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OPEN EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES IN CHINA: A GOVERNMENTALITY ANALYSIS

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Higher educational reform, governmentality, higher education in China, open educational resources, policy analysis, space, subjectivity.

ABSTRACT

The global phenomenon of the movement to open access resourcing continues to develop and Mainland China has been an active participant in the open educational resources (OER) movement. The OER programmes in China have together prompted encompassing educational reform that introduces various changes to the higher education sector. In light of such changes, this qualitative study adopts a poststructuralist framework centred on the conceptual tool of governmentality to investigate the Chinese OER reform. In particular, the study explores the governing of the OER reform in China and the ways in which the practice of governing changes the conduct of higher education.

An analytical framework of governmentality is employed in this study to investigate the nature of China's OER reform. Based on the analytical framework, a literature review is provided to illustrate the context for the OER reform and a methodological framework is established for analysing the policy processes that have driven the reform. Within the governmentality framework, this qualitative study examines the contextual, textual and implementation issues of the policies developed by the Chinese authorities to steer and implement the OER reform. The analysis reveals the ways through which these policies motivate, mobilise and manage the administrators, providers and receivers of open resources in the reform. The study explores the governmental rationalities and technologies that underpin the governing of these participants. In this way, the study clarifies the different types of power relations exercised through such governance and indicates that the educational, cultural, social and political conditions in China together have contributed to the governing of the OER reform. The study also demonstrates that the resource administrators, resource providers and resource receivers are constituted as particular subjects in the OER reform.

This study is significant as it has offered a critique of the OER movement as a form of governing the education sector in China. It also contributes to the literature available on open educational resources and further develops the application of the governmentality framework in China in a non-Western context.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

<i>2010 Long-term Plan</i>	National Long-term Educational Reform and Development Plan (2010-2020)
<i>2003 Announcement</i>	Announcement by the Ministry of Education about Initiating the Teaching Quality and Teaching Reform Project for Colleges and Universities, the Construction of Quality Open Courseware (2003)
<i>2011 Implementation Opinions</i>	Implementation Opinions about Constructing National Quality Open Courses (2011)
<i>2012 Enforcement Measurement</i>	Enforcement Measurement of Constructing Quality Resource-Sharing Courses (2012)
<i>211 Project</i>	A project of developing about 100 national key universities for the 21 st century
CCP	Chinese Communist Party
CORE	China Open Resources for Education
CRTVU	China Central Radio and Television University
MIT	Massachusetts Institute of Technology
MoE	Ministry of Education (China)
OCW	OpenCourseWare
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
OER	Open educational resources
PRC	People's Republic of China
<i>Quality Project</i>	Project for Reform of Teaching and Improvement of Teaching Quality in Higher Education Institutions
QUT	Queensland University of Technology (Australia)
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organisation

STATEMENT OF ORIGINAL AUTHORSHIP

The work contained in this thesis has not been previously submitted to meet requirements for an award at this or any other higher education institution. To the best of my knowledge and belief, the thesis contains no material previously published or written by another person except where due reference is made.

Signature: 
Juming Shen

Date: 15 July 2013

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

In a small, native-American college, a student is exploring materials about Middle Eastern history that have been digitised and organised into an open collection drawn from the Harvard libraries. A student in India is viewing film and texts describing Martin Luther King's life and examining the parallels with the life of Gandhi, accessed through online resources. A junior from the United States, who is spending spring semester in Israel, contrasts Web-based data from archaeological digs in Turkey with the findings from her own explorations at Hazor (Smiths & Casserly, 2006). In China, students at DW University are watching lecture video recordings and downloading course materials from the website of National Quality Open Courseware.

The above examples are practices of open educational resources (OER) being used by different learners in various contexts and settings. Open educational resources are freely accessible, online resources, openly formatted or openly licensed documents and media that are useful for teaching, learning, education, assessment, and research purposes (OECD, 2007). In Mainland China, a number of programmes have been initiated to open higher educational resources to the public, and the use of OER has brought about a new form of the delivery of higher education. Furthermore, the programmes compose an educational reform that heralds changes to both the education sector and to Chinese society. However, only a few studies have explored this rapidly changing phenomenon.

This study examines the nature of OER reform in China by utilising a governmentality analytical framework. The research question is: *How is China's OER policy reform process governed and in what ways has the practice of governing changed the conduct of higher education in this country?* In order to answer this question, the study employs a qualitative research methodology, as it is considered to be the most suitable approach in seeking to understand and explaining social phenomena (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008; Marshall & Rossman, 2006; Merriam, 1998). By answering the research question, this study provides a better understanding of the unique approach to OER taken in China and how the OER reform affects higher education in China today. This kind of analysis has not been done before.

1.1 Open Educational Resources (OER)

The OER movement was inaugurated by the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT) in the United States in 2001, when their curriculum resources were placed online in order to share intellectual commons in academia. Since then, the movement has been adopted by many nations and institutions worldwide (D'Antoni & Savage, 2009; OECD, 2007; F. D. Wang, 2008; Wiley & Gurrell, 2009). Key OER programmes include Open Learn by the United Kingdom's Open University, OpeER by the Open University of the Netherlands, Multimedia Educational Resource for Learning and Online Teaching (MERLOT) funded by California State University, and OpenCourseWare in Japan. China has been an active and significant participant in the OER movement through implementing the National Quality Open Courseware programme and its subordinate systems and programmes, such as the radio and television university system and the programme of China Open Resources for Education (CORE) (Haklev & Wang, 2012; Wang & Wang, 2010; F. D. Wang, 2008; L. Wang, 2009).

Much of the academic literature on OER suggests that most OER programmes involve three interrelated groups of participants. They are resource administrators, resource providers, and resource receivers. These three groups of participants play different roles in the movement. Resource administrators are institutional administrative departments, educational organisations, or government departments at different levels, which all organise and administer the movement. Resource providers are higher education institutions, their faculties, and individual academics. Resource receivers include learners from various backgrounds (Butcher, 2011; D'Antoni & Savage, 2009; Haklev & Wang, 2012; Wang & Wang, 2010). The OER movement in China involves these three groups as well, and they are examined in this study.

Different perspectives have been adopted in the existing literature that investigates and analyses the nature of the Chinese OER reform process. Some researchers examine the reform measures (Y. Q. Zhao, 2010), some propose reform models and strategies (H. Y. Wang, Li, Huang, & Xu, 2009; D. C. Zhang & Wang, 2008; F. Q. Zhao, 2009), while others compare the OER programmes in China with those in other nations (C. Y. Cai, 2007; Z. H. Tang, 2009; Wang & Wang, 2010; M. J. Wu, 2009). There are also studies that have investigated the accomplishments and problems in the construction of open educational resources in China (S. S. Chen,

2011; Q. L. Lu, H. Sun, Y. Tian, Y. Xie, & S. P. Wei, 2010; Y. G. Wu, 2011) and studies that explore the use of the resources (Jin, 2009; Y. W. Li & Li, 2012; H. C. Liang, 2009; Xie, 2011). However, the scope of these studies is limited, as they focus primarily on the specific dimensions and aspects of the reform, such as pedagogy, teaching technology, or educational management. Little research has been conducted examining the OER movement in terms of its social impacts. Limited examples include the work of Lin (2009), an official in the Ministry of Education (MoE) of the People's Republic of China, who describes the context, objectives, and significance of policies concerning the OER reform and argues that the reform is essential for the further development of higher education in China. Another example is Zhou and Zhang's (2010) assessment of some institutions' performances in this reform. Their study finds that some institutions are deficient in efficiency, equity, accountability, flexibility, and elasticity, which has resulted in the underperformance of their OER programmes. Therefore, Zhou and Zhang argue that institutional innovation and a re-checking system are needed for the sustainable development of an OER programme. Whilst insightful, these studies, I contend, are not sufficient for the conceptualisation and the evaluation of the movement in China, given its recent and rapid progression. Both Lin's, and Zhou and Zhang's studies are limited in that they have not explored the OER programmes at the level of a comprehensive reform; neither have they explored enough the profound changes brought about by such a reform. The current study aims to contribute to research on the Chinese OER movement by conceptualising the movement as an encompassing educational reform that brings wide-ranging changes to China's higher education sector.

1.2 Poststructuralism and Governmentality

This study takes a poststructuralist stance, which is underpinned by a number of key concepts. Poststructuralism contests notions of objectivity and is concerned with the analysis of phenomena as systems associating that such systems have no inherent meaning. It is concerned with the analysis of the discursive formation of discourses of government. Furthermore, it challenges the notion that language is neutral, objective and value-free (Creech, 2000). Poststructuralism is also a reaction against the structuralist claim of a *scientific objectivity* and *universality*. Instead, a poststructuralist approach argues that, in order to understand an object, it is necessary to study both the object itself and the systems of knowledge that produce it (Peters &

Burbules, 2004). In so doing, poststructuralist approaches explore the relationship between language, meaning, and people's behaviour. In this study, the Chinese OER reform is the object to be investigated, and both the reform itself and the production of the reform will be examined.

A large number of educational studies in China are relatively conservative, as most of them are sponsored or funded by the government. Enquiries into educational issues are often conducted from different theoretical perspectives that are broadly positivist, whereby data are foregrounded as 'true' and 'objective' (Peters & Burbules, 2004, p. 1). In contrast to this *scientific* propensity, this study adopts a poststructuralist stance, firstly, for the possibilities offered by its philosophical critique of positivist assumptions and, secondly, for its corrective potential to unpack some unexamined and unreconstructed assumptions about educational reform. Furthermore, a poststructuralist approach is valuable in its ability to suggest alternative perspectives regarding some taken-for-granted practices. A poststructuralist perspective is not a research method, rather, it provides a way of thinking about the world that shapes questions regarding what type of research is relevant, and how some questions are interpreted (Creech, 2000).

Therefore, whilst poststructuralism is considered by some scholars as being "stereotyped as inaccessible and aloof" (Peters & Burbules, 2004, p. 1), an increasing number of researchers in educational scholarship use poststructuralism to inform their work and offer profound insights into educational issues, as well as to suggest more critical approaches to investigate contemporary educational reforms. In the present study, the Chinese OER movement as an educational reform is investigated and the changes that it prompts to China's education sector are examined through a poststructuralist lens that is centred on the conceptual tool of *governmentality*.

Governmentality is described as one of the most effective and developed poststructuralist approaches to undertake social inquiries (Peters, 2001; Peters & Burbules, 2004; Peters & Wain, 2002). In broad terms, governmentality is concerned with the creation and constraint of the *subject* as a particular agent and the target of the exercise of power, as well as with the distribution and flow of power. Governmentality assumes the potential and productive nature of power and operates through the bodies of citizens as it shapes and guides the *conduct of conduct*, which means the management or regulation of practices and behaviours. According to the

French philosopher, Michel Foucault (1982), government does not simply signify a monolithic state and its political apparatus, but refers to much broader contexts. Government is the “conduct of conduct” (Foucault, 1982, p. 220); that is, it is the government’s calculated means of directing an individual’s or a group’s behaviour or actions. In this study, the term of *government* is used to refer to both the political entities and the directions of behaviour or actions, in a broad sense.

With such a broad conceptualisation of government, Foucault defined the term governmentality as the *art of government*, with three interrelated tiers. Firstly, governmentality is the consequence of a particular form of power. That is, governmentality is a result of exercises of power, such as authoritarian power or pastoral power. Secondly, governmentality is the ensemble formed by the institutions, procedures, analyses, and reflections, as well as by the calculations and tactics, such as auditing and benchmarking, that allow the exercise of the various types of power. Such forms of power have intended subjects together with forms of knowledge and apparatuses to facilitate their exercise. Thirdly, governmentality, for Foucault, is the result of transformations within states, such as the transformation of justice during the Middle Ages into an administrative apparatus during the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries (Foucault, 2000b). Foucault defined this form of governmentality as the process through which a form of government with specific ends, means to these ends, and a particular type of knowledge to achieve these ends evolved from a medieval state of justice to a modern administrative state with complex bureaucracies. With specific reference to the current study, China’s OER reform can be viewed as such a transformation in its education sector.

Miller and Rose (2008; 1992) developed Foucault’s concept of governmentality by teasing out two aspects—*rationalities* of government and *technologies* of government. They claim that an analysis of activities of government must be based on the assessment of “the complex of mundane programmes, calculations, techniques, apparatuses, documents, and procedures through which authorities seek to embody and give effect to government ambitions” (Rose & Miller, 1992, p. 75). Rationalities of government, or governmental rationalities, refer to the styles of thinking or methods of rendering reality thinkable in a manner that provides convenience for technological intervention, which, in the current study, are the policies and directives developed by government to address and implement the OER

reform. Governmental technologies are the methods of acting on the conduct of individuals through technical interventions, so as to transform that conduct for the convenience of governing (Miller & Rose, 2008; Rose & Miller, 2010). In this study, such technologies refer to the strategies and mechanisms that mobilise, motivate, and manage the participants in the OER reform. Therefore, for the purpose of this research, governmentality can be conceptualised as an integration of the knowledge about governing, as well as the mechanisms and strategies used to realise such governing. Moreover, the governmentality framework is used to offer a critique of the OER reform and, in this study, the critique is offered in line with Foucault's understanding, that is, a critique in governmentality analysis is not for prescription, but for clarifying and revealing the exercise of power relations and the constitution of subjects at different levels (Foucault, 1991b, p. 78)

1.3 A Governmentality Movement from West to East

A major challenge with adopting the concepts embedded in earlier work on governmentality is that many of the terms and concepts originate in so-called *Western* nations. This scholarship conceptualises China's contemporary higher education policies as responses to Western influences (R. Yang, 2011). For the purpose of the current study, the Western world is used as a political term representing some discourses or practices from cultures or countries outside of China that have influenced the Chinese OER reform. From a poststructuralist perspective, the West is a discourse invented and constructed by political authorities to promote their values and beliefs, such as neoliberal policies (Bhattacharya, 2011; Said, 2003). However, the Western world is "geographically unstable, arbitrary, and shifting", as its categorisation is based on the criteria of "race, linguistic background, and socio-economic status" (Bhattacharya, 2011, pp. 182-183). Currently, key members of the Western world include countries such as the United Kingdom, the United States of America, Australia and the European Union. Some contend that Western societies are differentiated from the rest of the world by politicians, educators, and the media through assumptions about their superior status in terms of civilisation and that, by contrast, the Eastern or oriental world is often associated with barbarity and inferiority (Bhattacharya, 2011). Similarly, the Orient is envisaged as being the recipient of values and policies disseminated by the West and it is a discourse

constituted by the administrative power of the West to “govern over the Orient” (Said, 2003, p. 95).

In some Western scholarships, China has been constructed as a traditional Eastern country that receives much influence from the Western world (Greenhalgh & Winckler, 2005; S. J. He & Wu, 2009; Norcliffe, 2010; J. Yang, 2011). In terms of governmentality research, a key topic about Western society itself, or its influence on the rest of the world, including China, is *neoliberalism* or *neoliberal government* (Kipnis, 2008; Peters, 2001; Varman, Saha, & Skálén, 2011). According to Nikolas Rose (1996a, 1996b), a key figure in governmentality studies, neoliberalism is comprised of three essential foci: governing from a distance, calculability, and the promotion of self-activating, disciplined and individuated subjects. Olssen (2003) deconstructs this notion further by explaining that neoliberal policies are composed of the discourses and practices of a modern political economy that seeks to obtain indirect control of economic activities through regulating the free market. Rose’s and Olssen’s definitions suggest that neoliberal governmental rationalities emphasise minimal government intervention in public spheres, such as business, education, and health, and neoliberalism advocates for *governance without government*, in which individuals are constituted as subjects who are responsible for their behaviours and conduct their activities for their own benefits (Mok, 2004). These explanations of neoliberalism are important, because some scholars argue that China is undergoing a neoliberalising process; they contend that China is learning from Western neoliberal policies extensively (Bray, 2005, 2009; Dutton, 2009; Harwood, 2009).

However, such claims about the neoliberalisation of China are contested. Nonini (2008, p. 145) argues that “contemporary China is not becoming ‘neoliberal’ in either a strong or a weak sense, nor is it undergoing a process of neoliberalisation”. Instead, Nonini insists that China has emerged as an oligarchic, corporate state with a party whose legitimacy is sometimes challenged by disenfranchised classes, but is still in control through its efforts of modernisation (Nonini, 2008). A number of scholars argue that the government in China is more authoritarian than neoliberal (Jefferys & Sigley, 2009; L. Ma, 2009; Pei, 2008, p. 46; Sigley, 2006). Here, authoritarianism refers to totalitarian governance and non-democratic regimes. In a traditional view of an authoritarian government, the citizenry is required to hold strict adherence to the views of government; criticism is not allowed and censorship of

speech and the press is the norm (Sullivan, Johnson, Calkins, & Terry, 2009). In China, authoritarianism is manifested mainly in the process of decision making and the procedures for the decisions to be operated in reality; that is, key decisions in China are mostly made by the top political leaders and quickly enforced nationwide (L. Ma, 2009).

The concepts of neoliberalism and authoritarianism are significant to this study and are detailed further in Chapter Two. However, three points should be noted about the use of the concepts in this study. Firstly, this study is not designed to confirm or deny that China has a neoliberal or authoritarian ideology that directs its governmental practices. Instead, as a poststructuralist study, this research is not restricted by any existing arguments about China. The governmentality framework is adopted, which is open and enables the exploration of the different forms or power relations. Secondly, when some of the OER reform practices are referred to as having neoliberal or authoritarian features, it is done because such labels can indicate the characteristics of the power relations exercised in the reform. They are not used in terms of their ideological ideals. Moreover, as will be detailed in Chapter Two, the distinction between neoliberal and authoritarian is questionable, as scholars argue that practices widely accepted as neoliberal are actually specific forms of authoritarian governance (Dean, 1999, 2002; Hindess, 1996), but, in this study, the terms of neoliberal and authoritarian are used with clearly differentiated references. They refer to the mechanisms and strategies that operate through freedom at a distance as neoliberal, and the various forms of direct interventions as authoritarian governance. In this way, this study explores the complex ways in which power relations are exercised in Chinese OER reform. This contributes to understanding the governmentality of the reform, as well as the ways that the reform affects the participants.

In addition, it is important to identify the authorities in a governmentality analysis, as their governmental thoughts underpin governmental rationalities and technologies (Miller & Rose, 2008). In this study of Chinese OER reform, the notion of authorities or political authorities refers to China's central government leaders, who exert the overarching influences that drive reform. Their concerns and directives about educational development are interpreted into policy processes for the reform. The central government leaders in China, as governmental authorities, are both the

source and the makers of the policies. The identities of the authorities in Chinese OER reform will be further explored in Chapter Five.

The existing literature demonstrates that educational reform can be taken as a site for governmentality analyses and a number of studies have applied the governmentality framework to examine the nature of educational reforms. Although the majority of the studies are set in Western societies, governmentality is adopted by some researchers in studies of non-Western contexts as well, and China is an increasingly popular focus for such research for its unique political, cultural, and social conditions. For example, Sigley (2006, p. 489) explores Chinese governmentality by examining the political conditions and transitions since the 1970s and argues that China's governmentality is embedded in its unique social, cultural, and historical contexts. He concludes that China is not adopting a neoliberal form of governmentality, as some historians might suggest. Kipnis's (2011) study also explores Chinese governmentality by investigating the detailed governing processes in a particular county in China. His findings support his contention that China's governmentality is neither purely neoliberal, nor totally authoritarian in its accountability regime, rather, it is an integration of different forms of governing. Hoffman (2006) examines the integration of neoliberal governmentality and Chinese nationalism in the contemporary reforms, which produce a new form of nationalism that intertwines autonomous decisions, social responsibility and patriotism, and economic competitiveness. Hoffman (2006, p.17) named such an intertwined form of nationalism as "patriotic professionalism". Hoffman's findings further suggest that Chinese governmentality cannot be simply categorised as neoliberal or authoritarian. Instead, Chinese governmentality is embedded in its contemporary political, cultural, and social conditions.

However, these studies provide a mere snapshot of the broad, complicated, and rapidly, ever-changing, Chinese context. Moreover, as most of these researchers are overseas scholars, their understanding of the Chinese context of governmentality may differ from that of Chinese scholars. Therefore, this study contributes to this literature by further developing the application of the governmentality framework in the Chinese context from the perspective of a Chinese scholar.

1.4 This Qualitative Study: A Governmentality Analysis of Chinese OER Reform

Given that I am a researcher born and educated in China, this investigation of the OER reform in China is prompted by a desire to understand and reveal more adequately the governmental terrain of this educational reform. Like many researchers, I am both sceptical and concerned about the changes taking place in China's higher education sector, and I argue for an improved understanding of the educational conditions under which Chinese people are learning. As a scholar, I hope that this study provides deeper insights and a further understanding of the significance of the OER reform in China. Therefore, this study adopts a qualitative research methodology that involves an interpretative, naturalistic approach to the world, which enables the study of things in their natural settings and attempts to make sense of, or interpret, phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008, p. 4). In other words, my research aim is in line with the purpose of a qualitative study in offering critiques of a taken-for-granted, social phenomenon. By conducting a governmentality analysis of the Chinese OER movement, this study offers a critique of the OER reform that clarifies and reveals the exercise of power relations and constitution of subjects at different levels.

This qualitative study employs the analytical framework of governmentality, as it "makes fundamental connections between the interrelationship of society and individual conduct" (Foucault, 2000b, p. 202). Governmentality has been developed and utilised to investigate the 'conduct' of political authorities on the 'conduct' of individuals, such as in religious (Rose, O'Malley, & Valverde, 2006), economic (Larner & Walters, 2004), and educational activities (Jefferys & Sigley, 2009; Kipnis, 2008, 2011). This analysis focuses on the OER reform in China as being a reform in the education sector, and it explores the changes to the participants in the reform. The analytic focus in this study is on the practices, techniques, tactics, and habits within complex and competing actions and relations between those seeking to exercise control and those subject to such control.

According to Creswell (2012), in a qualitative study, there are six steps in the process of analysing and interpreting data:

1. preparing and organising data for analysis,
2. exploring and coding that data,

3. coding to build description and themes,
4. representing and reporting qualitative findings,
5. interpreting the findings, and
6. validating the accuracy of the findings.

In this study, the analytics of Chinese OER reform, as a realm of government, is conducted through such a process of qualitative research as well.

First, all of the publicly-available policy documents related to the OER reform were collected and semi-structured interviews were conducted in a selected Chinese university to collect data about implementation problems of the OER programmes. Second, the data collected were explored and information related to this study was identified. Three categories of information were coded according to the analytical framework of governmentality, that is, the participants involved in the reform, the governmental rationales underpinning the governing of these participants, and the mechanisms and strategies adopted to realise such governing. Third, with the conceptual tools of the governmentality framework (Miller & Rose, 2008), the detailed themes of the governmental rationalities were further explored and the different types of governmental technologies were identified. Fourth, the findings were presented through discussions, by themes that centred on the governing of resource administrators, resource providers, and resource receivers as participants in the reform, respectively. Fifth, interpretations of the findings were made by elaborating the exercise of power relations at different levels in the Chinese OER reform and the constitution of subjects through these power relations was explored. Sixth, the accuracy of the study is validated as different data sources were integrated. Both policy documents and interview data were collected, and the interviewees included both academics and administrative staff. Much extra information from news reports, statistic reports, and relevant literature was also collected. The interrogation and corroborate of such multiple sources enhances the accuracy of the research. The following section details the research questions and aims. The following section details the research questions and aims.

1.5 Research Aim and Questions

This research aims to conduct a governmentality analysis of the reform of open educational resources (OER) in China, with the principal research question: *How is*

China's OER policy reform process governed and in what ways has the practice of governing changed the conduct of higher education in this country? As the existing research demonstrates that the OER movement involves three key participant groups, namely, resource administrators, resource providers, and resource receivers (Butcher, 2011; D'Antoni & Savage, 2009; Haklev & Wang, 2012; Wang & Wang, 2010), and the reform has been largely enacted by educational policies (Ministry of Education, 2003b, 2003d, 2007b, 2011a, 2012a), the principal research question can be broken down into three subordinate research questions:

1. How do the policies concerning the reform of open educational resources in China direct and manage the resource administrators and their administrative activities?
2. How do the policies concerning the reform of open educational resources in China regulate and motivate the resource providers and their provision of open educational resources?
3. How do the policies concerning the reform of open educational resources in China constitute and shape the resource receivers and their learning activities?

These research questions are raised and discussed within the analytical framework of governmentality. The study unfolds by addressing these questions through identifying the resource administrators, providers, and receivers involved in the reform, examining the detailed governing of these participating members, and elaborating the exercise of power relations at each level. The following section explains the significance of this study.

1.6 Significance of the Study

This qualitative study is significant for three reasons. Firstly, the OER reform is one of the most important reform agendas in China's education sector that underpins its broad social and economic development. Since the late 1970s, China's higher education sector has been expanding and developing rapidly. The strategy of *Ke Jiao Xing Guo* (rejuvenating the nation through science and education), which was established in 1996, has positioned education as an essential driver for national development. This study explores the complex ways in which the changes brought about by the OER movement can be conceptualised as part of the reform agenda.

Further, this study highlights the changes to higher educational activities brought about by the reform, the relations adjusted or re-established between individual learners, education institutions, and governmental authorities through the reform, and the concepts and practices of teaching and learning advocated in the reform.

Secondly, this study employs the analytical framework of governmentality to examine the Chinese OER reform. Such an approach has not been used before. Specifically, the governmental rationalities and technologies that underpin this reform are explored. Adopting this framework offers a poststructuralist critique into China's higher education sector. This governmentality critique explores the governmental meta-narratives, and disassembles the structures and strategies of official discourses for the OER reform. In this way, this study is an endeavour to enrich the literature about the exercise of power relations in the OER reform and clarifies the constitution of particular subjects in the reform.

Finally, this study contributes to the literature of the open educational resources movement. As noted at the beginning of this chapter, the OER reform attracts an increasing number of scholars from a variety of academic backgrounds worldwide. This study contributes to this literature by offering a description of the OER reform in China, which has specific features and operational systems unique to that nation. Applying the governmentality framework to the analysis of an educational reform in China also contributes to the literature of governmentality studies in non-Western, educational contexts.

1.7 Researcher Identity

It is important for a researcher to be aware of his or her identity in the research process and how this identity might influence the research process (Bae, 2005; Elliott, 2005). A researcher's experience and knowledge background contribute to decision making about the research subjects, the interpretation of the research evidence, and the research presentation (Elliott, 2005). Therefore, researcher identity is an important consideration for a particular study. Here I reflect upon my experience, knowledge, interests and responsibilities that have brought me to the present study.

My educational experience was typical of the majority of Chinese students. The education sector through which I received my education was shaped by the principle of achieving a bright future through study. Although the interpretation of a

bright future as my educational desire was not defined clearly, and changed from time to time, it has driven me throughout the different stages of study, from primary school to the PhD programme. Moreover, this principle was advocated by parents, teachers, and a range of social and political authorities. For example, parents may advise, require, or even force their children to enrol in particular subject majors, with the assumption that such majors could contribute to their child's bright future. Understandably, a bright future was conceptualised in terms of a profession that might secure stable employment prospects.

Most of the courses I enrolled in during my undergraduate period were basic language courses that were designed to cultivate professional users of English, such as translators, interpreters, and communicators, for business negotiations. These courses were designed to help students to obtain employment after graduation. However, in the final year of my undergraduate study, a professor influenced me and prompted me to pursue an academic career. He introduced me to many concepts of English literature and linguistics studies, and proposed that doing academic research was a way of contributing to the development of human society, which can also be envisaged as contributing to a bright future.

After achieving my Bachelor's degree, I decided to study for a Master's degree, because I thought that working as an academic would bring me a 'bright future'. Three years' study saw my growth as a researcher. However, it was also suggested by my supervisors and teachers that, to become a professional researcher, a Master's degree was far from enough. Therefore, I started to seek opportunities to study for a PhD degree. Whilst there were options to pursue a doctoral degree in China, I was more attracted by the China Scholarship Council that sponsors students to pursue doctoral studies abroad and, in August 2010, I enrolled as a doctoral student at the Faculty of Education, Queensland University of Technology in Australia.

With the help of Associate Professor Cushla Kapitzke and Doctor Weihong Zhang, I decided to focus my study on open educational resources in China, as this is a highly significant educational reform in China's higher education sector. Moreover, whilst China's higher education is developing rapidly, there are still some unresolved problems within the education system. As a product and potential employee of China's education system, my goal was to gain an in-depth understanding of the

changes to the education system that were brought by the OER movement through a doctoral study.

Discovering poststructuralism was a significant turning point for my intellectual journey. According to Peters (2004), poststructuralist theory is committed to a critique of dominant institutions and modes of speaking, thinking, and writing. When I gained a better understanding of governmentality as a poststructuralist approach, I also developed greater insights into the nature of my own educational experiences. This conceptual tool helped me to understand that I had been governed by the various authorities throughout my educational experiences. I used to think that every decision I made about my study was totally based on my own desire for a bright future through education, but then I realised that such educational desire was a result of governance.

For example, *Gao Kao* was adopted by the Chinese government as a strategy to admit or deny students into higher education. Concomitantly, *Gao Kao* is significant because entering a key university aligns with the traditional, Confucian notion that education is the path to becoming an official with high social status, which was considered to be a bright future by ancient Chinese people. In contemporary China, this value is interpreted in terms of the opportunities to study at prestigious universities, securing stable professional employment, and ensuring a prosperous future. Therefore, my desire for a bright future was shaped into the desire of entering higher education through *Gao Kao*, achieving a Master's degree, and enrolling in a doctoral programme. Moreover, I reflected on my educational experiences and found that I had grown up with some commonly held beliefs, such as 'students should work hard to go to first-class universities', 'students should work hard to be top students', 'top students should continue with their study as much as possible', and 'students should study well so as to contribute to the development of the country in the future'. These assumptions had been advocated and naturalised in my mind by various authorities, such as political leaders, social media, my parents, and various types of authorities. My pursuit of a doctoral degree in Australia was also a result or consequence of government policies. The China Scholarship Council encouraged and sponsored students to study for doctoral degrees in overseas, first-class universities and required these students to return to China after achieving the degree. My desire to work as an academic researcher for a bright future was manipulated again.

Realising that I am the product of Chinese educational policies led me to the decision to investigate education in China with a poststructuralist approach. As the reform of open educational resources is an extensive educational reform taking place in China at present, I was cognisant that the reform process would bring about changes to the governing of the higher education sector and, hence, the governing of Chinese society. Taking a poststructuralist stance would allow me to examine the Chinese government from a more critical point of view. This point of view differs from many existing policy studies in China in terms of its deconstructive critique. Moreover, in contrast to poststructuralist scholars in Western societies, who have studied Chinese context from the *outside*, I am, myself, a product of the education system in China and my educational experience has provided me with insights from the *inside*. With the theoretical knowledge that I acquired in Australia, I am able to offer a more comprehensive and nuanced critique of the OER movement in Chinese higher education.

The above self-reflection indicates the relationships between my educational experience, the theoretical knowledge that I have acquired after commencing my doctoral journey, and the present research. As a researcher ‘made in China’ and conducting research about China at a Western university, I have assumed my responsibility of offering insights into what is happening *in* China. The experience, knowledge, and responsibility together have framed my researcher identity, which has, in turn, shaped and influenced this study.

1.8 Overview of this Thesis

This thesis consists of eight chapters. This chapter has provided an introduction to the study.

Chapter Two outlines the analytical framework of the research from three perspectives. Firstly, I elaborate on the detailed framework of a governmentality analysis and conceptualise Chinese OER reform in this context. Secondly, the application of governmentality in various educational contexts, including the Chinese context, is reviewed to illustrate the feasibility, uniqueness, and appropriateness of conducting a governmentality analysis of Chinese OER reform. Thirdly, a detailed governmentality approach to examining the reform is presented. This approach focuses on an examination of governmental rationalities, governmental technologies,

and the constitution of subjectivities through analyses of the governmental programmes.

Chapter Three provides a review of the relevant literature. Based on the theoretical framework, the literature review first focuses on the governing of education in Chinese history and the key educational reforming trends that have impacted the contemporary education sector and Chinese society. These impacts and changes have contextualised the Chinese OER movement. The second perspective of the reviewed literature covers the open educational resources movement, both in other countries and in China, to illustrate the operational principles and modes of the movement. The principles and modes of Chinese OER programmes have incorporated governmental rationalities and technologies. Chapter Three also reviews existing studies of Chinese OER reform to demonstrate the gap to which this study contributes.

Chapter Four introduces the methodological framework of this study and describes the qualitative research process. The methodology of policy analysis is informed by, and used within, the analytical framework of governmentality to enquire into OER reform in China. The methodological framework of this study is centred on policy analysis, with an acknowledgement that policy is both process and product, and involves contextual, textual, and implementation issues. Policy documents and interview data are both collected for the investigation of the policies and policy processes that embed governmental rationalities and technologies.

In Chapters Five, Six, and Seven, the findings of this study are presented. Through an examination of the policy processes that have driven the reform agenda, Chapter Five identifies the authorities, who are the participants governed in Chinese OER reform, as governors, resource administrators, providers, and receivers. Chapter Five also discusses the governing of resource administrators in the Chinese OER reform. Through an examination of the production and modification of policies at the central level and their implementation at the local level, the rationalities and technologies that underpin the governing of the administrators involved in the reform are outlined. The analysis indicates that the governing of resource administrators in the Chinese OER reform contributes to a centralised reform in the context of educational decentralisation. The finding suggests that the exercise of power relations in governing the resource administrators in the OER reform has

authoritarian features. Facilitated by the policy prescriptions and the administrative system, such power relations constitute and manipulate the resource administrators as docile and obedient subjects in order to implement the reform actively.

Chapter Six discusses the governing of resource providers. The political rationalities underpinning the governing of higher education institutions and their academics as being resource providers fall into two key themes, namely improving higher education quality and higher educational equity. The two themes further incorporate a number of detailed sub-themes. A variety of governmental technologies are employed to realise the rationalities, including enhancing the resource providers to develop and share high-quality educational resources, using auditing systems, and funding and rewarding the resource providers. This analysis of rationalities and technologies demonstrates that the governing of resource providers integrates both centralised and decentralised forms of governance. The power relations exercised in such governance have both authoritarian and neoliberal characteristics. Resource providers are made obedient in following the directives of the authorities and being enterprising in fulfilling their own goals, such as career development, achieving funds, or winning awards.

Chapter Seven focuses on the governing of resource receivers in the reform. Resource receivers include various types of learners in China. Different from governing the resource administrators and the resource providers, the governing of these learners relies less on direct governmental interventions. Through the conceptual tool of space, the indirect forms of governing exerted on the resource receivers are examined and the rationalities and technologies embedded in such governance are explored. I find that the OER reform in China is designed to govern receivers and to constitute them as lifelong, autonomous, and innovative learners, by manipulating their educational desire.

Chapter Eight concludes the study by summarising the key findings from the governmentality analysis of the OER reform in China and discusses the interrelations between the governing of resource administrators, resource providers, and resource receivers to present the overall governmentality of the Chinese OER reform. Following this, I discuss the implications, limitations, and suggestions for further study. The thesis concludes with a discussion of the critique offered in this study.

1.9 Chapter Summary

Chapter One provided an introduction to the thesis. It articulated my poststructuralist stance and explained why an analytical framework centring on governmentality was employed for the analysis of the policies of the OER reform movement in China as it undergoes wide ranging educational reform. The research aim was specified, together with the study's principal research question and three sub-questions concerning the governing of resource administrators, resource providers, and resource receivers, and key terms were identified. In this chapter, I also positioned myself in the study as a Chinese scholar seeking to offer an insider's perspective of the OER reform process in China. I argued that the study is significant in revealing the political rationalities and governmental technologies underpinning the OER reform process at three different levels, and I provide an overview of a critique of this reform. The next chapter outlines the analytical framework for this study.

CHAPTER TWO: ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Introduction

Chapter One established that the open educational resources (OER) movement is one of the most important, ongoing, educational reforms in China, and this study is aimed at investigating the changes to the education sector brought about by the reform. This chapter articulates the study's analytical framework, which is based on the contention that education is not simply that which goes on in schools, but it is an essential part of governmentality and a crucial aspect of the regulatory practices of a range of institutions; that is, education secures forms of governing and social discipline (Hoskin, 1990; Usher & Edwards, 1994). In China, education is both a metaphor for governing and a tool of governing, and Chinese government leaders tend to rely on education for economic and social development (Bakken, 2000). The national strategy of *rejuvenating the nation through science and education* enables the higher education sector to be increasingly supportive of national development (J. Zhou, 2006).

A poststructuralist stance is adopted for the analytical framework of this study. As noted in Chapter One, poststructuralism is different from most research on education issues today, which “tend to be relatively conservative ... [and] imbued with the positivist ethos” (Peters & Burbules, 2004, p. 4). Instead, it is critical of the scientific pretensions of social enquiries, which are often labelled as *truth*, *objectivity*, and *progress* (Peters & Burbules, 2004). Poststructuralism adopts an anti-epistemological, anti-foundationalist, and anti-realist position to foreground a many-sided perspectivism. That is, poststructuralism aims to expose any structures of domination by diagnosing the power and/or knowledge relations and their manifestations in different forms. In China, education is adopted by the political authorities as a key strategy of rejuvenating the nation and various educational reforms, such as OER, are carried out in the name of educational development. However, from the viewpoint of poststructuralism, little critique has been offered to these reforms in terms of whether or how they rejuvenate the nation, which is a key motivation for the conduct of this study.

The analytical framework of this study is outlined through three interrelated parts. Firstly, the OER reform is conceptualised from the perspective of a

governmentality analysis. Such a conceptualisation is achieved through expounding the concepts of government, governmentality, and governmentality analysis, which, together, illustrate and explain education as a form of government. Secondly, some existing research of governmentality analysis is compared in different contexts in order to illustrate its applicability to the present study. These studies indicate the differences between conducting governmentality analyses in Western and non-Western contexts, whilst also noting that some non-Western contexts are related to Chinese reforms (Jefferys & Sigley, 2009; Kipnis, 2011; L. Ma, 2009; Sigley, 2006). These studies also demonstrate the significance and feasibility of conducting a governmentality analysis of the Chinese OER reform, and they indicate a framework for adapting a governmentality analysis for this study. Thirdly, the approach to applying a governmentality perspective, as the means of examining the OER reform, is outlined. This approach is composed of a process described as the *analytics of government*, which embeds detailed conceptual tools, such as governmental rationalities, governmental technologies, and the concepts of space and subject. This chapter concludes by describing the benefits of utilising an analytical framework centred on governmentality for the current research.

It is important to note that the analytical framework outlined in this chapter does not comprise a *Foucauldian* framework. Although it was Foucault (1982) who first introduced the concept of governmentality, this conceptual tool has been developed, expanded, interpreted, and reinterpreted in various ways. For example: Dean (1999, 2010) applied governmentality to examine the nature of some reforms in neoliberal societies; Miller and Rose (Miller & Rose, 2008; Rose, 1999a; Rose et al., 2006) established an analytical framework of governmentality to investigate the economic, social, and political issues in modern welfare societies; and Sigley and Jefferys (2006, 2009) applied a governmentality framework to the Chinese context. This body of work contributes to the development of governmentality studies, and the analytical framework of the present research is informed by these studies.

Foucault's (1981; 2000b) introduction and use of governmentality cannot be separated from the social and historical context in which he wrote, and his arguments were closely connected to political movements in European history in the late twentieth century (Dean, 1999). Moreover, unlike individuals who constructed grand theories, Foucault denied that he was offering any overall theory of the social world.

Instead, he insisted that intellectuals, such as himself, should provide instruments and tools for others to use, rather than expound ‘the truth’ (Kritzman, 1988, p.197). Therefore, researchers with various intellectual and political positions, theoretical arguments, and value orientations have derived viewpoints and arguments from Foucault’s studies of governmentality.

The analytical framework, as outlined in the following sections of this chapter, draws heavily from Dean (1999), Miller and Rose (2008), Sigley (2006; 2009), and Kipnis (2008, 2011). Whilst related to Foucault’s own work, these individuals are not *Foucault scholars*, neither do they adopt a Foucauldian stance (Dean, 1999; Miller & Rose, 2008). Therefore, this research is not a Foucauldian study either; rather, the analytical framework used represents an integration of various governmentality studies with and without relation to Foucault.

2.2 The Perspective of a Governmentality Analysis

A number of scholars have provided explanations of governmentality. Rose (2006, p. 85) states that governmentality is “far from a theory of power, authority, or even of governance”, and argues that it does not constitute a closed theoretical framework, and that it is, in fact, an analytical perspective. For Dean (1999), a governmentality analysis is a kind of diagnosis to elucidate how the practices of government might be done differently, by unravelling the naturalness and taken-for-granted character of these practices. He contends that governmentality can be used as a conceptual tool to problematise the normatively accepted accounts of the state, by deconstructing its various inconsistent practices and components. These contentions provide the guidelines for conceptualising Chinese OER reform from the perspective of a governmentality analysis. The following two paragraphs articulate this conceptualisation through the perceptions of government and governmentality in investigating the OER reform in China.

According to Foucault (1997), government is “an activity that undertakes to conduct individuals throughout their lives by placing them under the authority of a guide responsible for what they do and for what happens to them” (p. 68), and governmentality is “understood in the broad sense of techniques and procedures for directing human behaviour” (p. 82). Foucault used these concepts for the analysis that he offered, by way of historical reconstructions concerning a particular period of

time, from ancient Greece through to modern neoliberalism (Foucault, 1997). Following on from Foucault's original work, these concepts and approaches have been developed, expanded, and re-interpreted in various ways (Rose et al., 2006).

Moreover, according to Rizvi and Lingard (2010), governmental programmes and activities are not only informed by particular policies, but can also be viewed as policy implementation or interpretation. The OER reform in China involves various policies that were developed and issued by political authorities, educational departments, and institutions (Ministry of Education, 2003b, 2003d, 2007b, 2011a, 2012a). These policies have been essential to the programmes and activities of open educational resources at different levels. Therefore, the core part of an investigation into the OER reform in China is an analysis of the policies related to this reform. The details of policy analysis and its application in the present research, with regard to the Chinese context and governmentality framework, are discussed further in Chapter Four. This section (section 2.2) has integrated and continues to integrate the different elucidations of the concepts of governmentality to conceptualise the Chinese OER movement from the perspective of a governmentality analysis.

2.2.1 Government

While *government* signifies a monolithic state and its political apparatus today, Foucault showed that such a conception could be problematised and placed in a broader and encompassing context. For Foucault, government was a term discussed not only in terms of political tracts, but also in philosophical, religious, medical, and pedagogic texts. Government was the “conduct of conduct” (Foucault, 1982, p. 220; Gordon, 1991, p. 2), that is, any calculated means of directing how individuals behave and act. Foucault (1982, p. 790) expounded on this concept:

‘Government’ did not refer only to political constructs or to the management of states; rather it designated the way in which the conduct of individuals or of groups might be directed: the government of children, of souls, of communities, of families, of the sick. It did not only cover the legitimately constituted forms of political or economic subjection but also modes of action, more or less considered or calculated, which were destined to act upon the possibilities of action of other people. To govern, in this sense, is to structure the possibilities of action of other people.

Therefore, for Foucault, the notion of government refers to attempts to direct individuals or groups and shape their behaviours or actions with deliberation or a particular rationale. Such managerial techniques and regulations are not necessarily defined in terms of the political government, and the political government can be just one of the elements in the multiple webs of shaping, guiding, and moulding of the conducts of individuals, groups, or societies. Dean (1999, p. 11) expands the concept of government as:

Government is any more or less calculated rational activity, undertaken by a multiplicity of authorities and agencies, employing a variety of techniques and forms of knowledge, that seeks to shape conduct by working through our desires, aspirations, interests and beliefs, for definite but shifting ends and with a diverse set of relatively unpredictable consequences, effects and outcomes.

In other words, Dean considers (1998, p. 9) the notion of government not as “a definite and uniform group of institutions”, but as an “inventive, strategic, technical and artful set of ‘assemblages’ fashioned from diverse elements”. Such assemblages are integrated in specific ways and “rationalised in relation to governmental objectives and goals” and government “exists in the medium of thought, of mentalities and rationalities of government” (Dean, 1998, p. 9). Here thought, or *thought of government*, refers to the discursive formation of the discourses of governing (Dean, 1999).

These definitions provide an understanding of the notion of government different to that suggested by the term *political government*. Indeed, such definitions generate four aspects of government: Firstly, government is a form of activity undertaken by a type of agent. Secondly, this activity is undertaken with forms of knowledge, techniques, or other instrumental means. Thirdly, there are targeted entities of the activity. Finally, the activity results in some consequences or effects.

The notion of government also implies that, when the activities are undertaken, it is presupposed that these activities *can* be taken. That is, the conduct of individuals or groups can be managed, regulated, shaped, or controlled. This presupposition is derived from implicit notions or assumption about how things are, how they could be, and how they ought to be. Such thoughts can be for the benefit of others, such as the authorities’ concerns for its citizens. They can also focus on the self—how the self is, how the self could be, and how the self ought to be (Dean, 1995, 1999; Miller &

Rose, 1990, 2008). Accordingly, it can be argued that there are two forms of governing—governing others and governing the self.

Such a broadened notion of government indicates that education can operate as a form of government because it is a system concerned with directing the behaviour and developing the capacities of individuals (Goddard, 2009). In most nations, there are a large number of government departments, institutions, schools, and other educational organisations responsible for conducting various educational programmes and activities. These educational programmes and activities are usually undertaken on the basis of certain forms of knowledge and techniques. That is, education is often engaged in the task of constituting the kinds of individuals required by the social system. For example, governmental work in education may consist of shaping civil and productive members of society. Such citizenry has the capacity to sustain the given social order and to secure the nation's economic prosperity and civil cohesiveness, which, in turn, renders a population governable (Goddard, 2009). The population targeted by educational programmes not only includes students at all levels, but also all other citizens directly or indirectly related to education, such as parents of students and all sorts of employees in the production of education (Kipnis, 2011). Therefore, education is a form of government, forming and transforming the governed citizenry.

Accordingly, OER reform in China can be understood to be a practice of governing; that is, Chinese authorities, acting as the agents of governing, undertake this reform through various activities under the theme of *reform and development*, which rationalises the reform for the development of the nation. Moreover, this process involves resource administrators, resource providers, and resource receivers as targets of governing in order to achieve changes to Chinese society. It should be noted that, in China, the population is often termed as *people* instead of *citizens*. Whilst both terms are associated with legal rights, use of the word 'people' in China is also associated with their positions as masters of the nation and have the ruling power, which is advocated in Chinese socialist theories (C. G. Zhang, 1999). However, as this study adopts governmentality as a poststructuralist approach that does not rely on any hypothesis or presuppositions, both 'people' and 'citizens' in this study refer to the group as the targets of governance, without any other assumptions.

According to this expanded notion of government, an enquiry was made into government ranges beyond political government reform. Studies of government may

... seek to interrogate the problems and problematisations through which 'being' has been shaped in a thinkable and manageable form, the sites and locales where these problems formed and the authorities responsible for enunciating upon them, the technique and devices invented, the modes of authority and subjectification engendered, and the telos of ambitions and strategies. (Dean, 1999, p. 22)

In other words, when such governing is conducted and the capacities of thoughts are exercised, a *how* question can be raised, that is: How is governing conducted and exercised? This leads to the term *governmentality*. The following sections of this chapter elucidate the understandings and uses of this concept and its relation to the examination of the governing of the OER reform in China.

2.2.2 Governmentality

As noted, the concept of governmentality was introduced by Michel Foucault. For Foucault, governmentality was related to a new way of thinking about exercising power that emerged in eighteenth-century Europe (Larner & Walters, 2004, p. 2). Foucault (2000b, pp. 219-220) directly noted that by the word 'governmentality', he meant:

The ensemble formed by the institutions, procedures, analyses, and reflections, the calculations and tactics that allow the exercise of this very specific albeit complex form of power, which has its target population, as its principal form of knowledge political economy, and as its essential technical means apparatuses of security.

The tendency that, over a long period and throughout the West, has steadily led toward the pre-eminence over all other forms (sovereignty, discipline, and so on) of this type of power. This may be termed 'government' and results, on the one hand, in the formation of a whole series of specific governmental apparatuses, and, on the other, in the development of a whole complex of knowledges.

The process or, rather, the result of the process through which the state of justice of the Middle Ages transformed into the administrative state during the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries and gradually becomes 'governmentalized'.

This threefold definition is explicit, but broad. It suggests that Foucault defined governmentality as the process through which a form of government with specific

ends, means to these ends, and a particular type of knowledge to achieve these ends evolved from a medieval state of justice to a modern, administrative state with complex bureaucracies, particularly in a European context.

Through an examination of Foucault's discussions on governmentality, Dean (1999, pp. 19-20) argues that Foucault's use of 'governmentality' was historically specific; Foucault focused on the constitution of ideology and discourses created as a response to problems of a definite historical period. Gillies (2008) also contends that Foucault used the term 'governmentality' mostly in his tracing of the development of governmental thoughts and the ways in which governing was rationalised throughout European history. Foucault's concern was, in part, to understand the birth of liberalism through history; he presented the movement from earlier pastoral images of government to liberalism though concerns with sovereignty, political rationalities, and policy (Gillies, 2008; Rose et al., 2006).

However, when the concept of governmentality was received in the English-speaking world, it did not develop in a similar way to Foucault's conception. Instead, the concepts and methodological choices used in English-speaking studies resonated with concurrent intellectual trends in a number of relatively independent fields, tracing across numerous disciplines, institutions, and geographical locations (Rose et al., 2006). A key perspective that these studies draw from Foucault's account of governmentality is to consider government to be a form of art that operates in terms of specific rationalisations and is directed toward certain ends (Rose et al., 2006). That is, these studies use the governmentality concept as a tag, or label, for a wide range of work on sets of institutionally embedded ways of thinking about governing, constructing objects of governing, and governing through the conduct of others.

This perspective illuminates that conducting a governmentality analysis is to appreciate the art of governing; it is to identify its different styles of thought, the conditions of its formation, the principles and knowledge it borrows from and generates, the practices that it consists of, how such art is carried out, and its contestations and alliances with other forms of *art of governing*. It signifies an interdisciplinary approach to examining how the governing of human conduct is thought about and acted upon by authorities and individuals, by invoking particular forms of truth and using specific means and resources (Dean, 1999; Miller & Rose, 2008; Rose et al., 2006). Such an analysis covers four aspects of government: The

agent of governing activity, forms of knowledge, the targeted entity, and the activity consequences (see section 2.2.1).

Moreover, the perspective that government is a form of art recognises that there are a range of authorities who may govern differently, specific to different sites rather than considering any single body-like state to be responsible for managing the conduct of citizens (Rose et al., 2006). This leads to more specific questions that a governmentality analysis seeks to answer: Who governs what? According to what logics? With what instruments or techniques? And toward what ends? (Dean, 1999; Rose et al., 2006).

These questions serve as the guidelines in the present study, for I conceptualise the Chinese reform of open educational resources as a form of governing the education sector that involves various assemblages of administrations, institutions, and individuals. In this way, the investigation of the Chinese OER reform can be conducted by identifying the target to be governed, the reasons for governing, and the strategies used for governing.

2.2.3 Governmentality analysis

An analysis of governmentality is composed of a hybrid of Foucault's definitions of the concept of governmentality, its interpretations, expansions, re-interpretations, and integrations with a variety of cross-disciplinary studies. The next part of this chapter outlines the detailed perspective of governmentality analysis and its conceptualisation in relation to the Chinese OER reform.

When 'government' refers to the rational activities of governing others and governing the self, the term governmentality—a combination of the words *governmental* and *rationality*—refers to thoughts about the governing activities; it links the act of governing to ways of thinking about the act of governing itself (Foucault, 2000b). Such perceived thoughts, or 'modes of thoughts', justify, legitimise, and make the exercise of government seem rational (Lemke, 2000, p. 2). That is, governing activities include regulating, managing, or controlling, while governmentality is concerned with knowledge about governing in a wide variety of contexts, as well as the principles and ideals that are considered to be appropriate (Gillies, 2008).

Moreover, governmentality analysis is not only concerned with the knowledge underpinning governing activities, but also the practices of conduct (Dean, 2002), and such practices can be conducted either on others or on the self. Social beings regulate and control others, but they can also regulate themselves and exert self-control. 'Government in governmentality' refers to the entire set of techniques, knowledge, and strategies used for acting on the conduct of others under a range of different authorities, as well as the practices used for acting upon the self. Governmental practices that act upon individuals, in order to govern or shape their conduct, are different from the practices for the self. Such activities are concerned with the techniques that individuals employ to govern their own conduct, and the knowledge about others and about the self are different and the ways to form such knowledge are different (Rose & Miller, 1992; Rose et al., 2006). The following paragraphs explain the relations between the perspectives of governmental knowledge, governmental practices, governing of others, and governing of the self, with some examples given. These perspectives contribute to the adoption of governmentality in the analysis of the Chinese OER movement.

Firstly, the governing of others can be based on theories of social sciences, such as economics, politics, and public management. These theories and principles provide knowledge for authorities to govern citizens. For example, as discussed in section 1.3, neoliberalism is critical of political government and seeks to reduce state intervention into society and individual lives (Dean, 1999, 2002; Olssen, 2006; Rose et al., 2006). As a result, neoliberal governments hold that minimal governing is better governing, and the most effective way to govern a state is to leave alone the dealings where regularities run their own course and intervention is not justified unless it contributes to their maintenance or enhancement (Dean, 1999; Rose, 1999a).

Another example is the governing of population through the use of citizenship technologies (Cruikshank, 1999, p. 24). Some studies of citizenship argue that citizens are not just participants in politics, but, rather, an effect and an instrument of political governance. According to this argument, social problems, such as unemployment and alcoholism, can be solved through technologies. In the framework of the current research, Chinese OER reform is enacted in a context where higher education in China is developing rapidly, but faces many emerging challenges and problems for its further development. Therefore, the reform is based

on a range of governmental principles, such as the national strategy of rejuvenating the nation through science and education, and it is implemented through various governmental techniques.

Nevertheless, further consideration of the two examples of governing others, given above, can draw attention to the fact that, although governing is initiated by political authorities, it is achieved through self-governing. Within a neoliberal society that aims to minimise direct state intervention, an individual's conduct is directed or managed through a variety of experts who know the 'truth' about others, such as doctors, social workers, parents, the family, psychologists, self-help counsellors, therapists, and lawyers (Dean, 2002; Rose & Miller, 1992). These agents provide expertise that enables individuals to govern themselves, although they may also be developing forms of subjectivity that the governing authorities hope to accomplish (Dean, 2003; Rose & Miller, 1992; Rose et al., 2006). Therefore, when investigating the OER reform in China, it is necessary to examine not only the governing of participants by the Chinese authorities, but also by themselves through their self-control or self-regulation. The details of such governing will be presented in Chapters Five, Six, and Seven.

The governmentality analysis in this study mainly concerns the authorities' knowledge that is embedded in the Chinese OER reform when such knowledge is made practical for directing and reforming the conduct of the individuals and groups involved, namely the resource administrators, the resource providers, and the resource receivers. Such directing and reforming are the results of both the authorities' governing and the self-governing of these participants. Such knowledge, together with practices, form the governmentality of the reform.

As noted in Chapter One, whilst governmentality was first used in political studies of Western contexts, differences emerge when it is applied to educational studies and in non-Western contexts, as well as in a Chinese context. The following section addresses these differences by reviewing some governmentality analyses in educational contexts and, particularly, in a Chinese context. These applications contribute to the adoption and adaptation of governmentality analysis for examining the Chinese OER reform.

2.3 The Application of a Governmentality Analysis

This section examines the application of governmentality analyses in different contexts in order to clarify two claims. Firstly, although governmentality is a Western-borne analytical approach, it is also applicable in non-Western contexts, such as the Chinese context for educational research. Secondly, the thoughts and practices of governing in contemporary China are embedded in Chinese cultural and social contexts. These two factors contribute to the approach taken for the application of this framework in this study. That is, the governmentality analysis of the Chinese OER reform should focus on the Chinese context without any presuppositions about its modes of governing.

2.3.1 Locating governmentality in educational research—from the West to China

Historically, the concept of government emerged alongside the mechanisms of sovereignty as a process of “governmentalization of the state” (Dean, 1999, p. 104; Foucault, 1991a, p. 91). Rose (1999a) defines this process as an invention and assembly of an array of technologies that bring together the calculations and strategies of the constitutional, juridical, fiscal, and organisational powers of the state in an attempt to manage the economic life, social habits, and health of the population. A number of studies utilise governmentality as a ‘toolbox’ across various disciplines (Dean, 1995; Fejes, 2006; Hay & Kapitzke, 2009; Nicoll & Fejes, 2008; Peters, 2001; Rose, 1996a; Simons & Masschelein, 2006). In educational research, Foucault’s works are influential as well (Ball, 1990; Masschelein, Simons, Brockling, & Pongratz, 2007; Peters & Burbules, 2004; Popkewitz & Brennan, 1998). Researchers, such as Ball (1990, 1994), Olssen (2006), and Peters (2001; 2004), adopt Foucault’s various concepts of power, knowledge, discourse, subjectivity, technologies of self, normalisation, and genealogy. A number of educational studies are inspired by the concept of governmentality, such as Ball (1990), Marshall (1998), Peters and Wain (2002), Edwards (2002), Tikly (2003), Andersson and Fejes (2005), Masschelein et al. (2007), and Simons (2006).

This section focuses on the studies by Fejes’s (2006), Tikly (2003), Simons and Masschelein (2006), Fimyar (2008), and Kipnis (2011) for three reasons. Firstly, these studies investigate educational issues. Secondly, these studies exemplify the uses of a governmentality approach to trace the historical formation of educational

policies (Fejes, 2006; Tikly, 2003) and in investigating the knowledge and techniques of governing education (Fimyar, 2008; Kipnis, 2011; Simons & Masschelein, 2006). Thirdly, this scholarship covers governmentality in both Western (Fejes, 2006; Simons & Masschelein, 2006) and non-Western contexts (Kipnis, 2011; Tikly, 2003). The implications of these studies contribute to the application of governmentality analysis in the present study.

Fejes's (2006) study uses governmentality in its historical tracing of educational policies to problematise the construction of the contemporary adult learner. Through the use of genealogy, Fejes found that the subject of an adult learner was constructed through different techniques of governing the practices of adult and higher education and there were historical traces in such a construction. In this way, Fejes's study destabilises the taken-for-granted thoughts about the present and puts into perspective the rationalities of governing that were created by the practices of construction. Fejes's study demonstrates that using a governmentality framework can provide a comprehensive and critical understanding of educational issues.

Tikly (2003) uses a governmentality analysis as a tool to study educational policies in South Africa. He proposes the term "governmentality-in-the-making", which is comprised of "complex and sometimes contradictory elements that provide both the continuity and discontinuity of what went before" (p. 166). For him, "continuity of what went before" refers to the connection to earlier African nationalist thought in South Africa and "discontinuity of what went before" refers to the trend towards a neoliberal way of government (p. 166). Tikly found that, although the form of the state emerging in South Africa is a variant of some advanced liberal state, it is also different from the liberal state, because the inequality and persistence of a bio-political racism that remains entrenched from the apartheid era underlies the logic of the state, and such difference is demonstrated in the governing of the education sector (2003).

These two studies are historical studies or, to be more precise, studies about the *history of the present*. They are in line with Foucault's use of governmentality in that they both trace the historical formation of certain social or cultural phenomena, no matter whether the formation has happened in the past or at present. Although this research of the Chinese OER reform does not focus primarily on the historical

formation of such reform, Fejes's and Tikly's studies are instructive in that they demonstrate the importance of understanding and examining the historical context for the emergence of particular forms of governing. Their studies imply that an investigation of the Chinese OER reform cannot be separated from its historical context.

Governmentality analysis has also been applied to investigate a range of existing governmental programmes and to explore the potential consequences of such programmes. A key example is concerned with the concepts and practices of a *learning society*, in which learning is advocated and enhanced to be a lifelong activity. Simons and Masschelein (2006) argue that people are driven to become inhabitants of a learning society, and they employ the concept of governmentality to examine the process of constituting lifelong learners. Simons and Masschelein argue that a learning society is a social phenomenon formed by governmental regimes. Policy-makers make decisions and frame governmental instruments for the establishment of a learning society. Academics, pedagogues, and education researchers reflect upon issues to rationalise what they and others are doing or have to do for the learning society. Simons and Masschelein also focus on some of the existing practices and thoughts related to the understandings of a learning society. The governmentality perspective in their study is used to investigate and examine such practices and thoughts as a kind of cartography to outline the learning society. They also found that studies of governmentality can be related to the cartography of the learning society.

Similar to Simons and Masschelein's study, this research also explores what is happening in the present; that is, the on-going reform of open educational resources in China. In this study, I investigate how the OER reform process aims to assist in bringing about changes to China's higher education sector and, more broadly, how the policies and practices of the reform agenda impact upon Chinese society in relation to OER. Therefore, Simons and Masschelein's use of governmentality in investigating the learning society informs my approach to using a governmentality framework in the present study. This is discussed in section 2.4.

It must be noted that the examples above are all applications of governmentality in the Western world and do not necessarily apply in the non-Western world (Hindess, 1999). At the theoretical level, initial attempts to move the

governmentality framework from the Western to non-Western contexts include Dean (1999, 2002) and Hindess (2001). Dean (2002) extends the original focus of governmentality studies by demonstrating that, even within a neoliberal society, there are both facilitative and authoritarian governing dimensions. The facilitative dimension refers to the explicit, political, neoliberal rationalities that have been concerned with guaranteeing individual liberty. The authoritarian dimension involves acknowledging that neoliberal government requires the establishment of “specific norms of individual and collective life” (Dean, 2002, p. 40) that constitute the desirable forms that freedom and autonomy take. Such norms are funded based on a neoliberal policy; the knowledge and technologies of understandings of individual and collective norms, and the means of ensuring their realisation. Hindess (2001) contends that authoritarian measures are not merely auxiliary measures within neoliberal rationalities, but they are, in fact, constitutive of them. Hindess argues that different categories of populations in Western society are subject to different processes, based on neoliberal rationalities, to constitute the society accordingly and the processes involves a range of tactics, including non-liberal authoritarian rules and measures.

Moreover, Hindess (1996) argues that the distinction between neoliberal and non-liberal governing rationality does not necessarily impede the application of the governmentality analysis in non-Western contexts. Instead, he argues that governmentality studies could be extended to encompass a consideration of the context, such as in the case of China, because there is neither a distinctly socialist, nor a totally neoliberal technology of government, although there is a clear distinction between neoliberal and socialist political traditions. Neoliberalism recognises the natural liberty of the individual and aims to defend it against external obstacles, whereas socialist and communist regimes undermine that liberty by the name of collective interests and priorities. However, both political traditions hold that government should work through and, consequently, must aim to realise that a community of persons, for the most part, can be left to regulate its own behaviour. A number of governmental devices are adopted in both liberal and socialist political traditions and what the apparently competing rationalities of government have in common are “far more significant than the obvious doctrinal points on which they

differ” (Hindess, 1996, p. 77), which suggests that some governmental practices may exist in different contexts.

However, at present, only a few scholars have applied governmentality in non-Western, educational contexts. In a study of educational policy in the Ukraine, Fimyar (2008) adopts the concept of “governmentality-in-the-making” to examine the secondary-level, education assessment policy in Ukraine and he argues that post-communist Ukraine is becoming a receptive agent of external influences at the transnational level, while state centralism remains at the national level. Fimyar’s study is significant in that it is applied in a non-Western context, which is not common for governmentality studies. It is insightful because China, although different from Ukraine, is also a non-Western country and has its unique historical, cultural, and social contexts. Fimyar’s application indicates the feasibility of using the conceptual tool of governmentality in non-Western contexts.

A key example of a governmentality analysis in a Chinese context was conducted by Kipnis (2011). Kipnis located his study in Zouping, a county in the Shandong province of China, and he explored the ways in which Chinese educational policies and programmes enhanced, moderated, and manipulated the Chinese people’s desire for education. His study examines the way in which political governments at different levels enact and attempt to enforce policies to structure and shape the Chinese people’s patterns of educational desire. It also examines local governments’ reactions to such policies, the governing dynamics that emerged, and the reasons underlying the relative successes or failures of different policies in achieving their goals. Kipnis stresses that Chinese educational policies, programmes, and their enforcements are framed in China’s “specific cultural, economic, political, and social circumstances” (Kipnis, 2011, p. 2), whilst they are also closely related to the global context.

Although Kipnis’ (2011) study involves anthropological research, which relies mostly on personal observation to investigate the cultural dynamics, it is significant for the present study, because Kipnis draws attention to the application of a Western-informed governmentality approach in non-Western contexts. Kipnis denies the assumption that it is inappropriate to apply governmentality concepts to non-Western contexts:

... I mean to critique the assumptions that make this application seem strained, especially the presumption that concepts and practices like governing from a distance, the conduct of conduct, subjectification, and discipline refer to culturally specific discourses that developed only in the course of Western history, that were first institutionalized in Western countries, and that have been introduced to non-Western countries only as a result of colonialism and globalization over the past century. Particularly in the case of China, these assumptions are wrong. (Kipnis, 2011, p. 6)

Kipnis (2011) argues that China's long history of statecraft and vast stores of traditional treatises on governing involves various governmental thoughts that can be related to Western concepts, such as governing from a distance, subjectification, population, sovereignty, law, and conducting conduct, and that these thoughts are originally embedded in China's history and contemporary context, rather than being adapted from Western countries. Therefore, Kipnis (2011) takes governmentality theory to investigate the conduct of conduct at different levels by political governments, schools, and individuals, in mentalities of governing, in practices of discipline, and in processes of subjectification, but "without suggesting that these techniques, discourses, and practices are necessarily recent imports from the West" (Kipnis, 2011, p. 7).

The studies reviewed above are significant as, together, they suggest three ways of applying a governmentality framework in this research. Firstly, the studies suggest that it is theoretically feasible to adopt and adapt governmentality to investigate Chinese contexts despite its conceptual origins in the West. Secondly, the studies suggest that different forms of power relations, such as neoliberal powers and authoritarian powers, may co-exist and exercise together, and that their use can occur in different ideological. Hence, neoliberal governments can use authoritarian powers and vice versa. Therefore, an analysis of governing practices should clarify the different power relations, but not necessarily make judgements about the ideologies. Moreover, Kipnis's arguments and his application of governmentality analysis are significant to the development and use of governmentality as a conceptual tool. Recognising that China has its own governing techniques does not impede an investigation of the Chinese context through the engagement with governmentality. Rather, the concepts of a governmentality analysis can elicit useful categories for comparing and contrasting between governing processes in China and those applied

to other states (Kipnis, 2011). Therefore, these studies, together, suggest that it is feasible for me to apply the governmentality framework to the Chinese context and the analysis is to reveal the exercise of power relations in the OER reform. Such an application requires recognition and emphasis on the specific political, pedagogical, and social conditions in China.

Furthermore, for the task of analysis, when a theory or approach is applied in different contexts, the possibility must be accepted that the application may not only alter the perception of the different contexts, but also the original theory or approach itself, and it is at this particular, intellectual juncture that academic utility and innovation are located (Jefferys & Sigley, 2009; Sigley, 2006). The following subsection, 2.3.2, focuses on the juncture of governmentality within the Chinese context by outlining features of China's contemporary government. These findings provide a general description of China's contemporary political rationalities and governing mechanisms, which are implicative to the analysis of the Chinese OER reform.

2.3.2 China's art of government: From government to governance

An increasing number of scholars explore the nature of China's governmentalities from different perspectives. Some key examples include Bray's (2005) investigation of the *Danwei* system in China, Dutton's (2009) examination of the relationship between Maoism and the governing system in China, and Harwood's (2009) investigation of the regional policy development in Nujiang prefecture. Other examples of governmentality analysis in the Chinese context include Hoffman's (2009) examination of the governing of city-building, Jefferys and Huang's (2009) investigation of the governing of sexual health, Sigley's (2006) exploration of the governing of the socialist market, and Xu's (2009) examination of the governing of peasant migrants. Although these studies focus on different aspects of Chinese society, a collective suggestion of such scholarship is that governing in China is changing dramatically and it is unique in the world (Jefferys & Sigley, 2009; L. Ma, 2009; Sigley, 2006). This view is in accordance with China's popular slogan of 'socialism with Chinese characteristics' (*Zhong Guo Te Se She Hui Zhu Yi*). China specialists use different labels to describe the nature of the governing regime, such as "socialist-neoliberal", "neo-Leninist" (both Sigley, 2006), "authoritarian capitalist" (L. Ma, 2009), or "soft-authoritarian", "neo-authoritarian" (both Pei, 2008) and they

all recognise that China's governing rationalities cannot be simply conveyed by single or multiple social theories, as China's governing rationality is a hybrid of different social, political, and ideological thoughts; it is governmentality with Chinese characteristics.

The characteristics of Chinese governmentality can be clarified by outlining two important trends throughout the changes to the governing mode (Jefferys & Sigley, 2009; Sigley, 2006). On the one hand, a number of factors demonstrate that Chinese political authorities adopt various neoliberal policies and techniques for governing the nation. Historically, during the Maoist period, China's governmental management and regulation were steered by a socialist planning system, which was marked by a combination of rewards and punishments, quotas, and reliance on administrative commands. Since the onset of reform and openness in the later 1970s, China's socialist-based governmentality has given way somewhat to new calculations and strategies that call for governing through autonomy, such as market mechanisms or the autonomous conduct of individuals (Jefferys & Sigley, 2009; Sigley, 2006). The development of a socialist market economy during the 1990s also encouraged a new form of authoritarianism that has similarities to the notion of *good governance*, as practised in neoliberal societies. In China, such strategies include techniques for governing through the desires of individuals, whether as consumers, property-owners, jobseekers, and, more contentiously, as citizens. These techniques are similar to the neoliberal policies of many Western societies, at least in their appearance (Jefferys & Sigley, 2009; Sigley, 2006).

On the other hand, the adoption of advanced liberal governing techniques has not been accompanied by a retreat of the political government in China (Edin, 2003; Jefferys & Sigley, 2009; Sigley, 2006). A retreat refers to a strategic withdrawal, either after a defeat or in the face of a superior, which is not the case in China. Instead, the Chinese Communist Party-state has been regrouping, that is, reorganising forces, plans, and individuals to suit new objectives, circumstances, and strategies (Jefferys & Sigley, 2009; Sigley, 2006). This regrouping process represents governmentality with Chinese characteristics, or 'China's art of government'. In other words, some practical instruments for the Chinese national government to develop the economy and enhance governing can be labelled as neoliberal, as they rely on technologies of governing through freedom at distance, but they do not

indicate that neoliberalism is an ideological model or development goal that the Chinese authorities aim to achieve, nor should they be viewed as a trend toward which contemporary China is developing (L. Ma, 2009).

During the 1980s, the Chinese Communist Party started to transform from a mass revolutionary party, without refined governing tools, into an elite-based ruling coalition adept at deploying a range of the state's political, economic, and repressive instruments to maintain power (Pei, 2008). However, this transformation has neither resulted in a totally market-based, capitalist, economic system, nor in the death of socialist planning. Instead, the CCP-controlled (Chinese Communist Party-controlled) state remains deeply and extensively entrenched in the national economy, owning trillions of dollars in assets and monopolising strategic sectors (Sigley, 2006, p. 501). The adoption of neoliberal governing strategies in China has not supplanted socialism. To the contrary, some neoliberal strategies and the conventional, Chinese, socialist, governmental technologies mix and together compose a new techno-scientific, administrative, Party-state. Some reforms in China produce a hybrid socialist-neoliberal form of political rationality that is at once authoritarian, in a familiar political and technocratic sense, but, at the same time, seeks to conduct governing through the autonomy of the governed (Jefferys & Huang, 2009; Sigley, 2006). Such a combination of market autonomy and techno-scientific, administrative regulation epitomises the current notion of 'socialism with Chinese characteristics' and represents China's art of government.

Discourses of governmental terms and concepts have also changed constantly in the past two decades to rationalise the various reforms. With the premise of admitting that "any attempt to weaken government power and function is very dangerous" (K. Z. Zhang, 1996, p. 19), both Chinese scholars and authorities are concerned with the ways in which the strengthening of governing accords with and satisfies the demands of the market economy (S. C. Li, 1997; J. L. Wu, 2002; K. P. Yu, 2002; K. Z. Zhang, 1996; Q. Zhang, 2005). An official description of the various reforms in China is 'the changing functions of government'. This term is accompanied by a number of shifts in vocabulary used for conceptualisation governing rationalities in China. For example, within the notion of *Zheng Fu* (government), the tasks of *Ji Hua* and *Xing Zheng* (governmental administration) have transformed to be *Gui Hua* (macro planning), and *Zhi Li* (governance).

According to Yu (2002), following its inauguration in the 1950s, *Ji Hua* is usually adopted to describe socialist planning in China and it refers to plans that are often composed of direct and detailed instructions and orders from political authorities. On the other hand, *Gui Hua* can be loosely translated as ‘planning’, but such plans are usually made up of general strategies based on macro visions of the authorities; it is a term much closer to the way of understanding the government in the context of a socialist market economy. *Ji Hua* implies detailed planning and intervention, but *Gui Hua* allows a continued managerial and guiding role for the government (Jefferys & Sigley, 2009). Moreover, Yu (2002) suggests that *Zheng Fu* (political government) refers to the Party-state apparatus, whereas *Zhi Li*, which can be loosely translated as ‘governing’ or ‘governance’, refers to the relationships between the government, corporations, and communities. The most important difference between *Zheng Fu* and *Zhi Li* lies in their operation of power.

Power of government operates always from top-down to bottom-up primarily through orders, statutes, bureaucracy and coercion while power of governance operates mutually, interacting both from top-down to bottom-up and from bottom-up to top-down, primarily through collaboration, coordination, negotiation, social networking, neighbourhood, identity or consensus. (K. P. Yu, 2002, p. 195)

Therefore, the subordinating relationship of *Zhi Li* (governing) to *Zheng Fu* (political government) in the Chinese context demonstrates that some neoliberal strategies adopted in China are crucial to, but not outside of or separate from, the operation of the Party-state government in China.

The existing literature about China’s governmentality demonstrates that neoliberal forms of governance and authoritarian government co-exist in China today. Chinese authorities have adopted both direct governmental interventions and devices for governing at distance to manage the different social sectors. The existing applications of governmentality in the Chinese context also suggest that, by taking a poststructuralist stance, a governmentality analysis of China should not be constricted by the confirmation or denial of China to have a neoliberal or authoritarian ideology. The problem that should be investigated is, how are the different power relations exercised or hybridised in the governing of particular sectors in contemporary China? Therefore, in the present research, I apply a

governmentality analysis in the investigation of the OER reform in China without presupposing the reform to be neoliberal or authoritarian. Rather, I aim to explore the exercise of different power relations and the constitution of subjects at different levels, instead of exposing the ideology behind such governance. The governmental technologies may be labelled as authoritarian or neoliberal, as they match the principles, such as governing through freedom, but the findings do not suggest that contemporary China is taking either ideology. Such a critique is in line with Foucault's suggestion about a governmentality analysis that focuses exclusively on revealing different power relations. In order to perform such an analysis, the following section presents a detailed approach to governmentality analysis.

2.4 An Approach to Conducting Governmentality Analysis

As discussed in section 2.2, I conceptualise the Chinese OER reform to be a form of government. The present study aims to identify the target to be governed in this reform, the reasons for such governing, and the strategies used for governing through an examination of the resource administrators, resource providers, and resource receivers. As noted, the existing literature indicates the feasibility of conducting a governmentality analysis in a Chinese educational context. On this basis, this section establishes the approach to conducting the analysis.

Three perspectives can be drawn from studies, which utilise governmentality as a conceptual tool, that inform the present research. Firstly, Dean's (1999) explanation of the 'analytics of government', which clarifies the process of governmentality analysis with different focuses at different stages, serves as the key guidance for a governmentality analysis. The second perspective is drawn from Miller and Rose (2008), who proposed the approach of deconstructing governmentality into the rationality of government and the technology of government, which further explains the process of a governmentality analysis. The last perspective focuses on the process of constituting subjects as specific rationalities and technologies of government. The three perspectives also indicate that a governmentality analysis should be conducted through the methodology of policy analysis. Detailed perspectives are described below for examining the governmentality incorporated in the OER reform in China.

2.4.1 Analytics of government

According to Dean (1999), governmentality can be explored and examined through the analytics of government. A governmentality analysis aims to examine the agent and the target of governing, as well as the thoughts and practices of governing. It can be achieved through an analysis of the circumstances under which the regimes of practices come into existence, are maintained, and are transformed. In governmentality literature, regimes of practices or regimes of government refer to the organised practices through which individuals are governed and through which they govern others. The regimes of practices involve exercises for the production of knowledge through various forms of practical and calculative rationality (Fimyar, 2008). In Dean's own words, the regimes of practices "simply and fairly refer to the coherent sets of ways of going about doing things" and they are "the more or less organised ways of reforming and practicing things such as caring, administering, counselling, curing, punishing, educating and so on at any given time and place" (Dean, 1999, pp. 20-24).

The OER reform in China is an important, educational reform that involves changes at different educational levels. These changes can be considered to be regimes of practices. The present research identifies these regimes of practices and explores the conditions for their emergence, continuation, operation, and transformation.

Dean (1999, p. 23) states that the existing literature on governmentality provides a number of indications as to how to undertake the analytics of government and he suggests that the analytics of government have four dimensions:

- characteristic forms of visibility, ways of seeing and perceiving;
- distinctive ways of thinking and questioning, relying on the definite vocabularies and procedures for the production of truth (those derived from the social, human, and behavioural sciences);
- specific ways of acting, intervening and directing, made up of particular types of practical rationality ('expertise' and 'know-how'), and relying upon definite mechanisms, techniques, and technologies;
- characteristic ways of forming subjects, selves, persons, actors, or agents.

Dean (1999) further explains that the analytics of government are different to positivist studies, as they do not start with an hypothesis or any social theory. To the contrary, these analytics begin with calling into question the activity of governing. That is, to conduct the analytics of government, the first stage is questioning the conduct of the self or others, and the shaping and directing of those conducts. This process is referred to as a 'problematization' (Dean, 1999, p. 27). Or, in Rose and Miller's (1992, p. 181) words, government is a problematising activity in which the activities of government are understood in relation to

the problems around which it circulates, the failings it seeks to rectify, the ills it seeks to cure ... It is around these difficulties and failings that programmes of government have been elaborated.

In this study, the OER reform in China is problematised as a realm of government. The conduct of participants is questioned as such conduct is shaped and directed by OER programmes. This has been covered in Chapter One.

The second stage of conducting the analytics of government is to examine all of that which is necessary to a particular regime of the practices of government. According to Dean (1999, pp. 31-32), regimes of practices

are associated with and become the objects of definite, explicit *programmes*, i.e. deliberate and relatively systematic forms of thought that endeavour to transform these practices. ... Programmes or 'programmes of conduct' are all the attempts to regulate, reform, organise, and improve what occurs within regimes of practices in the name of a specific set of ends articulated with different degrees of explicitness and clarity.

Therefore, the examination of the regimes of practices covers the broadest conditions of governing, such as the administrative structure, the coordination of departments, the designing of instruments, and so on. Such an examination provides a way of understanding how all of these conditions have to be thought, rather than just describing the empirical routines of government. Therefore, this study not only examines the policy documents of the OER reform, but, also, the contexts for the policy-making processes.

The last stage is to focus on the regimes of practices and to try to discover the logic of these practices, which is essential to a governmentality analysis. However, it

is not easy to discover the logic of the regimes of practices, because they comprise the knowledge that defines the operations.

Dean's explanation of governmentality analysis is useful and insightful for conducting a governmentality analysis of the Chinese OER reform, and this research follows the previously outlined three-stage analysis. The regime of practices that has been called into question is the OER reform in China. This reform has brought about governmental activities of Chinese authorities on individuals and groups in higher education, as well as self-governing of the individuals. The examination of the conditions for the emergence of this regime of practices will be presented through a literature review in Chapter Three. The identification of the agent and target, as the governor and the governed, will be presented in Chapter Five and a detailed analysis of the logics of the regime of practices will be presented in Chapters Five, Six, and Seven as well.

In order to discover the logic of the regimes of practices in the Chinese OER reform, the following two subsections, 2.4.2 and 2.4.3, outline more specific analytical perspectives and explain how they are used to discover the logics of regimes of practices. These perspectives are in accordance with the framework of governmentality analysis, yet they develop it further, with more concrete and grounded explanations. The discussion Chapters Five, Six, and Seven will also clarify the logics of these regimes of practices.

2.4.2 Rationalities, technologies, and government programmes

This subsection elaborates on the rationalities of government and technologies of government as the two specific perspectives developed by Miller and Rose (2008, pp. 14-16, 63-64) from the concept of governmentality. These two perspectives and their relationship with these governmental programmes, together provide a tool for examining the logics of regimes of practices in a governmentality analysis.

The rationality-technology perspective of governmentality analysis is formed through the four strategies of 'intervening at a distance', 'economic calculation', 'professional expertise', and 'histories of discourse and technologies of subjectification' (Miller & Rose, 2008, p.11). Firstly, Miller and Rose (2008) reviewed works in the broad area of social science studies, including those of sociologists, historians, and philosophers. They focused on two concepts drawn from

these studies, namely, instruments and interventions. For Miller and Rose, the idea of instruments includes not only actual instruments—tools, scales, measuring devices, and so on—but also ways of thinking, intellectual techniques, ways of analysing oneself, and so forth. Miller and Rose took the idea of ‘intervention’ to refer to the ways that interventions were actually enacted and the techniques and technologies that made interventions possible.

Secondly, Miller and Rose (2008) focused on the mid-twentieth century writings of some of the great historians of economic thought, whose work highlighted the constitutive role of economic calculation and its interrelations with changing economic forms, changing economic discourses, and changing economic policies. These made up the economy, which, for Miller and Rose, was itself a zone constituted by certain ways of thinking and acting, and, in turn, constituting ways of thinking and acting.

Another set of writings examined by Miller and Rose (2008) were those about the professions and their expertise. They were particularly interested in the forms of expertise that took knowledge about human beings as being the basis of claims to special competence. They examined how the expertise of the ‘engineers of the human soul’ contributed to the dual process of problematising and acting on individual behaviours, and how they could shape and manage personal conduct without infringing upon their autonomy or private status.

The last set of writings Miller and Rose (2008) examined was more closely related to Foucault. They considered their work in terms of historical ontology, or the history of the discourses and technologies of subjectification in personal, social, and economic life. Miller and Rose argued that it was impossible to separate personal, social, and economic life for the study of subjectivity.

Based on the four conceptual tools introduced above, Miller and Rose (2008) created a framework of governmentality analysis with two dimensions—rationalities of government and technologies of government. According to their understanding, rationalities of government are “styles of thinking, ways of rendering reality thinkable in such a way that it was amenable to calculation and programming” (p. 16). These are characterised by a “moral form”, an “epistemological character”, and a “distinctive idiom” (pp. 58-59).

As Miller and Rose (2008, p. 58) explained, the moral form:

... elaborate[s] upon the fitting powers and duties for authorities of different types – political, spiritual, military, pedagogic, familial ... [and] consider[s] the ideals or principles to which government should be directed – freedom, justice, equality, mutual responsibility, citizenship, common sense, economic efficiency, prosperity, growth, fairness, rationality, and the like.

The epistemological characters are “articulated in relation to some conception of the nature of the objects governed — society, the nation, the population, the economy. In particular, they embody some account of the persons over whom government is to be exercised” (Miller & Rose, 2008, p. 58). The “distinctive idiom”, or the language, is viewed as “kinds of intellectual machinery or apparatus for rendering reality thinkable in such a way that it is amenable to political deliberations” (Miller & Rose, 2008, p. 59). In other words, rationalities of government consist of the morality of the authorities, the knowledge of the objects of government, and the language of representing the reality.

The second dimension to Miller and Rose’s framework is concerned with the technologies of government, which are “assemblages of persons, techniques, institutions, instruments for the conducting of conduct” (Miller & Rose, 2008, p. 16). These technologies are ways of acting on the phenomenon or the conduct of persons through interventions so as to transform that conduct for the convenience of managing or governing. They can refer to a complicated assemblage of diverse forces, including aspects of the legal system, architecture, profession, administration, finance, and judicial system. These aspects of decisions and actions by individuals, groups, organisations, and populations are to be “understood and regulated in relation to authoritative criteria” (Miller & Rose, 2008, p. 63). This domain of governing is made up of “heterogeneous mechanisms such as methods of inscription and calculation, administrative procedures, forms, checklists, surveys, methods of representing data, calculations, standardised procedures and the like” (Rose & Miller, 1992, p. 183). To be more specific, the mechanisms adopted by authorities to exert governance include:

- techniques of notation, computation, and calculation;
- procedures of examination and assessment;

- the invention of devices, such as surveys, and presentational forms, such as tables;
- the standardisation of systems for training and the inculcation of habits;
- the inauguration of professional specialisations and vocabularies;
- building designs and architectural forms;

and so on (Miller & Rose, 2008).

For power to be stabilised, these mechanisms may materialise in various forms, such as machines, architectural inscriptions, school curricula, books, obligations, and techniques for documenting and calculating. In other words, these materialised forms of mechanisms form a network of powers and power is the “outcome of the affiliation of persons, spaces, communications and inscriptions into a durable form” (Miller & Rose, 2008, p. 64). Moreover, for power to operate, the authorities have to substantiate that “which arises from an assemblage of forces by which particular objectives and injunctions can shape the actions and calculations of other” (Miller & Rose, 2008, p. 64). This process is termed by Miller and Rose as a ‘translation’ that enables entities to be incorporated into a network (Miller & Rose, 2008 p. 64). This process, or the ‘form of technology’, includes agreed ways of tabulating and representing data, measuring and reporting data, and shared vocabularies or mutually understood theories or ways of explaining.

It should be noted that ‘technologies’ are different to ‘techniques’ in the governmentality framework. According to Dean (1994, pp. 187-188), techniques of governance refer to “... systems of accounting, methods of the organisation of work, forms of surveillance, methods of timing and spacing of activities in particular locales”, that is, the actual practices, mechanisms, or instruments utilised to make forms of governance possible and allow for their implementation. Technologies of governance, on the other hand, also underpin governance, but they are the “... types of schooling and medical practice, systems of income support, forms of administration and corporate management, systems of intervention into various organisations, and bodies of expertise” (Dean, 1994, pp. 187-188). In other words, technologies of government in the governmentality framework can be understood, at the macro level, to be assemblages of mechanisms and tools that implement the programmes, and these mechanisms and tools are specific techniques at the micro level.

To put it simply, technologies of government can be represented by a network of materialised forms of apparatuses and ways of shaping the subjects into the network, which is a process of constituting subjectivity. It must be noted that governing technologies are not deliberately established mechanisms that are designed with rationality, calibrated with precision, and assembled into programmes that bring about certain results. To the contrary, they are

a machine for government ... full of parts that come from elsewhere, strange couplings, chance relations, cogs and levers that don't work – and yet which 'work' in the sense that they produce effects that have meaning and consequences for us. (Rose, 1996a, p. 38)

In other words, technologies are devised as heterogeneous instruments. Government being made up of various regimes of practices is “rational and thoughtful activity” and has “an intrinsically programmematic character“ (Dean, 1999, p. 31):

Regimes of practices are associated with and become the objects of definite, explicit *programmes*, i.e. deliberate and relatively systematic forms of thought that endeavour to transform these practices. ... Programmes or 'programmes of conduct' are all the attempts to regulate, reform, organise and improve what occurs within regimes of practices in the name of a specific set of ends articulated with different degrees of explicitness and clarity. (Dean, 1999, pp. 31-32)

Therefore, before examining the specifics of how to analyse a network of powers and the process of 'translating', it is necessary to understand the role of the governmental programmes in which such technologies are embedded. Moreover, it is important to look at the governmental programmes, as they are also the linking devices between technologies and rationalities.

According to Miller and Rose (2008, p. 61), the programmatic of government is the

realm of designs put forward by philosophers, political economists, physiocrats and philanthropists, government reports, committees of inquiry, White Papers, proposals and counterproposals by organisations of business, labour, finance, charities and professionals that seek to configure specific locales and relations in ways thought desirable.

Nevertheless, programmes are not simply formulations of wishes or intentions; they are based upon certain knowledge of the sphere or problem to be addressed.

Programmes presuppose that reality is programmable and subject to certain determinants, rules, norms, and processes that can be acted upon and improved by authorities (Miller & Rose, 2008).

In this way, programmes bring the two aspects of governmentality, rationalities and technologies of government, into a close relationship that highlights their mutual dependence. Rationalities are realised as practical and actionable programmes of government through the application of governmental technologies (Miller & Rose, 1990, 2008; Rose & Miller, 1992) and they are articulated through programmes in a way that is amenable and operable by certain technologies of government. Within a governing programme, no rationality can be realised outside of the configuration of practices or material resources or subjectivities that render it practical. Furthermore, there is no technology of governing that can be mobilised independently of the modes of reasoning and reflection that justify its adoption and authorise its utility (Hay, 2009). Programmes are not only the intermediary between rationalities and technologies, but also the articulator of them. They are not directly observable, but are imbedded in the governmental programmes that can be examined through their policy documents, practices, reports, and so on.

At base, governmentality is framed by governing rationalities and technologies, and the linking of government and mentality indicates that it is impossible to study the technologies of power without an analysis of the political rationalities underpinning them, and vice versa. The relationships between governmental rationalities and technologies embed the logic of the regimes of practices of government. The OER reform in China mainly consists of the National Quality Open Courseware (NQOCW) programme and systems that support the programme. Therefore, the OER reform can be investigated by examining the NQOCW programme within this governmentality framework. Such an investigation includes the identification of the agents and targets of governing, the exploration of the governmental rationalities and technologies, and the examination of the exercise of power relations in the programmes.

Moreover, following Miller and Rose (2008), the analysis should commence with the rationalities of government and then examine the technologies of

government, and such examination would then contribute to the investigation of the constitution of subjects. Miller and Rose (2008, p. 32) state that

if political rationalities render reality into the domain of thought, these 'technologies of government' seek to translate thought into the domain of reality, and to establish 'in the world of persons and things' spaces and devices for acting upon those entities of which they dream and scheme.

In other words, the thoughts about governing the conduct come before the technologies and are realised through the use of corresponding technological means. The technologies take effect and realise the thoughts by providing spaces and devices for the governed. This governing operation process is "a practice of subjectification" (Miller & Rose, 2008 p. 32) and subjects as governed are constituted or re-constituted through the spaces and devices provided.

Governmentality studies place much importance on the exploration of the relations between the forms and rationalities of power and the process of formation of subjects (Dean, 1999; Lemke, 2000). The governmentality approach also directs research to the identities through which individuals are governed, "the identities, statuses and capacities of members of populations" (Dean & Hindess, 1998, p. 10). As this study aims to examine the Chinese OER reform as a form of government by analysing the governing of the resource administrators, resource providers, and resource receivers, identifying and exploring the constitution of these subjects is essential to the governmentality analysis of the reform. The following subsection further elaborates the concepts of subject and the constitution of subjectivity.

2.4.3 Subject

Following Cheung (2004), I contend that government subsumes not only territories and the resources, but also the culture, the history, and the subjectivity of the governed individuals. From the perspective of citizenship, Cruikshank (1996, p. 240) argues that citizens are "an effect and an instrument of political power", while this kind of power is exercised in material, learned, and habitual ways. That is, citizens, as subjects, are constituted through certain technologies adopted for governing. The difference between subject and citizen lies in the theory that subjects conduct themselves in response to the power that an external force exerts over them, while citizens also have the power to act for themselves. As education can be considered to be a form of government in nations such as China, understanding

educational governmentality is increasingly important. Education is adopted by many governing authorities as an important tool for constituting subjects and citizens (Richard Edwards & Usher, 2008).

According to Mansfield (2000), the subject is defined largely from two distinctive perspectives. The first is a psychoanalytic approach, represented by Freud (1988) and Lacan (1979). This approach describes the subject as something driven and managed by the unconscious or it is a by-product of language used for thinking. The other perspective describes subject as something formed in certain relations. Nietzsche (2003) and Foucault (1982) proposed this argument and regarded the formation of the subject as a product of culture, discourse, ideologies, power, and institutional practice. The analysis in this study is focused on the second perspective.

Foucault (1982, p. 777) once stated that the aim of his work was “to create a history of the different modes by which, in our culture, human beings are made subjects”. The subject is “produced out of a network of discourses, institutions and relations” (Danaher, Schirato, & Webb, 2000, p. 123). These discourses, institutions, and relations are not unified, but are subject to being “dissolved and recreated in different configurations” based on relations to self, forms of governing, and particular bodies of knowledge (O’Farrell, 2005, p. 113). For Foucault (1982, pp. 781-782), the concept of subject embodies two meanings, “subject to someone else by control and dependence; and tied to his own identity by a conscience or self-knowledge” and “people can be both the agent and the target of the exercise of power”.

Accordingly, individuals, groups, or a whole population can be constituted as the subjects of power relations; individuals also exercise power on themselves, and they have the desire, will, and agency to govern their ‘selves’ (Miller & Rose, 2008). These two approaches to constituting subjects are termed as *subjectivation* and *subjectification* respectively. Subjectivation refers more to the formation of governable subjects or citizens as a result of being governed by others or governing others, while subjectification refers to the formation of individual existence as a result of self-government (Dean, 1999; Gordon, 1991; Lemke, 2000; Rose, 1999b).

Moreover, the notion of subject should be considered as a form, rather than a substance. It “is never given to itself, but formed, organised, shaped, and, indeed,

dislocated within diverse modalities of practices” (Dean, 1994, p. 195). This perspective also supports the argument that “individual identity is a product of discourses and institutional practices” (Danaher et al., 2000, p. xiv). That is, discourses and practices provide individuals with positions that they may fill to be governed and to govern themselves. Such an argument is in line with Foucault’s statement that the value of subject lies in terms that it is “free to have a field of possibilities in which the individual or collective subjects are able to realise several behaviours” (Foucault, 1982, p. 790). Therefore, subject actually designates subject position, or subjectivity, in which the conduct of individuals is formed as a result of various forms of conceptual and technical tools.

Focusing on the neoliberal context, Rose (1999a) elaborates the governing of self, or ‘governing the soul’, from the perspective of psychological exercises. According to Rose (1999a, p. 2), political authorities, as well as other social authorities, such as personnel managers, doctors, counsellors, and teachers, formulate policies, rules, and programmes, use calculative devices, and set up institutions to act on the ‘mental capacities and propensities’ of citizens, so as to manage their behaviours for certain purposes and effective governance. Such governance works on the understanding of psychological aspects of individuals and through the use of psychological technologies, which are termed as the technology of subjectivity or ‘technique of the self’. These are “the ways in which we are enabled, by means of the languages, criteria, and techniques offered to us, to act upon our bodies, souls, thoughts, and conduct in order to achieve happiness, wisdom, health, and fulfilment” (Rose, 1999a, p. 11).

Therefore, subjects are “free to have a field of possibilities in which the individual or collective subjects are able to realise several behaviours” (Foucault, 1982, p. 790) and they enjoy the autonomy or freedom to take decisions, pursue their preferences, and seek to maximise the quality of their lives in neoliberal contexts, when direct control of authorities is limited. However, authorities still exert indirect control over these subjects through various mechanisms.

The OER reform in China involves, and has mobilised, educational administrations, education institutions, and individuals at different levels as resource administrators, resource providers, and resource receivers. The constitution of these groups or individuals into particular subjects is significant for conducting a

governmentality analysis of this reform. However, due to some specific administrative systems, political, and social conditions, the processes of constituting the subjects are different. The governing of the resource administrators and the resource providers can be directly investigated through an analysis of their programmes, but the governing of the resource receivers is more indirect. The detailed differences will be presented in Chapter Three and Chapter Seven. In order to investigate the indirect governing of the resource receivers, space, as a specific conceptual tool, is employed in this study for investigating the constitution of the subjects of resource receivers.

2.4.4 Space

The concept of space has been one of the most productive, theoretical tools for exploring the constitution of subjects in educational studies, and examining education policy from a spatial perspective provides frameworks that posit new possibilities (Gulson & Symes, 2007a). Therefore, the present research adopts the conceptual tool of space to examine the constitution of resource receivers as subjects. This subsection introduces space as a conceptual tool in this study.

In recent decades, space is no longer understood in absolute terms as a system of organisation or geometry, nor has it been considered merely as a structural grid within which objects are located and events occur, or as a container of objects (Gulson & Symes, 2007b; Massey, 1994; Soja, 2000). Instead, space has been increasingly viewed to be something relational. It is considered as something produced through socio-spatial relations and “a product of cultural, social, political, and economic interactions, imaginings, desires, and relations” (Singh, Rizvi, & Shrestha, 2007, p. 197). Foucault also developed the use of the concept of space, referred to as his ‘geographical turn’ from his historical studies (X. S. He, 2005). Although Foucault wrote little directly on this topic, except for his essay *Of Other Spaces* (Foucault, 1986), he maintained that space is inherently political and that it is fundamental to any exercise of power (Besley & Peters, 2007). Foucault (2000c, p. 361) argued that “space is fundamental in any form of communal life; space is fundamental in any exercise of power” and space functions as a technique of government “to ensure a certain allocation of people in space, a canalisation of their circulation, as well as the coding of their reciprocal relations”. According to Elden (2001, p. 90), space is

something that has been made room for, something that has been freed, namely within a boundary ... A boundary is not that at which something stops, but ... that from which something begins its essential unfolding.

Boundaries create spaces within which the mutual unfolding of interrelations between spaces can be cultivated (Huxley, 2006). In other words, space is a governing technique that provides social relations for the governed subjects to locate, to move through, and to form relations. Such social relations can be interpersonal, inter-organisational, and individual-organisational. Therefore, governmentality involves the fabrication of “governable spaces” (Rose, 1999a, p. 31-40) in which questions of boundaries and territorial limits are implicated in determining domains of objects and types of subjects requiring government.

It is space that enables governmental practices to be integrated with governmental programmes. Based on governing rationalities, and with the adoption of governmental technologies, authorities develop various programmes to form spaces in which subjects are to be located. The planning of space should be viewed as a governing practice, which is developed based on particular rationalities of governmental activities and within particular contexts of social relationships. In other words, space is not “something that has been simply imposed from above, but rather a set of practices that has developed through long processes of experimentation, theoretical debate, and practical experience” (Bray, 2005, p. 12). Accordingly, the analysis of a spatial practice involves considering the logic and rationality that informs it, the particular spatial forms that it attempts to realise, and the historical and social context in which the interventions are made.

There are a number of studies that examine in detail the ways in which the organisation of spaces acts as technologies of government in attempts to produce and regulate behaviours and subjectivities. In the field of educational studies, the conceptual tool of space is applied to study the landscape of educational places, such as school buildings, from the view of regulating students and teachers (Lawn & Grosvenor, 2005; McGregor, 2004). It is also applied to examine educational policies from different perspectives, such as policy changing (Ball, 1998; Gulson, 2006; Vincent, Ball, & Kemp, 2004), policy travelling and borrowing, or the extension and compression of policy processes and practices in the context of globalisation (Ball, 1998; Henry, Lingard, Rizvi, & Taylor, 2001).

These policy-related studies focus on different educational programmes and conduct their investigations through the lens of space. In this study, I explore and examine the learning spaces that have been mobilised in the OER reform. According to Illeris (2009), learning space can shape the thoughts and practices of learning. There are five main types of general learning spaces (Illeris, 2009, pp. 139-140):

Everyday learning space: Comprising informal, multifarious, and personal learning space that exists in daily life without any specifically defined activities.

School and educational learning space: For intended learning that happens within education systems. This kind of learning space is formal, rational, and externally directed.

Workplace learning space: For incidental learning that takes place as part of work. The experience of workplace learning space is an integrated part of citizens' working life. It may happen both inside and outside of the workplace.

Interest-based learning space: Exists in community activities, associations, grass-root activities, or the like, or is simply related to a personal interest, conviction, or hobby. Such learning is usually features clear motivation and resolution, which make it very effective.

Net-based learning space: A learning space opened up by rapidly developing information technologies. In net-based learning spaces, learning can be practised independently of time and even of place (Illeris, 2009, pp. 139-140).

Such categorisation provides a description of each of the learning spaces in which learning takes place. Yet, sometimes, the boundaries between different learning spaces may be blurred. For instance, school or workplace learning can be interest-based, as long as a computer is used to assist the study (Illeris, 2009).

Nevertheless, these learning spaces are clearly differentiated in terms of the provision of learning resources that are essential to each learning space. The resource providers in the everyday learning space are scattered and include friends, social media, life experiences, and various daily activities. In the school and educational learning space, however, the resource providers are clearly defined to be teachers, textbooks, and all school-based learning activities. Colleagues, training programmes, and working experiences can provide the majority of learning resources in workplace learning spaces. In interest-based learning spaces, the provision of learning resources

is difficult to define. Learners can achieve learning resources from a variety of activities and experiences, as long as they are conducted on the basis of learners' interests. In the net-based learning space, Internet websites undoubtedly serve as the primary learning resource providers. However, the websites are secondary resource providers, as they are created, updated, and maintained by various individuals, organisations, or companies that are the primary learning resource providers. Moreover, sometimes net-based learning overlaps with other learning spaces. Everyday learning, school learning, workplace learning, and interest-based learning can all be carried out through the use of the Internet. At the same time, net-based learning can be a type of separated experience for individuals who have grown up before the computer age, but for later generations net-based learning may be well connected to, or integrated in, other learning spaces. Through an analysis of the policies for the OER reform, I investigate the changes to these learning spaces and the relations that have been shaped or re-shaped in the reform, as well as the constitution of resource receivers being particular learners, which occurs through these spatial connections and interrelations.

Thus far, I have argued that the constitution of subjects is a crucial aspect of governing, and that space is an important instrument in the constitution of subjects. The details of using the spatial approach to investigate the constitution of subjects of resource receivers in the Chinese OER reform and the analysis process are detailed in Chapter Seven. The following figures provide three interrelated, diagrammatic representations of the components of my analytical framework, accompanied by explanatory text, before I conclude the chapter. Figure 2.1 illustrates the analytical framework of governmentality analysis of Chinese OER reform. The approach for conducting the governmentality analysis is further illustrated in Figure 2.2. The relation between the perspectives of governmental rationalities, governmental technologies, and subjects is illustrated in Figure 2.3.

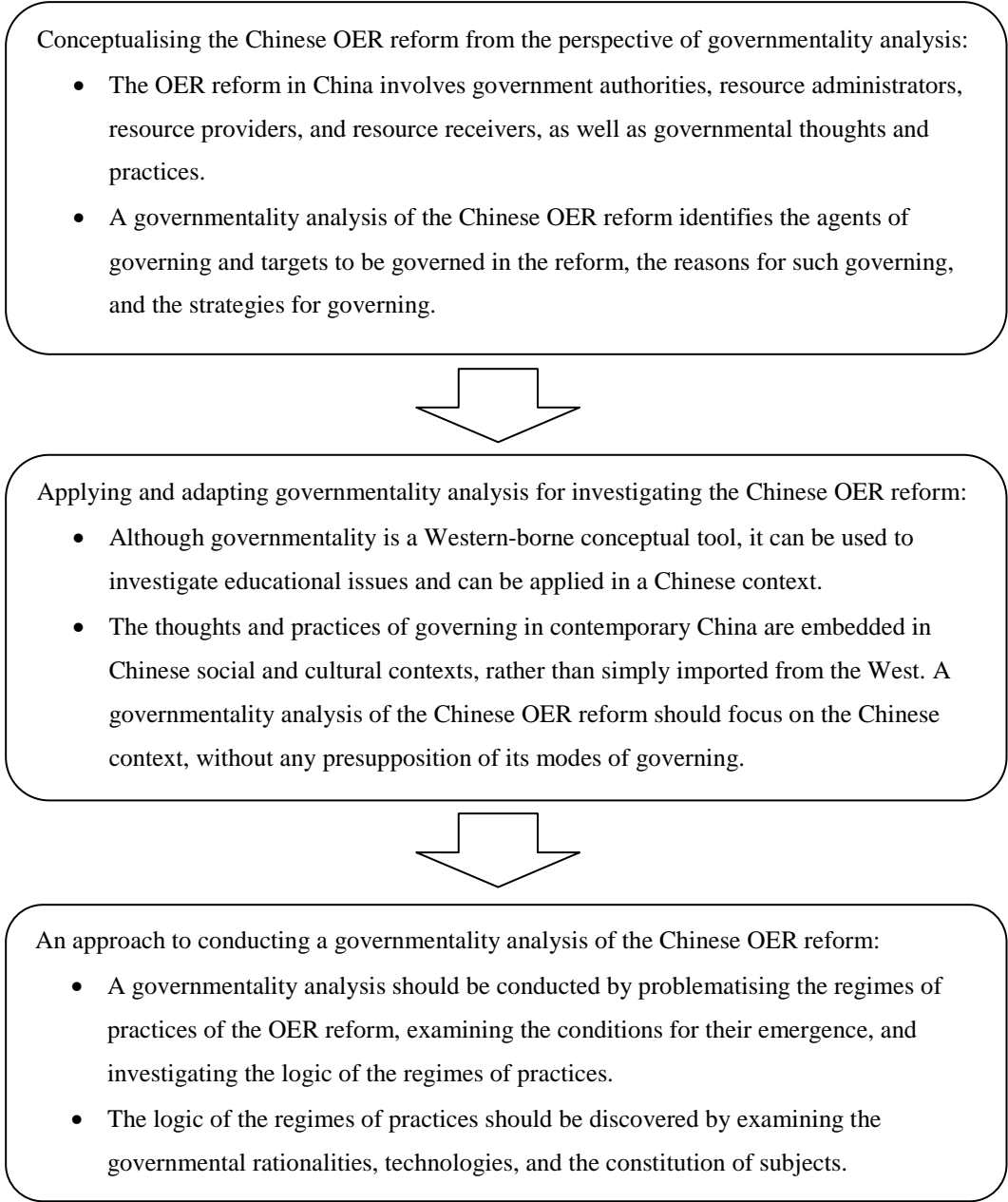


Figure 2.1 Analytical framework for governmentality analysis of Chinese OER reform

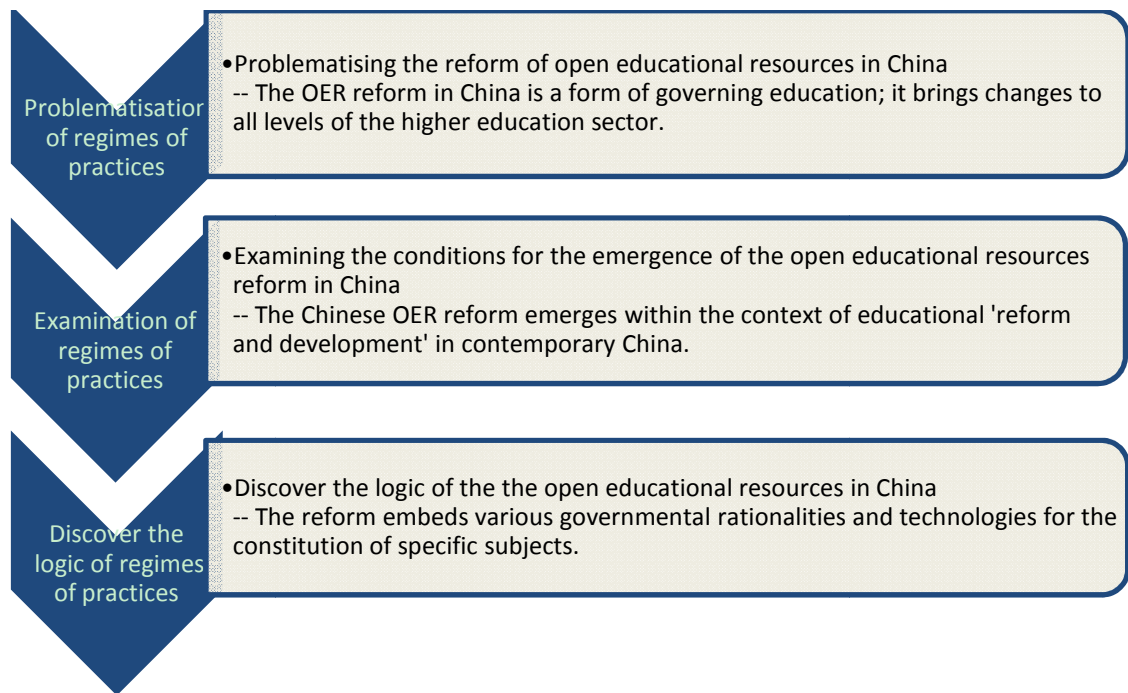


Figure 2.2 An approach for the governmentality analysis of the Chinese OER reform

Figure 2.1 and Figure 2.2 represent a problematisation of the OER movement in China. This was articulated in Chapter One and in Chapter Two through conceptualising the Chinese OER reform as a form of government. The examination of the conditions for the emergence of the reform will be presented in Chapter Three by reviewing the context of higher education in China. Moreover, in order to discover the logic in the OER reform, more detailed perspectives are employed, including governmental rationalities, governmental technologies, and subjects. The relation between these perspectives is illustrated in Figure 2.3.

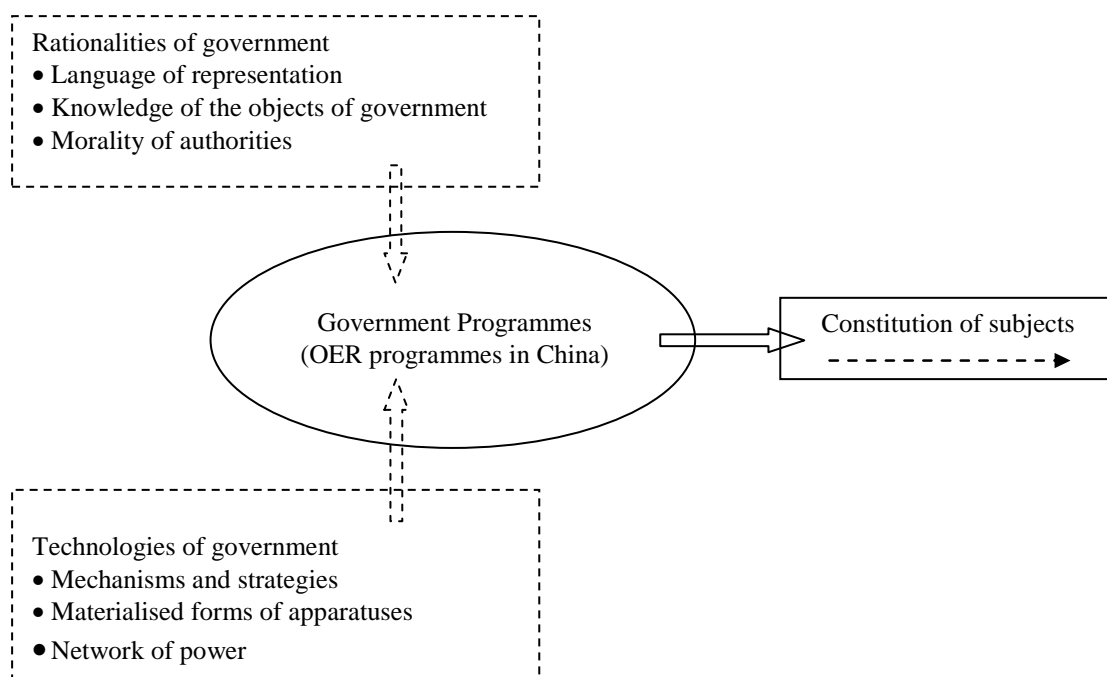


Figure 2.3 Detailed perspectives for the governmentality analysis of the Chinese OER reform.

Figures 2.1, 2.2, and 2.3 demonstrate that the approach to discover the logic of the regimes of practices of the Chinese OER reform lies in the examination of the OER programmes. A review of the key programmes of Chinese open educational resources movement is presented in the Chapter Three as well.

There are a number of benefits in adopting such an analytical framework for the present research. Firstly, using governmentality as a device to understand educational reform offers conceptual advantages. A governmentality analysis provides language to interlink the micro-effects of government (self-governing) with the macro strategies of power (national programmes) without privileging one or the other. It avoids essentialism and reveals how the governing processes are mutually constitutive. Secondly, governmentality analysis is useful in that it considers the various ways of governing individuals. It not only examines the rules and laws, but also focuses on the different practices. Moreover, a governmentality analysis is different to an evaluation of government. It is concerned with the rationalities underpinning governing, the power relations involved, and the subjects that the government seeks to constitute. In other words, a governmentality analysis does not attempt to explain the reasons of the failure or success of governance, instead, it focuses on the ways of realising and achieving governance.

The reform of open educational resources in China is a form of governing the education sector. It involves a variety of individuals, institutions, and departments and their activities at different levels. A governmentality analysis of this reform reveals the relationship between the governing activities at different levels and investigates the different types of technologies used in the programmes. Through a governmentality analysis, the present research provides a detailed and profound investigation of this reform and avoids any socio-realistic evaluation. Using the conceptual tool of governmentality not only provides a new way of understanding educational reform in China, but also enriches the understanding of Chinese governmentalities.

2.5 Chapter Summary

Chapter Two outlined the analytical framework for this research in three subsections centring on the conceptual tool of governmentality. The first subsection, 2.2, elucidated the detailed concepts of government and governmentality that conceptualise the OER reform in China from the perspective of a governmentality analysis. The second subsection, 2.3, examined the existing studies in both Western and non-Western educational contexts and explored the unique features of governing in China, which provides implications for the application of a governmentality analysis in the present study. The final subsection, 2.4, outlined a detailed approach to conduct the governmentality analysis in this study. Chapter Three provides a literature review for this study.

CHAPTER THREE: LITERATURE REVIEW

According to the analytical framework outlined in Chapter Two, a governmentality analysis should be conducted by examining the conditions for the emergence of the regimes of practices and the programmes that embed governmental rationalities and technologies. In Chinese open educational resources reform, the regimes of the reform are contextualised in the governing of the higher education sector. Therefore, this chapter commences by reviewing such governing in contemporary China through the theme of educational reform and development. This theme is elaborated upon by reviewing the background to China's contemporary educational reforms, key educational reforms, and an overview of the challenges and opportunities for further development of China's higher education sector. Such a review illustrates the context from which the OER reform in China has emerged.

This chapter also reviews the conceptual and operational issues of the OER movement, as well as the detailed Chinese OER programmes. In doing so, it demonstrates that these governmental programmes are enacted and implemented through different policies, which indicates that a governmentality analysis of the Chinese OER reform should be centred on an analysis of the policies. Details of the methodology of policy analysis will be discussed in Chapter Four. The penultimate section of Chapter Three focuses on the research literature of the OER movement in China and demonstrates the research gap to which this study contributes.

3.1 Governing Higher Education in Contemporary China: Reform and Development

Various reforms have taken place in all sectors of Chinese society since the 1980s and higher education is no exception (Gu, Li, & Wang, 2009). Reform and development is advocated by the Chinese authorities as being the most prioritised theme for governing the higher education sector at present. In order to illustrate the conditions for the emergence of the Chinese OER reform, this section reviews the governing of higher education in China by expounding on the theme of reform and development in the education sector.

Reform is one of the most frequently encountered and used political terms in contemporary China. In the 1980s and the 1990s, reform mostly referred to changing the economic and political systems that were established during Mao's post-

revolution regime, from 1949 to 1976. In recent years, the term ‘reform’ has been used extensively, denoting changes to a variety of systems and developmental modes in political, economical, and other social sectors (J. N. Guo, 2010).

In contrast, *development*, generally meaning improvement or growth, is more frequently encompassed in the form of the ‘development of something’—the target to be developed and the goal of the developing process. The term ‘development’ is partnered with a variety of social sectors, such as development of the economy, development of culture, development of Chinese-foreign relations, development of education, or development of the healthcare industry. Since Deng Xiaoping raised the slogan of ‘development is the fundamental principle’ (*Fa Zhan Shi Ying Dao Li*), development has been given top priority in almost all sectors in China. Both political authorities at different levels and non-government departments in China view development as the key principle and goal of their undertakings. Development is a term usually referring to the objectives of the changes happening. Therefore, reform and development are closely linked. Reform refers to the changes and development rationalises such changes (J. N. Guo, 2010).

According to the conceptualisations of reform and development described above, a review of educational reform and development in China should examine both the changing processes and the objectives of these changes. The following subsection reviews the historical background, key reforms, and challenges and opportunities for the development of China’s higher education sector in the contemporary era. In this thesis, it is argued that these factors contextualise and contribute to the emergence of the Chinese OER reform.

3.1.1 Governing higher education in contemporary China: Historical background

The development of higher education in China can be roughly divided into five periods: The ancient and imperial era (before 1840), the modern era (1840 to 1949), the post-revolution era (1949 to 1966), the ‘Cultural Revolution’ era (1966 to 1978), and the contemporary era (1978 to the present) (Yu, Stith, Liu, & Chen, 2010). The development of higher education in the first four of these periods formed the historical background to the higher educational reforms in the contemporary era.

Therefore, this subsection provides a review of the key themes embedded in such historical background that contribute to the emergence of the OER movement.

3.1.1.1 Higher education and imperial civil service examination system

The imperial civil service examination system (*Ke Ju Zhi*) was a distinguishing feature of China's education sector (P. P. Sun, 2010). The imperial civil service examination system emerged in the Han Dynasty and was fixed during the Sui Dynasty (581 to 618 AD) (Y. Liu, 2009). The system constructed higher education in China as 'a ladder of success' with a series of examinations and the establishment of official and private institutions at provincial, prefectural, and county levels (Hayhoe, 1996; Hayhoe & Zha, 2006). During the Song Dynasty (960 to 1279 AD), the imperial examination system was crystallised into a degree system, based on tests at different levels, which included the degrees of *Shengyuan* or *Xiucan* (licentiate), *Juren* (recommended man), *Gongshi* (tribute personnel), and *Jinshi* (presented scholar) from low to high levels (P. P. Sun, 2010). Earning one of these degrees was considered to be an achievement of *Gong Ming* (honour, wealth, high social status), or a bright future.

The primary objective of the system was to select administrative officials for the state's bureaucracy (P. P. Sun, 2010) and the examination system heavily influenced the conceptualisation and development of education (Y. Liu, 2009). As the imperial officials usually possessed higher social status and wealth, the imperial civil service examination system associated the value of education with wealth and high social positions. Within such a *Gong Ming* oriented system, a lot of learners devoted themselves to learning mainly for the purpose of becoming officials (Gao, 2001; Gu et al., 2009; Y. Liu, 2009; J. Zhou, 2006). In this way, the imperial civil service examination system produced a profound impact on the traditions of Chinese education (M. Y. Gu, 2006). Although the imperial civil service examination system was abolished at the beginning of the twentieth century, it contributed to the traditional educational practices that still influence Chinese learners, institutions, and society in general in the contemporary era (Gao, 2001; Gu et al., 2009; P. P. Sun, 2010). For example, many Chinese students still consider receiving an education and passing examinations as a way to achieve wealth and high social status. Indeed, it can be argued that the utilitarianism in Chinese higher education today is partly rooted in the imperial education system (Q. Guo, 2002; Jiao, 2011; K. Qiu, 2006).

3.1.1.2 Higher education and Confucius culture

The second distinguished theme of China's higher education before the contemporary era lay in the dominance of Confucian values (Fan & Li, 2005; Hayhoe & Zha, 2006; Yang, Zheng, & Li, 2006; Y. H. Zhao, 2006). Although various schools of thought were contested during the Zhou Dynasty, Confucianism achieved and maintained a predominant role in forming and regulating education in ancient China, as it was believed that Confucian thoughts informed good government and was vital to the maintenance of imperial order (Yu et al., 2010). Within the imperial civil service examination system, Confucianism was the core of most courses and the tests for degrees were designed accordingly. Some Confucian values were crystallised into principles of teaching and learning. For example, *Bailudong Shuyuan*, a very famous private school in the Song Dynasty (960 to 1279 AD), upheld the doctrines of 'erudition, enquiry, exactness, exposure, and execution' (*Bo Xue Zhi, Shen Wen Zhi, Shen Si Zhi, Ming Bian Zhi, Du Xing Zhi*) and 'do not do to others what you do not want to be done to you' (*Ji Suo Bu Yu, Wu Shi Yu Ren*) for studying, doing, and being (Shu, 2003, p. 46).

Confucian values exerted enormous influence over the practices of Chinese learners and the influence of Confucian values on higher education in contemporary China is extensive, ranging from the purpose of education and the process of learning to the methods of learning (Fan & Li, 2005; Tweed & Lehman, 2002; X. W. Yang, 2006). For example, Confucianism advocated that teachers were the holders of truths and students should always follow their teachers. In China today, this principle is still powerful and teachers, in most cases, exercise considerable influence upon their students (Yang et al., 2006; Y. H. Zhao, 2006).

3.1.1.3 Higher education and external influences

The third theme that distinguished China's higher education, before the contemporary era, is external influence. Between 1840 and 1949, China experienced much internal disruption as a result of foreign incursion, civil war, and revolution, and the higher education sector during this period was greatly influenced by Western society.

Western influences were demonstrated from two perspectives, the establishment of modern universities and the adoption of Western principles of

education. During the 1860s, some specialist schools aimed at training students in foreign language skills, and military skills emerged. In addition to the institutions established under Western influences, some universities and colleges were founded directly by Western countries, such as Saint John's University, Yanching University, DW University, Hangchow University, Shantung Christian University, and Shanghai College (Gu et al., 2009; L. Z. Sun, 2007). Western principles of education also impacted upon the practices of schooling and learning in China, especially during the period of Republican China (1919 to 1949). For example, learning from Western educational principles, Cai Yuanpei summarised the aim of higher educational reforms at that time into five principles—civil education, utilitarian education, moral education, world value education, and aesthetic education (Che & Cui, 2008).

The civil war victory of the Chinese Communist Party over the Kuomintang and the founding of the People's Republic of China (PRC) in 1949 marked a turning point for the nation, as well as for its higher education system (Yu et al., 2010). In December 1949, the PRC's central government convened the First National Work Conference on Education to discuss how to reform the education system. The conference decided that the PRC would be “drawing upon the experience of the Soviet Union to develop education” (J. Zhou, 2006, p. 6). As a result, a number of reforms that followed the Soviet model were implemented in the nation's higher education sector.

For example, after 1949, all the existing publicly-owned and private institutions were dismantled and systematically re-established to be public institutions. The re-built higher education system consisted of comprehensive universities, normal universities, polytechnic universities, agricultural universities, and other institutions of engineering, political science, law, finance and economy, foreign language, fine arts, physical education, and medicine (Gu et al., 2009; Hayhoe, 1996; Yu et al., 2010). For the purpose of direct control and central planning, the most prestigious universities, such as the comprehensive universities, polytechnic universities, and normal universities, were administered by the Ministry of Education. Others were managed either at the provincial level or by other national government ministries (Gu et al., 2009; J. Zhou, 2006). Following the Soviet model, all higher education institutions were to follow the state's unified plans, and every process, from admissions and curriculum development to instruction of student job

allocation, was uniform and centralised (Yu et al., 2010). Therefore, both Western influences and the Soviet model contributed to the development of China's higher education before the contemporary era. For example, many universities were established with Western educational principles, but were later reformed and reorganised following the Soviet model (Yu et al., 2010; J. Zhou, 2006). These external influences were significant to contemporary Chinese higher education, which integrated some of these influences.

3.1.1.4 Higher education and socialist political movements

From the beginning of the 1950s to the end of the 1970s, enhancing socialist political ideology was a key theme for China's higher education sector and this theme was manifested in various political reforms. In the 1950s, a series of reforms were implemented for "the reordering of colleges and departments" (Hayhoe, 1996, p. 77; Hayhoe & Zha, 2006, p. 670).

During the Cultural Revolution (1966 to 1976), the higher education system, including Chinese, Western and Soviet traditions and practices, was heavily affected. Many universities and colleges were closed down and some were forced to cease operating (Hou, 1998; X. Li, 2004). Nationwide, universities stopped enrolling undergraduate students for more than four years and postgraduate students for 12 years (Ministry of Education, 1984). After 1970, some higher education institutions started to enrol *worker-peasant-soldier* college students again by evaluating some political criteria, such as family background, political loyalty, and work performance (Gu et al., 2009). Higher education during the Cultural Revolution era was subordinated to political movements and the whole system was operated to "oppose revisionism, prevent revisionism, and cultivate successors for the revolution" (Y. Liu, 2009, p. 109).

The development of higher education in Mainland China during the socialist political movements could be conceptualised as "a swing of the pendulum from the highly authoritarian academic centralism that represented a kind of melding of state Confucianism with Soviet/European academicism to an opposite extreme of populism and integration into society" (Hayhoe, 1996, p. 106). For political purposes, the Chinese Communist Party had monopolistic control over almost all social sectors for a long time. Decision-making for education was centralised and characterised by

a top-down process. Education was not an autonomous, social institution and was developed and restructured as an important arena in which different factions within the CCP competed for control to realise its vision for national development (Tsang, 2000).

Such a politically oriented form of governing significantly affected the teleology and quality of higher education in China. The primary purpose of the governing of education was to develop generations dedicated to socialism and loyalty to the imperatives of the socialist revolution. It has been widely recognised that such politically oriented development caused many problems to the higher education sector in China, such as an over-centralised administration, a limited size of the sector, an over-unified curricula, and low pedagogical quality (Li & Wang, 2012; P. P. Sun, 2010; Y. Zhu, 2012). In contemporary China, a large number of educational reforms have been implemented to solve these problems. The following subsection reviews some of the key educational reforms in contemporary China.

3.1.2 Governing higher education in contemporary China: Key reforms

The imperial civil examination system, Confucian culture, external influence, and socialist political reforms together contributed to the historical background of contemporary Chinese educational reform and development. However, various other educational reforms have also been implemented in China since the 1980s (Kang, 2004). These reforms have brought changes to the higher education sector and contextualised the emergence of the OER movement. The following sub-subsections review the key reforms in China and their relation to the OER reform.

3.1.2.1 Decentralisation and diversification

Under the Soviet centralised and state dominated model of education, the state government assumed responsibility for administration and designing of curriculum syllabuses and textbooks, management of student admission and graduate job assignments, as well as control over budgets, salary scales, and personnel issues (Li & Wang, 2012; Mok, 2005). From the 1950s to the 1980s, higher education institutions in Mainland China received their funding exclusively from the government. However, by the 1980s, Chinese authorities realised that the over-centralised system stifled the initiative and enthusiasm of local governments and individual institutions, and that it was necessary to decentralise the governance of

education to rejuvenate the overall development of the nation (Z. Yang, 2005). As a result, decentralisation and diversification started in the higher education sector.

The concept of decentralisation in China's particular context may refer to the "relinquish[ing] of central government control and responsibility for the provision and management of education to the local levels" (Ngok & Kwong, 2003, p. 166). In China, decentralisation started with a systematic reform of the administrative structures and involved a variety of fields, including human resource exploitation and retention, curriculum development, and education provision. In terms of the government-university relationship, the role of government in higher education shifted from state control to state supervision (Yang, Vidovich, & Currie, 2007). In June 2012, the Ministry of Education issued a policy document entitled *Implementation Opinions about Encouraging and Directing Private Funds to Enter the Educational Sector to Enhance the Healthy Development of Non-Governmental Education* (Ministry of Education, 2012b). This policy states that private funding for investment in education is welcomed at different levels of the sector and also acknowledges that non-governmental education is encouraged. This policy statement indicates that Chinese authorities are going to continue and further the decentralisation of the governing of the education sector.

Diversification in Chinese higher education included two main dimensions—diversification of funding sources and diversified types of higher education institutions (Hayhoe & Zha, 2006; S. H. Xu, 2005). At the policy level, decentralisation and diversification were implemented by a series of significant legislative decisions that devolved power at local levels. In the mid-1980s, the State Council started to establish the national principles of education and relevant policies, funding programmes, and plans for development. Each provincial-level government established a Department of Education to fund and administer their higher education institutions (S. H. Xu, 2005). In 2002, establishment and operation of non-public, higher education institutions were approved (Gu et al., 2009). In June 2012, the Ministry of Education (2012b) claimed that the central government would further encourage and direct private funding to be invested into education at different levels.

In addition to diversification of higher education providers, the range of education types has been diversified as well. For example, the radio and television university system, together with a variety of web-based distance education and short-

term training programmes, contribute to adult and non-formal higher education (Gu et al., 2009). According to statistical reports from the Ministry of Education, the total enrolment of web-based undergraduates in 2010 amounted to 4,531,443, including 1,640,403 students enrolled in regular courses and 2,891,040 in short-cycle courses (Ministry of Education, 2011b). The total enrolment in higher educational courses not providing a formal record of schooling reached 33,289,144 in 2010, falling into categories of postgraduate courses, classes run by non-state or private, higher education institutions for students preparing for state-administered examinations for self-directed learners, college-preparatory classes, and in-service training (Ministry of Education, 2011b).

The decentralised administration and diversified provision of higher education enhanced this rapid development in China. However, the reforms have also brought problems. For example, the decentralisation reforms enabled higher education institutions to determine the curriculum resources by themselves, but not all institutions could provide high-quality curriculum resources to their students.

3.1.2.2 Enlarging the scale of higher education

The decentralisation and diversification of China's higher education sector paved the way for its expansion (S. H. Xu, 2005). For a very long time, higher education in China was for a small, elite group of individuals. Even by the year 1999, employees with higher education qualifications amounted to 3.8% of the total population and workers without a formal educational background accounted for 11.9% (National Center for Education Development Research, 2001). In May 1999, the Chinese State Council decided to expand the higher education sector. According to the *Action Scheme for Invigorating Education towards the 21st Century*, targets were set for the gross enrolment rate in higher education institutions to reach 15% by the year 2010 (Ministry of Education, 1998). In fact, that goal was achieved in 2002, eight years ahead of schedule. The development of the gross enrolment rate of China's higher education sector from 1990 to 2010 illustrated the expansion, as shown in Figure 3.1.

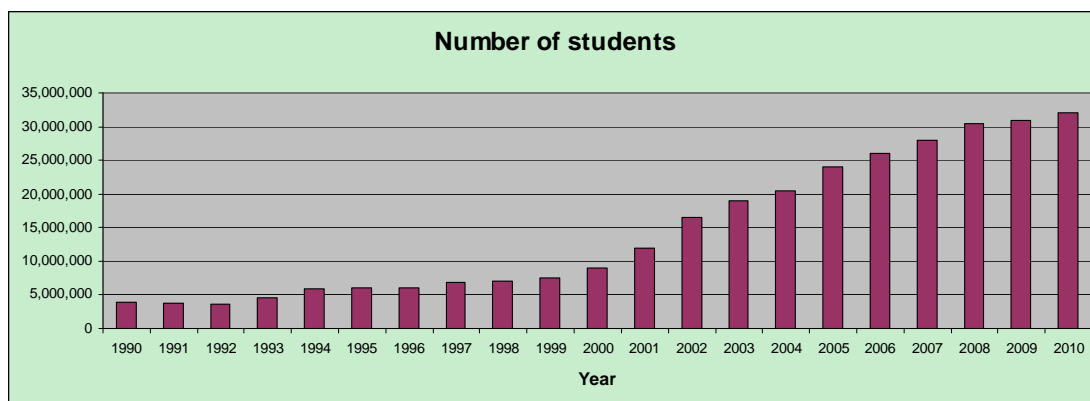


Figure 3.1 Number of Students Enrolled in Higher Education, 1990 to 2010 (Ministry of Education, 2011b)

It can be seen from the figure above that enrolment in higher education in China grew tenfold in the past two decades. There were only about 3.5 million students in 1990, but, by 2010, that number reached over 30 million. The expansion in enrolments was a result of growth and expansion at all levels and all modes of higher education, ranging from adult, vocational, undergraduate study to full-time, on-campus, doctoral study. According to statistical reports (Ministry of Education, 1988-2008), there were about 100,000 students enrolled in a Master’s programme and 16,000 in a doctoral programme in 1990. In 2010, the number of students studying for a master’s degree reached over one million and there were about 258,000 students enrolled in doctoral programmes. The number of students in open courses, which included adult courses and Internet-based courses, accounted for about 30% of the total number of undergraduates in China, amounting to four million in 2010 (Ministry of Education, 2011b).

However, the rapid enlargement of enrolments did not solve all of the problems within the higher education sector. For example, the development of higher education was unbalanced between the coastal and the western regions, and some newly-established institutions could not provide enough high-quality pedagogical resources to students. Moreover, according to Yang Rui (2010), another serious problem caused by the expansion is the rise of graduate unemployment at both undergraduate and postgraduate levels.

3.1.2.3 Curriculum renewal and pedagogical innovation

Together with changes in higher education administration, there are reforms to curriculum resources in higher education institutions (Shao & Bie, 2009). Before the Cultural Revolution, curriculum systems in Chinese universities followed the Soviet model. The initial stage of reestablishment of the university system after the Cultural Revolution was believed to be a continuation of the pre-Cultural Revolution model (Pepper, 1990). Through further reforms in the late 1980s, universities started to have more leverage in adjusting the objectives of various disciplines, formulating their own teaching plans and programmes, and compiling and selecting teaching materials (Shao & Bie, 2009). The role of the Ministry of Education was no longer to produce authoritative teaching plans and outlines, but, rather, to organise administrative committees for teaching affairs (Hayhoe, 1991). In 1999, the State Council strengthened the push for educational reform by promoting quality-oriented education (Chu, 2002). In 1994, the Ministry of Education issued the *Reforming Plan for Curriculum Content and Curriculum Systems in the 21st Century*, aimed at upgrading the quality of the labour force by cultivating Chinese people's moral, intellectual, physical, and aesthetic capacities and developing their innovations in thinking and solving problems (Wei & Deng, 2010).

Under this guidance, universities and colleges revised their curriculum systems (Chu, 2002). Firstly, integration of sciences and the humanities in the curricula was advocated to ensure the overall development of students. Since the 1980s, in order to respond to the need for workers with both expertise and a wide range of knowledge, many universities have revised their curriculum systems and required science students to enrol in a number of courses in humanities and social sciences, and vice versa (Gu et al., 2009; Y. Zhu, 2012). Moreover, increasing importance has been attached to the training of practical skills. Before 1994, most graduates from universities were assigned to a job by the government. However, the system was dismantled in the late 1980s and practical abilities became more important for students to prepare for the job market. Many universities started to provide better experimental facilities and to establish internship bases in enterprises, factories, and schools to help their graduates to find jobs (Z. Yang, 2005; Yu et al., 2010). In addition, new pedagogical methods were adopted in universities to meet the demands set by the changing social environment, especially the rapid updating of knowledge

and information. Many university academics are exploring and practicing new pedagogical modes, such as heuristic teaching, discussion study, participatory approaches, teaching by research, and case study (Y. Zhou, 2011). In 1999, the State Council approved the *Plan to Promote Education in the 21st Century*, which initiated programmes like the Modern Distance Education Project. Such programmes were aimed at developing high-quality teaching software and distance education resource centres (Wei & Deng, 2010). The development of educational technologies, in turn, also enhanced the adjustment of pedagogical methods.

3.1.2.4 Informatisation

The informatisation of higher education refers to enhancing the reform and development of higher education through the use of information technologies (Li & Cai, 2009; W. F. Zhang, 2007). In 2004, the Ministry of Education of China issued the *Action Plan for Invigorating Education 2003-2007*, which outlined the strategies for the project of educational informatisation. Educational authorities and universities implemented a number of programmes to develop higher education through the use of information technologies.

The programmes of educational informatisation mainly consisted of six aspects (Li & Cai, 2009; W. F. Zhang, 2007). The first aspect was the establishment of information networks, such as the China Education and Research Network (CERNET), the Digital Campus Project, and classrooms equipped with information technologies at all levels. Another aspect concerned digital resources, including both digitalised educational content and software that manage the distribution of the resources. Based on the information network and digitalised educational resources, educational authorities promoted the application of information technologies, which is an important driver for the success of enhancing educational development (Li & Cai, 2009; Z. T. Zhu, 2001). Students and teachers were trained to use different information technologies to enhance the effectiveness of learning processes. Information industry experts were drawn upon to facilitate the implementation of educational informatisation. For example, the industry not only provided equipment, such as computers and multi-media facilities, but also enabled the various technologies necessary for managing educational resources. These technologies required workers with expertise in this field, and graduates from Chinese universities with information technology majors supported the process of informatisation.

Policies and standards to regulate and support the programmes and projects of educational informatisation were also developed and adopted as part of the administration of this process (Z. T. Zhu, 2001).

3.1.2.5 Internationalisation and globalisation

Since the implementation of Opening and Reform policies in the late 1970s, Chinese universities and educational authorities started to pay more attention to internationalisation and the globalisation of higher education. After becoming a member of the World Trade Organization (WTO), China's higher education sector has been more open in different ways (Wei & Deng, 2010; D. L. Xu, 2012; Y. Zhu, 2012). For example, joint operations between higher education institutions with overseas partners and collaborative delivery of educational programmes have been developed in China. In 1995, the State Commission of Education issued the statement, *Contemporary Regulation on Operation of Higher Education Institutions in Cooperation with Foreign Partners*, which enhanced educational cooperation between Chinese and overseas education institutions. In 2004, the Ministry of Education further issued the *Action Plan for Operation of Higher Education Institutions in Cooperation with Foreign Partners* to further promote and regulate such cooperative ventures. These policies promoted the transformation of cooperative programmes from incidental, informal, laissez-faire forms to more structured, systematic, well-supported, and regulated programmes, and the number of both non-degree programmes and degree-conferring programmes has been increasing (Wei & Deng, 2010; Y. Zhu, 2012).

As a result of such policies and joint-operational programmes, the curricula in many Chinese higher education institutions became more international and diversified (G. Q. Wang, 2011). For example, a large number of original editions of the textbooks used in overseas universities are now used in Chinese universities for both undergraduate and postgraduate studies, covering majors such as biology, information science, materials, international trade, and law, and more higher education institutions in China have started to instruct courses in foreign languages or teach bilingually (F. T. Huang, 2006). At the same time, a growing number of Chinese students journey abroad for higher education, whilst increasing numbers of international students study in Chinese universities.

These factors demonstrate that higher education in China is increasingly responsive to the processes of internationalisation and globalisation. There is extensive literature exploring relations between globalisation and higher educational development in China (Mok & James, 2005; Mok & Wang, 2012; Ngok & Kwong, 2003; S. H. Xu, 2005; R. Yang, 2005). However, it is important to note that, whilst globalisation has impacted upon higher education worldwide in many aspects, the influence may be limited, as different governing authorities have adopted various approaches and diverse ways to cope with globalising trends (Dale, 1999; Green, 1999; Mok, 2003). Sigley (2006) argues that the influence of globalisation on China's higher education has been a "mere sideline" (p. 490) compared to the nature of changes in the nation's history and its internal social, economic, and political conditions. He further argues that the existing strategies for governing education in China has borne a distinct Chinese socialist manner or socialism with Chinese characteristics (Sigley, 2006). In other words, governing of educational development in contemporary China has remained solidly dependent on the nation's ideological, political, social, and economic circumstances and less so on internationalisation or globalisation.

The reforming trends illustrated above are significant to higher education in China and they have largely enhanced the "modernisation of education" (Jia, 2010; Z. Y. Liu, 2010; A. F. Zhang, 2010). Chinese authorities implemented these reforms to address problems that they recognised in higher education. However, this does not mean that these reforms have solved all of the problems in the higher education sector. Instead, China's higher education system faces a number of existing or emerging challenges and problems, and further reforms are required. It is in such a context that the OER reform has emerged. The relations between these reforms and the OER reform are explored in Chapters Five, Six, and Seven. The following subsection summarises the challenges and problems that China's higher education that have also contributed to context of the OER reform.

3.1.3 Challenges and problems in contemporary higher education

According to the analytical framework of governmentality, the first step in developing governmental rationalities and adopting governmental mechanisms and strategies is identifying the problem to be solved; it is a process of problematisation. As reviewed in the previous two subsections, China's education sector has been

shaped by its historical context and contemporary reforms, both of which present challenges to its higher education sector and some are negotiated through the OER reform process. That is, China's OER reform is enmeshed with problematising the higher education sector. In this subsection, the essential problems identified with the Chinese higher education sector according to the existing literature (D. L. Xu, 2012; Z. Yang, 2005; Y. Zhu, 2012) are summarised.

Firstly, although the scale of China's higher education sector has expanded in recent years and the number of students enrolled in different forms of higher education has risen dramatically, it is suggested that the sustained and large-scale growth in the recruitment of students has exceeded the capacity of higher education institutions to ensure the quality of education offered (Stella, 2009; Zhang & Li, 2011). For example, by 2010, the number of academics who possessed a Master's or doctoral degree only amounted to 46% of the teaching workforce, which was much lower than that in Western nations (Ministry of Education, 2009a). The average intellectual quality of students completing higher education in China has not kept pace with the rapid economic and social development. According to Min (2006), there is an acute shortage of workers with middle- to high-level technical skills and knowledge. The average length of education received by learners in China is much shorter than that in Western countries. Of great significance is the fact that the average educational level of Chinese people living in rural areas is much lower than those in urban areas. Such imbalance imposes urgency on the development of higher education (B. Liu, 2006).

The second challenge that China's higher education sector faces is the growing inequality and inequity of educational opportunity. During the process of developing a market economy, China's higher education sector has undergone a process whereby education has become a commodity provided by competitive suppliers; educational services are now partly commercialised and access to them largely depends on a consumer's ability to pay (Yin & White, 1994). Most of the first-rate universities and top-level, higher educational resources are located in a few metropolitan areas, and the enrolment rate in these areas is much higher than the nationwide average rate (X. S. Lu, 2011). Further, educational development in rural areas still falls behind that in urban areas and the quality of education in rural areas is much lower (Ministry of Education, 2008a). There are few key universities in the

middle and western provinces in China, where economic development is slower than in the coastal areas. Although the central government is endeavouring to solve these problems with various measures, such as enhancing cooperation between institutions in western areas and key universities, gaps remain (Wang & Yao, 2007). Educational inequality and inequity in China is also demonstrated in the affordability of the costs of higher education. A large number of students, whose parents were farmers in remote areas or laid-off workers, cannot afford to pay university tuition fees, although the government has been providing the bulk of funding to public universities and income from tuition has been only a small part of the cost (L. N. Wu, 2006). Socially vulnerable groups, such as girls in rural areas, children of migrant workers, and people with disabilities, have less access to educational resources and the quality of those resources is not high (B. Liu, 2006).

Another challenge is that, although China boasts profound educational traditions, some of them impose negative influences on contemporary educational development (Gu & Shi, 2006; B. Liu, 2006; Song, 2007). For instance, the 1,300-year history of the imperial examination system in China has impacted Chinese society by creating a credential value that makes education somewhat utilitarian, passive, and individual (M. Y. Gu, 2006). A large number of Chinese people tended to gradually undertake education as a way of achieving wealth and ignored its function of cultivating morals (B. Liu, 2006). Such principles are still influential in the present. For example, many people in China attend adult education for certificates and diplomas, because those educational experiences are necessary for their career promotion (Zhang & Xu, 2003). Moreover, with the development of information technologies, the spread and transmission of knowledge increasingly relies on networked technologies, especially the Internet, but significant numbers of students in China prefer to receive knowledge from instructors, rather than search for information by themselves, because this is the traditional way of learning. In most higher education institutions, group or cooperative study models are not extensively adopted and traditional textbook-based and teacher-oriented learning models still dominate the teaching (B. Liu, 2006).

A further challenge is that learners in China's higher education sector are facing contradictions in the contemporary era. Students studying at a university or college in China are called *Da Xue Sheng*, which literally means university or college

student. Yet *Da Xue Sheng* is not only a term referring to studentship as a learner, it also represents a social identity. On the one hand, the subjectivity of *Da Xue Sheng* is associated with superior capacity, priority in the job market, and achievement of high social status and wealth. Firstly, as higher education was restricted in China and the access to universities and colleges was limited until the 1990s, those who achieved access to higher education institutions were usually considered to be an elite group in Chinese society; they were regarded as intellectually superior to average people (Shi, 2004; You, 2002). Secondly, college and university graduates used to enjoy priority in the employment market. Many employers tend to believe that *Da Xue Sheng* would be more likely to perform better in the workplace than those without the experience of studying in a college or university (J. Y. Huang, 2011). Thirdly, *Da Xue Sheng* are also associated with achieving a high social status and wealth. In the imperial civil service examination system (*Ke Ju Zhi*), those who could pass different levels of exams would be endowed with different social privileges and achieve much wealth. Such traditions lasted for centuries, although the form of specific privileges varied. For example, for more than 30 years after 1949, graduates from China's higher education institutions were automatically enlisted as cadre in the national administrative system and were allocated important positions.

On the other hand, the realities facing college students in China today often contradict these associations. Many new graduates' aspirations for salary, status, and conditions are not obtained in the current job market (Moorman, 2011). Firstly, the unemployment rate for college graduates has been unprecedentedly high since the late 1990s. *Bi Ye Deng Yu Shi Ye* (graduation means unemployment) is a popular term in contemporary China, notably since the beginning of the twenty-first century. Moreover, the elite image of *Da Xue Sheng* has become blurred and sometimes even reversed, and there are an increasing number of negative reports about college and the conduct of university students and graduates in various social media in China (Peng & Chen, 2011). According to the *Chinese College Graduates Employment Annual Report* (MYCOS Institute, 2011), many employers complain that the college graduates that they recruit did not satisfy their expectations. These employers find that some college graduates are theoretically knowledgeable, but practically unqualified, and some college graduates are criticised to be over-confident and aiming high, but achieving low. Moreover, many employers now realise that

graduates who come with a bachelor's degree may not necessarily bring useful ideas or improvement to the position for which they have been employed (Peng & Chen, 2011). More employers recognise that the level of education revealed by credentials does not necessarily match the ability (M. Y. Gu, 2006). Consequently, the idea that studying is useless has gained some recognition in China and research shows that an increasing number of college students are feeling diffident about their future (MYCOS Institute, 2011). Students' expectations of monthly income after graduation has been continually lowering and a large number of graduates, including some students in high-ranked, key universities, are anxious about their employment prospects after graduation (MYCOS Institute, 2011).

In addition to the challenges above, the process of globalisation has influenced the sovereignty and traditions of China's higher education. In this context, Chinese educators face the problem of maintaining traditional values of education, whilst also developing the independent mind. With the opening of higher education and globalisation, more Western educational organisations have entered China's higher education sector and have brought their ideological and cultural influences. The involvement of Chinese higher education institutions in global competition and cooperation has increased as well. It is a challenge for Chinese higher education institutions to continue the fine traditions of the past, as well as to develop independence in the transitional process (Feng, 2005).

There are other problems and challenges for Chinese authorities to solve. For example, although higher education institutions are developing rapidly both in quantity and quality, the developmental processes are not well-balanced. More attention is paid to comprehensive universities, while vocational higher education lags behind in socio-economic development (G. J. Chen, 2012; Ma, Wang, & Tang, 2011; Y. Wang, 2012). There is an acute shortage of skilled workers, or expertise, in China in fields that have been booming in China, such as the information technology industry, the automobile industry, and the service industry. For instance, the world average doctor-nurse ratio is 1:2.7, while in China, it was only 1:0.97 by 2010, and it is estimated that 1,900,000 nurses are needed to graduate for the health industry to be sustainable (Ministry of Health, 2010).

Chinese authorities are working to address these problems and challenges. At present, various programmes have been implemented for educational reform, with a

variety of purposes and motivations. According to the latest official educational policy, the *National Long-term Educational Reform and Development Plan (2010-2020)* (State Council of People's Republic of China & Ministry of Education, 2010) (*2010 Long-term Plan* hereafter), further educational reforms in China will encompass those conceptual, pedagogical, curriculum, and administrative aspects that are related to political, economic, and legal reform (Zhang & Xu, 2003). OER reform is one of the key reforms taking place in the higher education sector and it brings changes to different levels of the sector. The relation between the OER reform and these challenges and problems will be explored and discussed in Chapters Five, Six, and Seven. The following section reviews the conceptual and operational issues of the OER movement, as well as the Chinese OER programmes.

3.2 Open Educational Resources

As noted in Chapter One, the open educational resources (OER) movement is developing rapidly worldwide (Butcher, 2011; Commonwealth of Learning & UNESCO, 2011; D'Antoni & Savage, 2009; OECD, 2007; UNESCO, 2012; Wiley & Gurrell, 2009). Many countries and institutions have embraced this push for reform, and China is one of the most active participants (Chen & Wang, 2008; Haklev & Wang, 2012; Wang & Wang, 2010; F. D. Wang, 2008). The following subsection first reviews the conceptual and operational issues of the OER movement and then focuses on a detailed analysis of Chinese OER programmes.

3.2.1 Open educational resources movement

This subsection articulates what the concept of open educational resources entails and reviews the operational issues concerning this movement based on existing literature, such as reports issued by the OECD and UNESCO. The status quo of the OER movement worldwide provides a broad context for understanding the OER reform in China.

3.2.1.1 Concept issues of OER

The term of *Open Educational Resources* was first coined in July 2002 at the UNESCO-hosted Forum on the Impact of Open Courseware for Higher Education in Developing Countries and the term was defined as:

The open provision of educational resources, enabled by information and communication technologies, for consultation, use and adaptation by a community of users for non-commercial purposes. (UNESCO, 2002, p. 24)

At the 2004 UNESCO Second Global Forum on International Quality Assurance, Accreditation and the Recognition of Qualifications in Higher Education, more details of OER were listed as follows:

Learning resources: courseware, content modules, learning objects, learner support and assessment tools, online learning communities;

Resources to support teachers: tools for teachers, and support materials to enable them to create, adapt and use OER, as well as training materials for teachers, and other teaching tools;

Resources to assure the quality of education and educational practices.

(S. Johnstone, 2009, p. 31)

As the OER movement developed rapidly, conceptualisation of OER shifted from an initial description of materials to include the tools, models, operational systems, and, eventually, philosophical principles. The William and Flora Hewlett Foundation, a donor that has been the primary champion of the OER movement, defined OER as:

Teaching, learning and research resources that reside in the public domain or have been released under an intellectual property license that permits their free use or re-purposing by others. Open educational resources include full courses, course materials, modules, textbooks, streaming videos, tests, software, and any other tools, materials or techniques used to support access to knowledge.

(D'Antoni & Savage, 2009, p. 31)

In 2007, the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) published a report entitled *Giving Knowledge for Free - The Emergence of Open Educational Resources*, in which OER was defined as “digitised materials offered freely and openly for educators, students, and self-learners to use and reuse for teaching, learning, and research” (OECD, 2007). The concept was clarified from three detailed perspectives:

Learning content: Full courses, courseware, content modules, learning objects, collections and journals.

Tools: Software to support the development, use, reuse and delivery of learning content, including the searching and organisation of content, content and

learning management systems, content development tools, and online learning communities.

Implementation resources: Intellectual property licences to promote open publishing of materials, design principles of best practice and localise content. (OECD, 2007, p.30)

The OECD report illustrated the different elements of OER shown in

Figure 3.2

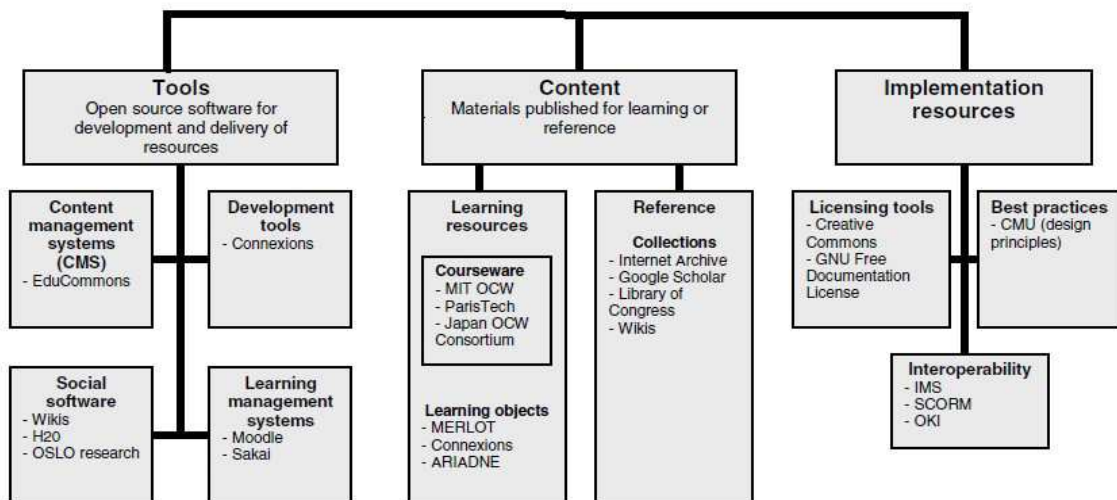


Figure 3.2 Open Educational Resources: A Conceptual Map (OECD, 2007, p.31)

In the report of *Guidelines for Open Educational Resources (OER) in Higher Education* published in 2011, Commonwealth of Learning and UNESCO (Commonwealth of Learning & UNESCO, 2011, p. v) defined OER in a more succinct way:

OER are teaching, learning and research materials in any medium that reside in the public domain and have been released under an open licence that permits access, use, repurposing, reuse and redistribution by others with no or limited restrictions.

The report also noted that the term *OER* was not synonymous with online learning, eLearning or mobile learning.

These definitions provide general understandings of the open educational resources movement worldwide. Although they are varied in conceptualising OER and define OER from different perspectives, they all recognise that OER is a

movement operating with a number of principles that indicate that the OER movement should provide educational resources only for the purpose of learning; that OER resources take different forms and cover a wide range of subjects; and that such resources are provided free of charge, although some restrictions may apply. As will be discussed in section 3.2.2, whilst OER programmes in China are different from those operated by other countries or institutions, Chinese open educational resources reflect the three principles of the OER movement. In order to further clarify the differences and similarities between the international OER movement and Chinese OER reform, the following sub-subsections review the international OER programmes from the perspective of the drivers and barriers to their operation, and illustrate the development of the OER movement in a global context. The operational details of Chinese OER reform are reviewed below.

3.2.1.2 Operational issues of OER: Drivers and barriers

There are few theoretical or methodological studies on the OER movement. Of the research that has been conducted, most has looked at the motivations and barriers for the movement. As early as 2002, Johnstone and Poulin (2002) provided an overview of what the OER movement entailed and described some of the motives of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology in implementing OER, such as seeking solutions to copyright issues and enhancing technological advancement by using commons licences. Moore (2002) analysed the implications of OER on institutions and was among the first to make a distinction between open source development tools and open source institutions. Siemens (2006) listed a number of reasons for educators to share learning resources for free, including low costs and providing educators with alternatives and prompting increased competition in the marketplace, together with that fact that it is democratic and a way to preserve public education by making these resources available to anyone.

The OECD (2007) summarised five categories of drivers for OER movement. According to the OECD report, the technical drivers of the OER movement include increased broadband availability, increased hard drive capacity and processing speeds coupled with lower costs, the rise of technologies to create, distribute and share content, the provision of simpler software tools for creating, editing, and remixing, and decreased costs and increased quality of consumer technology devices for audio, photo, and video. Economic drivers range from monetary incentives for

sharing content for free, the emergence of new cost-recovery models, and opportunities to reduce costs by co-operation and sharing, to lower the costs of broadband Internet connections, and the increased availability of tools for creating, editing, and hosting content, and lower entry barriers (OECD, 2007).

On the list of social drivers, altruistic motives and opportunities for institutions to reach out to new social groups are the most important factors. Other social drivers include increased use of broadband, desire for interactivity, and the willingness to share, contribute, and create online communities (OECD, 2007). In terms of policy, the key motivators include the need to leverage an initial investment of taxpayer's money by encouraging free sharing and reuse among publicly funded educational institutions, together with the will to make knowledge available to individuals and institutions that would not otherwise have access to it. The rise of new legal means to create and distribute open tools and content through licensing schemes, such as Creative Commons and the GNU Free Documentation Licence, is one of the most important legal drivers for the OER movement (OECD, 2007).

In 2011, the Commonwealth of Learning and UNESCO (2011) published a report on OER and stated that the development of higher education in the world was calling for open educational resources. In this report, it was also claimed that higher education systems would face immense challenges in meeting rising enrolment demands worldwide. The report argued that, although enrolments in higher education are estimated to increase to 263 million by the year 2025, the growth would be unlikely to be accompanied by equivalent increases in the human and financial resources available to higher education. At the same time, the report also argued that information and communication technologies (ICT) have brought changes to educational development worldwide in terms of educational management and administration, the provision of education, and the production of educational resources; and these changes are calling for pedagogical innovations. The report of the Commonwealth of Learning and UNESCO claims that such an educational context would be a key driver for the further development of OER, as it can further promote individualised study, social networking, and collaborative learning, as well as opportunities for pedagogical innovation (Commonwealth of Learning & UNESCO, 2011).

There has been research on barriers to the OER movement as well. Werry (2001), for example, noted that the primary obstacles in developing an open source movement were organisational factors, financial resources, and lack of skills. The risk of misuse of educational resources by other institutions has been elaborated upon by researchers as well (Pedró, 2006; Stewart, 2006). The OECD also identified a number of barriers to the development of OER (OECD, 2007) and identified the lack of broadband availability as one of the most significant technological barriers. In terms of economy, key barriers include a lack of resources to invest in the hardware and software required to develop and share OER and difficulties for covering the costs of developing educational resources and sustaining OER projects in the long term.

The OECD (2007) report identified various social barriers, including the absence of skills to utilise the technical inventions driving this technology, as well as cultural obstacles impeding the shared use of resources developed by other teachers or institutions. Other social barriers include the lack of a reward system for teachers and researchers to devote time and energy to develop OER, a lack of awareness about the advantages of OER or skills to use or produce the content and tools, the lack of time, and the difficulties of localising the content for reuse (OECD, 2007). Regarding OER and copyright issues, the deficiency of a clear policy in institutions was considered a barrier in the policy field. In terms of legal matters, the most significant barriers include the prohibition of the use of copyrighted materials without the consent of the creator, and the time and cost of obtaining permission for using or removing material for which a third party owns the copyright, prior to making them available as OER (OECD, 2007).

However, according to the reports of the Commonwealth of Learning and UNESCO (Butcher, 2011; Commonwealth of Learning & UNESCO, 2011), the barriers of the OER movement could be removed through joint efforts of government, institutions, teachers, and learners, and some of the barriers have already been reduced. For example, the resource providers' intellectual properties are protected through the use of open licenses. It is evidenced that the OER movement could contribute to the reputation of institutions and, hence, could attract more students (Butcher, 2011).

This list of drivers and barriers concerning the operation of open educational resources is illustrative of this study's examination of the OER reform in China. The operational system of the reform in China is different to those of other countries and institutions, due to its specific political and educational contexts, and a number of operational issues concerning open educational resources are in dispute. Through an examination of this reform in China, I will illustrate the detailed drivers and barriers in the implementation of the Chinese OER reform.

3.2.1.3 Global map and guidelines of the OER movement

As the OER movement is developing rapidly and more institutions and new online resources are created, it is important to draft a typology of different categories of providers, producers, and users in the OER movement. A number of guidelines are provided by international organisations, such as the OECD (2007), and a review of these guidelines helps to illustrate the trends of OER development in the future. This sub-subsection provides a global map of the open educational resources movement and reviews the guidelines according to existing literature.

The results of a web-based survey conducted by the OECD (2007) indicates that most of the OER producers are institutions located in Western countries and the categories of open educational resource providers could be classified according to three standards, such as scale of operation, the base of the provider, and the discipline. The scale of operation could be large, such as MIT OCW and Wikipedia, or very small, like OpenCourse.org, whilst providers could be institution-based or community-based. Repositories have also been different in terms of whether the resources they provide are disciplinary or multidisciplinary (OECD, 2007). As this research investigates the reform of open educational resources in China, it is important to review the OER programmes that involve governmental administration, sponsorship, or intervention.

To date, there appear to be few OER initiatives with direct government support. The OECD (2007) introduced four major projects involving governments. The first, and probably the most ambitious, is located in the United Kingdom and funds the Joint Information Systems Committee (JISC) (2006), not only to develop educational resources, but also to build repositories and digital content infrastructure. The Dutch OpenER (Schuwer & Mulder, 2009), which has received two-thirds of its funding

from the Dutch Ministry of Education, Culture, and Science, is another important example. In India, the Knowledge Commission (Kumar, 2009) adopts OER as its strategy to serve the knowledge needs of diverse communities, to amplify interaction among students and teachers, and to introduce innovative and interactive educational experiences. Vijay Kumar (2009) outlined the challenges for Indian society and the promise of OER greatly increasing educational opportunity and excellence. As an active participant in the international open educational resource movement, China has its own unique social and economic conditions, as well as pressures for developing open educational resources. Therefore, this study adds to the global literature of this movement by examining the OER reform in China and illustrates its operational model.

In addition, there are a number of guidelines directing the development of the OER movement. In 2011, the Commonwealth of Learning and UNESCO published a report that provided five groups of guidelines to governments; for higher education institutions, academic staff, student bodies, quality assurance or accreditation bodies, and academic recognition bodies, respectively. The guidelines were provided with the aim of assisting education stakeholders to develop open educational resources. At the 2012 World Open Educational Resources (OER) Congress of UNESCO held in Paris in June of 2012, the *2012 Paris OER Declaration* was issued. The declaration stated that the OER movement was in line with the common goals in statements of educational development, such as the right to education (*Universal Declaration of Human Rights*), provision of quality basic education to children, youth, and adults (*Millennium Declaration and the 2000 Dakar Framework for Action*), and recognition of the rights of persons with disabilities to education (*2006 Convention on the Rights of People with Disabilities*), to name just a few. The declaration recommended ten guidelines for states and institutions to develop open educational resources. The guidelines included:

1. Foster awareness and use of OER.
2. Facilitate enabling environments for use of information and communications technologies.
3. Reinforce the development of strategies and policies of OER.
4. Promote the understanding and use of open licensing frameworks.

5. Support capacity building for the sustainable development of quality learning materials.
6. Foster strategic alliances for OER
7. Encourage the development and adaptation of OER in a variety of languages and cultural contexts.
8. Encourage research on OER.
9. Facilitate finding, retrieving, and sharing of OER.
10. Encourage the open licensing of educational materials produced with public funds.

These recommendations provided possible principles for the development of open educational resources. However, this does not mean that the recommendations would fit every nation's and institution's OER programmes. As reviewed in section 3.1, higher education in Mainland China has its specific historical, cultural, economic, and political backgrounds. Therefore, the OER movement in China operates differently from the OER programmes in other nations. The following subsection reviews the features of OER programmes in China.

3.2.2 Open educational resources in China

In China, the reform of open educational resources mainly consists of the programme of National Open Quality Courseware (NQOCW), which is supported and operated cooperatively by a variety of systems and organisations. The key participants in this reform include educational administrations, regular higher education institutions, radio and television universities, the organisation of China Open Resources for Education (CORE), and some social media (Y. Cai, 2010; S. S. Chen, 2011; Haklev & Wang, 2012; Li & Li, 2012; Zhou & Zhang, 2010). Now I review these programmes, systems, and organisations that drive the OER movement in China.

3.2.2.1 National Quality Open Courseware

The National Quality Open Courseware (NQOCW) (*Guo Jia Jin Pin Ke Cheng Xiang Mu*), an official programme developed by the Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China in 2003, is a comprehensive programme designed to produce and freely publicise model courses that have first-class teaching teams, teaching content, teaching methods, course materials, and teaching management

(Ministry of Education, 2003b). These courses are named *Jin Pin Ke Cheng* and translated as *quality courses*, *elaborate courses*, *excellent courses*, or *benchmark courses* (Y. Cai, 2010; Lu, Sun, Tian, Xie, & Wei, 2010; L. Wang, 2006). For clarification, I adopt the terminology of ‘quality course’ in this thesis and here review the development stages, visions, designs, and operational systems of this programme.

The Ministry of Education and higher education institutions in China are the key operators of the NQOCW programme. Based on the criteria of quality established in the NQOCW programme, the Ministry of Education, together with provincial education administrations, evaluate some courses produced or recommended by higher education institutions and identify them as ‘national-level’, ‘provincial-level’, or ‘institutional-level’ quality courses. Afterwards, these quality courses are publicised on the Internet for free use (Ministry of Education, 2003b; National Quality Courseware Center, 2008a).

By the end of 2012, the NQOCW programme had developed through three stages. The programme officially commenced in 2003 and the first stage ended in 2007. During this five year period, 1,727 national-level quality courses were produced and publicised (171 courses in 2003, 299 courses in 2004, 298 courses in 2005, 358 courses in 2006, and 572 courses in 2007) (National Quality Courseware Center, 2008b). In 2007, The Ministry of Education decided to expand the programme and the second stage commenced. By the end of 2010, another 2,053 national-level quality courses were produced and, altogether, more than 12,000 provincial-level quality courses and over one million institutional-level quality courses had been established (Ministry of Education, 2011c; National Quality Courseware Centre, 2011, 2012, March 2, 2012, May 7). After 2010, large-scale production of quality courses stopped and more emphasis was placed on producing and publicising the course resources. In 2011, the Ministry of Education started to develop national video quality courses and, in 2012, quality resource-sharing courses started to be produced; both types of courses are developed from the existing quality courses. The video quality courses have been developed by producing more video recordings of the selected quality courses and have covered all the teaching sessions of the courses. The quality resource-sharing courses are aimed at producing both course resources and extra-curriculum resources to learners. They are more

comprehensive than quality courses, in terms of resource connections. The Ministry of Education stated that 1,000 video quality courses and 5,000 quality resource-sharing courses would be constructed by the year 2015 (Ministry of Education, 2011a, 2011d, 2012a).

The general mission of the NQOCW programme was to promote educational innovation and pedagogical reform in Chinese higher education institutions in response to the policy document of *Some Ideas about Strengthening Undergraduate Teaching and Improving Pedagogy in Higher Education* (Ministry of Education, 2003b). The general mission of the programme was specified in a number of objectives, namely:

- enhancing the application of the latest information technologies in teaching;
- promoting the use and sharing of quality educational resources;
- encouraging professors to give more lectures;
- cultivating learners' ability of creation, innovation, and exploration;
- developing human resources with special and vocational knowledge;
- updating the thoughts and understandings of education in institutions and administrative departments of education at all levels;
- improving Chinese students' competence in international competitions;
- integrating the achievements of different educational reforms;
- enhancing the combination of research and teaching;
- promoting learners' initiatives and autonomy;
- reforming the unreasonable systems and regulations that affect the quality of teaching and training; and
- encouraging higher education institutions to attach more importance to teaching.

These objectives are underpinned by a number of political rationalities and realised through a variety of technologies. For example, the objective of promoting the sharing of high-quality educational resources is underpinned by the rational thought that educational development in China is unbalanced between different

regions. Therefore, in the OER reform, Chinese authorities have not only encouraged higher education institutions to produce high-quality course resources, but have also established online platforms for opening and sharing these resources with the public.

The operational system of the NQOCW programme is sophisticated and it involves administrative departments of education at different levels and a large number of higher education institutions. The operational system of the programme consists of four aspects; requirements of the Ministry of Education on higher education institutions and provincial departments of education, criteria for the evaluation of quality courses, institutional participation and involvement in the programme, and the use of the course resources (Haklev & Wang, 2012; Lin, 2009; Wang & Wang, 2010; Xu & Chen, 2010).

In order to implement the NQOCW programme, the Ministry of Education (2003b) imposed several requirements on the higher education institutions. For example, higher education institutions are required to develop detailed and feasible plans for the construction of quality courses consistent with curriculum development. Secondly, higher education institutions are required to enhance the construction of teaching teams through the operation of the NQOCW programme. The NQOCW programme insists that all of the quality courses should be instructed by academics with high academic achievement and rich teaching experience. Teachers of vocational quality courses are required to have relevant expertise and practical experiences. It is also required that higher education institutions should establish stable, teaching teams with proper age structures and outstanding teaching performances and effects (Ministry of Education, 2003a).

The NQOCW programme emphasises reforming curriculum resources. Therefore, the Ministry of Education (2003a) requires institutions to strengthen and ensure the function and the position of quality courses in cultivating talents, and to enhance the co-development of quality courses and curriculum reform. It is required that the content of quality courses should be the most advanced and should apply the latest scientific and technological research findings. The Ministry of Education requires that the construction of quality courses draws on professional teaching experiences, integrates achievements of teaching reforms, and contributes to social, political, economic, and scientific demands in the development of human resources.

Another requirement is for higher education institutions to adopt effective teaching methodologies and approaches for the construction of quality courses. The NQOCW programme aims to drive institutions to utilise modern information technologies properly and reform some of the traditional concepts of teaching, teaching methods, teaching approaches, and teaching management. Quality courses are required to be instructed and administered with network technology, and the relevant teaching syllabi, teaching plans, exercises, experiment directions, and lists of references are to be open and shared on the Internet (Ministry of Education, 2003a; National Quality Courseware Center, 2008a, 2008b).

The Ministry of Education requires higher education institutions to enhance the construction of teaching materials (Ministry of Education, 2003a, 2003c; State Council of People's Republic of China & Ministry of Education, 2010). In the NQOCW programme, teaching materials for quality courses are required to be systematic. It is required that institutions should encourage instructors of quality courses to produce or edit the teaching materials by themselves, or use reputable domestic and foreign teaching materials. Institutions are responsible for supporting the design of integrated teaching materials that comprise different media-equipment, teaching methods, and instructing approaches.

Higher education institutions are required to balance theoretical instruction and practical training in the construction of quality courses. Institutions have to place considerable importance on experiments, social practices, and the establishment of training bases, in order to cultivate learners' creativity (Ministry of Education, 2003a). Instructors of quality courses are required to design practice projects for students and improve the structure and content of laboratory-based teaching. Institutions are required to encourage academics to design and instruct comprehensive and creative research courses and encourage undergraduates to participate in scientific and academic research.

Finally, the NQOCW programme includes effective reward and evaluation systems. Institutions are responsible for making efforts to mobilise and encourage professors to give lectures and to produce quality courses, and to encourage academics, administrative staff, and students to participate in the programme. Both reward and evaluation systems are implemented for encouraging and administering

academics' participation in the programme (Ministry of Education, 2003a; National Quality Courseware Center, 2008a, 2008b).

Besides such requirements for institutions, the Ministry of Education also assigns provincial, administrative departments of education to participate in organising and directing the construction of quality courses. These educational departments are required to provide enough funds for the construction of quality courses, in order to promote the sharing of educational resources and the improvement of the overall quality of education. Provincial educational departments are responsible for evaluating the provincial quality courses and recommending selected courses to the Ministry of Education for evaluation for national-level quality courses (Ministry of Education, 2003a).

The Ministry of Education imposes different requirements on the higher education institutions and administrative departments. It also provides corresponding directions for the construction of quality courses. "First-class teaching teams, first-class teaching content, first-class teaching methods, first-class course materials, and first-class teaching management" (Ministry of Education, 2003b, p. 1, lines 5-8) serve as the key criteria for the selection and evaluation of quality courses. As the NQOCSW programme develops, the criteria have been specified and modified every year from 2003 to 2010. The changes and modifications range from minor variations in the rating rubrics to more large-scale changes in priorities. The key criteria have been interpreted into different primary and secondary indicators for the evaluation of quality courses. Specific and detailed explanations are provided for the indicators for the evaluation of different aspects of the courses as well. For example, in 2010, the criteria for the evaluation of regular, undergraduate quality courses included five primary indicators: teaching teams, teaching content, teaching conditions, teaching methods and approaches, and teaching effects. The five indicators were subdivided into 14 secondary indicators. The indicator for teaching teams included the individuals and groups responsible for the course, key instructors, the composition and quality of the teaching team, and teaching reform and research. Teaching content referred to the course content and the organisation and planning of the course content. Teaching conditions contained the teaching materials and other resources, conditions for practical components, and online teaching environment. The indicator of teaching methods and approaches was composed of three secondary indicators: instructional

design, instructional methodology, and instructional approach. Teaching effects were indicated by evaluation from peers and university supervisors, students, and assessment of the recorded materials (State Council of People's Republic of China & Ministry of Education, 2010).

Another important indicator of evaluation that the Ministry of Education has adopted was the support of institutional policies and regulations and the influence of sharing the courses. This indicator estimates the up-to-date innovation of quality courses, the effectiveness of the institutional policies, and the prospects of the courses (State Council of People's Republic of China & Ministry of Education, 2010).

The selection and promotion of quality courses are organised at three levels, as institution-level quality courses, provincial-level quality courses, and national-level quality courses, and the courses are administered by institutions, provincial education departments, and the Ministry of Education, respectively (National Quality Courseware Center, 2008a). Selection for institution-level quality courses is organised and implemented by institutions through internal evaluation of the courses and the plans for course development. The process and detailed policies for the selection and promotion vary in different institutions (H. X. Li, 2003; Y. Q. Zhao, 2010). The institutions are expected to invest in the selected courses and further develop them to match the standards of the NQOCW programme. Investment in the selected courses can range from raising funds, organising teaching teams, and improving teaching environments, to providing technological support, updating teaching materials, and inviting experts for peer-review (Xie, 2011).

Selected institution-level quality courses are publicised and anyone can use the course resources on the Internet. According to a comprehensive evaluation of the courses, the institutional administrators suggest and select some of the institution-level quality courses for a higher designation at the provincial level. The Department of Education, as the provincial education administration system, is responsible for planning the distribution of provincial-level quality courses. The departments evaluate the courses promoted by institutions and designate selected courses as provincial-level quality courses. The provincial education administrations also award the provincial-level quality courses with a sum of money to support their further development (National Quality Courseware Center, 2008a, 2008b; Xie, 2011; Y. Q. Zhao, 2010).

The final step in the NQOCW programme refers to the selection for national-level quality courses, which is carried out by the Ministry of Education. The Ministry of Education is the highest level of organisation responsible for the management of the NQOCW programme. It organises the selection of different types of courses, provides guidance around the entire process of developing and evaluating courses, and supervises the annual evaluation and selection of courses at all levels. The selection for national-level quality courses is similar to the institution-level and provincial-level process. The Ministry of Education evaluates the provincial-level quality courses and selects some of them to be designated as national-level quality courses. The requirements for the national-level quality courses are very strict. The courses designated as national-level quality courses receive awards from the Ministry of Education for their further development (National Quality Courseware Center, 2008a, 2008b; Xie, 2011; Y. Q. Zhao, 2010).

In summary, National Quality Open Courseware is a comprehensive programme for opening higher, educational resources in China. The programme has experienced different development stages and has specific objectives and operational systems. The Ministry of Education sets specific requirements on higher education institutions to implement the NQOCW programme. Detailed evaluation and promotion systems are adopted for the programme as well. The operational model of the NQOCW programme and the interconnections of all key stakeholders in the programme are illustrated in Figure 3.3.

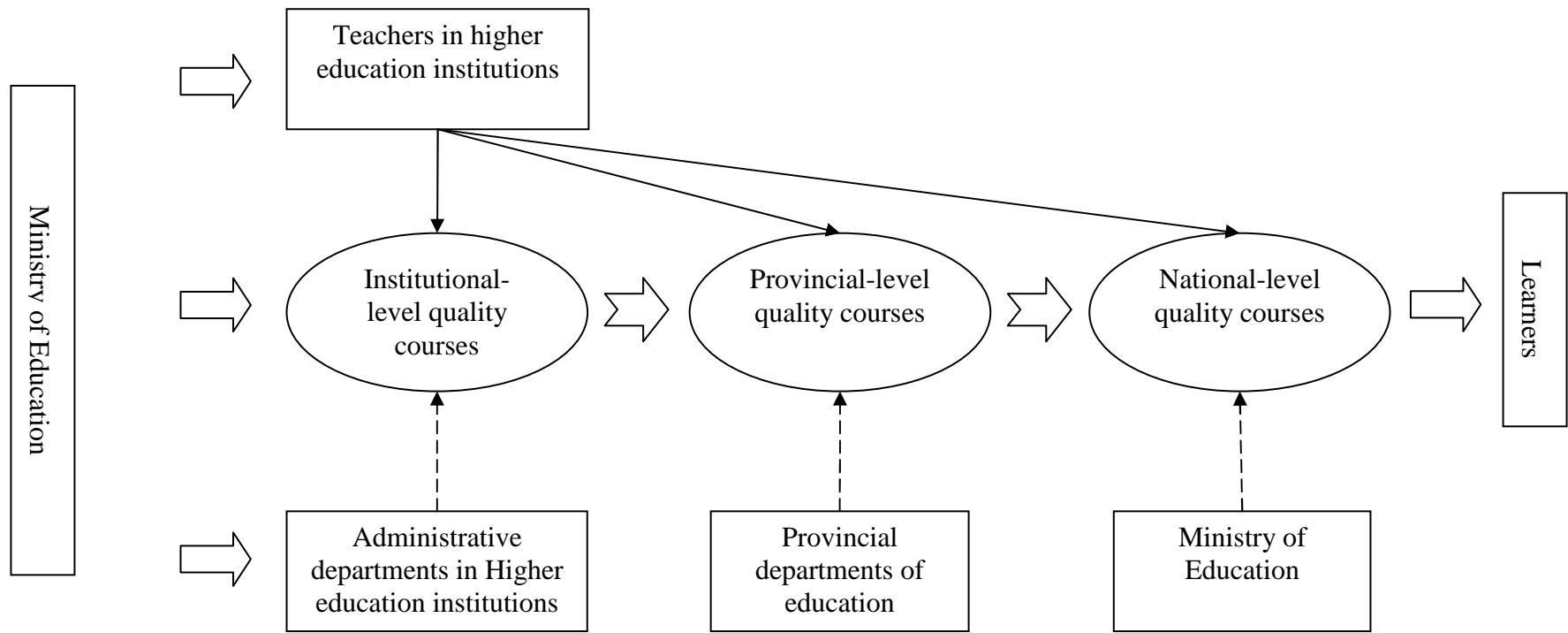


Figure 3.3 Operational model of NQOWC programme

3.2.2.2 China Open Resources of Education (CORE) and radio and television universities

Besides the NQOCW programme itself, the OER reform in China also involves other systems that support and facilitate the production and sharing of educational resources. The organisation, China Open Resources for Education (CORE), and the radio and television university system are two of the most important systems (S. S. Chen, 2011; CORE, 2009a, 2009b). CORE is a non-profit organisation for enhancing open educational resources in China. CORE operates more than 20 programmes for opening and sharing educational resources. These programmes promote the OER reform in different ways, linking institutions, students, teachers, and educational organisations, both in China and abroad (Li & Li, 2012; L. Yan, 2012). A key programme of CORE is translating international open courses for the use of Chinese learners and translating Chinese quality courses from NQOCW programmes into English. CORE runs a website (<http://www.core.org.cn/>) as a platform that accommodates international open courses, such as MIT OCW for Chinese users, as well as the Chinese Quality Open Courses with English translations to be shared with international users.

Another major role that CORE adopts involves helping Chinese higher education institutions to manage their open educational resources, and CORE has cooperated with some Chinese universities to analyse and convert foreign, open source software, such as *Sakai*, *Moodle*, and *eduCommons*, into Chinese. For the purpose of open educational resources, CORE assists in establishing association and cooperation between Chinese universities and a number of international institutions and organisations for education, including the Open Course Consortium (OCWC), the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), Western Cooperative for Educational Telecommunications (WCET), Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT), Utah State University, Tufts University, University of Michigan, and the University of Washington (CORE, 2009a). The use of open source software and cooperation with foreign universities contributes to the development of the Chinese NQOCW programme (M. J. Wu, 2009; Y. G. Wu, 2011).

The radio and television university system is another important supporter of open educational resources in China. China Central Radio and Television University

(CRTVU) is a university under the direct administration of the Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China. CRTVU, together with China's 44 provincial radio and television universities, over 1,000 municipal radio and television universities, and experimental schools of provincial radio and television universities, nearly 2,000 county-level radio and television universities, and over 60,000 tutorial centres, has formed a distance education system with the features of overall planning, decentralised administration, and multi-level operation (China Central Radio and TV University, 2010).

In the OER reform, the radio and television university system participates in establishing and running open educational resources mainly in three ways (F. D. Wang, 2008; Zhang, Shan, Shi, & Yao, 2009). Firstly, radio and television universities participate in the NQOCW programme by cooperating with regular universities, including a number of famous, Chinese, regular universities, such as Tsinghua University and Peking University. Radio and television universities have a long history and rich experience in distance education. Therefore, teachers in radio and television universities are invited to cooperate with instructors of quality courses to draft course curricula, design teaching plans, and edit teaching materials. Radio and television universities assist higher education institutions to develop technologies and resources for sharing quality courses online (F. D. Wang, 2008; D. Y. Zhang et al., 2009).

Secondly, China Central Radio and TV University, together with the provincial and municipal radio and television universities, form a university system in which educational resources are shared and quality courses become a key resource for these universities (S. S. Chen, 2011; Lv, 2007; F. D. Wang, 2008; D. Y. Zhang et al., 2009). Thirdly, CRTVU cooperates with international distance education organisations to run various programmes, such as teaching Chinese to speakers of other languages, co-training of human resources, and developing “in2English” (China Central Radio and TV University, 2010) websites. For example, CRTVU operates programmes for teaching the Chinese language on the SCOLA Satellite Channel in the United States (China Central Radio and TV University, 2010). The programme plays an important role in promoting Chinese language teaching and HSK (*Hanyu Shuipin Kaoshi*), which is a standard test of Chinese language proficiency. Moreover, CRTVU cooperates with overseas universities to establish

online Confucius Institutes, which aim to promote Chinese language and culture (B. Yan, 2006).

In summary, the reform of open educational resources in China is centred on the programme of National Quality Open Courseware with CORE and the radio and television university system, as two important supporting systems for the reform. The literature above demonstrates that OER reform involves the central government leaders, education administration at different levels, higher education institutions, institutional administrations, individual academics, and various types of learners. These participants play different roles in the reform. Firstly, the Ministry of Education, together with the higher education institutional administrative departments and provincial departments of education, play the role of administering the programmes. They are responsible for enhancing the construction of the resources, evaluating the resources at different levels, and assisting with the publication of the resources. Secondly, higher education institutions and their academics are the providers of the resources; resources largely produced through the co-effort of teaching teams, faculties, or institutions. The third group of participants are various types of learners, as the receivers of the resources. I will further identify these participants and investigate how they are mobilised, regulated, and managed in the reform in Chapters Five, Six, and Seven.

Moreover, the literature also demonstrates that the operation of the NQOCW reform, CORE, and the radio and television university system in the OER movement rely heavily on governmental policies. The NQOCW programme was started, modified, and implemented through a series of policy documents issued by the Ministry of Education. CORE was established with the approval and support of the Ministry of Education and detailed policies are implemented to promote the participation of the radio and television universities in the OER movement. Therefore, an investigation of the Chinese OER reform within the governmentality analytical framework should focus on the policies that enacted and implemented the reform. More details of the policies that drive the NQOCW programme are presented in Chapter Four.

As Chinese OER reform is developing rapidly, it has attracted researchers from various academic backgrounds. The following section reviews the existing literature

concerning this reform and demonstrates the research gap that the present study addresses.

3.3 Research of the Reform of Open Educational Resources in China

The OER reform in China has been developing under the guidance of educational administrations at different levels (C. Y. Cai, 2007). However, as the reform did not start until 2003 and has developed rapidly since then, the literature on Chinese open educational resources is limited. Research of the reform has mainly fallen into four categories:

1. comparisons between open educational resources in China and in other countries;
2. evaluations of existing open educational resources in China;
3. proposals for the development of open educational resources; and
4. analysis of specific quality courses.

The following paragraphs expound this categorisation of the existing literature.

Tang Zhihan (2009) compares National Quality Open Courseware with MIT's OpenCourseWare (OCW) in terms of quantity, quality, and access rate of the courses. In her study, Tang compares the course, *Introduction to Photography*, from MIT OCW, with the quality course, *Movie Photography Creation*, provided by the Beijing Film Academy and explored the similarities and differences between the two courses. Her findings revealed and exemplified the gap between open educational resources in China and those in MIT in terms of the number of courses, the quality assurance mechanisms, and the protection of intellectual property rights. She suggests that the Chinese OER movement should pay attention to these aspects for its sustainable development (Tang, 2009).

Wu Meijiao's (2009) study, *Comparison and Study on the Open Educational Resources*, elaborates on the differences between NQOCW and MIT OCW in terms of programme backgrounds, operational systems, and resource platforms. The study explores the directional resources, learning resources, expansion resources, evaluation resources, and interaction resources provided by the two programmes and offers suggestions for the further development of NQOCW, such as enhancing the integration of different course resources, timely updating of the resources, and improving the application of the courses in practice.

Cai Chunyan (2007) focuses exclusively on the quality courses produced by the higher education institutions in Beijing (provincial-level) and introduces the content, financing, and personnel systems of the courses. Her study also compares the Beijing quality courses with MIT OCW courses in terms of access, application, and influence. Cai (2007) finds that there are some difficulties for further development of Chinese OER movement, such as the limited translation from Chinese to English, the immature copyright system, and the lack of quality assurance systems.

There are also a number of small-scale studies comparing NQOCW and MIT OCW from detailed perspectives (Y. Li, 2011; Luo & Li, 2006; M. J. Wu, 2011). Their findings vary from the differences in the operational systems of the courses to the feedback of users of the courses. These comparative studies together contribute to the understanding and conceptualisation of open educational resources in China. They demonstrate that, although the Chinese OER movement shares similarities with some international OER programmes, its development is based on social, cultural, and educational conditions in China. The findings of these studies contribute to the present study by indicating that the Chinese OER reform should be investigated as a unique social reform, instead of simply assimilating it with OER programmes in other nations.

The second literature set centres on the evaluation of open educational resources in China. In his study, *Open and Sharing of Online Resources from China National Elaborate Courses in High Education: Actuality, Challenges, Countermeasures and Correlative Analysis*, Wang Long (2006) investigates the access, application, impact, and updating of quality courses through questionnaire research and personal interviews. He finds that the NQOCW programme has brought up a variety of social and teaching benefits, such as sufficient use of the limited resources, the integration of various courses, and the cooperation between different institutions. He also provides suggestions for further development of the programme, such as adopting a comprehensive evaluation system, improving protection of open educational resources' intellectual property, and enhancing the extension and publication of the programme (L. Wang, 2006). Liu and Wu's (2008) study, *From the Construction of Quality Courses to the Sharing and Application: Introduction to the Programme of Integrating Quality Courses*, conducts an analysis of the problems

encountered in sharing and using quality courses, such as lack of standards, low updating rate, and unstable access to the resources. Zhou Chao (2008) adopts a theoretical framework of course evaluation to analyse the construction of quality courses. He finds that the programme is usually administration-oriented with simple evaluation standards, subject methods and measures. Zhou Chao suggests that, in order to develop the movement sustainably, the evaluation system should be multi-dimensional. That is, there should be diversified subjects, criteria, and measures for evaluating open resources.

There are also a number of studies that evaluate the Chinese OER reform from specific perspectives, such as the operational model of quality courses (Liang & Xiang, 2008; Tang, Guo, & Chen, 2010; M. J. Wu, 2011), the use of open educational resources (Jin, 2009; Li & Li, 2012; H. C. Liang, 2009; Xie, 2011), and the development of teachers in the reform (Kong, Wang, & Luo, 2010; Tao, 2010; Wang & Li, 2010; Y. H. Zhang et al., 2012). These studies provide comprehensive evaluations of open educational resources in China that are significant and beneficial to further development of the programme.

The third category of studies related to the Chinese OER reform is focused on technologies for constructing the resources. For example, Zhao Fengquan (2009), whose study concerns radio and television universities, focuses on the practices of constructing open educational resources. She proposes a co-production model for construction. Zhao (2009) argues that students' participation in the building of educational resources is in line with the concept of the open educational resource movement. Zhao (2009) proposes that radio and television universities should make use of their technology, learning materials, and human resources to enhance the co-production of open educational resources. Recognising the deficiency of open educational resources in China, Zhang Dechen and Wang Zhiqing (2008) offer a proposal for constructing open educational resources by developing specific information technologies. They focus on Web 3.0 as a new information technology and analyse its specific connotations and characteristics. In this way, they learn about the possibilities of intelligent aggregation and individuation of open educational resources with the help of Web3.0. Other similar studies included Tong Yanqiu's (2012) *Research on the Design of Network Platform of Inter-School Quality Curriculum*, Wang Yu's (2011) *The Design and Implementation of Quality Course*

Platform based on Web, and Li Li's (2008) *Application of Streaming Media Technology in Building Excellent Courses*. These studies demonstrate that the Chinese OER reform relies heavily on the development of educational technologies. Thus, an investigation of the reform should focus on the technologies adopted in the reform and their impact on the reform.

The last group of studies, and probably the largest group concerning open educational resources in China, is composed of over 1,000 journal articles investigating individual quality courses. These studies examine quality courses in various academic disciplines, ranging from natural sciences, engineering, agriculture, and medicine, to arts, business, humanities, and social sciences. It is confirmed that there is an increasing number of studies concerning open educational resources in China, rising from six journal articles in 2002 to 725 articles, to over 1,000 in 2011 (M. J. Wang, 2012). However, the review of literature above demonstrates that most of the studies are devoted to examining the open educational resources as a pedagogical reform, focusing primarily on educational practices, strategies, and technologies. Few studies are focused on the reform in terms of its political and social circumstances and effects.

As an official in the Ministry of Education of People's Republic of China, Lin (2009) elaborates on the backgrounds, objectives, and significance of policies concerning open educational resources. As noted in Chapter One, his study is largely informed by his position as a government official and involves little critical analysis of these policies. Zhou and Zhang's (2010) article provides an exemplary assessment of the programme of National Quality Open Courseware (NQOCW) in terms of its efficiency, effectiveness, equitability, accountability, and flexibility. The study is comprehensive, yet limited in scale; it is theoretically innovative, but lacks analysis of the real contexts. Adopting the advocacy coalition framework, Cai (2010) conducts a brief analysis of the same policy documents of open educational resources, however, it is not far-reaching enough in terms of the examination of policy production and implementation. None of these studies have explored OER from the perspective of governmentality.

Therefore, the existing literature is not sufficient for understanding and conceptualising the Chinese OER reform from social and political perspectives. The present study contributes to this research gap by conducting a governmentality

analysis of the reform. This study investigates the governing of the Ministry of Education and the provincial and institutional administrative departments as resource administrators, institutions and their academics as resource providers, and learners as resource receivers in this reform. In this way, I illustrate the changes that the Chinese OER reform brings to higher education and the society.

3.4 Chapter Summary

This chapter provided a detailed literature review for the present research and demonstrated the research gaps that the study aims to address. The first section provided a review of the contemporary context for the emergence of Chinese open educational resources (OER) reform by elaborating on the historical background of China's higher education sector, the key reforms in the sector in the contemporary era, and the opportunities and challenges that the sector faces at present. I argued that Chinese OER reform emerged from this context.

The second section of this chapter provided an overview of the Chinese open educational resources movement through a review of the conceptual and operational issues of the reform, the development of the OER movement in the global context, and the key programmes that compose the OER movement in China. The review of the programmes also demonstrated that the Chinese OER reform relies heavily on governmental policies for its implementation and operation.

The third section in this chapter reviewed the existing research into Chinese OER and demonstrated that studies of the OER movement in China are limited. Most of the related studies in China are devoted to the construction and management of certain OER programmes. More research needs to be conducted to examine the OER movement as a social and governmental reform. Therefore, this study adopts the analytical framework of governmentality to investigate the reform. The next chapter outlines the details of the research methodologies and research processes.

CHAPTER FOUR: METHODOLOGY AND RESEARCH PROCESS

According to Denzin and Lincoln (2008), qualitative research is a situated activity that locates the observer in the world. It consists of a set of interpretive, material practices that make the world visible. These practices transform the world. They turn the world into a series of representations, including field notes, interviews, conversations, photographs, recordings, and memos to the self. This chapter introduces the detailed quality research methodology for this study, which includes the collection of data, the analysis of data, and the research procedures. As discussed in Chapter Two, a governmentality analysis examines programmes that embed the governmental rationalities and technologies, and, in broad terms, these policy programmes, according to Rizvi and Lingard (2010), are informed by policies issued by various authorities and can be viewed as both policy implementations and/or policy interpretations. Moreover, the literature review of the reform of open educational resources (OER) in China presented in Chapter Three demonstrates that Chinese OER programmes are enacted and implemented through policies issued by government departments at different levels, as authorities. Therefore, the key part of an investigation into the OER reform in China is an analysis of the policies related to this reform. This chapter introduces the conceptualisations of policy and policy analysis, as well as an approach to policy analysis adopted for the present study. This chapter also presents the process of data collection and data analysis, and discusses the ethical issues associated with the research.

4.1 Policy and Policy Analysis in a Governmentality Framework

As discussed in Chapter Three, the OER reform in China involves various policies developed and issued by political authorities, educational departments, and institutions. These policies are essential to the OER programmes at different levels. However, policy is a highly contested concept and policy analysis can be conducted in different ways. This section conceptualises policy and policy analysis according to the analytical framework of governmentality and the features of Chinese policies.

4.1.1 Policy and Chinese policies

The simplest definition of policy is “whatever governments choose to do or not to do” (Dye, 1992, p. 7), which indicates that policy is developed by government and

involves both decision-making and non-decision-making. However, the detailed definitions of policy are highly contested. This subsection first presents three conceptualisations of policy that fit the analytical framework of governmentality. Based on these conceptualisations, I clarify the features of Chinese policies that facilitate the analysis of the policies concerning Chinese OER reform.

Firstly, in the present study, policy is viewed as normative forms of governmental administration. General conceptualisations of policy range from defining it as “a label for a field of activity”, “an expression of general purpose”, “specific proposals”, to “decisions of government”, “formal authorization”, and “programme” (Hogwood & Gunn, 1984, pp. 13-19). In Wedel et al.’s (2005, p. 35) words, policy is “a field of activity ... a specific proposal ... government legislation ... a general programme or desired state of affairs, and what government achieves”. These definitions indicate that policies are normative, expressing both targets and methods of directing actions and individuals’ behaviour. Therefore, in the present study, policy is viewed as forms of governmental administration for the OER reform.

Secondly, policy in the present study is conceptualised as more than documents or texts, rather, policy refers to the processes involved in the production of an actual text. According to Ball (1993, 1994, 2008, 2011b), policy is both text and action, words and deeds; it is what is enacted as well as what is intended; policy work comprises a set of complex and differentiated activities that involve both creative and disciplinary relations and are infused with power (Ball, Maguire, Braun, & Hoskins, 2011a). Rizvi and Lingard (2010) also argue that policy processes include not only the texts and documents, but also the work on the production of the texts and the implementation process, and, sometimes, the evaluation of policy. The distinction between policy and policy process lies in that

... policy is much more than a specific policy document or text. Rather, policy is both process and product. In such a conceptualization, policy involves the production of the text, the text itself, ongoing modifications to the text and processes of implementation into practice. (Rizvi & Lingard, 2010, p. 5)

The arguments by Ball et al. and Rizvi and Lingard suggest that policy, in a micro sense, may refer to the text documents, but, in a macro sense, it is the related

procedures prior to the production of texts and the following processes of implementation, interpretation, modification, and re-articulation of the policy texts.

According to the analytical framework of governmentality outlined in Chapter Two, a governmentality analysis investigates the programmes that embed both governmental rationalities and technologies. Rationalities of government are developed with knowledge and moralities for governing and expressed in language, and technologies of government consist of detailed governing strategies and mechanisms. Therefore, Gillies (2008) argues that a governmentality analysis reveals the governing rationalities and technologies by investigating the production and implementation processes of policies. Accordingly, in order to investigate the OER reform in China within the analytical framework of governmentality, policy is conceptualised in its macro sense, which covers the processes both prior to and following the production of policy texts.

Thirdly, in the present study, policy is considered to be an ‘allocation of values’. An early definition of policy that concerns the policy-making process was provided by Easton (1953, p. 129):

The essence of policy lies in the fact that through it certain things are denied to some people and made accessible to others. A policy, in other words, whether for a society, for a narrow association, or for any other group, consists of a web of decisions that allocates values.

This definition represents Easton’s central statement that policy involves the allocation of values. Easton (1953) also argues that policies are normative in that they either articulate or presuppose certain values and direct people towards action, but in a way that is authoritative. More than half a century later, scholars still recognise the significance of Easton’s argument, because it addresses the issue of authority that is central to all kinds of policy research (Rizvi & Lingard, 2010).

This normative feature of policy is articulated in the explanation of the authoritative and mandating aspects of education policy by Luke and Hogan (2006), who defined educational policy-making as “the prescriptive regulation of flows of human resources, discourse and capital across education systems towards normative social, economic and cultural ends” (p. 171). That is, educational policy is aimed at changing the behaviours and practices of others so as to steer change in a particular direction. Easton’s, and Luke and Hogan’s definitions of policy compose a simple

definition of education policy—the allocation of values through the use of education systems. This definition is significant to this study in that it provides a way of considering the OER reform process in China as something designed to bring changes to Chinese people and society. As this study investigates such changes, conceptualising policy as an allocation of values is helpful for the analysis of the governing rationalities of the OER reform.

Besides the three conceptualisations of policy that align with the analytical framework of governmentality, policy-making processes in China are complicated and different to those in some Western nations, due to China's unique and complex political system (Q. Y. Chen, 2011; Martin, 2010; M. T. Sun, 2011). According to the *Education Law of People's Republic of China* (adopted at the third session of the eighth National People's Congress on 18 March, 1995, and effected from 1 September, 1995), higher education in China is administered by the State Council and it is also administered at the provincial level of government. Both levels of government establish specific ministries and departments to administer educational affairs. According to a quantitative study conducted by Tu (2007), more than two-thirds of the educational policies in China are made by the Ministry of Education, forwarded by the Ministry of Education from the State Council, or co-framed by the Ministry of Education and other government departments. Policies made by the Ministry of Education cover all aspects of educational affairs in China, ranging from overall development strategies to specific rules and regulations.

Policy-making is recognised as a series of activities that include identifying problems, designing agendas and policies, implementing policies, and evaluating policies (Chou, 2009). Policy-making in China has been investigated in various research contexts, and features of Chinese policy-making are identified (Chou, 2009; Gong, 2009). For example, the identification of the problem of policy-making in China is not a process of social interaction between multi-dimensional, social sectors and social levels, instead, it is largely a consensus reached by political authorities. CCP committees and cadres at different levels make decisions according to their observations and recognition of social problems, as well as solutions to the problems. The design of policies in China is driven by political authorities. The authorities devise and put forward a policy proposal without much public participation and consultation. The legislative process of policy-making in China is not well-formed.

For example, although public consultation is increasingly involved in the policy-making process, there is not any specific law regulating such legislative activities. Policy-making in China is changing under various influences. Policy researchers and think-tanks, academic and university communities, and a collection of state sectors, multinational, and even private business interests, now exert pressure on policy-making processes in China. Influences also come from new forms of communication and information technologies, changing global conditions, and increasingly vocal and better-informed citizenry (Martin, 2010).

Besides the four features noted above, educational policy-making in China is also influenced by the nation's social, cultural, economic, and political conditions. According to Mok (2000), education in China is developing within a policy context shaped by increased user-payer features, such as the charging of fees, diversification of non-state services, market-driven curricula, internal competition, and cost recovery activities. Since the late 1970s, policy-making in China's education sector has been characterised by a combination of socialist ideology and capitalist practices. The central government in China continues to hold power over policy-making for the macro-plan of the nation, whilst devolving its rights to the provincial government, local government, and individual institutions for them to manage some legislative aspects, such as establishing teaching goals, designing curriculum development plans, and determining the allocation of personnel (S. H. Xu, 2005).

Therefore, Chinese policies encapsulate various power-relations between different actors. Conducting an analysis of Chinese policies and policy processes, in terms of the allocation of values, contributes to revealing the relationships and tensions between different political actors in China (Gong, 2009). The number of policy studies in China is increasing and various approaches are adopted to investigate educational policies (R. Yang, 2007). The current research focuses on the policies concerning the OER reform in China and investigates the policies driving this reform agenda within the analytical framework of governmentality. The following subsection presents the details of the method of policy analysis employed in this study.

4.1.2 Policy analysis

This subsection presents the detailed method adopted to analyse the policies for OER reform in China within the analytical framework of governmentality.

Educational policy analysis and general concerns for analysis of educational reform have increased since the 1980s worldwide. The expansion of the policy field has brought continual debate and discussion about all aspects of analysis, including methods, models, and approaches. However, it is also recognised that there is no recipe for conducting policy analysis in education, and the adoption of the approach depends on the nature of the policy to be analysed (Ball, 2008; Ozga, 2000; Rizvi & Lingard, 2010). Nevertheless, Rizvi and Lingard (2010) summarise four general trends of policy research: positivist, interpretivist, post-positivist, and critical:

... the positivist view justifies knowledge in terms of observable, generalizable and predictable data, while interpretivism emphasizes the social construction of reality and seeks to provide explanations of human behaviour in terms of intentionality. Post-positivist perspectives, in contrast, focus on the processes involved in meaning-making, while critical approaches underline the importance of power in the construction and justification of knowledge claims. (Rizvi & Lingard, 2010, p. 47)

Moreover, according to Rizvi and Lingard (2010), it is the positionality of the research that determines the form of analysis to be taken. Key indicators of positionality include the purpose of the research and the theoretical and political stance adopted by the researcher.

As elaborated upon in section 1.7, I identify myself as an academic researcher and I do not adopt any political perspective in conducting the present study. My research interest lies only in understanding the OER reform in China. Taking a poststructuralist stance, I conduct my study within a governmentality framework because it provides a lens through which to investigate governmental rationalities and technologies, as well as the subjects to be constituted through this reform. I adopt a governmentality framework to examine the Chinese OER reform, as it does not rely on any presupposed knowledge or predictable hypotheses, nor does the framework aim to justify any knowledge claim or the process of meaning-making. Therefore, my research is an interpretivist study and the approach to policy analysis is interpretive as well.

Although there is no formula for conducting policy analysis, the approaches developed by policy researchers are implicative. In line with Easton's definition of policy as an allocation of values, Ball (1994; 2011b) argues that policies are always contested, value-laden, and dynamic, and that they are a product of various compromises. Rizvi and Lingard (2010) also propose a list of considerations for policy analysis:

The focus of policy research can vary from the analysis of: the context of policy; the construction of the problem which the policy addresses; values articulated by the policy content; policy production processes; the information needed for policymaking; the policy actors and processes of advocacy; policy allocation, dissemination and implementation; to policy evaluation and review. (Rizvi & Lingard, 2010, p. 46)

This list is not exhaustive, but implies possible aspects to be investigated during policy analysis. Moreover, according to Gillies (2008, p. 422), governmentality that focuses on the conduct of government should be considered under three main headings; policy as product, policy process, and policy content. Governmentality is embedded in the process of policy-making from production to implementation. Therefore, a governmentality analysis requires an examination of the whole process of policy-making, which, according to Rizvi and Lingard (2010), consists of contextual issues, textual issues, and implementation issues.

The contextual issues refer to aspects associated with the historical, political, and bureaucratic origins of policy. Textual issues are comprised of the discursive formation of policy, together with the policy problem, textual considerations, interests involved and underpinning the policy, policy structuration, and resource issues. Implementation issues are concerned with implementation strategies and some policy outcomes (Rizvi & Lingard, 2010). The contextual issues of the OER reform in China have been discussed in Chapter Three through a review of the historical background, key reforms, and problems and challenges of contemporary, Chinese, higher education. Textual issues included both policy documents at the national level and at the institutional level. Implementation issues in this study refer to the operation of the strategies and mechanisms adopted to implement the policies. More details about the textual and implementation will be provided in the following section and discussed further in Chapters Five, Six, and Seven.

According to Miller and Rose (2008), the approach to a governmentality analysis should be focused on finding out both the rationalities and the technologies of government, and governmental rationalities refer to the thoughts about governing, while the technologies of government means the exercise of governing (Miller & Rose, 2008). Therefore, when I investigate the contextual issues, textual issues, and implementation issues of the policies concerning the OER reform, I must explore both the rationalities, which are composed of “knowledge of the objects of government”, “morality of authorities”, and “language of representation”, and the technologies, which are made up of “materialised forms of apparatuses” (Miller & Rose, 2008, pp. 57-59).

In addition, in order to conduct this analysis, it is necessary to locate the contextual issues, textual issues, and implementation issues of OER policy, that is, the data that should be collected and analysed. The following section introduces the processes of data collection and data analysis.

4.2 Data Collection and Data Analysis

As reviewed in Chapter Three, the OER reform in China involves more than one policy document. According to Gong (2009), educational reforms in China are usually informed by a number of policies, at different levels, that are directly or indirectly related. Such an argument applies to the OER reform as well. The National Quality Open Courseware programme, as the key programme of the reform, was officially launched by the policy document, *Announcement by the Ministry of Education about Initiating the Teaching Quality and Teaching Reform Project for Colleges and Universities, the Construction of Quality Open Courseware*, issued by the Ministry of Education in 2003 (*2003 Announcement* hereafter). This document made clear that the programme’s intention was to “implement the spirit of *Some Ideas About Strengthening Undergraduate Teaching and Improving Pedagogy in Higher Education* issued by Ministry of Education in 2001” (Ministry of Education, 2003b, p. 1, lines 10-11), which, in turn, was designed to implement the *Action Scheme for Invigorating Education Towards the 21st Century* drafted in the year 1998 (Ministry of Education, 1998).

A number of policy documents have been issued to provide further directions for developing the reform agenda following the *2003 Announcement*. For instance,

the document, *Some Ideas about Further Deepening Reform of Undergraduate Teaching and Fully Improving Teaching Quality*, issued in 2007, and the *Ideas on Implementing “Teaching Quality and Teaching Reform Project for Colleges and Universities” During the Twelfth Five-Year Plan*, issued in 2011, provided detailed requirements for further development of open educational resources in China. The NQOCW programme was developed under the guidance of *Indicators for Evaluation of National Quality Open Courses*, which was updated annually, from 2003 to 2010, by the Ministry of Education. Since 2010, the programme has developed according to the *Implementation Opinions about Constructing National Quality Open Courses* (Ministry of Education, 2011d). Therefore, the reform of OER in China is not encompassed in a single policy; instead, it is introduced and implemented through a series of policies. Accordingly, investigation into the contextual, textual, and implementation issues of the OER reform requires an examination of all of these relevant policies.

However, the national policy documents alone are not sufficient for a thorough investigation of the reform, especially in terms of implementation issues. Therefore, in order to examine the comprehensive operation of the reform, I conducted a series of semi-structured interviews to investigate the implementation of the OER reform agenda at a selected university to collect additional data for this research. This university is referred as DW University and the province in which the university is located as JN province for the purpose of anonymity in this study. The following subsection introduces the data collection and data analysis processes.

4.2.1 Data collection

The empirical data for the present study is derived from policy documents and interviews, and the data collection was conducted during two phases. In the first phase, I examined the programmes of open educational resources at the national level in China by reading through all publicly available, educational policy documents and government reports, and I collected those policy documents specifically related to the open educational resources movement, as outlined below. During the second phase, I examined the programmes of open educational resources at DW University, through semi-structured interviews. The second phase of data collection was conducted on the basis of the initial findings of the analysis to the data collected during the first phase. The details of the analysis process are presented in section 4.2.2.

4.2.1.1 National policies for open educational resources

The OER reform in China involves a number of policies and their implementation at different levels. I collected all of the publicly available policies related to China's OER movement. These policy documents include both macro-level policies that serve as the principal guidelines for China's educational reform of which the open educational resources movement is an important component, as well as specific policies that direct the operation and management of open educational resources programmes. Here, I list some of the key policies for analysis in this study:

- *Action Scheme for Invigorating Education Towards the 21st Century*, issued by the Ministry of Education in 1998;
- *Some Ideas About Strengthening Undergraduate Teaching and Improving Teaching Quality in Higher Education*, issued by the Ministry of Education in 2001;
- *Announcement by the Ministry of Education about Initiating the Teaching Quality and Teaching Reform Project for Colleges and Universities, the Construction of Quality Open Courseware*, issued by the Ministry of Education in 2003;
- *2003-2007 Action Plan for Invigorating Education* – Issued by the Ministry of Education 2004;
- *Notice on Establishing Central Radio and Television University Modern Distance Education Public Service System*, issued by the Ministry of Education 2005;
- *The Outline of the Eleventh Five-Year Plan for National Education Development*, issued by the Ministry of Education in 2007;
- *Some Ideas about Further Deepening Reform of Undergraduate Teaching and Fully Improving Teaching Quality*, issued by the Ministry of Education in 2007;
- *National Long-term Educational Reform and Development Plan (2010-2020)*, issued by the Ministry of Education in 2010;
- *Ideas on Implementing “Teaching Quality and Teaching Reform Project for Colleges and Universities” During the Twelfth Five-Year Plan*, issued by the Ministry of Education in 2011;

- *Implementation Opinions about Constructing National Quality Open Courses*, issued by the Ministry of Education in 2011;
- *Outline for the Twelfth Five-Year Plan for National Education Development*, issued by the Ministry of Education in 2012;
- *Some Opinions about Improving the Overall Quality of Higher Education*, issued by the Ministry of Education in 2012;
- *Enforcement Measurement of Constructing Quality Resource-Sharing Courses*, issued by the Ministry of Education in 2012.

Other documents include the national higher education development plans and the policies specifically issued for open educational resources. Together, these policies illustrate the contextual, textual, and implementation issues related to the OER reform in China.

4.2.1.2 Institutional policies for open educational resources

The second phase of data collection was conducted during the overseas data collection period. I travelled to DW University JN province, a coastal province in China, and collected data, mainly through semi-structured interviews. I contacted a number of Chinese universities that currently participate in the reform of open educational resources and DW University was the first to reply. DW University is one of the largest teaching and academic institution in JN province and is one of China's higher-level universities designated for the key construction of the *211 Project*, which is a major programme initiated by the central government for reforming China's higher education. There were 50,000 students at the university in 2012, including 12,744 postgraduates, 22,853 undergraduates, and 9,010 adult education students. Among its 4,098 faculty and staff members, 1,633 are full professors or associate professors. DW University offers 111 undergraduate programmes and 295 postgraduate programmes, including 209 masters' degree programmes and 86 doctoral degree programmes. Over 3,000 courses are provided in these programmes. Therefore, I decided to collect my data at DW University, as it represents an example of higher education institutions in China and it is also at the frontier of Chinese educational reform.

The Teaching Affairs Department at DW University approved and supported my data collection for the research. First, the Teaching Affairs Office provided me

with four documents issued by the university administration for open educational resources. These documents are not publicly available:

- *Ideas on Implementation of Establishing DW University Quality Open Courseware*, DW University 2003;
- *Implementation and Administration Regulations on Establishing DW University Postgraduate Quality Open Courseware*, DW University 2005;
- *Announcement About Establishing DW University Courseware Centre*, DW University 2009;
- *Implementation Plan for Establishing DW University Adult Higher Education Featured Majors and Quality Open Courseware*, DW University 2010.

4.2.1.3 Semi-structured interview

Besides these documents, the key research instrument that I used to collect data at DW University was a semi-structured interview. A semi-structured interview is a qualitative data collection strategy in which the researcher asks informants a series of predetermined, but open-ended, questions. The researchers have more control over the topics of the interview than in unstructured interviews, but, in contrast to structured interviews or questionnaires that use closed questions, there is no fixed range or response to each question. Researchers who use semi-structured interviews develop a written interview guide in advance. The interview guide may be very specific, with carefully worded questions, or it may be a list of topics to be covered (Cousin, 2009). Therefore, a semi-structured interview is usually adopted to obtain as much relevant information as possible.

The Teaching Affairs Office at DW University allowed me to conduct semi-structured interviews and provided me with a list of academics and administrative staff who participated in the university's OER programmes in different ways. The office also helped me to contact more than a dozen academics and staff to enquire if they were willing to participate in my research by consenting to an interview. The eight individuals who agreed to participate in an interview are shown in Table 4.1:

Table 4.1 List of participating interviewees

Pseudonyms of interviewees	Interviewee position	Interview date	Interview duration
Prof. YSL	One of the university leaders in charge of the NQOCW programmes at DW University, as well as a head instructor of a national-level quality course.	15 February 2012	91 minutes
Ms. LL	An administrative staff member in charge of NQOCW programmes at DW University.	15 February 2012	28 minutes
Prof. SYN	A head instructor of a national-level quality course.	19 February 2012	74 minutes
Prof. GYC	A member of Professor SYN's teaching team.	22 February 2012	33 minutes
Prof. GWC	A head instructor of an institutional-level quality course.	21 February 2012	62 minutes
Prof. WLB	A head instructor of a provincial-level quality course and the dean of a faculty.	18 February 2012	46 minutes
Prof. QZM	A head instructor of an institutional-level quality course.	24 February 2012	20 minutes
Dr. FJ	A member of Professor GWC's teaching team.	21 February 2012	15 minutes

The names of these interviewees are coded in the format above that is only understandable to myself in order to retain the interviewees' anonymity and protect their privacy. The details of the ethical procedures associated with the research, as stipulated by Queensland University of Technology's (QUT) ethical clearance requirements, are presented in section 4.3.

The interviews ranged from less than 15 minutes to over one hour, depending on the interviewee's participation and understanding of the programmes. I recorded the interviews with a digital recorder. Afterwards, I transcribed all of the recordings. Sixteen questions were designed for the semi-structured interview, according to the research questions (see Appendix C). These questions were designed on the basis of research aims, theoretical perspectives, and initial findings from the policy document analyses. The interviews were mainly centred on the implementation issues of OER programmes, especially the use of governmental technologies in the reform. The detailed process of drafting these questions is introduced in section 4.2.2.

In addition to the policy documents at both national and institutional levels, and the interviews, a variety of primary and secondary sources, including written documents, such as newspaper articles, speeches given by political leaders, and some

audio and video resources, were also collected during the whole empirical study period. These sources supplement and explain some of the policies and, therefore, contribute to a better understanding of the OER reform in China.

The policy documents collected were Chinese and the interviews were conducted in Chinese (Mandarin), but the research is reported in English. Therefore, translation was an important process of this study. As researchers (Chen & Boore, 2009; J. Liu, 2008) argue that it is necessary to establish protocols to manage the translation of data from one language to another in any research processes, I adopted a number of methods to ensure the quality of the translation, thus ensuring the validity of the analysis that followed. Firstly, official translations provided by the Ministry of Education were used as much as possible, such as some document titles. For the documents and transcriptions without official English translations, I, as a professional translator with National Accreditation Authority for Translators and Interpreters (NAATI No. 68655), translated all of the data by myself. Afterwards, one of my colleagues, who had been a teacher of English in a Chinese university for 10 years, evaluated a number of the sample passages with reference to the appropriateness of the concepts, terminology, and punctuation in the translations. With the feedback from my colleague, I undertook a back-translation to check the equivalence between the English translations and the original Mandarin passages, in order to further verify the authenticity of the data. Some samples of the translations are provided in Appendix D.

4.2.2 Data analysis

This subsection introduces the process of data analysis used in the present study. As noted in Chapter One, I conducted my study following the qualitative research process through six steps suggested by Creswell (2012):

1. prepare and organise data for analysis;
2. explore and code that data;
3. code to build description and themes;
4. represent and report qualitative findings;
5. interpret the findings; and
6. validate the accuracy of the findings.

According to the governmentality framework, my analysis of the data was conducted through the several stages as follows.

After collecting the documents containing the national policies for open educational resources, I commenced my data analysis by reading through the documents. As informed by the research questions and the analytical framework of governmentality, I categorised the data into three groups through a process of data reduction, namely, the participants involved in the OER reform, the rationalities of governing the participants, and the technologies of governing the participants. When I completed this process, I realised that, although the publicly available policy documents provided much information about the participants and the governmental rationalities, there was not enough data about the implementation issues of the reform that were significant for investigating the governmental technologies. Therefore, as noted in section 4.2, I conducted a semi-structured interview in DW University, which participated in the OER reform, to collect more data about the implementation issues. I was also provided with some institutional policy documents for its OER programmes by the university, which further enriched the data.

The data were coded based on a governmentality framework and there were some key steps in this process. Firstly, authorities, as the agents of governing in the Chinese OER reform and the resource administrators, resource providers, and resource receivers, were identified as the targets of governing. Secondly, according to Miller and Rose (2008, p. 36), “whilst the rationalities and technologies do not stand in a one-to-one relationship, the relays and linkages between them are decisive conditions for the elaboration of each”. Therefore, I commenced the coding process by identifying the link between governmental rationalities and technologies. In this process, I found that most of the information provided in the policies centred around the two key themes for the development of Chinese higher education at present—reform and development. The two terms, ‘reform’ and ‘development’, appeared more frequently than any other discourses in the policy documents. They were found at the beginning, in the middle, and at the end of almost every part of the policy documents. They linked the context, production, and implementation of the educational policies. Therefore, the following step entailed coding the detailed themes of reform and development that linked the rationalities and technologies of governing at each level of resource administrators, resource providers, and resource receivers. These detailed

codes were then reduced from more than 30 to less than 10. The themes are summarised in Table 4.2, and some samples of the coding process are presented in Appendix E.

Table 4.2 Themes of rationalities and technologies

	Themes of rationalities	Themes of technologies
Governing resource administrators	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Responsibility of education administrators. • Emphasis on development of higher education. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Dual level administration of Chinese government and Chinese Communist Party. • Evaluation of resource administrators.
Governing resource providers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Improve higher education quality. • Improve higher educational equity. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Develop open educational resources. • Share open educational resources. • Audit open educational resources and resource providers. • Fund and reward resource providers.
Governing resource receivers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Constitute lifelong learners. • Constitute autonomous learners. • Constitute innovative learners. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Develop lifelong learners. • Develop autonomous learners. • Develop innovative learners.

The next stage was an analysis of data. According to Miller and Rose (2008), rationality of government consists of a “moral form”, “epistemological knowledge”, and “idioms” (pp. 58-59) and technologies of government are “assemblages of persons, techniques, institutions, instruments” (p. 16) or “materialised forms of apparatuses” (p. 64). Therefore, I explored these aspects in each theme of the governmental rationalities and technologies. I also explored the exercise of power relations embedded at each level of governing. It should be noted that, when analysing the governing of resource receivers, the conceptual tool of space was mostly indirect.

The process described above was not a straightforward one and some of the steps were repeated several times: It was an iterative process. For example, the policy documents for national OER programmes were coded and the interview questions were designed according to the initial findings. Once I obtained the interview data, the policy documents and the interview transcripts were combined, coded, and analysed again. Moreover, the analysis process involved not only examination of the policy documents and interview transcripts, but also retrieving extra information from time to time, such as newspaper articles, reports from websites of OER

programmes at different levels, reports from higher education institutions operating the programmes, and some online news reports.

4.3 Ethical Issues

The present research carries a low risk of potential harm to participants. Meeting the requirements of the *National Statement on Research Involving Human Participation*, this study was approved by the University Human Research Ethics Committee of Queensland University of Technology (Approval number 1100001095). The researcher was authorised by the Committee to conduct research activities between 16 August, 2011, and 16 August, 2014.

All participants in this research were adults and the subject matter of the study was related to their daily work at the university. Participants were provided with detailed information about the study so that they could decide whether to participate (see Appendix B). Participants had the choice to withdraw from the study at any time, without comment or penalty, and they were not in a dependent relationship with the researcher.

The main risks to participants were inconvenience and a slight risk of loss of privacy. A plan was put in place to manage these low-level risks. In order to avoid inconvenience for the participants, the interviews were conducted according to participants' schedules. The researcher made appointments before the interviews and arranged the interviews at the time and place preferred by the interviewees. Participants were informed that their participation was voluntary and were briefed via the Consent Form (see Appendix A) and orally at the beginning of the interviews.

Although the interview participants' identities are known to the researcher, they have been protected by using pseudonyms in the transcripts and reports. These pseudonyms have been used throughout the data analysis, as well as in the presentation of results. Names have not been disclosed and are known by and available to the researcher exclusively. Identifying details, such as names, and personal and professional information that might link an individual person to specific data, have been permanently removed from the data. In this way, the identities of the participants are not disclosed and confidentiality is assured.

Throughout the whole research period, all paper records have been kept securely in a locked filing cabinet in the researcher's QUT office and only authorised

QUT personnel have access to the office. Digital audio recordings and electronic files have been stored on a password-protected, QUT network drive and I am the only individual with access to the raw data. USB drives have not been used for data storage.

The methodological framework that has been presented in this chapter, and the analytical framework, as developed in Chapter Two, underpin the research plan for this thesis. Before concluding this chapter, the relationship between the research questions, research design, theoretical framework, and methodological framework for the study is presented below, as a summary, in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3 Summary of thesis framework

Principal research question: How is China's OER policy reform process governed and in what ways has the practice of governing changed the conduct of higher education in this country?			
Sub-research questions	Research design	Theoretical framework	Methodology
1. How do the policies concerning the reform of open educational resources in China direct and manage the resource administrators and their administrative activities?	Identify the resource administrators by examining the policies and elucidate the political rationalities and governmental technologies in the governing of resource providers.	Governmentality (rationalities and technologies of government).	Policy analysis.
2. How do the policies concerning the reform of open educational resources in China regulate and motivate the resource providers and their provision of open educational resource?	Identify the resource providers and examine the political rationalities and governmental technologies in the governing of activities.	Governmentality (rationalities and technologies of government).	
3. How do the policies concerning the reform of open educational resources in China constitute and shape the resource receivers and their learning activities?	Identify the resource receivers and examine the political rationalities and governmental technologies in the governing of resource receivers.	Governmentality (rationalities and technologies of government, and space).	

4.4 Chapter Summary

This chapter presented the methodological framework and the research process of the present study. Informed by a governmentality framework, policy analysis is adopted as the research methodology for this study. In this research, policy refers to both policy documents and policy processes from production to implementation. A specific approach is adopted to examine the contextual, textual, and implementation issues of policies to investigate the reform of open educational resources in China. The data collection process consisted of two phases; collecting national policy documents concerning the reform of open educational resources in China from official websites and conducting semi-structured interviews at DW University. The analysis process of the data in the research went through three stages; identifying the main themes of government in the reform, exploring the detailed rationalities of government embedded in the themes, and finding the specific technologies adopted to realise the political rationalities.

Chapter Five identifies the detailed resource administrators, providers, and receivers in Chinese OER reform by examining the rationalities and technologies underpinning the governing of resource administrators.

CHAPTER FIVE: OPEN EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES IN CHINA: POLICY PROCESS AND GOVERNING RESOURCE ADMINISTRATORS

In this chapter, I report the findings of this study. Firstly, I present the findings about the policy processes that mobilised the different groups of participants in the reform. I identify the resource administrators, resources providers, and resource receivers involved in Chinese OER reform through illustrating the policy background, the policy-making procedures, and the policy makers and receivers. Then I focus on the governing of the resource administrators and present a detailed analysis of the governmental rationalities and technologies that underpin such governance. In section 5.4, I discuss the ‘Chinese characteristics’ of these rationalities and technologies in terms of the form of governance that they bring about. I also describe the exercise of power relations that are embedded in the rationalities and technologies, and the constitution of the subjectivities of resource administrators to which they contribute.

5.1 Policies for Chinese OER Reform: Mobilising Participants

This section presents the findings about the policy-making processes that have produced, processed, and directed the governing of the OER reform. Figure 5.1 illustrates the relationship between the key policies that, together, have driven the OER reform at all levels. It shows that the OER reform has been driven by policies about overall educational development, policies for higher educational development, and policies for OER programmes at both national and local levels. All of these policies are interrelated and the following subsections explore such relations by discussing the background, the procedures of making the policies, and makers and receivers of these policies. It is revealed that China’s central government leaders are the authorities governing the reform. Resource administrators included educational departments at different government levels, as well as administrative departments and leaders in institutions and faculties; resource providers included higher education institutions, faculties, and individual academics; and resource receivers included various types of learners, both enrolled in and outside of higher education institutions.

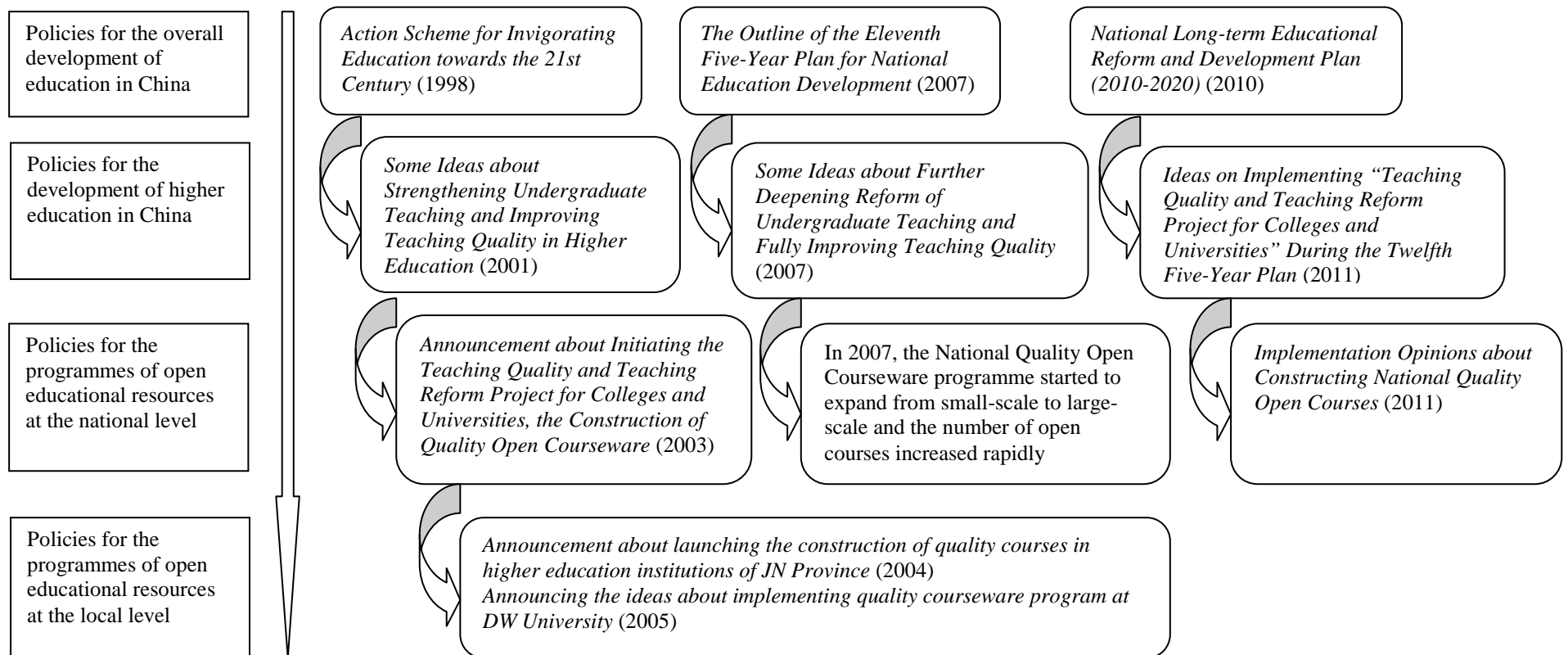


Figure 5.1 Key policies for the reform of open educational resources in China

5.1.1 Policy background

As introduced in Chapters One and Three, the OER reform in China is centred on the programme of National Quality Open Courseware (NQOCW). This programme was formally launched after a policy document entitled the *Announcement by the Ministry of Education About Initiating the Teaching Quality and Teaching Reform Project for Colleges and Universities, the Construction of Quality Open Courseware* in 2003. This policy was contextualised in a variety of conditions that were addressed in previous policies and it has been further developed through a number of subsequent policies. Through an analysis of these policies and other official documents, I identified three aspects that composed the context for developing the 2003 *Announcement* policy, which I discuss below.

Firstly, as addressed on the official website of the NQOCW, this programme is an important component of the ‘Project for Reform of Teaching and Improvement of Teaching Quality in Higher Education Institutions’ (*Quality Project* hereafter), which was launched in 2001 (National Quality Courseware Center, 2008a). Zhou Ji (2003), the Chinese Minister of Education from 2003 to 2009, stated that a number of problems had emerged since the higher education expansion started in 1999. Examples include the unbalanced educational structure and the reduction of education quality. The Minister contended that “the basic contradiction that the development of education faces lies between the masses’ increasing demand for education and the shortage in the provision of education, especially high-quality education” (J. Zhou, 2003). Minister Zhou also stated that the NQOCW programme was one of the measures adopted by the government in an effort to solve this situation. Three years later, Zhou observed that the NQOCW programme had contributed to the *Quality Project* and enhanced the development of higher education in China (J. Zhou, 2007). The role of the NQOCW in improving teaching quality was further emphasised in the policy, *Ideas on Implementing “Teaching Quality and Teaching Reform Project for Colleges and Universities” During the Twelfth Five-Year Plan* (a plan for development between 2011 and 2015), which was followed by the issue of the *Enforcement Measurement of Constructing Quality Resource-Sharing Courses* (Ministry of Education, 2012a).

The second aspect of the context for implementing the NQOCW programme is the intention to address the unbalanced distribution of higher educational resources in China. Ms. Wu Qidi, Vice-Minister of Education from 2003 to 2008, suggested that the NQOCW programme could correct the imbalance in the distribution of educational resources by sharing some high-quality, educational resources through the means of modern teaching technologies (Ministry of Education, 2004, 10 February). Wu agreed that the unbalanced distribution of educational resources was affecting the further development of higher education in China. She acknowledged that the Ministry of Education launched the NQOCW programme with the expectation of improving this imbalance by providing high-quality resources to all kinds of higher education institutions in different regions (Ministry of Education, 2004, 10 February).

Thirdly, the OER reform is implemented in an educational context shaped by the increasing popularity of opening and sharing resources. As reviewed in Chapter Three, a large number of programmes for sharing educational resources have emerged worldwide since the beginning of the twenty-first century. In China, the promotion of sharing educational resources commenced even earlier, in an effort to rebuild China's higher education sector following the disruption to education during the Cultural Revolution. This promotion was also a means to reach the large number of students, given the nation's population. For example, the Chinese radio and television university system was a unique form of higher education, which was established in the 1980s in order to provide higher education to as many learners as possible (China Central Radio and TV University, 2010). The China Education and Research Network was constructed in 1994 and has developed rapidly in connecting and integrating educational resources in different institutions and regions, with the use of satellite networks (CERNET, 2008). The OER movement aligns with these programmes as it aims at further promoting the process of opening up resources for sharing in higher education. The latest policy documents for NQOCW (Ministry of Education, 2011d, 2012a) make it clear that the purpose of this programme is to popularise and share high-quality course resources and to promote the co-production of such course resources through the use of modern information technologies.

5.1.2 Policy-making procedures

As well as articulating the context for developing the NQOCW programme, it is also important to examine the procedures of drafting and producing the policy documents, as these procedures are significant to the policy-making process. A key finding is that the policies for the OER reform can be characterised by a top-down process.

On 20 December, 2000, Ms. Chen Zhili, then the Minister of Education, addressed the National Education Working Conference 2001. In her address, the Minister emphasised that the expansion of higher education was a significant strategy of the central government's push for international and domestic, social and economic development. Minister Chen further stated that the expansion was part of the government's capacity for building the nation to negotiate the demands of the twenty-first century. Minister Chen noted that, whilst those educational reforms that were commenced in the 1990s had been generally welcomed, "the rapid development had somewhat affected the education quality, which should be emphasised attentively and solved carefully" (Ministry of Education, 2001a, p. 2). Chen's concerns soon manifested in the policy, *Some Ideas about Strengthening Undergraduate Teaching and Improving Teaching Quality in Higher Education*, issued by the Ministry of Education in 2001. This policy document had several emphases. For example, it directly required that teaching should be emphasised and that professors in universities should be encouraged, or required, to give more lectures. In relation to the current study, the policy stated that, as part of improving the quality of teaching in basic undergraduate courses, modern teaching technologies should be applied, together with the establishment of auditing and supervisory systems to monitor the quality of teaching (Ministry of Education, 2001b). At the National Education Working Conference 2002, it was stressed that an essential task for the Ministry of Education in 2002 was to implement the *2001 Quality Project*. In 2003, the Ministry of Education officially launched the *Project for Reform of Teaching and Improvement of Teaching Quality in Higher Education Institutions* (Ministry of Education, 2003e).

The emphasis on educational reform continued and, on 8 April, 2003, the Ministry of Education issued the *2003 Announcement*. Two days later, Minister Zhou Ji called a meeting with participants from the education, economy, and culture

departments to discuss the *Quality Project*. Zhou noted that the policy document, *Some Ideas about Strengthening Undergraduate Teaching and Improving Teaching Quality in Higher Education*, issued by the Ministry of Education in 2001, was developed to encourage professors to “go into classrooms” (give lectures) (J. Zhou, 2003). Zhou made it clear that the NQOCW programme was aimed at addressing the problems impacting upon the quality of teaching and learning in higher education, by providing better teaching approaches and content, and by enabling more students to enjoy a high-quality education, with professors giving more lectures than before (J. Zhou, 2003). On 5 February, 2004, 10 months after launching the NQOCW programme, Vice Minister Wu Qidi introduced, in detail, the significance, content, purpose, evaluation, reward systems, and future development plans for the NQOCW programme in a news release (Q. D. Wu, 2004). Five days later, at another news release, the key leaders in the Ministry of Education, including Vice Minister Wu Qidi, Zhang Yaoyue (Chief of Department of Higher Education of the Ministry of Education), Ge Daokai, Yan Buke and Yuan Si, introduced the construction, evaluation, auditing, and application of quality courses, as well as the protection of teachers’ copyrights and the changes caused to educational concepts (Ministry of Education, 2004, 10 February).

In this way, the *2003 Announcement* was finally formed and the policy began to be implemented in provincial educational departments and higher education institutions. Since 2003, the Ministry of Education has issued a number of policies to modify and further regulate the development of this OER movement. For instance, it is claimed in the *2011 Implementation Opinions* that 1,000 videoed quality courses would be constructed between 2011 and 2015.

The procedures described above indicate that the policy-making process, aimed at educational reform in China at this time, was largely a top-down process and that, in broad terms, this was devised and shaped by the decision-making of political authorities in the central government. Although public discussions were held from time to time, the decisions were made within the government through an internal process. The following subsection elaborates upon the policy implementation process by examining the makers and targets of the policy documents, in order to further clarify the policy-making process of the reform and to identify, in detail, the resource administrators, providers, and receivers involved in the reform.

5.1.3 Policy makers and receivers

The policy-making procedures in China demonstrate that the State Council, its Ministry of Education and other Ministries together make most policies for the reform of OER in China, and that these authorities play an important role in initiating and promoting the development of these policies. Almost all of the policy documents commence with a statement making explicit such authority and the role of policy recipients:

To educational departments and financial departments in all provinces, autonomous regions, and municipalities directly under the central government, educational bureau and financial bureau of Xinjiang Production and Construction Corps (XPCC), educational and financial divisions in relevant departments, and higher education institutions under direct administration of the Ministry of Education (Ministry of Education, 2003a, p. 1, lines 1-4; 2007b, p. 1 lines 1-4; 2012a, p. 1, lines 1-4; Ministry of Education & Ministry of Finance, 2011, p. 1, lines 1-4)

Such direct identification of the receivers of policies is further specified in provincial and institutional policy documents. For example, the policy document issued by JN Provincial Department of Education for the NQOCW programme commences with a statement identifying “all higher education institutions under the administration of JN Provincial Department of Education” (JN Provincial Department of Education, 2004).

This foregrounding of authority in the language of policy prescription demonstrates that policies are produced and flow in a top-down process, from China’s central government to local higher education institutions. Hence, the Ministry of Education, the provincial educational administrative departments, and administrative departments in higher education institutions are all involved in the administration of open educational resources. Nevertheless, this top-down process does not end at the institutional level, rather, it extends to the faculty and individual levels in Chinese universities. For example, in order to initiate its participation in the NQOCW programme in 2005, the Teaching Affairs Department at DW University requested a meeting with all of its faculty leaders, as a process of passing on and implementing the policy documents that it had received from JN Provincial Department of Education and the Ministry of Education for the NQOCW programme.

The meeting was attended by the university's president and the deputy president in charge of teaching affairs, as well as the deans of all faculties. Together, these leaders interpreted the policies from provincial and central governments and designed plans for developing OER programmes at DW University. Later, their interpretations and plans formed the policy document entitled *Ideas about Implementing Quality Courseware Programme at DW University* (DW University Teaching Affairs Department, 2005).

Following this meeting, a series of other meetings were held so that leaders of different faculties could convey this policy emphasis on constructing quality courses to schools and individual academics. For example, Professor WLB, the Dean of a faculty, explained that, at the faculty meeting, the faculty leaders and some academics discussed the course offerings. It was decided that Professor SYN's course had the potential to meet the requirements of the Ministry of Education's policy directive, as it was one of the best courses offered by the faculty (Professor WLB, personal communication, 18 February, 2012). As a result of this faculty decision, Professor SYN and her teaching team commenced work on improving the course according to the requirements of the NQOCW programme. Following several rounds of institutional, provincial, and national evaluations, this course was finally designated by the Ministry of Education as a national-level quality course in 2009.

This example from DW University indicates how policies concerning the OER reform in China are conveyed through a top-down process, from the central authorities to individual academics, for implementation. In the *2012 Enforcement Measurement* (Ministry of Education, 2012a, p.1, lines 15-22), it is clearly stated that:

The Ministry of Education is responsible for the general planning of the construction of Quality Resource-Sharing Courses and making the construction plans for national-level Quality Resource-Sharing Courses ... Educational administrative departments at the provincial level should make plans for the development Quality Resource-Sharing Courses according to the requirement of Ministry of Education as well as the development of disciplinary structures and economic conditions ... Higher education institutions should make plans for the construction of Quality Resource-Sharing Courses according to the existing curriculum and organise teachers to construct Quality Resource-Sharing Courses.

Therefore, in the Chinese OER reform, the central government leaders are the authorities playing the role of governors. The Ministry of Education, provincial educational departments, higher education institutions, and faculties, and the officials and leaders within them, together form a system that administers open educational resources. Concomitantly, higher education institutions and their academics are resource providers, whilst the receivers of the resources include various types of learners.

It should be noted that there can be an overlap between the resource administrators, providers, and receivers. For example, the leaders in the Ministry of Education are also members of the central government authorities. They participate in both making decisions about the reform and implementing the reform. At the local level, Professor WLB, as a faculty Dean at DW University, is responsible for administering the OER programme in his faculty, at the same time he is also an instructor and team leader of a provincial-level quality course. Hence, Professor WLB plays both the role of resource administrator and resource provider. Academics who offer the resources may also learn from other open courses so, in this sense, they are also resource receivers. Therefore, in this study, my examination of these participants in OER reform focuses on the role/s that they are playing as resource administrators, providers, or receivers, rather than as the individuals in the education space. That is, my examination is centred on the subjectivities of these resource administrators, providers, and receivers, and aims to explore the detailed subjectivities to be constituted through the reform.

The following section focuses on the governing of resource administrators and provides a detailed elaboration of the governmental rationalities and technologies.

5.2 Rationalities of Governing Resource Administrators

This section discusses the rationalities underpinning the governing of resource administrators in the OER reform in China. According to Miller and Rose (2008), the analysis of governmental rationalities centres on the nature of political discourse, because “it is a domain for the formulation and justification of idealized schemata for representing reality, analysing it and rectifying it” (p. 58). Although a political discourse does not have the systematic and closed character of disciplined bodies of theoretical discourse, it is, nevertheless, “possible to discern regularities that we term

political rationalities” (Miller & Rose, 2008, p.58). Therefore, this section first examines the policies that formulate and justify the governing of resource administrators and then examines the detailed rationalities underpinning such governance. The analysis demonstrates that the rationalities underpinning the governing of resource administrators are centred on the fact that Chinese authorities regard the development of higher education as significant for the overall development of the nation. Further, resource administrators are responsible for driving such capacity building in the OER reform.

5.2.1 Policies of governing resource administrators

Whilst political discourses, such as education quality and distribution of educational resources, are emphasised by authorities in China’s higher education, policy-making process (see section 5.1.2), a detailed examination of the policy documents indicates that these features are not always the most prioritised. Rather, almost all of the policy documents commence with some politically-oriented discourses aligned with China’s national interests. For example, the *2003 Announcement* begins with “in order to carry out the spirit of 16th National Congress of the Communist Party of China, and practice the important ideas of ‘Three Representatives’ ...” (Ministry of Education, 2003b, p. 1, line 1). Similarly, the policy *Some Ideas about Strengthening Undergraduate Teaching and Improving Teaching Quality in Higher Education*, issued by the Ministry of Education in 2001, starts by stressing that high-quality, higher education should be developed to ensure the further and sustainable development of China in the twenty-first century. This policy also requires that “higher education institutions should take Comrade Jiang Zeming’s important ideas of ‘Three Representatives’ as primary directions, make efforts to enhance the development of advanced productivity and advanced culture, continuously satisfy the masses’ increasing demand for education ...” (Ministry of Education, 2001b, p. 1, lines 1-2). Similarly, the document *Some Ideas about Further Deepening Reform of Undergraduate Teaching and Fully Improving Teaching Quality* directly states that,

... with a long-term and broad view, a focus on the reality of higher education in China, and a foresight of the historical great recovery of Chinese nation, the Party and the government have made the important decision about moving the essential educational workings to improving education quality, which has

historical and realistic significance for the overall, coordinated, and sustainable development of Chinese economy and society. (Ministry of Education, 2007b, p. 1, lines 2-5)

The *Ideas on Implementing “Teaching Quality and Teaching Reform Project for Colleges and Universities” During the Twelfth Five-Year Plan* also confirms that the Ministry of Education is implementing the *Quality Project* “in order to carry out the spirit of General Secretary of Communist Party Hu Jintao’s speech at the ceremony for Tsinghua University Centenary Celebration and the educational development plan [National Long-term Educational Reform and Development Plan (2010-2020)]” (Ministry of Education & Ministry of Finance, 2011, p. 1, lines 1-2). As the latest documents for the NQOCW programme, both the *2011 Implementation Opinions* (Ministry of Education, 2011d) and the *2012 Enforcement Measurement* (Ministry of Education, 2012a) reconfirm that the policies are produced in order to implement the speech by the General Secretary of the Communist Party, Hu Jintao, and the National Long-term Educational Reform and Development Plan (2010-2020).

Such political orientation, which focuses on implementing the leaders’ directives, is more notable in some macro policy documents. For example, the *Action Scheme for Invigorating Education towards the 21st Century* commences with the following statement:

The 15th National Congress of Communist Party of China raised the grand goal and task of cross-century construction of social modernisation and devised the strategy of rejuvenating the nation through science and education. In order to realise the goals and tasks assigned at the 15th National Congress of CCP, promote the overall reform and development of education, and improve the quality and creativity of the whole nation, this action scheme is designed. (Ministry of Education, 1998, p. 1, lines 1-5)

A similar discursive emphasis is evident in the *2003-2007 Action Plan for Invigorating Education* (Ministry of Education, 2004a). It commences with the statement:

In recent years, education has achieved leapfrog development under the correct lead of CCP Central Committee and the State Council; educational reform has made breakthroughs, and the educational level of people has been rising. However, education still faces many challenges ... In the coming years, we

should hold high the great banner of Deng Xiaoping Theory and implement the important thought of ‘Three Represents’ ... Make a great effort to fulfil the historical tasks raised at the 16th National Congress of Communist Party of China ... (Ministry of Education, 2004a, p. 1, lines 1-10)

Furthermore, the macro policy document, *National Long-term Educational Reform and Development Plan (2010-2020)*, reflects this emphasis and states that,

According to the strategy of ‘prioritise the educational development and construct strong nation of human resources’ made at the 17th National Congress of Communist Party of China, in order to enhance the scientific development of educational cause, improve the overall quality of people, and accelerate the progress of socialist modernisation, this *Educational Development Plan* is made. (State Council of People's Republic of China & Ministry of Education, 2010, p. 1, lines 1-3)

Such political discourses demonstrate that these policies are designed and developed according to the governmental thoughts of Chinese central leaders, that the leaders place much emphasis on educational development, and that they prioritise education as central to capacity-building the Chinese nation. This theme is manifested in the governing of administrators at all levels, from the Ministry of Education to local institutions.

5.2.2 Governing resource administrators: From central leaders to individual academics

As elucidated in Chapter Two, Miller and Rose (2008) argue that governmental rationalities consist of a moral form, a knowledge form, and a language form. Governmental morality delineates those powers, duties, and principles based on the appropriateness in the distribution of duties and the principles for governing practices, such as freedom, equality, responsibility, and economic efficiency. Knowledge of the objects of government is concerned with political authority leaders’ understandings of the objects governed and these have their own characteristics and challenges, which are situated in certain contexts. Linguistic form can be conceptualised as a kind of “intellectual machinery or discursive apparatus for rendering reality thinkable in such a way that it is amenable to political deliberations” (Miller & Rose, 2008, p. 59). Here, I present the findings of the moral, knowledge, and language aspects of the rationalities that underpin the governing of resource administrators.

The moral aspect of the rationalities that underpin the governing of resource administrators in the OER reform is embedded in the dual level, administrative structure in China's education sector. Firstly, in a legislative sense, the National People's Congress (NPC) is the organisation that has supreme power and is the highest authority in China. Representatives of the NPC are elected at a provincial level. The State Council, or the Central People's Government, is the executive organisation of the NPC. The State Council consists of 28 ministries and commissions, and the Ministry of Education is one of them. Local governments at provincial, municipal, and county levels are the executive organisations of a local People's Congress. Therefore, when implementing the OER reform, the Ministry of Education and the local education departments, which play the role of resource administrators, function as executive organisations of the central government.

The governing of resource administrators in the OER reform is also based on the ruling of the Chinese Communist Party (CCP), as the single ruling party in China. Professor Pan Wei (2008), from Peking University, claims that the political structure of the PRC is supported by the CCP mainly in six ways:

1. The CCP and its core departments make key decisions in China.
2. The all-powerful National People's Congress is under the control of the CCP.
3. The State Council and all of the PRC governmental departments are under the control of the CCP.
4. The People's Liberation Army is under control of the CCP.
5. The Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference is under the control of the CCP.
6. All of the semi-governmental departments, such as trade unions, women's associations, communist youth groups, are all under the control of the CCP.

Professor Pan also argues that China's supreme control power rests with the Politburo Standing Committee of the CCP (W. Pan, 2008). The whole governmental structure is paralleled by an echelon of the CCP at each level, which shapes a dual leadership system, with local government authorities and local-level party committees (W. Pan, 2008). Dual leadership exists in the state-owned, higher education institutions. Every university has a university-level CCP committee and every faculty has a faculty-level CCP committee, which is led by party secretaries at

a corresponding level. Therefore, besides the government, the CCP also plays an important and decisive role in the governing of resource administrators in OER reform. The resource administrators are responsible for implementing the directives of the CCP.

The knowledge aspect of the rationalities underpinning the governing of resource administrators in OER reform is embedded in the role of resource administrators in China's higher education system. In the government system, the Ministry of Education acts as the top, authoritative, educational administration. It wields decisive influence over educational policies by virtue of its authoritative role in interpreting and implementing the educational goals of the central government and the CCP committees. The Ministry of Education is responsible for administering educational developments in China, together with administering provincial and local education departments and some key national universities. The provincial and local education, administrative departments are responsible for overseeing local, higher education institutions and schools at all levels. Hence, the Ministry of Education and the educational administrative departments at different levels, which play the role of resource administrators in the OER reform, are the medium through which government controls the education sector. Moreover, from a CCP leadership perspective, the Ministry of Education's policy-making processes act like a conduit for transmitting the CCP central leaders' thoughts and desires to provincial, local, institutional, and faculty-level CCP committees. So, when resource administrators implement the policies, at the same time they are fulfilling the directives of the CCP committees. They are also the medium through which the CCP controls the education sector.

According to Miller and Rose (2008), language form is also a key aspect of governmental rationalities. This examination of the policy documents concerning the OER reform in Mainland China reveals two categories of discourses as being the language forms of the rationalities of governing resource administrators. In the first category, discourses such as "improve higher education quality", "develop *rencai*", and "improve higher educational equity and equality" (Ministry of Education, 2003b, p. 1 line 7; 2011b, p. 1 line 5) are the catchwords in almost all of the policy documents concerning OER reform. In the Chinese context, *rencai* means specialised and talented human resources (State Council of People's Republic of China &

Ministry of Education, 2010). In most of the policy documents, it is claimed that higher education administrations and institutions should be responsible for improving higher education quality and improving higher educational equity and equality, as well as cultivating *rencai* for the further and sustainable development of the Chinese nation (Ministry of Education, 2003b; 2011b).

In the second category, those policy documents that support and promote the reform of OER in China are all developed under a common premise that has been repeatedly stressed: The development of higher education is significant to the overall development of the Chinese nation. For example, it is directly stated in the latest document for the *Quality Project* that “improving quality is the core task in developing higher education; it is the prerequisite to constructing a nation strong in higher education and the key to realising the strategy of constructing a nation with competitive human resources and innovation” (Ministry of Education & Ministry of Finance, 2011, p. 1, lines 9-11). The *National Long-term Educational Reform and Development Plan (2010-2020)* also claims that

higher education is responsible for cultivating high-level special *rencai*, developing science, technology, and culture, and enhancing the modernisation of socialism; improving quality is the core task in the development of higher education and it is the prerequisite to constructing a nation strong in higher education. (State Council of People's Republic of China & Ministry of Education, 2010, p. 14, lines 1-2).

In the *2012 Enforcement Measurement* (Ministry of Education, 2012a), it is claimed that

Quality Resource-Sharing Courses are constructed to promote the opening of higher education, to carry forward the core value system of socialism and the mainstream culture, advertise scientific theories ... to serve the construction of advanced socialist culture and strengthen the soft power and international influence of Chinese culture. (p. 1, lines 5-8)

These discourses as forms of directives, together with the responsibilities of resource administrators and their positions and roles in the higher education system, serve as the rationalities for Chinese, central, political authorities to govern the resource administrators. That is, in the OER reform, whilst Chinese authorities regard the development of higher education as significant for the overall

development of the nation, the resource administrators are responsible for driving such capacity-building by playing their role of administering the construction, opening, and sharing of educational resources. The following section elaborates on the governmental technologies that have been used to realise the rationalities in governing resource administrators.

5.3 Technologies Governing Resource Administrators

This section discusses the technologies adopted by the authorities for governing resource administrators in the reform of open educational resources in China. According to Miller and Rose (2008), government technologies form a network of powers that are exercised over the actions of particular social groups through certain mechanisms and strategies. This section examines the mechanisms and strategies used in the Chinese OER reform to govern resource administrators and realise the governmental rationalities.

According to Miller and Rose (2008), mechanisms and strategies are governmental technologies that help to regulate and transform individual behaviours; they are materialised forms of apparatuses used by different forces to produce different material effects. Mechanisms and strategies are a “complex assemblage of diverse forces — legal, architectural, professional, administrative, financial, judgemental” (Miller & Rose, 2008, p. 63). Through an examination of the policies concerning the OER reform in China, a managerial system and an evaluation system were identified as mechanisms that Chinese authorities use to govern resource administrators. The analysis shows that both systems are embedded in the dual leadership of the Chinese Government and the Chinese Communist Party.

5.3.1 Management of resource administrators

An analysis of policy processes shows that a key technology for governing resource administrators is a managerial system that is embedded in the dual leadership of the Chinese Government system and the CCP system. That is, the resource administrators are directed and managed as both government components and CCP organs.

In China, most government leaders have two identities; they are officials in the government system, as well as cadres in the CCP system. As officials, their job is operating government programmes, but as cadres, their job is implementing the

directives of the CCP committees. According to Landry (2008), the cadre management system of the CCP forms the core of the political system in China and it is a key institutional channel through which the Party exercises routine political authority. The CCP is the largest political machine in the world, with about 11 million officials posted in over 300,000 *Danwei* (work-units), including all of the government departments, public organisations, institutions, and a large number of enterprises. Approximately half of these officials are *Ganbu* (cadres) whose appointment and promotion are administered by the Party. In this way, the CCP Central Committee has firm control over the State Council and its Ministry of Education. The provincial CCP committees direct the activities of provincial governments and their departments of education, and the institutional and faculty CCP committees exert substantial influence on institutional administrative affairs.

As noted in section 5.2, the policies issued by the Ministry of Education can be considered to be interpretations of the Chinese central leaders' directives and concerns, in developing education and execution of their political power. Hence, the implementation of the OER policies can be viewed from a twofold perspective. In the government system, this implementation is the operation of government policies; in the Party system, when CCP members carry out policies, they are fulfilling the directives of their superior CCP leaders. In other words, the implementation of policies can be considered to be both the operation of the governmental system and the management of the Chinese Communist Party system, and these two systems are integrated with the CCP system, taking the dominant role. In this way, the officials or cadres are administered by the dual leadership of the CCP and the government. A key indicator for high-level committees to appoint officials or cadres is their conveyance and implementation of committee directives, which are manifested in the form of policy documents (W. Pan, 2008). In the OER reform, the resource administrators are directed and managed by such dual leadership as well. As identified in section 5.1, resource administrators in the OER reform include administrative departments at different levels in the education sector. Therefore, the implementation of the OER reform can be considered as a process through which resource administrators implement government policies from higher level departments, as well as carry out the directives of CCP committees.

DW University, as a public, higher education institution, is attached to the CCP system as its administrative system embeds an institutional-level CCP Committee. The key leaders of DW University include the Secretary of the CCP DW Committee, the university President as the vice-Secretary of the CCP DW Committee, and a number of vice Presidents who are all Party members. A group of these Party members compose the CCP DW Committee. At the faculty level, every faculty has a CCP committee. The key members of a faculty CCP committee and the faculty dean and deputy deans conduct the leadership of the faculty together. The Secretary of the CCP DW Committee and the President of the university are appointed by the CCP Committee of JN Province's Department of Education. At the university level, a university's CCP committee appoints most of the faculty leaders and most of the key administrative staff. Such a system embeds the operation of institutional affairs and implementation of different programmes.

In the OER movement, the Teaching Affairs Department at DW University is responsible for operating and supervising the university's OER programmes. Professor YSL is one of leaders in the Teaching Affairs Department, as well as being a CCP cadre, and he is in charge of the NQOCW programme. During an interview with him, he stated that the direct motivation and reason for DW to commence the programme was that the policy documents were issued by the Ministry of Education and JN Provincial Department of Education, and he claimed that "implementing the policies from the Ministry of Education and provincial department of education is one of the most prioritised responsibilities for the university" (Professor YSL, personal communication, 15 February, 2012). In accordance with the policies for OER reform issued by the central and provincial educational administrations, DW University sets detailed requirements and designs specific plans for different faculties to construct quality courses. The university's Teaching Affairs Department assigns every faculty the responsibility of developing a number of quality courses, and faculty leaders are responsible for organising teams of teachers to establish and improve the courses according to the criteria set by the Ministry of Education.

Although interviews during the data collection phase reflected different perspectives as reasons for participating in the reform, a common factor identified by all the interviewees was that they were implementing the policies because the policies were issued by the Ministry of Education. During their interviews, Professor

YSL and Ms. LL, who were in charge of the quality courseware programme at DW University, made clear that the policies were the direct stimulus and incentive for DW to launch OER programmes. Moreover, this is made explicit in policy prescription, as all of the documents issued by university administration for running their OER programmes commence with the statement “in accordance with the policies issued by the Ministry of Education ... and policies issued by JN Provincial Department of Education ...” (DW University Teaching Affairs Department, 2005). Such discourses make explicit the predominance of central and provincial government policies in the administration and management of DW University’s institutional affairs.

Given this context, as each interview progressed, I tried to ascertain whether the university administrative staff and academics felt any coercion to enact such policy prescription or if there was any punishment in case they did not implement the policies issued by the government. My attempt to decipher this context resulted in a coherent denial. Both administrative staff and academics stated that following the policies was their job and implementing OER programmes was good for the university, the students, society and, ultimately, for the nation’s overall development. Moreover, the policies for OER programmes have been implemented very efficiently at DW University. For example, Professor SYN is a teaching team leader and also an assistant dean of a faculty, and her course was designated as a national-level quality course in 2009. Her teaching team is composed of 109 full-time lecturers, associate professors, and professors. During the interview, Professor SYN emphasised that implementing the university’s policy was important for both the faculty as a whole and for faculty members. She noted that: “as the university issues the announcement of establishing quality courses, it is important for the faculties to act accordingly. The performance regarding the quality courses is an important indicator when the university administration evaluates the faculties” (Professor SYN, personal communication, 19 February, 2012).

It should be noted that Professor YSL and Professor SYN, like most of the other leaders in DW University, are CCP cadres appointed by the University’s CCP committee, and the committee played an important role in making decisions about launching the OER programmes. Thus, although both individuals did not mention that what they were doing was directly related to his/her position in the CCP system,

it can be contended that, when the professors are implementing the OER programmes, at the same time they are actually carrying out the directives of the CCP. Therefore, the analysis shows that the management of resource administrators is achieved through the dual leadership of the CCP system and the government system in a top-down process. Moreover, such management is facilitated by the ‘evaluation’ that Professor SYN mentioned. The following section discusses the technology of evaluation adopted in Chinese OER reform for managing resource administrators.

5.3.2 Evaluation of resource administrators

Evaluation of the resource administrators is carried out by both the educational system and the CCP personnel system. The evaluation system of higher education in China commenced in 1985 and developed quickly in the sector. In 2004, the Ministry of Education issued the policy document, *Scheme for Assessing Undergraduate Teaching Affairs in Higher Education Institutions* (Ministry of Education, 2004c), which claims that a comprehensive evaluation of higher education institutions should be carried out every five years. In 2005, the Higher Education Teaching Evaluation Centre was established by the Ministry of Education for the purpose of making professional and systematic evaluations of higher education institutions in China. A key indicator of assessing higher education institutions is their performance in implementing the educational reform and development programmes (G. J. Chen, 2012). Since 2003, the construction of quality courses has been an important indicator in the evaluation system (Zhou & Zhang, 2010). Furthermore, some higher education institutions have also included the construction and development of quality courses as an important indicator in their internal assessment criteria. For example, at DW University, faculties that have produced institutional-level, provincial-level, or national-level quality courses would receive bonus points in evaluations after 2005 (DW University Teaching Affairs Department, 2009).

The CCP personnel evaluation system is another important mechanism that contributes to the governing of resource administrators in the OER reform. In China, all of the CCP members holding an administrative position have to report on their work regularly. The report summarises the reporter’s working performance and it is administered by the CCP committees at a corresponding level. A primary topic in the report is the reporter’s performance in carrying out the strategies, policies, orders, and decisions from CCP committees of higher levels (Chinese Communist Party

Central Committee, 2004). For instance, Professor SYN, as a Deputy Dean and a CCP member, reports to the CCP Committee for her faculty at the end of each year. The secretary of faculty's CCP committee reports to the CCP committee at a university level, and the secretary of the university CCP committee reports to the provincial or Ministry- level CCP committees. As the appointment of CCP cadres are determined by higher level committees, it is predictable that the report, which presents the reporters' performances, is significant to decisions and personnel arrangements, such as promotions and appointments to be made by committees.

In summary, governmental technologies adopted in the Chinese OER reform for governing resource administrators include a management system and an evaluation system. Both systems are embedded in the dual leadership of the Chinese government and the CCP. These technologies are used to realise the rationalities elaborated in section 5.2. The rationalities and technologies of governing resource administrators are summarised as follows, in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1 Rationalities and technologies of governing resource administrators in Chinese OER reform

Rationalities		Technologies
Morality of authorities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The resource administrators refer to the education administrative departments at different levels in a Chinese context. They are components of the Chinese government system and are responsible for implementing governmental programmes. • Resource administrators, as administrative departments, are determined by the Chinese Communist Party system. They are also responsible for carrying out the directives of CCP committees. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Resource administrators are managed by the dual leadership of the Chinese government system and the CCP system. The systems, together, manage the resource administrators' implementation of governmental thoughts of the Chinese authorities. • Resource administrators' performance in implementing OER reform is assessed in the educational evaluation system. • Resource administrators' performance in implementing the OER reform is also assessed in the CCP personnel evaluation system.
Knowledge of the objects	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Resource administrators, as education administrative departments, serve as the medium through which government controls the education sector and its reform and development. • Resource administrators, as education administrative departments, also serve as the medium through which the CCP controls the education sector and its reform and development. 	
Language of representation	<p>Develops higher education; historical and realistic significance; overall, coordinated, and sustainable development of the Chinese economy and society; prioritises educational development; constructs a strong nation of human resources; develops <i>rencai</i>; improves higher education quality; and improves higher educational equity.</p>	

The rationalities and technologies for governing resource administrators in China's OER reform, together, have brought about a form of governance, exercises of power relations, and the constitution of subjects that are specific to this context. The following section discusses the characteristics of such governance, power relations, and subjects.

5.4 Subjectivities of Resource Administrators: Centralised Governance in the Context of Decentralisation

As discussed in Chapter Two, the exercise of power in the conduct of government has its own objects. These objects can be individuals, groups, or a whole population, and they are placed into certain subject positions as an effect of governing practices (Foucault, 1982; Miller & Rose, 2008). Through an examination of the rationalities and technologies that underpin the governing of resource administrators in the OER reform, it is implied that the rationalities and technologies together have brought about a form of centralised governance in the context of educational decentralisation in China. Such governing relies largely on the exercise of power relations that have authoritarian characteristics. In this way, resource administrators are constituted as docile and obedient subjects and manipulated to follow the central government authorities' directives actively in the reform.

As discussed in Chapter Three, higher education in contemporary China features a context of decentralisation. In such a context, universities, colleges, schools, and faculties, as well as some educational administrations, would become more autonomous and independent (Mok, 2004; K. Ngok, 2007; R. Yang, 2005). However, the Chinese OER reform is different to, and almost against the context of, decentralisation in terms of the governing of resource administrators.

For example, since the 1980s, most educational policies are characterised by statements of authorisation that grant permission for particular functions or activities. Examples include permissions for establishing private colleges (Chinese Communist Party Central Committee, 1985), permission for universities to raise funds by themselves, permission for universities to decide the curriculum plans autonomously (Chinese Communist Party Central Committee & State Council of People's Republic of China, 1993), and permission for higher education institutions to develop their own recruitment systems (Ministry of Education, 1998). These permissions share one

thing in common—they aim at involving other social forces, such as the financial and employment markets, in the management of higher education. They enhance the devolution of educational administration.

In contrast, the OER reform does not offer any process of authorisation by permission and, instead, exerts direct interventions on the resource administrators. A large number of educational departments at different levels are directly mobilised for driving the OER programmes. The higher education institutions involved in the NQOCW programme are all state-owned, public universities that are under the administration of governmental departments at different levels. They are managed by the dual leadership of the government system and the CCP system, through a top-down process. Therefore, whilst China's higher education system has undergone decentralisation for decades, in order to empower local governments and institutions to be more autonomous in developing education and in the establishment and distribution of educational resources, the OER reform aims to exert centralised intervention on the teaching affairs in higher education institutions. Such intervention relies largely on the government and the CCP systems that govern resource administrators in a top-down process. The governing of resource administrators can be largely considered as a form of centralised governance in the context of decentralisation. Or, in Mok's words, "the processes of decentralisation and marketisation [in China] are not immune to centralised control; it is centralised decentralisation" (Mok, 2005, p. 193).

Furthermore, the top-down process of governing indicates that the power relations exercised to govern the resource administrators have authoritarian characteristics. The implementation of the NQOCW programme at different levels, directions for the radio and television university system, and the approval of CORE all indicate the exercise of authoritarian power relations. The *2003 Announcement* not only imposes direct requirements on higher education institutions for the construction of quality courses, but also sets detailed demands on the quality courses that are specified in some follow-up policies and the *Criterion for Auditing National Quality Open Courses*, which was updated annually from 2003 to 2010.

Authoritarian power relations are also demonstrated in the process of implementing policies. From the Ministry of Education at the top, to the faculty leaders in higher education institutions at the bottom, an administrative system for

managing and steering the OER movement has been established that conforms to the directives of central political leaders in the implementation of this reform. Chinese political leaders have been transformed from being an education service provider to the role of facilitator, enabler, and regulator, whilst maintaining centralised controlling power and authority. During the interviews at DW University, I noticed that, whilst the university staff made clear their willingness to implement the open resources process as part of their responsibilities as academics and administrators, it was evident in each interview that all interviewees were cognisant that this was not negotiable. That is, staff members understood that it was an expectation that policies should be implemented without question. Therefore, I contend that the power relations exercised in the governing of resource administrators are largely authoritarian. Accordingly, resource administrators are constituted as obedient subjects in carrying out the directives of political leaders.

It should be noted that authoritarian governance of resource administrators is not isolated from other forms of powers. For example, the evaluation of resource administrators is closely associated with the promotion system. The system aims to make resource administrators more active and efficient in carrying out directives and implementing policies. Such power relations, which are exercised through the self-motivation or self-governance of resource administrators, can be considered as a form of neoliberal power exercised within authoritarian governance.

In summary, the governing of resource administrators in the Chinese OER reform is a form of centralised governance in the context of educational decentralisation. The administrative systems of China's government and the CCP ensure direct governance over resource administrators through a top-down process. Administrations from the Ministry of Education at a central level to institutional leaders and faculty leaders at a local level are all directed and managed to obey the socialist cause and the governmental thoughts of the central authorities. Such governing relies largely on the exercise of authoritarian power and limited neoliberal power is also used to facilitate governance as well. In this way, resource administrators are constituted and manipulated as obedient subjects to follow the authorities and implement policies actively and efficiently.

5.5 Conclusion

This chapter first examined the policy-making processes that have driven Chinese open educational resources (OER) reform and rendered education administrators at different levels to be responsible for administering the movement, higher education institutions and academics to be responsible for providing the resources, and various types of learners as resources receivers.

This chapter also indicated that the governing of resource administrators is underpinned by governmental rationalities, which reflect that China's central leaders have placed great significance on the development of education and that resource administrators are responsible for facilitating these intentions by administering the open resource programmes. In order to realise these rationalities, a managerial system and an evaluation system are adopted as governing technologies. Such governmental rationalities and technologies together have brought about a form of centralised governance in the context of educational decentralisation. In this process, most of the power relations exercised have authoritarian characteristics, while some powers have neoliberal features as well. In this way, resource administrators are constituted and manipulated as obedient subjects to implement the OER policies actively and efficiently. The next chapter examines the governing of resource providers of open educational resources.

CHAPTER SIX: OPEN EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES IN CHINA: GOVERNING RESOURCE PROVIDERS

This chapter discusses the governing of resource providers in the reform of open educational resources (OER) in China. As noted in Chapter Five, the processes involved in making and implementing policies for the OER reform demonstrate that the resource providers mobilised by this agenda are composed mainly by higher education institutions, their faculties, and individual academics. This chapter examines and discusses the detailed rationalities and the governmental technologies that, together, regulate and motivate resource providers. This chapter also explores the form of governance, the power relations, and the constitution of subjects brought about by these rationalities and technologies.

6.1 Open Educational Resources for Improving Higher Education Quality

The push for improved quality in higher education is one of the key issues driving the contemporary higher education sector in China. ‘Improving higher education quality’ is a discourse that exists in almost all policy documents related to the Chinese OER reform. This section first examines the policies and political discourses that address the issues of higher education quality in the OER reform and then explores the detailed rationalities that underpin the governing of resource providers, which are embedded in these policies.

6.1.1 Policies of improving higher education quality through the OER reform

According to the *Action Scheme for Invigorating Education towards the 21st Century* issued by the Ministry of Education in 1998, the core task of developing higher education lies in the cultivation of *rencai*. In the Chinese context *rencai* refers to “individuals who have special knowledge or skills, and work creatively to contribute to the social development; *rencai* are human resources with exceptional ability and high quality”(State Council of People's Republic of China & Ministry of Education, 2010, p. 4, lines 5-9) . In the OER reform agenda, the priority of cultivating *rencai* has been further enhanced. For example, in the *2003-2007 Action Plan for Invigorating Education*, it is claimed that education should be devoted to “cultivating hundreds of millions of labourers with high quality, tens of millions with special *rencai*, and a large number of excellent *rencai*” (Ministry of Education, 2004a, p. 2, line 15). In 2010, China’s central government (2010) issued the *National*

Long-term Educational Reform and Development Plan (2010-2020), which states that “improving quality is the core task of higher educational development” (p. 14, line 3) and this ‘core task’ involves multiple aims, such as cultivating the capacities of students, improving academic research, enhancing the services of higher education, and refining the structure of the higher education sector.

In the policy documents for the OER reform, the discourse of ‘improving higher education quality’ is mostly interpreted as the cultivation of *rencai*, and the resource providers and their provision activities are considered to be responsible for improving higher education quality. Such rationalities are further detailed in three themes, namely, improving pedagogical quality, improving the priority of teaching, and improving institutional disciplinary structure.

6.1.2 Rationalities of improving higher education quality

According to Miller and Rose (2008), governmental rationalities include a moral aspect, a knowledge aspect, and a discourse aspect. The following subsections discuss the rationalities of improving higher educational quality in detail and summarise the three aspects.

6.1.2.1 Pedagogical quality

In the governing of resource providers involved in China’s OER reform, the discourse of ‘improving pedagogical quality’ is evident across most of the policy documents driving the reform process. The pedagogical quality issues have received considerable emphasis in the reform, as while Chinese authorities celebrate the rapid expansion of higher education, they also acknowledge that “the pedagogical quality of higher education is not high enough” (State Council of People's Republic of China & Ministry of Education, 2010, p. 5, line 26). Moreover, such recognition of the problems embeds the governmental leaders’ thoughts about improving higher education quality, which are demonstrated in the OER programmes. For example, the open educational resources are expected to be constructed with the aim to “improve the overall pedagogical quality” (Ministry of Education, 2003b, p. 1, line 6; 2011d, p. 1, line 3) and the radio and television university system is assigned to “utilise the advanced technologies to enhance the improvement of pedagogical quality” (Ministry of Education, 2008c, p. 3, line 5). Discourses such as “concentrating on teaching affairs as the core of higher education”, “the major task for higher education

institutions is cultivating *rencai*”, and “teaching is the focus of work in institutions” (Ministry of Education, 2003b, p. 2, line 5; 2011d, p. 3, line 9) also demonstrate the importance that Chinese authorities are now placing on the pedagogical quality in the higher education sector.

Through an examination of the policies for the OER reform, I found that the Chinese authorities are concerned with three key challenges that drive the improvement of pedagogical quality in higher education. These include the lack of suitably qualified academics to teach courses in universities, the low quality of learning materials provided to students, and the lack of experience amongst early career academics in terms of teaching capacity. Firstly, it is made clear in the policies for the OER reform that “the improvement of pedagogical quality requires a large number of highly-qualified teachers” (Ministry of Education, 2003b, p. 1, line 4). Although enrolments in China’s higher education sector have grown tenfold during the past two decades, the number of qualified academics has not kept pace with demand. In 1999, the number of full-time college academics in China was 425,682 (Ministry of Education, 1988-2008), and it increased to 1,406,808 in 2010 (Ministry of Education, 2011b). However, the effective student-teacher ratio during this time decreased from approximately 9.6:1 to about 18.3:1.

The second problem associated with the pedagogical quality concerned in the OER reform process is related to curriculum resources. While higher education institutions and academics have become more autonomous in using teaching resources, the decentralised administration has not necessarily guaranteed the improvement of curriculum resources. According to a survey (W. L. Wang, 2008), curricula content is out of date and of low quality. It may be suggested that, the quality of curriculum resources has become problematic as the decentralisation and marketisation of reforms have made the management of curriculum resources erratic and inconsistent in China’s education system. Given the secure market, some publishers do not implement appropriate quality control measures and monitoring of standards for the books they elect to publish. This situation prompts some to contend that economic benefits of text sales can influence the selection of course materials, which potentially affects the quality control elements of course delivery (Wang et al., 2009).

The lack of standard and centralised control of pedagogical resources is related to the third problem concerned with the OER reform. That is, although it may be accurate that some key universities can develop high-quality teaching plans and materials, this does not mean that all universities in China can provide high-quality resources by themselves. Large numbers of universities were established as higher education expanded, but due to this rapid expansion it appears that many universities do not have the capacity to develop proper teaching materials to match this growth (W. J. Zhang & Li, 2011). As a result, pedagogical quality in these universities and colleges is problematic. Zhou Ji, Minister of Education of the PRC from 2003 to 2009, recognised that pedagogical quality was a severe problem for many newly-established colleges and universities. Zhou pointed out that “it is important to make use of high-quality educational resources to help these colleges and faculties to improve pedagogical quality” (2007, p. 5). Therefore, improving pedagogical quality is a key aspect of the rationalities that underpin the governing of resource providers to improve higher education quality in the OER reform.

6.1.2.2 Priority of teaching

Increasing the priority of teaching is another issue that is considered by Chinese authorities to be important for improving higher education quality. Discourses evident in the OER reform include phrases such as “ensure the central position of teaching”, “enhance the priority of teaching”, and “prioritise the investment into teaching affairs” (Ministry of Education, 2003b, p. 2 line 8; 2011b, p. 3 line 4), which exist across almost every policy document. This emphasis indicates that teaching is now valued and prioritised in the higher educational reform process. The Ministry of Education states that the objective of the NQOCW programme is to “establish a teaching-centred higher education system” (Ministry of Education, 2003b, p. 2, line 8). The Ministry of Education requires the radio and television university system to “provide technological support for enhancing and administering teaching affairs in Chinese universities” (Ministry of Education, 2008c, p. 4, line 7). Through my analysis of these policies, I found that Chinese authorities place teaching as a priority in the overall development agenda of higher education in the OER reform. There are two reasons that may explain such prioritised emphasis.

Firstly, higher education institutions in China fall into four categories according to their academic performances, such as publications and research findings.

Through ranking the scores from high to low, higher education institutions in China are entitled to be “research institutions”, “research-teaching institutions”, “teaching-research institutions”, or “teaching institutions” (J. P. Qiu, 2012). Such a system seems reasonable and efficient with different types of higher education institutions emphasising, respectively, teaching or research. However, the problem lies with the fact that academic research is the most valued criteria in evaluating the capacity of institutions and the evaluation outcomes influence their comprehensive ranking, which potentially affect the recruiting of students. As a result, it is recognised by Minister Zhou Ji (2007 p. 2) that “many Chinese universities, despite their capacities and emphases, devote most of their financial and human resources investments into research affairs instead of teaching affairs in order to improve their rank, which affects the overall quality of higher education in China”.

Moreover, with the universities’ major emphasis on enhancing research, academics in Chinese higher education institutions also prefer or are driven to focus more on research, instead of teaching (C. X. Zhu, 2008). In most Chinese universities, lecturers have to do much research and publish their work in order to achieve associate professorship or fulltime professorship (J. P. Qiu, 2012). Such pressure to publish often results in academics having less time allocated to teaching. Therefore, in an attempt to prioritise teaching, Chinese authorities acknowledge that “some unreasonable criteria in the higher education system should be reformed” (State Council of People’s Republic of China & Ministry of Education, 2010, p. 4, line 7) and prioritising teaching becomes an important aspect of the rationalities underpinning the governing of higher education institutions and their academics as resource providers in the OER reform.

6.1.2.3 Institutional disciplinary structure

Another issue aligned with concerns about pedagogical quality and addressing the prioritisation of research over teaching is the structure of institutional disciplines and programmes. For example, in the *National Long-term Educational Reform and Development Plan (2010-2020)*, it is stated that “the structure and arrangement of the higher education sector is not reasonable enough” and that the higher education sector should:

... improve the structure and emphasize the features of Chinese higher education in China... [the higher education sector should] establish a dynamic

adjusting system and keep on improving its structure. [The higher education sector should] refine the disciplines, types of programmes, structural levels to promote cross-links and merges between different subjects... Different types of higher education institutions should form their own educational styles to become first-class institutions at different levels in different fields. (p. 15, line 18-23)

Under China's National Quality Open Courseware programme, higher education institutions are required to "take in consideration the arrangement and utility of subjects and majors" and focus on their own teaching traditions and strengths when establishing quality courses (Ministry of Education & Ministry of Finance, 2011, p. 3, line 10). In the *Outline of Eleventh Five-year Development Plan for Central Radio and Television University* (Ministry of Education, 2008c), radio and television universities are required to be "properly positioned" in providing educational services and contribute to the system of "sharing educational resources at different levels of higher education" (p. 8, lines 17-19).

According to Minister Zhou Ji (2007), "the disciplinary structure of higher education has not caught up with the social and economic development in China ... the structure should be refined to improve the quality of higher education". The identification of the gap between what universities offer in course selection and what is required by a rapidly modernising China appears to be exacerbated by the ways in which many universities are structured. This disjuncture also underpins a range of problems in the institutional disciplinary structure of Chinese higher education institutions. A key problem for OER reform is that most programmes in Chinese universities and colleges are over-specialised. For example, the push for students to specialise commences as soon as they start their study, as they have to select a major before entering an institution. This system, on one hand, may help students to focus exclusively on their majors and achieve expertise in a particular field. However, this process affects students in obtaining sufficient diversified knowledge, which is deemed important in contemporary society (Bao & An, 2009; J. F. Zhu, 2010). Since the 1990s, a number of strategies have been adopted to encourage students to acquire knowledge beyond their majors. For instance, students in all majors are required to attend some basic courses, such as *College English* and *College Mathematics*, and some institutions allow students with high course scores to enrol in programmes for a double bachelor's degree (Zhang & Li, 2011). However, this is far from ideal,

because the basic courses are limited and there are few students who can manage a double degree (Zhang & Li, 2011).

In summary, in the Chinese OER reform, Chinese authorities consider improving higher education quality from the perspectives of improving pedagogical quality, priority of teaching, and institutional disciplinary structure. Higher education institutions and teachers, as resource providers, are rendered responsible for improving higher education quality from three perspectives. The governmental rationalities are summarised in Table 6.1.

Table 6.1 Rationalities of improving higher education quality

Rationalities of improving higher education quality			
	Moral aspect	Knowledge aspect	Language aspect
Improve the pedagogical quality	Higher education institutions and their academics, as resource providers, are responsible for improving pedagogical quality.	Pedagogical quality can be improved by solving the problems that include the lack of qualified academics to teach courses, the low quality of teaching materials provided to students, and the lack of experience amongst early career academics in terms of teaching capacity.	Pedagogical quality, academics with high qualifications, teacher-student ratio, educational background of academics, high-quality curriculum resources, standards for monitoring textbooks, lack of qualified academics and high-quality teaching resources in newly-established institutions.
Improve the priority of teaching	Higher education institutions and their academics, as resource providers, are responsible for prioritising teaching as their key undertaking.	Priority of teaching can be improved by driving the higher education institutions and academics to devote more effort to teaching affairs and to strike a balance between teaching and research.	Central position of teaching, prioritise the investment into teaching affairs, establish a teaching-centred, higher education system, provide technological support for enhancing and administering teaching affairs
Improve the institutional disciplinary structure	Higher education institutions and their academics, as resource providers, are responsible for improving disciplinary structures.	Disciplinary structure in higher education institutions can be refined and improved by solving problems such as over-specialisation and lack of courses providing cross-disciplinary knowledge.	Unreasonable structure of the disciplines, refine the disciplines, types of programmes, structural levels, promote cross-links and merges between different subjects.

6.2 Open Educational Resources for Improving Higher Educational Equity

Through an analysis of the policies for the OER reform in China, I found that equity issues compose another key theme of the rationalities that underpin the governing of resource providers. Educational equity is a concept used to indicate the fairness and effectiveness of education systems. It is widely recognised as a basic human right and has received much consideration in both developing and developed countries (Sherman & Poirier, 2007). In China, equity in higher education has also received increased attention. This section elaborates on the governmental rationalities of improving higher educational equity that underpin the governing of resource providers in the Chinese OER reform. This section first examines the policies and political discourses that address the issues of higher educational equity in the OER reform. It then elaborates on the detailed aspects of the rationalities that underpin the governing of resource providers.

6.2.1 Policies of improving higher educational equity through the OER reform

Before examining the detailed policies, it is important to clarify the concepts of equity (*Gong Ping*) and equality (*Ping Deng*). According to Secada (1989), equity and equality in education are two differentiated concepts. The key difference lies in that equity is a qualitative property, while equality refers to a quantitative property. Educational equality is a positivist concept describing the results and status of educational resources distribution; it concerns the disparity, rather than the reasonableness, of resource distribution. Educational equity, on the other hand, is a qualitative concept associated with notions of justice and fairness, and inequity always implies unrighteousness or injustice. In other words, achieving equity does not necessarily result in equality. For instance, education laws may mandate that everyone should have an equal right to receive education, but this does not mean that the educational resources that individuals receive are equivalent. It is also equitable for some students to pass and some to fail. Yet it is unequal, but equitable, to give preferential education to students from disadvantaged backgrounds, such as minority nation groups. This study focuses mainly on the equity issues addressed in the Chinese OER reform.

Higher educational equity is emphasised through the OER reform in China. The *National Long-term Educational Reform and Development Plan (2010-2020)*

(State Council of People's Republic of China & Ministry of Education , 2010, p. 7, lines 5-9) claims that:

Enhancing equity is adopted as the fundamental national education policy because educational equity is the basis of social equity... The basic measures include distributing educational resources reasonably, giving more preferentiality to poor regions and minority ethnic groups, and bridging the educational gaps ...all [of] the social sectors should participate in promoting educational equity.

In the policy documents concerning the OER reform, the discourse of ‘improving higher education equity’ is repeatedly stressed. The NQOCW programme is aimed at “improving educational equality between different regions and institutions through opening and sharing high-quality courseware resources” (Ministry of Education, 2003b, p. 1, lines 17-18). The quality courses are established to “improve the overall quality of higher education to enhance educational equity” (Ministry of Education & Ministry of Finance, 2007, p. 3; 2011, p. 2). The radio and television university system is responsible for “contributing to educational equity through delivering educational resources to different regions, especially some remote and rural areas” (Ministry of Education, 2008c, p. 4, line 10). In these policy documents, the problem of higher education equity is interpreted mainly from the perspective of equity of higher educational resources. Through an analysis of the policy documents for OER reform, I contend that Chinese authorities have considered that the distribution of teacher resources and course resources should be improved through the reform. Higher education institutions and academics, as resource providers, are rendered responsible for conducting resource provision activities to improve higher educational equity. These rationalities underpin the governing of higher education institutions and academics as resource providers in the OER reform.

6.2.2 Rationalities of improving higher educational equity

Through an examination of the policies, I found that these aspects of the rationalities of improving higher educational equity are incorporated into two detailed themes that are related to the distribution of teacher resources and the distribution of curriculum resources. The following sections discuss the rationalities of the two themes and summarises the moral, knowledge, and language aspects.

6.2.2.1 *Distribution of teacher resources*

Given China's vast geographical expanse and large population, an important indicator in evaluating higher education quality is the provision and distribution of teacher resources, as they often determine the nature of equity in higher education (Tao, 2010; W. Q. Wang, 2000). However, China's higher education sector is in short supply of highly-qualified teacher resources and the distribution of teacher resources is unbalanced between institutions and regions. This has led to inequity in terms of education quality and outcomes (M. Y. Pan, 2000). According to the UNESCO's educational equity framework, the indicators of teacher resourcing consist of the student-teacher ratio, the level of teachers' education-qualifications, and teachers' experiences and certification (Sherman & Poirier, 2007). I contend that the distribution of teacher resources in China can be explored by these indicators as well.

In China, full-time college academics are ranked as 'senior teachers', 'sub-senior teachers', 'middle teachers', and 'junior teachers' on the basis of comprehensive evaluations of their teaching experiences, research performances, and education backgrounds. In general, it is considered that academics with senior and sub-senior titles have more experiences and better skills in teaching (Z. X. Chen, 2005; W. Q. Wang, 2000). In order to illustrate the distribution of teacher resources in Chinese higher education, I selected 10 institutions established in 2009 (Table 6.2) and 10 universities from the *211 Project* (a project for developing 100 key universities in the twenty-first century) (Table 6.3), at random, to make a comparison of their teacher resources. The publically available data were retrieved from the websites of the relevant institutions.

While table 6.2 and Table 6.3 may not be indicative of teacher resource differences, because the scale of an institution does not necessarily determine its education quality, the tables demonstrate that there are a number of differences between the newly-established institutions and the *211 Project* institutions in terms of student-teacher ratios.

Table 6.2 Institutions established in 2009

Institution	Number of full time teachers	Number of senior and sub-senior teachers	Number of students	Student-fulltime teacher ratio	Student-senior/sub-senior teacher ratio
Guangxi Normal University for Nationalities	306	98	5,500	18:1	56:1
Sichuan University for Nationalities	363	111	6,246	17:1	56:1
Liupanshui Normal University	288	137	5,000	17:1	37:1
Guizhou Normal College	295	116	5,000	17:1	43:1
Wenshan University	285	87	4,800	17:1	55:1
Gansu Normal University for Nationalities	350	121	7,300	21:1	60:1
Guilin University of Technology	1,000	450	16,800	17:1	37:1
Chongqing University of Technology	875	456	12,694	15:1	28:1
Southwest Forestry University	504	254	12,644	25:1	50:1
Qinghai University for Nationalities	717	454	10,099	14:1	22:1
Totals and average	5,284	2,391	91,229	17:1	38:1

Table 6.3 Institutions of the 211 Project

Institution	Number of full time teachers	Senior and sub-senior teachers	Number of students	Student-fulltime teacher ratio	Student-senior/sub-senior teacher ratio
Tsinghua University	2,789	2,847	31,395	11:1	11:1
Zhejiang University	2,539	2,593	39,136	11:1	15:1
Shanghai Jiaotong University	2,978	722	33,398	11:1	45:1
Nanjing University	1,990	741	27,600	14:1	37:1
Fudan University	2,481	1,400	26,792	11:1	19:1
Wuhan University	3,500	2,300	48,744	14:1	21:1
Jilin University	6,369	1,484	59,412	9:1	40:1
Xi'an Jiaotong University	2,332	1,300	30,642	13:1	24:1
University of Science and Technology of China	1,163	1,056	15,787	14:1	15:1
Nankai University	1,848	1,285	22,296	12:1	17:1
Totals and average	28,989	15,725	335,202	12:1	21:1

Firstly, the lowest student-teacher ratio in the first group of institutions is 14:1, while that is the highest in the second group. The average student-teacher ratio of the selected newly-established institutions is about 30% higher than that of the selected *211 Project* universities. That is, academics in the new institutions have to teach almost a doubled number of students than teachers in *211 Project* institutions and students in *211 Project* institutions are likely to have more opportunities to receive direction and supervision from teachers than their peers in the newly-established institutions.

Secondly, the gap between the ratios of students to senior or sub-senior teachers in the two groups of institutions is wider than that of student-teacher ratios. The average ratio of students to senior or sub-senior teachers in the selected newly-established institutions ranges from 1:22 to 1:60, averaging at 1:38. This indicates that there are less than three senior or sub-senior teachers for every 100 students in these institutions. On the other hand, the highest ratio of student to senior or sub-senior teachers in the selected *211 Project* institutions is 1:45 and the lowest is 1:11, indicating that these institutions have, on average, more than five senior or sub-senior teachers for every 100 students. There are also more senior or sub-senior teachers in selected *211 Project* universities than in the newly-established institutions. The total number of academics with senior and sub-senior titles in all 10 newly-established institutions is lower than that in Zhejiang University, but the 10 universities have more than three times as many students than Zhejiang University.

Thirdly, the distribution of key universities in China is not balanced between different regions and this has also led to more serious inequity of teacher resources. Institutions of the *211 Project* are the key universities in China, but distribution of these institutions is not balanced across regions, as demonstrated in Table 6.4.

Table 6.4 Distribution of 211 Project institutions (Ministry of Education, 2009b)

Region	Number of 211 Project institutions	Region	Number of 211 Project institutions
Beijing	25	Jiangsu province	11
Shanghai	9	Shannxi province	7
Hubei province	7	Sichuan province	5
Liaoning province	4	Heilongjiang province	4
Guangdong province	4	Hunan province	4
Shandong province	3	Anhui province	3
Tianjin	3	Jilin province	3
Fujian province	2	Chongqing	2
Xinjiang	2		

Table 6.4 indicates that most of the key universities in China are located in large cities and coastal regions. These universities usually have better financial, educational, and research conditions that attract academics and there has been a flow of high-quality teacher resources from institutions in the west and middle of China to key universities in cities such as Shanghai and Beijing (J. Tang, 2011). As a result, most high-quality teacher resources are distributed to the coastal provinces and students in the middle and west regions of China have fewer opportunities to enjoy educational resources of an equal standard.

In addition, the imbalance in teacher resources distribution lies in the unbalanced resource distribution between undergraduate and postgraduate students within the institutions. The number of postgraduate students has increased dramatically since the expansion of higher education, and postgraduate courses are usually instructed by academics with expertise, which indirectly reduces the opportunities of undergraduate students to enjoy high-quality teacher resources. At DW University, the distribution of teacher resources is arranged in a manner that favours postgraduate courses. For instance, the Faculty of Foreign Languages at DW University has enrolled an increasing number of postgraduate students during the past few years. There were less than 30 students enrolled for a master's or a doctoral degree in 2005 and this number has increased to more than 90 in 2012. According to the curriculum plan, postgraduate courses are instructed mostly by professors with expertise in the field (DW University Teaching Affairs Department,

2009). Therefore, it is expected that their devotion to undergraduate courses might have been reduced.

6.2.2.2 *Distribution of curriculum resources*

The content of curriculum resources is another important issue in relation to the OER reform. Curricula are important content carriers of educational processes and they are essential to educational equity because the quality of curricula largely determines the cultivation of *rencai* (Pan & Wang, 1995). According to the UNESCO educational equity framework, availability of curriculum resources is an important indicator for evaluating educational equity, and the unbalanced availability of curriculum resources in different disciplines and institutions may lead to educational inequity (Sherman & Poirier, 2007).

In the *2003 Announcement*, it is claimed that “opening the curriculum resources and making full use of the high-quality curriculum resources are important ways of enhancing educational equity” (Ministry of Education, 2003b, p. 3, lines 5-6) and the quality courses are established to “enhance the balance and overall development of course resources in different institutions” (Ministry of Education & Ministry of Finance, 2007, p. 4, line 5) as well as to “spread and share high-quality curriculum resources, represent modern teaching principles and pedagogical approaches, and demonstrate advanced teaching concepts and methods” (Ministry of Education, 2012a, p. 1, lines 8-9). The National Quality Open Courseware programme requires higher education institutions to establish and share their high-quality curriculum resources with other institutions in order to enhance educational equity.

The process of conducting the project demonstrates the imbalance in the distribution of curriculum resources between different disciplines and different institutions. By the end of 2010, the Ministry of Education had launched 2,512 undergraduate quality courses online. However, the distribution of these courses shows much imbalance between different disciplines. The imbalance can be demonstrated through a comparison of the number of national undergraduate quality courses, number of students, and student-course ratios in different disciplines, as shown in Table 6.5.

Table 6.5 National-level undergraduate quality courses (2010)

Discipline	National undergraduate quality courses (Ministry of Education, 2011e)	Number of students (2010)	Course-student ratio
Engineering	805	763,635	1:947
Science	408	264,493	1:648
Literature	163	458,761	1:2,815
Administration	195	399,481	1:2,049
Agriculture	149	46,847	1:314
Law	99	117,182	1:1,184
Education	90	86,705	1:963
History	34	13,544	1:398
Philosophy	28	1,652	1:59
Economics	95	150,666	1:1,586
Medicine	187	152,392	1:815
Marxist theories and moral studies	45	---	
Cultural studies	46	---	
Totals	2,344	2,455,359	1:1048

Table 6.5 indicates that, although there were over 2,000 national-level quality courses, in 2010, they were not evenly distributed across different disciplines. Courses of natural sciences, such as engineering, science, medicine, and agriculture, largely outnumbered courses in humanities and social sciences. The average course-student ratio was 1:1,047, but ratios in literature, administration, law, and economics are much lower than that in engineering, science, and agriculture. As the national-level quality courses usually have high-quality textbooks, teaching materials, and teachers with high qualifications, such course-student ratios indicate that students in the natural sciences majors have more opportunities to access high-quality educational resources than students in other majors.

The imbalance of high-quality course resources distribution is also revealed in the number of quality courses produced by different universities. By the end of 2010, the Ministry of Education in China had launched 2,512 national-level quality courses constructed by 300 universities. The key universities of the *211 Project* have contributed to more than one-third of the courses (Ministry of Education, 2011e). Such a distribution demonstrates that most of the high-quality course resources were

possessed by the key universities, which is in line with the distribution of high-quality teacher resources (see section 6.2.2.1).

In addition, although higher education has developed from elite education to mass education in China, there are still a large number of people who cannot enter higher education institutions (C. T. Zhang, 2008). Higher education in China is assigned by the authorities to “promote the development of all individuals and the whole nation” (State Council of People's Republic of China & Ministry of Education, 2010, p. 6, line 10) and the Ministry of Education (2008c) also claims that “higher educational equity should concern both college students and all other individuals or groups that have the need of learning” (p. 3, lines 7-8). However, the fact is that a large amount of higher educational resources are not available to learners who are not enrolled in higher education institutions (Z. X. Chen, 2005). The institution-centred distribution of high-quality, higher education resources, such as quality courses, affects the overall educational equity.

In summary, in the Chinese OER reform, Chinese authorities consider improving higher educational equity from the perspective of improving the distribution of teacher resources and course resources. The higher education institutions and academics, as resource providers, are rendered responsible for improving higher educational equity accordingly and those governmental rationalities underpinning the governing of resource providers in this respect can be summarised in Table 6.7. Besides the rationalities, Chinese authorities adopted a number of technologies to govern the resource providers. The following section discusses these technologies in detail.

Table 6.6 Rationalities of improving higher educational equity

Rationalities of improving higher educational equity			
	Moral aspect	Knowledge aspect	Language aspect
Improve the distribution of teacher resources	Higher education institutions and their academics, as resource providers, are responsible for improving the distribution of teacher resources that determines the nature of equity in higher education.	Refining and improving the distribution of teacher resources can solve the problems of the unbalanced distribution of academics with high qualifications between key universities and non-key universities, between different regions, and between postgraduate education and undergraduate education programmes.	Student-teacher ratio, student-senior/sub-senior teacher ratio, newly-established colleges, <i>211 Project</i> universities, coastal provinces, middle and western regions, postgraduate courses, undergraduate courses.
Improve the distribution of curriculum resources	Higher education institutions and their academics, as resource providers, are responsible for assisting the improvement of the distribution of course resources that are essential to educational equity.	Refining and improving the distribution of curriculum resources can solve the problems of the unbalanced distribution of high-quality curriculum resources between different disciplines, between key universities, and non-key universities, and between learners enrolled and not enrolled in higher education institutions.	Balance and overall development of course resources, course-student ratio, disciplinary distribution of quality courses, <i>211 Project</i> universities, learners not enrolled in higher education institutions.

6.3 Technologies of Governing Resource Providers

According to the governmentality framework, analysis of government is not only concerned with examining the political rationalities that underpin the programmes, but also seeks to investigate the technical means through which governance is achieved (Dean, 1999; Miller & Rose, 2008). In the Chinese OER reform, the policies for the OER reform have developed a number of technical means to regulate and motivate the higher education institutions and their academics, as resource providers, who are considered to be responsible for the improvement of higher education quality and equity.

The National Quality Open Courseware programme, together with the supporting system of radio and television university system and the organisation of China Open Resources for Education (CORE), is developed by Chinese authorities in order to translate their rational thoughts about higher education quality and equity into practical plans. These programmes incorporate a range of mechanisms to govern the higher education institutions and their academics, as resource providers, to realise the rationalities. These practices and mechanisms, as ‘technologies of government’, are central to implementing governance and making programmes that seek to govern ‘operable’ (Rose & Miller, 1992, p. 183).

My examination of the policies of the OER reform indicates that there are mainly two types of technologies adopted to regulate and motivate the higher education institutions and their academics, as resource providers, in the OER reform. Firstly, Chinese authorities exert direct interventions on the activities of resource providers in order to encourage and demand them to produce and share high-quality educational resources. In addition, a large number of auditing, funding, and rewarding mechanisms are adopted as indirect forms of governing resource providers and resource provision. These technologies, together, are embedded in a comprehensive network of power relations exercised over resource providers as is described below.

6.3.1 Technologies of governing resource providers to develop high-quality educational resources

An analysis of the policies for the OER reform reveals that Chinese authorities are promoting the development of high-quality educational resources as key

strategies for improving higher education quality and equity. In the *National Long-term Educational Reform and Development Plan (2010-2020)*, providing more high-quality education is adopted as a key strategy for educational development. The policy documents claim that “the total amount of high-quality educational resources should be expanded constantly to satisfy people’s needs of receiving high-quality education”(p. 8, lines 1-3). The radio and television university system is required to “integrate and expand high-quality educational resources at all levels and share these resources” (Ministry of Education, 2008c, p. 10, line 15). The National Quality Open Courseware is established to “develop and provide high-quality educational resources that are used by students and teachers in higher education institutions as well as non-student learners” (Ministry of Education & Ministry of Finance, 2011, p. 3, lines 18-19). The organisation of China Open Resources for Education (CORE) (2009b, p. 2, lines 3-4) is assigned to “share and develop educational resources at the international level ... to provide more and better educational resources to learners both in China and in other nations”.

These requirements and assignments demonstrate that Chinese authorities have exerted direct intervention into resource provision activities in order to develop high-quality educational resources. The analysis shows that two detailed mechanisms are used by Chinese authorities to regulate and motivate the resource providers to develop high-quality educational resources, namely, improving the quality of teacher resources and improving curriculum resources.

6.3.1.1 Improving the quality of teacher resources

Teachers are the direct providers of education. Developing high-quality teacher resources is adopted as an important technique for governing higher education institutions and their academics in the Chinese OER reform. Through implementing the policies for the reform, a number of measures are implemented for the development of teacher resources.

First, the OER reform has emphasised on the leading and exemplary roles of academics with high qualifications. As reviewed in Chapter Three, quality courses are usually co-produced by teaching teams, and the Ministry of Education (2003a, p. 3, lines 1-5) requires that team leaders and key instructors of the course should have “high academic achievements, exceptional teaching ability, and long and

extensive teaching experiences”. Key instructors are required to teach the courses for at least two rounds in three years. This is called “driving the professors on to the teaching platform” (J. Zhou, 2007, p. 6), which ensures the key instructors’ participation in teaching and the improvement of the overall standard of teaching teams. In the radio and television system, it is also required that famous professors and experts should be invited “to lead the teaching teams of open courses and help establish high-quality teacher resources” (Ministry of Education, 2008c, p. 14, lines 5-6).

According to Professor YSL, in broad terms, the NQOCW programme has enhanced the participation of professors and associate professors in teaching at DW University. All of the key instructors of quality courses are full-time professors and associate professors. As stated by Professor YSL (interview, 15 February, 2012), “most of these professors and associate professors have strong academic backgrounds and wide teaching experiences, but they used to devote more to research and postgraduate teaching, such as supervising master’s and doctoral students”. Professor GWX is a team leader in a quality course. His course was rewarded as the ‘Institutional Quality Course’ of DW University in 2010. Professor GWX is the only professor in his teaching team. In the process of establishing and developing the course, Professor GWX not only designed the course and collected course materials, but also helped other members of the teaching team to master the background knowledge of the course and develop their teaching skills (Professor GWX, personal communication, 21 February, 2012). Ms. FJ is one of the members of Professor GWX’s teaching team. During our interview, Ms. FJ described that she learned a lot by participating in the process of establishing the course. She also noted that what she had learned in this course has been helpful for her to use in instructing in other courses (Ms. FJ, personal communication, 21 February, 2012).

The OER reform has also encouraged and demanded academics to develop their overall teaching capacity. The Ministry of Education sets detailed requirements for the instructors of quality courses:

[Instructors of undergraduate quality courses] should have active and innovative thoughts about teaching and teaching reform. The academic research should promote the teaching reform and publish high-quality research papers or books about teaching the course. (Ministry of Education, 2003d, p. 3, lines 17-21)

[Instructors of vocational courses] should hold responsible attitudes toward teaching, master high-quality teaching skills, and participate in educational research and projects of teaching reforms. These academics should hold close association with enterprises and participate in cooperative programmes between institutions and enterprises. (Ministry of Education, 2003d, p. 3, lines 12-16)

These requirements for academics as instructors of quality courses are aimed at directing them to take responsibility for their professional development and their teaching tasks. Instructors of undergraduate courses are required to develop academic competence, and instructors of vocational courses are encouraged to focus more on the experiences of cooperating with enterprises (X. C. Wang, 2008).

According to Professor YSL, DW University has placed more emphasis on enhancing the teachers' development since the start of NQOCW programme. The university now offers more opportunities for academics to develop their expertise, such as sponsoring them to attend international conferences or travelling to overseas universities as visiting scholars. The university also promotes interaction and cooperation between academics and enterprises. "In this way, we hope the academics can have a better understanding of the needs of enterprises so that they can help students prepare well for working" (Professor YSL, personal communication, 15 February, 2012).

The third method adopted for developing teacher resources in the OER reform is enhancing the establishment and development of teaching teams. According to the policies concerning the National Quality Open Courseware programme,

... the teaching teams of quality courses should be responsible and cooperative; the teams should have reasonable knowledge structure, age structure, and academic structure; and teaching assistants should be allocated according to the course requirements; the career development plan for academics should be reasonable and effective; experts with professional backgrounds should be encouraged to join the team. (Ministry of Education, 2003d, p. 3, lines 8-12)

These requirements are aimed at promoting the development of teaching teams from three perspectives. Firstly, the policy promotes the development of cooperation between members within the teams. This is important, because the quality courses are systematic and long-lasting, and they cannot be developed and managed by individual academics (Liu & Chen, 2007). Moreover, the policy promotes the

cooperation between academics from different backgrounds and across different teams. The Ministry of Education directly states that “cooperation between different institutions and cooperation between institutions and social departments are encouraged for the development of Quality Resource-Sharing Courses” (Ministry of Education, 2012a, p. 6, lines 2-3). This is also important, as the quality courses are comprehensive and long-lasting programmes, and the incorporation of multi-dimensional knowledge calls for academics with different knowledge backgrounds (Liu & Chen, 2007). In addition, the policy enhances the reasonable structure of teaching teams. For example, all of the quality courses at DW University are developed by teaching teams and most of the teams have balanced personnel structures in terms of the academics’ ages, professional backgrounds, and research focuses.

6.3.1.2 *Developing curriculum resources*

The second technology for governing higher education institutions and their academics, as resource providers, is directing and mobilising them to develop high-quality curriculum resources. An analysis of the policy documents and the interviews indicates that Chinese authorities have adopted two types of mechanisms and strategies to regulate the activities of resource providers in order to achieve the development of curriculum resources.

Firstly, in the OER reform, providers and receivers of resources are properly positioned and targeted. In the National Quality Open Courseware programme, it is required that “higher education institutions should develop quality courses according to their teaching traditions and strengths in different fields” (Ministry of Education, 2003b). As a result, although popular programmes like business management, law, and foreign language studies are key programmes in most universities, the quality courses established are more diversified, covering almost every academic field. Most higher education institutions develop quality courses according to their teaching capacities, instead of following the fashionable popular courses, which demonstrates reasonable positioning strategies adopted by higher education institutions (Xiong, 2010). By the end of 2011, DW University had constructed more than 90 quality courses and more than 50% of the courses were from humanities studies and medical studies. According to Professor YSL, these courses are established because they are

the best that DW could offer (Professor YSL, personal communication, 15 February, 2012).

At the same time, the Ministry of Education has set different requirements for the quality courses for undergraduate students in regular higher education institutions (*Ben Ke*), vocational higher education students (*Zhuan Ke*), and adult learners. It is stated that “curriculum should be designed according to the aim of cultivating human resources ... different courses should satisfy the needs of different learners and develop their innovative and practical abilities” (Ministry of Education, 2003d, p. 3, lines 21-25). The quality courses for regular, undergraduate education focus on both theoretical and practical knowledge. It is required that the courses “should deal with the relationship between classical theories and the real world; they should be fundamental and reflect the frontier of academic research” (Ministry of Education, 2003d, p. 3, lines 21-25). The quality courses for vocational students are required to “achieve the aim of cultivating *rencai* with high technical skills and satisfy the job requirements in relevant fields; the courses should encourage and support learners’ development of professional skills and abilities” (Ministry of Education, 2003d, p. 2, lines 7-12). Differentiated requirements are also set for the use of textbooks and conditions of teaching.

DW University does not provide any vocational education and its quality courses fall into three categories, namely, undergraduate quality courses, post-graduate quality courses, and quality courses for adult education. Post-graduate quality courses are highly academic and theoretical, with an emphasis primarily on cultivating students’ research capacities. Undergraduate quality courses focus on the connection between theoretical knowledge and practical application. Courses for adult education are designed mainly according to the actual use of knowledge by students who usually have working experiences (D W University Teaching Affairs Department, 2005).

Besides the positioning of the providers and receivers of the resources, promoting the use of various teaching methodologies and computer technologies is also a key strategy to improve curriculum resources. According to the policy document for the National Quality Open Courseware programme, it is required that quality courses for undergraduate students in regular, higher education institutions

should “use a variety of teaching methods flexibly to promote students’ activity and develop their learning ability” (Ministry of Education, 2003d, p. 4, lines 30-32).

At DW University, the use of new teaching methodologies and technologies is considered to be outstanding in the development of quality courses. For instance, in Professor GWX’s course, every student has an electronic portfolio (e-portfolio), which records the out-of-class projects, in-class discussions, assignments, and exams. Through the use of computers and the Internet, a learning network is established between teachers, students, in-class teaching resources, and external resources. According to Professor GWX, these teaching technologies had not been used in the past and he found that these technologies were more attractive for students than the traditional textbooks. Students could also acquire more knowledge through the use of the network resources (Professor GWX, personal communication, 21 February, 2012).

In summary, in order to develop high-quality educational resources in the OER reform, Chinese authorities adopted two technologies to regulate higher education institutions and their academics as resource providers. The technologies include improving the quality of teacher resources and enhancing the resource providers to produce high-quality curriculum resources. The OER reform enlarges the influence of senior academics by sharing their teaching experiences and expertise with other academics. Comprehensive development plans and requirements are set to encourage the course instructors to improve their overall teaching capacity, promote their cooperation, and develop high-level teaching teams. Such mechanisms are direct interventions that regulate the activities of higher education institutions and academics.

6.3.2 Technologies of governing resource providers for sharing of high-quality educational resources

The second group of governmental technologies used by the Chinese authorities to govern higher education institutions and academics are aimed at enhancing the sharing of high-quality educational resources. ‘Resource sharing’ is a key discourse in the policy documents for the OER reform in China and different requirements are set for opening and sharing higher educational resources by these policy documents. In the *2003-2007 Action Plan for Invigorating Education*, it is

stated that “quality courses should be constructed, China Academic Library & Information System should be further developed, and systems for sharing experiment equipments and teaching resources should be established” (Ministry of Education, 2004a, p. 8, line 30). The *National Long-term Educational Reform and Development Plan (2010-2020)* further claims that “open and flexible service platforms for educational resources should be established to promote the spread and sharing of high-quality educational resources” (State Council of People's Republic of China & Ministry of Education, 2010, p. 30, lines 1-2).

The *2003 Announcement* states that information technologies should be utilised to “open and share the course materials and video recordings online” (Ministry of Education, 2003b, p. 2, lines 18-19) and, accordingly, the radio and television university system is assigned to “establish course platforms to promote the co-construction and sharing of programmes, courses, and teacher resources” (Ministry of Education, 2008c, p. 12, lines 1-2). CORE was established to “provide resource platforms to introduce international high-quality courseware, and advanced teaching technologies and methodologies into Chinese education; [CORE] also promotes Chinese high-quality educational resources to be shared worldwide” (CORE, 2009b, p. 1, lines 15-16). Through my analysis of the policy documents for OER reform, I suggest that there are two types of mechanisms that encourage the resource providers to share high-quality educational resources. They include enhancing the digitalisation of educational resources and establishing platforms for sharing the resources.

6.3.2.1 Digitalising educational resources

In order to share high quality educational resources, a key technology of regulating higher education institutions and their academics is encouraging them to digitalise educational resources. In the OER reform, there are two detailed methods of promoting the digitalisation of resources. Firstly, in the National Quality Open Courseware programme, every quality course is required to have an electronic profile that includes teaching plans, courseware, and course designs, as well as teaching videos, teaching materials, course evaluations, and relevant research findings. Since 2011, the Ministry of Education has further enhanced the digitalisation of quality courses by promoting the construction of video quality courses. These courses have full video-recordings of teaching sessions. The Ministry of Education required that

1,000 video quality courses should be constructed and published for free use of learners before 2015 (Ministry of Education, 2011d).

The Ministry of Education has also issued technical standards for institutions and academics to follow for digitalising course resources. The use of digital technologies is required to follow the China ELearning Technology Standardization (CELTS). In this way, the electronic profiles are standardised, although the profile contents are varied. For example, video quality courses were starting to be constructed in 2011, and the Ministry of Education issued a document called *Technology Standards for Recording and Making Video Quality Courses* (Ministry of Education, 2011f), which sets specific requirements for the production of these courses. The standards set detailed regulations for the venue of recording, the approach to recording, and the format of recording, which included both video and audio signals.

At DW University, digitalisation is an important programme for the construction of quality courses and the publication of courses. In order to help the academics to digitalise the courses, DW University established a course centre for “putting the basic curriculum information and teaching content online, assisting teacher-student interaction, publicizing teaching information, and providing various technologies for course development” (DW University Teaching Affairs Department, 2009, p. 1, lines 15-17). Every quality course produced at DW University has a website that consists of five sections, which are basic information of the course, teaching resources of the course, teaching interactions during the course, teaching assistance of the course, and others (DW University Teaching Affairs Department, 2009).

By the end of 2011, DW University had launched over 90 quality courses online, but this was not a straight-forward process. According to Professor SYN, using digital technologies to design and teach a course was a challenge for many academics, especially those with little knowledge about computer technologies. Using digital technologies was not simply a matter of converting print-based, hard-copy materials into Microsoft Word documents on computer, but also involved a process of changing and developing teaching methods and styles. Academics were required to modify and redesign lots of course plans in order to make them compatible with multi-media software. Professor SYN also suggested that computer

technologies were very helpful and, largely, improved teaching efficiency. “Through the use of computer technologies, we can expand the teaching content and teach the courses more flexibly, and provide help to students more promptly. Instructors can also cooperate with each other better to improve the courses” (Professor SYN, personal communication, 19 February, 2012).

6.3.2.2 Sharing educational resources on digital platforms

Another key technology for regulating higher education institutions and their academics for the development of high-quality educational resources is encouraging the providers to share educational resources across digital platforms. With the development of digital and Internet technologies, educational resource platforms have been established at different levels in China. In the OER reform, higher education institutions and academics are required to share their educational resources on these platforms. My examination of the OER programmes indicates that resources are shared on three types of platforms.

Firstly, high-quality curriculum resources are shared across national level platforms. The key platforms include the NQOCW website and the CERNET system. By the end of 2011, the central website of NQOCW (<http://www.jingpinke.com/>) had publicised 34,373 teaching videos, 329,560 teaching coursewares, 49,551 teaching cases, 310,892 digital teaching plans, 51,967 teaching outlines, and 85,032 practice reports. All of these resources are freely available and downloadable from the website. Once uploaded, those teaching teams involved in the national quality courses as resource providers can keep updating the resources on the website. The website of the NQOCW also provides links to provincial and institutional resource centres that accommodate and operate provincial-level and institutional-level quality courses. Moreover, the website of the NQOCW receives feedback from users of the courses and such feedback is returned to the course producers for them to improve or modify the resources (Y. Wang, 2011). The resource centre of the NQOCW also issues a working brief every month, which publicises the operational status of the resources. The brief not only reports the numbers of national-level, provincial-level, and institutional-level quality courses, and the numbers of online textbooks and teaching materials, but also supervises the accessibility of quality courses at different levels, as most servers of provincial-level and institutional-level quality courses are

located in local institutions (Resource Centre of National Quality Open Courseware, 2010).

Secondly, in the OER reform, some educational resources are also shared at an international level. The website of CORE mainly accommodates open courses from overseas universities and educational organisations. By the end of 2011, CORE had launched over 500 open courses from overseas institutions, covering more than 100 subjects at both undergraduate and postgraduate levels. A large number of selected courses have been translated into Chinese as well. Chinese users can get access to both the translated courses and courses in their original languages. CORE has also translated a number of Chinese National Quality Courses into English and launched them on its website and it provides links to Chinese learning, such as the Confucius Institute Online. In this way, CORE establishes an educational resource platform not only for Chinese users to learn from foreign courses, but also for foreigners to access Chinese educational resources.

Thirdly, in order to spread and share the high-quality educational resources as widely as possible, some educational resources are also shared at platforms outside of the education system. A most influential platform is a television series of public lectures. In 2001, China Central Television (CCTV) started a programme called *Bai Jia Jiang Tan* (Hundreds of Scholar's Lectures) that invites scholars in different fields to give lectures on television. At the time of writing this thesis, *Bai Jia Jiang Tan* has screened over 160 programmes in this series of lectures, the contents of which cover history, biology, morality, medicine, language, and art. Most of the lecturers are famous professors from higher education institutions and, significantly, the lectures they present are based on their expertise and research. For instance, Professor Qian Wenzhong from Fudan University is an expert in Buddhism and speaks 16 languages, including some ancient Asian languages. His series lecture, "Xuan Zang's Journey to the West", provides a comprehensive introduction of the development of Buddhism in China. These lecturers contribute to realising the aim of the programme—'let the experts and scholars serve the people'. Some other famous programmes include *Century Forum* by Hunan TV, *Elite Forum* by Phoenix TV, and *Chinese Civilisation Forum* by Beijing TV. In addition, in the policy document, *2012 Implementation Opinions* (Ministry of Education, 2012a), the Ministry of Education notes that the national-level video quality courses would be advertised and publicised

on some popular, educational, as well as some commercial websites in China. These programmes provide platforms for educational resources that used to exist only within institutions to be shared with the public.

In summary, in order to promote the sharing high quality educational resources, Chinese authorities have adopted two technologies to govern higher education institutions and their academics. The technologies include encouraging resource providers to digitalise resources and sharing the resources on digital platforms. These technologies are also direct interventions that regulate the activities of resource providers.

6.3.3 Technologies of governing resource providers by audit

The third group of governmental technologies adopted by Chinese authorities to govern resource providers involves a group of auditing techniques. These auditing techniques form a system that evaluates and assesses the resource provision activities of higher education institutions and teachers, as resource providers. Such governmental technologies indicate a form of indirect governing. This section first introduces the educational audit system in China and then focuses on the auditing of open educational resources.

6.3.3.1 Audit and educational audit system in China

The notion of audit is a new form of management that has spread across Western societies, such as the United Kingdom, the United States of America, and Europe (Power, 1999; Shore & Wright, 2004; Strathern, 2000; Wright & Shore, 1999). The key features of the governance embedded in an audit include a fixation with the measurement, quantification, and benchmarking, and the invention of performance indicators or criteria (Shore & Wright, 2004). According to Kipnis (2011), audit, or *Kao He*, in a Chinese context could be more accurately understood as assessment. Kipnis suggests that the morality embedded in Buddhist and Daoist cultures, the elaborate numeric point system for business practices, and the grading of examinations in the imperial education system together have formed a rich legacy of historical techniques for assessing individuals in ancient China. Kipnis also argues that this legacy informed procedures of assessment in Republican China during the Maoist decades and today (Kipnis, 2011). Borge Bakken (2000, p. 245) suggests that the contemporary “Chinese must be the most thoroughly evaluated people of us all”.

In China, the government exerted direct control over almost all of the managerial, pedagogical, and administrative affairs in higher education institutions during the Maoist period and educational audit did not appear in China until the mid-1980s. Ms. Wu Qidi (2009), the former Deputy Minister of Education in China, stated that the development of the educational auditing system in China was a replacement of the direct governmental intervention in educational administration. It is expected that “a comprehensive and advanced auditing system can enhance the rapid development of higher education and enhance the improvement of higher education quality” (Q. D. Wu, 2009, p. 39).

Since the beginning of the twenty-first century, conducting audits has been adopted as a key method for enhancing the further development of higher education in China. In 2004, the Ministry of Education stated that higher education should be developed on the principle of “enhancing educational construction, reform, and administration through auditing; integrating construction and auditing and emphasizing on construction” (Ministry of Education, 2004b, p. 3, lines 8-9). Since then, a variety of educational audit systems have been established in China, covering almost all aspects of primary education, undergraduate education, and postgraduate education. In the next sub-subsection, I focus on the audit system adopted by the Chinese OER movement.

6.3.3.2 Audit of open educational resources in China

The Quality Open Courseware programme has developed under an auditing system that indirectly regulates higher education institutions and academics, as resource providers, to conduct resource provision activities. All the interviewees at DW University admitted that the audit system of the NQOCW was central to their work of constructing quality courses. “We rely on the auditing system to construct and develop our quality courses because the auditing results directly determine whether our courses could be awarded as quality courses at national, provincial, or institutional levels” (Professor WLB, personal communication, 18 February, 2012). Therefore, it is important to examine the auditing system as a technology that regulates and motivates the resource providers.

According to *Measures for implementing National Quality Open Courseware Project* (Ministry of Education, 2003d, p. 2, lines 10-11), the Ministry of Education

would “commit relevant organisations and experts to audit the quality courses” and the auditing measures include examining institutions’ course materials, watching course videos, and collecting students’ feedback through an online system. The Ministry of Education issued an “Announcement about National Open Quality Course application and auditing” and the “Criteria for auditing National Quality Open Courses” for auditing the resources. The ‘announcement’ and ‘criteria’ were updated every year from 2003 to 2010. An examination of these policies revealed two detailed auditing techniques adopted in the Chinese OER reform to govern resource providers.

Firstly, in the NQOCW programme, a specific group of auditors was employed to supervise the resource providers and regulate their resource provision activities. The *2003 Announcement* stated that the Ministry of Education would establish a team of experts for auditing quality courses. The policy document, *Criterion for auditing National Quality Open Courses 2003* (Ministry of Education, 2003c), further specified that the audit of quality courses should be composed of intra- and inter-institutional peer review, collecting feedback from both on-campus students and online students, and assessments of course materials and course video recordings. With the coordination of educational administrative departments, the auditors for quality courses include intra-institutional colleagues, external experts, on-campus students, and online students. Such an audit team is multi-dimensional and, in this way, quality courses receive supervision from different parties, which, in turn, ensures that the courses would improve the quality and equity of higher education in China (H. X. Li, 2003). In the *2011 Implementation Opinions* (Ministry of Education, 2011d), the Ministry of Education stated that a more detailed audit system for quality courses would be established, with a dynamic supervision and monitoring system. The *2012 Enforcement Measurement* also requires that the education administrative departments should audit the operation, maintenance, and updating of quality courses through online monitoring, evaluating the feedback, and conducting annual assessments.

According to Professor YSL, involving students and external experts, especially peer reviewers, in the auditing process is a challenge for the teachers of quality courses at DW University.

Comparatively speaking, the educational experts are more likely to examine the courses from a professional perspective of course establishment and development, but students' feedback and peer reviews are more practical and detailed, which drives the teachers to be more thoughtful and considerate when designing and revising the courses.” (Professor YSL, personal communication, 15 February, 2012)

Professor SYN also described that the design of courses used to be largely teacher-oriented. The teachers determined the structure and content of the course mostly according to their teaching experiences and assumptions, however, “when students are invited to evaluate the course, the teachers have to consider more from the view of students. They would try to make the courses not only useful, but also more attractive so as to get higher evaluations from students” (Professor SYN, personal communication, 19 February, 2012).

Another important auditing technique employed by the authorities to regulate and motivate resource providers is the establishment and modification of auditing criteria. In 2003, the Ministry of Education issued the first *Criteria for auditing National Quality Open Courses 2003* following the *Announcement by the Ministry of Education about Initiating the Teaching Quality and Teaching Reform Project for Colleges and Universities, the Construction of Quality Open Courseware*. As reviewed in Chapter Three, the document included six primary auditing indices and 12 secondary indices with detailed explanations. These indices covered almost all aspects of quality courses, ranging from the teaching team, teaching content, teaching conditions, teaching methods and approaches, to teaching effects and course features. The document also provided detailed instructions and a scoring system for auditing the courses. The use of the document ensured that the technologies for developing and sharing high-quality educational resources were applied and effective.

Chinese educators argue that the comprehensiveness, operability, and guidance of the auditing criteria decide whether the selected quality courses were of high quality and realised the goal of sharing high-quality educational resources (Xu & Chen, 2010). Since 2003, the ‘criterion’ document has been modified each year before the evaluation of quality courses. Some indices were removed or replaced, some were re-explained, and the scoring system also changed accordingly. These

modifications demonstrated that the development of quality courses was an improving process, approaching the goal of the project gradually and flexibly.

A number of examples can illustrate how the modifications have contributed to the development of quality courses. In 2006, a secondary index entitled ‘teaching design’ was added under the primary index of ‘teaching method and approach’. This secondary index was explained thus:

The concept and design of teaching should demonstrate the application of modern teaching concepts that emphasise on (sic) research-type learning, explorative learning, and cooperative learning; the design of teaching methods and teaching evaluation should be against the teaching content and students’ features. (Ministry of Education, 2006, p. 3, lines 15-17)

The secondary index, ‘teaching method’, was re-explained thus: “[Teaching methods] should focus on the use of new technologies in teaching and teaching reform so as to enhance research-type study and improve students’ learning ability” (Ministry of Education, 2006, p. 3, lines 19-20). These modifications indicated that the Ministry of Education expected the quality courses to focus more on the improvement of teaching methods and approach, and adopt more advanced teaching concepts.

In 2006, another secondary index, ‘evaluation of institutional supervisory system’ was added, which led to the establishment of supervising and directing organisations for quality courses in the institutions that participated in the project. Moreover, the modifications of the criteria also showed much flexibility in directing the development of quality courses. By the end of 2010, 2,583 undergraduate national-level quality courses were produced by 298 higher education institutions. The majority of these courses (60%) were from 56 key universities (mostly *211 Project* universities). That is, one-fifth of the universities produced more than half of the quality courses. Provincial and local higher education institutions were much less productive in developing national-level quality courses.

However, the proportion changed dramatically in 2009. Another 31 universities joined the project and 30 of them were local universities. The quality courses produced by local universities also amounted to more than half of the total. A possible reason for the change was that, in 2009, two indices of the criteria for auditing quality courses were modified. Emphasis on the ‘academic background’ of course instructors was lowered and teachers’ devotion of time and attention to

teaching the course was weighed higher in the scoring system. The index ‘teaching method and teaching approach’ had assumed greater importance as well. Such modifications were in favour of the local universities, as they were usually less competitive in research than key universities, but they could devote more time to teaching innovation (Xu & Chen, 2010). Therefore, the modification of the auditing system promoted a balance between key universities and local universities in developing quality courses.

The examples above demonstrate that the audit system of the National Quality Courseware programme is adopted as an important technique for ensuring the development and sharing of high-quality educational resources in China. The system is effective in directing the course providers to construct quality courses and balance different types of courses and course providers.

In summary, the auditing of open educational resources is an important technology of governing the resource providers in the Chinese OER reform. The technology includes the techniques of organising auditors from different backgrounds and developing criteria for auditing resource provision activities. Such an audit system does not directly intervene in the activities of resource providers and it can be considered to be a form of indirect governance. Through the implementation of the audit system, education administrative departments can regulate and motivate higher education institutions and academics, as resource providers, to participate in the reform.

6.3.4 Technologies of funding and rewarding resource providers

A funding and rewarding strategy is adopted in the Chinese OER reform to govern the resource providers. In the policy document *2001 Quality Project Ideas*, it is directly required that “the expense of daily teaching affairs should not be less than 20% of the tuition fee income in order to ensure the basic costs such as pedagogical expenses, maintenance of teaching equipments and physical education facility maintenance” (Ministry of Education, 2001b, p.2, lines 13-14). The *2003 Announcement* stated that higher education institutions should allocate a sum of money from their governmental funds for the exclusive use of constructing quality courses. The *2011 Implementation Opinions* and the *2012 Enforcement Measurement*

further claimed that extra funds would be provided for the construction of quality resource-sharing courses and video quality courses.

At the same time, a back-funding and a rewards system approach is adopted by the government to encourage the resource providers to do their best in developing and sharing high-quality educational resources. For instance, all of the faculties at DW University constructed quality courses with their faculty funds. After the courses were elected as institutional-level quality courses, the university back-funded the faculties and provided extra funds for further development of the courses. When the institutional-level quality courses are selected as provincial-level quality courses, after several rounds of evaluation, the provincial departments of education would back-fund the institutions and provide bonus funds as well. For the courses awarded as national-level quality courses, the Ministry of Education provides back-funds and the academics, faculties, and institutions that construct the course receive bonus rewards. Such a funding and rewarding system largely motivates the higher education institutions and their academics, as resource providers, to participate in the reform more actively. It is a form of indirect governing that operates on the resource providers' desire for funding and reputation. The technologies of governing resource providers in the OER reform are summarised in Table 6.8.

Table 6.7 Technologies of governing resource providers

Technologies of governing resource providers for developing high-quality educational resources.	Improving the quality of teacher resources.	Direct intervention in the activities of resource providers.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Emphasising on the leading and exemplary role of academics with high qualifications. • Enable academics to develop their overall teaching capacities. • Direct the establishment and development of teaching teams. • Improve the structures of teaching teams.
	Developing curriculum resources.		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Position and target resource providers and receivers. • Promote the use of different teaching methodologies and computer technologies.
Technologies of governing resource providers for enhancing the sharing of high quality educational resources.	Digitalising educational resources.		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Direct the establishment of electronic profiles of quality courses. • Provide standards for developing the electronic profiles of open educational resources.
	Sharing educational resources on digital platforms.		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Establish platforms for sharing educational resources at a national level for higher education learners. • Establish platforms for sharing educational resources at a international level. • Established platforms for sharing educational resources outside of the education system.
Technologies of governing resource providers through auditing.	Auditing open educational resources.	Indirect management of resource providers.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Established specific groups of auditors to supervise the resource providers and regulate their resource provision activities. • Establish and modify the auditing criteria to regulate resource provision.
Technologies of funding and rewarding resource providers.	Funding and rewarding resource providers.		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Allocate additional funds for developing quality courses. • Refund and reward the providers of quality courses.

As discussed at the beginning of section 6.3, the technologies adopted by Chinese authorities actually embed the exercise of a network of powers. These technologies involve university academics, higher education institutions, and educational administrations at different levels. The following section discusses the form of governance, exercise of power relations, and constitution of subjects in the governing of resource providers.

6.4 Subjectivities of Resource Providers: Integration of Centralised and Decentralised Governance

As noted earlier, in section 5.4, the governing of resource administrators in OER reform is centralised and the power relations exercised have authoritarian characteristics. Resource administrators are governed to comply with the policies issued by the central authorities in the Chinese OER reform and are constituted and manipulated as obedient subjects to implement the directives of the authorities actively and efficiently. However, this Chapter has demonstrated that the governing of resource providers is different from the governing of resource administrators. Through an analysis of the rationalities and technologies that underpin the governing of resource providers, it is implied that the governing of resource providers in the Chinese OER reform integrates both centralised and decentralised forms of governance. Some of the power relations exercised in such governing have authoritarian characteristics, while some have neoliberal features. As a result, the resource providers are constituted as both obedient subjects that follow the directives of authorities, and autonomous subjects that are enterprising in implementing the reform.

The examination of governing technologies presented in section 6.3 demonstrates that some of these technologies can be considered to be direct governmental intervention, while some are indirect forms of managing resource providers. The arrangement of distribution of teacher resources and curriculum resources in the OER reform are enforced as direct governmental interventions that regulate the teaching affairs of higher education institutions. The various platforms for resource-sharing are established by the direct interventions and regulations of the government as well. Nevertheless, the technology of auditing, funding, and rewarding are indirect governing mechanisms broadly used in Western nations. They are used to motivate and regulate resource providers in the OER reform. Therefore,

the governing of resource providers integrates centralised and decentralised governance.

As a result, the power relations exercised in such governing have different features. The analysis of the governance shows that direct interventions in the activities of resource providers are realised through power relations that have authoritarian characteristics. For example, Chinese authorities directly require higher education institutions and teachers, as resource providers, to develop and share high-quality educational resources. Nevertheless, the power relations exercised in indirect forms of governance, such as auditing and rewarding, have neoliberal characteristics. According to Miller and Rose (2008), neoliberal modes of governance focus on a minimised or limited role of government in intervening in social matters, and promote the construction of self-governing and self-responsible subjects. Such subjects are responsible for their own behaviours and govern themselves in ways that maximise their own benefits. In the OER reform in China, technologies, such as auditing, funding, and rewarding, can be considered to be neoliberal mechanisms that enable “action-at-distance” (Miller & Rose, 2008, p. 54). They are adopted to promote the participation of resource providers and promote their performance in the reform. In the *Implementation Opinions about Constructing National Quality Open Courses*, issued by the Ministry of Education in 2011, and the *Enforcement Measurement of Constructing Quality Resource Sharing Courses*, issued in 2012, it is stated that market mechanisms will be introduced into the construction of quality resource-sharing courses, such as public bidding.

The two different types of power relations have resulted in the constitution of different subjectivities of resource providers. As discussed in Chapter Two, the constitution of subjects can be achieved in two ways, namely, subjectivation and subjectification, which are, respectively, concerned with the technologies of governing others and governing the self. The direct interventions into the activities of resource providers embed the exercise of authoritarian power relations, which constitute the resource providers as obedient subjects. The higher education institutions and academics are required to follow and implement the OER policies. They are demanded and directed to contribute to the development of higher education by providing and sharing high quality educational resources.

At the same time, the governing of resource providers is also realised through their self-governing. The Ministry of Education devolves its authority to the institutions, faculties, and academics to manage the detailed production and publication of the resources. Chinese authorities adopt technologies of auditing, funding, and rewarding to exercise power relations with neoliberal characteristics. Such power relations enable and motivate the resource providers to govern themselves to be more autonomous and enterprising in the OER reform. These technologies encourage the resource providers to govern themselves with the aims of achieving reputation, rewards, or funding by actively implementing the policies. That is, the resource providers are constituted as autonomous and entrepreneurial subjects in the reform; their autonomous and entrepreneurial subjectivities are constituted and manipulated.

Therefore, in the OER reform in China, higher education institutions and their academics, as resource providers, are constituted as both obedient subjects and autonomous and entrepreneurial subjects. Their obedient subjectivities are demonstrated in terms of obeying the requirements of the authorities to develop and share high-quality educational resources, and the autonomous and entrepreneurial subjectivities are manifested in their vigorous efforts to make their best performances in their resource provision activities.

6.5 Chapter Conclusion

This chapter discussed the governing of resource providers in the reform of open educational resources (OER) in China. In the OER programmes, higher education institutions and their academics, as resource providers, are responsible for producing and sharing high-quality educational resources to contribute to improving higher education quality and higher educational equity. Chinese authorities have adopted various governmental technologies to mobilise and manage the resource providers to develop and share high-quality educational resources. This process involves both direct and indirect governance of the resource providers and such governance involves the exercise of both authoritarian powers and neoliberal powers. The resource providers are constituted as obedient, yet autonomous, and entrepreneurial subjects in providing and sharing the resources for OER reform. The next chapter discusses the governing of resource receivers.

CHAPTER SEVEN: OPEN EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES IN CHINA: GOVERNING RESOURCE RECEIVERS

Through analysing the policies that drive the OER reform agenda, I found that the policies are constrained in mobilising or managing the receivers of resources. Whilst the policies have directly assigned tasks to educational administrations, institutions and teachers, as either resource administrators or providers, there has been no direct administration, control, or supervision of the learners as resource receivers. In terms of policy control, resource receivers seem to enjoy much more freedom than academics or institutions. Yet the absence of direct governance does not mean that there is no governance of resource receivers. Instead, in Mainland China, it is made explicit, in almost all educational policy documents, that educating people is the fundamental task of all efforts to secure educational development. Most policies issued by Chinese authorities repeatedly emphasise that cultivating *rencai* is the central and primary strategy for capacity building the nation (Ministry of Education, 2001c, 2003b, 2007a, 2007b; Ministry of Education & Ministry of Finance, 2011; State Council of People's Republic of China & Ministry of Education, 2010).

Therefore, although the policies do not make explicit the management of learners, there has been constant governance over them and such governance does not involve direct interventions in learners' activities. In order to unpack the governing of resource receivers in the Chinese OER reform, I adopt the conceptual tool of space to facilitate the analytical framework of governmentality. That is, policy analysis is realised through space analysis in this chapter. Such an analysis explores the governmental rationalities and technologies, and also investigates the subjectivities of the resource receivers that the reform constitutes.

This chapter first presents the findings of the reshaping of learning spaces in the OER movement. Such reshaping of learning spaces can be considered as an indirect form of governing Chinese learners. An examination of these changes reveals that Chinese authorities are governing the resource receivers under three themes, namely, constituting lifelong learners, constituting autonomous learners, and constituting innovative learners. The themes incorporate detailed governmental rationalities and technologies, which, together, incorporate the governing of Chinese

learners' educational desires and the constitution of resource receivers to become lifelong, autonomous, and innovative learners.

7.1 Learning Spaces in China: From *Da Xue* to the OER Movement

In China, higher education is largely an equivalent to university education or college education (Yu et al., 2010). Compared to the term of 'higher education', *Da Xue*, which refers to full-time universities and colleges, is a more popularly and broadly recognised term for Chinese people. Although *Ben Ke* (regular university) and *Zhuan Ke* (college) are different types of higher education institutions, *Shang Da Xue* (go to a university or college) is still a term widely accepted and used to refer to the activity of receiving higher education (P. P. Sun, 2010; Yu et al., 2010). Moreover, *Shang Da Xue* is bound to a number of associations that form a stereotype of this notion. In general, *Shang Da Xue* refers to study for three to five years in a state-recognised university or college, after finishing senior middle school and passing the National College Entrance Examination (Yu et al., 2010). Therefore, the learning space associated with higher education in China is dominantly school-based, that is, universities and colleges compose the major space of learning for receivers of higher education in China.

However, an analysis of the policies for the OER reform reveals that the learning spaces for learners in the higher education sector in China have been shaped or reshaped by the reform process. My analysis of the policies driving reform indicates three ways of reshaping learning spaces in this reform.

Firstly, the school-based learning spaces and the work-based learning spaces are partly integrated through the OER reform. The policies of OER reform enhance cooperation between education institutions and enterprises or social organisations to co-develop learning resources. For instance, the NQOCW programme requires that instructors of quality courses should have industry or enterprise-related backgrounds or experiences (Ministry of Education, 2003a). It is assumed that such academics can design courses that are not only helpful for on-campus students to study, but that are also appropriate for workers in relevant industries (Xiong, 2010). The development of practical skills is also promoted in the NQOCW programme. It requires that quality courses should encourage students to participate in social practices and to

apply theoretical knowledge to practical working experiences (Ministry of Education & Ministry of Finance, 2011).

Practicality is one of the most important principles for the development of quality courses at DW University. A large number of courses, especially courses in engineering, science, mechanics, medicine, and business, have established cooperative relationships with enterprises and almost all of the quality courses at DW University have a section of work-place practices for students. For example, the course, *Pingtian Appreciation*, is established through cooperation with the local Pingtian Group and students enrolled in the course of *English-Chinese and Chinese-English Translation and Interpretation* are expected to participate in two weeks' practice at one of the local translation agencies. These examples indicate that the boundary separating the school learning space and that of the workplace can be lessened and that these spaces can be partly integrated. Learning resources can be derived from both the education system and the relevant workplace, and university students may conduct learning activities both at school and in the workplace.

Secondly, the school-based learning space and an interest-based learning space can be partly integrated by the OER reform, as, in the latter's programmes, students are encouraged to play a more significant role in creating and developing educational resources. As discussed in section 6.3, students' comments and feedback are important indicators in the auditing system of the National Quality Open Courseware programme. The designers and instructors of quality courses cater to students' interests when developing course resources. For some courses, students have the opportunity to participate in the design and production of course materials. At DW University, Professor SYN and her team consulted a large number of students when designing their quality course and invited some students to take part in designing the course materials. In her interview, Professor SYN reflected that her team had tried their best to make the course interesting to students, whilst achieving the teaching aims, and they adopted students' suggestions about their needs as well as a variety of up-to-date teaching skills that would arouse students' learning interests (Professor SYN, personal communication, 19 February, 2012). Thus, the OER reform draws learners' interests into the school learning space, whilst the interest-based learning space has extended into the school learning space.

Finally, the most noticeable change in learning spaces brought about by the OER reform lies in the expansion of net-based learning spaces. All of the policy documents concerning the OER reform emphasised promoting the use of Internet technologies in developing and sharing resources. A central theme of the OER reform is sharing those course resources produced by academics with learners enrolled, both inside and outside of the delivering institution, through the use of Internet technologies. Therefore, this reform has not only established a large number of websites as secondary learning resource providers, but it has also mobilised thousands of academics and institutions as primary resource providers. School-based academics provide learning resources for college students as resource receivers, as well as for non-student learners who have the desire to learn. This desire could be motivated by various factors, such as a school requirement, an institutional education requirement, or by career development plans and goals, personal interests, or in response to the necessity of daily life experiences.

In summary, China's OER reform has brought changes to the provision and sharing of higher educational resources and these changes shape the learning spaces in different ways. By opening educational resources in higher education institutions to resource receivers from all walks of life, the boundaries between school learning spaces and other learning spaces are reduced. Learners can now access formerly restricted, school-based, educational resources via the Internet and, in turn, learning spaces that form daily life, workplace, and interest-based learning. In this way, the OER reform in China enhances the growth of such learning spaces by opening educational resources in the school learning space and by enlarging net-based learning spaces.

As discussed in Chapter Two, the concept of space has been adopted as an important tool for investigating governance over subjects. By investigating the nature of changes in space, the formation and reformation of different relations, and the constitution and reconstitution of subjects can be analysed. The changes to learning spaces prompted by the OER reform process result in changes to relations and subjects within these spaces. However, according to Thrift (2000), the production of subjects through spaces is based on imageries. Therefore, it is possible, but not definite, that there is cause-effect relation between changes to spaces and changes to subjects. That is, when authorities exert governance by managing spaces, they

imagine the constitution and reconstitution of subjects and relations within these spaces, but such changes may not absolutely take place.

In the following section, I discuss the relations and subjects that are imagined through an analysis of the space and their changes during the process of the OER reform. These imageries embed the detailed rationalities underpinning the governing of resource receivers in the OER reform. The shaping or reshaping of spaces also involves a number of detailed governmental technologies that change the relations within the space in order to realise these rationalities. The following section examines such rationalities and technologies.

7.2 Governing Resource Receivers: Rationalities and Technologies

As noted, I contend that the shaping or reshaping of learning spaces are promoted by the OER programmes, as informed by OER policies. In response to my analysis of these policies, I classified the governmental rationalities and technologies involved in the governing of resource receivers into three themes, namely, constituting lifelong learners, autonomous learners, and innovative learners. This section examines, in detail, each of these governmental rationalities and technologies.

7.2.1 Constituting lifelong learners

In the OER reform, authorities place considerable importance on encouraging and assisting Chinese learners to envisage learning as a lifelong activity, which is in contrast to what was advocated by traditional Chinese culture. A variety of technologies are also adopted in the reform to encourage the resource receivers to become lifelong learners. This section discusses such rationalities and technologies in detail.

7.2.1.1 Rationalities of developing lifelong learners

As learning was partly considered to be a tool to achieve high social status in ancient China, the time for learning was limited for learners. Learning was understood in terms of those activities related to acquiring knowledge in school spaces and it was largely considered to be an once-and-for-all activity (Li & Chen, 2009). Although it was proposed, in traditional Chinese culture, that learning could take place as long as one lives, the education system and learning teleology made Chinese learners place particular emphasis on learning during their adolescence

(Li & Chen, 2009). The Chinese proverb of *Shao Zhuang Bu Nu Li, Lao Da Tu Shang Bei* directly advocates that, if one did not exert oneself in youth, one would regret it in old age. This proverb implies that, for the youths of the nation, learning is the most important thing to do and it should take place within this limited period of time (Su & Du, 2006). In the Chinese language, the word for graduate is *Bi Ye*; *Bi* means completion, finish, and stop for ever, and *Ye* denotes a career. Therefore, *Bi Ye* exclusively indicates the completion of a learning career, which implies that there is no more learning after the achievement of graduation (Tian, 2005).

In contrast to the traditional view of learning being a just-once activity in traditional Chinese culture, it has been broadly proposed and accepted, since the 1970s, that learning should be a lifelong activity (Husén, 1986; Hutchins, 1968; Illeris, 2009). UNESCO's report called *Learning: The Treasure Within* (1996, p. 85) directly argues that

... traditional responses to the demand for education that are essentially quantitative and knowledge-based are no longer appropriate. It is not enough to supply each child early in life with a store of knowledge to be drawn on from then on. Each individual must be equipped to seize learning opportunities throughout life, both to broaden her or his knowledge, skills and attitudes, and to adapt to a changing complex and interdependent world.

This report also states that:

The traditional division of life into separate periods – childhood and youth devoted to schooling, adulthood and working life, and retirement – no longer corresponds to things as they are today and corresponds still less to the demands of the future. Today, no one can hope to amass during his or her youth an initial fund of knowledge which will serve for a life time. The swift changes taking place in the world call for knowledge to be continuously updated, and at the same time the initial education of young people is tending to become more protracted. (UNESCO, 1996, p. 99)

These statements indicate that learning is important for individuals throughout life. In China, the National Educational Development Research Center (2001) also states that lifelong learning is a key for Chinese people to open the door of knowledge and manage knowledge economy, and that it is essential for the further development of China. Therefore, there are distinguishing differences and contradictions between

Chinese learning traditions and the understanding of learning as proposed by the Chinese government in contemporary times.

The concept of lifelong learning has been elaborated on and defined by a number of scholars, as well as various national and international organisations. It is commonly recognised that lifelong learning generally refers to the lifelong, voluntary, and self-motivated pursuit of knowledge for either personal or professional reasons (Department of Education and Science, 2000). In many policy documents, it is proposed that Chinese people should undertake learning as a lifelong activity; they should participate in learning despite age, career, or occupation. Such a proposal was first raised in 1993 in the *Outline for Educational Reform and Development in China* (Chinese Communist Party Central Committee & State Council of People's Republic of China, 1993). In 1999, the *Action Scheme for Invigorating Education Towards the 21st Century* further states that “receiving lifelong education is a common demand of both educational development and social advancement ... the education system should be reformed to provide conditions for people to receive lifelong education” (Ministry of Education, 2000, p. 8, lines 4-7). In the *2003-2007 Action Plan for Invigorating Education*, more details are provided:

[the education system] should encourage individuals to participate in lifelong learning in various ways with the support of a comprehensive learning system ... different types and levels of resources should be integrated and coordinated; higher education institutions, adult schools, and radio and television universities should cooperate to establish public resource platforms for lifelong learning. (Ministry of Education, 2004a, p. 8, lines 12-15)

In 2007, the *Outline of the Eleventh Five-Year Plan for National Educational Development* also states that

educational resource services and their application systems should be improved to promote the integration and sharing of learning resources for the whole society; open, flexible, and convenient platforms should be established for nation-wide learning and lifelong learning. (Ministry of Education, 2007a, p. 18, lines 22-24)

The latest general educational policy document, the *National Long-term Educational Reform and Development Plan (2010-2020)* (State Council of People's Republic of China & Ministry of Education, 2010, p. 16, lines 15-16, 21-22),

continues to stress that “[the education system] should establish ‘overpass’ for the connection and flowing of learning resources at different levels in order to facilitate lifelong learning and the development of a learning society in China ... and encourage Chinese people to adopt learning as lifelong activity.”

The latest policy documents issued for the OER reform, *Implementation Opinions about Constructing National Quality Open Courses* (Ministry of Education, 2011d) and *Enforcement Measurement of Constructing Quality Resource-Sharing Courses* (Ministry of Education, 2012a), both state that quality courses, especially the video quality courses and quality resource-sharing courses, should be constructed to contribute to the establishment of a learning society in China for Chinese people to participate in lifelong learning. The *Ideas on Implementing “Teaching Quality and Teaching Reform Project for Colleges and Universities” During the Twelfth Five-Year Plan* (Ministry of Education & Ministry of Finance, 2011, p. 3, lines 12-13) clearly requires that “a number of free and open online video courses and high-quality educational resources should be provided by higher education institutions to university students, academics, and all the learners in society for them to conduct lifelong learning.” Therefore, in the Chinese OER reform, a key part of the rationalities of governing the resource receivers is enabling and encouraging them to participate in learning as a lifelong activity and pursuit.

7.2.1.2 Technologies of developing lifelong learners

A number of technologies have been adopted in the OER reform to realise governmental rationalities. First of all, the weakening of the boundaries of school-based learning spaces in higher education is likely to increase the number of non-student learners and improve the quality of learning resources for them. As reviewed in Chapter Three, the expansion of higher education in China has enabled an increasing number of Chinese students to study in higher education institutions, and higher education in China is gradually developing from elite education to mass education. Moreover, there is a dramatic increase in the number of individuals attending informal schooling in higher education, such as professional postgraduate courses, classes run by non-state or private higher education institutions for self-directed learners, college-preparatory classes, and in-service training. Enrolment in these classes rose from 297,145 in 2000 (Ministry of Education, 2000) to 3,328,944 in 2010 (Ministry of Education, 2010). However, with the largest population in the

world, and given the recent nature of the rapid expansion and establishment of colleges and universities, higher education in China remains a privilege for the minority of Chinese people.

A popular comment about Chinese universities is that most of them, if not all, are ‘fenced’ and, thus, separated from the public. The OER reform demystifies universities as being prestigious places to the public and its impact goes beyond breaking down physical barriers, such as fences, that surround a campus.

By opening up course resources, especially the high-quality learning resources in universities, the reform not only reveals the essential activities that take place inside a campus, but also allows all types of learners outside of the campus to access and make use of these learning resources. Further, those learners mobilised by these resources are enabled to conduct learning without the restrictions of time or place. The identity of individuals at various ages and involved in a range of careers can access and use these resources via the Internet. It is argued and recognised that a necessary condition for lifelong learning is an education system that facilitates lifelong learning activities (Song, 2007). An education system should enhance the process of continuously developing human beings by expanding their knowledge and cultivating their abilities (UNESCO, 1996). Therefore, the Chinese OER reform that reshapes the learning spaces has the potential to promote the constitution of lifelong learners.

At DW University, the promotion and support of learning as a lifelong activity has been one of its major tasks. Various informal courses are provided to individuals from all walks of life. As well as routine weekend courses, evening courses, and holiday courses, DW University also cooperates with local enterprises and organisations to provide training sessions for their employees. Public lectures and seminars, especially in the fields of public health and law, are provided regularly to local people. According to Professor YSL, it is important for the university to support learners, both inside and outside of the institution, and it is expected that the quality courses, as open educational resources online, would be more effective in enabling and attracting individuals to participate in learning (Professor YSL, personal communication, 15 February, 2012).

7.2.2 Constituting autonomous learners

My analysis of OER policies found that Chinese authorities are keen to improve the nature of the teacher-student relationship and to encourage Chinese learners to be more autonomous in their learning. They have also employed a variety of technologies to develop Chinese learners' autonomy through the OER reform.

7.2.2.1 Rationalities of developing autonomous learners

Many definitions have been applied to the term 'learner autonomy'. The first definition of learner autonomy was adopted from Holec's (1981) seminar report for the Council of Europe's Modern Languages project, in which it was defined as "the ability to take charge of one's own learning" (p. 3). Later, innumerable definitions of autonomy and synonyms for it have been put forward, such as learners' independence (Sheerin, 1991) and learners' self-direction (Candy, 1991). According to Littlewood (1999), the various definitions of autonomy have something in common as the central feature, that is, that learners should take responsibility for their own learning. This is expanded to say that taking responsibility means that learners should partially or totally take ownership of the many processes that are traditionally conducted by a teacher, such as deciding on learning objectives, selecting learning methods and evaluating learning processes (Littlewood, 1999). From the perspective of education systems, learner autonomy is considered to be a situation in which learners are totally responsible for all of the decisions concerned with their learning and the implementation of those decisions (Dickinson, 1992), as well as "a recognition of the rights of learners within [an] education system" (Benson, 1997). Therefore, developing learners' autonomy cannot be separated from changing the understanding of the concept of knowledge.

In traditional Chinese culture, knowledge is largely considered to be associated with experience passed on from predecessors, as authorities, and there should be no doubt about its validity. Therefore, learning is largely understood and practised as being a process of passively receiving ideas from others. Consequently, teachers, as the instructors of knowledge, play an important role in the learning process and are recognised as authorities in traditional Chinese culture as well. In Confucian culture, teachers are considered to be individuals of foresight who can 'pass on principles, teach lessons, and resolve doubts' (*Chuan Dao, Shou Ye, Jie Huo*). Today, teachers

are still acknowledged as ‘engineers of the human soul’ (*Ren Lei Ling Hun De Gong Cheng Shi*) and teaching is considered to be ‘the most glorious job in the sunshine’ (*Yang Guang Xia Zui Mei Hao De Zhi Ye*) (Shi, 2004; You, 2002). However, such beliefs lead to an unbalanced relationship between teachers and learners.

Firstly, most learning activities in China are teacher-centred. Teachers tend to play the active role of passing on ideas and dominating the learning process. They not only decide the content of learning, but also the method for students to acquire knowledge. Some teaching activities in China are described as ‘spoon-feeding’ and ‘cramming’. As a result, the personalities and styles of teachers may determine the styles and effectiveness of teaching. On the other hand, students can be disadvantaged and dominated, as they often passively receive and accept the opinions of their teachers and, as a result, students’ interests, preferences, and capacities are sometimes ignored, or at least not given sufficient consideration (K. Qiu, 2006).

Secondly, the recognition of a teacher’s authority has also resulted in a relationship that constitutes a power imbalance between teachers, as superiors, and students, as inferiors. In traditional Chinese culture, students are required to respect their teachers in every aspect and challenging teachers is not allowed or supported. In the Chinese language, the word for teacher is *Lao Shi*; *Lao* means senior and *Shi* means a master, which demonstrates that teachers must be respected. Moreover, this kind of respect is articulated in the absoluteness of students’ obedience to teachers in the traditions of learning in China. Teachers are usually revered as authorities whose ideas are considered to be absolutely correct and truthful. Accordingly, students are required to totally depend on and believe in their teachers, without any suspicion or doubt (Jiao, 2011; L. L. Wei, 2005). As a result, teachers and students are classified in two opposing categories with an authority-dependent relationship and there are no grounds for teachers and students to exchange ideas and discuss problems on an equal and open basis. Gradually, Chinese learners’ subjectivity and rate of activity in learning are suppressed and their innovation is often discouraged.

However, such a teacher-learner relationship is no longer dominant in contemporary Chinese universities. Instead, some researchers advocate that a learner-centred, teacher-student relationship is the most effective learning context (Cornelius-White, 2007; Cornelius-White & Harbaugh, 2010; Weimer, 2002).

Teachers are advised to play the role of facilitator and they are encouraged to design learning protocols and resources according to their learners' needs and interests. This emphasis is considered necessary for the enhancement of learners' innovation, creativity, and activity in learning, which, in turn, are regarded to be essential for both national and individual development (N. D. Wang, 2011). Therefore, the traditional Chinese teacher-student relationship is in direct contrast to contemporary social movements in education.

In the *Outline of the Eleventh Five-Year Plan for National Education Development* (Ministry of Education, 2007a, p 18, line 21), it is stated that “[the education system] should encourage autonomous learning and promote the verification of learning approaches, learning models, and learning methods.” The *National Long-term Educational Reform and Development Plan (2010-2020)* (State Council of People's Republic of China & Ministry of Education, 2010, p 30, lines 2-5) further requires that the

use of applied information technologies should be increased; teaching concepts should be updated; teaching methods should be improved; and teaching effects should be enhanced. Students should be encouraged to use information approaches to conduct active and autonomous learning and improve the ability of analysing and solving problems with information technologies.

Moreover, the policy for implementing the National Quality Open Courseware programme suggests that quality courses should “enormously advocate and promote students to conduct active and autonomous learning” (Ministry of Education, 2003b, p. 1, line 16), whilst “providing necessary and sufficient materials for students to conduct autonomous learning effectively” (Ministry of Education, 2003a, p. 4, lines 10) is one of the key evaluation indicators in the auditing system of the NQOCW programme. The *2011 Implementation Opinions* (Ministry of Education, 2011d) states that the video quality courses and the quality resource-sharing courses are positioned as courses that “serve the autonomous learning of all the learners” (p. 1, line 9) and the learners “include both on-campus students and social learners [outside of the campus]” (p. 3, line 1). Therefore, developing learner autonomy becomes another key rationality in governing the resource receivers in the OER reform.

7.2.2.2 Technologies of developing autonomous learners

Scholars argue that autonomy is not a notion of ‘all-or-nothing’, instead, it can be developed by a matter of degrees (Dickinson, 1987) and the degree of autonomy “will be largely determined by the context in which the learning takes place” (Nunan, 1995, p. 134). Benson further proposes that the degree of autonomy could be identified at three levels; a technical level, a psychological level, and a political level (Benson, 1997). The technical level refers to the management, strategies, and techniques of learning; learner autonomy at the psychological level concerns the inner capacity for self-direction or self-regulation of learning; and the political level it is concerned with control over situational and social contexts of learning (Benson & Lor, 1998). These levels of autonomy are interdependent: “The psychological level of autonomy conditions the technical level and is in turn conditioned by constraints at the political level” (Benson & Lor, 1998, p. 9).

Through my examination of the policies for OER reform, I contend that the reform is implemented with the purpose of developing learner autonomy at all of the three levels and that a number of technologies are adopted by Chinese authorities to develop the resource receivers’ autonomy in learning through the reform. According to Brookfield, the control of resources is an important issue in the approach to developing learner autonomy: “Inauthentic, limited form of self-direction is evident when our efforts to develop ourselves as learners remain at the level of philosophical preferences because the resources needed for action are unavailable or denied to us” (Brookfield, 1993, p. 238). The Chinese OER reform, in the first place, makes action feasible through various resource provision activities. At the political level, open educational resources largely enhance the growth of various learning spaces that contribute to a social context in which self-directed learning is not only possible, but also encouraged. Resource receivers, both enrolled inside and outside of institutions, can access and learn the courses online, which, in turn, would develop their ability to direct and regulate themselves in their learning. At the same time, various digitalised resources available freely online facilitate autonomous learning activities. These resources include course descriptions, introductions to learning a course, learning strategies and methods, lecture scripts, video recordings of courses, and many other materials for learning the course. Therefore, the OER reform integrates various learning spaces in order to provide opportunities for resource receivers to motivate,

direct, and manage learning by themselves. This is, in fact, an aim of open educational resources worldwide (Mulder, 2007).

Nevertheless, I also found that the OER reform in China does much more than this. According to the policy documents of the National Quality Open Courseware programme (Ministry of Education, 2003b, 2011d, 2012a), it is required that all of the quality courses should be designed to promote students' autonomy in learning. This indicates that the courses themselves are instruments for enhancing learner autonomy. For instance, according to Professor YSL, the quality courses of DW University are designed to promote students' learning autonomy mainly from five perspectives; self-motivation, learning planning, information processing, cooperative learning, and self-supervision and evaluation (Professor YSL, personal communication, 15 February, 2012).

During my research at DW University, I found that a variety of strategies were implemented in the construction of quality courses to promote these five perspectives of learner autonomy. For example, 'Nomology' is one of the eight national-level, quality courses at DW University. It is a fundamental, theoretical course about the basic theory, general principle, concept and system of law. The teaching team for this course quoted several famous law cases and social events to illustrate the theoretical concepts when developing this programme as a quality course. According to the course introduction, its design involves a trial, which is different from the ways in which such courses are usually instructed. The publicised feedback for this course largely indicates that the new method has raised students' interest and motivation in learning the course (Teaching Team of Nomology, 2008).

Moreover, all of the quality courses at DW University have detailed outlines and teaching plans that clarify learning objectives and instructions. With these outlines and instructions, individual learners can make their own study plans and study the courses, fully or partially, according to their objectives and schedules. With the use of Internet technology, all of the quality courses offered by DW University are uploaded in standardised format and electronic directions for using the courses are provided on the website of the course centre. For some courses, instructions for the methodology of learning the courses are also provided. Some courses, on the other hand, provide online forums in which learners can discuss the processes and

methods of learning the course and exchange learning experiences, so as to improve the ability of cooperative learning.

Instructors of these courses can provide instructions for the learners through the online system as well. For example, Professor GWX's course website records the number of visits of each learner automatically and he can observe their discussions in the online forum of the course. Professor GWX noted that he checks the forum every day and provides prompt suggestions to the learners. He also reflected that some of the questions and feedback provided by the learners were helpful for him to further improve the course (Professor GWX, personal communication, 21 February, 2012). Learners are able to supervise and evaluate their learning processes and effectiveness by interacting with course instructors, participating in the relevant learning forum, sharing learning materials, and exchanging learning experiences with fellow learners. The course websites also provide electronic evaluation tables, timing software, and recording software to assist the learners with self-supervision and self-evaluation.

7.2.3 Constituting innovative learners

In the OER reform, Chinese authorities are also concerned with developing learners' innovation through various technologies. This is demonstrated in their directives and efforts to change both the methods and purposes of learning.

7.2.3.1 Rationalities of developing innovative learners

In traditional Chinese culture, learning was considered to be a process of acquiring knowledge that has three features (L. L. Wei, 2005). Firstly, it was generally assumed that knowledge is derived from the presupposed experiences of forerunners, instead of individual discoveries, and that individuals need to master knowledge that already exists, rather than try to discover new findings. Secondly, knowledge as experience, notably representations of this inscribed in textbooks, was accepted and not questioned. Thirdly, knowledge was associated with human morality. That is, the reliability and authority of a person's knowledge depended on his or her social position and standing in society. For example, Confucius was considered to be one of the greatest sages in China, therefore, his words were unquestioned and accepted to be authoritative, to the extent that just half of his wisdom in the *Analects* was considered to be sufficient for ruling a nation (*Ban Bu Lun Yu Zhi Tian Xia*) (China Institute for Confucian Studies, 1994).

Chinese learners have long been taught to believe that the answers to any question or problem could be found in the canonical textbooks written by the ancient sages, and innovative ideas should be restrained. Confucius suggests that learners need to *Shu Er Bu Zuo, Xin Er Hao Gu* (Confucius, 1979, p. 27), which means that learners should focus on passing on the ancient culture without creating and expounding upon the instructions and writings of predecessors, whilst not producing anything original themselves. Hence, for a considerable time in China's long history, learners were taught to believe that the teaching and knowledge passed on by their predecessors were authoritative. Learners were not encouraged, even forbidden, to doubt or challenge such accepted knowledge (Jiao, 2011; S. Li, 2006).

Such a traditional view of knowledge in Chinese culture is narrow and limited, and it ignores a learner's subjectivity in the development of knowledge (L. L. Wei, 2005). Although there is not a single and all-encompassing definition of knowledge that has been agreed upon, and theories of knowledge are numerous, contemporary, epistemological studies argue that knowledge should not be understood as being separate from the process of knowledge formation and knowledge acquisition (Audi, 2010; BonJour, 2009). For instance, constructivists hold that knowledge arises out of an individual's active construction of experiences and interactions with the world, as they strive to make sense of it (Piaget, 1970; Schuh, 2003). Foucault, on the other hand, considered knowledge to be a kind of discursive formation of discourses and that a discourse was a field of autonomy (Foucault, 1989). In contrast to the notion of knowledge in Chinese culture, contemporary epistemological studies develop a more comprehensive and open-ended view of knowledge and accept that knowledge can be dynamic, subjective, and non-deterministic, rather than being objective, static, and ultimate (Jean-Francois, 1984; J. Lu, 2011; Popkewitz & Brennan, 1998).

Whilst it must be noted that there was considerable value in the imperial Chinese, traditional view of learning, its focus on the transmission of accepted knowledge, and learners being passive recipients, continues to influence contemporary Chinese learners (N. D. Wang, 2011; L. L. Wei, 2005). In many universities, the content of learning is still more spiritual, theoretical, and research-focused than the present technical, practical, and operational methods (Shi, 2004; Su & Du, 2006). Learning activities are still mostly classroom-centred and textbook-based, and *Shang Da Xue* largely means listening to the lectures given by professors

in college classrooms. In the contemporary, higher education system, students attend various courses for seven semesters and undertake an internship during the last semester. It is pointed out by Chinese scholars that learning activities in higher education can cultivate experts in medicine, but not senior surgeons; experts in legal studies, but not judges and lawyers; researchers in engineering, but not engineers; experts in economics, but not senior managers for large companies and enterprises(Wei & Deng, 2010).

Innovation is a general concept referring to successfully applied ideas that are creative and have profound effects (Dodgson & Gann, 2010). In the OER reform, Chinese authorities place much emphasis on developing the innovative capacities of resource receivers. The *2003-2007 Action Plan for Invigorating Education*, the *Outline of the Eleventh Five-Year Plan for National Education Development*, and the *National Long-term Educational Reform and Development Plan (2010-2020)* repeatedly stress that the education system in China should “take efforts to cultivate hundreds of millions of labourers with high quality, tens of millions of special *rencai*, and a large number of innovative *rencai*” (Ministry of Education, 2004a, p. 1, line 12; 2007a, p. 6, line 6; State Council of People's Republic of China & Ministry of Education, 2010, p. 6, lines 21-22). These political discourses demonstrate an increased recognition of the emergence and importance of developing people's innovations, as China is “experiencing the key phase of reform and development, fully promoting economic, political, cultural, social, and ecological civilisation, developing industrialisation, informatisation, urbanisation, marketisation, internationalisation, and facing increased pressure from population, resources, and environment” (State Council of People's Republic of China & Ministry of Education, 2010, p. 5, lines 15-20).

Thereafter, the *2003 Announcement* clearly states that a principal aim of the NQOCW programme is to cultivate innovative talents. Quality courses are required to “handle the relationship between classical and modern content, the relationship between theories and practices, and emphasise cultivating students' practical ability and innovative ability through practical teaching” (Ministry of Education & Ministry of Finance, 2011, p. 4, lines 5-6). “Enhancing students' innovative ability” (Ministry of Education & Ministry of Finance, 2011, p. 3, line 4) and “enlightening students' innovative thoughts” (Ministry of Education & Ministry of Finance, 2011, p. 5, line 7)

are also key indicators in the auditing system for quality courses (Ministry of Education, 2003a). In addition, quality resource-sharing courses are required to be “suitable and helpful for learners’ self-study online” (Ministry of Education, 2012a, p. 4, lines 2-3). Therefore, developing learners’ innovation is the third perspective of rationality in governing the resource receivers in the OER reform.

7.2.3.2 Technologies of developing innovative learners

A number of detailed techniques are adopted in the OER reform to develop the resource receivers’ capacity for innovation, and OER programmes at DW University are good examples of utilising these techniques. Professor YSL noted that the quality courses at DW University were developed to enhance a learner’s innovation from five different perspectives. For example, quality courses are not odd courses separated from other courses. Instead, they are closely related to a range of courses in different fields. Most of the teaching teams for quality courses at DW University consist of teachers from different, yet relevant, academic backgrounds (Professor YSL, personal communication, 15 February, 2012). For example, Professor GWX’s quality course has a team of teachers, among whom Ms. JY has an academic background in Chinese history and culture studies, and Dr. FJ is an experienced researcher in Chinese-English translation. According to Professor GWX, it was expected that such a teaching team would enhance the connection and cooperation between different teaching and research fields. Accordingly, it is assumed to be more conducive to a student’s development of a broader and more comprehensive knowledge system, which is necessary for forming innovation thoughts.

Quality courses tend to promote learners’ practical applications of theoretical knowledge. Most of the quality course instructors at DW University, especially those in the field of natural sciences, have established cooperative relations with some enterprises, and these cooperative relationships have produced opportunities for students to learn from practice. For example, the teaching team of the course *Textile Finishing Technology* established links with two local textile companies and they co-developed three patents in this field. Students enrolled in this course are invited to visit and practice in these companies. The teaching team also operates the provincial *Silk Technology Service Platform*, which provides technological assistance to silk textile companies. A requirement of the students enrolled in *Textile Finishing Technology* is that they should participate in the services of this platform. The course

is designed with the expectation that learners' innovations would be stimulated when they face practical problems to solve by applying and integrating their theoretical knowledge (Teaching Team of Textile Finishing Technology, 2010).

Another perspective is that the quality courses at DW University tend to enhance the establishment of research platforms for learners. According to Professor YSL, the teaching teams of quality courses at DW University are composed of academics with different backgrounds and experiences and they are very innovative. They integrate their research experiences into their course teaching, so as to cultivate students' interest in research and enhance students' innovation during the process of teaching. Moreover, most of the natural sciences quality courses require students to observe or participate in experiments in laboratories, which are expected to enhance learners' interest in exploring knowledge (Professor YSL, personal communication, 15 February, 2012).

Multi-media technologies are widely used in producing quality courses. Different to traditional blackboard-based classroom teaching, the instruction of quality courses at DW University is carried out mostly on computers. For instance, Professor SYN's quality course consists of four different levels and each level has 144 sessions, which should be learned within 36 weeks each academic year. Professor SYN and her team together created 590 Microsoft PowerPoint presentations, including over 300 video and audio excerpts, as well as thousands of images. Professor SYN informed me that it took the whole team almost two years to find and select the materials, however, she and her team considered it worthwhile and rewarding. They found that these materials and the use of the multi-media technologies can make their courses more effective, interesting, and enlightening for the learners (Professor SYN, personal communication, 19 February, 2012).

The most advanced technology applied in the production of quality courses at DW University is virtual reality pedagogy. Virtual reality (VR) technology refers to computer-produced environments that simulate physical presence in places in the real and imaginary worlds, and virtual reality pedagogy indicates the use of VR technology in education. In Professor QZM's course (an institutional-level quality course), VR technology is used to simulate cities with different economic, geographical, and social conditions and students are required to manage these virtual cities by using a virtual management system. According to Professor QZM, this

game-like learning system is popular among learners, as they show considerable interest and excitement in learning the course. The high popularity, interest in, and acceptability of the course also enhance the effectiveness of the course and students' innovative thoughts (Professor QZM, personal communication, 24 February, 2012).

Finally, in addition to producing quality courses by themselves, academics at DW University also encourage students to study quality courses produced by other higher education institutions from the National Quality Courseware website, as well as international open courses from universities such as the Massachusetts Institute of Technology and Harvard University. Students are invited to participate in designing courses and providing suggestions to the course designers and instructors. According to Professor YSL, it is important for the students to broaden their vision and cultivate an active attitude towards learning, so that they can become more innovative and creative (Professor YSL, personal communication, 15 February, 2012).

In summary, the key learning space for learners involved in higher education in China is school-based space. Within this space, the legacy of traditional Chinese culture and its education system meant that, until recently, Chinese learners developed, by themselves, a view that knowledge is objective, static, and ultimate, and they could achieve knowledge in a teacher-centred learning process throughout which they should follow and respect their teachers without any doubts. At the same time, with the subjectivity of *Da Xue Sheng*, learners in China tend to be expected, by both themselves and society, to have a promising future, characterised by the achievement of high social status. Yet these aspirations are often fraught by reality. A possible explanation, recognised by authorities, is that the Chinese traditions of learning could no longer equip students for the challenges of contemporary society. The view of knowledge, learning activities, and the teacher-student relationship advocated by traditional Chinese culture is contradictory to those proposed in some widely accepted modern theories about learning. These contradictions contribute to the rationalities about governing Chinese learners in the OER reform in China.

In order to realise these rationalities, Chinese authorities have adopted a number of technologies to govern resource receivers. The OER reform has reduced the boundaries between school learning spaces and other learning spaces. School-based educational resources are now made available to the public via the Internet, which, in turn, is the source of the daily life learning space, workplace learning space,

and interest-based learning space. Opening up educational resources in the school-based learning space and enlarging the net-based learning space can enhance the growth of the daily life learning space, the workplace learning space, and the interest-based learning space. These changes to the learning spaces bring about a range of changes to the relations embedded in these spaces and, consequently, the potential constitution of resource receivers to be lifelong, autonomous, and innovative learners.

It should be noted that, with the recognition and advocacy of organisations such as UNESCO and OECD, as well as some national government departments, the concepts of lifelong learning, learner autonomy, and learner innovation have actually become indicators and guidelines for educational development worldwide, especially in Western contexts. Their appearance in Chinese educational policy documents indicates that Chinese authorities are probably aligning their governance of education with international goals for the development of education. However, the emergence of these political discourses by no means implies that the context of learning in China is the same as that in the West, neither does it indicate that the Chinese authorities' rational deliberations about learners' development are identical to a Western scholastic interpretation of these terms. Instead, as noted, the constitution of learners in China is unique, due to its traditional culture, history of education, and as a result of the reforms of political systems. The constitution of such learners is also due to the nation's specific social, cultural, and political circumstances. The specific conditions of the Chinese context contribute to the rationalities underpinning the governing of Chinese learners. The governmental rationalities and technologies involved in the governing of resource receivers are summarised in Table 7.1.

Table 7.1 Rationalities and technologies of governing resource receivers in the OER reform

Governmental rationalities		Governmental technologies	
Constituting lifelong learners	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Learning is not advocated as a lifelong activity in traditional Chinese culture. • It is important for Chinese people to participate in lifelong learning in the contemporary era. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Weakens the boundaries of school-based learning spaces. • Enables learners to conduct learning without restrictions of time, place, or identity. 	<p>The learning spaces in the higher education sector are reshaped by integrating school-based and work-based learning spaces, integrating the school-based and interest-based learning spaces, and expanding net-based learning space.</p>
Constituting autonomous learners	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In traditional Chinese culture, learning is largely understood and practised as a process of passively receiving ideas from others and the relationship between teachers and students is not balanced. • Autonomous learning can improve learners' creativity and innovation, which are essential to the nation's future development in the contemporary era. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provides course resources for autonomous learning. • Promotes and encourages autonomous learning by expanding the learning spaces. • Provides technical support for autonomous learning. 	
Constituting innovative learners	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Knowledge is considered to be objective, static, and ultimate in traditional Chinese culture, which affects the effect and process of learning. • Knowledge should be viewed as dynamic, subjective, and non-deterministic, so as to develop learners' innovation, which is essential in the contemporary era. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Develops resources that integrate multi-disciplinary knowledge. • Promotes learners' practical application of theoretical knowledge. • Establishes research platforms for learners. • Uses multi-media technologies to produce quality courses. • Encourages students to learn from all kinds of open resources. 	

As has been argued, open educational resources may not definitively enhance the constitution of lifelong, autonomous, and innovative learners in China, because, for the learners, the desire to learn also emerges in the frame of specific cultural, economic, political, and social circumstances (Kipnis, 2011). Reforms to the education system cannot fully determine learners' educational desires. In contemporary society, learning desire is affected by a variety of social circumstances and conditions. The following section examines governing the educational desire of resource receivers in the OER reform.

7.3 Governing the Educational Desire of Chinese Learners: From *Da Xue Sheng* to *Rencai*

Foucault (2000a, p. 184) once stated, "Tell me your desires, I'll tell who you are." One's desire not only informs who one is, but also forms part of the regime of government (Dean, 1999). A regime of government is largely a form of constituting subjectivity or, in Foucault's (2000a, p. 264) words, "the way in which people are invited or incited to recognise their moral obligations." When different attractions emerge, individuals may voluntarily commit to different obligations. That is, desire can be considered to be a process, and the governing of desire process is divided into two components—obligations, as the *object of desire*, and incentives, as the *will to desire* (Cheung, 2004). This section discusses the object of desire and the will to desire of Chinese learners that are shaped during the OER reform. The power relations exercised in such indirect governance have typical, neoliberal characteristics.

For many Chinese learners, the outcome of learning, such as becoming a *Da Xue Sheng*, is a key motivation for learning, because it brings about a 'bright future', such as superiority, privilege, and potential achievement of high social positions and wealth (S. Li, 2006). This can be conceptualised as being the object of desire for many Chinese learners. Li's study (2011) of Chinese college students' motivations for learning reveals that the majority of contemporary students also consider achieving high social status to be an important reason for them to pursue higher education, and they assume that their learning in higher education will ensure that they achieve a higher social status than others (MYCOS Institute, 2011). Therefore, the desire to learn forms the will to desire of Chinese learners, which can be

considered to be a psychological condition that motivates them to devote themselves to learning in order to achieve their object of desire.

However, the expectations of Chinese learners are constantly jeopardised by the reality in contemporary China. That is, an object of desire, such as achieving wealth and high social status, cannot be achieved through learning being their will to desire. Such conflict is addressed in the OER reform by reconstituting the object of desire and the will to desire. As discussed in Chapter Two, there are two forms of governing, namely, governing others and governing the self. As there is little direct intervention with resource receivers, the manipulation of their educational desires can only be achieved through their self-governance. According to Foucault (1990), the government can use a range of tactics or techniques to motivate individuals to desire socially constructed needs and such tactics may vary in different contexts. The governmental rationalities and technologies discussed above indicate three perspectives of governing the resource receivers' objects of desire and will to desire.

At the level of shaping the object of desire, the policies for the OER reform in China state that *rencai*, as specialised and talented human resources, is needed by all social sectors and is highly valued in the contemporary era. *Rencai* can contribute to the development of the nation, as well as realise self-fulfilment. Therefore, Chinese people, especially learners, should do their best to become *rencai*. That is, the object of desire should be becoming *rencai* instead of *Da Xue Sheng*, so as to be valued and achieve high social status or wealth in the contemporary era.

Chinese authorities further propose that, to achieve such object of desire of becoming *rencai*, the traditional thoughts and practices of learners having the will to desire are no longer effective. The policies and political discourses have addressed the insufficiency or deficit of some learning practices, such as the lack of proper attitudes toward learning and the skills for learning. At the same time, new forms of will to desire are proposed, which are lifelong, autonomous, and innovative learning. It is proposed that such learning practices can contribute to the object of desire of becoming *rencai*.

Furthermore, in their efforts to manipulate the desires of resource receivers, Chinese authorities have shaped and reshaped learning spaces through the OER reform, so as to encourage and facilitate resource receivers to become lifelong,

autonomous, and innovative learners. The OER reform enables various types of learners to conduct lifelong, autonomous, and innovative learning as a form of the will to desire, which is supposed to be able to realise the object of desire.

Such constitution and manipulation of Chinese people's educational desires are embedded in the overall strategies of reform and development. As discussed in the previous chapters, since the 1980s, Chinese authorities have placed an increased emphasis on education being a fundamental and essential strategy for the development of the nation. At the individual level, education used to be promoted as the path to achieve high social and economic status in both traditional Chinese culture and the development of the education system. However, the reality of education in China today is often contradictory to the expectations, which causes potential damage to Chinese people's educational desires. Given that education is recognised as essential for capacity building the nation, Chinese authorities are conscious of the need to moderate and reshape the educational desires of people. At the level of higher education, the authorities are concerned with strengthening Chinese people's desires for education. By redirecting the object of desire from *Da Xue Sheng* to *rencai*, Chinese people, as resource receivers in the OER reform, are encouraged to shape their own will to desire by becoming lifelong, autonomous and innovative learners in order to achieve a bright future.

7.4 Chapter Conclusion

This chapter discussed the governing of resource receivers in Chinese OER reform. By using the conceptual tool of space, I found that learning spaces are shaped or reshaped by the authorities through the OER reform. Such spaces incorporate Chinese authorities' rationalities underpinning the governing of Chinese learners, as well as the corresponding governmental technologies. These governing rationalities and technologies are characterised by three themes, namely, constituting lifelong learners, constituting autonomous learners, and constituting innovative learners. Moreover, the governmental rationalities and technologies are incorporated into the governing of Chinese people's educational desires.

As discussed at the beginning of this chapter, governing the resource receivers is part of the reform and development embedded in the OER movement. Therefore,

the governing of resource receivers is closely related to the governing of resource administrators and resource providers in the OER reform.

The next chapter discusses the relations between the governing of resource administrators, providers, and receivers to summarise the overall governmentality of reform. To conclude the research, Chapter Eight also elaborates on the limitations of this study and provides some suggestions for future study

CHAPTER EIGHT: CONCLUSION

Chapter Eight concludes this thesis. In this chapter, I first revisit the problem investigated in this study and restate the research questions. Then, I provide a summary of the theoretical and methodological perspectives employed in this study, as well as a summary of the findings and their implications. This is followed by an acknowledgement of the study's limitations, together with its implications. I conclude this chapter, and this thesis, with some reflections on the study's significance for the practice of critique.

8.1 Open Educational Resources in China: An Educational Reform

Chapter One established that the movement of open educational resources (OER) has been developing rapidly worldwide, and Mainland China is an active participant in this movement through the implementation of its own OER programmes. The policy push to implement OER programmes in China, from 2003, continues to prompt significant change to its higher education sector. This study was designed with the aim of investigating and analysing the significant nature of those changes brought about by the reform as a realm of government in contemporary China. Accordingly, the principal research question for this study is: How is China's OER policy reform process governed and in what ways has the practice of governing changed the conduct of higher education in this country? As the existing research demonstrates that the Chinese OER movement involves three key participant groups—resource administrators, resource providers, and resource receivers, and the reform has been largely enacted through educational policies, the principal research question was broken down into three specific research questions. These are: How do the policies concerning the OER reform in China direct and manage the resource administrators and their administrative activities? How do the policies concerning the OER reform in China regulate and motivate resource providers and their provision activities? How do the policies concerning the OER reform in China constitute and shape the resource receivers and their learning activities? These research questions were answered by conducting a qualitative study that adopts a poststructuralist approach centred on the conceptual tool of governmentality.

8.2 Analytical Framework of Governmentality

As set out in Chapter Two, the analytical framework of governmentality adopted in the current study was composed of some key theoretical perspectives. Based on the conceptualisations of government and governmentality (Dean, 1999; Dean & Hindess, 1998; Foucault, 1997; Rose et al., 2006), the OER reform in China was conceptualised as being a form of governing the education sector. The analysis of this reform aimed to investigate the agents of governing, the targets to be governed, and the thoughts and practices embedded in this form of governance. The stages for such an analysis included problematising the regimes of the OER policy reform practices, examining the conditions for their emergence, and investigating the logic of the practices' regimes (Dean, 1999).

Furthermore, a governmentality framework provided detailed conceptual tools to conduct this examination. One conceptual tool was provided by Miller and Rose (2008), who argued that a governmentality analysis could be conducted by exploring governmental rationalities and governmental technologies. Miller and Rose (2008) contended that rationalities of government are ways of thinking about a particular social phenomenon, and that technologies of government are ways of operating on the conduct of individuals by employing certain techniques, mechanisms, and strategies in order to transform that conduct for the purpose of governing. Governing practices are underpinned by governmental rationalities and implemented through governmental technologies. Moreover, according to Miller and Rose (2008), the rationalities and technologies are incorporated into governmental programmes that, in turn, exercise power relations. In order to examine such exercise of power relations, the governmentality framework employed in this study also incorporated the conceptual tools of subject and space.

As informed by the governmentality framework, Chapter Three provided a literature review that outlined the historical, contemporary, and global perspectives that contextualised China's OER reform. Chapter Three also reviewed the programmes that composed the OER reform in China, as well as existing literature that demonstrates the gap to which the current study could contribute. Based on Miller and Rose's (2008) argument that a governmentality analysis should be focused on governmental programmes and Ball's (2011b) and Rizvi and Lingard's (2010) contentions that governmental programmes should be investigated by

analysing the policy processes that drove them, Chapter Four outlined a methodological framework of policy analysis to further position the governmentality framework for investigating the Chinese OER reform. Hence, this qualitative study was conducted within this overarching framework of governmentality. The participants involved in the Chinese OER reform were identified, the governing of the participants at different levels was examined, and the exercise of power relations involved in the reform was explored.

8.3 Application of Governmentality in this Study

In meta-theoretical terms, three conceptual perspectives were informed to support the study's application of the analytical framework. Taking a poststructuralist stance, I did not limit my study to a particular standpoint which assumed objective 'truths', nor did I adopt a hypothesis to guide the study. In this study, power was seen to take the form of relations and the power relations were recognised as being exercised from many sites. According to Foucault (1982), such exercise of power relations is a significant characteristic of social relations. In addition, subjects, whether collective or individual, were considered to be constituted through power relations exercised by both others and the self. These three perspectives served as the principles in designing and applying the analytical framework of governmentality in this thesis, and this study demonstrated that they were manifested in the detailed governmentality analysis of the OER reform in China in the following three ways.

Firstly, although most governmentality studies concerning the Chinese context either argue that authoritarian power dominated the government of China or contend that the contemporary Chinese government is undergoing a process of neoliberalisation, I took neither of these stances to inform my study. Instead, my study was centred on the openness of the governmentality framework as a poststructuralist approach. Similarly, prior to commencing my analysis, I did not presuppose that the OER reform would be a result of any particular social phenomenon, such as globalisation. Following Dean (1999), I examined the different sites that contextualised and problematised the OER reform. Moreover, as the perspective of the openness of a governmentality framework enabled me to examine the implementation of the policy prescriptions and processes from which power was exercised, I investigated the different power relations that were exercised at different

levels of China's higher education sector. In this way, I explored the different power relations that were exercised to initiate, process, implement, and modify the OER reform in China. Thirdly, as informed by the governmentality framework, subjectivities are constituted through the power relations and individuals or groups can exercise such power relations on others or on themselves. In this context, this study aimed to disclose the various forms of governance in the OER reform. The different, yet interrelated, policy processes that drove the diverse forms of governing were detailed in Chapters Five, Six, and Seven to reveal the nature of this reform in China's higher education sector. The following section summarises the key findings of this study.

8.4 Rationalities and Technologies: Governing Participants

The OER reform in China is largely centred on the programme of National Quality Open Courseware (NQOCW). This programme was initiated and developed by the Ministry of Education and it has mobilised educational departments at a provincial level and state-owned, higher education institutions, as well as a large number of academics and learners. The programme is also supported and supplemented by the radio and television system and the organisation of China Open Resources for Education (CORE). Together, these programmes involve various detailed activities that brought about extensive educational reform in China. The findings from the analysis of this reform were presented at three levels.

Chapter Five focused on governing the resource administrators in the Chinese OER reform. The Ministry of Education and administrative departments at provincial and institutional levels were identified as being the resource administrators. The governmental rationalities for governing resource administrators included the fact that Chinese central leaders place much significance on the development of education, and that the resource administrators are responsible for driving the educational reforms accordingly. This study identified that two key governing technologies were adopted in this reform for directing and managing resource administrators. With the dual leadership of the Chinese government and the CCP, the resource administrators are managed by direct interventions through a top-down process. At the same time, both professional, educational evaluation systems and the CCP's internal evaluation systems were adopted to facilitate such top-down and direct governance. The rationalities and technologies together indicate a form of

centralised governance in the Chinese educational context, which is characterised by decentralisation in the contemporary era. Most of the power relations exercised in such governance have authoritarian characteristics. In this way, the resource administrators were constituted and are manipulated as obedient subjects to follow and implement the OER policies actively.

Chapter Six focused on governing the resource providers. This chapter indicated that higher education institutions and academics are mobilised as resource providers in the reform to produce and share high-quality educational resources. The governmental rationalities embedded in the governing of resource providers are aimed at improving both higher education quality and equity. The governmental technologies adopted by Chinese authorities included mechanisms and strategies that regulate and motivate the resource providers to develop and share high-quality educational resources. The technologies include direct interventions, as well as indirect forms of management, such as auditing, funding, and rewarding. These governing technologies integrate both centralised and decentralised forms of governing and the power relations exercised in such governing have authoritarian, as well as neoliberal, characteristics. Through the exercise of such power relations, the resource providers are regulated to follow the authorities' requirements of implementing the reform and also motivated to govern themselves and participate in the reform to produce and share high quality educational resources autonomously. In this way, both obedient and enterprising subjectivities of the resource providers are constituted in the OER reform.

Chapter Seven focused on the governing of the resource receivers. The resource receivers include both college students, and learners not enrolled in higher education institutions. By employing the conceptual tool of space, I identified that the OER reform shaped many learning spaces in China's higher education sector and that the shaping of higher education learning spaces is a way of governing different types of learners, as resource receivers, in the OER reform. The rationalities and technologies incorporated in this form of governing are categorised into three themes, namely, constituting lifelong learners, constituting autonomous learners, and constituting innovative learners. Moreover, these themes were evidenced in the governing of the resource receivers' educational desires. It is through moderation and manipulation of educational desires that Chinese authorities aim to shape resource

receivers to govern themselves and become lifelong, autonomous, and innovative learners. The rationalities and technologies incorporated in the governing of resource administrators, resource providers, and resource receivers are summarised in Table 8.1. These findings about the governmental rationalities, technologies, and constitution of subjects together characterise the overall governmentality in the OER reform in China. The following section discusses the interrelationship between these governmental rationalities and technologies by addressing the implications derived from this study.

Table 8.1 Summary of governmental rationalities and technologies in the reform of open educational resources in China

Object of government	Rationalities of government	Technologies of government	Constitution of subjects
Resource administrators	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Chinese authorities regard the development of higher education as significant for the overall development of the nation. The educational administrative departments at different levels, as resource administrators, are responsible for driving such capacity building by playing their role of administering the construction, opening, and sharing of educational resources. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> With the dual leadership of the government and the CCP, the resource administrators and their activities are managed by direct interventions through a top-down process. Professional, educational assessment systems and the CCP's internal assessment systems are adopted to facilitate direct management. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Resource administrators are constituted and manipulated as docile and obedient subjects, who implement policies and the authorities' directives actively.
Resource providers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Higher education institutions and their academics, as resource providers, are responsible for developing higher education quality by improving pedagogical quality, priority of teaching, and institutional disciplinary structure. The resource providers are responsible for improving higher educational equity by improving the distribution of teacher resources and the distribution of course resources. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Mobilise and direct the resource providers to develop high-quality educational resources by improving the quality of teacher resources and encouraging them to develop high quality curriculum resources. Direct the resource providers to share high-quality educational resources through digitalising the resources and sharing the resources on digital platforms. Audit open educational resources. Fund and reward resource providers. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Resource providers are constituted and manipulated obedient subjects, who implement the OER policies by producing and sharing high quality educational resources. Resource providers are also constituted as enterprising subjects, who do their best in resource provision activities.
Resource receivers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Constituting resource receivers to become lifelong, autonomous, and innovative learners. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Integrate school-based and work-based learning spaces, integrate school-based and interest-based learning spaces, and expand Internet-based learning space. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Lifelong, autonomous, and innovative learning subjectivities are constituted through enhancing, modifying, and manipulating the educational desires of learners, as resource receivers.

8.5 Implications of the Research

The findings about the rationalities and technologies presented in Table 8.1 constitute significant and original contributions to the research into the reform of open educational resources in China. The rationalities and technologies are interrelated and, together, they bring about three significant implications achieved in this study.

Firstly, the analysis in this study demonstrates and implies that the governing of the OER reform in China has unique characteristics. The reform has been governed in a top-down process that involves different forms of governance at each level and different types of power relations are exercised in such governing. The policy-making process and the policy-implementation process for the OER reform together demonstrate a top-down governing process. China's OER reform was initiated by Chinese authorities to further reform and develop the higher education sector, so as to enhance the nation's overall development and the policies for the reform were implemented from the central to the local levels. However, in such a top-down process, the governing of each level has different features. Centralised governance is exerted over the resource administrators through direct interventions and the power relations exercised in such governance have dominantly authoritarian characteristics. The governing of resource providers integrates both direct and indirect forms of governing through which authoritarian and neoliberal power relations are exercised together. The resource receivers are governed through managing and manipulating their educational desires, which is indirect and involves neoliberal forms of power relations. As a result, the participants in OER reform are constituted as different types of subjects. The different forms of governance and power relations together imply that governmentality in the Chinese OER reform cannot be simply categorised as authoritarian or neoliberalisation. The governing of the OER reform in China is comprehensive and unique.

The second implication that has arisen from this study lies in the findings about the relationship between the OER reform and its context. As discussed in Chapter Two, the governing of the education sector forms the context for the OER reform. The present study indicates that the reform was implemented by Chinese authorities as a response to the opportunities and challenges for further development of the

higher education sector. With more high-quality educational resources produced and shared freely on the Internet, the quality and equity of higher education in China can be largely improved. Through the reform, the provision of higher education is further diversified and more non-student learners may use these resources for learning. The quality courses at different levels are produced under detailed requirements, which may contribute to the curriculum and pedagogical reform. At the same time, the OER reform is implemented with the wide use of information technologies, therefore, the OER programmes and information technologies are mutually dependant and mutually enhancing. Moreover, the OER reform can be viewed as a solution to some detailed problems. For example, the OER reform in China aims to encourage learners to be more autonomous in learning and learner-centred strategies, and practices are highly advocated. This differs from the Confucian tradition of learning, in which students are subservient to and reliant on their teachers.

The third implication of this study is that the unique features of the Chinese OER reform makes it different to the global OER movement. The OER movement in China relies largely on the government for its operation. The Ministry of Education not only initiated the policy reform programmes, but also directed the development of the reform and its implementation at different stages, and participated broadly in the operation of the programmes through policy processes. It initiated a large-scaled programme that has produced over 1,000,000 quality courses as open educational resources, and has exerted detailed requirements over almost all aspects of the programme, ranging from course production to course sharing and further development. With the guidance of the Ministry of Education, the OER movement in China has involved the largest number of educational departments at different levels and higher education institutions in the world. China's OER reform can be considered to be one of the Chinese authorities' responses to the opportunities and challenges for the further development of China's higher education sector. The reform is significant in its scope, scale, and impact.

8.6 Limitations of this Study and Suggestions for Further Research

There are three limitations to the present research. The first limitation concerns the scope of data collection. The OER movement has been developing rapidly in China. The reform involves a large number of educational departments, higher education institutions, academics, and learners. The detailed operation of the OER

programmes may vary in different provinces and institutions. This presents considerable challenges for a thorough examination of the reform. In this study, I included in the scope of the analysis all of the policy documents that are directly or indirectly concerned with the reform. Moreover, I conducted interview research at a university that has operated open educational resource programmes for a number of years, and the interviewees who participated in the study ranged from administrative staff to teachers at different levels. In this way, I was able to investigate both the macro operational model and the specific activities at one site of the OER programmes in China. However, this study is still limited in that the data from a particular university may not necessarily be representative of other universities.

The second limitation of this study lies in the nature of the data collected. Gillies (2008) argues that government authorities apply particular political discourses in official reports in order to put forward their political views and to win public support. The data collected for this study were mainly composed of official documents issued by the State Council and the Ministry of Education as the central government. As a result, most of the information provided in these documents is positive, which hinders a more nuanced examination of the policy processes. Moreover, although I informed the participants of the semi-structured interviews that their privacy would be protected and I encouraged them to provide as much information as possible, the interviewees had particular positions and backgrounds, so their opinions may not be representative of all of the resource providers in this reform. Therefore, I adopted a poststructuralist stance when analysing the policy documents and interview data, and offered a critique through the use of the governmentality framework.

The third limitation of this thesis is that it is conducted within a Chinese context. The findings and implications are unique to the Chinese OER movement and may not apply to the OER movement in other countries.

The limitations discussed above also prompt some suggestions for further studies. Firstly, the OER reform in China is extensive and developing rapidly. I focused on one university to investigate the implementation of the reform. Other universities may have interpreted and carried out the policies in different ways and their academics may have different thoughts about the reform. A larger-scaled study

may help to elicit more tensions involved in the implementation of the reform, so as to offer more critiques about the Chinese government.

Moreover, I suggest that the investigation of resource receivers would be an important source for evaluation of the OER movement in China. As I have discussed in Chapter Seven, constituting the resource receivers to be lifelong, autonomous, and innovative learners is a key rationale that underpins the reform. An investigation of the feedback from resource receivers, or tracking their participation in the reform, would contribute to an assessment of the reform. Similarly, an examination of resource receivers would also contribute an investigation into the practice of the self within a governmentality framework.

In addition, the reform of open educational resources is just one of the educational reforms taking place in China today. I suggest that more studies should be conducted to investigate China's education sector through poststructuralist approaches, because such a stance could offer different perspectives to understanding the reforms, and hence, the Chinese government and Chinese society.

8.7 Concluding Remarks: The Practice of Critique

This thesis is both an exercise in a particular form of critique, as well as a starting point from which further critical analysis can be conducted. In this study, I suggest that the forms of critique that develop from a governmentality framework are not limited to positive or negative judgements about social phenomena or governance. Such an implication is in line with the critique offered by a governmentality analysis as a poststructuralist approach. Critique does not have to conclude with a prescription for action, but instead, it should be, in Foucault's (1991b, p. 78) words, "an instrument for those who fight, those who resist and refuse what is ... It is a challenge directed to what is." Dean (1994) interprets Foucault's notion of critique as an intention to allow individuals to remove themselves from various relations of governance and to interrogate the assumptions upon which the present rests, and makes what is taken-for-granted disturbing and uncomfortable. To this end, Foucault defines critique as "the art of not being governed, or, better still, the art of not being governed like that, and at that cost" (Foucault, 1978, p. 29).

In meta-theoretical terms, the form of critique presented in this thesis deconstructs and makes transparent those power relations exercised through China's

OER policy reform and implementation process. In doing so, it provides insights and opportunities for reflection on the ways in which policy receivers conduct themselves within this particular field of governance, as they responded to and were shaped by the flows of power. The study suggests that the participants in this particular reform to China's higher education sector could be cognisant of how they conducted themselves in responding to the policy process and were constituted by their participation. In making transparent such conduct of conduct, the study's critique aims to create spaces for policy receivers to reflect on their positions as social subjects. As Foucault (1991b) reminds us, reflection is a process through which individuals step away from their actions and conduct, reflect on the actions and the conditions that have caused them to act in a certain manner, and reconsider the effects of such action.

By demonstrating the ways in which China's OER policy reform process was governed, and how its implementation changed the conduct of the participants in the reform, this study contributes to the literature on current higher education reform in China by offering unique insights into contemporary policy-making and the nature of governmentality in this nation. My lens foregrounds how the global phenomena of the movement to open access resourcing in higher education have been reshaped in Mainland China with Chinese characteristics. This approach could have significance for the analysis of other education reforms in Mainland China.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

The consent form (English version)

	CONSENT FORM FOR QUT RESEARCH PROJECT – Interview –
Open Educational Resources in China: A Governmentality Analysis QUT Ethics Approval Number 1100001095	

RESEARCH TEAM CONTACTS

Juming Shen – PhD student	A/Prof. Cushla Kapitzke – Principal Supervisor
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STATEMENT OF CONSENT

By signing below, you are indicating that you:


- have read and understood the information document regarding this project
- have had any questions answered to your satisfaction
- understand that if you have any additional questions you can contact the research team
- understand that you are free to withdraw at any time, without comment or penalty
- understand that you can contact the Research Ethics Unit on +61 7 3138 5123 or email ethicscontact@qut.edu.au if you have concerns about the ethical conduct of the project
- understand that the project will include audio recording
- agree to participate in the project

Name

Signature

Date

The consent form (Chinese version)

	昆士兰科技大学研究项目同意书 (访谈)
治理术视角下的中国开放教育资源研究	

研究小组联系方式

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同意声明

同意签署以下协议:

- 您已阅读并了解了本研究项目的相关信息。
- 您提出的问题都得到了满意的答复。
- 您了解如果您有其他问题, 可以联系研究小组。
- 您了解您可以自由决定参与或退出研究, 并且不会受到任何形式的职责或处罚。
- 您了解如果您对此研究的伦理道德问题有任何疑问, 可以致电昆士兰科技大学研究伦理主任 61 7 3138 5123 或发邮件至 ethicscontact@qut.edu.au。
- 您同意并授权访谈过程中录音。
- 您同意参加此项目

姓名

签名

日期

Appendix B

The information sheet (English version)

	PARTICIPANT INFORMATION FOR QUT RESEARCH PROJECT – Interview –
Open Educational Resources in China: A Governmentality Analysis QUT Ethics Approval Number 1100001095	

RESEARCH TEAM

Principal Researcher:	Juming Shen, PhD student, QUT
Associate Researchers:	A/Prof Cushla Kapitzke, Associate Professor, QUT Dr Deborah Henderson, Senior Lecturer, QUT Dr Weihong Zhang, Senior Officer, Department of Education and Training, Queensland Government

DESCRIPTION

This project is being undertaken as part of a PhD project for Juming Shen.

The purpose of this project is to examine the open educational resources (OER) in China. The research adopts a governmentality framework to investigate three national OER programs in China and the institutional OER programs at DW University. The research aims at finding out the rationalities and technologies of the OER movement as a form of government, as well as the spaces provided and the subjects to be constituted through the programs. In this way, the study will explore the changes to be brought to the thoughts and practices of learning in China and the learners to be constituted.

You are invited to participate in this project because you are involved in the programs of open educational resources at DW University. Your opinions on these programs are important in data collection of this study. This information sheet describes the project. Please read it carefully before deciding whether to participate or not.

PARTICIPATION

Your participation in this project is entirely voluntary. If you do agree to participate, you can withdraw from the project without comment or penalty. If you withdraw, any identifiable information already obtained from you will be destroyed on request. If you participate, although your identities will be known to the researcher in the interviews, they will be protected by using pseudonyms on the transcripts and in reports. The pseudonyms will be used throughout data analysis as well as in the presentation of results. Your names will not be disclosed and will only be known and available to the researcher. Therefore, your decision to participate, or not participate, will in no way impact upon your current or future relationships with QUT and DW University.

Your participation will involve a semi-structured interview at DW University or other agreed location that will take approximately 60 minutes of your time. Questions will include:

1. What is your position at DW University? How long have you been doing this job? What are your previous experiences?

2. What is your responsibility in open educational resources programs at DW University?
3. What are the contents of the programs that you are doing? How many components are there in the programs? What are they?
4. Do you know any open educational resources programs in other universities? What are the similarities or differences between the programs at DW University and in other universities?
5. Are there any special features with the open educational resources programs at DW University?
6. Are there any short-term or long-term plans for the development of the open educational resources programs at DW University? If so, what are the plans?
7. What motivates you to participate in these open educational resources programs? What are the initial intentions and facilitating factors in initiating these programs?
8. What are your general reactions and opinions toward these open educational resources programs?
9. How are the open educational resources programs monitored and evaluated at DW University?
10. Are there any problems or challenges that you have encountered during the conduct of the programs? If yes, what are the problems and challenges?
11. What kind of experiences have you learned during the implementation of the programs? Have you made any improvements according to the experiences?
12. Who do you think will be influenced by these programs?
13. What are the influences and how to influence?
14. What do you think about the future of open educational resources movement? What do you think should be the goal of this movement?
15. As an institutional participant in open educational resources movement, have you got any comment or suggestion for the national programs?

EXPECTED BENEFITS

It is not anticipated that the study will benefit participants directly. However, the findings of the research will provide information of what kinds of changes are to be brought by the programs of open educational resources. The research will also clarify the changes to be brought to the thoughts and practices of learning, which may potentially help you further improve or modify the university programs.

RISKS

There are minimal risks associated with your participation in this project. The main risks are inconvenience and loss of privacy.

PRIVACY AND CONFIDENTIALITY

Although your identity will be known to the researcher in the interviews, it will be protected by using pseudonyms on the transcripts and in reports. The pseudonyms will be used throughout data analysis as well as in the presentation of results. Your name will not be disclosed and will only be known and available to the researcher. Identifying details will be permanently removed from the data, such as names and personal and professional information which might link individual person to specific

data. In this way, your identity will not be disclosed and confidentiality will be assured.

All paper records will be kept securely in a locked filing cabinet in the researcher's QUT office. Only authorised QUT personnel have access to the office. Digital audio recordings and electronic files will be stored on a QUT password-protected network drive. Only members of the research team can access the raw data. USB drivers will not be used for data storage, only for data transfer if necessary.

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE

We would like to ask you to sign a written consent form (enclosed) to confirm your agreement to participate.

QUESTIONS / FURTHER INFORMATION ABOUT THE PROJECT

If have any questions or require any further information about the project please contact one of the research team members below.

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CONCERNS / COMPLAINTS REGARDING THE CONDUCT OF THE PROJECT

QUT is committed to research integrity and the ethical conduct of research projects. However, if you do have any concerns or complaints about the ethical conduct of the project you may contact the QUT Research Ethics Unit on +61 7 3138 5123 or email ethicscontact@qut.edu.au. The QUT Research Ethics Unit is not connected with the research project and can facilitate a resolution to your concern in an impartial manner.

	昆士兰科技大学研究项目信息 (访谈)
治理术视角下的中国开放教育资源研究	

研究小组

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昆士兰科技大学教育学院 Deborah Henderson 副教授
昆士兰教育与培训厅高级官员 Weihong Zhang 博士

研究项目介绍

本研究是沈鞠明博士论文课题研究项目的一部分。

本研究的目的在于研究中国开放教育资源的情况。本研究从治理术理论的视角出发对中国国家级层面和院校级层面的开放教育资源项目进行研究。本研究旨在探索开放教育资源运动作为一项教育改革项目,其背后的治理术理念和手段分别是什么,并且这样的改革项目会塑造什么样主体。从而,本研究可以发现中国开放教育资源改革对中国学习者,他们的学习方式、学习理念,乃至中国社会会带来什么样的影响和变化。

因为你参与了苏州大学开放教育资源项目的工作,因此本研究小组邀请您参与到本研究中来。您对于您所参与的开放教育资源项目的见解会作为本研究的重要数据来源。在此,本研究小组将向您介绍本研究的具体相关信息,请您仔细阅读后决定是否同意参加此项目。

参与

参加本项目是完全基于您资源的情况下进行的。如果您不同意参加,您可以随时退出,不会受到任何形式的职责和出发。一旦您退出了,如果有需要,所有与您相关的信息将被立即删除。如果您参加,虽然主研究员会知道您的身份,但是您的相关信息在研究报告中会被加密。因此,无论您决定参加或不参加此项目,都绝不会影响到您现在或将来和昆士兰科技大学的任何关系。

你将参与面对面的深度访谈,访谈地点将会被安排在苏州大学或者您觉得方便的场所,访谈时间大约为 60 分钟。访谈问题包括:

1. 您在苏州大学的职务是什么?您从事这份工作多久了?您之前有过什么工作经历?
2. 您在苏州大学开放教育资源项目中主要负责什么工作?
3. 苏州大学的开放教育资源项目是怎样开始的?
4. 苏州大学是如何落实国家关于开放教育资源项目的政策的?
5. 您了解其他大学的开放教育资源项目吗?苏州大学的开放教育资源项目和其他大学的项目有没有什么不同或者相似之处?
6. 苏州大学的开放教育资源项目有没有什么特色?
7. 您能介绍一下您所负责的开放教育资源课程项目吗?
8. 是什么原因促使您参与到苏州大学开放教育资源项目中来的?
9. 您觉得开放教育课程项目是否会促进高等教育质量的提高?如何促进?
10. 您觉得开放教育课程项目是否会改善高等教育公平?如何改善?
11. 您所负责的课程项目是如何建设高质量的课程资源的?
12. 您所负责的开放课程是如何与其他人共享的?
13. 您所负责的开放课程项目是否有监管体系?
14. 您觉得您的开放课程项目是否会给学生带来什么样影响?
15. 您认为开放教育资源运动的前景如何?
16. 作为一个校级开放教育资源运动的参与者,您对国家开放教育资源工程有没有什么建议或者意见?

预期收益

本研究可能不会给您带来直接的收益，但是本研究将会探索发现开放教育资源项目会给中国教育和社会带来什么样的变化，这些变化包括给中国各类学习者的学习理念和学习方式的变化。这些发现将间接有助于您进一步发展您所参与的开放教育资源项目。

风险

在此调查期间，可能会占用您一些时间，给您带来不便，但是不会对您的正常工作带来任何风险。

机密性

虽然主研究员会知道您的身份，但是在研究报告中，您的姓名将会由假名代替。任何与您身份有关的信息，包括姓名、个人工作职位等都会在报告中隐去。由此，您的隐私是可以得到保证的。

所有的纸质记录都会保管在主研究员在昆士兰科技大学办公室的带锁的文件柜里。只有研究小组的成员可以查阅这些数据。访谈的音频录音将会被存储在昆士兰科技大学有密码保护的电脑中。移动存储器只会被用来转移数据，不会做存储之用。

同意参加

我们想请您签署一份书面同意书，以确认您同意参加此项目。

关于项目的问题/进一步信息

如果您有任何问题需要回答，或者您需要本研究的进一步资料，请与研究小组联系：

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对项目的实施的关注/投诉

昆士兰科技大学致力于研究的完整性和研究项目实施的道德性。如果您有任何问题或对此研究的伦理道德行为的投诉，请致电昆士兰科技大学研究伦理主任+61 7 3138 5123 或发邮件至 ethicscontact@qut.edu.au。研究伦理主任与此研究项目没有任何关联，从而能够公正的解决您关心的问题。

Appendix C

Semi-structured interview questions

Questions for semi-structured interview

1. What is your position at DW University? How long have you been doing this job?
2. What is your responsibility in open educational resources programs at DW University?
3. How did open educational resources programs start at DW University?
4. Are there any mechanisms ensuring the implementation of the OER policies at DW?
5. What are the similarities or differences between the programs at DW University and in other universities?
6. What do you think of the future of open educational resources at DW University and in China?
7. Could you make a brief introduction of the open educational resources program that you are teaching?
8. What motivated to you participate in the program?
9. How do you think your program will help improve higher educational quality?
10. How do you think your program will help improve higher educational equity?
11. How can your program develop high-quality educational resources?
12. How can your program be shared with other teachers or institutions?
13. How is your program monitored or supervised?
14. What do you think your program may bring to Chinese learners?
15. What do you think about the future of open educational resources movement?
16. As an institutional participant in open educational resources movement, have you got any comment or suggestion for the national programs?

Chinese version of questions for semi-structured interview

访谈问题

1. 您在苏州大学的职务是什么？您从事这份工作多久了？您之前有过什么工作经历？
2. 您在苏州大学开放教育资源项目中主要负责什么工作？
3. 苏州大学的开放教育资源项目是怎样开始的？
4. 苏州大学是如何落实国家关于开放教育资源项目的政策的？
5. 您了解其他大学的开放教育资源项目吗？苏州大学的开放教育资源项目和其他大学的项目有没有什么不同或者相似之处？
6. 苏州大学的开放教育资源项目有没有什么特色？
7. 您能介绍一下您所负责的开放教育资源课程项目吗？
8. 是什么原因促使您参与到苏州大学开放教育资源项目中来的？
9. 您觉得开放教育课程项目是否会促进高等教育质量的提高？如何促进？
10. 您觉得开放教育课程项目是否会改善高等教育公平？如何改善？
11. 您所负责的课程项目是如何建设高质量的课程资源的？
12. 您所负责的开放课程是如何与其他人共享的？
13. 您所负责的开放课程项目是否有监管体系？
14. 您觉得您的开放课程项目是否会给学生带来什么样影响？
15. 您认为开放教育资源运动的前景如何？
16. 作为一个校级开放教育资源运动的参与者，您对国家开放教育资源工程有没有什么建议或者意见？

Appendix D

Language translation process and sample

Sample 1

Original recording:

苏州大学开始实行精品课程项目的最主要和最直接的原因就是国家教育部以及江苏省教育厅发布的关于精品课程项目的政策文件。改革开放以后，中国的高校有了更多的自主办学的条件，但是，落实和实施教育部和省教育厅关于高等教育的政策仍然是我们高校最主要的工作之一。

Translation:

The direct motivator and incentive for DW University to develop Quality Open Courses was the policy documents about National Quality Open Courseware program from Ministry of Education and the JN Provincial Department of Education. Since the Open and Reform, Chinese universities have more autonomy in managing the university affairs; however, implementing the policies from Ministry of Education and provincial department of education is one of the most prioritized responsibilities for the university.

Quotation:

According to Mr. YSL, the deputy director of teaching affairs office at DW University, the direct motivator and incentive for DW University to develop Quality Open Courses was the policy documents from Ministry of Education and the JN Provincial Department of Education. Mr. W has been working at DW University for more than 20 years; he recognized that the university started to enjoy more autonomy in deciding the institutional affairs after 1980s; but he also stressed that “implementing the policies from Ministry of Education and provincial department of education is one of the most prioritized responsibilities for the university”.

Sample 2

Original recording:

精品课程项目大大提高了学校一些高级教师，特别是具有教授、副教授职称的老师参与到具体的教学中来。所有的精品课程的主讲教师都具有副教授以上职称。他们中的大多数人都具有很强的学术背景和丰富的教学经验。但是之前，他们都把大部分精力放在学术研究和研究生教育方便，比如说指导硕士论文和博士论文的写作。精品课程项目启动以后，这些教师在本科教学中的参与率大大提高。在精品课程的建设过程中，这些教师不仅主讲这些课程，同时也参与到整个课程的设计和制作过程中去，并且同时指导课程教学团队中的其他教师。

Translation:

The Quality Open Courseware project has largely enhanced the participation of professors and associate professors in teaching at DW University. All the key instructors of Quality Courses produced by the university are fulltime professors and associate professors. Most of these professors and associate professors have strong academic backgrounds and wide teaching experiences; but they used to devote more to research and postgraduate teaching, such as directing Master's and doctoral students' thesis writing. Yet since DW University started the Quality Open Courseware program, their participation in teaching undergraduate courses has increased much. In the process of establishing and running of the courses, they not only instruct the course, but also participate in developing the course and offer help and advice to other teachers in the team about teaching the courses

Quotation:

According to Mr. YSL, the Quality Open Courseware project has largely promoted professors and associate professors to participate in teaching undergraduate courses at DW University. These fulltime professors and associate professors play the key roles in instructing Quality Courses at DW University. Most of them have strong academic backgrounds and rich teaching experiences; but they used to devote more to research and postgraduate teaching, such as supervising Master's and doctoral students. Since DW University started the Quality Open Courseware program, the fulltime professors and associate professors have contributed more to teaching undergraduate students.

“In the process of establishing and running of the courses [Quality Courses], they not only instruct the course, but also participate in developing the course and offer help and advice to other teachers about teaching the courses

Appendix E

Sample processes of policy data and interview data analysis

Sample One: Governing the resource administrators

Sample evidence from policy data

“higher education institutions should take Comrade Jiang Zeming’s important ideas of ‘Three Representatives’ as primary directions, make efforts to enhance the development of advanced productivity and advanced culture, continuously satisfy the masses’ increasing demand for education...” – *Some ideas about strengthening undergraduate teaching and improving teaching quality in higher education* (2001)

“in order to carry out the spirit of 16th National Congress of the Communist Party of China, and practice the important ideas of ‘Three Representatives’...” – *Announcement by the Ministry of Education about initiating the teaching quality and teaching reform project for colleges and universities, the construction of Quality Open Courseware* (2003)

“...with a long-term and broad view, a focus on the reality of higher education in China, and a foresight of the historical great recovery of Chinese nation, the party and the government have made the important decision about moving the essential educational working to improving education quality, which has historical and realistic significance for the overall, coordinated, and sustainable development of Chinese economy and society” – *Some ideas about further deepening reform of undergraduate teaching and improving overall teaching quality* (2007)

“According to the strategy of ‘prioritise the educational development and construct strong nation of human resources’ made at the 17th National Congress of Communist Party of China, in order to enhance the scientific development of educational cause, improve the overall quality of people, and accelerate the progress of socialist modernisation, this *Educational Development Plan* is made” – *National long-term educational reform and development plan (2010-2020)* (2010)

“improving quality is the core task in developing higher education; it is the prerequisite to constructing a nation strong in higher education and it is the key to realising the strategy of constructing a nation with competitive human resources and innovation” – *Ideas on Implementing “Teaching Quality and Teaching Reform Project for Colleges and Universities” During the Twelfth Five-Year Plan* (2011)

Rationalities of governing the resource administrators

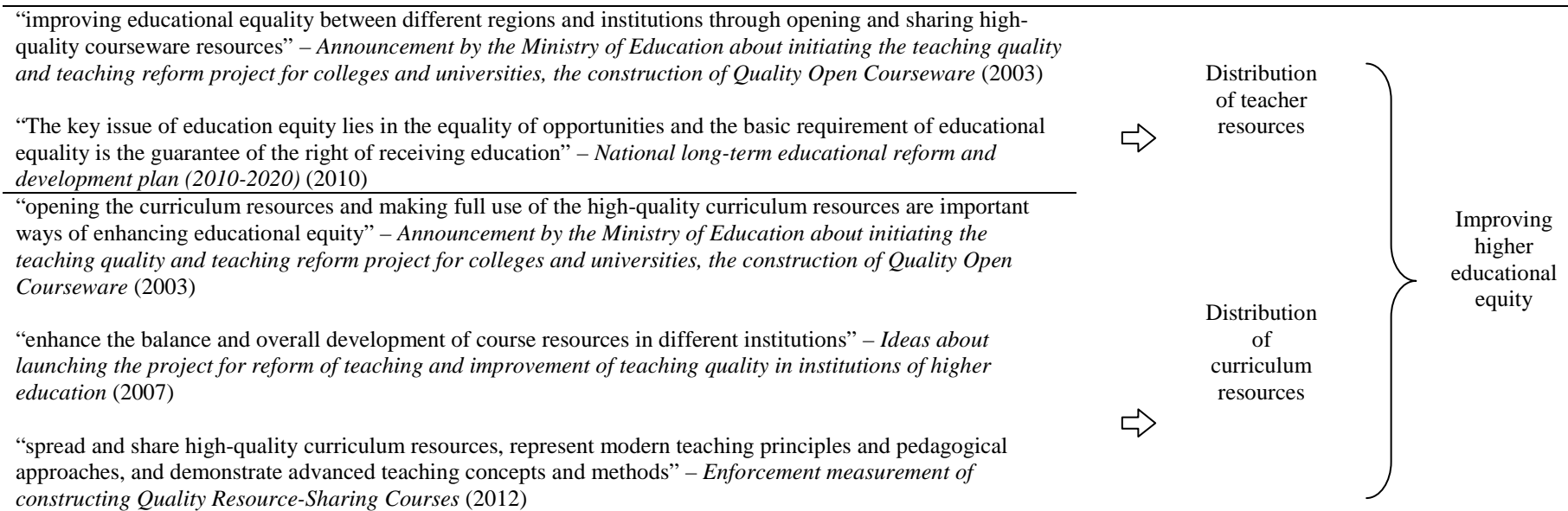
Chinese political authorities have rendered the development of higher education as significant for the overall development of the nation and the education administrators at all levels are responsible for driving such capacity building through implementing reforms to the education sector.

Sample evidence from policy data	Sample evidence from interview data	Technologies of governing the resource administrators	
<p>“To educational departments and financial departments in all provinces, autonomous regions, and municipalities directly under the central government, educational bureau and financial bureau of Xinjiang Production and Construction Corps (XPCC), educational and financial divisions in relevant departments, and higher education institutions under direct administration of the Ministry of Education” – <i>Announcement by the Ministry of Education about initiating the teaching quality and teaching reform project for colleges and universities, the construction of Quality Open Courseware</i> (2003)</p> <p>The administrative and personnel system of Chinese Communist Party is a top-down system and the government system at all levels in China is embedded in this system. The education administrations at all levels are administered by the CCP committees.</p>	<p>“The key motivation for us to start the programme is to implement the policies from the Ministry of Education and the policies from the JN Provincial Department of Education... implementing the policies from the Ministry of Education and provincial department of education is one of the most prioritized responsibilities for the university” (Interview with Professor YSL: 15 February, 2012)</p> <p>“One of our key jobs is to ensure that the policies from the Ministry of Education and Provincial Department of Education are implemented correctly and solidly in our university” (Interview with Ms. LL: 15 February, 2012)</p> <p>“As the university issues the announcement of establishing quality courses, it is important for the faculties to act accordingly. The performance regarding the quality courses is an important indicator when the university administration evaluates the faculties” (Interview with Professor SYN: 19 February, 2012).</p>	<p>⇒</p> <p>Direct intervention</p>	<p>Governing the resource administrators</p>
<p>The educational evaluation system that assesses higher education institutions, faculties, and academics in terms of their educational performance.</p> <p>Personnel evaluation system of the CCP.</p>	<p>“We undergo two evaluation systems every year. As an academic, our academic performance, including teaching and research are evaluated. Besides, we report to the CCP committee at the faculty level about what we have done during the year” (Interview with Professor SYN: 19 February, 2012)</p>	<p>⇒</p> <p>Evaluation</p>	

Sample Two: Governing the resource providers

Sample evidence from policy data	Rationalities of governing the resource providers
<p>“the improvement of pedagogical quality requires a large number of highly-qualified teachers” – <i>Announcement by the Ministry of Education about initiating the teaching quality and teaching reform project for colleges and universities, the construction of Quality Open Courseware</i> (2003)</p>	
<p>“utilise the advanced technologies to enhance the improvement of pedagogical quality” – <i>Outline of Eleventh Five-Year Development Plan for Central Radio and Television University</i> (2008)</p>	
<p>“the pedagogical quality of higher education is not high enough” – <i>National long-term educational reform and development plan (2010-2020)</i> (2010)</p>	<p>⇒ Pedagogical quality</p>
<p>“improve the overall pedagogical quality” – <i>Announcement by the Ministry of Education about initiating the teaching quality and teaching reform project for colleges and universities, the construction of Quality Open Courseware</i> (2003); <i>Implementation opinions about constructing national quality open courses</i> (2011)</p>	
<p>“establish a teaching-centred higher education system” – <i>Announcement by the Ministry of Education about initiating the teaching quality and teaching reform project for colleges and universities, the construction of Quality Open Courseware</i> (2003)</p>	
<p>“provide technological support for enhancing and administering teaching affairs in Chinese universities” – <i>Outline of Eleventh Five-Year Development Plan for Central Radio and Television University</i> (2008)</p>	<p>⇒ Priority of teaching</p>
<p>“some unreasonable criteria in higher education system should be reformed” – <i>National long-term educational reform and development plan (2010-2020)</i> (2010)</p>	
<p>“the structure and arrangement of higher education sector is not reasonable enough” – <i>National long-term educational reform and development plan (2010-2020)</i> (2010)</p>	
<p>“take in consideration the arrangement and utility of subjects and majors” – <i>Ideas on Implementing “Teaching Quality and Teaching Reform Project for Colleges and Universities” During the Twelfth Five-Year Plan</i> (2011)</p>	<p>⇒ Institutional disciplinary structure</p>

Improving higher education quality



Sample evidence from policy data	Sample evidence from interview data	Technologies of governing the resource providers
<p>“[Instructors of vocational courses] should hold responsible attitudes toward teaching, master high-quality teaching skills, and participate in educational research and projects of teaching reforms” – <i>Measures for implementing National Quality Open Courseware Project</i> (2003)</p> <p>“key instructors of the course should have “high academic achievements, exceptional teaching ability, and long and extensive teaching experiences” – <i>Announcement about National Open Quality Course application and auditing</i> (2003)</p> <p>“to lead the teaching teams of open courses and help establish high-quality teacher resources” – <i>Outline of Eleventh Five-Year Development Plan for Central Radio and Television University</i> (2008)</p>	<p>“Most of these professors and associate professors have strong academic backgrounds and wide teaching experiences, but they used to devote more to research and postgraduate teaching, such as supervising Master’s and doctoral students” (Interview with Professor YSL: 15 February, 2012)</p> <p>“As a member of the teaching them of this course, I learned a lot during the process of developing this course to be a quality course. My background is XXX and I had little knowledge about XXX in this course. So as a member of the team, my knowledge scope expanded. Moreover, Professor GWX’s teaching is very skilful and I learned a lot from him. What I acquired from this course has also helped to improve the teaching of other courses” (Interview with Ms. FJ: 21 February, 2012)</p>	<p>Developing teacher resources</p> <p>⇒</p> <p>Developing high-quality educational resources</p>
<p>“higher education institutions should develop quality courses according to their teaching traditions and strengths in different fields” – <i>Announcement by the Ministry of Education about initiating the teaching quality and teaching reform project for colleges and universities, the construction of Quality Open Courseware</i> (2003)</p> <p>“[quality courses] should deal with the relationship between classical theories and the real world; they should be fundamental and reflect the frontier of academic research” – <i>Measures for implementing National Quality Open Courseware Project</i> (2003)</p>	<p>“Comparatively, our university has longer teaching tradition and better faculty in humanities and medicine studies; therefore, we have established more [quality] courses in these fields” (Interview with Professor YSL: 15 February, 2012)</p> <p>“In my course, every student has an electronic portfolio (e-portfolio) which records the out-of-class projects, in-class discussions, assignments, and exams. Through the use of computers and internet, a learning network is established between teachers, students, in-class teaching resources, and external resources. I think these technologies are more attractive for students than the traditional textbooks;” (Interview with Professor GWX: 21 February, 2012).</p>	<p>Developing curriculum resources</p> <p>⇒</p> <p>Developing high-quality educational resources</p>

<p>“quality courses should be constructed, China Academic Library & Information System should be further developed, and system for sharing experiment equipments and teaching resources should be established” – <i>2003-2007 Action Plan for Invigorating Education</i> (2004)</p>	<p>“Through the use of computer technologies, we can expand the teaching content and teach the courses more flexibly, and provide help to students more promptly. Instructors can also cooperate with each other better to improve the courses” (Interview with Professor SYN: 19 February, 2012).</p>	⇒	<p>Digitalising educational resources</p>	}	<p>Sharing high-quality educational resources</p>
<p>“establish course platforms to promote the co-construction and sharing of programmes, courses, and teacher resources” – <i>Outline of Eleventh Five-Year Development Plan for Central Radio and Television University</i> (2008)</p> <p>Establishment of NQOCW website, CORE, and CERNET of the radio and television university system</p>	<p>“After start the programme, our university founded a course centre. This centre is aimed to helping the academics to put the resources on line” (Interview with Professor GWX: 21 February, 2012).</p>	⇒	<p>Establishing resource-sharing platforms</p>		
<p>“commit relevant organisations and experts to audit the quality courses” – <i>Measures for implementing National Quality Open Courseware Project</i> (2003)</p> <p>education administrative departments should audit the operation, maintenance and updating of the quality courses through on-line monitoring, evaluating the feedbacks, and conduct annual assessments. – <i>Enforcement measurement of constructing Quality Resource-Sharing Courses</i> (2012)</p>	<p>“We rely on the auditing system to construct and develop our quality courses because the auditing results directly determine whether our courses could be awarded as quality courses at national, provincial, or institutional levels” (Interview with Professor WLB: 18 February, 2012)</p> <p>“Comparatively speaking, the educational experts are more likely to examine the courses from a professional perspective of course establishment and development; but students’ feedbacks and peer reviews are more practical and detailed, which drives the teachers to be more thoughtful and considerate when designing and revising the courses” (Interview with Professor YSL: 15 February, 2012)</p>	⇒	<p>Auditing open educational resources</p>		
<p>“extra funds would be provided to the construction of Quality Resource-Sharing Courses and Video Quality Courses” – <i>Ideas on Implementing “Teaching Quality and Teaching Reform Project for Colleges and Universities” During the Twelfth Five-Year Plan</i> (2011)</p>	<p>“Our university has a comprehensive system that funds the academics to develop courses. Funding the quality courses is a part of the system.” (Interview with Professor YSL: 15 February, 2012)</p>	⇒	<p>Funding and rewarding resource providers</p>		

Sample Three: Governing the resource receivers

Governing the resource receivers	
Rationalities – Sample evidence from policy data	Technologies – Sample evidence from policy and interview data
<p>“[education system] should establish ‘overpass’ for the connection and flowing of learning resources at different levels in order to facilitate lifelong learning and the development of a learning society in China...and encourage Chinese people to adopt learning as lifelong activity” – <i>National long-term educational reform and development plan (2010-2020)</i> (2010)</p> <p>“a number of free and open on-line video courses and high-quality educational resources should be provided by higher education institutions to university students, academics, and all the learners in society for them to conduct lifelong learning” – <i>Ideas on Implementing “Teaching Quality and Teaching Reform Project for Colleges and Universities” During the Twelfth Five-Year Plan</i> (2011)</p>	<p>DW University provides routine weekend courses, evening courses, and holiday courses, cooperates with local enterprises and organisations to provide training sessions to their employees, and provides public lectures and seminars, especially in the fields of public health and law.</p> <p>“We try support learners both in and outside the campus, this is important. We also expect that the quality courses on line would be more effective in enabling and attracting people to participate in learning” (Interview with Professor YSL: 15 February, 2012)</p>
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<p>“enormously advocate and promote students to conduct active and autonomous learning” – <i>Announcement by the Ministry of Education about initiating the teaching quality and teaching reform project for colleges and universities, the construction of Quality Open Courseware</i> (2003)</p> <p>“providing necessary and sufficient materials for students to conduct autonomous learning effectively” – <i>Announcement about National Open Quality Course application and auditing</i> (2003)</p>	<p>“the quality courses of DW University are designed to promote students’ learning autonomy mainly from five perspectives: self-motivation, learning planning, information processing, cooperative learning, and self-supervision and evaluation” (Interview with Professor YSL: 15 February, 2012)</p>
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<p>“handle the relationship between classical and modern content, the relationship between theories and practices, and emphasises on cultivating students’ practical ability and innovative ability through practical teaching” – <i>Ideas on Implementing “Teaching Quality and Teaching Reform Project for Colleges and Universities” During the Twelfth Five-Year Plan</i> (2011)</p>	<p>“this game-like learning system is popular among the learners; students show much interest and excitement in learning the course. The high popularity, interest, and acceptability of the course also enhance the effectiveness of the course and students’ innovative thoughts” (Interview with Professor QZM: 24 February, 2012)</p>
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Constituting
lifelong learners

Constituting
autonomous
learners

Constituting
innovative learners