A Critical Analysis of the Implementation Process of Education Policy Borrowing: New Curriculum Reform in China

Yueying Wang

1 Xijing University, Xi’an, Shaanxi, China
Correspondence: Yueying Wang, Xijing University, Xi’an, Shaanxi, China.

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Abstract

Through the current education reform in mainland China, namely the “new curriculum reform” (NCR), this paper examines the situation of education policy reference. New curriculum reform, namely “a new round of basic education curriculum reform”. Alternative approaches, such as school-based curricula, student-centred teaching methods, and formative assessment, have been used to draw on the NCR. In this essay, the borrowing process of China’s new curriculum reform will be analysed and discussed based on the four-stage analysis of Phillips and Ochs. At the same time, it focuses on the analysis of the core content—the specific implementation process of NCR, especially the content of “student-centred” pedagogy.

Keywords: policy borrowing, new curriculum reform, “student-centred” pedagogy, China

1. Introduction

Chinese education and school system have received particular attention in recent years, largely thanks to the outstanding performance of some regions in China, such as Shanghai, in PISA (2009). The north-south trend in the policy shift is clear. However, this is not to establish a stereotype - that is, there is a single trajectory from north to south. One thing is certain, whether from north to south or elsewhere, that policy borrowing is by no means a straightforward, predictable and uncontroversial process (Tan, 2016). Instead, reform initiatives are being (re) interpreted, questioned and modified (Savignon, 2017), and their final form in one region may be very different from the original setting. At the same time, under the circumstances of the transfer of educational policies, the ideas and practices borrowed from others will encounter theoretical deficiencies in different contexts (Phillips, 2004). Simply put, theoretical transition holds that everything a person observes or perceives is influenced by and explained through his transcendental theories or ideologies (Thompson, 2020), including his beliefs, values, and assumptions. Therefore, in the process of policy reference, the ideological attitude of education stakeholders reflects the mainstream paradigm, lifestyle, preconditions and logic in the cultural context.

In addition, from the perspective of teaching, because teachers’ monologue teaching may suppress students’ learning enthusiasm, education experts put forward the view of “student-centred theory”, that is, students are mainly involved in and decide the classroom design, classroom activities so that students are engaged in active participation in learning activities (Chi, 2009). This view is beginning to catch on internationally, especially in China. However, there is no fixed method of teaching. What is suitable is the best and whether the student-centred teaching view is a suitable teaching method for Chinese students. At the same time, in the process of implementing student-centred education and teaching, students’ performance and active classroom atmosphere are one of the important goals (Armbruster et al., 2009).

The first part of this paper will analyse the relevant theory and concept statement of policy borrowing. Secondly, it is followed by the concrete process of the new curriculum reform and the principle and content of the “student-centred” teaching method. Third, the four stages of the process of analysis will be based on all policy reference, including Cross-National Attraction, Decision, Implementation and Internalisation/Indigenisation. Finally, based on the context of China, some implementation challenges and dilemmas will be analysed.

2. Policy Borrowing (PB)

The concept of “borrowing” is often used to describe the education of one country as learning from that of another. Borrowing not only means “reference”, but also makes a clear distinction from “copying”, so it brings
the user a sense of security in discourse (Steiner-Khamsi, 2004). Policy borrowing is a common term in the field of comparative education, which means comparing and learning from education in other countries and finding out what works for your own country and avoiding some limitations (Stewart, 2012). Today, though, it is often pointed out that the false assumptions behind the notion that policy can simply be transplanted from one country to another. However, it appears to be an observable and direct international process. For example, the identification of successful practices at the beginning, the introduction of the domestic context, and finally the assimilation in combination with the local environment. However, the process of proof is quite complex, which raises a lot of problems for practitioners to solve. It is one thing to assert that exploring foreign education is a worthy cause, and it is quite another to believe that foreign examples can be imported and assimilated.

Influence may be the result of policy borrowing. The wide and rapid spread of modern educational ideas may also create an atmosphere in which conscious borrowing is more likely to occur in society and industry. “Borrowing” should mean explicitly stating that one means of execution or implementation is intended (Rubin, 2019), while other aspects are observed. Rather than identifying the importance of the influence of susceptibility by generally less clear, the aim is to show specific practices elsewhere and less awareness is reflected in policy practices in the domestic country. Thus, the “borrowing” policy may indicate that the borrowing has been influenced by ideas from other countries (Phillips & Ochs, 2004). But the basic point here is that an imposed policy is not a borrowed policy. For example, it is very difficult for South Africa and other African countries with checkered histories of colonial rule to influence domestic policies from externally imposed policies. It can also be explained that John Dewey had a profound and very widespread influence, judging from the citation of his work in a variety of national literature. But people can never be sure who read the sources from which Dewey is so assiduously cited (and how well understood). It is also likely impossible to know for sure whether his ideas had a direct and measurable impact on the development or approach to education in any particular country. It can be concluded that “borrowing” should refer to a clearly expressed intention to do things in ways observed elsewhere (Lowndes, 2005), rather than through a general recognition of the importance of specific practices elsewhere and less consciously reflecting those practices in “domestic” policies and less explicitly being susceptible to influence.

Explaining specific examples of such purposeful cross-border connections and exchanges is not always easy. An obvious example with Japan is the restructuring of the Japanese education system following the U.S. 6-3-3 model after World War II (Shibata, 2006). The first is as obvious as the Prussian uniforms worn by Japanese schoolchildren today. The second phenomenon is also evident in today’s school structure and the use of the terms “junior high school” and “high school”. Of course, the widespread and very rapid spread of educational ideas today may also create an environment in which conscious lending is more likely to take place.

3. PB and New Curriculum Reform (NCR) in China

There is no more important context for educational change than globalisation and no more important way to conceptualise educational change (Wells et al., 2005). Globalisation can be defined as “a concept that refers both to the idea of a smaller world, at the same time, a way of raising people’s awareness of the world.” (Robinson, 1992, p.8). The crossing of borders, including reforms, structures and policies in the field of education, represents the globalisation of education (Astiz et al., 2002), or to transfers from certain systems, usually the developed Anglo-American world, to other countries, In particular, Eastern and developing countries export theories, policies and practices (Dimmock & Walker, 2000). For many years, basic education in China and its curriculum system have been regarded as “exam-oriented”, with a series of problems, Including the old education concept, curriculum structure, narrow, dominated by the academic curriculum, lesson Content out of date, has little to do with students’ life experience and social reality, the study way emphasis on training and memory, the traditional exam-oriented teaching deeply, student evaluation too much emphasis on student performance and the lower level of education of the selection function (Brown & Gao, 2015). These problems are believed to be the main reasons for not producing enough qualified graduates to meet the current needs of society. At the same time, an example can illustrate the reason for learning. The ‘Student-centred’ pedagogy reform in American universities started around 1990 and swept through all American colleges and universities in the 30 years (Dello-Iacovo, 2009), which is still going on today. During this reform, American university teachers and researchers created many new teaching concepts, teaching design patterns and teaching methods. All these have greatly improved the learning level of students, promoted the development of students, improved the undergraduate education, made contributions to the social development of the United States, and made the American undergraduate education a model for many countries in the world to learn from.

It is often China that tries to explore ‘best practices’ from other countries while reviewing and reforming its education system, taking into account its society (Sellar & Lingard, 2013). For example, if people think again
about student-centred learning from a higher level, it is indeed being used in different educational systems in different countries. And the reason is global comparisons, like the push for international assessment (PISA). The new curriculum reform (NCR) is China’s eighth education reform since 1949. The nationwide reform, which has been in place in China for more than a decade, was introduced at the crossroads between the 20th and 21st centuries. An important document for the official launch of a new round of Education reform is the Outline of Curriculum Reform for Basic Education (Trial) (Outline of Curriculum Reform for Basic Education (Trial, 2001) (the term “Trial” refers to “Trial Document”) (Ministry of Education, 2001). The reform is a paradigm shift, such as the emphasis on quality-oriented education over exam-oriented education, as exemplified by Singapore’s educational goals. The expected outcomes of quality education include the replacement of existing curricula, which focus on teaching methods centred on textbooks, theoretical knowledge and classroom learning, etc. As curricula and teaching methods have changed, so has the model of assessment, assessing and recognising students’ all-round development, not just their academic performance on high-stakes tests.

In terms of educational stages, the new curriculum covers all three stages of basic education, namely pre-school education, compulsory education (Grades 1 to 9) and general senior secondary education (Grades 10 to 12). The reform plan is set out in the following nine aspects (Hongbiao, 2013): overall objectives, curriculum structure and content, setting of textbooks, revision of curriculum, teacher development and so on. The reform also requires the establishment of a new curriculum system, and it also needs to meet the requirements of quality-oriented education, which includes patriotism and the promotion of traditional fine ideas, etc. What’s more, the school emphasises many abilities beyond textbook knowledge, such as those related to human capital: innovation ability, scientific awareness, environmental awareness. In addition to the traditional national curriculum and local curriculum, there is school-based curriculum (Guan & Meng, 2007). All schools devote about a third of their curriculum to designing and implementing their subjects, curriculum and activities. This means more roles and responsibilities for school principals to work with museums, community centres, research centres, universities and higher education institutions to create new courses on extracurricular activities, community projects and research. Teacher support, which comes with continued training opportunities, leads to dramatic changes. After teachers get the support, they will adapt to the new changes in these policies. After all, teachers are the core of the whole reform because they are the practitioners. (Xu, 2009).

To be specific, first of all, in terms of content, the basic curriculum is determined at the city level, but the three ideological subjects—Chinese, history and politics—are stipulated by the state. The effective autonomy of schools over school-based curricula is limited by the fact that teachers receive specific support from local authorities, based on several priorities and routines, regarding specific steps of implementation (Park & Sung, 2013). In fact, the result of this is that schools fail to take into account the interests of students and fail to frame their knowledge according to their abilities. Second, in the reform of teaching methods, teachers need to constantly interact with students, guide them to ask questions, investigate and analyse, and assist them in deep learning. Context-based learning is also emphasised (Tan, 2016). Passively listening to lectures is not a better way. Reading and reviewing by yourself, or even discussing with peers, are all ways to improve efficiency. The question-based examination is another method before the teacher moves on to the next step of the teaching, which is also based on a specific framework to help students read and think. For example, students answer questions under the guidance of teachers and discuss what are the important and difficult points. Teachers need to summarise and explain the parts that students find difficult to understand according to their answers.

The rationality of NCR can be reflected in several aspects. First of all, from the students’ point of view, more time is allocated to students in class. In many schools, instead of facing the front row, students put tables together for group discussion and cooperative learning. The questions students discuss are usually specific and specific, rather than ones that require complex thinking paths. Students are trained to search for key information in the textbook to answer pre-set questions by the teacher. However, these changes do not necessarily stimulate students’ real participation, because they do not exert their subjective initiative (Bonk & Cunningham, 1998). Secondly, from the perspective of teaching, teachers still have the initiative, because the teaching content needs to ensure that the test content is fully covered within the specified period of time, and can also meet the requirements of the National Convention on the Rights of the Child. Therefore, effective teaching can make students think deeply, sometimes more deeply than through group work (Komatsu & Rappleye, 2017).

4. “Student-Centred” Pedagogy

Appropriate educational methods in developing countries may be based on “travel policies”, such as learner-centred education, which are widely promoted by international organisations or governments in developed countries. Travel policies are usually formulated in different locations by the activities of supranational and transnational agencies and common educational agendas (Schweisfurth, 2013). Among the
many theoretical sources, Chinese scholars believe that the constructivist suspension is an important epistemological basis for the study and implementation of NCR (You, 2019). Especially from the perspective of social constructivism, knowledge is viewed as the result of inter-subject experience, which is dynamic and culturally relevant. And by drawing on this example, it further reflects the global discourse of “East and West” education policies (Tao & Chua, 2015). Under the banner of “quality-oriented” education (quality-oriented education), the National Committee on the Rights of the Child has been launched, students’ creativity, critical thinking and sustainable development are important, so exam-oriented education is not the core system. (Dello-Iacovo, 2009). Active participation is a more efficient learning method, which is inspired by western learning theories, such as the teaching mode that pays more attention to and constructs knowledge (Ministry of Education, 2001). It is widely believed that exam-oriented education may lead to a lack of creativity and problem-solving ability, which occurs in the educational process in China (or even in East Asia) (Zhong, 2010). Reflecting their nascent political integration, some schools in China have begun to experiment with this kind of “East meets West” in teaching and learning (Gifford et al., 2018). What we call “student-centred, dominated by teachers teaching methods” including student-centred activities, such as group discussion, oral presentations and experiment, debate, creative work, and learning was applied to real-life (You, 2019) - this is the characteristics of the teaching and learning in the western, while retaining the leading teaching for teachers, text stress transfer and memory. Quality-oriented education needs the student-centred (SC) teaching method reform (Cravens et al., 2011), so that the teaching process no longer lays too much emphasis on students’ mastery and accumulation of existing knowledge, but more importantly, lets students learn skills and methods to acquire knowledge, that is, to implement the ancient Chinese saying that “better to teach a man how to fish than to give him a fish”. Specifically, the first is to encourage students to construct their knowledge. The most important of these is the connection between a student’s personal experience and the wider world, and the supposed positive correlation between the level of spontaneous learning and performance (Biggs, 1999). At the same time, teachers, as mentors, should teach according to students’ unique starting point and help them to carry out personalised and active learning. Secondly, in the learning process, interaction, cooperation and teamwork are very important (Elia, 2014), especially when it involves a high degree of student dialogue and group activities. The third aspect emphasises the application of knowledge to real-life, hoping to cultivate students’ ability to solve situational problems independently and independently. At the heart of all this is a diverse and formative exam system, rather than a single high-stakes test such as the ‘Gaokao’(Chinese entrance examination for higher education).

5. Four Stages Analysis Model by Phillips and Ochs

When the current education reform process is observed, the borrowing of educational policies between countries has not stopped. Not only are developing countries widely borrowing advanced educational experience from developed countries, but the borrowing of educational policies between developed countries is also extremely active. According to Phillips and Ochs(Phillips & Ochs, 2003), the process of education borrowing includes four stages: the first stage is cross-national Attraction. The drive for transnational attraction may result from internal discontent, system breakdown, poor external evaluation, economic change or competition, political or other demands, etc. The second stage is the Decision. There are different types of decision making, such as theoretical decision making (based on some macro ideas, such as “market selection”, “diversification”, etc.), feasibility based decisions are a good way to improve and are based on real situations. The analysis of the implementation process is the third stage, so the context of the borrower country is crucial, and the attitude of the practitioner is also the key to the effectiveness of the implementation. Fourth, internalisation, education policy is contextualised and becomes part of the education system of the borrowing country.

5.1 First Stage: Cross-national Attraction

The first stage is cross-national or transnational attraction, which turns itself into an “impulse”. According to Phillips (2005), the motivation of education policy borrowing comes from the following aspects: unsatisfied factors come from within, such as parents, students, teachers put forward opinions; The limitations of the education system; negative external evaluations (such as criticism of an education system from an international perspective); reforms influenced by economic or political factors; the perspectives of knowledge innovation and skills development; and pilot policies in some places, which is seen as a transnational attraction. As far as China is concerned, in the 1980s, it began to imitate the United States in implementing western education policies (Zhu, 2009). As a late-development country, over the past century of Chinese education modernisation process, is constantly absorbing the experience of America and Europe suggests to transform their process of traditional education, in this kind of “modernisation” of the compression process, the education policy to borrow enables education with a shorter time, less cost to achieve the evolution from traditional education to modern education.
(Sahlberg, 2007), if there is no education policy to borrow, to replace the traditional private schools with modern schools, to the traditional thinking is probably still far away.

The stereotypes of education in China (or more broadly in East Asia) are characterised by textual knowledge transfer, teaching, rote learning, repetitive test-oriented practice, and strict obedience, which allegedly result in a lack of creative problem solving and critical thinking skills (Takayama, 2017). The shift in Chinese learning styles from Confucianism to Western or international may be a paradigm shift in philosophy. Still, there is economic hunger. Because, although China has made rapid progress from an economic point of view, both educational inequality and income inequality have brought burdens to China (Malik, 2014). In the process of education reform, the greater the debate on education reform from all walks of life, the more uncertain the prospect of the implementation of reform policy, the more inclined the policymakers are to promote the reform through education policy borrowing. It can be said that education modernisation in China takes the route of paying equal attention to external borrowing and internal creation in terms of resource orientation (Xu & Connelly, 2009). Today, it must be admitted that China’s education and still there is a gap between the advanced education in the world, has the factors of modernity in the education of traditional is not too full, education innovation ability is insufficient, so in the future a long time, still have to borrow to get through education policy pioneer mature experience, reduce the risk of groping and trial-and-error alone, reduce the cost of modernising education.

5.2 Second Stage: Decision-making

The second phase of the framework is the decision stage. To kick-start the reform process, a series of policies may be proposed, which is also the beginning of the decision-making part. According to Phillips (2005), two methods must be avoided for policymakers: false decision-making, which refers to the lack of adequate investigation of the contents and implementation effects of borrowing policies, in other words, the lack of feasibility analysis. Based on such a decision, it may not be suitable for the national system; another dangerous way to borrow is to make quick decisions. (Phillips & Ochs, 2004). That is to say, there are two perspectives that decision-makers should be aware of: one is to judge whether some educational experience can be integrated into the original cultural background (Osborn*, 2004), and the relevant factors may be to examine its development; another perspective is to consider some possible outcomes, and feasibility needs to be combined with a socio-cultural and current basis. As a saying goes, “culture and education shape each other”, the cultural form of society plays an important role in the borrowing of educational policies. (Boyd et al., 2007). Moreover, policymaking is fundamentally a political issue. According to Hall (1993), education policy is often closely linked to economic, political and social needs - it is not separate from social and economic policy.

Taking SC pedagogy as an example, it is very difficult to implement its position in China’s education policy, because it is in contradiction with the concept of examination as the core to some extent. The policy paper recognises that in response to internal pressures and national priorities, as well as external influences, progress should be made towards the SC pedagogy. In practice, however, elastic layers of teaching and learning culture can be observed, from Confucian traditions to Marxist thinking to competitive examinations (Makeham, 2020), which contribute to the degree of difficulty in making decisions. At the same time, China is severely affected by educational inequalities. Many rural schools in China, and even migrant schools in cities, are under-resourced. Therefore, the current situation requires China to decide the introduction and reform of the new curriculum. Based on China’s regulatory system, the government has relatively strict jurisdiction over the region, so the consequence is that education can be made a priority by the government. That is to say, education policy is based on China’s current management system (Verger et al., 2012). What is important is that in the decision-making process, another educational concept or method is applied from the perspective of the borrower country, which is familiar with its cultural tradition. Foreign cultures or new interpretations of native education are based on the original reasons for borrowing and the perceptions of the practitioners (Blanchette & Richards, 2010). As the decision-making subject always looks at foreign education through the glasses of local culture, misinterpretation is inevitable.

5.3 Third Stage: Implementation

In the context of globalisation, when education policies flow globally, “best practices” and “global standards” inevitably penetrate every corner of the world because these “best practices” are usually formulated or promulgated by developed countries and have a powerful effect (Stead, 2012). These so-called “best practices” are often inconsistent with the education systems of developing countries. Therefore, these “best” education policies will inevitably affect most developing countries and even destroy their national education, making these countries become “oppressed” countries (Apple, 2004). Policymakers often justify reform to the public in
practice, and “lessons learned elsewhere” often provide much-needed justification for implementing and accelerating education reform at home. In the implementation stage, adjustment is a specific means of experiential transformation, to adapt to specific cultural background. The complexity and limitations of culture can be a dilemma, and when combined with strong social ideologies, unexpected times can occur. However, logic and practice need to be considered together (Steiner-Khamsi, 2004). Some scholars pointed out that in the implementation stage. From a quantitative point of view, the improvement of experience is the best solution to minimise the external experience and match the local situation, that is, they are proportional. Phillips (2004), key practitioners are the core elements in the implementation process, in terms of learning from the experience of the time. These key people may be the Ministry of Education, the governor of the government or even the local head teacher.

The Chinese government has a “strong conviction” and the “key players” usually carry out their work because they can understand the government’s policy implications (Hongbiao, 2013). For example, the government soon launched the Pilot Program for Compulsory Education Curriculum and the Final Outline of the Senior High School Curriculum (2001-2004). The reform of the compulsory education curriculum was carried out in pilot areas and gradually extended. At the same time, a teacher professional development system combining teaching research and school-based inquiry methods was also introduced. However, China may also be unable to place the foreign features of a particular method, such as SC pedagogy, in a domestic context; Processes are often unbalanced and tend to lean too far in the direction of external solutions, and as a result fail to absorb and adapt what is introduced from the outside (Hongbiao, 2013). Some mathematicians, for example, believe that the direction of NCR has significant destructive deviations. The new curriculum standard has completely abandoned the valuable tradition that secondary education emphasises students to master the basic knowledge and basic skills (Council, 2012). These deviations will lead to confusion and disorder in front-line teaching, which may affect the cultivation of students’ thinking ability and reasoning ability.

5.4 Fourth Stage: Internalisation

Borrowing surpasses copying in that borrowing involves a process of localisation or internalisation (Booth, 2006). The process of improving the education mechanism is that the foreign education mode is accepted and adopted by the country. The education mode and practice process is transferred from the original country to another context (situational), which means that the subject chooses, integrates and creates the policy(Alexiadou, 2014), they can only be contextualised or indigenised into the local system. Basically, there are four aspects that are involved in the process of localisation or internalisation (Phillips & Ochs, 2003). First, borrowed educational policies or practices have an impact on existing institutions or practices. Second, borrowed policies are often further practised and absorbed. At the same time, we should reflect on the problems existing in practice and integrate them into the existing education system. Finally, the borrowed policy is evaluated. Therefore, evaluation and reflection will be the final result, which will help further internalise and adopt the policy.

The assessment of the results or consequences of reform may be the most complex issue, since many different stakeholders affected by the educational change may have different standards, different requirements and different views of such evaluation. In 2005, the Ministry of Education (2005), together with the Central Propaganda Department, the Ministry of Human Resources and the Institute of Social Sciences, organised a year-long nationwide survey. The final report of the national survey noted that the National Reform Commission had brought about a fundamental transformation in school education, resulting in positive and profound changes in teachers’ teaching and students’ learning methods (Yun-peng, 2009). For example, students’ learning motivation is enhanced, the traditional knowledge-based teaching mode is duly changed to a quality-based teaching mode, and teachers’ professional growth is promoted to a large extent. However, it is worth noting that, in addition to SC Pedagogy, other innovative learning methods, such as research-based learning and cooperative learning, are not as satisfactory as mechanical acceptance learning, meaningful acceptance learning and discovery learning. They concluded that these two learning modes have not been fully implemented in NCR (SUN et al., 2011).

6. Discussion

Although in today’s world of education is diversified development trend, but based on the unity of human nature, human society has transcended national, ethnic and the universality of the ideological education of value criterion and experience system, the value of these general principles and experience system can spread between countries, shared with the human society. Although the internal social system is very complex, its close connection and exquisite degree have not reached a very high level, and there is a large space for storing foreign things. The relative independence of education and the relative openness of society constitute the preconditions
for the borrowing of educational policies.

In the context of the combination of NCR and exam-oriented teaching, many principals and teachers are faced with the challenge of combining student-centred teaching with exam-oriented teaching. Moreover, Chinese parents still judge the reputation of principals, teachers and schools based on their school’s test scores rather than student-centred activities (Zhang, 2016). One of the major challenges facing educators relates to the social and cultural implications of test-centred, high-stakes testing (Zhang & Liu, 2014). Examination-oriented education has a long history in China, dating back to civil service exams. One consequence of the exam-centred culture has been a lack of commitment to school-based curricula in schools (Wu, 2013). Many schools, without exception, devote their energies to teaching subjects examined in the national curriculum, rather than school-based subjects that do not fall under the high-stakes test. For example, the strategy adopted by some schools is to rearrange examination courses into elective courses. For example, schools may offer elective courses, such as “Mistakes in the College Entrance Examination”, “Case Study of Composition” and “Small Experiments in Physics”. These electives are remedial courses or advanced courses existing in the national curriculum to prepare students for the exams.

As mentioned before, the school is required to change from the traditional teaching method to a new “student-centred” teaching method which encourages students to be independent, cooperative and inquiring (Tan & Chua, 2015). This new pedagogy is usually premised on the theories and assumptions of constructivism and postmodernism. However, there are two main challenges to adopting these “student-centred” methods: formalism and authoritarianism (Guthrie, 2011). To be specific is to emphasise form rather than substance. All kinds of new ways of learning in the classroom are simple “appearances” without essence. Students only have external activities without inner experience. Formalism inevitably leads to shallow skin and low standards. Binary opposition can be equated with absolutism, which is a complementary way of thinking about problems, which may exclude old issues and advocate new developments. (Tan, 2016).

Then, there is the issue of time constraints for implementing a “student-centred” approach. Students often still do not have enough time to practice their ability to think independently, nor do they have enough opportunities for teachers to truly motivate students to learn on their own. The exam system is still in place, so how the school syllabus matches the student-centred requirements is a long-term challenge (Au, 2011). Many teachers prefer to spend most of their time teaching exam techniques rather than trying novel student-centred methods. As a result, some teacher schools may not be making full use of the equipment and resources available to adopt innovative teaching methods.

It is worth thinking that different countries have the reform the examination system, which may be based on the pilot, or it may be a gradual reform. So the mindset of all stakeholders needs to be in keeping with the changing situation. In policy borrowing, it is impossible to avoid integrating the existing world outlook and values to understand the new curriculum reform. The tensions and challenges described in this study reflect the interplay and conflict between ideologies: the quality-oriented worldview of education advocated by the Republic of Singapore (which emphasises well-rounded, student-centred teaching methods and formative evaluation) and educational stakeholders in China and agreed on test-oriented worldview of education (emphasis on academic development, teacher-centred teaching methods, and summative assessment).

7. Conclusion

As a developing country, it is an objective necessity for China to borrow international educational experience extensively. This process is a process of choosing, filtering, absorbing, merging and creating different educational cultures based on exerting subjective initiative. The era of globalisation of China’s basic education reform is a process of “education consciousness”, need to all practitioners to the gain an understanding of themselves and alien to communicate, to adapt the Chinese education and promote the process of globalisation continues to draw lessons from and absorb the western advanced education theories and methods at the same time, regarding to the user experience of the Chinese traditional education, combining the reality of China, They are actively exploring new ways of education in China.

The NCR did not bring about radical change; On the contrary, in many ways, it reflects what the dynamic and hybrid ideas of traditional education advocate. In the Chinese context, the nation-building function of education, the accountability system and the “cultural script” have created a deep gap between rhetoric and practice, which has changed the western concept of “borrowing”. To borrow sustainably and effectively, it must find resonance with local beliefs and practices, although the “student-centred” pedagogy is more common in western countries. As in traditional Chinese educational thinking, the cultural beliefs of knowledge reproduction and preaching are generally emphasised in a test-driven culture. While Chinese students, teachers, parents, and other stakeholders
all endorse the cultural beliefs and practices discussed—in China (and elsewhere)—there has been an ongoing voice calling for alternative forms of education that emphasise student knowledge building and learner-centred education.

In the process of globalisation, the phenomenon of education policy borrowing becomes more and more common and becomes an increasingly important link in the policy process and policy research. However, at present, the research on the borrowing of educational policy in the field of comparative education has not been in-depth, and the borrowing of educational policy is worthy of continuous development and exploration by relevant researchers in both theoretical and practical aspects.

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