

Non-public Preschool Education Development Policy: A Descriptive Research in Vietnam

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ABSTRACT This study investigates the effectiveness and responses to policies designed to promote the growth of non-public preschool education (NPPE) in Vietnam. Employing a descriptive research approach, it delves into the implementation, monitoring, and perceptions of these policies by teachers and management staff. Despite the challenges faced, the study highlights different perceptions of the respondents that have considerably influenced the policy development of NPPE in those areas and in certain regions. The findings offer evidence-based recommendations to refine policy approaches, aiming to enhance Vietnam's preschool education system and ensure greater inclusivity and long-term sustainability in early childhood education.

INTRODUCTION

The current corpus of research provides thorough insights into how preschool education is changing in different national contexts. According to Rong et al. (2024), quality and parental satisfaction in preschool education were enhanced by greater Chinese government expenditure, particularly in public settings. In support of this, Huang and Xiong (2025) highlighted the advancements made in China's Preschool Education Law, which promotes public welfare and diversity. While a follow-up study (Johnson et al. 2025) emphasised its impact in lowering absenteeism among dual language learners post-COVID-19, Johnson et al. (2024) showed that public preschool attendance in the United States predicts improved numeracy skills in third grade. According to Rothbart and Morrissey (2025), Virginia's preschool expansion increased kindergarten literacy while also having an impact on more general early education trends. From a comparative angle, Janssen et al. (2024) suggested that increased privatisation might lessen the compensating benefits of preschool for underprivileged children. A micro-political dimension was introduced by Wan and Leung (2024), who

examined the impact of corporate governance on principal retention at preschools run by non-governmental organisations in Hong Kong. When taken as a whole, these studies highlight the complex effects of finance, governance, and policy on preschool results, equity, and quality as represented by Tan (2016).

Recent research has explored preschool enrolment trends and their implications in various contexts. A study on low-fee private preschools in Zambia examines parental preferences for Early Childhood Care and Education (ECCE) within urban informal settlements. The findings reveal a strong preference for low-fee private preschools over public alternatives, driven by a shortage of public institutions. These private schools prioritise academic rigour and English instruction, contrasting with the government's play-based curriculum. Parents perceive enrolling their children in these schools as a pathway to "modernity" and social mobility (Okitsu et al. 2023). Another analysis comparing public and private school performance in sub-Saharan Africa, using PASEC 2019 data, shows that private schools generally offer higher-quality education. Factors such as gender, socioeconomic status, teacher demographics, and school infrastructure

quality are identified as key contributors to the achievement gap (Romuald 2023).

Research into the expansion of private schools in Peru between 1996 and 2019 examines the consequences of privatisation in an increasingly deregulated education market. The findings indicate that while the growth of private schools has been notable, it has not significantly enhanced access to education or improved labour market outcomes. The study raises important concerns about the potential negative effects of unchecked privatisation on the broader quality of the education system (Glewwe et al. 2023). In India, a study on gender disparities in preschool enrolment, using data from the 2019-2021 National Family Health Survey, shows that although overall preschool enrolment is slightly higher for girls than boys, girls are notably less likely to attend higher-quality private preschools. Factors such as socioeconomic status and maternal education levels are pivotal in shaping these gender-based differences in access to private preschool education (Arindam et al. 2023).

A comparison of preschool programs in the U.S. examines public, private, and informal early childhood education settings. Public preschools and Headstart programs are found to offer better-trained teachers and a more enriched learning environment than private or home-based preschools. Despite this, children attending private preschools show the highest academic readiness at age five, with public preschool and Headstart participants also demonstrating strong school readiness (Levine et al. 2016). A separate study on kindergarten readiness in Miami's public preschools reveals that children enrolled in public pre-K programs are better prepared for kindergarten compared to those in centre-based or family childcare settings. Notably, Black and Latino children gain the most from public pre-K, as it provides them with stronger early educational foundations (Ansari and Winsler 2016).

Studies that test the impact of preschool dosage on academic performance look at the benefit of going to one versus two years of state-funded preschool. The findings are that children who go to preschool for two years have better math, reading, and executive function skills in early elementary school than children who go for one year (Shah et al. 2017). A discussion on

U.S. preschool policy and quality highlights the need for a policy shift to focus on improving preschool accessibility and quality. The author urges better implementation of high-quality programs and research-guided improvements so that public preschool programs prepare children well for the next level of schooling (Weiland 2018). An analysis of Chinese preschool education policy examines government actions in closing preschool participation disparities between 2010 and 2016 across regional and socioeconomic boundaries. The analysis identifies that preschool participation increased significantly, particularly in rural and less-developed regions. However, socioeconomic status remains a major determinant in the ability to access high-quality preschools, as children belonging to richer and well-educated families are more likely to be enrolled in them (Su et al. 2020).

Together, the studies highlight the growing importance of private preschools in many different world contexts as they often emerge as a solution to poor state education. LFPs (low-fee private schools), for example, are regarded as a means of social mobility in Zambia and attract parents by being the opposite of government-prescribed learning through play. Similarly in Peru, decentralised growth of private schools has not always increased accessibility or economic progress while raising concerns about control over quality. In sub-Saharan Africa, private schools excel over public schools across the board, but socio-economic factors such as home language, household income, and facilities still reinforce inequalities. In India, although preschool enrolment in general is improved, girls are less likely to be enrolled in higher quality private preschools. These measures suggest that private schooling, just as it is often graded as superior, does not necessarily translate into equity or access, particularly for poor and marginalised groups.

On the other hand, studies in the U.S. and China examine public preschool programs and how these influence early childhood education. From the U.S., studies show that public preschool and Headstart programs provide highly educated teachers and more enriching learning environments, which prepare low-income and ethnically diverse children for kindergarten. However, children who are in private pre-schools

have been proven to have the most academic readiness, evoking quality differences by preschool type inquiries. The American study also concerns preschool “dosage”, as it finds that two years of preschool results in higher cognitive and executive function advantages than a year of preschool attendance. By contrast, government interventions in China have succeeded in raising pre-school enrolment levels, particularly in rural areas, whereas socioeconomic gaps continue to remain. Collectively, these findings underscore the need for stronger public preschool policies to ensure equitable early childhood education, particularly in regions where privatisation has led to unequal results.

In Vietnam, development in private preschool education in Vietnam has been another vital focus area due to its central role in addressing the increasing demand for early childhood education. The sector has emerged as a necessary supplement to the public school system, particularly in urban areas. Private funding, improved service quality, and increased access to preschool education have been promoted through different policies. But important concerns, such as equity, quality, and disparity in implementation, are still discernible.

Non-public preschool development policies prioritise decentralisation and economic incentives. Nguyen et al. (2024) identifies government actions such as tax reduction, land use incentives, and deregulation as measures to attract private investment. As much as these actions have aided the growth of private preschool centres, inconsistent policy implementation between urban and rural areas continues to deter equal access to these services. For example, cities have benefited from a surge of quality private preschools, but rural communities still suffer from shortages and poor infrastructure. Non-public preschools have expanded access to early childhood education, particularly in cities. Studies, like that, suggest that the sector plays an important role in reducing the burden on public institutions, which are generally overcrowded. However, preschool care in private settings is usually inaccessible to poor families because of prohibitively expensive charges and a lack thereof in poorer localities. Phuong (2006) puts emphasis on such disparities as casting doubts on non-private preschool care as inclusive of meeting the demands of marginalised individuals.

The educational quality of preschool in private schools remains an issue. Research by Hoang et al. (2019) identifies inconsistencies in teacher training, adherence to curriculum standards, and infrastructure. While the majority of private schools offer high-quality services to children belonging to better-off groups, concerns are raised regarding the government’s regulation of these schools. There needs to be reinforcement of the quality assurance mechanisms to enable all children to have an equal opportunity in education regardless of the type of institution they are in. Parent satisfaction with non-public preschools varies with the teacher’s qualifications, curriculum, and quality of facilities. Thanh et al. (2022) determined that parents seem to value the individualised care and modern facilities that private preschools offer. Yet affordability remains a top concern, particularly for middle- and low-income families. Parents are also concerned about the sustainability of these institutions, particularly in rural areas where economic problems are worse.

Its social and economic consequences are significant. Privatisation in early childhood is in itself a sign of broader economic trends in Vietnam, whereby public services are to be complemented increasingly by private funds. According to Bui (2020), this is a positive as well as a negative trend. Although private preschools relieve some burden from public systems and bring added diversity to approaches to education, they also raise social equity and access concerns for disadvantaged groups. The methodological approaches of the studies in this area are largely descriptive, combining qualitative interviewing with quantitative surveys. The mixed-methods design permits researchers to access varied perspectives while quantifying the impact of policies at the community level. However, gaps in existing literature remain. For instance, there is a paucity of studies on the challenges faced by rural non-public preschools. Furthermore, longitudinal research should be carried out to determine the long-term effects of policy interventions. Evidently, the development of Vietnam’s non-public preschool education has made tremendous strides in increasing access and quality, especially in cities. Nevertheless, equity, quality assurance, and rural-urban disparities present some challenges to more in-

formed policy interventions in the future. Future research needs to address redressing these disparities and making the non-public preschools effective in complementing the public school system to provide high-quality and inclusive early childhood education.

The development of non-public preschool education is a crucial aspect of ensuring widespread early childhood education, particularly in nations like Vietnam, where demand for quality early education has risen significantly due to rapid socio-economic growth. With urbanisation and household diversification on the rise, the role of non-public preschool schools has been stretched out to complement public education systems. Policymakers have responded to this dynamic with the implementation of a number of development policies aimed at enhancing access, affordability, and quality in the non-public preschool education sector.

Through focusing on examining the responsiveness of Vietnam's non-public preschool education development policy using a descriptive research approach. It examines the extent to which these policies reflect main challenges, such as the equitable distribution of education provision, regulatory frameworks, and support systems for private instructors. Through examining the compatibility of policy objectives with the evolving requirements of the sector, the research highlights avenues for change and shortcomings. Apart from that, the study provides an in-depth review of the socio-political and economic context responsible for the current situation of non-public preschool schooling in Vietnam. It also analyses the impacts of such policies on various stakeholders such as children, parents, educators, and investors. The study aims to contribute to the field of educational policy-making studies and provide insights to Vietnam's forthcoming preschool education reform. Through presenting a thorough analysis of policy responsiveness, this article seeks to form a foundation for evidence-based interventions that can achieve sustainable growth and inclusivity in Vietnam's non-public preschool market.

Research Objectives

The study aimed to achieve the following objectives:

1. To describe the current state of non-public preschool education (NPPE) in Vietnam, including its scope, institutional characteristics, staffing, and socioeconomic accessibility.
2. Examine key stakeholders' perceptions of NPPE development policies (for example, teachers, managers, support staff, and parents), with a focus on perceived effectiveness, equity, and implementation challenges.
3. To examine regional differences in the implementation and reception of NPPE policies, comparative data from several provinces, including Binh Duong, Hai Duong, Hanoi, and Danang, will be used.
4. To investigate how educator demographics (such as age, gender, qualification, pedagogical training, and experience) affect perceptions of NPPE policy effectiveness.
5. To determine how various beneficiary groups (such as children, staff, group leaders, and parents) perceive the outcomes and impact of NPPE policies on preschool quality and service delivery.
6. To identify key strengths and weaknesses in current NPPE policies using empirical feedback from field data, with the goal of proposing data-driven policy enhancements.

METHODOLOGY

A questionnaire was developed for collecting information from preschool managers and teachers in certain cities/provinces. For the quantitative survey questionnaire, the structure includes 3 components:

1. Part 1: General survey and research consensus statement information
2. Part 2: Research content is organised into 14 questions including dichotomous questions, questions with a 5-level Likert scale, and open-ended questions
3. Part 3: Survey sample descriptions

Quantitative data is collected via questionnaire survey. It will then be cleaned following the guideline of Claire et al. (2018), thereafter analysed by following the below mentioned process to acquire information on the current situation of policies toward the construction of non-public preschool education facilities.

Descriptive statistics methodology based on average value (mean) of the teachers' and managers' evaluation of the issues are under survey. Levels of classification of average values in terms of Likert scales are especially illustrated in Table 1.

The One-way ANOVA analysis method was applied in order to calculate differences among respondent groups based on job title, locality, gender, age, education level, highest pedagogical training attained, years of teaching experience, and years of management experience for issues relevant thereto. Calculation of differences between groups begins with the Levene test for the purpose of establishing a difference in variance across groups.

The cross-tabulation analysis method is applied to test Chi-square used to determine the correlation between the variables to be analysed. The Asymptotic Significance (2-sided) value of Pearson Chi-Square (abbreviated as p) will be considered in two cases, that is, first, if $p \leq 0.05$, then the two variables are correlated with each other, and second, if $p > 0.05$, then the two variables are not correlated with each other. However, the p value is only meaningful when the number of observations is large enough, meaning that if more than 20 percent of the cells in the cross-tabulation have a theoretical frequency (abbreviated as a) less than 5, the Chi-square value is no longer reliable. Therefore, when the value is >20 percent, the study uses the Fisher test to test the significance between the variables instead of the Chi-square test using the Exact technique in SPSS software.

Exact Sig. value. (2-sided) at the Fisher's Exact Test (abbreviated as f) row will be considered to determine whether the variables are correlated with each other or not, specifically, if $f \leq 0.05$, it means that the two variables are correlated or not independent of each other, and if $f > 0.05$, the compared variables have no correlation

or are independent of each other. Then, the strength or weakness of the correlation is determined by the ϕ value in the Phi and Cramer's V test. If 2 variables are determined to be correlated with each other, the degree of association between these two variables will be assessed based on the Value of the Phi and Cramer's V tests. If 2 variables have only 2 values, the result of the Phi test will be used for evaluation, while if one of the two variables has 3 or more values, the researchers will use the result of Cramer's V.

Because the variables tested in this study all have 3 or more values. Therefore, Phi and Cramer's V (ϕ) value is considered to assess the degree of association between two variables as shown in Table 2 (Dai et al. 2021).

Table 2: Range of values of Phi and Cramer's V test

<i>Phi and Cramer's V</i>	<i>Correlation level</i>
$\phi = 0$	No or very weak
$0.05 < \phi < 0.10$	Weak
$0.10 < \phi < 0.15$	Reasonable
$0.15 < \phi < 0.25$	Strong
$\phi > 0.25$	Very strong

Survey Sample Characteristics

The survey was conducted in 4 Vietnam provinces/cities and a total of 266 questionnaires were collected. Table 3 presents the specific study sample description. Distribution of the study sample to the said localities was fairly even at Hanoi (22.6%), Hai Duong (25.9%), Da Nang (25.6%), and Binh Duong (25.9%). In terms of job designation, the proportion of teachers participating in the survey made up nearly $\frac{3}{4}$ of the survey subjects (70.3%), while managers made up less than $\frac{1}{4}$ (29.7%). In terms of gender, due to the nature of preschool education, the proportion of women (97.4%) was immensely higher than the proportion of men (2.6%). Regarding

Table 1: Classification level by average value

<i>Level</i>	<i>Meaning</i>	<i>Mean</i>
1	Very unimportant/Very insignificant/Very insignificant/Absolutely unimportant	1.00 - 1.80
2	No response/No difference/No impact/Little impact	1.81 - 2.60
3	Medium impact/Influence	2.61 - 3.40
4	Responsive/Different/Good impact/Quite impactful	3.41 - 4.20
5	Very responsive/Very different/Very impactful/Very impactful	4.21 - 5.00

age, more than half of the managers and teachers who participated in the survey were between 30 and 39 years (56.0%), the proportion of less than 29 years old was 31.6 percent, while the lowest was more than 40 years old, which is only 12.4 percent. At the academic level, the highest proportion of college degrees among teachers and managers (44.4%) was found, the lowest below high school (20.7%), and the rest had university degrees or higher (35.0%).

Table 3: Statistics of characteristics of the sample

Characteristic	N	%
Job Position	266	100.0
Teacher	187	70.3
Management staff	79	29.7
Sex	266	100.0
Male	7	2.6
Female	259	97.4
Age	266	100.0
<29 years	84	31.6
30 - 39 years	149	56.0
>40 years	33	12.4
Education Level	266	100.0
Secondary	55	20.7
College	118	44.4
University	93	35.0
Highest Level of Preschool Teacher Training	266	100.0
A refreshing course	12	4.5
Secondary	54	20.3
College	113	42.5
University	87	32.7
Years of Teaching Experience	266	100.0
<5 years	96	36.1
5-10 years	116	43.6
>10 years	54	20.3
Years of Experience in Management	79	100.0
<5 years	31	39.2
5-10 years	30	38.0
>10 years	18	22.8
Local	266	100.0
Binh Duong	69	25.9
Hai Duong	69	25.9
Hanoi	60	22.6
Da Nang	68	25.6

Source: Authors

As for the highest educational level in preschool teacher training, the research sample had mostly college degrees (42.5%) and university degrees or higher (32.7%), whereas secondary teacher training degrees were only approximately 20.3%, while an insignificant percentage was the group of subjects who only had a crash course in preschool teacher training (4.5%). In

terms of teaching experience, the managers and teachers in the study had the most experience of between 5 to 10 years (43.6%), followed by the subgroup with less than 5 years of experience (36.1%), and the least was the subgroup with more than 10 years of experience (20.3%). In the area of management experience, out of a total 79 managers questioned, the below 5 years of experience and the 5 to 10 years of experience had comparatively close percentages (39.2% and 38.0%), and the above 10 years of experience was also 22.8 percent.

RESULTS

All teachers and managers taking part in the survey rated these policies at the level of satisfying the requirements for improving the quality of preschool education in the region (3.85), when the managers' average score (3.83) was below the teachers' (3.90). Thus, the results of the analysis show that there is some difference between managers' and teachers' evaluations. The ANOVA results of the analysis showed that teachers' and managers' evaluation towards the general level of responsiveness of the policies to preschool education development in the sampled localities is not different ($\text{Sig.} = 0.552 > 0.05$). In answer to this question, it was observed that teachers and managers had an equal assessment level. In order to establish whether the overall rating of the sample in the general level of responsiveness of the above-mentioned policies has group differences among the survey sample's features, the study conducted an ANOVA analysis.

Table 4 categorises information according to a set of traits ranging from geographic location to gender, age, educational background, pedagogical educational level, experience teaching, and administration experience. Implications are apparent that point toward notable regional disparities within the response to non-public preschool policies perceived. Hai Duong was awarded the highest average mark (4.24, $\text{SD} = 0.678$), which implied a more effective application or more substantial conformity to localised needs. Conversely, the lowest mean (3.24, $\text{SD} = 1.0$) was that of Da Nang, indicating possible difficulties in policy adaptation or policy implementation. The significance level is high ($p = 0.000$), and

Table 4: ANOVA test results on the NPPE development policies to preschool quality

<i>Characteristics</i>		<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
<i>Local</i>	Binh Duong	4.18	0.426	.000
	Hai Duong	4.24	0.678	
	Hanoi	3.78	0.750	
	Danang	3.24	1.016	
<i>Sex</i>	Male	3.57	1.272	.384
	Female	3.86	0.838	
<i>Age</i>	< 29 years	3.87	0.801	.554
	30 - 39 years	3.88	0.815	
	> 40 years	3.66	1.096	
<i>Education level</i>	Secondary	3.58	1.049	.008
	College	4.03	0.686	
	University	3.80	0.851	
<i>Education level of pedagogy</i>	Refresh course in pedagogy	2.83	1.193	.001
	Secondary	3.70	0.944	
	College	4.08	0.631	
	University	3.81	0.843	
<i>Teaching</i>	<5 years	3.95	0.689	.110
	5-10 years	3.71	1.000	
	>10 years	3.96	0.740	
<i>Management</i>	<5 years	4.00	0.788	.530
	5-10 years	3.90	0.803	
	>10 years	3.71	1.047	

Source: Authors

this points to geographic factors in policy outcomes evaluation. This agrees with general findings in education policy research where regional variations generally signify socioeconomic, cultural, or administrative variations. Although females perceived policy responsiveness a little more favourably (Mean = 3.86, SD = 0.838) than males (Mean = 3.57, SD = 1.2), the lack of statistical significance ($p = 0.384$) suggests gender is not a critical factor. This result is consistent with existing literature that is prone to note gender-based differences in perceptions to be situation-specific and less prominent in structured educational settings.

The results showed younger instructors (<29 years) and middle-aged adults (30-39 years) both evaluating policy responsiveness (Means = 3.87, and 3.88, respectively). The older respondents (>40 years) scored a point lower (Mean = 3.66, SD = 1.0). However, the non-significant p -value (0.554) indicates that age has minimal impact on perceptions. It was found in the research that young teachers can show more optimism or flexibility towards changes in policy, but these effects dissipate without any statistical significance. Education level made a significant contribution to perceptions ($p = 0.008$). College education holders ranked responsiveness as the

most important (Mean = 4.03, SD = 0.686), followed by university (Mean = 3.80, SD = 0.851) and secondary education (Mean = 3.58, SD = 1.0). This trend might reflect greater exposure to critical analysis and thinking abilities by more highly educated respondents to assess policies in a more favourable or critical way.

Pedagogy education had extremely significant effects ($p = 0.001$). Students with only a refresher course in pedagogy perceived policies the least (Mean = 2.83, SD = 1.193), indicating a possible gap in readiness or policy awareness for this group. Students with college-level pedagogy education perceived policies the most (Mean = 4.08, SD = 0.631), indicating the value of extensive pedagogical education for constructive policy engagement. Although not statistically significant, teaching experience impacted perceptions, with the most experienced respondents (>10 years) having the highest mean score (Mean = 3.96, SD = 0.740). Management experience was even less influential ($p = 0.530$). These results suggest that practical experience alone may not substantially alter policy responsiveness perceptions unless it is coupled with other factors, for example, training or professional development activities. Overall, the findings refer

to the key role of location, education, and pedagogical training in shaping attitudes toward non-public preschool policy. Gender, age, and professional experience are less influential factors. These findings invoke special intervention for the correction of regional disparities and the enhancement of professional development in pedagogy for more effective policy implementation.

In terms of beneficiary, in an attempt to determine whether the policies towards the development of preschool education ongoing in local areas are being put into practice, the study sampled opinions from teachers and managers concerning the responsiveness of the policies towards the policy beneficiaries. The results show that, on average, the managers and teachers rated these policies with the highest parents' response level (3.83), and the direct recipients with the most direct encounter, the kindergarten and nursery children, were rated on the response level (with a mean score of 3.66). The staff team that includes medical staff, cooks, security personnel, etc. were scored on the level of undecided, which was the lowest score among the 6 beneficiary groups.

It can be seen how NPPE development policies are perceived differently across regions and how education level affects perception of NPPE policies. First, it is noticeable that statistically significant differences were found *across localities* ($Sig. = .000$), with Binh Duong ($M = 4.18$) and Hai Duong ($M = 4.24$) rating NPPE impact the highest, while Da Nang ($M = 3.24$) rated it the lowest. However, the high standard deviation in Da Nang ($SD = 1.016$) suggests notable

variability in responses that should be discussed further, possibly due to uneven implementation or demographic diversity. Emphasising these inter-regional contrasts would strengthen the argument and draw attention to where targeted policy adjustments might be necessary. Second, the information effectively identifies *education level* ($Sig. = .008$) and *pedagogical education level* ($Sig. = .001$) as significant factors affecting views on NPPE quality impact. Notably, those with college-level pedagogy training ($M = 4.08$) had the most positive perceptions, while those with only a refresh course ($M = 2.83$) perceived the policy least favourably. These results suggest a strong link between formal pedagogical training and belief in NPPE effectiveness. The policy development could be strengthened by briefly explaining how pedagogical education may influence perception, perhaps through exposure to modern methods or alignment with policy goals.

The ANOVA test findings in Table 5 compare the responsiveness of non-public preschool development policies based on different beneficiary groups, distinguished by job rank. It is apparent that preschool children were assessed as beneficiaries of non-public preschool policies with observed mean scores of 3.68 ($SD = 0.93$) and 3.61 ($SD = 1.03$). The significance level ($p = 0.57$) shows no statistically significant differences among these groups. This would mean that policy impact observed among preschool-age children is relatively homogeneous, perhaps due to continued policy implementation or homogeneous specifications among demographic

Table 5: ANOVA test results on the NPPE development policies for beneficiaries

<i>Beneficiaries</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
<i>Preschool Age Children</i>	3.68	0.939	.572
	3.61	1.031	
<i>Preschool Children</i>	3.66	0.948	.960
	3.66	1.049	
<i>Manager/Teachers/Staff</i>	3.48	0.963	.891
	3.49	0.972	
<i>Group Leader, Class/Facility of Non-Public Education</i>	3.47	0.733	.894
	3.45	0.776	
<i>Staff: Medical, Cooking, Security...</i>	3.41	0.868	.567
	3.34	0.883	
<i>Young Parents (Parents)</i>	3.89	0.580	.052
	3.70	0.745	

Source: Authors

groups. For the preschool children, mean reported scores were the same at 3.66 with standard deviations of 0.94 and 1.04. The large p-value ($p = 0.96$) substantiates that there are no significant differences in policy perceptions among this group. These findings highlight stability in policy application and its effects among young pupils within contexts.

The outcomes for teachers and management staff revealed comparable mean scores of 3.48 (SD = 0.96) for teachers and 3.49 (SD = 0.97) for management staff. The significant p-value ($p = 0.89$) suggests no statistically significant differences between the two groups. This suggests like-minded perspectives towards policy effectiveness among the two groups, pointing to possible congruence in experiencing policies in the education workforce. For staff of classes or facilities and group leaders at private preschools, the mean ratings were 3.47 (SD = 0.73) for teaching staff and 3.45 (SD = 0.77) for management staff. The p-value ($p = 0.89$) indicates that there are no significant differences. The same ratings demonstrate that leadership activities and facility-related tasks are similarly affected by the policies, pointing towards equal policy impacts across categories of jobs.

For non-teaching staff such as medical, kitchen and security staff, the mean scores were slightly low, with teachers scoring 3.41 (SD = 0.86) and management staff scoring 3.34 (SD = 0.88). Despite the fact that there is this slight variation, the high p-value ($p = 0.56$) reveals that the variations are not statistically significant. This consistency may be a reflection of a generalised perception of policy impact among support staff members. Parent students were most responsive, rated 3.89 (SD = 0.58) by teachers and 3.70 (SD = 0.74) by management staff. Although the p-value was quite close to significance ($p = 0.05$), what this reveals is that parents may perceive policies as more favourable. This represents an explicit investment in preschool schooling and its dividends for their children, which equates to higher perceived policy efficacy. The findings report that non-public preschool development policy attitudes are mostly similar or contrary in different groups of beneficiaries and posts. The young parents find themselves with slightly more than normal responsiveness measures, indicating a particular inter-

est in the education process. The implications point towards the need for analyses of policy, which give answers to explicit group needs, particularly parent involvement towards long-run improvement.

The data provides the general perception of NPPE policy impact across different beneficiary groups and which groups may need more policy engagement or support. Clearly, none of the observed differences between groups reached statistical significance (all Sig. values > 0.05). This suggests a relatively uniform perception of NPPE policy impact among various beneficiary categories such as teachers, staff, and preschool children. However, it is still worth noting that young parents reported the highest mean score ($M = 3.89$) with the lowest standard deviation (SD = .580), indicating a strong and consistent positive perception. This subtle near-significance ($p = .052$) deserves mention, as it may point to emerging trends in stakeholder satisfaction. The information insightfully identifies variation in how different stakeholders experience policy effects, but it should emphasise that support staff groups (like medical, cooking, security) reported the lowest mean perceptions ($M = 3.34$ - 3.41). Although the differences were not statistically significant, this pattern could indicate an overlooked segment whose work is essential but potentially underappreciated in NPPE implementation. The discussion would be more impactful by connecting these insights to possible actions, like more inclusive communication or role-specific training initiatives within NPPE efforts.

DISCUSSION

Demographic and professional factors influence the perceived effectiveness of NPPE development policies in terms of preschool quality. The analysis includes comparisons based on location, gender, age, education level, pedagogy background, teaching experience, and management experience. The ANOVA test shows significant regional variation in perceptions of NPPE policies (Sig. = .000). Specifically, educators in Hai Duong ($M = 4.24$, SD = 0.67) and Binh Duong ($M = 4.18$, SD = 0.42) rated the policies more positively than their counterparts in Hanoi ($M = 3.78$, SD = 0.75) and Da Nang ($M = 3.24$, SD

= 1.01). This suggests regional disparities in policy implementation or reception, which could be due to differences in infrastructure, administrative support, or resource allocation (Nguyen and Pham 2020). There were no statistically significant differences according to gender (Sig. = .384) or age (Sig. = .554). This suggests that male and female educators, as well as those of various ages, had relatively similar perceptions of NPPE policy effectiveness. These findings are consistent with previous research indicating that demographic factors such as age and gender may not be strong predictors of attitudes towards educational policy (Tran 2018).

Perceptions differed significantly across education levels (Sig. = .008). Educators with a college education rated NPPE policies higher ($M = 4.03$, $SD = 0.68$) than those with secondary ($M = 3.58$, $SD = 1.04$) or university degrees ($M = 3.80$, $SD = 0.85$). This finding is somewhat surprising, as one would expect higher education levels to be associated with more positive perceptions due to increased understanding. The disparity could be attributed to differences in expectations or critical standards among university graduates (Hoang 2021). There were also statistically significant differences in pedagogical education levels (Sig. = .001). Educators who only took a refresher course in pedagogy rated NPPE policies the lowest ($M = 2.83$, $SD = 1.19$), while college-trained pedagogues rated them the highest ($M = 4.08$, $SD = 0.63$). This pattern emphasises the role of formal pedagogical training in shaping perceptions of policy efficacy (Le and Nguyen 2019). There were no significant differences between teaching and management experiences (Sig. = .110 and Sig. = .530, respectively). While the mean values indicate slight differences, those with more than 10 years of teaching ($M = 3.96$) and less than 5 years of management ($M = 4.00$) reported higher satisfaction, and the differences were not statistically significant. These findings suggest that length of service does not always influence perceptions of NPPE policy impacts (Pham 2022). Geographic location, education level, and pedagogical training all have a significant impact on how educators perceive the effects of NPPE policies on preschool quality. This implies that policymakers should consider these variables in future reforms to ensure more consistent and equitable outcomes across educator demographics and regions.

In terms of beneficiaries, the findings reveal how different beneficiary groups perceive the effectiveness of National Policy on Preschool Education (NPPE) development policies. Preschool-aged children and general preschool children received similar ratings for the policy's effectiveness ($M \approx 3.66$ - 3.68 , $SD \approx 0.93$ - 1.04). These close means and non-significant p-values (Sig. = .572 and .960, respectively) indicate that respondents have a broad consensus about the modest effectiveness of NPPE policies on children's development outcomes. This is consistent with previous findings that national policies may not result in significant perceptual differences when their effects are indirect or institutionalised (Vo and Le 2019), but preschool development enhances educational literacy (Rothbart and Morrissey 2025). Educational personnel, including managers, teachers and staff, received lower average ratings ($M \approx 3.48$ - 3.49 , $SD \approx 0.96$ - 0.97), with no significant variation (Sig. = .891). This consistency implies that, while stakeholders see some benefits from NPPE policies, they may also perceive limitations, possibly due to resource constraints or administrative burdens (Nguyen and Bui 2021). Group leaders in non-public education settings shared similar perceptions ($M = 3.45$ - 3.47 , $SD \approx 0.73$ - 0.77), with a non-significant result (Sig. = .894). These findings suggest that policy implementation may not differ significantly between public and private early childhood education sectors, possibly due to shared regulatory frameworks but varying institutional capacities (Tran 2020), privatisation even makes much more benefits for disadvantaged children (Janssen et al. 2024) and political sector (Wan and Leung 2024).

Staff in support roles (for example, medical, cooking, security) gave slightly lower ratings ($M = 3.34$ - 3.41), which was not statistically significant (Sig. = .567). This suggests a potential disconnect between policy goals and the recognition or inclusion of support personnel in the overall preschool ecosystem, a concern shared by literature advocating for holistic early childhood education systems (Pham and Huynh 2022). Young parents ($M = 3.70$ - 3.89 , $SD = 0.58$ - 0.74) had the highest ratings among the beneficiary groups. Though the p-value (.052) is close to significance, it is still higher than the conventional 0.05 threshold. Parents' elevated percep-

tions may reflect positive changes in early childhood development or increased access to services. These trends are supported by research, which shows that visible developmental improvements and community support frequently lead to increased parental satisfaction (Rong et al. 2024). While none of the differences in perceptions between the beneficiary groups were statistically significant, the observed mean scores indicate varying levels of satisfaction, with parents being the most positive and support staff the least. These findings highlight the general need for more inclusive and targeted policy designs that address all stakeholders in early childhood education in terms of social welfare and varied key players (Huang and Xiong 2025).

CONCLUSION

The descriptive analysis of Vietnam's non-public preschool education development policy responsiveness unveils significant knowledge of how various categories of stakeholders interpret and perceive the policies. The findings accentuate the complexity involved in responding to the demands of multiple beneficiaries, and strengths as well as limitations are emphasised. That is the localities where have been recently developed evaluated considerably the NPPE development policies compared to the other surveyed provinces, and educational background has significantly influenced on policy developments of NPPE.

Primary results indicate varying perceptions of policy responsiveness among disparate groups, including preschool children through to parents, which are contingent upon variables such as pedagogical training, teacher experience, and educational qualifications but which are not equally determinant for all interest groups. More senior or more highly trained teachers are likely to be more critical in their attitude, perhaps because they know more about system issues. Parents and support staff, however, are interested in tangible outcomes, and their attitude is more constant and positive as far as the effectiveness of policy is concerned.

The research points out that policies of non-public preschools must cater to both functional and perceptual requirements of the stakeholders. Such policies must aim at improving service

quality, accessibility, and communication because these factors play a major role in overall satisfaction. Moreover, targeted support for experienced teachers and enhanced collaboration with parents and support staff can assist in bridging gaps in perceptions and foster more inclusive policy assessment and formulation. Obviously, those who are working in the educational sector have the same perception of NPPE policy, but other stakeholders represent different perspectives.

Overall, the study emphasises the need for policies of non-public preschool education to fit the multi-faceted needs of different beneficiaries. Through reflection on these observations, the policymakers in Vietnam might more effectively streamline the efficacy and inclusiveness of their plans for education, resulting in better outcomes for all involved.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings, several strategic recommendations can be made to improve the implementation and effectiveness of NPPE policies. First, there is an obvious need for improved regional coordination to reduce disparities in the perception and effectiveness of NPPE policies across provinces. Provinces like Da Nang, which reported lower levels of satisfaction, should receive more targeted assistance, such as financial investment, professional development for educators, and infrastructure upgrades. The Ministry of Education and Training (MoET) should also consider tailoring policy implementation to the socioeconomic context of each locality, ensuring that non-public institutions in low-performing areas do not fall behind.

Second, improving the qualifications and pedagogical training of educators in non-public preschools is critical. According to the data, teachers who have only received short-term or refresher training in pedagogy rate policies less favourably, indicating gaps in professional readiness. As a result, policies should encourage continuing education and establish mandatory certification programs for all employees, particularly those in managerial and instructional positions. Furthermore, more inclusive frameworks that recognise and incorporate the contributions of support staff (for example, medical, culinary

and security) into preschool operations may improve morale and institutional effectiveness. Finally, strengthening partnerships between non-public preschools and parents, particularly young parents who expressed high policy satisfaction, can result in a more supportive and participatory learning environment, which contributes to long-term academic success.

LIMITATIONS

One significant limitation of this study is its descriptive research design, which limits the ability to infer causality or assess the direct impact of non-public preschool education (NPPE) policies. While the descriptive approach is useful for determining the current state of policy implementation and stakeholder perceptions, it fails to account for potential confounding variables or longitudinal outcomes. Regional differences in perceptions, as noted in the ANOVA analyses, may be influenced by broader socioeconomic conditions, local governance quality, or access to educational resources, all factors that a descriptive design cannot completely isolate or control for. Without longitudinal or experimental designs, the study's findings on the effectiveness of NPPE policies in Vietnam should be interpreted as indicative rather than conclusive.

Another limitation stems from the sampling method and respondent demographics, which may result in response bias and limited generalisability. The study appears to rely heavily on survey data from teachers, staff and parents in various provinces. While this provides useful grassroots insights, it may not fully capture the perspectives of policymakers, private investors, or underserved rural communities, which frequently face the most significant challenges in early childhood education. Furthermore, using self-reported measures may introduce social desirability bias, especially in cases where education policy is politically sensitive. This could lead to inflated satisfaction ratings or underreporting of systemic issues, reducing the reliability and objectivity of the data gathered.

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CONFLICTS OF INTEREST

The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest with respect to the research, authorship, and/or publication of this article.

INFORMED CONSENT

The research declares that participants were informed about the study's purpose, procedures, risks, and benefits, and voluntarily agreed to participate.

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