, it also could be viewed as conforming to legal-political identification. However, the analysis so far indicates that the Hong Kong SAR government intended to stress on the primordial identification rather than the legal-political identification.

In 2010, Donald Tsang proposed the introduction of 'Moral and National Education' as a new and compulsory subject for all students (primary 1 to secondary 6) in the 2013 school year. However, in 2012, the China Model Teaching Manual was published (by the National Education Service Centre with a subsidy from the government). In it, the CCP was praised as an "advanced, selfless and united ruling group" (cited in Mingpao editorial, 2012) while the relationship between the Democratic and Republican Parties of the United States was denounced as a "fierce inter-party rivalry [that] makes the people suffer" (Mingpao editorial, 2012). This publication provoked serious conflicts between the government and opponents of 'Moral and National Education.' Tens of thousands of people (mainly secondary and tertiary students and parents) took to the streets to protest against the introduction of 'brainwashing national education.' In view of the strong opposition to 'Moral and National Education,' the in-coming Chief Executive, C.Y. Leung, was forced to shelve this school subject. The failure of 'Moral and National Education' drew attention to the role of Chinese History in developing national education and hence students' national identity. Teachers, politicians and journalists variously expressed their views. For example, Ho Hon Kuen, the vice chairman of the political party Education Convergence, regarded Chinese History as "the source where people understand their culture and their race, then they come to develop their affection to the nation. This is how we develop our national identity" (Hong Kong Economic Journal, 2013). Ho's view was shared by Tang Wing Chun, a consultant of the government central policy unit, who commented, "Chinese History is the gateway to understanding the Chinese race .....students can find their roots and establish their national identity" (Sing Tao Daily, 2013). Arguing in the same line, Chu Ka Kin, a Chinese History teacher, suggested that "only when Chinese History is made a compulsory subject, would students be proud of being a Chinese" (Sing Pao, 2013). Lau Tin Chi, a journalist, echoed Chu's view that "the aim of Chinese History is to nurture a real Chinese" (Sky Post, 2013, p. 10). Lau Juen Yee, the former president of the Chinese University of Hong Kong, also agreed that "as Chinese History can help students establish their national identity and is not as controversial as National Education, it should be made a compulsory subject" (Hong Kong Economic Journal, 2013). In other words, they all perceive the subject's content on history, ethnicity and culture as conducive to building students' national identity, which is geared to primordial identification. Lau Tin Chi and Chu Ka Kin even suggest that the mission of Chinese History is to nurture "real" Chinese people and for students to feel proud of being Chinese. This explains why, after shelving the Moral and National Education, Chinese History has become the target for promoting national education and hence developing students' national identity.

In view of the importance attached to Chinese History in cultivating students' national identity, it is worth examining the nature of national identity that the two history subjects seek to promote in students.

5 The Promotion of National Identity through School Subjects

The school curriculum is considered to be the most direct and powerful vehicle for building the national identity of students in a state-sanctioned way. As Smith argues: "The socialisation of individuals in a society as 'nationals' and 'citizens' is nowadays achieved through compulsory, standardized, public mass education systems, through which state authorities hope to inculcate national devotion and a distinctive, homogeneous culture" (Smith, 1991, p. 16). The following sections analyse the characteristics of national/indigenous identity as promoted through the two school history subjects in Hong Kong: Chinese History and History.

6 Identity Formation through the Two History Subjects

In the school curriculum, History is perhaps the most viable agent in socializing students' national/indigenous identity as it involves cultural transmission, heritage and nationhood, and is presented as collective memories. There have been two history subjects in Hong Kong since 1948, when Chinese History and 'Chinese Culture' were offered as one subject in Anglo-Chinese schools[1]. In Chinese middle schools, History included the history of China, Europe, the United States, and South East Asia. It was not until the 1960s that Chinese History became a single

[1] According to the annual report of the Education Department, the offering of Chinese History and 'Chinese Culture' as one subject was aimed at giving more choices to students sitting for the School Certificate Examination.

independent subject in both Anglo-Chinese schools and Chinese Middle schools. At present, the school curriculum includes History, which comprises the history of Europe, Modern China, Japan, South East Asia, and Hong Kong, and Chinese History, which deals with the history of China and Hong Kong (only for junior secondary). While Chinese History is taught only in Chinese, History is taught in either Chinese (in Chinese medium of instruction schools) or English (in English medium of instruction schools) (Kan & Vickers, 2002). The identity that the government aims to cultivate through History and Chinese History is investigated below through an analysis of the official curriculum guides (the intended curriculum) and textbook narratives (resourced curriculum).

7 An Indigenous, Hongkongese Identity

In the case of Chinese History, it was not until 1997 that Hong Kong history was introduced into the S1-3 curriculum, and even then the curriculum guide stated that Hong Kong history should be regarded as merely supplementary to the history of China. Teachers were reminded that only when they had time left after the teaching of Chinese history should they talk about Hong Kong history (CDC, 1997, p. 5). Hong Kong history, was thus only a marginal inclusion in the S1-3 Chinese History curriculum, and its aim was "to establish a passion for their native land and a sense of ethnic identity" (CDC, 1997, p. 4). The implication here is that Hong Kong has always been part of China, and the people living there are members of the Chinese race. Hence, the inclusion of Hong Kong history is aimed at enhancing the formation of a national identity, in this way facilitating the decline of the "Hongkongese" identity.

In S4-5, S6-7, and the New Senior Secondary (NSS) Chinese History (introduced in 2009), Hong Kong history is a null curriculum, implying that Hong Kong history is not regarded as important in Chinese History. Hence, there is little chance of a Hongkongese identity being established through the curriculum. At the junior secondary level, the Chinese History textbooks include, after the narrative of each dynasty, a one-page section called 'Hong Kong history: Past and present,' which briefly describes the conditions of Hong Kong during each particular dynasty. For example, in the textbook *Inquiring into Chinese History*, at the end of the chapter on the Qin dynasty (221 BCE-207 BCE), the Hong Kong history section states: "In the Qin dynasty, Hong Kong belonged to the Nanhoi county, Panyu district. Thereafter, Hong Kong was formally under the administration of the central government" (Chan, Chan, Kwok, Man, & Cheung, 2005, p. 20). This implies that during the Qin dynasty, Hong Kong was only a tiny place on the southern tip of China and assumed an inferior geographical identity. In other textbooks, Hong Kong is portrayed in the form of cultural reminiscences, and examples are shown of traditional cultures that still survive in Hong Kong, such as the Wong Tai Sin Temple and Tin Hau Temple. This kind of piecemeal narrative can only promote a fragmentary historical-cultural Hongkongese identity. In other words, from colonialism to post-colonialism, the Chinese History curriculum has never enabled students to understand Hong Kong history, nor has it aimed at encouraging the development of a Hongkongese identity among students.

Hong Kong history was introduced into the other history subject, History, in the 1996 S1-3 curriculum and, in contrast to Hong Kong history in the Chinese History curriculum, is much more substantial in its coverage -- From the earliest times to the twentieth century -- And has been seen as an important component of the curriculum. In addition, in the S4-5 History curriculum (2003) and the NSS History curriculum, twentieth century Hong Kong has received considerable attention. The aims of Hong Kong history in the S1-3 History curriculum are: "To contribute to students' knowledge and understanding of their community and culture... and "to demonstrate that they know and understand the main features of the history of Hong Kong and to relate them to wider themes of world history" (CDC, 1996, p. 7). Here, "their community and culture" implies Hong Kong culture rather than Chinese culture, as the part on China only covers the twentieth century. Similarly, the S4-5 curriculum and the NSS curriculum state: "Students are expected to appreciate the characteristics and values of their own culture, and respect the culture and heritage of other communities" (CDC, 2003b, p. 2; 2007a, p. 2). Obviously, "their own culture" also refers to Hong Kong culture, with which students are expected to identify. In addition, the History curriculum aims to relate Hong Kong history to the development of the wider world. All this implies that since the handover, the History curriculum has always been aimed at strengthening students' understanding of Hong Kong, which in turn has made it possible for a Hongkongese identity to be established. One History textbook, for example, emphasises that under the British administration, Hong Kong enjoyed a unique and outstanding economic status in the Asia Pacific region: "...By the 1980s, Hong Kong had begun to take up an active role in the promotion of trade in the Asia-Pacific Rim. Hong Kong is in a unique position because the Hong Kong government has for a long time adopted a very clear and consistent policy of free trade... Hong Kong is an important international financial center in the Asia-Pacific Rim...." (Wong & Leung, 2004, pp. 79-81). The focus in History textbooks is on Hong Kong's transition from

a sparsely populated fishing harbour to an international financial centre, and on the pride Hongkongese feel in themselves. In their description of Hong Kong's political development, History textbooks tend to focus on the ways in which certain eminent Chinese strove to exert their influence during the British administration. In addition, it is clearly stated in textbooks how the Hongkongese prepared themselves for "Hong Kong people rule Hong Kong" during the political transition between 1984 and 1997, for example:

> Since the 1960s, local Chinese have become the majority in the Executive and Legislative Councils. Some were Chinese elites from the business sector. Chung Sze Yuen and Lydia Dunn were two outstanding figures...In the early 1990s, many local Chinese were promoted to the secretariat level of the civil service, such as Anson Chan and Donald Tsang. Both have held senior positions in the government for many years...Some local Chinese elites began to form political parties and emerged as party leaders in 1980s and 1990s... (Wong & Leung, 2004, pp. 30-33)

In short, while History has encouraged the development of a Hongkongese identity, its counterpart, Chinese History, has deliberately been aimed at marginalising this indigenous identity.

8 A National Identity

Prior to the handover, the colonial government was cautious about Chinese History education because of its politically sensitive nature: Nationalism or national sentiment was taboo, and ethnical-cultural identification rather than ideological-political identification was seen as a more viable reason for continuing Chinese history education (Kan, 2007; Morris et al., 2000). In addition, the representation of 'China' in Chinese History was ancient and abstract, and was detached from a real and tangible 'China.' The impact of this curriculum on Hong Kong students is described by Luk (1991, p. 668).

> Thus, generations of Hong Kong Chinese students grew up learning from subjects about Chinese culture to identify themselves as Chinese, but relating that Chineseness to neither contemporary China nor the local Hong Kong landscape. It was a Chinese identity in the abstract, a patriotism of the émigré, probably held all the more absolutely because it was not connected to tangible reality.

After the handover, however, one of the aims of the Chinese History S1-3 curriculum was for students, "through knowing the ethnic culture and national history, to identify with, and have a sense of belonging to, the race and the nation" (CDC, 1997, p. 7). The same identification applies to the S4-5 Chinese History curriculum (CDC, 2003a, p. 2). Therefore, both the S1-3 and the S4-5 Chinese History curricula aim to promote an ethno-cultural and historical identification with China rather than a political and ideological identification. In other words, with regard to national identity, no reference is made to the CCP state.

Curriculum developers regard knowledge of the traditional culture and the contemporary achievements of China as important because they constitute the basis upon which students can identify with China. This identification can stimulate their sense of duty to, and appreciation for, the achievements of the nation (CDC, 2003a, p. 2). For example, the NSS Chinese History curriculum guide includes a new section called *The Development of 20th Century Traditional Chinese Culture: Inheritance and Change*. Another example can be seen in the textbook *New Century Chinese History* in the section on 'Invention and establishment of technology,' where the following specification is noted: "China was one of the earliest civilized countries and made significant contributions to ancient astronomy and geology...paper making, the compass, gun powder and printing were China's four great inventions...contributed to the development of world civilization..." (Chan et al., 2005, p. 127). All these specifications in the curriculum guide and textbooks imply that Chinese History has an instrumental function of helping students to construct their national identity, which can facilitate the socialisation of students into an 'appreciation for the achievements of the nation.' As the Chinese History curriculum guides specify: "...China is actively involved in developing commercial and cultural exchanges with other countries, and hence in the areas of politics, economics and culture, China has played a decisive role in the world" (CDC, 2003a, p. 23; 2007b, p. 21).

These positive value judgements are echoed in other textbooks: "In economic development, the opening up of the country and reform policies achieved brilliant results... in the year 2000, the GDP was ten thousand billion US dollars, 24 times that of 1978, which led to improvements in people's standard of living and China's strength. As a result, China's international status and competitiveness were upgraded..." (Leung, Lok, Tse, & Yeh, 2005, pp. 75-76). This kind of one-sided 'praising the virtues' expression is regarded as necessary by Wong Fu Wing, the chairman of the Promotion of the Hong Kong Basic Law Committee, who says: "What society now needs is to strengthen citizens' understanding of, and passion for, the nation so

as to enhance Hong Kong people's sense of responsibility to the nation and hence their contribution to the nation. Therefore, it is deemed necessary to use passionate propaganda to stimulate Hong Kong people's patriotism as they had long been under the British rule. There isn't any problem with the lack of critical thinking" (Mingpao daily news, 2005). In other words, Wong deems it necessary to promote uncritical patriotism, which according to Schatz, Staub, and Levine (1999), refers to love of country coupled with a rejection of criticism. However, cultivating students' uncritical patriotism would be against the principle of the education reform in which one of the generic skills to be promoted in students is 'critical thinking.'

In terms of such aims, however, the Chinese History curriculum guide is self-defeating as, on the one hand, it highlights and reminds teachers about the need to instill in students an appreciation for the virtues and achievements of China's past, and on the other hand, it stresses the need "to develop students' skills in organizing, synthesizing and analyzing source materials; and to enhance skills in critical thinking and evaluation of historical events through methods of inquiry" (CDC, 2007b, p. 2). There is an apparent contradiction in the guide's emphasis of both independent thinking and national sentiment. At the same time, special attention should be paid to the nature of the national identity promoted through Chinese History as the identification -- Cultural, historical, geographical and ethnic -- Is essentially from a Han-centered perspective, while the interests of ethnic minorities (of which there are 55 officially recognized groups in the PRC) and of non-Chinese residents of Hong Kong are ignored.

In contrast to Chinese History, the S1-3 History curriculum guide (1996) refers to 'civic identity' rather than 'national identity.' For example, one of its aims is "to prepare students for adult life and citizenship" (CDC, 1996, p. 7). Here it is worth noting that there is a slight difference between civic identity and national identity. Civic identity entails a broader connotation, which can include having an identity with a region, and/or a nation and/or the world (Heater 1990), whereas national identity is restricted to the nation. Since the History curriculum includes the study of major countries in the world (including China), the aim of developing students' civic identity is logical. The themes relating to the history of China include only: 'Early civilization -- The Huanghe Valley' and 'The growth and development of Hong Kong in the twentieth century -- Relations with China.' The S4-5 History curriculum guide (2003) covers major developments in Asia and the world in the twentieth century. The part on China, 'Modernization and transformation,' covers only the 20th century. Therefore, the History curriculum does not help to promote a cultural identity among students mainly based on traditional culture. However, one of the objectives of the curriculum guide is for 'students to develop an understanding of the beliefs, experiences and behaviours of their own nations as well as the other nations...' (CDC, 2003b, p. 2). That the curriculum guide uses 'their own nations' rather than 'China' or 'our nation' signifies a sense of detachment from China. However, there are also two objectives, "to have a sense of national identity and to become responsible citizens" (p. 3) and "become responsible citizens with a sense of national identity and global perspective" (CDC, 2007a, p. 3), which seem rather strange in that there is neither justification for, nor reference to, having a sense of national identity in the curriculum guide. The phrase 'to become responsible citizens' is not clear whether it is referring to 'a responsible Hong Kong citizen' or 'a responsible PRC citizen.' However, in view of the inclusion of Hong Kong history, it is logical to interpret it as 'Hong Kong citizens.' It is also important to note that as responsible citizens, students have both rights and responsibilities in Hong Kong which would further consolidate their Hongkongese identity. Whereas for Chinese History, national identity is seen in ethno-cultural and historical terms, for History, the identity being promoted is a Hongkongese identity rather than a national identity. Therefore, the inclusion of 'having a sense of national identity' as one of the aims in the History curriculum guides reveals that curriculum developers are mindful about being politically correct.

In short, with the inclusion of Hong Kong history, the History curriculum helps to contextualize students' Hongkongese or 'Hongkongese but also Chinese' identity. In contrast, the Chinese History curriculum is characteristically ethno-cultural and historical, conveying the sentiment of 'blood is thicker than water.'

9 Conclusion

For post-colonial states, it is a legitimate act to foster national identity among students. However, for Hong Kong, however, where the post-colonial context involves a reunion with an estranged motherland whose ideological-political orientation is markedly different from Hong Kong, such an act is a sensitive issue, and one which places the SAR government in an awkward situation. Before President Hu Jintao's engagement in the discourse on Hong Kong's national identity, the SAR government had previously tried to avoid touching on the ideological-political aspects of national identification and hence intended to foster a depoliticised national identity among students. Such an intention was manifested in the education policy of the education reform and was realised in the type of identity promoted through the two history subjects. The identities

to be promoted through Chinese History and History are a depoliticised 'national identity' and a 'Hongkongese identity' respectively. Students are encouraged to identify with China's culture, geography, history, Han race and achievements. The sources of identification are primordial and at the same time, decontextualized. Under the 'One country, two systems' policy, the national identity to be constructed is what Luk (1991) describes as 'abstract' and 'intangible,' and an 'imagined community' (Anderson, 1991). Hence, it is not possible for students to develop their 'national identity' through practising civil rights and responsibilities (Habermas, 1994). In the case of History, the subject has the potential to establish in students a Hongkongese identity with both national and international dimensions. In sharp contrast with 'national identity,' the analysis shows that the 'Hongkongese identity' is premised on more 'tangible' and 'accessible' persons and events, as shown in the textbook narrative by figures such as Chung Sze Yuen, Lydia Dunn, Anson Chan and Donald Tsang. It is thus more favourable for students to develop their 'Hongkongese identity' through a constructivist approach.

The former Chief Executive, Donald Tsang once told the press that "Hong Kong people's patriotic spirit has Hong Kong characteristics: not only are we proud of being Chinese, we also identify with international values such as human rights, equality and democracy" (Mingpao daily news, 2006). Obviously Donald Tsang admitted that there is a marked difference in the ideological-political belief between Hong Kong and the PRC and that as a consequence, the people of Hong Kong have a special kind of identity: Patriotic with Hong Kong characteristics. Although the school curriculum only constitutes one of the factors in influencing students' national identity, the two histories have made possible two identities among students: Chinese with Hong Kong characteristics and Hongkongese with local, national and international characteristics.

It should be noted that one's identification is not static. The force at work in school is the curriculum, as analysed in this study, which is constructed in a government-sanctioned way. At the same time, there are other dynamic forces, which emerge at particular points in time. For example, when there are negative views of the PRC, particularly relating to ideological-political aspects of China, people tend to contrast this with Hong Kong's positive upholding of the rule of law, human rights and freedom of expression, and they would feel proud of being Hongkongese (Mathews et al., 2008). Conversely, the PRC's economic development and achievements in the latest space project, the 2008 Olympic Games, the 2010 Shanghai International Expo, and other exploits are all regarded as bringing glory to all Chinese, including Chinese in Hong Kong. The two identities are thus constantly shifting with regards to which identity is the more dominant at any one time. However, it is important to note that an emphasis on either the Chinese identity or the Hongkongese identity might not be beneficial to Hong Kong. First, there is an increasing number of children from China settling in Hong Kong. Second, a large number of non-Chinese children are also living in Hong Kong. Hence the government's deliberation of students' national identity might lead to social disintegration. It should also be noted that the government's control of the curriculum makes it vulnerable to being turned into a form of nationalistic propaganda (Low-beer, 2003). Since Hong Kong is a metropolitan city, one wonders if it would be more appropriate to develop in our students an aspiration for a human identity.

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The Relationship among Reading Habit, Learning Strategies, and Academic Achievement of Taiwan Secondary School Students

Huey-Min Wu[1] and Yu-sien Lin[2,]*
[1]*Research Center for Testing and Assessment, National Academy for Educational Research*
[2]*Research Center for Curriculum and Instruction, National Academy for Educational Research*

Abstract

Using the data of Taiwan Assessment of Student Achievement (TASA) 2010, this study aims to explore the possible links between the 8th grade students' reading habit/engagement, learning strategies, and their academic achievement. Students participated in TASA survey received a common questionnaire and assessments in 5 subjects -- Chinese, English, Math, Science, and Social study. The measured constructs of reading habit in the TASA common questionnaire involve literacy activity engagement frequency and outside-reading time spent. The constructs of learning strategies include memory, control and elaboration. The relationship among reading habit, learning strategies, and the scores of each subject are explored with different statistic analysis such as regression analysis or T-test. The results show that: (1) The girls have better reading habit than the boys with much higher frequency of engaging literacy activities, more amount of reading time and exposure of reading resources; (2) The girls are better in employing memory and control strategies than the boys; (3) The students' reading habit is correlated with learning strategies; (4) Memory strategy and reading habit can best predict 8th grade students' performance of Chinese and English, whilst control and memory strategies can predict learning outcomes of Math and Science. Overall, elaboration strategy is not suitable for predict the academic achievement of the students and which does not match the finding of PISA 2009. A continuous endeavor through education in encouraging students' reading habit, particularly the boys, and more efforts in promoting higher level learning strategies in the Taiwanese classrooms are called. Suggestions for instruction and learning, TASA assessment improvement and education policy are also provided in this paper.

Keywords: reading habit, learning strategies, student achievement, TASA

1 Introduction

Under the influence of Outcome-based Education and Evidence-based Practice, student learning achievement has become one of the key indicators of the educational quality and competitiveness of a country (Biesta, 2007, 2009; Davis, 2003; Kirsch, Lennon, von Davier, Gonzalez, & Yamamoto, 2013; Ritzen, 2013). It is argued that reading literacy lays the foundation for the learning of other subject areas and therefore it is commonly considered a cause of multiple subject achievement of students at different school levels (Burns, Griffin, & Snow, 1999; Hung & Tsang, 2001). Studies have indicated that students' reading habit may play a significant role in their academic achievements (Cunningham & Stanovich, 2003; Leppänen, Aunola, & Nurmi, 2005). Among the factors that affect student learning, personal factors such as learning motivation and learning strategies are also important variables that must be considered when undertaking research into academic achievement (Lee & Shute, 2010). In International Large-scale assessments such as Program for International Student Assessment (PISA), students' reading engagement and learning strategies are included as factors of analyzing achievement. In addition, the impact of gender on reading engagement, the use of learning strategies is examined. In response to the trend, the present study aims to explore the relationship among the variables of gender, reading habit, learning strategies, and student achievement.

Taiwan Assessment of Student Achievement (TASA) is a database that evaluates the learning achievement of elementary school students in the fourth and sixth grades, junior high school students in the eighth grade, and students in their second year at senior high school or senior vocational school. This database is being built up through stratified sampling of all students in Taiwan, to produce quantified data that can be made available to both domestic and international researchers to undertake in-depth study of issues relating to students' learning achievement (TASA, 2014).

An overview of research on reading habit and learning strategies shows that, in the past, the main focus

* Corresponding Author: Dr. Yu-sien Lin (ylin@mail.naer.edu.tw)
Assistant Research Fellow, Research Center for Curriculum and Instruction
National Academy for Educational Research

has been on their impact on the performance of specific subjects, with the most of the sample data used being based on regional samples (Applegate & Applegate, 2004; Benevides & Peterson, 2010; Chou, Huang, & Huang, 2011; Cunningham & Stanovich, 2003; Eshel & Kohavi, 2003; Pintrich & DeGroot, 1990; Stanovich, Cunningham, & West, 1998; Wei & Huang, 2009). Such data cannot be extrapolated to examine the situation in a whole country, or to compare learning strategies across different disciplines. By contrast, the TASA database covers five subjects -- Chinese, English, mathematics, social studies and natural science -- And the population on which the sampling is based includes all schoolchildren in Taiwan. The results obtained in analysis of the TASA data can thus be considered to be representative of the situation in Taiwan as a whole. The present study therefore uses the TASA database as its basic data source. The latest TASA data -- Specifically data for students who were in the 8th grade in 2010 -- Is used to explore the relationship between 8th grade students' academic performance and their learning strategies. It was anticipated that analysis of quantified data would provide a basis for offering useful suggestions to students, teachers and those involved in the setting of education policy.

The purpose of the present study can thus be summarized as follows (Figure 1):

(1) To determine if there were any significant differences in the reading habit adopted by male and female 8th grade students.
(2) To determine if there were any significant differences in the learning strategies adopted by male and female 8th grade students.
(3) To explore the relationship between 8th grade students' learning strategies and their reading habit.
(4) To examine the relationship among eighth grade students' reading habit, learning strategies, and learning outcomes in relation to different school subjects, and to put forward recommendations to for teachers to help students improve their learning outcomes.

2 Literature Review

2.1 Definition of Reading Habit and Learning Strategies

2.1.1 Reading Habit

Researchers believe that reading is essential to the learning of other subject domain for reading fosters not only basic literacy skills, but also logical and analytical modes of thought and critical attitudes (Cunningham & Stanovich, 2003; Stanovich et al., 1998). Although reading is considered a cause of multiple subject achievement, it is dubious which attribute of reading, for instance, reading skills, or the exposure to reading materials has an impact on literacy performance and subject achievement, and to what extent does it influence achievement.

Many studies have been carried out to examine the impact of reading habit on literacy acquisition and performance. In some of these studies, *reading habit* is defined as the amount of time spent or degree of engaging in leisure/out-of-school reading (Applegate & Applegate, 2004; Benevides & Peterson, 2010; Cunningham & Stanovich, 2003; Lee, 2003); whilst in some studies, reading habit is defined as exposure to print/digital materials or constant literacy experiences (Leppänen et al., 2005; Stanovich, Cunningham, & West, 1998). Unlike previous research choosing single construct or dimension, PISA, however, adopts multiple constructs of reading habit. In the framework of PISA 2009, reading habit is referred to as *reading engagement* which includes enjoyment, a sense of control over, and involvement in frequent reading practices (OECD, 2010a, p. 37). Specific components of reading habit that OECD determined in PISA 2009 are

- reading for school;
- enjoyment of reading;
- time spent reading for enjoyment;
- diversity of reading materials; and
- diversity of on line reading activities (OECD, 2010a, p. 26).

The varied definitions and constructs of reading habits in different studies are summarized in Table 1.

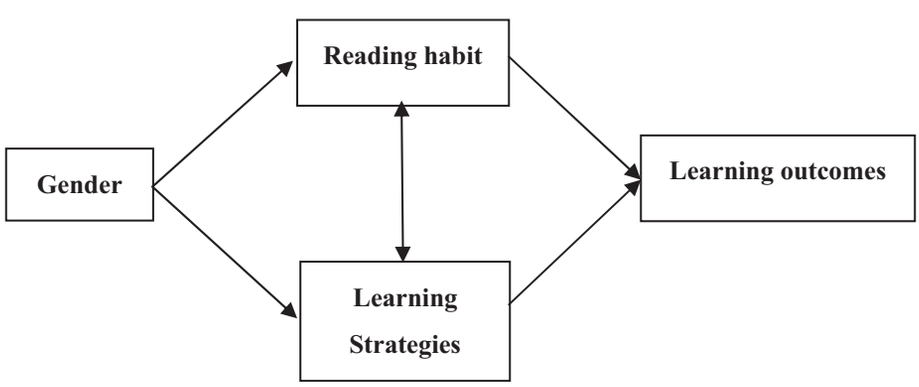

Figure 1 Research Framework of This Study

Table 1 Types of Reading Habit Constructs

Study	Constructs of reading habit
Applegate & Applegate (2004); Benevides & Peterson (2010); Kuo & Liu (2009); Lee (2003); OECD (2010b)	*Free-choice* reading on a *regular* basis • Engagement in literacy activity/events • Engagement in personal reading • Choosing reading as a pastime/for enjoyment • Motivation for reading
Benevides & Peterson (2010); Ku (2005); Stanovich et al. (1998)	The *amount of time* spent • Frequency of reading • Time spend on out-of-school reading • Accumulation of reading experience
Cunningham & Stanovich (2003); Ku (2005); Leppänen, Aunola, & Nurmi (2005); OECD (2010b); Stanovich et al. (1998)	The *amount of volume* read • How much book reading they did • Extent of exposure to reading material • Diversity of reading materials

The present study defines reading habit as, according to the framework of PISA 2009 and previous studies: (1) The frequency of engaging in reading/literary activities; (2) The amount of time spent on out-of-school reading; and (3) The amount of reading resources exposure. Therefore the questions of TASA survey regarding the students' reading habits include: (1) How often the students go to the libraries, book fares, or bookstores; (2) How much time per week the students spend on outside reading after school; and (3) How many books (textbook and reference book are not included) do students have at home.

2.1.2 Learning Strategies

The term "learning strategy" can be used to refer to any behavior or plan used to obtain, retain, search for or use information (Wenden & Rubin, 1987). Different classification systems that scholars have proposed in relation to the definition of learning can be divided into four basic approaches: (1) Cognition, meta-cognition and resource management strategy (Pokay & Blumenfeld, 1990); (2) Cognition, meta-cognition and motivation (Mayer, 1998); (3) Cognitive adjustment and volitional control (Pintrich & DeGroot, 1990); (4) Cognition, meta-cognition, motivation and behavior strategies (Lee & Shute, 2010).

Cognitive strategies are techniques that help the learner to implement internalization and complete complex tasks; they include techniques frequently used in learning such as summarizing, application, deduction, inspection, practice, organization and elaboration (Lee & Shute, 2010). Mega-cognitive strategies involve the learner being able to identify, monitor and evaluate the strengths and weaknesses of the cognitive processes that they have been employing; in other words, with meta-cognition the learner determines when, where, why and how to adopt appropriate strategies for solving problems (Hattie, Biggs, & Purdie, 1996). The techniques that can be used to enhance meta-cognitive strategies fall into four broad categories: (1) Knowing, and monitoring, what one is thinking; (2) Adjusting the nature of one's learning activities; (3) Reviewing those objectives that one has already achieved; (4) Evaluating how to achieve those goals that one has not yet realized (Cardell-Elawar, 1992).

In recent years, the outcomes of major international assessment programs have drawn more attention and become the change agent of education policy (Ritzen, 2013). The student background questionnaire of PISA, for instance, has given some attention to student learning strategies since the 2003 assessment, with learning strategies being divided into three basic concepts: Memory strategies, elaboration strategies, and control strategies (Table 2). Taking PISA 2003 which focused on mathematics for example, the learning strategy questions included in the background questionnaire asked respondents whether they make use of repeated practice to help them solve mathematics problems (Table 1). The present study employs data from the TASA database collected through TASA background questionnaire framework, and therefore focuses on the use of three types of cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies, involving *memory*, *control*, and *elaboration*. Students making use of memory strategy remember the learning content without processing the information further. Students using control strategy are aware of the key points of learning content or aware of whether they can catch up the points. Whereas, students who are able to elaboration means they applies the knowledge they learnt to other subjects or situations. Thus the three strategies are considered hierarchical with memory as the basic strategy.

2.2 Gender, Reading Habit and Learning Strategies

A gender difference in student learning outcomes was found in large-scale assessments such as PISA since the turn of the new century. With a focus on reading

Table 2 Questions Regarding Learning Strategies in PISA

Memory Strategies
Memory strategies refer to the memory of text and contents in all their details and repeated reading.
Items of the index of memory strategies
When I study, I try to memorize everything that is covered in the text.
When I study, I try to memorize as many details as possible.
When I study, I read the text so many times that I can recite it.
When I study, I read the text over and over again.
Control Strategies
Control strategies mean to formulate control questions about the purpose of a task or a text and its main concepts. It also means to self-supervised current study activities, particularly whether the reading material was understood.
Items of the index of Control Strategies
When I study, I start by figuring out what exactly I need to learn.
When I study, I check if I understand what I have read.
When I study, I try to figure out which concepts I still haven't really understood.
When I study ,I make sure that I remember the most important points in the text.
When I study and I don't understand something, I look for additional information to clarify this.
Elaboration Strategies
Elaboration Strategies refer to the transfer of new information to prior knowledge, out-of-school context and personal experiences.
Items of the index of Elaboration Strategies
When I study, I try to relate new information to prior knowledge acquired in other subject.
When I study, I figure out how the information might be useful outside school.
When I study, I try to understand the material better by relating it to my own experiences.
When I study, I figure out how the text information fits in with what happens in real life.

Souce: OECD (2010a)

proficiency, the results of PISA 2009 showed that girls outperform boys in reading in all participated countries, with an average advantage of 39 PISA score points (OECD, 2010a, 2010c). According to OECD, the difference is over half a proficiency level and roughly the equivalent of an average school year's progress. The results revealed the gender gap in reading performance of Taiwan (Chinese Taipei) students; girls outperform boys by an average of 37 score points (514 vs. 477) (OECD, 2010a). Although PISA does not measure causation, it suggests that most of the gender gap can be explained by boys being less engaged in reading than girls (OECD, 2010b). PISA 2009 reported that the gap "could be predicted to shrink by14 points if boy approached learning as positively as girls, and by over 20 points if they were as engaged as girls" (OECD, 2010b, p. 13).

In addition, PISA also revealed another gender disparity in students' preference in reading materials. Girls are found more likely than boys to read fiction and magazines, whilst more boys choose to read newspapers regularly. 27% of boys report that they are keen comic readers while only 18% of girls do so. In fact, a study conducted by Ku (2005) in Taiwan observed consistent findings. Ku examined 3rd to 6th grade primary school children's reading motivation and habits in the Southern region of Taiwan. She found that pupils averagely spend less than one hour per day on reading, and that the average frequency girls participated in literacy activities (such as outside reading, journal-writing, visiting libraries) is higher than the frequency of boys. In addition, girls tend to read more fiction and materials in Arts and Language, whereas boys prefer comics and materials about Science, Sports, and History, which are of less continuous texts and of more graphical abstract or tables.

As to the concern of gender differences in the utilizing of learning strategies, some researchers have addressed the issue along with the main findings. Lin (2007) explored the relationship between junior high school students' learning motivation with respect to mathematics, their learning strategies for mathematics, and their scholastic achievement in mathematics, and found a significant positive correlation between learning strategies and scholastic achievement in this subject ($r = 0.593$, $p < .01$, $N = 837$). This study also found no significant disparities between male and female students in terms of the learning strategies used for mathematics. Wei and Huang (2009) examined the relationship between the learning strategies and scholastic achievement of first-year university students. Their results showed a correlation between superior academic

performance and the adoption of superior learning strategies. They also found that female first-year university students made more effective use of learning strategies than their male counterparts, particularly in terms of attitude, motivation, time management, learning support techniques and overcoming challenges to learning.

Given a review of gender differences in reading and learning strategies, the concern that whether the TASA data indicate a similar result, that is, there are gender differences in reading habit and the use of learning strategies of Taiwanese secondary students, will be addressed in this study.

2.3 Reading Habit, Learning Strategies, and Student Achievement

There are several studies indicated the relationship between reading habit and students' literacy or academic achievement. A longitudinal study was conducted by Leppänen et al. (2005) to follow Finnish children from 1st to 2nd grade of primary school. Their study shows that children's reading habit, i.e., the amount of reading outside school, is highly correlated with their literacy performance and skills, including word recognition, word level analysis, and sentence comprehension. The study of Benevides and Peterson (2010) provides consistent result that avid readers have higher achievement in reading comprehension and writing. In addition, researchers have also found a link between reading competence and subject matter achievement. Low achievement in mathematics is found related to reading difficulties and disability (Jordan, Hanich, & Kaplan, 2003; Kulak, 1993). On the other hand, it is demonstrated that reading competencies can predict the outcome of natural science achievements (including physics, chemistry, biology, and practical work) (Bulcock, Clifton, & Beebe, 1978).

Empirical studies have also pointed out the existence of the relationship between learning strategies and academic performance. Pintrich and DeGroot (1990) found a positive correlation between the practice, elaboration and organization strategies used by 7th grade students and their performance in reading and natural science ($r = 0.20$, $p < .01$, $N = 173$). Wolters (1999) found that in the case of 9th grade and 10th grade students, there was a significant correlation between utilization of the practice strategy and scholastic performance ($r = 0.30$, $p < .01$, $N = 88$). A study by Eshel and Kohavi (2003) found a positive correlation between students' use of cognitive strategies involving organization and practice and their academic achievement ($r = 0.24$, $p < .01$, $N = 320$). In a recent study, Chou et al. (2011) also found a significant positive correlation between senior high school students' self-efficacy with respect to English, their English learning strategies, and their learning achievement with respect to English.

In the framework of PISA 2009, both reading engagement and learning strategies are included as predict variables of students' achievement. The PISA 2009 result showed that both reading engagement and learning strategies are predictors of the students' reading performance (OECD, 2010b). In addition to investigating the respective relationship between reading performance and the two variables, however, there was no further analysis done in the report that which factor can better predict student achievement or any relation between reading engagement and learning strategies.

Yet there are a few studies conducted to explore the relationship between reading habit and learning strategies. In their research in the impact of reading instructions on pupils' literacy engagement, Guthrie et al. (1996) found that there is a positive correlation between pupils' motivation in literacy engagement and their development in higher level learning strategies, such as understanding, interpreting, summarizing, and applying. They also found that those who engage inactively in reading have little or none development in learning strategies. In a study of investigating the possible effect of strategy instructions on university EFL students' reading strategy and reading comprehension, Salataci and Akyel (2002) found that during the process of enhancing reading strategies, reading engagement and strategies can influence each other. That is, exposure to reading enhances students' reading strategies, whilst their utilizing strategies improving their reading comprehension and therefore their active reading engagement. When examining French primary school children's knowledge of meta-cognitive learning strategies (such as monitoring or evaluating comprehension), Eme, Puustinen, and Coutelet (2006) found that those children who are aware and able to apply meta-cognitive strategies are highly confident in comprehension task and literacy acquisition.

Although studies have found that reading habit and learning strategies are both predictors of learning achievement or have effect on learning, there are relatively few researches in the relationship between the two variables and even among reading habit, strategies, and academic performance. Thus the present study aims to explore the possible link of the three aspects and whether reading habit and learning strategies have an impact on each other bi-directionally.

3 Method

Using the data collected through TASA 2010, this study explores the possible relationships among variables of secondary school students' gender, reading habit, learning strategies, and academic performance. Details of

the participants, measures, and analysis procedure are as follows.

3.1 Participants

The 8th grade student data for TASA 2010 was collected using two-stage random sampling. The first stage made use of stratified-cluster sampling, while the second stage used simple random sampling of the individual students at the schools selected in the first stage. To avoid causing students too much stress and exhaustion (because of the relatively long length of the tests), each individual student was tested in only two of the subjects applicable to their grade, for example Chinese and Mathematics, or Chinese and Natural Science, or Mathematics and Natural Science, etc. Based on the data for 8th grade students included in the TASA database, the number of students taking the TASA test in each of the five subjects can be determined to have been as shown in Table 3 below.

3.2 Measures

Three questions related to reading habit in 2010 TASA common questionnaires are selected, the outcomes of which are then compared with student achievement in five academic subjects. The first question asks students how often do they go to a library, surf a bookstore, or attend a book fair. The second question asks how much time do students usually spend on outside-reading after school during weekdays. The third question asks students how many books (textbook and reference book are not included) do students have. Therefore the constructs of measuring reading engagement and habit in this study are (1) Frequency of participating in reading activity; (2) Time spent on out-of-school reading; and (3) Exposure amount of outside reading resources.

The learning strategies related questions from the TASA 2010 student questionnaire that displayed similarity to the learning strategy related questions included in PISA 2009 were identified and collated. Memory strategy refers to the memory of text and contents in all their details and repeated reading. It is composed of 4 items and an example of question is "When I study, I try to memorize everything that is covered in the text. Control strategy mean to formulate control questions about the purpose of a task or a text and its main concepts. It also means to self-supervised current study activities, particularly whether the reading material was understood. It is composed of 5 items and an example of question is "When I study, I start by figuring out what exactly I need to learn." Elaboration Strategy refers to the transfer of new information to prior knowledge, out of school context and personal experiences. It is composed of 4 items and an example of question is "When I study, I try to relate new information to prior knowledge acquired in other subject."

By summing together the students' selected responses for each question and then dividing by the total number of questions, four scores can be obtained for each student for reading habit, memory strategy, control strategy and elaboration strategy respectively.

Table 3 No. of Participants Tested in Each Subject in TASA 2010

Subject	No. of participants
Chinese	8,658
Mathematics	8,034
Natural Science	8,289
Social	8,260
English	8,247

3.3 Procedure

The data used in this study comprises the TASA 2010 student questionnaire questions and the students' responses to these questions. For the student responses in TASA 2010, the three-parameter logistical item response theory model was used, with Bilog-MG software used to obtain measurements of students' academic performance (mean value = 250; standard deviation = 50) (TASA, 2014). With regard to questionnaire data reliability, Cronbach's Alpha was calculated as a means of examining the internal consistency. As regards validity, the structural equation model (SEM) was employed to verify the theoretical framework of learning strategy; the software used for this was Mplus 6.0. Finally, SPSS 17 was used to perform the regression analysis and T-test, to explore the relationship between a dependent variable (academic performance of each subject) and independent variables(reading habit and learning strategies), and whether there is any significant difference relating to different background variables.

4. Results and Discussion

4.1 Preliminary Analysis

The TASA 2010 background questionnaire for 8th grade students included 3 questions relating to reading habit and10 questions relating to learning strategies. The reliability index for the reading habit is 0.94, indicating a high degree of internal reliability within the reading habit questionnaires. The content validity for reading habit has been proofed by domain experts with extensive discussions.

Since the learning strategies related questions from the TASA 2010 are similar with the learning strategy related questions included in PISA 2009, the internal reliability and validity of the learning strategies for TASA 2010 were retested. The reliability index for the learning strategy is 0.88 and the sub-scale (memory, control, and elaboration) reliability index was 0.72 or higher in all cases. In general,

values reflected a high degree of internal reliability within the learning strategies questionnaires.

Taking the PISA2009 learning strategy theoretical framework as the foundation, confirmatory factor analysis is implemented with respect to the TASA 2010 learning strategy theoretical framework outlined in Figure 2. In the term of the model fit index, the present study followed PISA 2009 in using the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), the standardized root mean square residual (Standardized RMR), and the comparative fit index (CFI) (OECD, 2010a). All five subjects had a CFI value of .95 or higher, and in all cases the RMSEA and SRMRR values were lower than .05. For all five subjects, the factor loading is .4 or higher. The results of confirmatory factor analysis indicated that the learning strategy framework for all five subjects confirmed to the PISA learning strategy theoretical framework, and that the questionnaire used in the present study displays a high level of validity.

4.2 The Reading Habit Adopted by Male and Female 8th Grade Students

Table 4 showed the analysis of disparity in reading habit in terms of gender; the scores obtained by female students for the frequency of participating in reading activity ($t = –10.71$, $p <. 001$), for the time spent on out-of-school reading ($t = –10.69$, $p < .001$), and for exposure amount of outside reading resources were significantly higher than the corresponding scores for male students. For overall, female students outperformed male students in terms of reading habit ($t = –11.44$, $p < .001$).

The results indicated that the 8th grade female students are more engaged in reading in terms of participating literacy activities and spending time on reading after school, which echo the findings of Ku's (2005) study and the results of PISA since 2000 to 2009. What can not be further investigated in the present study is the gender disparity in students' preference of reading materials and

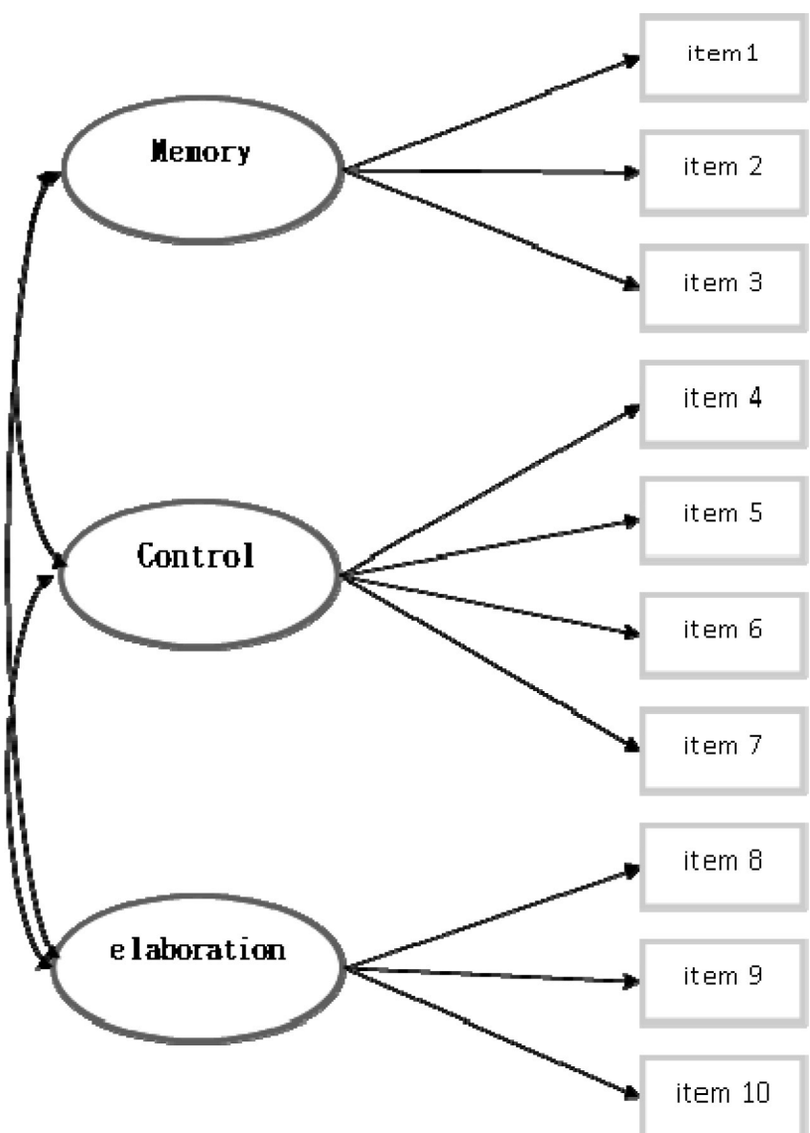

Figure 2 TASA 2010 Learning Strategy Theoretical Framework

Table 4 Results of Gender Difference in Reading Habit

Construct	Group	Number	Mean	S.D.	*T*-test
Frequency of participating in reading activity	Male	4,530	1.89	0.63	-10.71*
	Female	4,114	2.04	0.68	
Time spent on out-of-school reading	Male	4,481	2.31	1.11	-10.69*
	Female	4,083	2.57	1.13	
Amount of outside reading resources	Male	4,525	2.80	1.32	-5.05*
	Female	4,109	2.94	1.28	
Reading habit	Male	4,476	2.33	0.76	-11.44*
	Female	4,078	2.51	0.71	

Note: * represented $p < .001$.

types of reading, which is also found related to student academic performance. In addition, whether the gender gap in reading habit has been increased and reading engagement level among males has reduced, as reported in PISA, can be an interesting issue for further exploration by comparing released TASA data from 2008 to 2010.

4.3 The Learning Strategy Adopted by Male and Female 8th Grade Students

Table 5 showed the analysis of disparity in learning strategy in terms of gender. The data in Table 4 showed that the scores obtained by female students for the memory strategy ($t = –14.64$, $p < .001$) and for the control strategy ($t = –7.37$, $p < .001$) are significantly higher than the corresponding scores for male students, while for the elaboration strategy male students have a higher average score than female students, but not significantly.

The results indicated that 8th grade female students are better than male students in the same age group at using memory and control strategies for learning. This finding is not in conformity with the results obtained in Lin (2007), who found that there was no significant difference between the learning strategies used by male students and female students at junior high school level. One possible explanation for the difference in the studies' findings is that Lin defined learning strategies as including time management, information processing, reading comprehension, problem-solving, test-taking strategies and attitude to learning, which is a different definition from that used in the present study. A further possible explanation is that Lin's sample consisted mainly of students from junior high schools in New Taipei City (formerly Taipei County) in North Taiwan; the sample did not cover the whole of Taiwan, and so it is questionable how representative the sample was of students in Taiwan as a whole. The findings of the present study in relation to gender-based differences in learning strategy echo those of Wei and Huang (2009), who found that female first-year college students displayed more effective use of problem-solving as a learning strategy than male first-year college students; the definition of problem-solving as a learning strategy used by Wei and Huang was similar to the definition of the control strategy used in the present study. However, as the Wei and Huang study examined college students, the results cannot be compared directly with the present study's findings.

4.4 The Relationship among Learning Strategies and Reading Habit

Table 6 presented the correlations among reading habit and learning strategies with Pearson correlation coefficient. Table 5 indicated that the reading habit and memory strategy, control strategy, and elaboration strategy respectively were significant moderately correlated. This finding is consistent with the results obtained in Salataci and Akyel (2002). The study indicated that reading engagement and strategies can influence each other during the process of enhancing learning strategies. In other words, exposure to reading fosters students' reading strategies, whilst approaching reading with more strategies raise their motivation for engaging in reading. As the present study analyzed the data of large-scale database, the results can only reveal the positive correlation between reading habit and learning strategies. The process of how these two variables influence learning outcomes still needs to be investigated.

4.5 The Relationship among Reading Habit, Learning Strategies, and Learning Outcomes

The present study used step-wise regression analysis to explore the relationship among reading habit, the three types of learning strategy -- Memory, control and elaboration -- And academic performance in each subject. The study took reading habit, memory strategy, control strategy and elaboration strategy as the predictor variables, and the assessment scores for learning achievement in each subject as the dependent variable. The regression analysis results were shown in Table 6 and Table 7.

Table 5 Results of Gender Difference in Learning Strategy

Construct	Group	Number	Mean	S.D.	*T*-test
Memory	Male	4,490	2.24	0.78	-14.64*
	Female	4,094	2.48	0.75	
Control	Male	4,476	2.71	0.63	-7.37*
	Female	4,086	2.79	0.53	
Elaboration	Male	4,471	2.41	0.77	1.77
	Female	4,084	2.38	0.71	

Note: * represented $p < .001$

Table 6 Correlation for Reading Habit and Learning Strategies

	Memory	Control	Elaboration
Reading habit	0.34*	0.34*	0.34*

Note: * represented $p < .001$

In the case of Chinese (Table 7), the reading habit, memory strategy and control strategy proved to be most able to predict learning performance in Chinese, with R-square of .24, indicating that 24% of the variation in Chinese performance could be explained by the reading habit, memory strategy and control strategy. The standardized coefficient of the reading habit was higher than that of the memory and control strategies (at .25 for the reading habit, .21 for the memory strategy, and .20 for the control strategy respectively). It indicated that reading habit could effectively predict performance in Chinese. This result is consistent with the findings obtained in previous research such as Leppänen et al. (2005), Benevides et al. (2010), and PISA 2009 (OECD, 2010b), which all indicated that reading engagement is highly correlated with literacy competence.

With regard to Mathematics, the control strategy, reading habit, and memory strategy were best able to predict academic performance, with an R-square of .20, indicating that 20% of the variation in mathematics performance could be explained by the control strategy, reading habit, and memory strategy. The control strategy had the highest standardized coefficient (.23), suggesting that, in the case of mathematics, the better use students are able to make of the control strategy, the better their learning performance will be.

For Natural Science, the control strategy and memory strategy were best able to predict performance, with an R-square of .19, indicating that 19% of the variation in natural science performance could be explained by the control strategy and memory strategy. The control strategy had the highest standardized coefficient (.24), a similar result to that seen with mathematics.

In the case of Social, the reading habit, control strategy and memorization strategy were able to predict performance. However, with an R-square of .005, indicating that almost 0% of the variation in social science performance could be explained by these independent variables. It showed that the reading habit, control strategy and memorization strategy could not effectively predict performance in Social.

For English, the memorization strategy, reading habit and control strategy were best able to predict performance, with an R-square of .23, indicating that 23% of the variation in English performance could be explained by the memorization strategy, reading habit and control strategy. The standardized coefficient of the memorization strategy (.25) was higher than that of reading habit (.23) and the control strategy (.17) respectively, indicating that, in the case of English, the better use students are able to make of the memory strategy, the better their performance will be.

Overall, reading habit and learning strategy could explain around 19 ~ 24% of the variation in students' scholastic performance. The report of PISA 2009 indicated that 18% of the variation in Taiwanese students' reading performance could be explained by the control strategy (OECD, 2010a). In the present study, the memory strategy was found to be an effective predictor of performance for all four subjects; here again, this is in conformity with the findings of PISA 2009, according to which every increase of one unit score in the use of the memory strategy by Taiwanese students was accompanied by a 20.7 point improvement in reading performance (OECD, 2010a). As the scoring scales used in PISA and TASA are different, the regression model data from the two projects cannot be compared directly. Nevertheless, it does appear that both the results obtained in both PISA and TASA indicated that use of the memory strategy by Taiwanese students helps to improve their academic performance. The memory strategy and control strategy appeared to be more able to predict performance for arts and humanities subjects such as Chinese, and English, while for Science subjects such

Table 7 Results of Regression for Reading Habit and Learning Strategies on Academic Performance

subject	Independent variable	Standardized coefficient	R-square
Chinese	Reading habit	.25	.24
	Memory	.21	
	Control	.20	
	Elaboration	-0.04	
Mathematics	Control	.23	.20
	Reading habit	.17	
	Memory	.17	
Natural science	Control	.24	.19
	Memory	.19	
	Reading habit	.05	
	Elaboration	.05	
Social	Reading habit	.05	.005
	Elaboration	-.13	
	Memory	.09	
English	Memory	.25	.23
	Reading habit	.23	
	Control	.17	
	Elaboration	-.04	

as Mathematics and Natural Science, the control strategy is the best predictor of performance. The finding that the control strategy can function as an effective predictor of performance across all subjects is in conformity with the results of PISA 2009, which found that 18% of the variation in the reading performance of Taiwanese students could be explained by the control strategy, a figure surpassed only by South Korea (with 19%). The disparity between the performance of those Taiwanese students who made good use of the control strategy and those who made poor use of this strategy was 90 points (the average PISA score is 500 points, with standard variation of 100 points) (OECD, 2010a).

The results presented in Table 6 also show that reading habit is less able to predict the performance in Science and Social study, with both standardized coefficient of .05. By comparison, the standardized coefficients of reading habit for Chinese (.25), English (.20), and Mathematics (.17) indicate that reading habit is a stronger predictor of Language subjects and Mathematics. The result that reading habit is highly correlated with Language subject performance echoes previous research findings, nevertheless, observed inconsistently in the relation with Science and Math, which can be further explored.

The present study found that the elaboration strategy was not particularly effective as a predictor of academic performance; This result is not consistent with the results obtained in PISA 2009, which found that 10% of the variation in Taiwanese students' reading performance could be explained by the use of the elaboration strategy, a higher percentage than for any of the other countries assessed (OECD, 2010a). This disparity may be due to the fact that the TASA evaluation content focuses mainly on academic performance in individual subjects, whereas the elaboration strategy relates to students' ability to apply knowledge to different scenarios or subjects; this may make the elaboration strategy less effective as a predictor for TASA.

5 Conclusion

TASA constitutes an important database for gaining a better understanding of the academic performance of Taiwan's schoolchildren. The present study used the TASA 2010 database to examine reading habit and learning strategies utilization by 8th grade students in Taiwan, as well as the disparities in reading habit and learning strategy utilization between male and female students, and to analyze the relationship among reading habit, learning strategies and academic performance. On the basis of the results outlined above, the following conclusions are drawn, and a number of suggestions are put forward.

First, this study found that the 8th grade female students are more engagement in reading than male students. Girls participated in literacy activities more frequently and spend

more time on reading after school during weekdays (Boys spend 2.33 hr.; Girls, 2.51 hr.). The amount of exposing to outside reading resources is also higher than the boys. Therefore raising reading engagement level among Taiwan male students is becoming one of the main concerns for improving learning and academic performance.

Second, this study found that the 8th grade female students make better use of the memorization strategy and control strategy than 8th grade male students. The results obtained in the present study showed that, of the three types of learning strategy, girls had significantly better scores than boys in both the memorization strategy and control strategy. This result was found consistently across all five subjects: Chinese, mathematics, natural science, social studies and English, showing clearly that female 8th grade students in Taiwan make more effective use of the memorization strategy and control strategy than boys the same age.

Third, the results of this study revealed that there is a positive correlation exists between reading habit and the three types of learning strategy. This means reading and using strategies in learning may influence each other; with more exposure to reading students' awareness of learning strategies may be raised and therefore increase reading comprehension, which leads to higher motivation in reading engagement. As a consequence, it is suggested in this study that teachers could enhance students' knowledge in applying different learning strategies when teaching reading, and at the same time encourage students' regular reading engagement for enjoyment.

Finally, with step-wise regression analysis, this study explored the relationship among reading habit, the three types of learning strategy, and academic performance in 5 subjects. The result revealed that reading habit and learning strategies can explain 19 ~ 23% of the variation in learning achievement, except which in Social studies. The effect size of the results obtained in this study is higher than the results of PISA 2009. Overall, memory strategy can predict most effectively learning achievement, which shows that Taiwan students may still depend much on using memory in learning, or the questions of the assessment in TASA require memory strategy. When concerning learning filed, control strategy can predict Science and Math performance most effectively, and memory and reading habit are both strong predictors of learning achievements in Chinese and English. Notably, in contrast to the findings of PISA 2009, the results in this study revealed that higher level learning strategy (e.g., control and elaboration) can hardly predict the achievement of Taiwan students, which may mean that the 8th grade students have not develop the skills of or even awareness of those higher level strategies. Therefore it is a salient aspect that how students can develop their awareness and skills in applying different levels of learning strategies through their classroom learning. In addition, TASA should develop questions relevant to the use of learning strategies in the subject assessments to lead the teaching and learning in schools.

Given the summary and discussion of the results, this study proposes some suggestions in regard to teacher instruction, student learning and education policy. Due to the significant correlation between reading habit and academic achievement found in previous research as well as this study, the gender gap in reading habit is worth more attention of effective ways to increase male students' reading interest at school or at home. In addition to improving reading engagement level, the types of reading materials and contents should also be considered in facilitating students' learning in reading. The TASA survey should also include relevant questions concerning preference of reading materials other than the current ones on reading time amount and frequency, so that the teachers, parents and communities have ideas of how to help building students' reading habit.

To enhance the students' learning achievement by utilizing learning strategies, teachers should provide students guidance in identifying key points of learning content, methods of summarizing, or ways of tracing learning process, and offer the students the opportunity to solve problem and make their own learning (Cremin, Burnard, & Craft, 2006). In addition to learning guidance, students should also be provided with individual consultation regarding learning strategies, whilst teachers should be provided with training courses in effective teaching of learning strategies. Again, the questions in TASA assessments should reflect the learning trend and need of incorporating learning strategies into teaching and learning. For instance, the five subject assessments can involve r real-life context questions to know whether students can apply knowledge in problem-solving or in learning other subjects.

Each student may have different learning needs, which should be reflected through teaching, assessment, and learning resources (OECD, 2010c). This study examined the gender gap of reading habit and learning strategy utilization, and the relationships among reading habit, learning strategies, and academic achievement. The results provide teachers and parent a better understanding of Taiwan students' learning needs and their performance by comparing to the findings of international studies. The suggestions proposed in this study may also help school leaders and policy makers in Taiwan more aware of strategies for improving quality in teaching, learning resources and education policies.

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Management, Leadership and Change: Views from Rectors, Vice-Rectors and Academic Staff in Vietnamese Higher Education Institutions

Phuong Thi Mai Nguyen[1,], Linley Cornish[2], and Victor Minichiello[3,4]*
[1]Research Institute of Education Management, National Institute of Education Management
[2]School of Education, University of New England
[3]School of Health, University of New Enland
[4]School of Medicine and Public Health, University of Newcastle

Abstract

Recent changes in the Vietnamese Higher Education system have mandated more autonomy for institutions, thereby highlighting the importance of leaders and managers with suitable experience and expertise. Rectors/ Vice-Rectors and Academic staff in Vietnamese Higher Education institutions were surveyed to determine their satisfaction with leadership and management. Academic staff reported significantly lower mean ratings of satisfaction than Rectors/Vice-Rectors. Academic staff were also questioned about the value they place on autonomy and control over their working life. A large majority of Academic staff supported more autonomy and control over their working life. Results suggest a pressing need to augment leadership and managerial expertise at the institutional level in Vietnam, to develop skills in decision making and to move from reactive to proactive leadership. Change from an authoritarian hierarchical culture focused on management to a reciprocal culture focused on distributed leadership requires a cultural change in the way Higher Education institutions are managed and led in Vietnam.

Keywords: higher education, academic staff, management, leadership, reform, Vietnam

1 Leadership and Management in General and in the Higher Education Context in Particular

Over recent decades, leadership definitions and theories have become rather sophisticated. Some different researchers' conceptions of leadership and leaders include the following: the "centralization of effort in one person as an expression of the power of all" (Blackmar, 1911); "any person who is more than ordinarily efficient in carrying psychosocial stimuli to others and is thus effective in conditioning collective responses may be called a leader" (Bernard, 1928); "leadership is the imposition, maintenance, and direction of moral unity to our ends" (Phillips, 1939); "leadership implies influencing change in the conduct of people" (Nash, 1929); "leadership may be defined as the behaviour of an individual while Higher Education is involved in directing group activities" (Hemphill, 1949); "leadership is the management of men by persuasion and inspiration rather than by the direct or implied threat of coercion. It involves immediate concrete problems by applying knowledge of and sympathy with human factors" (Schenk, 1928); "leadership is the art of dealing with human nature" (Copeland, 1944). To synthesise, in the *Handbook of Leadership*, Stogdill (1974) categorised the definitions of leadership into eleven groups. The great variety of the above definitions confirms that leadership is not simple to define. Researchers use each definition to serve a purpose, providing critical insight into the nature of leadership or the process and structures in leadership maintenance.

Leadership theories can be divided into two general groups: Traits theory and behaviour theory. Traits theory focuses on a leader's attributes or traits, such as skills, personality, values while behaviour theory focuses on a leader's behaviours. Behaviours can be taught while traits cannot. Kouzes and Posner (2007) have conducted a survey over 25 years about what people look for and admire in leaders (updated in 2007). This research, carried out in eleven countries (Australia, Canada, Japan, Korea, Malaysia, Mexico, New Zealand, Singapore, Sweden, Denmark and US), documents cultures, gender, age group, ethnicities, organisational functions and hierarchies for over 75,000 people. They found the characteristics of admired leaders in order of priority as follows: Honest, forward-looking, inspiring, competent, intelligent, fair-minded, straightforward, broad-minded, supportive, dependable, cooperative, courageous, determined, caring, imaginative, mature, ambitious, loyal, self-controlled and independent. These characteristics include both traits (e.g., honest) and behaviours (e.g., competent), though the distinction is not always clear (e.g., cooperative).

* Corresponding Author: Dr. Phuong Thi Mai Nguyen (maiphuong43@yahoo.com)
Head of Finance and Education Management Division, Research Institute of Education Management
National Institute of Education Management

In a book that has sold over 15 million copies, Covey (2004, pp. 91-92) introduced seven habits of highly effective people as powerful lessons in personal change. He emphasised that "at the very heart of our circle of influence is our ability to make and keep commitments and promises. The commitment we make to ourselves and to others, and our integrity to those commitments is the essence and clearest manifestation of our proactivity." The idea of four keys of effective leadership from Bennis and Nanus (1985) has also attracted much attention. They consider four strategies for taking charge: Attention through vision, meaning through communication, trust through positioning and the development of self. They believe that "effective leadership can move organizations from current states, create visions of potential opportunities for organizations, instil within employees commitment to change and instil new cultures and strategies in organizations that mobilize and focus energy and resources" (Bennis & Nanus, 1985, p. 17).

Nevertheless, there is a continuing argument about the difference between management and leadership. Yukl (2006, p. 5) thinks that "it is obvious that a person can be a leader without being a manager, and a person can be a manager without leading." Many others also see leadership differing from management, such as "managers do things right. Leaders do the right thing" (Bennis & Nanus, 1985) or "leadership is about effectiveness. How well we do things. Management is about efficiency -- Making the best use of resources, least cost for best result" (Kouzes & Posner, 2007).

While arguments about leadership and the differences between leadership and management continue, Bennis and Nanus (1985, p. 5) make a very interesting comparison, that "Like love, leadership continued to be something everyone knew existed but nobody could define."

Each of the above approaches has its own interest and it seems that all of the characteristics are very important. However, the much more difficult task is how to integrate them in a way appropriate to leadership and management in a certain context, especially the Higher Education context. This integration of characteristics plays out in different styles of leadership and management. Of relevance to the higher education context is the "new architecture" (Gronn, 2002) of distributed leadership "in which activity bridges agency (the traits/behaviours of individual leaders) and structure (the systemic properties and role structures) in concertive action" (Jones, Lefoe, Harvey, & Ryland, 2012, p. 70), and where academic staff take on leadership and managerial roles in "a form of shared leadership that is underpinned by a more collective and inclusive philosophy than traditional leadership theory that focuses on skills, traits and behaviours of individual leaders" (Jones, Harvey, Lefoe, Ryland, & Schneider as cited in Jones et al., 2012). In the context of this study, this shared leadership is between academic staff and Rectors/Vice-Rectors in Vietnamese higher education institutions.

Exploration of the concept of "distributed leadership" has played out differently in different countries. In the US, it has been studied in the school sector (primary and secondary schooling); in the UK, the tertiary sector has been included; and in Australia the focus has been on secondary and tertiary education (Jones et al., 2012, p. 70). In Europe, "autonomization", that is, giving higher education institutions more autonomy, has been "part and parcel of the wider debates about shifts from government control" and "the question of the autonomy and control of the university is of significant scholarly and policy interest" (Enders, de Boer, & Weyer, 2013, p. 6). Globally, then, higher education institutions have been subject to change and development in terms of autonomy in leadership and management.

The Higher Education context is rather complicated and differs from other contexts by its academia culture and academic freedom. As a result, the academic leader as well as manager needs specific capacities to maintain quality, to respond to the range of expectations and needs of students as well as the institution. There is an added challenge for academic leaders and managers because all academics are considered to be academic leaders as they are assumed to be at the forefront of their discipline, and active in the definition of future directions and strategies within their academic programs and research as suggested by Trowler (1998) and Taylor (1999). As an academic leader and manager, they lead and manage the institution along with protecting academic freedom and academic autonomy. However, when "universities have also become increasingly business and customer-oriented," there is a corresponding "transition from collegial decision-making to a kind of corporate management" (Denman, 2005), a structure that conflicts with "a deep-seated desire" by academic staff for "collegiality, consultation and academic freedom" (Bolden, Petrov, & Gosling, 2009, p. 257).

2 Leadership and Management in Vietnamese Higher Education Institutions at a Glance

The current Vietnamese schooling system has four levels: pre-primary, primary, lower secondary and upper secondary. After primary or lower secondary, students can move to technical-vocational education and training. Students who pass a secondary school leaving exam can take part in another entrance exam to colleges and university. Both provincial governments and the Ministry of Education and Training have established colleges. These colleges have an average size of 1,500 students and

tend to be specialised training institutions or provincial teacher training colleges. Universities are larger than colleges in scale and have a multi-disciplinary focus. The Prime Minister, Dung (2013), reserves the right to sign in decisions to establish all universities. The number of universities and colleges is 376 including both public and non-public types with 70,558 academic staff (MOET, 2011a). These Higher Education institutions are allocated from the North to the Middle and the South of Vietnam. Particular ministry or provincial governments are in charge of managing public universities. The Ministry of Education and Training is in charge of controlling almost every aspect of a higher education institution including content of curriculum, enrolment, finance as well as appointing senior university personnel. This rigidity of management makes it difficult for institutions to react to the needs of the society. Hence, a major concern of higher education institutions is legal autonomy in operations. While the office of the Rectors is respected and identified as a strong power, Rectors actually do not have a significant effect on decision making about academic standards and curriculum.

Responding in 2005 to the urgent need for radical reform of leadership and management of higher education institutions, the Government promulgated the Higher Education Reform Agenda (HERA) which it is expected will "carry out fundamental change and comprehensive reform of HE; undertake a process of profound renewal in the area of the quantity, quality and effectiveness in order to meet all the demands of industrialization, modernization, global economic integration and society's demand for learning opportunities" (Higher Education Reform Agenda [HERA], 2005). One of the main elements of HERA is to have "the comprehensive reform of governance and managements, with line-ministry control of public higher education institutions to be replaced by a system of governance within these institutions having legal autonomy and greater rights in relation to their training programmes, research agendas, human resource management practices and budget plans" (HERA, 2005). The reform is another step in moving from a centralised to decentralised framework in the higher education system. Within the process, there is a need for clarification of what authority and decision-making processes belong to higher education institutions and what will be carried out by Ministry of Education and Training. This reform is expected to bring more autonomy for higher education institutions so that they can operate more responsibly and effectively.

There was little change in the leadership and management of higher education institutions after the HERA. More recently, the Higher Education Law (MOET, 2011b) was posted on the official website of the Ministry of Education and Training on 18 March 2011 to ask for comments and contributions from people. The Higher Education Law is expected to bring more autonomy for universities.

3 Aim of the Study

In the context of reforming leadership and management in Vietnamese Higher Education, it is very important to understand the current level of satisfaction in these institutions. Do Rectors and Vice-Rectors already feel they are able to exercise leadership rather than merely act in a managerial role? In other words, are the Rectors and Vice-Rectors satisfied with the leadership and management of higher education institutions? Are their views supported by the Academic staff who work in their institutions? What conceptions of leadership and management are most appropriate for Vietnamese leaders and managers of Higher Education institutions?

The aim of this study was to assess the current levels of satisfaction with leadership and management in Vietnamese higher education institutions. Accordingly, the following two questions were investigated:

(1) To what extent are Rectors and Vice-Rectors satisfied with leadership and management in higher education institutions?
(2) To what extent are Academic staff satisfied with leadership and management in higher education institutions?

Perceptions of "autonomy" are likely to be related to assessments of satisfaction with leadership and management. Rectors and Vice-Rectors are likely to consider autonomy from centralised control as an important factor in their levels of satisfaction, while Academic staff are likely to also consider autonomy in relation to their daily working lives. The following question was therefore also asked in an attempt to ascertain the importance to Academic staff of such autonomy:

(3) How much do Academic staff value autonomy and control over their working life?

When levels of satisfaction current at the time of the Higher Education Law are established, as well as the views of Academic staff about autonomy and control being devolved, then future research can propose a framework for training courses to enhance the leadership and management capacity for Rectors and Vice-Rectors of Vietnamese Higher Institutions so that they can meet the requirements of the reform agenda. A fourth question, then, which was not investigated but which will be discussed as a result of the findings, is:

(4) What are the implications for reform of leadership and management in Vietnamese higher education institutions?

4 Methods and Data Collection

Two surveys containing multiple items were carried out in Vietnamese Higher Education institutions to investigate how satisfied Rectors, Vice-Rectors and Academic staff are with leadership and management in their institutions. Questionnaires were used to obtain the responses of a purposive sample of this population. Items were labelled with a five-point Likert scale, from 1, "not satisfied" or "don't value at all" to 5 "very satisfied" or "value highly."

The two main methods of sampling are probability and non-probability sampling (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007; Palys, 2008). Purposive sampling (also known as a non-probability sample) was chosen for this study since it was suitable with the time scales and constraints on the research. As mentioned above, by the time the survey was carried out in Vietnam, there were 376 universities and colleges (both public and non-public types) with 70,558 Academic staff (MOET, 2011a), spreading out from the North, the Middle to the South of Vietnam. It was impossible to employ a probability sampling strategy that would have resulted in a very big sample size out of the large population of universities and colleges as well as Academic staff in Vietnam in 2010. Hence, three universities and three colleges were chosen with the agreement and support of relevant Rectors. These universities and colleges are located in the North, the Middle and the South of Vietnam. Questionnaires were distributed to 240 Academic staff of these six Higher Education institutions. The response rate for this survey was very high: 98% ($N = 235$).

In addition, two hundred Rectors and Vice-Rectors throughout Vietnam (and including the institutions mentioned above) were sent a questionnaire to canvas their satisfaction with management and leadership in their institution. The response rate for this survey was also high: 82% ($N = 164$).

The findings are reported with a 95 per cent confidence interval.

5 Analyses and Findings

Data were entered into SPSS v17.0 and descriptive analyses were carried out with two data sets from (1) Academic staff and (2) Rectors and Vice-Rectors, to explore to what extent Academic staff and Rectors and Vice-Rectors are satisfied with leadership and management in their Higher Education Institutions. Most of the Rectors/ Vice-Rectors were male (76.7%), with only 23.3% being female. More than three quarters of Rectors and Vice-Rectors (81%) worked in public HE institutions and the rest worked in non-public institutions. The majority of them (78.2%) had more than 10 years of experience working in the HE sector. The experience of Rectors and Vice-Rectors in their current position was: More than 5 years, 43.8%; from 2 years to 5 years, 34.6%; and less than two years, 21.6%.

Almost three fifths (57.7%) of the 240 academic staff targeted for the survey were male and 42.3% were female. The majority of these academic staff (81.4%) were lecturers, with 9.3% assistant lecturers, 8.4% senior lecturers, and 0.9% professors. The survey identified academic staff with varied teaching experience in HE, from less than 1 year (15.9%), 1 to 3 years (30.3%), between 3 and 6 years (27.3%), between 6 and 10 years (15%), and more than 10 years (11.5%). Thus about half the academic staff (53.8%) had more than 3 years' experience in their academic roles.

More than half of the respondents (54.8%) held a bachelor's degree, 41.2% held a master's degree and 0.9% of academic staff held some other degree. A very small percentage held a PhD qualification (3.1%). The majority of academic staff (87.9%) was trained in Vietnamese universities. Only 12.1% of academic staff had taken at least one qualification overseas.

The percentages of Academic staff who were *not satisfied* with leadership and management of the institution (responding at the two lowest levels, 1 and 2) were 4.8 and 10.9, that is, a total of 15.7% indicated they were not satisfied with leadership and management. In comparison, responses at these levels by Rectors and Vice-Rectors were around half the size (2.5% and 3.7%, that is, a total of 6.2%). A similar pattern of difference was found for *satisfaction* with leadership and management, with Rectors/Vice-rectors almost three times as likely as Academic staff to be very satisfied (23.9% compared with 8.7%). These comparisons are shown in Figures 1 and 2.

A merge file was created from two data sets from the two surveys. Then, a one-way analysis of variance was conducted with Academic staff and Rectors and Vice-Rectors as the independent variables and satisfaction with leadership and management of the institution as the dependent variable. The output tables from SPSS are reproduced as Tables 1, 2 and 3. Table 2 shows that Levene's test was not significant, $F(1, 391) = 3.1$, $p = .08$, so the homogeneity of variances was judged not to have been violated. Thus the analysis was able to proceed with confidence. The results are shown in Table 3, where it can be seen that the between-groups analysis of variance was significant. Table 1 also displays the significant difference between the results for Academic staff and Rectors/ Vice-Rectors, with Academic staff ($M = 3.37$, $SD = .96$) displaying significantly lower mean ratings of satisfaction with leadership and management in the institution than

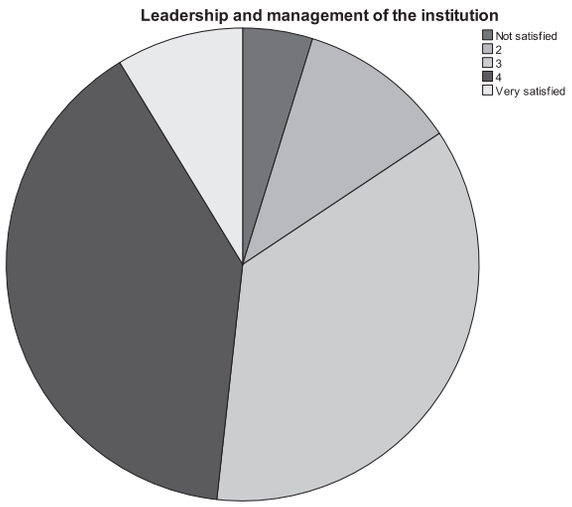

Figure 1 Leadership and Management of the Institution from the View of Academic Staff

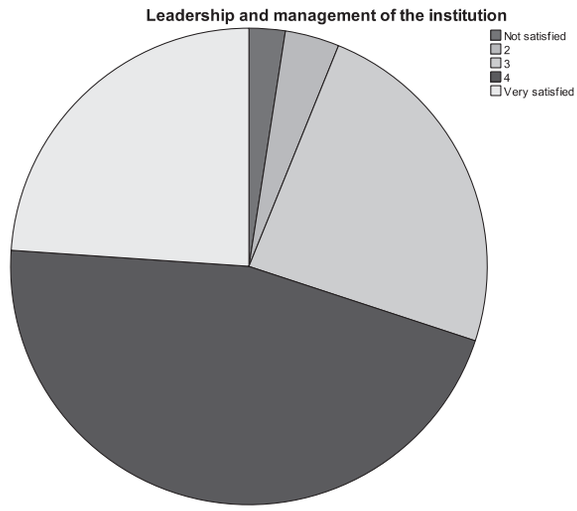

Figure 2 Leadership and Management of the Institution from the View of Rectors and Vice-Rectors

Table 1 Descriptive Analysis of Satisfaction with Leadership and Management

	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Academic staff	230	3.3652	.95607	.06304	3.2410	3.4894	1.00	5.00
Rector/Vice-rector	163	3.8528	.91106	.07136	3.7118	3.9937	1.00	5.00
Total	393	3.5674	.96688	.04877	3.4715	3.6633	1.00	5.00

Table 2 Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Significance
3.110	1	391	.079

Table 3 Analysis of Variance between Academic Staff and Rectors/Vice-rectors

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	*F*	Sig.
Between Groups	22.675	1	22.675	25.789	.000
Within Groups	343.788	391	.879		
Total	366.463	392			

Rectors and Vice-Rectors ($M = 3.85$, $SD = .91$, $F = 25.79$, $p < .05$).

Academic staff were also asked how they value autonomy and control over their working life. It can be seen in Figure 3 that "autonomy and control over working life" was highly valued by Academic staff with 30.6 per cent responding with a score of 5 and 51.3 per cent with 4. In other words, 81.9% valued autonomy and control over working life either highly or very highly.

6 Discussion

The results from these surveys suggest that there is a big difference in satisfaction with leadership and management in Higher Education institutions between Academic staff on the one hand and Rectors/Vice-Rectors on the other. Perhaps it is not surprising that Rectors/ Vice-Rectors and Academic staff might have different perceptions -- Or be prepared to admit to different perceptions -- About leadership and management in Vietnamese higher education institutions. Dissatisfaction amongst academics and resentment related to lack of

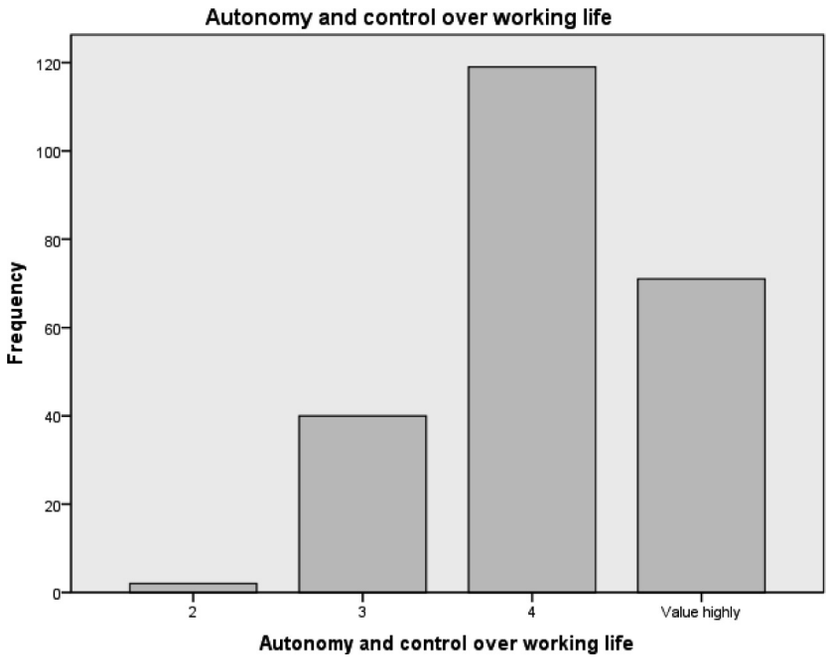

Figure 3 Academic Staff Value Autonomy and Control over Working Life

autonomy is, after all, not confined to Vietnam (Jones et al., 2012) but reasons for such dissatisfaction will reflect the contextual details of a country and its higher education institutions. The more interesting question in Vietnam, therefore, is what might explain this big difference between the two groups.

Leadership and management in Vietnamese Higher Education are characterised by high levels of centralisation with significant power from the Ministries wielded over the whole sector. Many important factors such as curriculum, enrolment, staff recruitment and assessment, budget decisions, infrastructure and facility maintenance are determined by the Ministries (Hayden, 2005; Ngo, 2006). When the autonomy in decision making of Rectors/Vice-Rectors in these Higher Institutions is relatively limited, it is hard for them to satisfy Academic staff as leaders and managers.

While Rectors and Vice-Rectors were more satisfied than the Academic staff with this situation of relatively little autonomy in their roles of leadership and management, it should be remembered that only 23.9% of them were "very satisfied." This finding does indicate some willingness to be critical of their roles and/or their abilities as leaders and managers. If they are truly concerned with the views of the staff they lead and manage, and if three quarters of them are not prepared to endorse their leadership and management at the highest level, then a responsibility to update and change their leadership and management styles is indicated.

There is also an urgent requirement for change from higher levels of management, that is, the government and Ministry of Education and Training. The Vietnamese Higher Education system is currently experiencing major reforms and developments in term of curricula, physical infrastructure, teaching methods, academic staff qualifications and quality of governance. The Directive on innovating higher education management (Dung, 2010, p. 1) also emphasises that the "State management mechanism towards higher educational system and the management of universities and colleges remains persistently inadequate, impossible to create sufficient driving force to bring into full play creativity and self-responsibility of the lecturers, managers and students to renovate higher education strongly and basically." Though the Higher Education sector has changed rapidly in the last few decades, it is still under the shadow of the Soviet model since "the Socialist Republic of Vietnam enshrines in its constitution the supremacy of the Communist Party and the ideals of Marxism-Leninism, as well as the thoughts of Ho Chi Minh" (Hayden & Thiep, 2007, p. 73).

Hence the change, at all institutional, ministerial and governmental levels, will take time and require the brave to accept the new challenges and to give up the old comforts. As reported in the early part of this paper, "effective leadership can move organizations from current states, create visions of potential opportunities for organizations, instil within employees commitment to change and instil new cultures and strategies in organizations that mobilize and focus energy and resources" (Bennis & Nanus, 1985, p. 17). This type of leadership is necessary if higher education institutions in Vietnam are to be reformed. The need for new approaches to leadership in higher education is not confined, of course, to Vietnam. Universities everywhere

"face the dual challenges of competing in a globally competitive world while at the same time designing opportunities to build and develop sustainable leadership" (Jones et al., 2012, p. 67).

Academic staff in this study responded that they highly valued autonomy and control over their working life. Autonomy "refers to both the actor's self (having ability or capacity) and the actor's relationship to its environment (independence or freedom from external control" (Enders et al., 2013, p. 7), that is, the concept consists of a dualism of agency and structure (Woods & Gronn, 2009). The finding that academic staff value autonomy supports the direction that policy makers are following now with the Higher Education Reform Agenda. Among the many objectives of this agenda, of interest are objectives related to renewal of management. If the objectives of conferring legal autonomy on the Higher Education System are successful, "giving them the right to decide and be responsible for training, research, human resource management and budget planning" and "eliminate line-ministry control to develop a mechanism for having state ownership represented within public Higher Education Institutions," then the Higher Education institutions will have more autonomy in leading and managing themselves. The institutional autonomy can vary in form but it is manifested substantively by "the power of the university or college in its corporate form to determine its own goals and programs" as well as "the power of the university or college in its corporate form to determine the means by which its own goals and programs will be pursued" (Berdahl, 1990, p. 172).

If the Government and Ministry of Education and Training are successful in transferring autonomy to Higher Education institutions, it will be necessary to develop leadership and managerial expertise at the institutional level. Development of such expertise is another challenge for the Higher Education sector in Vietnam since many Rectors and Vice-Rectors were promoted from the ranks of lecturers. However, good lecturers do not always mean good leaders, and good leaders and managers are one of the conditions for achieving institutional autonomy. In the UK, higher education leadership emerged as a discipline in its own right in the 1960s and 1970s, with the development of national programs and degrees. There was a recognition that leaders of higher education institutions had to be given in-service training to become efficient and effective as professional leaders as well as institutional managers (Brundrett & Crawford, 2008). The same training will be required in Vietnam. Hence, building capacity for leaders and managers as decision makers is another urgent need for a sector with decentralised autonomy.

Such development of leadership capacity implies a move from reactive to proactive leadership. Regardless of the theory and terminology used to explain it, leadership has always been intimately linked to the effective functioning of complex organisations (Marzano, Waters, & McNulty, 2005). In terms of the definitions of leaders and managers discussed earlier, reactive leadership can be seen as management -- Efficient implementation of the systems and products of the governing authorities. Proactive leadership, on the other hand, suggests a change from management to genuine leadership in developing autonomous and effective systems and products suitable for and acceptable to the particular institution.

Another way of looking at such a change is as a move from a hierarchical culture to a reciprocal one (Lambert, 2003), which fits within notions of "distributed leadership" as "a process dispersed across the organization (within systems, activities, practices and relationships" (Bolden et al., 2009, p. 258). Introducing "relationships" into the examination of leadership style adds another element to the list of traits required by effective leaders, that of "emotional intelligence" (Goleman, 1995). Goleman, Boyatzis, and McKee (2002) claim that relationship skills have nearly three times the impact on organisational performance as analytical skills do.

Reciprocal leadership also suggests a role for the Academic staff in decision making in their institutions. Such a move to include Academics in the move towards a more autonomous institution would certainly support the desires of the Academic staff in this study. The high response rate to the surveys, the low satisfaction (8.7%) with current leadership and management, and the high support (81.9%) for autonomy and control over their working lives suggest that changes to leadership style to include the wishes of Academic staff are certainly needed in Vietnamese higher education institutions.

Working out and implementing such changes will require much time, effort, and evolution, as well as adaptation in individual circumstances to suit the context of a particular higher education institution. There is unlikely to be a "one size fits all" solution to change. In the UK, "effective leadership for higher education has been unable to identify a single successful approach" (Jones et al., 2012, p. 68). In general, however, the five dimensions of successful distributed leadership confirmed by UK research -- Context, culture, change, relationships, and activity (Jones et al., 2012, p. 71) -- Need to be incorporated in the approach. Instructional leaders (Smith & Andrews, 1989) need to be resource providers (materials, infrastructure, budget) as well as good communicators who are visible and accessible. The goals of the institution need to be clearly articulated and mutually acceptable to everyone in the institution. Even this one aim requires much discussion and the involvement of both Academic staff and Rectors/

Vice-Rectors as the translation occurs from "autonomy" as a concept into reality in the working life of the institution and its members. How far and how quickly the concept of leadership can progress from authoritarian to "distributed" (Spillane, Halverson, & Diamond, 2001) and shared and, more specifically, how "distributed leadership" can progress from rhetoric to genuine shaping of perceptions of identity, participation and influence (Bolden et al., 2009) are questions for the future.

7 Conclusion

Management and leadership in Vietnamese higher education institutions are in a state of flux. The change from management institutions implementing centralised government control of the content of curriculum, enrolment, finance and appointment of senior university personnel to more autonomous leadership institutions with localised control over such decisions will take time, training and adaptation to cultural change. The Higher Education Reform Agenda of 2005 set the scene for comprehensive reform in the leadership and management of institutions. In turn, the Higher Education Law 2011 has mandated more autonomy for universities. The necessity to develop leadership and managerial expertise at the institutional level is therefore paramount if such changes are to be successful.

It is very hard to find in Vietnamese literature surveys with Rectors, Vice-Rectors and Academic staff about their attitudes towards management and leadership. Therefore this study serves as an effort to generate better understanding of the attitudes of Rectors, Vice-Rectors and Academic staff in relation to management and leadership in Vietnamese Higher Education Institutions.

This area will need future research to investigate the leadership and management style that Academic staff expect to have in their institutions. Research carried out in Australia among school leaders (Mulford et al., 2008, p. 63) identified four "TESS" factors to be necessary for change from a hierarchical, authoritarian culture to a reciprocal culture: Trust and respect, Empowerment, Shared and monitored vision, and Supported experimentation. Questions for the future thus include: What will the TESS factors look like in Vietnamese higher education institutions? To what extent will different models be appropriate for different institutions, which have their own "contexts, situations, environments and contingencies" (Jones et al., 2012, p. 68)? What models of leadership and management will most inspire Academic staff in Vietnam and promote their capacities?

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Personal Best Goal and Self-Regulation as Predictors of Mathematics Achievement: A Multilevel Structural Equation Model

Magdalena Mo Ching Mok[1,], Michael Ying Wah Wong[2], Michael Ronald Su[2], Jim Tognolini[3], and Gordon Stanley[4]*
[1]*Assessment Research Centre, and Department of Psychological Studies, The Hong Kong Institute of Education*
[2]*Assessment Research Centre, The Hong Kong Institute of Education*
[3]*Pearson plc, Pearson International*
[4]*Faculty of Education and Social Work, University of Sydney*

Abstract

This study aimed to identify personal best goal and self-regulation as predictors of mathematics achievement for primary students. The sample comprised 3,821 (2,021 males and 1,800 females) students between Grades 3 to Grade 5 at 26 primary schools in Hong Kong. Students' personal best goals and self-regulation were used to predict their mathematics achievement six months later. Multilevel structural equation models were fitted to the data using the MPLUS software. Results showed that after controlling for student gender and grade level, students' personal best goal predicted their subsequent mathematics achievement. In contrast, self-regulation had no direct effect on students' mathematics achievement. Self-regulation affected mathematics achievement only indirectly via students' personal best goals.

Keywords: learning goals, self-regulation, mathematics achievement, primary

1 Introduction

Academic achievement at primary years has significant implications for subsequent learning and learning opportunities of students. The identification of predictors of academic achievement of primary students, particularly those that can be changed through intervention programmes, is naturally of interest to educators. To this aim, recent research has drawn attention to the importance of learning goal orientation (Ames, 1984; Ames & Archer, 1988; Martin & Liem, 2010; Pintrich, 2000; Wolters, Yu, & Pintrich, 1996), and of self-regulated learning (Bjork, Dunlosky, & Kornell, 2013; Graham, Harris, & Mason, 2005; Kosnin, 2007; Paris & Paris, 2001; Zimmerman, 2002). This study examined goal orientation, in particular students' personal best goal (Martin, 2006; Martin & Liem, 2010), and self-regulation as possible predictors of academic achievement of primary students.

1.1 Personal Best Goal

The notion of personal best goal refers to one's attempt to out-compete or match his/her previous best standard of performance (Martin, 2006; Martin & Liem, 2010). In essence, it denotes a goal in which one views his/her previous best as a self-referenced yardstick for improving or, at the very least, upholding the standard of performance that deemed attainable. This concept originated from sports science research (Hopkins & Green, 1995; Imlay, Carda, Stanbrough, & Dreiling, 1995; Oishi, Kimura, Yasukawa, Yoneda, & Maeshima, 1994) and was only recently introduced to the education domain by Martin (2006).

In the field of education, personal best goal has been argued to be conducive to students' long-term academic growth (Martin, 2006; Martin & Liem, 2010). It has been stressed that such orientation allows self-paced progress and safeguards students from the detrimental effects of social comparisons (Liem, Ginns, Martin, Stone, & Herrett, 2012; Martin, 2006). Whist attention is on mastery, comparisons still take place in personal best goal but are shifted from an interpersonal to an intrapersonal level. Previous research on goals orientation focused predominantly on the dichotomy between mastery-goal orientation (Dweck, 1986; Nicholls, 1984) and performance-goal orientation (Harackiewicz, Barron, & Elliot, 1998; Harackiewicz & Elliot, 1993). In this regard, personal best goal serves as a constructive intermediary between the two by emphasizing on both self-improvement and comparison (Martin, 2006; Martin & Liem, 2010).

In the conceptualisation of personal best goals, it is important to distinguish it from the concept of mastery goals since they do share common denotations and can be easily confused. Herein we examine commonalities and differences between the two conceptions. An individual is said to adopt mastery goals if she/he engages in achievement behavior with the purpose to develop competence in the task rather than to demonstrate her/his competence (Elliot, 2006, p. 632). Elliot (2006) identified two different connotations of "purpose" in mastery goals,

* Corresponding Author: Dr. Magdalena Mo Ching Mok (mmcmok@ied.edu.hk)
Chair Professor, Department of Psychological Studies and Centre Co-Director, Assessment Research Centre
The Hong Kong Institute of Education

namely, the *reason* for doing a task, and the intended *aim* of engagement in the task. Both mastery and personal best goals refer to the latter connotation, i.e., the desired aim, of achievement behavior. Later, Elliot, Murayama, and Pekrun (2011) further elaborated that three standards, namely, *task*, *self*, and *other*, could be used as referent to decide if one has achieved well. Mastery goals can be either self-based or task-based in judging attainments (Elliot et al., p. 633). Individuals holding self-based goals "use one's own intrapersonal trajectory as the evaluative referent," whereas those holding task-based goals "use the absolute demands of the task as the evaluative referent (Elliot et al., p. 633)," and Elliot et al. (2011) argued for the separation of these two goal constructs. In contrast, personal best goals use self as the only standard for evaluation. Importantly, people holding personal best goals, as opposed to those having mastery goals, aim to go beyond mastery. That is, the aim of engaging in achievement behaviour is to attain improvement beyond what had already been achieved at this moment by the self (Martin, 2006; Martin & Liem, 2010). Whereas individuals holding mastery goals ask themselves, "have I learned this? Do I really understanding this?" In the learning process, people holding personal best goals ask themselves, "how can I have breakthroughs in my learning? How can I do better the next time?" In summary then, mastery goals and personal best goals are two distinct concepts, both ground on self as referent for standards. Students who are mastery-oriented tend to compare their current (mastery) and previous (non-mastery) levels of attainment. Students who are personal best-oriented tend to compare their current (mastery or not-yet-mastery) and future (improved) levels of attainment.

The conception of personal best goal was found to be consistent between genders and across grade levels, as demonstrated by the invariance across gender and grade levels of factor structures of items constructed to measure the construct (Martin, 2006). Gender differences were reported (Martin, 2006), favouring females, in personal best goals. In addition, research found that personal best goal predicted educational aspirations, positive attitudes toward school life, participation in class, and persistence, all of which were in turn predictors of school achievement found in previous studies (Martin, 2006; Martin & Lien, 2010).

Personal best goal is underpinned by the learning goal that the learner sets for himself/herself. It is hypothesized that personal best goal is most likely to be adopted when certain types of learning goals have been set (Martin, 2006). First, these goals are clear and specific to the learning task or situation. Such clarity and specificity do not apply only to the formulation of the goals but also to the ways in which they can be actualized and assessed. Second, these goals are challenging enough but yet achievable. Note that the extent to which the goals are challenging is highly subjective and individualized, determined solely by the students who set them. Third, these goals are set with reference to one's previous best performance. In this sense, the students with such goals are not competing with the performance of others but that of themselves. Last, the purpose of these goals is to bring about self-improvement. This improvement is brought about by students' attempt to perform better than before or at their very best. Taken together, these four dimensions are considered the cornerstones for personal best goal (Martin, 2006).

For the current study, only the dimension on self-improvement goals of personal best was looked into. The recent educational policies in Hong Kong emphasize on self-initiated improvement and development both at the school (Education Bureau, 2013) and student level (Education and Manpower Bureau, 2005). At the student level, self-improvement is closely related to the notion of self-regulated learning which will be discussed in the next section. It has been demonstrated that personal best goal predicts academic engagement and achievement better than when academic engagement and achievement are used to predict personal best orientation (Martin & Liem, 2010). This substantiates the beneficial effect of personal best on academic achievement.

1.2 Self-Regulated Learning

Self-regulated learning has been an extensively-researched topic in the area of learning and teaching for the past two decades (Bjork et al., 2013; Graham et al., 2005; Paris & Paris, 2001; Pintrich & De Groot, 1990; Zimmerman, 1986, 2000, 2002; Zimmerman & Martinez-Pons, 1988). According to Boekaerts and Corno (2005), although there is no single definition of self-regulated learning used by all researchers because different researchers highlighted different aspects of self-regulation, it is commonly agreed that self-regulated learning refers to the learning process in which the learner is proactively involved in the thoughts, feeling, and action of learning (Pintrich & Zusho, 2002; Zimmerman, 1989, 2002). Specifically, self-regulated learning underscores one's decision of planning, monitoring, adjusting, and controlling actions towards the learning goals through conscious and autonomous means (Paris & Paris, 2001; Zimmerman, 2000, 2002). Building on this definition, various models and frameworks have been proposed to conceptualize self-regulated learning including Boekaerts' (1992) adaptable learning model, Borkowski's (1996) metacognition model, Pintrich's (2000) general framework, Winne and Hadwin's (1998) four-stage model and Zimmerman's (2000) social cognitive model. These models are instrumental in guiding and promoting self-regulated learning in different pedagogical contexts and for different educational purposes.

From a theoretical perspective, the ability to self-regulate is a characteristic that by its very nature enhances the quality of learning. Self-regulation is essentially a combination of self-awareness, self-motivation, self-discipline, self-reflection, and self-control (Zimmerman, 2002). As such, self-regulated learners are thus aware of their strengths and weaknesses, motivated and disciplined to improve, and are cognizant of the learning outcomes.

Empirically, self-regulated learning has been shown to have positive correlations with academic performance (Kosnin, 2007; Law, Chan, & Sachs, 2008; Van Den Hurk, 2006) and that high-achievers are more likely to adopt self-regulated learning strategies than low achievers (Pintrich & De Groot, 1990). Substantial research evidence has indicated the centrality of self-regulated learning on achievement (Bong, 2001; Paris & Paris, 2007; Schneider & Artelt, 2010; Schunk & Zimmerman, 2007). Of particular note is the positive impact of self-regulation on students' mathematics achievement (Camahalam, 2006; Desoete, 2008; Desoete, Roeyers, & De Clercq, 2003; Dignath, Buettner, & Langfeldt, 2008; Fuchs et al., 2003; Labuhn, Zimmerman, & Hasselhorn, 2010; Ross, Hogaboam-Gray, & Rolheiser, 2002).

Given that self-regulated learning is not considered a fixed cognitive skill, it is believed that students' academic achievement can be improved through intervention programs which train students to be self-regulated learners (Bjork et al., 2013; Graham et al., 2005; Kosnin, 2007; Paris & Paris, 2001; Zimmerman, 2002).

1.3 The Conceptual Model

In this study we examined the effects of academic personal best goal and self-regulation on primary students' subsequent achievement in mathematics. The effects of gender and grade level were controlled statistically by including these two variables in the model. Based on the literature, a conceptual model was developed (Figure 1).

In the model, both personal best goal and self-regulated learning were hypothesized to affect mathematics achievement for primary students. Gender was conceptualized in the model as having both direct and indirect effects on mathematics achievement. In addition, gender was also conceptualized to have an effect on students' goal orientation and their self-regulation, which in turn were modeled to affect mathematics achievement. Although gender was not the focus of this study, extensive research, including large scale international studies, has reported on its effect on mathematics achievement (Winkelmann, 2008). Gender was included in the model with the aim to partial out variances of other variables in the model attributable to gender effect, such that the effect of goal orientation and self-regulation on mathematics achievement could be more clearly identified.

Grade level was not explicitly modeled in this study. Instead, grade level was considered a class- rather than individual-level variable. The conceptual model was tested for each grade level in the study. In order to establish meaning of mathematics achievement across grade levels, mathematics achievement was assessed using three curriculum-based mathematics tests with cross-level linkage items.

2 Method

2.1 Participants

Data were obtained from 4,687 students currently enrolled at Grade 3 (median age 8 years) through Grade 5 (median age 10 years) at 26 primary schools in Hong Kong. The schools were representative in terms of geographical location of government subsidized schools in Hong Kong. Since not all of the sampled students participated at all data collection exercises, the analytic sample comprised 3,821 students (81.5% of the original sample) (2,021 males and 1,800 females) with complete data on the variables. Eight hundred and sixty (866) students were excluded because of missing data on one of the variables. The sample distribution by gender and grade level is presented in Table 1. The last column of Table 1 shows that there was a decreasing averaged class size in terms of grade level, which reflects the effect of decreasing birthrate and class size in the local school population.

2.2 Measures

2.2.1 Personal Best Goals

Students' commitment to personal best goals was measured using a 6-item Likert-type Personal Best Scale, which was modified from Martin's (2006) Academic Personal Best Goals Scale. Whereas Martin's (2006) original Academic Personal Best Goals Scale had four dimensions, namely, persistence, class participation, educational aspirations, and enjoyment of school, the Personal Best Scale used in this study focused attention on the persistent self-improvement dimension. Students were consulted with regard to the extent to which they persisted in academic improvement, basing on a self-referenced frame of reference, despite difficulties in the pursuit (Martin, 2011, 2006). An example item is, "I do not compare myself with others but just do my best." Students responded to each item in the Personal Best Scale by selecting one of four Likert-type options: "Strongly Disagree (coded as 1)," "Disagree (coded as 2)," "Agree (coded as 3)," and "Strongly Agree (coded as 4)."

Exploratory Factor Analysis was undertaken using SPSS (Version 21.0) on the questionnaire items in order to ascertain factor structures of items for the Personal

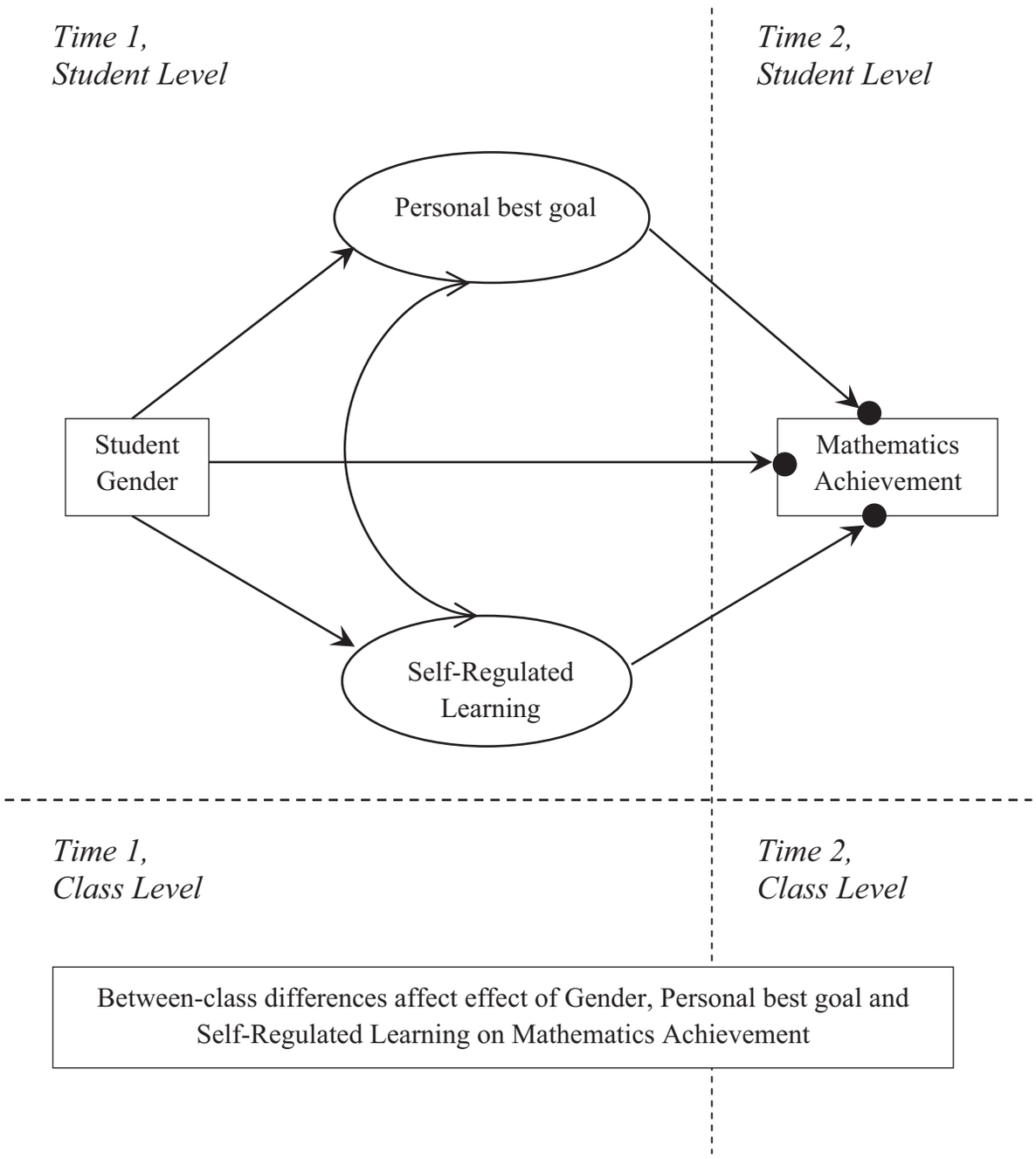

Figure 1 Conceptual Model of Relationship between Predictors of Mathematics Achievement at Student- and Class-levels

Table 1 Sample Distribution (n = 3,821)

Grade Level	Male	Female	n	No. of Classes	Average Class Size
Grade 3	633 (48.3%)	678 (51.7%)	1,311	60	21.85
Grade 4	761 (58.8%)	534 (41.2%)	1,295	54	23.98
Grade 5	627 (51.6%)	588 (48.4%)	1,215	49	27.80

Best scale and the Self-Regulation scale. The Maximum Likelihood method of extraction, followed by an oblique rotation (procedure Oblimin in SPSS) was used in the Exploratory Factor Analysis (Costello & Osborne, 2005). The results show that two distinct factors with eigenvalues greater than one were extracted and accounted for 49.59% of the variance in the items. The items loaded on two separate factors pertaining to Personal Best and Self-Regulation as intended in the construction. Factor loadings of all items had factor loadings greater than 0.33 on the

intended factor, with only one exception, namely Item 5 designed to measure Personal Best. No item had cross-loading of 0.32 or more on both factors (Table 2). The two factors were strongly correlated, with zero order Pearson Correlation Coefficient of 0.73.

Psychometric properties of the Personal Best scale will be discussed in this section, followed by discussions in the next section on the psychometric properties of the Self-Regulation scale. The Personal Best Scale was found to have good psychometric properties in this study. Cronbach's Alpha was 0.84, which indicated good internal consistency of the Personal Best items. Rasch Rating Scale analysis (Wright & Masters, 1982) using Winsteps computer software (Version 3.72.3) (Linacre, 2011) found that residual variance in the first contrast was 1.8, which was lower than the cut-off criterion value of 2.0 recommended in the literature (Linacre, 2012, p. 376). This result indicated that the items measured a single-dimension construct. In this single dimension, there was a reasonable range of item difficulty levels from -0.35 logits for the easiest item "I will be happy for improved results" to 0.65 logits for the most difficult item "I do not compare myself with others but just do my best." The item weighted (InFit MNSQ, column 3, Table 3) and unweighted (OutFit MNSQ, columns 4, Table 3) goodness of fit indices ranged between 0.77 and 1.45, which were within the acceptable range of 0.5 to 1.5 (Linacre, 2012, p. 596), indicating that the data fitted the Rasch model well. Rasch item reliability for the Personal best goal Scale was 0.99. There is practically no gender Differential Item Functioning (DIF) and no grade-level DIF. All the DIF contrasts were less than 0.5 logits (Linacre, 2012). An item with no DIF means that given two persons, one male and the other female, who are of equal ability, they are equally likely to endorse the item. The results mean that items in the Personal Best Scale were unbiased for gender and for grade levels. Rasch reliability of the Personal Best Scale was 0.99. Linacre (2014) highlighted that Rasch item reliability increases with increase in the range of item difficulty levels, and with large sample size, but is basically unaffected by test length or model fit. In this study, the large range of item difficulty levels and the large sample size are most likely to be accountable for the very high Rasch reliability of the Personal Best Scale.

2.2.2 Self-Regulation

Self-regulation in the context of school learning refers to processes that an individual adjust their learning behaviour and strategies in order to achieve their learning goals (Sitzmann & Ely, 2011). Assessment feedback provides a basis for self-regulation in this study. A Self-

Table 2 Pattern Matrix from Exploratory Factor Analysis of the Personal Best and Self-regulation Scales

	Item	Factor 1	Factor 2
1	I make extra effort to improve my study results	.832	-.062
2	I work hard to do better in my schoolwork	.861	-.064
3	My target is beyond my own	.681	.026
4	I keep striving for breakthroughs in my learning	.578	.157
5	I do not compare myself with others but just do my best	.282	.218
6	I seek to achieve my personal best in every aspect	.337	.315
7	After I get back my test papers, I try to understand the reasons for me to make the mistakes	.095	.631
8	When I find that I am doing less well in my study, I change my learning methods	-.052	.790
9	I modify the way I complete my assignments according to different requirements	-.017	.745
10	I modify my learning methods according to teachers' comments	.021	.698

Note: n = 3,821 cases.

Table 3 Psychometric Properties of Scales

Scale	No. of Items	INFIT Range	OUTFIT Range	Items Misfit[1]	Rasch Item Reliability	Separation Index	Cronbach's Alpha
Personal Best	6	0.77 ~ 1.41	0.77 ~ 1.45	0	0.99	13.30	0.87
Self-Regulation	4	0.79 ~ 1.15	0.80 ~ 1.16	0	0.98	7.86	0.88
Grade 3 Math Ach	34	0.87 ~ 1.23	0.76 ~ 1.99	2	1.00	15.44	0.82
Grade 4 Math Ach	37	0.87 ~ 1.22	0.85 ~ 1.80	1	1.00	16.92	0.82
Grade 5 Math Ach	35	0.91 ~ 1.09	0.89 ~ 1.70	1	0.98	6.56	0.81

Note: [1] Number of items with OUTFIT outside 0.5 ~ 1.5 range.

Regulation Scale comprising four Likert-type items was constructed to measure self-regulation practices of primary students. An example item is: "When I find that I am doing less well in my study, I change my learning methods." Students responded to each Self-Regulation Scale item by selecting one of four selecting one of four Likert-type options: "Strongly Disagree (coded as 1)," "Disagree (coded as 2)," "Agree (coded as 3)," and "Strongly Agree (coded as 4)."

The Self-Regulation Scale was found to have good psychometric properties in this study. Cronbach's Alpha was 0.87, which indicated good internal consistency of the Self-Regulation items. Rasch Rating Scale analysis (Wright & Masters, 1982) using Winsteps computer software (Version 3.72.3) (Linacre, 2011) found residual variance in the first contrast to be 1.3, which was lower than the cut-off criterion value of 2.0 (Linacre, 2012, p. 376). This result indicated that the items measured a single-dimension construct. In this single dimension, there was a reasonable range of item difficulty levels from -0.36 logits for the easiest item "After I get back my test papers, I try to understand the reasons for me to make the mistakes" to 0.39 logits for the most difficult item "I focus on the mistakes I made frequently, and make repeat practices until I get them right." The item weighted (InFit MNSQ, column 3, Table 3) and unweighted (OutFit MNSQ, columns 4, Table 3) goodness of fit indices ranged between 0.79 and 1.16, which were within the acceptable range of 0.5 to 1.5 (Linacre, 2012, p. 596). This means that the data fitted the Rasch model well. Rasch item reliability for the Self-Regulation Scale was 0.98. There is practically no gender Differential Item Functioning (DIF) and no grade-level DIF. Gender DIF contrasts were not statistically significant, and ranged from -0.14 to 0.14. Level DIF contrasts were not statistically significant either and ranged from -0.14 to 0.19. The results mean that items in the Self-Regulation Scale were unbiased for gender and for grade levels. Rasch reliability of the Self-Regulation Scale was 0.98. The large range of item difficulty levels and the large sample size are most likely to be accountable for the very high Rasch reliability of the Self-Regulation Scale in this study (Linacre, 2014).

2.2.3 Mathematics Achievement

Mathematics achievements at Grade 3 to Grade 5 were measured by three respective curriculum-based achievement tests designed by the researchers in consultation with school teachers. Common items were used to link the three tests across grade levels and a vertical scale was established using the Rasch model (Rasch, 1980). The tests comprised multiple choice items with three wrong options and one correct option. There were 34, 37, and 35 items in the tests for Grades 3, 4, and 5 respectively. Students' responses to the items were scored either right or wrong. Example items for each grade level were presented in Table 4.

Mathematics teachers of the participating schools were consulted to ensure that the mathematics achievement tests were valid in terms of alignment with contents and levels of difficulty for their students. Since different mathematics achievement items were used for different grade levels except for the linkage items, the psychometric analysis of achievement items were conducted separately for individual grade levels. The achievements tests were found to have good psychometric properties in this study. Cronbach's Alphas of the items were 0.82, 0.82, and 0.81 at Grades 3, 4, and 5 respectively. These results attested to the strong internal consistency of the test items. Rasch Rating Scale analysis (Wright & Masters, 1982) using Winsteps computer software (Version 3.72.3) (Linacre, 2011) found that residual variances in the first contrast were 1.6, 1.6, 1.6 for Grades 3, 4, and 5 respectively, all of which were lower than the cut-off criterion value of 2.0 recommended in the literature (Linacre, 2012, p. 376). These results indicated that the each batch of mathematics achievement items for Grades 3, 4, and 5 measured a single-dimension construct. In this single dimension in Grade 3, there was a reasonable range of item difficulty levels from -1.74 logits for the easiest item to 2.70 logits for the most difficult item. In Grade 4, item difficulty levels ranged from -2.70 logits for the easiest item to 3.11 logits for the most difficult item. In Grade 5, item difficulty levels ranged from -2.52 logits for the easiest item to 2.27 logits for the most difficult item. The item weighted (InFit MNSQ, columns 3, Table 3) goodness of fit indices ranged between 0.87 and 1.23, which were within the acceptable range between 0.5 and 1.5 (Linacre, 2012, p. 596). In Grade 3, the unweighted (OutFit MNSQ, columns 4, Table 3) goodness of fit indices ranged between 0.76 and 1.99. Two items in Grade 3 were more than the cut off value of 1.5. In Grade 4, the unweighted (OutFit MNSQ, columns 4, Table 3) goodness of fit indices ranged between 0.85 and 1.80. One item in Grade 4 was more than the cut off value of 1.5. In Grade 5, the unweighted (OutFit MNSQ, columns 4, Table 3) goodness of fit indices ranged between 0.89 and 1.70. One item in Grade 5 was more than the cut off value of 1.5. These results show that except for the four identified misfit items, the data fitted the Rasch model well. The DIF contrasts for the majority of items were less than 0.5 logits (Linacre, 2012), except one item in Grade 3 (DIF contrast -0.59), two items in Grade 4 (DIF contrasts -0.51 and -0.56), and one item in Grade 5 (DIF contrast -0.77). All the items exhibiting DIF favoured male students. The Educational Testing Service (ETS) used the Mantel Haenszel delta difference procedure and classified dichotomous items into Category A: Items with little or no DIF; Category B: Noticeable but small to moderate DIF;

Table 4 Example Mathematics Achievement Items

	Example Item
Grade 3	9 7563 – 3174 = ? A. 4389 B. 4411 C. 4489 D. 4499
Grade 4	18 Referring to the equation $14 \times 6 = 84$, which of the following statements about factor and multiple is incorrect? A. 14 is a factor of 84 B. 84 is a multiple of 14 C. 14 is a multiple of 6 D. 6 is a factor of 84
Grade 5	19 A train travels from place A to place B. In the first hour, it travels $\frac{3}{5}$ of the journey. In the second hour, it travels $\frac{1}{3}$ of the journey. Which of the following best represents the remaining journey? A. $\frac{1}{5}$ B. $\frac{4}{15}$ C. $\frac{14}{15}$ D. $\frac{1}{15}$

and Category C: Large DIF (Zwick, 2012). Zieky's (1993) research showed that Category B items can still be used in a test, but Category C items should be removed from the test. In this study, all the items belong to either Category A or Category B according to the ETS classification and hence could be used in assessing students' mathematics achievement. These results mean that the achievement items were unbiased or with only small bias for gender within each grade. Rasch reliabilities of the mathematics achievement scales were 0.99, 0.99 and 1.00 for Grade 3, Grade 4, and Grade 5 students respectively. The very high Rasch reliabilities of items at Grades 3, 4, and 5 in this study were most likely due to the wide item difficulty range and the large sample size (Linacre, 2014).

2.3 Procedures

Invitation letters were distributed to sampled primary schools for their voluntary participation. Data were collected from students of participating schools through anonymous self-report questionnaire and mathematics achievement test during normal class-time. Student response rate was 96.5%. Students were able to complete the questionnaire within one class session, and the mathematics achievement test was completed within another class session six months later. The study was conducted adhering to the research procedures and data collection protocols approved by the Ethical Reviews Committee of the university where the research project was located.

Questionnaire and mathematics achievement test scripts were captured via Optical Mark Recognition method by an independent scanning company. All data were checked by two technical people at the company to ensure data accuracy. Initial analyses, including frequency and descriptive statistics, were undertaken to identify possible anomalies.

2.4 Data-Analysis

The hypothesized model was tested using a multilevel structural equation modeling. The multilevel structural equation modeling framework enables examination of the pattern of directional and non-directional correlational and covariance relationships among variables in the model (Kline, 2011). Multilevel structural equation modeling was used to account for students nested within classes within schools and to account for measurement error (Preacher, Zyphur, & Zhang, 2010).

Initial analysis of a two-level (level 1: Student, level 2: Class) null model with no explanatory variables included was undertaken using the MLwiN software package (Rasbash, Steele, Browne, & Goldstein, 2012). The analysis found class-level variances to be statistically significant, with class-level intraclass correlation coefficients of mathematics achievement at 3.69%, 15.03%, and 17.18% for Grade 3, Grade 4 and Grade 5 respectively. Class-level design effect ranged from 1.7 at the Grade 3 level to 6.0 at Grade 5. These results show that mathematics achievement of students might due to differences between classes at each grade level, and analysis could not ignore clustering effect in the data.

On basis of the initial analysis, two-level structural equation modeling was used to analyse the effect of students' personal best goal and self-regulation on their mathematics achievement six months later, after controlling for student gender and grade level. Differences between classes and differences among students within classes were taken as sources of between- and within-level variations in students' mathematics achievement. Predictors at the beginning of the semester tested in the model were students' gender, their personal best goal, self-regulation practices, and between-class variations.

The hypothesized 2-level structural equation model (Figure 1) was tested using the Mplus statistical software package (Version 7) (Muthén & Muthén, 1998-2012) for each grade level. Overall model fit was evaluated in terms of a number of indicators for model good fit, namely, Chi-squared value, the ratio of Chi-squared value to its degrees of freedom with criterion of the ratio being less than 3 (Chou & Bentler, 1995; Kline, 2011), Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and Tucker Lewis Index (TLI), with criterion of these two indices being greater than 0.95 (Hu & Bentler, 1999; McDonald & Ho, 2002), Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) with the criterion of its value being less than 0.07 (Steiger, 2007), and Standardised Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) (Muthén & Muthén, 1998-2012) with the criterion of its value being less than 0.08 (Hu & Bentler, 1999; Kline, 2011). Path coefficients and other parameters were tested for their statistical significance at 5% level.

3 Results

3.1 Initial Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics for each grade level are presented in Table 5. The descriptive statistics indicated the possibility of a cohort effect in the sense that Grade 5 students scored even lower on average than students at Grades 3 and 4. Decision was made to analyse the data separately for different grades in order to manage the cohort effect.

Table 5 also showed that the predictor variables Personal Best and Self-Regulation were negatively skewed, meaning that most of the responses for these two scales loaded on the positive end. Further, it can be seen that all predictors had significant and positive correlation with mathematics achievement. Gender (male coded as 1, female

Table 5 Descriptive Statistics and Zero-order Pearson Product Moment Correlations

					Correlation		
Variable	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis	Math	Gender	PB
Grade 3 (n = 1,311)							
Math (logit)	2.710	1.030	0.085	0.689			
Gender	1.480	0.500	0.090	-1.994	-0.560		
PB	0.000	0.926	-1.205	1.339	0.191	0.099	
SR	0.000	0.902	-0.933	0.564	0.102	0.115	0.611
Grade 4 (n = 1,295)							
Math (logit)	3.333	1.019	-0.180	0.257			
Gender	1.580	0.494	-0.328	-1.895	0.095		
PB	0.000	0.922	-1.114	1.329	0.232	0.121	
SR	0.000	0.903	-0.799	0.540	0.173	0.120	0.657
Grade 5 (n = 1,215)							
Math (logit)	1.126	1.018	0.553	1.658			
Gender	1.520	0.500	-0.096	-1.993	-0.012		
PB	0.000	0.929	-0.781	0.500	0.145	0.080	
SR	0.000	0.906	-0.714	0.723	0.123	0.064	0.629

Note: Math stands for Mathematics achievement. PB stands for Personal Best. SR stands for Self-Regulated Learning. Gender is student gender (male coded as 1, female coded as 2).

coded as 2) had positive correlation with personal best goal and with self-regulation, meaning that females were more inclined toward personal best goal had self-regulation than were males. Correlations between gender and mathematics achievement at Grade 3 and Grade 5 were negative but positive at Grade 4. These results mean that females scored higher than males did at Grades 3 and 5, but lower than males at did Grade 4. Zero-order correlation coefficients between personal best goal and self-regulation ranged from 0.611 to 0.657, meaning that there is considerable shared variance between the two predictors.

3.2 Predictors of Mathematics Achievement

Results of the analysis are presented in Table 6. The multilevel structural equation model fitted the data well at each grade level. There was substantial drop in Chi-squared value of the final model compared to the baseline model at each grade level. The ratios of Chi-square of the model to its degrees of freedom equal to 2.35, 1.91, and 2.96 for Grades 3, 4, and 5 respectively. The CFI and TLI indices were larger than 0.98, RMSEA and SRMR (within) less than 0.05 (Table 6a).

It can be seen from Table 6b that after controlling for all predictors in the model, personal best goal predicted mathematics achievement six months later at all grade levels (i.e., Grades 3, 4, and 5) in the study after controlling for gender effect. There was also significant (at 5% level) direct gender effect on mathematics achievement in Grades 3 and 4 but not in Grade 5. Gender also affected mathematics achievement indirectly through students' personal best goal (at all grade levels), and their self-regulation (for students in Grades 3 and 4). Nevertheless, after controlling for personal best goal and for gender, there was no significant direct effect of self-regulation on mathematics achievement at any grade level. Self-regulation affected mathematics achievement only indirectly via its correlation with personal best goal. Correlation coefficient was in the order of 0.8 between the two predictors after controlling for gender in the model. Despite statistical significance, however, the effect size for mathematics achievement was found to be small in this study. Within-level R-square ranged from 0.024 (Grade 5) to 0.061 (Grade 4).

Table 6b also shows that the measurement models for personal best goal and self-regulation were healthy. Factor loadings ranged from 0.463 to 0.864 for the personal best goal items, and from 0.752 to 0.800 for the self-regulation items across the grade levels.

4 Discussion

This study sought to investigate the possibility of personal best goal and self-regulation as predicators of mathematics achievement of primary students. Personal best goal is defined as "specific, challenging, competitively self-referenced targets towards which students strive" (Martin, 2013). Personal best goal is an attractive alternative to performance or other norm-reference goals as it refers to setting targets on one's own progress and on one's continuous improvement, rather than on competing with others. Recent research (Martin, 2006; Martin & Liem, 2010) found positive impact of personal best goals on students' academic achievement. Goal setting is the first step of the self-regulatory process. Self-regulation is the other important component in the process for goal attainment. In this study, the combined effect of personal best goal and self-regulation on mathematics achievement was investigated. Using multilevel structural equation modelling, the study showed that personal best goal has direct and positive effect on primary students' mathematics achievement, after taking into account their gender and grade level. This result corroborates the findings from the study of Martin and Liem (2010).

By pursuing a personal best goal, the student aims to perform a little bit better than his/her previous performance each time, irrespective of how the other students are doing, and irrespective of any absolute standard. In this way, the student is better protected from pressure arising from social comparison or learned helplessness arising from the external standard being unreachably high compared to the student's current status. The students is thus in a better position to strive for his/her personal potential. Using one's own attainment as a yardstick for the next strives is concrete and realistic for the student. Hattie's (2009) meta-analysis found only low effect size for goals that were too difficult or ambiguous to attain, but effect size for goals that are more realistic and specific was much higher.

While personal best goal has a direct effect on mathematics achievement, this study found that self-regulation only had indirect effect on mathematics achievement via personal best goal. This finding is not consistent with our hypothesized model but nonetheless is an important finding. Self-regulation in this study was measured in terms of the extent to which students made adjustments to their their learning behaviour and strategies so as to achieve their learning goals. The finding in this study that self-regulation had no direct effect on mathematics achievement means that merely changing learning strategies without referencing one's previous achievement would not lead to increase in achievement. Instead, one has to reflect upon one's performance and reconsiders the effectiveness of the learning strategies before their application.

This study provides insights into personal best goal and self-regulation as predictors, after controlling for

Table 6

(a) Model Fit of Multilevel Structural Equation Modelling

Model Fit	Grade 3	Grade 4	Grade 5
Chi-square model	222.964	181.196	281.506
df	95	95	95
Chi-square model Prob.	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001
Chi-square model/*df* Ratio	2.35	1.91	2.96
Chi-square baseline	10,683.954	13,001.903	12,895.624
Degrees of freedom	111	111	111
CFI	0.998	0.993	0.985
TLI	0.986	0.992	0.982
RMSEA	0.029	0.024	0.036
SRMR (within)	0.039	0.045	0.049
SRMR (between)	0.614	0.533	0.691

(b) Path Coefficients, Factor Loadings, and R-square

	Grade 3			Grade 4			Grade 5		
Path Coefficients	Est.	S.E.	Prob.	Est.	S.E.	Prob.	Est.	S.E.	Prob.
Math on PB	0.286	0.050	< 0.001	0.236	0.056	< 0.001	0.163	0.066	0.013
Math on SR	-0.091	0.054	0.093	-0.009	0.060	0.886	-0.012	0.064	0.850
Math on Gender	-0.072	0.027	0.009	0.069	0.021	0.001	-0.023	0.025	0.359
PB on Gender	0.098	0.031	0.001	0.114	0.030	< 0.001	0.070	0.031	0.022
SR on Gender	0.128	0.031	< 0.001	0.121	0.029	< 0.001	0.057	0.032	0.076
PB with SR	0.754	0.017	< 0.001	0.790	0.011	< 0.001	0.785	0.013	< 0.001

	Grade 3			Grade 4			Grade 5		
Within-level Stand. Factor Loadings	Est.	S.E.	Prob.	Est.	S.E.	Prob.	Est.	S.E.	Prob.
PB									
PB1	0.845	0.009	< 0.001	0.854	0.011	< 0.001	0.840	0.012	< 0.001
PB2	0.841	0.010	< 0.001	0.858	0.011	< 0.001	0.864	0.010	< 0.001
PB3	0.790	0.013	< 0.001	0.803	0.014	< 0.001	0.773	0.012	< 0.001
PB4	0.797	0.011	< 0.001	0.783	0.012	< 0.001	0.792	0.012	< 0.001
PB5	0.606	0.021	< 0.001	0.550	0.017	< 0.001	0.463	0.024	< 0.001
PB6	0.720	0.016	< 0.001	0.699	0.135	< 0.001	0.656	0.017	< 0.001
SR									
SR1	0.786	0.015	< 0.001	0.781	0.012	< 0.001	0.795	0.011	< 0.001
SR2	0.776	0.013	< 0.001	0.785	0.011	< 0.001	0.792	0.012	< 0.001
SR3	0.799	0.013	< 0.001	0.766	0.013	< 0.001	0.779	0.013	< 0.001
SR4	0.752	0.017	< 0.001	0.800	0.013	< 0.001	0.768	0.011	< 0.001
Within-level R-sq									
Math	0.053	0.012	< 0.000	0.061	0.012	< 0.000	0.024	0.009	0.011
PB	0.010	0.006	0.109	0.013	0.007	0.056	0.005	0.004	0.251
SR	0.016	0.008	0.042	0.015	0.007	0.039	0.003	0.004	0.375

Notes: Math stands for Mathematics achievement. PB stands for Personal Best. PB was measured by six items represented by PB1, …PB6. SR stands for Self-Regulated Learning. SR was measured by four items represented by SR1,…SR4. Gender is student gender (male coded as 1, female coded as 2).

gender and grade level, of mathematics achievement of primary students in Hong Kong. Results of the study must be interpreted in the contexts of study limitations. First, data on personal best goal and self-regulation were collected using self-report questionnaire of students. Self-report questionnaires have inherent limitations including the possibility of response sets, and responses made in accordance with social desirability. For future studies, qualitative data such as interview or diary writing should be included to provide more details on students' thoughts. Second, although achievement data were collected six months after students completed questionnaires on personal best goals and self-regulation, the effect of goal setting and self-regulation on mathematics achievement might take much longer than six months. It is recommended that longitudinal studies of over several academic year with more data collection incidences should be conducted to elucidate the interplay between personal best goals, self-regulation, and mathematics achievement.

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Examples:

1. In-Text Citations
   (1) Short Quotations
   Flavell described the term as a heightened awareness of one's thought processes, that is, "knowledge concerning one's own metacognitive processes or anything related to them" (Flavell, 1976, p. 232).
   (2) Long Quotations
   Gregory claims:
   Coefficient alpha is an index of the internal consistency of the items, that is, their tendency to correlate with one another. Insofar as a test or scale with high internal consistency will also tend to show stability of scores in a test-retest approach, coefficient alpha is therefore a useful estimate of reliability. (Manning & Munro, 2006, p. 25)
   (3) Summary and Paraphrase
   And still others see globalization as an assault on traditional notions of society and the nation-state whereby the very nature of citizenship and social change is dramatically altered (Castells, 1997; Touraine, 1988).
2. The Reference List
   (1) Periodicals:
   One Author
   Rhoads, R. A. (2003). Globalization and resistance in the United States and Mexico: The global Potemkin village. *Higher Education*, *45*, 223-250.
   Two Authors
   Black, P., & Wiliam, D. (1998). Inside the black box: Raising standards through classroom assessment. *Phi Delta Kappan*, *80*, 139-148.
   Three or More Authors
   Boulware-Gooden, R., Carreker, S., Thornhill, A., & Joshi, R. (2007). Instruction of metacognitive strategies enhances reading comprehension and vocabulary achievement of third-grade students. *Reading Teacher*, *61*, 70-77.
   Articles in press
   Bandur, A. (in press). School-based management: Impacts and challenges. *Journal of Educational Administration*.
   (2) Books
   One Author
   Castells, M. (1997). *The power of identity*. Boston: Blackwell.
   Two Authors
   Arends, R., & Kilcher, A. (2010). *Teaching for student learning: Becoming an accomplished teacher*. New York: Routledge.

Three or More Authors

Mastascusa, E. J., Snyder, W. J., & Hoyt, B. S. (2011). *Effective instruction for STEM disciplines: From learning theory to college teaching*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Edited Books

Bryne, J. (Ed.). (2012). *The occupy handbook*. New York: Back Bay Books.

Chapter in a Book

Guilford, J. P. (2007). Creativity: A quarter century of progress. In I. A. Taylor & J. W. Getzels (Eds.), *Perspectives in creativity* (pp. 37-59). New Brunswick, NJ: Aldine Transaction.

(3) Electronic Sources

Wong, K. (1998). *Transforming urban school systems: Integrated governance in Chicago and Birmingham (UK)*. Retrieved July 23, 2007, from http://www.temple.edu/lss/pdf/publications/pubs1998-20.pdf

(4) Conference Paper

Ellis, A. (2011, November). *Theory and research in reflective self-assessment*. Paper presented at the National Academy for Educational Research, Taipei, Taiwan.

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