

International Education Journal



Educational Research Conference 2003 Special Issue
Volume 4 Number 4
August 2004

Published by

Shannon Research Press
Adelaide, South Australia
ISSN 1443-1475
<http://iej.cjb.net>

International Education Journal

Volume 4, Number 4, August 2004

Educational Research Conference 2003 Special Issue



Welcome to the International Education Journal. This is a broadly based journal encompassing research and review articles. Education is interpreted in a wide manner and includes human development, learning, school, formal and informal, tertiary and vocational education, industry training and lifelong learning.

Online - While there will be a hard copy version of the journal it is intended that it will be accessed in almost all instances via the web, free of charge.

Peer Review - All articles appearing in this journal have been subjected to a blind peer-review process by two experts in the field.

Copyright - Copyright of material in this journal rests with individual contributors. Apart from fair use such as brief quotation for scholarly purposes, permission to use material in this journal should be obtained from the authors concerned.

Publication Frequency - It is intended that the journal be published three times per year. However given the electronic characteristics of online publishing it is not necessary to wait until a full journal is assembled prior to publishing. Articles once accepted in appropriate form may be published without delay.

The views and styles expressed in the articles in this publication are those of the individual authors and are not necessarily shared by the reviewers, the editors or the editorial advisory board.

Published by:

Shannon Research Press,
39 Dorrien Avenue, Woodcroft,
South Australia 5162

Copyright © 2004
Shannon Research Press
ISSN 1443-1475

All rights reserved. Apart from individual use, no part of this publication may be reproduced in any form or by any means without prior written permission from the publisher.

Designed by Katherine Dix

Printed in Adelaide, April 2005

CONTENTS

Existentialism, Globalisation and the Cultural Other Sanderson, G.	1
A Study of People-Run Tertiary Education in South and West China Wang, Y. and Secombe, M.	21
Graduate-Entry Medical Student Variables that Predict Academic and Clinical Achievement Blackman, I. and Darmawan, I.G.N.	30
The Design and Development of a Simulation to Teach Water Conservation to Primary School Students Campbell, L.	42
What's Really Wrong with Ethnography? Banfield, G.	53
Gifted Primary Students' Knowledge of Self Directed Learning Van Deur, P.	64
Critical Thinking: Teaching Foreign Notions to Foreign Students Egege, S. and Kutieleh, S.	75
Exploration of Instructional Strategies and Individual Difference within the Context of Web-based Learning Alomyan, H. and Au, W.	86
Emotional Labour and the Permanent Casual Lecturer: Ideas for a Research Project Barrett, S.	92
Teaching Processes and Practices for an Australian Multicultural Classroom: Two Complementary Models Winch-Dummett, C.	102
The Including Studies of Asia in Curriculum Professional Development Program Trevaskis, D.	114
Values: Taught or Caught? Experiences of Year 3 students in a Uniting Church School Hunt, A.	129
The Changing Nature of the Role of Principals in Primary and Secondary Schools in South Australia Sahid, A.	144
Are the Learning Styles of Asian International Students Culturally or Contextually Based? Wong, J.	154
Aspirations, Progress and Perceptions of Boys from a Single Sex School Following the Changeover to Coeducation Yates, S.M.	167
Lessons on Plagiarism Anyanwu, R.	178
Individual Differences: Implications for Web-based Learning Design Alomyan, H.	188
Visual Attention Span and Optometric Conditions: Is there a connection between a poor VAS and an optometric diagnosis? Carroll, E.	197
Locating the Fault Line: The Intersection of Internationalisation and Competency-based Training McKay, H.	203
Current Trends of the Linguistic and Cultural Values of the Greek Australian Community in South Australia Holeva, A.	212

Editorial Board
Editors in Chief

Prof John Keeves

Flinders University (Education)
Bedford Park, South Australia
Phone: 08-8201 2392,
Fax: 08-8201 3184,
john.keeves@flinders.edu.au

Prof Jonathan Anderson

Flinders University (Education)
Bedford Park, South Australia
Phone: 08-8201 2291,
Fax: 08-8201 3184,
jonathan.anderson@flinders.edu.au

Online Editor

Ms Katherine L. Dix

Flinders University (Education)
Bedford Park, South Australia
Phone: 08-8201 5684,
Fax: 08-8201 3184,
katherine.dix@flinders.edu.au

Executive Assistant

Ms Helen Askell-Williams

Flinders University (Education)
Bedford Park, South Australia
Helen.williams@flinders.edu.au

Editorial Advisory Board

Prof Bob Catley

Department of Political Studies
University of Otago

Prof Kevin Marjoribanks

Graduate School of Education
University of Adelaide

Dr Larry Saha

Department of Sociology
Australian National University

Invitation

Contributors - Authors are invited to submit material to this journal. As a general guide articles should be not more than 5000 words. The journal may publish longer works such as theses or dissertations as occasional monographs. In every instance material must be received in publisher ready format. Full details of publication style and other requirements are set out under the heading Author Information.

Publishers - If you wish to have books or educational software reviewed and published in the International Education Journal please contact the editors.

Reviewers - If you are interested in contributing to the journal by writing a review article (500-1000 words) please contact the authors indicating your areas of interest. We look forward to hearing from you.

Aims of IEJ

The aim of the International Education Journal is to publish articles that possess one or more of the following characteristics or qualities.

1. The presentation of substantive findings which are of importance for policy and practice beyond the country in which the research was conducted.
2. The integration of education with academic disciplines such as anthropology, demography, economics, history, law, linguistics, philosophy, political science, psychology and sociology, or examines educational issues from the perspective of the disciplines or investigates issues at the interface between education and one or more of these disciplines.
3. The examination of educational issues from a cross-cultural or indigenous people's perspective.
4. The evaluation of educational policy or programs or the use of information technology of cross-national interest and significance.
5. The employment of advanced research methods and measurement procedures that are clearly explained.
6. The presentation of empirically or analytically based investigations of theory, models or conceptual frame works in the field of education.
7. The syntheses of research findings from comparative and cross-national studies in education.

Author Information

IEJ welcomes practical and research manuscripts that focus on educational issues, provide a clear purpose and depth of discussion, and are presented in a straight-forward style accessible to an international audience.

The editors reserve the right to return poorly edited or improperly formatted manuscripts. Hard-copy only submissions cannot be accepted or returned.

Submissions should be forwarded electronically, either by:

e-mail to: onlineeditor@iej.cjb.net

or,

on a 1.4MB 3.5 inch floppy disk, including a printed copy, to:

IEJ Online Editor,
39 Dorrien Avenue,
Woodcroft, SA 5162

Manuscript Details

The manuscript should:

- show the article's title, authors' names, affiliation, and email addresses (these will be included on the online page), and postal address and telephone numbers (these will be removed from the final online page)
- abstract should not exceed 150 words
- paper should not exceed 5,000 words (20,000 for occasional papers)
- include 5 key words describing the article including those in the title
- be in final form ready for reviewing
- conform to the APA Reference System

General Principles for layout:

- Papers should be prepared using the downloadable template *iejbase.doc* with Microsoft WORD on Mac or PC.
- Use the heading and formatting styles contained in the template, under the Styles Menu, to format article.
- Images and tables should be correctly positioned with caption so that they are referred in the text before their appearance.
- Include images that are imported or inserted into the text from an external source as separate graphic files (GIF or JPG)
- Figures constructed in WORD from the Draw Menu must be 'grouped'.
- Use endnotes, with one set of numbers running through the whole article.
- Use italics (not underline) for emphasis.
- Do not create additional headers and footers in the template *iejbase.doc*, just modify appropriately.
- Do not use page numbers in text.

If you have any questions regarding layout and presentation, please contact

the IEJ Online Editor by email on:
onlineeditor@iej.cjb.net

FUIIE

The publishers have arranged for the Flinders University Institute of International Education to produce and host an electronic mirror site containing all material in the Journal, accessed free of charge. There are no restrictions on downloading or printing single copies. The electronic version also provides readers with a search tool.

FUIIE web site:
www.flinders.edu.au/education/fuiie

Existentialism, Globalisation and the Cultural Other

Gavin Sanderson

Flinders University gavin.sanderson@flinders.edu.au

Globalisation is not a new phenomenon but the world has never before been subject to global forces that are characterised by such extensity, intensity, velocity and impact. Modern technology and communications effectively compress human time and space and we regard the world as a smaller place. One outcome of this has been greater contact with the 'Cultural Other'. No longer can we think of 'strangers and the strange' as dislocated entities that are peripheral to our own lives¹. For this to be a positive experience for all parties, there are some shortcomings to acknowledge and some hurdles to overcome. Concisely, we have been inconsistent in our efforts to connect with the Cultural Other. Furthermore, current neo-liberal globalisation agendas would not seem to augur well for improving on this record. This paper examines our contemporary engagement with the Cultural Other from an existential perspective and introduces the idea of the 'fear of the unknown' as a foundation of our difficulty in accepting Otherness. It also offers a way forward by means of the internationalisation of the self.

Existentialism, Globalisation, Cultural Other, 'Known Unknown', Internationalisation

INTRODUCTION

This paper was originally going to focus on the impact of world events on tertiary education in Australia. The more thought that was given to the foundation themes it dealt with, however, the more it was realised that they are neither new nor exclusive to education, yet they are at the same critical to it. Perhaps by examining the big picture issues, something valuable might be produced for use in education *per se*. So, rather than focus on curricula or other aspects of higher education, it was decided to consider issues to do with culture and identity as they manifest themselves through our cultural contestant; the Cultural Other. These foundation themes reflect, and belong to, age-old challenges related to culture, politics and power, writ large by contemporary globalisation, which is the catalyst forcing humanity to revisit them. From a cultural point of view, it is 'unfinished business'.

Whilst it may be true that the present milieu is unique in terms of the scope and nature of human activity that is present around the globe, there is a certain 'kitchen table' wisdom in the adage that "there is nothing new under the sun". By this, it is meant that despite the technological, economic and other advances that are features of our world, it is inevitable that our humanistic advancement must sooner or later rely on progress being made in the area of basic principles that relate to understanding each other and acknowledging the legitimacy of other ways of 'knowing and

¹ The use of 'we', 'us' and 'our' throughout this paper pertains to the author's association with Anglo-Australian culture and its historical regard for Otherness. Whilst not setting out to lambast Anglo-Australian culture, it is recognised that its roots cannot be disassociated from an Anglo history of self-styled "cultural pre-eminence" which, as put by Said (1995, p.7) and Hall (1997, p.21), constructs itself as superior to others. Some critical introspection is, therefore, both unavoidable and necessary. Further, it is acknowledged that connectivity between cultures is a two-way street and the best outcomes will be achieved when all parties engage openly and honestly with each other.

being', metaphysically speaking, which may not necessarily be similar to, or consistent with, our own.

This period of 'globalisation', therefore, presents itself like other discernible epochs in which revolutions in social and scientific thought have had profound impact on the ways in which we interpret ourselves, our interactions with others, our surroundings, and our place in the universe. It is an opportunity for change, similar to those leveraged by the material advances of the Bronze and Iron Ages and the Industrial Revolution, and the intellectual vigour which characterised the Renaissance, the Reformation and the Enlightenment. Such paradigmatic shifts in our perspective on material, social and spiritual matters have historically charted the course of human endeavour and presently, we stand on the cusp of an era in which the processes of globalisation look to dramatically influence the transition of human society into the third millennium.

In anticipation of the challenges and opportunities associated with such a transformational period, this paper provides an existential treatment of two topical and related themes; *globalisation* itself, given that is presently the overarching force of change in the world, and the *Cultural Other*, that 'awkward entity' which is increasingly projected into our midst as a result of global forces. Initially, an outline of the main characteristics of existential thought is provided to familiarise the reader with its claims. By establishing key elements such as the basic nature of Existenz², Free Will, Angst, the 'They', and Authenticity, the foundation for paper is provided. This allows a contextualised account of the individual as an existent in a rapidly changing and uncertain world. After this, the idea of the Cultural Other is considered in light of current global processes, which allow greater visibility, portability and contact with Otherness. This leads to the 'fear of the unknown' being advanced as a basis for our reaction to the Cultural Other, especially through the realm of the 'known unknown'. Finally, the idea of 'existential internationalisation' and the way this promotes 'globalisation from below' is briefly put forward as a preferable and positive way to bridge the gap between 'us' and 'them'.

EXISTENTIALISM AND GLOBALISATION

Existentialism

As an introduction to existentialism, consider the summary of the views of Heidegger, Kierkegaard, and Nietzsche, as put by Davis and Miller (1967):

...there is much that is wrong with human nature. Man is an existential being whose life is more than logic and who must discover the meaning of existence. There are no answers to the human predicament to be found in the back of a book; Philosophy is to be lived, something to be proven in action... (p.206).

Existentialism is referred to as a philosophical trend, tendency or attitude, as distinct from a particular dogma or system. Baldwin (1995) indicates that it is a 'loose term' used to describe a diversity of thinkers who resonated with Kierkegaard's rally against Hegel's abstract rationalism in the early 1800s (p.257). Whilst the deliberations of existentialist philosophers do not necessarily sit neatly with each other at all times, writers from the 19th and 20th centuries such as Kierkegaard, Nietzsche, Heidegger, Jaspers, Marcel, de Beauvoir, Merleau-Ponty, Camus and Sartre would be in agreement with the singular notion that 'being' has to take precedence over (rationalist) 'knowledge' in philosophical investigations. Existentialists maintain that human existence is 'basic'. It is, therefore, best studied from inside a subject's experience rather than outside.

² The Danish and German word from which the idea of the 'existing individual' is derived.

The approach takes a first-person or subjective consideration of ultimate questions and believes each self-aware individual understands their own existence in terms of their experience and their situation; their 'station' in life. Much value is placed on the idea of the 'aware self' as a thinking being which has beliefs, hopes, fears, desires, the need to find a purpose, and a will that can determine their actions. With such a brief, it can be clearly seen why existentialism is generally opposed to rationalist and empiricist doctrines that understand the universe as a determined, ordered system in which rationality and natural laws govern all beings and guide human activity. Despite their eschewal of rationality, however, most existentialists have held "that rational clarity is desirable wherever possible, but that the most important questions in life are not accessible to (sic) reason or science" (Encarta 2003).

The idea of free will is central to existentialism and this is the source of both *liberation* and *trepidation*. With regard to the former, it means that people can make choices in their pursuit of a worthwhile life. Not so much for one of indolence and self-indulgence as in *la dolce vita*, but an ethical life which, in line with the thoughts of Kierkegaard, will enable people to "survive the vicissitudes of fortune" (Baldwin 1995, p.259). In a world where no objective universality exists, individuals are supposed to passionately strive for their own realisation of morality and truth (Encarta 2003). With regard to trepidation, many existentialist writers view the changing world as a potentially dangerous place (Pomjam 1992, p.528; Speake 1979, p.115), through which there is no guaranteed safe passage. This is augmented by the notion of the 'They'; a faceless and anonymous power that by deception constantly wears away an individual's personal identity and, according to Heidegger, actively denies a person's authentic existence. By giving way to the 'collective' one's existence becomes depersonalised and inauthentic (Feisner 2003b). At this early stage, we can begin to see how existential considerations have relevance in an era of globalisation where many individuals feel they have little control over their lives.

It is around these two poles that existentialist thought largely revolves, that is, an engagement of free will to make one's way (virtuously) in an insecure world. To this end, existentialists also speak of the *Angst* (translated as 'anxiety' or 'dread') that characterises people's lives on such a journey. Not only is this attributed to the menacing nature of the world. It comes also in that defining moment when one makes the shattering realisation that it is indeed your own choice and your own responsibility to make something of your own self! Kierkegaard holds that it requires a personal commitment to develop 'human love' and 'success' out of the generally 'unsatisfactory nature of life' (Baldwin 1995, p.259). The ultimate outcome of this passionate engagement, for many existentialists, is gaining a sense of one's own identity by living an 'authentic' life. The antithesis of this realisation is to lead an 'inauthentic' existence, likened to an object and not a free person. For some, the transcendence from an inauthentic to an authentic existence is based on individual effort. For others, authenticity is based on recognising and communicating with other free individuals.

Existentialists, in eschewing traditional philosophic and scientific methods, have opened themselves to criticisms over the years. It is reported that they are "deliberately unsystematic in the exposition of their philosophies, preferring to express themselves in aphorisms, dialogues, parables, and other literary forms" (Encarta 2003). Kierkegaard, for example, is considered an "outsider in the history of philosophy" due to his peculiar authorship which "comprises a baffling array of different narrative points of view and disciplinary subject matter" (Feisner 2003a). Heidegger, too, is castigated for having an ontology that was not deductive or systematic in form and "proceeds at times by the exegesis of poetry or the more aphoristic fragments of the pre-Socratic philosophers" (McIntyre 1967, p.543). Another existentialist, Sartre, is accused of skimpy argumentation lacking in rigour and seemingly unaware, or unconcerned by, the metaphorical character of many of his leading ideas (Olafson 1967, p.288). Given these criticisms,

it can be understood why metaphysical speculation has been considered by some to be highly abstract and a flight from reality. Existential and phenomenological philosophers tend to 'write from the soul' and their style is very subjective.

In their defense, existentialists would claim that it is not they who are flying from reality. That aspersion should be cast at those whose detailed observations of the world are blurred by a reductionist methodology that fragments reality in a bid to understand (and control) the 'whole' by determining the essence of the various parts, and the parts of parts, and so on *ad infinitum*. The criticisms against existentialism notwithstanding, existential analysis is valuable in terms of understanding the role of humans as agents in a fluid social setting. In the uncertain, early days of the third millennium, engagement with writers such as Kierkegaard and their "arsenal of rhetoric [that is] designed to deepen the reader's subjective passionate engagement with ultimate existential issues" (Feisner 2003a) provides a useful perspective.

Globalisation

Globalisation "is a reality" (Callinicos 2001, p.19) and is the catalyst for many of the changes currently being experienced by people, social institutions and nations around the world. On an existential level, Rothkop (1997), suggests that it is "the first time in history that virtually every individual at every level of society can sense the impact of international changes. They can see and hear it in their media, taste it in their food, and sense it in the products that they buy" (p.1). The manifestation of this is splendidly portrayed by Hansford (2003), a travel writer who visited the remote Mongolian region north of the Tien Shan mountains, in search of the traditional, semi-nomadic life of the Mongols. After driving for eight hours across "endless country" (p.58), he chanced upon a small outpost of Mongolian yurts (tents) and stayed a night with the nomads. He describes with gusto the deep-seated traditions and social etiquette associated with the way of life of the Mongols and, after enjoying the shared dinner and intense cultural contact, he retired to bed. What happened next shattered Hansford's idealised view of traditional Mongolian culture:

I sat up groggily I had awoken to a nightmare. The bastards had a karaoke box. Whoever was attempting *Shake Your Booty* was murdering it in their second language ... it was a tragic, cross-cultural cacophony ... worse, they had more 70s classic hits [and] worse still, there were only a few, so that the assault came in a sort of random repeat selection from hell. I remember precisely when I lost it. It was 1.17am, and the song was *YMCA* ... West hasn't only met East; it has got it drunk and talked it into bed. There is no corner of the world, no matter how remote, that the consumer culture, the infomercial, the sound byte, the rock video cannot reach. (p.60)

To demonstrate its pervasiveness into our everyday lives, we need only to appeal to common usage of 'global', where it fits quite logically before words such as politics, business, industry, crime, culture, language, education, community, terrorism, communications, music, cuisine, company and environment. There is even a call for the global person; the 'global me', a hybridised, cultural 'mongrel' and a true citizen of the world (G. Pascal Zachary 2000). Neither is there a passive neutrality about globalisation. It is contentious and debatable, as demonstrated by the various camps, which are either for or against it. Depending upon your point of view, globalisation is the phenomenon that will either make or break humanity's ability to survive beyond the next few hundred years. As Goldmark (2002) states succinctly, "the future is open and little is certain. The stakes are enormous" (p.59).

This paper circumvents a detailed description of globalisation per se. The subject is too slippery and labyrinthine to pursue in the scope of the present argument. It needs to be pointed out, however, that a distinction must be drawn between globalisation as a *process* versus the *agendas* that are presently driving much of the global activity. With regard to the former, the writings of

Held, McGrew, Goldblatt and Perraton (1999) are most informative and suggest that the present period of 'global transformations' is historically unprecedented. They usefully describe the essence of globalisation as:

a transformation in the spatial organisation of social relations and transactions – assessed in terms of their extensity, intensity, velocity and impact – generating transcontinental or interregional flows and networks of activity, interaction, and the exercise of power. (p.16)

With regard to the agendas driving the above process, Singh (2002) uses 'neo-liberal globalism' to describe the force behind much of the present global activity. It is the extension of power by the powerful for their own vested interests. In doing so, the polarisation between, for example, 'rich' and 'poor', 'winners' and 'losers', and the 'included' and 'excluded' is reinforced. On a global scale, this perpetuates the increasingly disproportionate gap between the 'over-developed North' - which 'globalises from above' through corporations, multilateral agencies, policy experts, and national governments - and the 'under-developed, over-exploited South'.

Singh (2002) is not alone in this view and a search of the literature uncovers a deal of scepticism about the motives underwriting current global processes (Appadurai 2001; Arnove and Torres 1999; Bauman 1997; Beare and Slaughter 1995; Burbach, Orlando and Kagarlitsky 1997; Callinicos 2001; Currie 1998, p.2; Dudley 1998, pp.24-25; Keegan 1992; Marginson 1999/2000; Pilger 2002; Slade 1998; Slade 2002; Soros 2002; Stiglitz 2002; Tikly 2001). Much of the discontent is a response to the neo-liberal doctrine which appreciates human identities and relationships in terms of the instrumental value they have for capitalist economies (Marginson 1999/2000, p.5). With the collapse of communism, however, there is presently no ideological worldview which can offer an alternative to the preponderate West, riding on the wave of 'US triumphalism'. This is not to suggest that communism, as we have seen it practiced, is the answer. It shows, however, a different worldview can be entertained which might challenge the idea that 'democracy' necessarily entails the prevailing form of 'capitalism'. For the moment, the reality is that globalisation is based on a worldview of Western capitalism. This being the case, whatever liberating capacity that globalisation (as described by Held et al [1999]) has for the idea of 'culture' is presently subject to how useful this is in terms of the neo-liberal ideological paradigm.

Globalisation and Existentialism

The idea that 'existence is basic' is apt in an age of the global reach of capitalism, competition and consumerism. We tend to be swept up in fads and fashions that steer us away from making deep connections with ourselves, one another, and to the planet which sustains us. Blainey (2000) cautions us against relying more and more on science and technology which, he suggests, is increasingly dislocating us from traditional understandings and activities which have the capacity to give us a thorough and meaningful existence (pp.583-601). As if to herald the arrival of post-structuralist thought, three decades ago Fink (1972) spoke of our age as "characterised by the noise of the machine" (p.73) whilst Jaspers (1972) painted a dim view of modernity as suppressing individuality (pp.118-120). Hyland (1972) lamented of the infinitude of life in a world where "our day-to-day lives are shot through with incompleteness" (p.94) and Harper (1972) despaired over the oppressive nature of contemporary society (pp.99-101). These themes are equally as evident today as they were in the 1970s. In fact, it could be argued that they have been exacerbated.

As mentioned, existentialists have an acute interest in the individual as an 'existent' as they engage with the challenges that daily life throws before them. The contemporary world is one that has the capacity to extend people in both positive and negative ways; more correctly, it is our personal response to the world that is positive or negative. The current milieu can elicit a range of

responses from individuals. It can simultaneously be exciting, rewarding and complementary as well as depressing, disenfranchising and debilitating. Furthermore, it is logically possible for an individual to entertain both optimistic and pessimistic psychological poles at once. For example, one can be excited at the work potential that a globalised world offers, but uncertain what the workplace may become in terms of skill sets that may be required, as well as ideas associated with expectations, effectiveness, organisational support, security and promotion. In our lifetime we have gone from the concept of “jobs for life” to one of no such certitude. Most likely, for many it will mean having to pursue disparate ‘contract’ careers over a working life to remain gainfully employed. Whilst the former is not necessarily a natural state of affairs, it was *the* state of affairs until recently.

The point is that things have changed and regardless of the anecdote that “change is the only constant”, most people gravitate to the security of what they know because its familiarity, comfort, and predictive certainty represents a safe haven from their opposites. As Appadurai (2001) suggests, however, far from being a period of certainty, for many the processes and outcomes of globalisation promote the opposite feeling (pp.1-2). To elaborate, when thinking of the implications of operating in a global setting, the Chinese talk of *xiahai* - plunging into the ocean (of the risky business world), and *yu shijie jiegui* - linking up with the rail tracks of the world (Zhang 2001, pp.131-132). Whilst these market-related associations hold promise for growth, what if you are fearful of (metaphorically) drowning in the vast ocean, running off the rails, or having the currents or tracks take you to places you don’t want to go?

Whilst it is true that life itself is unpredictable and that ‘risk’ and ‘reward’ often go hand-in-hand, for many people the world is presently a place that is moving ahead too rapidly, on a scale that makes them feel that they no longer have control of events that impact on their lives³, let alone making a difference in society at large, whether at a local, regional or global level. As Giddens (1999) puts it, ours is a transformative, “runaway world” in which little-understood global processes are affecting almost every aspect of what we do “for better or worse” (p.1). Singer (2002), too, indicates that globalisation is “out of control” (p.11). Whilst the developed world entered the twentieth century with huge expectations and excitement, the same ebullience did not characterise our transition into the twenty-first century. Enter the existential component to our lives in the sense that it is timely to talk about the problem of simply ‘being’ in a universe that seems to be less determined, less ordered and less controllable than what rationalists and empiricists would have had us believe in the past few hundred years.

This is particularly so in terms of our present ‘social’ universe which is comprised of ever more complex interactions between human beings at a time in which there are more of us, going more places, exchanging more ideas and things in more ways, and aided by increasingly sophisticated technological means. It is understandable that there exists an uncertainty in our lives because of our increasingly ‘moment-to-moment’ existence which places life as a promissory note that seemingly can be cashed only if one runs faster and longer to embrace the means that are required to deliver contemporary ends. As Giddens (1999) suggests, the implications of more than a trillion US dollars changing hands on world markets each day is an indication that we are living not just in a new era, but in revolutionary times (p.2). How, then, does one regard one’s ‘existence’ in times like this? Especially given that the ‘superhighway’ vision of life in the new millennium is juxtaposed against a ‘collapse of certainty’ whose roots lay in a ‘cultural crisis’ that appeared in industrialised countries at the end of the 1960s, and was based on a disappointment that neither

³ The question might be asked if we *really* ever have had such control (especially of the physical world)?

science and technology, nor middle-class values, were providing general peace, wealth, and happiness (de Landsheere 1997, pp.13-14).

The path to 'authenticity', then, is not clearly laid out. Moreover, confusion exists because of the asynchronous state of affairs between the Cartesian-Newtonian philosophical framework that still underwrites our society, and the need to embrace new ways of thinking to meet the demands of the globalising world. Here we can see the foundations of the existential Angst. There is also the compounding effect of the 'They'; not only the faceless transnational corporations and government instrumentalities, but also the Cultural Other, looming close as a threat to our individual economies (through internationalised labour forces and markets) as well as in terms of the gradual disappearance of many traditional national cultural identities through changes in the dynamic and make-up of the nation-state⁴ (Hall 1997, p.22). Our interactions with the Cultural Other is the 'unfinished business' alluded to in the Introduction and we are being forced to address this issue because of current global forces.

GLOBALISATION AND THE CULTURAL OTHER

Goldmark (2002) sets the scene for this section by suggesting that two themes are presently intersecting to "make the crossroads at which we stand uniquely fateful" (p.53). On one hand, we have a trend which he says is as old as human history itself and takes the shape of 'cultural ways' which, through long-standing beliefs, have defined and differentiated various groups of people for millennia. The other trend has been building for about one hundred and fifty years and culminates in the form of contemporary globalisation, underwritten by Western technology and systems of economic activity and marketing. It is the space which is created by the meeting of these two notions which is of interest to Goldmark and this paper. The idea of the Cultural Other is intimately associated with globalisation, for it is about who *we* are and who *they* are and what happens when the two meet. It is about *our* world and *their* world and what happens when they both collide. It is about me and you, the colonists and the colonised, the cultured and the barbarian, the familiar and the strange, the in-group and out-group, A-groupers and B-groupers, the North and the South, G. Pascal Zachary's (2000) 'family and foreigners, native and exile, friend and foe' (p.278), Said's (1995) 'us and them' (p.43), Singh's (2002) 'insiders and outsiders' (p.5), and Mahbubani's (2002) 'West and the Rest' (p.13).

Worldwide economic, political, cultural and technological activities have had the effect of taking the global to the local and vice versa (Dudley 1998, p.25). Not only has neo-liberal globalism taken McWorld⁵ to countries and cultures all over the Earth, but first world nations, too, are being exposed more intimately and frequently to what once lay at the periphery; other people and other things. Non-Western ideas, images, artefacts, bric-a-brac, peoples and cultures, which have been on the whole spatially and cognitively separate from us are now projected into *our* midst. The (fast becoming ubiquitous) Cultural Other takes on many abstract and concrete forms. It can be a theme or an image from a story, a book or a movie. It can be a food, a fad, a festival, or a religion. It can be a currency, an investment, a development, a product, or a competitor. It can be an immigrant, a tourist, a sports competitor, or a student. It can be a military force. In the eyes of nation states (increasingly concerned with ideas of sovereignty in terms of 'territory' and 'citizenry' in light of recent ideological activities), however, whilst the Cultural Other may be

⁴ Whilst one may be forgiven for thinking that existentialism is negatively reactive because of a seeming predilection for angst, dread and a belief that the world is an inherently sinister place, keep in mind that existential writers see it as an individual's responsibility to be passionately engaged with life and attempt to rise above all of this.

⁵ 'McWorld' is used by Barber (2001) to represent the Americanisation of 'world culture'.

among us to greater extents, it is not without some tension, for essentially they are unlike us. They are not us.

Traditionally, Otherness has been of instrumental value vis-à-vis *novelty*. It might be a curio or a showpiece of something acquired out of interest or through travel or conquest. For example, just as platypuses and echidnas were sent back to England to show what a strange and exotic place the new outpost was⁶, so too was Bennelong, a member of the Wangal people, sent by Governor Phillip to England in 1793 to be presented to King George III (Barani 2003). Not as a traditional native, but gentrified in English apparel and speaking English, as depicted in Figure 1. A black man made white through having been civilised; an experiment in “softening, enlightening and refining a barbarian” (Barani 2003). Otherness contained, controlled and sanitised. An adornment of the powerful. A piece of the collection, which demonstrated the reach and control of, in this case, Britannia. Bennelong would have been aware of his marginality, “by the nature of the ‘English eye’, the all-encompassing ‘English eye’ ... strongly centred; knowing where it is, what it is, it places everything else” (Hall 1997, pp.20-21).



Figure 1. An undated portrait, believed to be of Bennelong (Barani 2003)

When non-menacing, Cultural Others can be tolerated by virtue of their instrumentality. What, then, of the Cultural Other “out of the box”? This would be an aberration in the scheme of things and a threat to the status quo. Imagine if Bennelong had intimated to King George III that he so loved England that he would like his people to live their traditional life there. In fact, he so loved the grounds in the vicinity of Buckingham Palace that he would like to camp there! In fact, he was so smitten with Queen Charlotte that he would like to take her as his (third) wife! The reason that this starts to come across somewhat humorously is that it demonstrates where the boundaries lay which ultimately separate insiders and outsiders. Should Bennelong have pursued these interests as in *seriously* pursued them, he quickly would have been made aware of his place. ‘Humorously’ would have become ‘humorlessly’! A modern day example of ‘culture-out-of-place’ is provided by Hall (1997) who emigrated from the West Indies to Britain. His observation is of the migration of outsiders from the periphery to the centre, and it infers the consternation that this caused in

⁶ Compare this remote, fascinating appreciation with the way that many convicts and the overseers of their incarceration viewed the new land; not as Utopia but Dystopia. A harsh, unforgiving, foreboding, alien landscape and environment (Hughes 1987, pp.1-2).

'old' Britain by the transformation of a previously sacred touchstone for most nation-states; that of a national cultural identity:

There is a tremendous paradox here which I cannot help relishing myself; that in the very moment when Britain finally convinced itself it had to decolonise, it had to get rid of them, we all came back home. As they hauled down the flag, we got on the banana boat and sailed right into London ... they had ruled the world for three hundred years and ... when they had made up their minds to climb out of that role, at least the others ought to have stayed out there in the rim, behaved themselves, gone somewhere else, or found some other client state. No, they had always said that this was really home, the streets were paved with gold and, bloody hell, we just came to check out whether that was so or not. (p.24)

Sans instrumentality, tolerance is abandoned and the veil is lifted; Cultural Others are not entirely welcome or trustworthy, let alone accepted and understood. They are more commonly regarded with a "traditional, latent mistrust a Westerner feels towards the Oriental" (Said 1995, p.286). It has to be said that such a view is an imperially-derived false position 'from afar and above' and is borne from circumstance, privilege, arrogance and prejudice. It smacks of insecurity and extends to xenophobia and an aggressive, race-oriented nationalism based on a fear of a change in power relations.

The challenge for the West, then, is how to respond to the increasingly omnipresent Cultural Other given that our worldview (the way we think about ourselves and Otherness) is not surprisingly determined by our western ideology, ontology and epistemology. How does this affect the way in which we deal with people from cultural backgrounds different from our own, in a period that is challenging the view of a "supposedly stable binary opposition" (Said 1995, p.334) of a (submissive) East and a (dominant) West? In addition, if it is popularly held that there is nothing that can be learned from the Cultural Other, what possibilities are there for transformative encounters to open our identities to change? To also see the world through their eyes and in doing so, become something more than we presently are (Marginson 1999-2000, p.5), whether at the level of an individual, an institution, a nation, or a civilisation.

This challenge would seem even more pertinent, given the prediction that "the 21st century is forecast to be the 'Asia-Pacific' century" (Jones 1996, preface). Implicit in this view is the ascendancy of the Orient, led by China's burgeoning economy. "The Chinese dragon, asleep for a century or so, is now awakening with a vengeance [and is] on the verge of becoming a Superpower, if it is not already one" (Murray 2000, p.259). The implications for the West of a vastly more powerful East (in the broadest sense and including the resurgence of Islam) in our lifetime are stark and all parties will be tested by their ability to achieve more than a superficial interconnectedness. This is one of the challenges for education in the twenty-first century; learning to live together (International Commission on Education for the Twenty-First Century 1996, pp.91-94). Of crossing barriers rather than maintaining them (Said 1995, pp.336-337). Indeed, of dismantling barriers in the process of crossing them. The question remains, however, of whether or not we have the genuine desire, interest, and fortitude to do this, or whether our actions will be stalled by an inability (or unwillingness) to evaluate, then embrace, the requirements for a positive relationship with Otherness.

AN EXISTENTIAL BASIS FOR THE CULTURAL OTHER: FEAR OF THE UNKNOWN

We come into the world with deep, gut fears ... we fear the unknown, we fear the unfamiliar, and we are hostile to whatever we fear. (DJ Westbam 2002, p.94)

This section of the paper introduces a fundamental idea as a reason why we have struggled to engage with the Cultural Other. By no means is it the only reason, but it may well be one which underwrites others which manifest themselves as prejudice, bias and bigotry towards Cultural Others. It is the ‘fear of the unknown’ and it is basic. It is also existential, for it speaks to the way that individuals relate to their world. To introduce the idea, consider the statement “Everything is known; even the unknown”. On the face of it, this seems paradoxical, for how can you know that which you do *not* know? Philosophically, to understand its meaning and import for how the West, in particular, constructs a foundation for the Cultural Other, we must enquire about the way we view our ‘reality’. It is a metaphysical question relating to the study of existence itself and, therefore, an appeal to the ontology of a Western world, which, over the past few centuries, has increasingly given privilege to mechanistic science as the most legitimate way of ‘knowing’.

A Western individual would seem, upon first inspection, to have a worldview, or *weltanschauung*, which gravitates towards, largely revolves around, gives precedence to, and is granted substance by things which are ‘known’ in a formal, structured (empirical) way. Through the complex processes of socialisation in the broadest sense, each of us over the years constructs a view of our surroundings in terms of its material and non-material parameters. We hold such belief systems, comprised of our conceptions of value and fact, very close. They are both a badge and a touchstone for our individual and collective identities and a means to make sense of things that happen around us. From an interpretive and phenomenological point of view, ‘our world’ is that which we figuratively own and with which we are most intimate, and whilst intimacy does not necessarily imply acceptance or contentment, critical understanding or enlightenment, it does indicate a deep familiarity and affinity with constructs that give meaning to our life.

For contemporary Westerners, the environment in which this social conditioning takes place is underwritten to a large extent by great reliance on the methods of natural scientific enquiry to authenticate what exists and what does not, what is useful and what is not, and what should be believed and what should not. Our organised, empirical science is seen as a paradigm of human rationality and one of the best accredited candidates for letting us know what ‘knowledge’ is (Speake 1979, p.319). It defines reality in terms of what can be empirically substantiated and has put its stamp on ‘grand Western themes’ over several centuries. Indeed, such has been its influence over the years that it has given rise to the traditionalist belief in many quarters that science transcends any set of social conditions and, therefore, its methods are applicable to all areas of human activity (Charlesworth 1982, p.36).

It is no surprise, then, that this ‘instrumental rationality’, in which practical problems can be viewed as technical issues and solved by a Weberian means-ends scheme, has become pervasive in the Western worldview (Lakowski 1997, pp.168-169). Normal science is technological, reductionist and compartmentalised and our lives reflect this ‘realist ontology’ where, “if it can’t be seen or measured, it is not meaningful to talk about” (Phillips 1987, p.39). For many rationalists, anything else (for example, intuitive and qualitative ways of knowing) is just the “folklore of unjustified assumptions ... [which uses] woolly armchair philosophising” (Burns 1999, p.4) to provide its knowledge claims. It is the stuff of sewing circle conversation. ‘Knowing our world’, then, would appear to be a fairly cut and dried exercise using a Cartesian-Newtonian philosophical framework. We empirically know the whole through the component parts *ergo* for us it exists.

Logically, however, our reality *has to be more* than made up of what we know, for in having an idea of this, it necessarily follows that we must also admit the existence of its antagonist, the ‘unknown’; things that lie beyond the immediacy of our senses, our understanding or our comprehension. Whether these are phenomena of the material world, the intricacies of our social interactions, or noumena relating to spiritual realms, there are areas which are profoundly

challenging for our Western selves in terms of the difficulty we have in discerning their substance through physical perception and intellectual processes within our philosophical framework. Classic examples would be, respectively, questions dealing with the origin and extent of the Universe, moral and ethical behaviour, and the existence of God. For most individuals, however, the 'unknown' need not be on the scale these primary questions. It is more likely to be existential in nature and arises from the business of going about daily life; "What is it really like?", "What is meant by that?", "Why did they do that?", "What is happening to me?", "What do they want?", and "Can I believe it?". Regardless of the gaps in comprehension and appreciation that we may have for first order questions or daily life matters, the voids which constitute them *still contribute* to the wholeness of our substance.

It follows that our world is synthesised from both the 'known' and the 'unknown'. It makes little sense to talk about reality as simply what we empirically know, for even with a battery of technological tools and scientific prowess, at this stage we do not have explanations for all things by empirical means. Moreover and most importantly, how we regard what we do not know and the place that this occupies in our psyche plays a big part in the way we carry ourselves. To demonstrate this, consider an example from history. As recent as 600 B.C. the entire universe "was but a patch of flat ground, and not a very large patch either" (Asimov, 1967, p.1) The Earth was flat⁷ and one of the implications of going beyond the horizon was that eventually you would fall off the edge and into oblivion!

...people could not approach the end [of the Earth] unless they boarded a ship and sailed out of sight of land; far out of sight. As late as the time of Columbus, in fact, this was a very real fear for many seamen. (Asimov 1967, p.3)

Here we have an example of the limits of our landscape being 'known' in an empirical sense and anything past that reference point being 'unknown' in that it was out of the reach of experience and measurement. It might sound as if the latter was an 'emptiness', but it was far from that, thanks to our fertile imagination. Both the 'known' and the 'unknown' had character and substance and both contributed to the worldview of the people of that time.

The 'flat earth' example makes it clear that the 'unknown' can be 'known'; not empirically, but more as an abstraction through the cognitive process of imagination. If a boat did not return, the inductive generalisation that the world ends 'out there in the distance' would have been legitimised. But what was the 'beyond' and what happened there? If they fell, how far did they fall? Forever? Or a short distance onto jagged rocks? Perhaps it was a fiery place, inhabited by demons and monsters. Most likely, for they would be the sorts of things that are found in places like that. Collective conjecture and popular consensus made this a real place; a 'known unknown' which would have been very real for the people of the time. It is no use saying that the 'unknown' did not form part of their reality. They knew it well and the psychological and physiological responses of the press-ganged unfortunates or soon-to-sail intrepid adventurers and the onlookers bidding them farewell from shore would have affirmed this. The 'unknown' is not neutral, nor a void or a vacuum. It is a fecund place which is replete with all manner of things. It is the monster under the bed, the 'min-min' light of the outback, the yowie in the bush, and the bunyip in the billabong. The 'known unknown' puts the dragon in the cave, the monster in the loch, the bigfoot in the forest, the UFO in the sky and their alien pilots at Roswell. Applied to culture, it both defines and makes us fearful of the 'marauding' Japanese, the 'inscrutable' Chinese, the Aboriginal 'savage', the 'fanatical' Muslim, and, as of late, the 'dangerously unpredictable' North Koreans.

⁷ Some people still hold this to be a truth. See <http://www.flat-earth.org/>

The categories of the ‘known’ and the ‘unknown’ are fluid and this is a simple way to portray the way our Western societies have expanded their knowledge base over the centuries. When the ‘unknown’ is experienced, thought to be understood, and held to be a ‘truth’ by those invested with the power of ratification, the view that people have of their world adjusts accordingly. To continue with the maritime example, when sailors consistently returned from ventures far from over the horizon and brought back evidence of other lands, their peoples and flora and fauna, it demonstrated that old ways of thinking about things had to make way for new realities. By no means did this make redundant the realm of the ‘unknown’. It simply shifted the boundaries. Even when beyond the horizon was recognised as not being the end of the world, there were still unexplored territories that the League of Cartographers illustrated as uncharted spaces inhabited by giant, terrible, ship-swallowing sea beasts, as depicted in Figure 2. The maxim of the mapmakers was “where lies the unknown, there put the terrors” and the various monsters they portrayed patrolling these nether regions indicated “here there be dragons”.

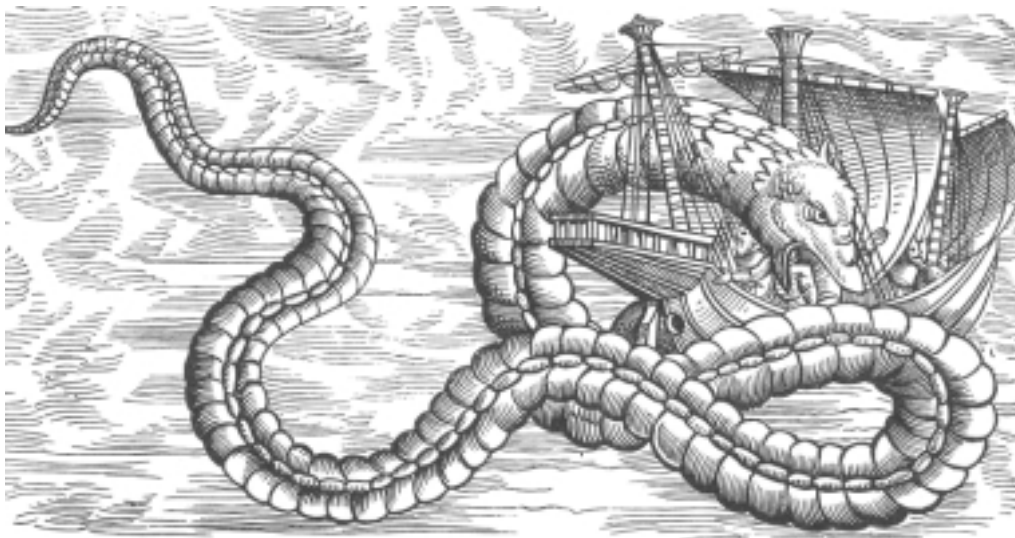


Figure 2. Sea-serpent attacking a vessel (Gould 1886, p.266)

In a sense, this vivid, visceral apprehension of the ‘unknown’ continues to have import for many of us today. People may scoff at the idea of falling off the edge of the world in a ship, but they might reserve their judgment on what a black hole in deep space might do to stellar explorers. Or closer to home, and therefore more relevant, what implications a hole in the ozone layer, global warming, increasing salinity, genetically modified foods, biological terrorism, and radioactive waste all might have for our lives. Whilst the unknown does not necessarily have to conjure up images of terror, the nautical example serves to illustrate how we often regard it as potentially intimidating, ominous, threatening, dangerous, harmful, malevolent, malicious and uncontrollable.

Although there is no denying that some may view the ‘unknown’ quite differently and ascribe to it a sense of wonderment, awe, amazement, admiration and mystery, its darker side lies foremost in the majority of modern, secular Western minds. As a result of profound and increasing dislocation from our natural environment and a sense of social disintegration due to holding onto an anachronistic philosophical framework which is dependent on “a narrowly conceived, outdated interpretation of the mechanistic worldview of Cartesian-Newtonian science” (Slade 2002, p.29), we in the West resonate more with a ‘fear of the unknown’ than anything approaching an inquisitiveness about it, a reasoned assessment of it, an integration into it, or a veneration for it.

The 'Known Unknown' and the Cultural Other

The import that the 'fear of the unknown' has for our image of the Cultural Other is profound. It sets us on the back foot immediately and creates a protective buffer between what we know and what we do not know. The distancing effect keeps us from *really* knowing the unknown. By the same token, the distance provides the space for our imagination to go about its business, thereby creating the 'known unknown'. To be sure, we may not know 'them' but at the same time we know *them* intimately. This is not a play on words, nor illogical or nonsensical. For example, in the late 1800s, most Australians would not have known much about the country or the people of Russia. Yet, as rumours grew that the Russian Fleet was going to invade the south coast of Australia (of all places!) in 1877–78 and again in 1885, the Russians *became* known to us. Who were they? No longer were they just inhabitants of a large country in the northern hemisphere. They were the potential expansionists, the invaders, the occupiers, and the plunderers. Obviously a callous race that wanted our place in the sun; the home that we had worked so hard to build for ourselves; the Utopia we created out of Dystopia. Doubtless, they would enslave our men, take our women for their own, maltreat our children and rewrite our history with theirs. (Paradoxically, although this is fearsome for us, Anglo-Australian culture did this very thing to the Aboriginal populations in Australia).

We may not have *really* known much about the Russians but we knew them well enough for the perceived threat to prompt moves for the states of Australia to join together in a federation for protection (Endersbee 1999). South Australians knew this well enough to construct coastal forts with artillery cannons that pointed offshore to halt the invaders as they sailed up the Gulf of St Vincent⁸. The same 'knowing of the unknown' can be said of the Japanese in World War II, and the communists who followed in the 1950s, and the spectre of Islam that emerged after the end of the Cold War. Adams (2003) captures the Australian angst over fear of invasion when he recounts a conversation he had with Kim Beazley, a former Minister of Defence in the federal government and longstanding member of the Australian Labor Party:

Beazley is obsessed with Australia's vulnerability and, shortly before the election, told me: 'Australia's future is not secure. We are an anomaly and nature abhors an anomaly just as it does a vacuum'. Not convinced that Australia as we know it will exist in 20 or 30 years, he seems to seek security in defence rather than diplomacy. (p.13)

Whilst these invasion-related examples might represent the extreme end of what constitutes the 'unknown' (as in a sense of 'threat', imaginary or otherwise), they do serve to make the point.

A contemporary example is the 'known unknown' associated with living in a society such as Australia with many cultures, and being confronted with difference. How many Anglo-Australians have an appreciation of Muslims *as people* with hopes and dreams who, like us, aspire to lead worthwhile and productive lives? Instead of getting to know Muslims at this level, the majority of us go little further than to understand them in their capacity as the 'known unknown' which most likely is generated by the media and social intercourse that leads "outsiders [to] perceive the religion as irretrievably wedded to terrorism" (The Australian 2003, p.26).

What is missing here is the recognition and acceptance of different groups of people pursuing broadly common goals, but in different ways (Burbules 1996). From the outset, this is unproductive and obstructs the way forward. It leads no further than the stereotyping of groups, the outcome of which is perhaps the central tenet of Said's (1995) treatise on Orientalism. Of stereotypes, Said puts the question "Who are the Arabs?" and continues with a common Western

⁸ Fort Glanville and the guns at Fort Largs still stand in evidence of this.

assessment of them (as portrayed in movies) as lecherous, bloodthirsty, dishonest, “oversexed degenerates, capable, it is true, of cleverly devious intrigues, but essentially sadistic, treacherous, low. Slave trader, camel driver, moneychanger, colourful scoundrel” (pp.286-287). When the ‘known unknown’ defines the Cultural Other, no ground is gained. Instead, defences are erected and there is a galvanising of the “opposition between ‘us’ and ‘them’, resulting in a sense of reinforced, deepened, hardened identity that has not been particularly edifying” (Said 1995, p.335). This is the sort of thinking that leads to such social paralysis as evidenced by the recent incident where a New South Wales council was accused of racism when they overwhelmingly rejected an application for the construction of a mosque in the Baulkham Hills Shire in late 2002:

Council rejected the application 10-2 on the grounds it was not compatible with the area, not in the public interest and not considered to be in accordance with the shared beliefs, customs and values of the local community. The councilors also claimed residents expressed fear that if the application was approved it may not meet sewage and wastewater requirements. (Ninemsn 2002)

Clearly Muslims are intolerable because they have a *different* architectural aesthetic, have *different* beliefs, do things *differently*, and have *different* values. As if this is not distressing enough, it is also intimated that they have different standards of personal hygiene! Hardly an enlightened approach in a country that is supposed to celebrate many cultures harmoniously living in one place and patriotically proclaiming “We are one, but we are many. And from all the lands on earth we come. We share a dream and sing with one voice: I am, you are, we are Australians”⁹. Is it, as the second last line of the chorus suggests, just a dream to “sing with one voice”?

EXISTENTIAL INTERNATIONALISATION AS A WAY FORWARD

This section briefly offers a way forward, but one not without a challenge. The caveat is that seeing humanity is still struggling with issues of understanding, acceptance and tolerance of *each other* as the Cultural Other after thousands of years, it is not expected that the panacea will be found in a few paragraphs here. Nevertheless, it is useful to consider how, if only as individuals, we might make some progress in this area. If enough people do this, some social momentum may be transferred into meaningful change and a more productive regard for Otherness. The fact that we have not spontaneously and collectively embraced it yet, whether as individuals or societies, indicates that it has not been consistently on the agenda, for one reason or another. Furthermore, this has probably been exacerbated since the signing of the Treaty of Westphalia in 1648 which ushered in the idea of the sovereign, nation-state and packaged national cultural identity with geopolitical realities. The way forward is no secret. It is to internationalise our personal selves in a bid to produce a very different relationship between internationalisation and globalisation than the biased, instrumental one offered by neo-liberal globalism.

Internationalisation and globalisation are two concepts that are poorly understood. Most people struggle to understand the meaning of each as separate phenomena. Little wonder, then, that the relationship between them is a further source of confusion. Whilst acknowledging that there are manifold complexities involved, put simply, internationalisation is both a response to, and an agent of, globalisation (Knight 1999, p.14). The former happens because of the latter and is also a contribution towards it. Most of the time, the discourse around internationalisation is concerned with the structural adjustments and initiatives that institutions (universities, for example) take on board to respond to global forces. Nevertheless, an analogy can be made between ‘change’ in

⁹ The chorus from “I am Australian”, a song written by the Seekers in the 1960s and sung these days to celebrate our ‘multiculturalism’. Full lyrics are available at <http://www.srosurf.com/austant2.html>

institutions and 'change' in individuals. An existential notion is leveraged by the Japanese word 'kokusaika' which means a process of "self-change" or "self-reform". For the Japanese, 'kokusaika' implies that they change something about themselves due to international influences (Horie 2002, p.65). Whilst 'themselves' in the Japanese context may actually refer to 'the self' as a collective (as in 'we Japanese'), it still has utility when applied to the idea of personal, individual change.

The reason why change is necessary should be abundantly clear by now but in case a reminder is needed, Goeudevert's (2002) claim that "encounters with the unfamiliar, concrete experiences of difference, incongruities and inequalities will continue to increase, not despite, but because of globalisation" should suffice (p.45). After all, this is the time of Marshall McLuhan's 'global village' where "time has ceased and space has vanished" (McLuhan and Fiore 1967, p.63) and Bauman's (1997) "Alterity (sic) is here today and here to stay" (p.30). Individuals or organisations who choose to ignore this will be a "lonely lot" who will "grow lonelier still" (G. Pascal Zachary 2000, p.278). To stand still is to risk becoming an anachronism. To fail to move forward is to play with the same old deck of social cards which contain a suite of prejudice, bias and bigotry that struggles with notions of connectivity, interdependency, reciprocity and plurality.

In response to the need for change, whilst it was said that the way forward is no secret, it does actually contain a secret. To internationalise the self, one needs to have some understanding not only of the Cultural Other but also of oneself. It is manifestly clear that as much as we need to engage with ideas of Otherness, there is a necessity to *dis*-engage with one's own identity and self-reflect on its construction. This prerequisite is acknowledged by a number of writers; "...before we can recognize the 'Other', we have to know ourselves well" (Stromquist 2002); "Only when we have clearly defined our own person and identity are we able to understand other identities" (Breuer 2002, p.15); "Respect for the other presupposes that a person has considerable self-awareness" (Djebar 2002, p.229); "...if one is to understand others, one must first understand oneself" (International Commission on Education for the Twenty-first Century 1996, p.93); "...a degree of confident self awareness is not necessarily to be seen as a conservative force in society. It can be a pre-condition for a sustained program of social or economic revival" (Milner 1996, p.17).

The message seems clear. This is the initial and necessary step in comprehending, accepting, and working with Otherness. It is a personal "turn"; a change of focus, analogous to the turns that Heidegger made from theology to philosophy and then into phenomenology to help interpret Aristotle's works (Fieser, 2003b). It is taking a step back from how we have seen our place in the world and asking "Why do we think like we do?", "Why do we react like this?", "Why do we see you like that?", and "What discourses and narratives have led us to respond to you like we do?". It is looking out through looking in. Knowing what is outside by knowing what is inside. It is perhaps the fundamental activity that Said (1995) would have us undertake to understand Otherness. Honesty in inspecting one's personal philosophical framework is not an easy task and it requires openness and detachment, underwritten by a self-referential consistency and a willingness to step outside what is acceptable, even fashionable, and perhaps expected (Gibbons and Sanderson 2002, p.4). The challenge is well made and committing to it might possibly give us a lens through which we can see the unknown, in this case the Cultural Other, for what it is and allay the fears that we have had of it.

Equally challenging, however, is Slade's (2002) reminder that the kind of philosophical self-awareness and critical self-reflection required for such introspective engagement is neither a feature of contemporary life in Australia, nor the current focus of education at any level (p.25). Our rhetoric may be that of openness, pluralism, tolerance, flexibility, and transparency, but the litmus test is to see how this is reflected in practice. As Goeudevert (2002) suggests:

If we brush aside the buzzwords, we discover that most of us live ‘in one spot’, that we have remained what Schlegel once described as nothing but – more or less – rational oysters. Immobile and inward-looking, rigid, tight-lipped, and tormented by fears of loss, we hide our ‘pearls’ away without realizing that the value of these riches can only truly be appreciated through the eyes of others and in dialogue with them. (p.44)

Again, there is a way forward but it is not easy. Individually and collectively, we may not want to do it and we may not like what we find. This sort of internationalisation entails a risk, but no greater risk than that posited by ‘short-sighted populism’ which, according to Kalantzis and Cope (2000), is a political reaction against the effects of globalisation which translates to “let’s go back to the certitudes of the Aussie past” (p.32). This sort of retreat from internationalisation, suggests Slade (2002), puts Otherness at the “mercy of circumstances” (p.26). It would promote a national identity in Australia that is based on fear; “fear of others, fear of ideas, fear of a future different from the past ... is what is basest in Australians” (Flanagan 2002, p.5).

Quite remarkably, this personal journey of *deconstruction* and *reconstruction* turns current conceptions of internationalisation and globalisation on their head. It is a revolutionary way of thinking about things and equates to ‘strong’ internationalisation, which globalises from the ‘bottom up’. Appadurai’s (2001) notion of weak and strong internationalisation, although specifically directed at the enterprise of academic research, is relevant to the internationalisation of the self. The former is essentially a superficial engagement with the issues whilst the latter is a laborious, even contentious, deeper, more sophisticated and genuine desire to explore what it means to become internationalised (p.16). In turn, strong internationalisation of the self would be congruent with Appadurai’s (2001) notion of “grassroots globalization”; a way of ‘globalising from below’ (p.3). It represents an opportunity for humanistic advancement in the face of the domination of present neo-liberal, neo-conservative, and implicit neo-colonial agendas influencing politics, economics and culture. Whilst it may not solve the great antinomies of power that characterise the world, it might help level the playing field (Appadurai 2001, p.20).

CONCLUSION

This paper has examined several themes that relate to our contemporary engagement with the Cultural Other. From the outset, the platform of existentialism was used as a reference point to investigate globalisation and the way that global forces are leading to increased contact with Otherness. The rationale was that an existential consideration is useful because it takes into consideration how individuals go about constructing their lives in uncertain times. The ‘dangerous’ world in which they live is filled with obstacles not only from the far-reaching effects of neo-liberal globalism, but also the way in which global forces project Otherness, especially in the form of the Cultural Other, into the West. After considering the nature of globalisation and the Cultural Other, as well as some existential relationships between them, the ‘fear of the unknown’ was advanced as being fundamental to an explanation of the difficulty that we have had in regarding Otherness. From this, the idea of the ‘known unknown’ was put forward as a way that we commonly regard Otherness through stereotyping, rather than making a concerted effort to know and accept its substance. Finally, existential internationalisation was offered as a means by which individuals and communities could move forward in terms of understanding Cultural Others through taking the initial step to understand themselves. It is through the deconstruction of our own identity that we can begin to appreciate what we stand for and how we see the world, including how and why we construct Otherness as we do.

As much as the paper stepped back from notions of education per se, its deliberations nevertheless inform the bigger picture of the sorts of things that would be useful when considering what we should be educated *for*. That is, the argument throughout clearly supports a call for curricula that

prepares people for life in a world that is changing rapidly. To be sure, education needs to make us competent in terms of vocational skills and technical proficiency, but it also needs to equip us better for life and work in a world where the dynamic associated with traditional national borders, whilst still a powerful agent of separation and regulation, is itself subject to change. This is particularly so with reference to the cross-border flows of culture, people and ideas. If our education does not take up this challenge, then all we will do is create more efficient and technical ways of extending hegemonies and partitioning pockets of people from each other. That is, 'difference' will become more accentuated, more complete, more institutionalised, and more divisive. By no means, based on present indications, is it a *fait accompli* that we are heading in a direction that is any different from this.

When it was suggested earlier that the next few decades would be critical in terms of the survival of humanity as a species, it initially might be taken that such a statement is overly sensational. Perhaps each generation that passes thinks the same thing. The difference between now and a few hundred years ago, however, is the means that various groups have at their disposal to inflict widespread destruction around the planet (in the form of nuclear and biological weapons; not to mention our own unsustainable and rapacious *growth-as-development* mentality) is now part of our reality. Whilst not wanting to be alarmist or pessimistic, it is worth heeding the message that serious thinking needs to be done to ensure that globalisation does not spell the end of humanity's journey because we, collectively, could not engage with the Cultural Other in a way that would have us rise above "ancient hatreds" (Goldmark 2002, p.53). Perhaps Goldmark's (2002) thoughts can provide adequate closure to the paper, where he reflects on what is needed to move forward in a constructive manner. Fittingly, it is an existential exhortation to become something greater (as in more wholesome and authentic) than our present condition by 'visiting places' that we have yet to spend much time:

We must search within ourselves, we must think generously, we must react prudently and gently, and we must empathize with daring imagination. We must be respectful and measured in the assertion of our own beliefs ... Above all, we must listen with compassion and reflection. We must listen to new voices, and we must listen to old voices in new ways ... We must bend ourselves to this task because we do not have as much time as we once thought we did. And we must approach these sensitive subjects carefully and thoughtfully, because if we rush and do not devote to it as much time as it requires, then we will achieve nothing. (p.59)

REFERENCES

- Adams, P. (2003). Keep out Kim and his legacy. *The Australian, Opinion*, Wednesday April 30.
- Appadurai, A. (Ed.). (2001). *Globalization*. Durham: Duke University Press.
- Arnone, R. and Torres, C. (Eds.). (1999). *Comparative education; The dialectic of the global and the local*. Lanham: Rowman and Littlefield Publishers.
- Asimov, I. (1967). *The universe; From flat earth to quasar*. London: The Penguin Press.
- Baldwin, T. (1995). Existentialism. In Honderich, T. (Ed.), *The Oxford companion to philosophy* (pp.257-261). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Barani (2003). *Bennelong*. [Online] Retrieved October 10, 2003 from <http://www.cityofsydney.nsw.gov.au/barani/search/person.asp>
- Barber, B. (2001). *Jihad vs. McWorld: Terrorism's challenge to democracy*. New York: Ballantine Books.
- Bauman, Z. (1997). *Postmodernity and its discontents*. Cambridge: Polity Press.
- Beare, H. and Slaughter, R. (1995). *Education for the 21st century*. London: Routledge.
- Blainey, G. (2001). *A short history of the world*. Ringwood: Penguin Books.

- Breuer, R. (2002). Freedom's twin. In Alfred Herrhausen Society for International Dialogue, *The end of tolerance?* (pp.11-16). London: Nicholas Brearley Publishing.
- Burbach, R., Orlando, N. and Kagarlitsky, B. (1997). *Globalization and its discontents; The rise of postmodern socialisms*. London: Pluto Press.
- Burbules, N. (1996). Deconstructing "Difference" and the Difference this makes to Education. In *Yearbook* (A publication of the Philosophy of Education Society, University of Illinois). [Online] Retrieved October 10, 2003 from http://www.ed.uiuc.edu/EPS/PESYearbook/96_docs/burbules.html
- Burns, R. (1999). *Introduction to research methods* (4th ed.). Frenchs Forest: Longman.
- Callinicos, A. (2001). *Against the third way*. Cambridge: Polity Press.
- Charlesworth, M. (1982). *Science, non-science and pseudo-science: Bacon, Popper, Lakatos, Kuhn and Feyerabend on defining science*. Waurm Ponds (Victoria): Deakin University Press.
- Currie, J. (1998). Introduction. In Currie, J. and Newson, J. (Eds.), *Universities and globalization: Critical perspectives* (pp.1-13). London: Sage Publications.
- Davis, E. and Miller, D. (1967). *The philosophic process in physical education*. Philadelphia: Lea and Febiger.
- de Landsheere, G. (1997). History of educational research. In Keeves, J. (Ed.), *Educational research, methodology, and measurement: An international handbook* (2nd ed.) (pp.8-16). Cambridge: Pergamon.
- Djebar, A. (2002). Return to Islamic roots? In Alfred Herrhausen Society for International Dialogue, *The end of tolerance?* (pp.228-232). London: Nicholas Brearley Publishing.
- DJ Westbam (2002). Music makers for racists: A conversation. In Alfred Herrhausen Society for International Dialogue, *The end of tolerance?* (pp.94-97). London: Nicholas Brearley Publishing.
- Dudley, J. (1998). Globalization and education policy in Australia. In Currie, J. and Newson, J. (Eds.), *Universities and globalization: Critical perspectives* (pp.21-44). London: SAGE Publications.
- Encarta (2003). *Existentialism*. [Online] Retrieved October 20, 2003 from <http://encarta.msn.com/encnet/refpages/RefArticle.aspx?refid=761555530andpn=1#s2>
- Endersbee, L. (1999). National Development and the Constitution. In *ATSE Focus (The Australian Academy of Technological Sciences and Engineering)* No. 107, May/June 1999. [Online] Retrieved October 12, 2003 from <http://www.nationalrenewal.org.au/papers/endersbee/nat-development.shtml>
- Fieser, J. (Ed.). (2003a). Kierkegaard. In *The internet encyclopedia of philosophy*. [Online] Retrieved October 10, 2003 from <http://www.utm.edu/research/iep/>
- Fieser, J. (Ed.). (2003b). Heidegger. In *The internet encyclopedia of philosophy*. [Online] Retrieved October 10, 2003 from <http://www.utm.edu/research/iep/>
- Fink, E. (1972). The ontology of play. In Gerber, E. and Morgan, W. (Eds.), *Sport and the body: A philosophical symposium* (pp.73-83). Philadelphia: Lea and Febiger.
- Flanagan, R. (2002). From here to uncertainty. *The Age*, Saturday Extra p.5, August 3.
- Gibbons, T. and Sanderson, G. (2002). Contemporary themes in the research enterprise. *International Education Journal, Special Issue 3(4)*, 2002 Educational Research Conference. [Online] Retrieved October 20, 2002 from <http://www.flinders.edu.au/education/iej/ARTICLES/v3n4/gibbons/paper.pdf>
- Giddens, A. (1999). Globalisation (lecture 1). In *Reith lectures 1999*. [Online] Retrieved August 9, 2003 from: http://news.bbc.co.uk/hi/english/static/events/reith_99/default.htm
- Goeudevert, D. (2002). Nothing from nothing. In Alfred Herrhausen Society for International Dialogue, *The end of tolerance?* (pp.44-52). London: Nicholas Brearley Publishing.

- Goldmark, P. (2002). We are all minorities now. In Alfred Herrhausen Society for International Dialogue, *The end of tolerance?* (pp.53-59). London: Nicholas Brealey Publishing.
- G. Pascal Zachary (2000). *The global me; why nations will succeed or fail in the next generation*. St Leonards: Allen and Unwin.
- Gould, C. (1886). *Mythical monsters*. London: W. H. Allen and Co.
- Hall, S. (1997). The local and the global: Globalization and ethnicity. In King, A. (Ed.), *Culture, Globalization, and the world system: contemporary conditions for the representation of identity* (pp.19-39). University of Minnesota Press.
- Hansford, D. (2003). The village people: Karaoke arrives on the Mongolian steppes. In *Discovery* (Cathay Pacific inflight magazine) July/August 2003, pp.58-60.
- Harper, W. (1972). Man alone. In Gerber, E. and Morgan, W. (Eds.), *Sport and the body: A philosophical symposium* (pp.125-127). Philadelphia: Lea and Febiger.
- Held, D., McGrew, A., Goldblatt, D., and Perraton, J. (1999). *Global transformations: Politics, economics, culture*. Cambridge: Polity.
- Horie, M. (2002). The internationalisation of higher education in Japan in the 1990s: A reconsideration. *Higher Education: the International Journal of Higher Education and Educational Planning*, 43(1), 65-84.
- Hyland, D. (1972). Athletics and angst: Reflections on the philosophical relevance of play. In Gerber, E. and Morgan, W. (Eds.), *Sport and the body: A philosophical symposium* (pp.94-101). Philadelphia: Lea and Febiger.
- International Commission on Education for the Twenty-First Century. (1996). *Learning: The treasure within - report to UNESCO of the international commission on education for the twenty-first century*. Paris: UNESCO Publishing.
- Jaspers, K. (1972). Limits of the life-order: Sport. In Gerber, E. and Morgan, W. (Eds.), *Sport and the body: A philosophical symposium* (pp.123-124). Philadelphia: Lea and Febiger.
- Jones, G. (Ed.). (1996). *Australia in its Asian context*. Cunningham Lecture and Symposium 1995. Occasional Paper Series 1/1996. Canberra: Academy of Social Sciences in Australia.
- Kalantzis, M. and Cope, B. (2000). Towards an inclusive and international higher education. In King, R., Hill, D., and Hemmings, B. (Eds.), *University and diversity: Changing perspectives, policies and practices in Australia* (pp.30-53). Wagga Wagga: Keon Publications.
- Keegan, W. (1992). *The spectre of capitalism: The future of the world economy after the fall of communism*. London: Vintage Books.
- Knight, J. (1999). Internationalisation of higher education. In Knight, J. and de Wit, H. (Eds.), *Quality and internationalisation in higher education* (pp.13-28). Paris: Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development.
- Lakomski, G. (1997). Critical theory and education. In Keeves, J. (Ed.), *Educational research, methodology, and measurement: An international handbook* (2nd ed.) (pp.168-173). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- McIntyre, A. (1967). Ontology. In Edwards, P.(Ed.), *Encyclopedia of philosophy*, Volume 5. London: Collier Macmillan Publishers.
- McLuhan, M. and Fiore, Q. (1967). *The medium is the message*. New York: Bantam.
- Mahbubani, K. (2002). *Can Asians think?* (2nd ed.). Singapore: Times Books International.
- Marginson, S. (1999-2000). Living with the other: Higher education in the global era. In *Australian Universities' Review*, 42(2) and 43(1), 5-8.
- Milner, A. (1996). Defining Australia in Asia. In Jones, G. (Ed.), *Australia in its Asian context*. Cunningham Lecture and Symposium 1995. Occasional Paper Series 1/1996. Canberra: Academy of Social Sciences in Australia.

- Murray, G. (2000). Sinophiles and sinophobes. In Mackerras, C. (Ed.), *Sinophiles and sinophobes: Western views of China and Hong Kong* (pp.258-259). Hong Kong: Oxford University Press (China).
- Ninensn (2002). *Council accused of racism over mosque*. [Online] Retrieved December 18, 2002 from http://news.ninensn.com.au/National/story_43917.asp
- Olafson, F. (1967). Satre, Jean Paul. In Edwards, P.(Ed.), *Encyclopedia of philosophy*, Volume 7. London: Collier Macmillan Publishers.
- Phillips, D. C. (1987). *Philosophy, science, and social inquiry : contemporary methodological controversies in social science and related applied fields of research*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.
- Pilger, J. (2002). *The new rulers of the world*. London: Verso.
- Pomjam, L. (Ed.). (1992). *Philosophy: The quest for truth* (2nd ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.
- Rothkop, D. (1997). In praise of cultural imperialism? Effects of globalization on culture. In *Foreign Policy*, June 22, 1997, pp.1-10. Retrieved May 12, 2002 from <http://www.globalpolicy.org/globaliz/cultural/globcult.htm>
- Said, E. (1995). *Orientalism; Western conceptions of the Orient*. London: Penguin Books.
- Singer, P. (2002). *One world: The ethics of globalization*. New Haven: Yale University Press.
- Singh, M. (2002). Aligning university curricula to the global economy: Making opportunities for new teaching/learning through the internationalisation of education. In Ninnes, P. and Tamatea, L. (Eds.). *Proceedings of the 30th annual conference of the Australian and New Zealand comparative and international education society, "Internationalizing Education in the Asia-Pacific Region: Critical Reflections, Critical Times"*, School of Education, University of New England, Armidale, 6-8 December 2002.
- Slade, M. (1998). Developing a fundamental commitment to global interdependence and cultural pluralism: Learning within the world culture. [Online] Retrieved August 30, 2002 from <http://wwwed.sturt.flinders.edu.au/iej/welcome.htm>
- Slade, M. (2002). *Listening to the boys: Issues and problems influencing school achievement and retention*. Flinders University Institute of International Education Research Collection: Number 5. South Australia: Shannon Research Press.
- Soros, G. (2002). *On globalization*. New York: Public Affairs.
- Speake, J. (1979). *A dictionary of philosophy*. London: Pan Books.
- Stiglitz, J. (2002). *Globalization and its discontents*. London: Penguin Group.
- Stromquist, N. (2002). Globalization, the I, and the Other. *Current Issues in Comparative Education*, 4(2). [Online] Retrieved May 29, 2003 from <http://www.tc.columbia.edu/CICE/articles/nps142.htm>
- The Australian (2003). Nearer, my Allah, to thee. In *Media*, October 16-22, p.26.
- Tikly, L. (1999). Postcolonialism and comparative education. *International Review of Education*, 45(5/6), 603-621.
- Zhang, Z. (2001). Mediating time: The rice bowl of youth in fin de siecle urban China. In Appadurai, A. (Ed.), *Globalization*. Durham: Duke University Press.

A Study of People-Run Tertiary Education in South and West China

Yongyang Wang

University of Adelaide yong.wang@student.adelaide.edu.au

Margaret Secombe

University of Adelaide margaret.secombe@adelaide.edu.au

Chinese People-Run tertiary education institutions have grown dramatically in recent years. This paper aims to discuss the government deregulation policy and its impact on private tertiary education in China since the 1980s, particularly on south and west China, Gui Zhou province. Three colleges have been selected respectively from economically developed area, Guangdong province, and comparative undeveloped province, Gui Zhou. Three hundred and eight questionnaires have been examined in order to portrait the status quo of private tertiary education in south and west China.

Tertiary Education, Privatisation, China, Higher Education, People-Run

INTRODUCTION

The privatisation of public provision has been a phenomenon around the world. The notion of education as one of the public services has changed considerably with the process of worldwide education privatisation. Many empirical studies reveal that the private sector of education is playing a more important role (Mok, 1999; The World Bank, 1996; Yee, 1995).

The privatisation of tertiary education in Australia and China is the result of the deficiency of government funding. It also primarily aims at increasing education's social and economic efficiency, by permitting and encouraging the growth of private higher education and by introducing such private sector, market-oriented practices as tuition fees, sale of goods and services, and the encouragement of individual and corporate philanthropy (Urton, 1992). As stated by (Smolicz, 1999):

The shifting of responsibility for the funding of higher education to students and their families, as well as other outside government sources, can be regarded as a form of "privatisation". This may have resulted in the creation of "private", "independent", "church" or other non-government institutions (which can be considered independent privatisation), or take the form of directly imposing fees upon students when they attend formally state-funded colleges and universities (which may be labelled public privatisation).

In Australia, privatisation of higher education is more the case of public privatisation, while in China, education privatisation takes the form of independent privatisation.

Tertiary education institutions are classified according to their property rights. People-Run education in China refers to those educational institutions, which are owned by non-state organizations or individuals. Chinese private tertiary education can be generally classified into two categories. One is called 'People-Run' (People-managed), which is the private educational

institution and truly funded by industries or sponsors. The other is 'People-Run Gong Zhu' (People-run/managed with state support) which usually were formerly state-owned colleges. The boundary between People-Run and People-Run with state support colleges is usually ambiguous owing to China's particular social economic heritage.

Since the 1980's when the Chinese central government implemented the deregulation policy to multiply the education-funding channel, the number of People-Run tertiary educational institutions has grown gradually from 370 in 1986 (China Education and Research Network, 2001) to 1,240 in 2000 (Yang, 2001). Marginson (1997) states that the boundary between private and public institutions has been blurry. The writer would argue that the private sector still can not compete with its counterpart private universities, not only in terms of its enrolment and quality, but also the social perception. There are also differences between the economically developed area and the relatively advanced provinces in China. The empirical research conducted in the remote mountainous province of Gui Zhou, will be examined.

OVERVIEW OF EDUCATION DEREGULATION POLICY IN CHINA

The social economic context and government policy has practically stimulated the emergence and growth of Chinese non-state tertiary education. The deregulation of China's tertiary education policy started in 1978 with the introduction of economic reform.

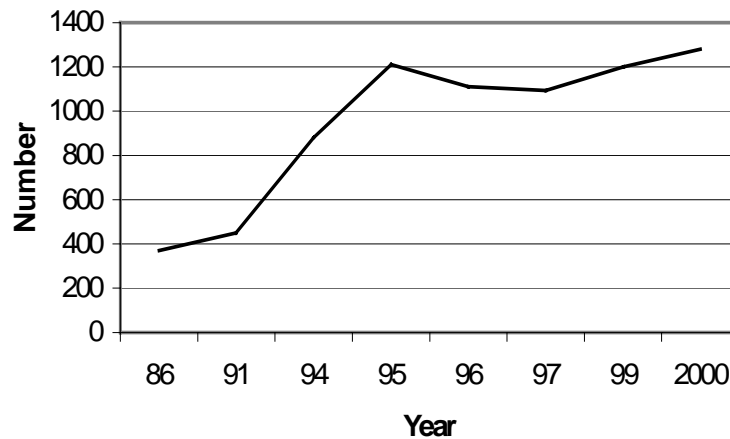
In 1978, Mr. Deng came to power and led the nation to a new economic system. China's social economic and cultural system began to recover from then on to address the unprecedented damage of 10 years Culture Revolution. Economic reform has not only fostered the growth of a market economy but has also caused an education reform. The establishment of the People-Run education system in China is a consequence of such reform.

The educational reform started in 1985 when "The Decision of Reform of Educational System" was issued. It encouraged non-government forces to contribute to the development of education by investing or sponsoring. As cited by Mok (1998), by "reshuffling the monopolistic role of the state in educational provision, the reforms in educational structure, which was started in the mid-1980s, have resulted in a mix of private and public consumption". In order to stimulate, examine, and lead the People-Run education, a series of decentralized education policies have been released since then, "*Provisional Regulations of Establishment of Schools by Social Forces*" in 1987, "*Provisional Regulations for the Establishment of People-Run Schools of Higher Education*" in 1993. The most significant one is the *Min Ban Jiao Yu Chu Jing Fa* (Promotion Law of People-Run Education) promulgated in the early 2003, which permits the reasonable distribution of profit outside the educational institution.

Under this favourable policy, People-Run educational institutions have become popular in China's big cities ((Mok and Chan, 1996) and the number of different types of private education has increased rapidly. By 1986, there were 370 non-state higher educational institutions (China Education Statistics Yearbook, 94-98). According to statistics by the Department of Development Planning of the Ministry of Education, the number of private higher education institutions was 1,240 with an enrolment of 1.184 million students in 2001 (Yang, 2001). The growth of People-Run higher education from 1986 to 2000 is presented in Figure 1.

With the recurrence of private higher education, the requirements for more academic staff have increased dramatically. Thus as (Smolicz, 1999) stated, these private colleges cannot satisfy the demand on their own, so private colleges have employed academic staff from public institutions. It is a prevailing situation that, the academic staff of state universities have usually looked for additional appointment in a private college where the payment is higher than state university. Smolicz has described the phenomena in Poland as follows:

Academics themselves, because of the low pay at State universities, almost invariably have been anxious to secure additional employment, frequently holding two ‘full time’ appointments, one of which is held to be ‘primary’. The ‘primary’ place of appointment is normally held at an established state institution, which provides the prestige, while the non-government position secures additional pay, at a higher rate than the state. (Smolicz, 1999, p.213)



Source: China Education Statistics Yearbook, 1984-2000

Figure 1. The Number of People-Run Higher Education Institutions in China

This is also the case in China. The popular title for this is “jian zhi,” which means “pluralism”. In some of the provinces where the non-government higher institutions have prospered, academics tend to pay more attention to the “part time” work in private college and ignore their work at the public university. Thus, complaints have arisen from the administrators of public universities. Some public universities don’t allow “jian zhi”, however, this cannot cease in some cases. Some public universities have asked for a formal agreement from the lecturers to promise completing the academic tasks primarily in the public university, otherwise “jian zhi” is not permitted. Others have arranged an agreement with private higher institutions, which obliges the private university to pay fees to the public university for the use of their academic staff.

PRIVATE HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS IN CHINA

Three private colleges in China will be examined in this paper. Two of them (Nan Hua Industry and Business College, and Bai Yun Technical College) are located in Guang Dong province, which is a comparatively well-developed area in China. The remaining college (Hong Yuan Management and Engineering Vocational College) is in a relatively undeveloped province, Gui Zhou province, located in southwestern China. They all have idiosyncratic characteristics, affected by their local economic and social context. They also have some common features that indicate the dilemmas currently confronting all private educational institutions have confronted at present. The information in sector 3.1 and 3.2 are based on the investigation of the Chinese Ministry of Education conducted in 2002 and the sector of 3.3 are based on the survey of the writer.

Bai Yun Vocation Technical College (Guang Zhou Province)

Guang Dong is not only geographically close to Hong Kong, Macao and Taiwan, but also has close economic and cultural relationships with these economically developed neighbours. Its close proximity to these centres has contributed to its economic development. Guang Dong is one of the earliest provinces that implemented open economic policy in China. Guang Dong modernised its traditional economy earlier than other inland areas such as Gui Zhou. The favourable culture and

economic environment has contributed to the development of private higher education. As far as Bai Yun Vocation Technical College (BYVTC) is concerned a strong local economy, market oriented curriculum, good community relationships, favourable policy development from provincial government and efficient administration, has contributed to its growth.

The college started in 1989 with three departments, Garment Design, Air Conditioning, and Catering. By 2001, BYVTC had 60 specialities with 9000 enrolments and had become the biggest comprehensive private technical college in China, in terms of its size and the range of subjects. BYVTC has a 54-acre campus, with 500 full time academic staff and 800 part-time academic and administrative staff. The net capital assets of BYVTC are worth RMB 400 million (about AU\$ 80 million) (Ximei Xie, 2002a).

Guang Dong government has allowed BYVTC to have autonomy in setting its fund allocation policies. This greatly encouraged private investment, which helped solved the funding problem of BYVTC. In addition, the Guang Dong government not only granted BYVTC RMB 2 million (about AU\$400,000) directly to help building construction and to create additional training programs, but also awarded RMB 1.5 million (about AU\$ 300,000) worth of tax exemptions (Ximei Xie, 2002a).

Moreover, a market oriented curriculum lead to BYVTC's success. Originally, there were three subjects when BYVTC was established. As BYVTC developed, additional majors were added in order to encourage new enrolments. For example, Computer Science, Machine and Electricity, Electronic Information, Art Design, Computer Application and Repair, Tourism and Restaurant Management, Mechanical Engineering and Marketing were adopted as new fields of study offered at BYVTC. These subjects are designed to train graduates to meet the demand of the labour market in the local Zhu Jiang Delta, an area with a rapidly growing economy.

Cooperation with local industries has also lead to the prosperity of BYVTC. There are 1000 industries in the Zhu Jiang Delta that provide work experience and employment opportunities to BYVTC's students (Ximei Xie, 2002a). BYVTC has also invited leaders of industry to set up a Professional Instruction and Cooperation Committee to take part in the curriculum construction and development process. This ensures that BYVTC provides skilled graduates for the local employment market. The employment rate of BYVTC graduates is 98 per cent annually (Ximei Xie, 2002a). This unusually high employment rate attracts extra enrolments to BYVTC.

Nan Hua Industry and Business College (Guang Dong Province)

Although the social economic condition in Guang Zhou province is favourable for the private higher education, Nan Hua Industry and Business College (NHIBC) is a typical struggling private college mainly owing to its management problems.

NHIBC was established in 1993 through accreditation from the Guang Dong provincial government. As indicated in the report of the(Ximei Xie, 2002a), it was a small-scale college with a campus of 8.2 acres when it was set up. For its first academic year, there were only 81 students enrolled in two departments, Hotel Management and Law.

The development of NHIBC was very slow until 2002, when the college started to recruit students from all over China under approval of the government. The enrolment grew to 4000 in 2002, compared to 1682 in 1998, an increase of 138 per cent. The number of departments in NHIBC expanded from 2 to 8 in 2002, to include International Trade, Business and Administration, Finance, Foreign Language, Environmental Art Design, Computer Science, in addition to the original departments. There are 15 specialities currently (Ximei Xie, 2002b).

However, the management of NHIBC is not satisfied. The college has had a negative cash flow since 1998. One of the main problems is that NHIBC's small campus has become a handicap for the development of the college. There is not enough space to service an adequate number of students. According to the evaluation conducted by the Education Office of Guang Dong government in 2002, NHIBC has not met the requirements in terms of its campus facilities, such as library and stadium. The investment for purchasing land to construct new buildings will cost AU\$10 million (Ximei Xie, 2002a), which is definitely out of the economic capacity of the college. If NHIBC cannot acquire extra funds, the long-term survival of the college is in doubt.

In addition, its graduates are not as well regarded in the labour market as graduates from public universities ((Ximei Xie, 2002b). This is another obstacle to NHIBC's development. Among eight departments, only the graduates from the department of Environmental Art Design and Hotel Management have optimistic job prospects.

Hong Yuan Management and Engineering Vocational College (Gui Zhou Province)

Gui Zhou is a relatively undeveloped province in China, mainly owing to its mountainous topography, which makes it extremely difficult to build roads. For centuries, lack of adequate transportation infrastructure has hindered the economic growth of Gui Zhou province. Since the economic reform of the 1980's experienced by China, Gui Zhou has started to attract investment to extract its abundant natural resources. However, economic development has not occurred as rapidly as expected. The underdeveloped economy hinders the growth of the private and public education systems.

To the present, there is only one private tertiary institution in Gui Zhou province, which is the Hong Yuan Management and Engineering Vocational College (HYMEVC), with under 300 enrolments. This contrasts with other provinces in China such as He Nan, Jiang Xi, Shan Xi and Zhe Jiang, where the enrolments in private colleges account for 55.8 per cent, 50.3 per cent, 43.9 per cent, and 25 per cent respectively among total provincial tertiary education system (Feng, Dai, Lu, and Shi, 2003).

A merchant, Mr. Hong Jing Zhou, who originally managed an information company in Sheng Zhen, founded HYMEVC. Mr. Zhou initially applied to set up a private college in 1998. HYMEVC was approved to recruit students in 2001. However, its educational facilities did not meet government minimum requirements, so local government demanded RMB 1 million (about AU\$ 200,000) deposit (Zhou 2003, pers. Comm., 26 Feb). Zhou decided to rent the almost abandoned military consolidation college site as a campus for HYMEVC. He also purchased education facilities like computers, books, and studying desks and refurbished buildings for students' dormitories (Zhou 2003, pers. Comm., 26 Jan).

Owing to its small size of campus and its limited facilities, the provincial education department allowed only 60 enrolments for the first academic year of HYMEVC. However, there were over 300 students applying during its first academic year. As indicated by Mr. Zhou in an interview, the majority of the 300 applicants had failed in the National Graduate Entrance Exam (NGEE) with a very low score. Most of them were not interested in studying. They came to college because they wanted a degree to get a decent job, or their parents pushed them to enrol. Some of them are troublemakers. Therefore, *supervising students becomes the primary task of the colleges' daily work* (Zhou 2003, pers. Comm., 26 Jan).

Sixty-seven administrators are full time employees in HYMEVC. They are also lecturers. This introduces a savings in the expenditure of staff salary, and manages the students more efficiently. The other part time lecturers also work as lecturers at public universities full time. The basic wage

for a part time lecturer at HYMEVC is RMB 30 (about AU\$ 6) per hour (Zhou 2003, pers. Comm., 26 Feb). There are no permanent contracts for part time lecturers. If the students do not feel satisfied with their teaching, they may appeal to the college who may ask the lecturer to resign. At least one lecturer has been sacked as part of this process at HYMEVC. This particular lecturer was unable to speak Mandarin although he was teaching Chinese language and literature. Students appealed to the Vice Chancellor of HYMEVC that they could not understand the lecturer because of his thick accent.

There are three specialities in HYMEVC currently, Computer Science Management, Construction/Interior Design and Business Management. Mr. Zhou said,

We have mainly humanities subjects because we do not have enough funding to develop labs and other facilities that are needed for science subjects. (Zhou 2003, pers. Comm., 26 Jan).

Mr. Zhou mentioned that the central government has already given private education enough support and autonomy. The main problem that private colleges face at present is the perception of society (Zhou 2003, pers. Comm., 26 Feb). It is common for parents to assume that private colleges are of a lower quality than public universities, and that the students in private colleges are academic underachievers. High school graduates and their parents will only consider a private college if they cannot pass the NGEE with a sufficient score to be admitted into a public college. This was confirmed in the survey of students and parents conducted by the writer.

VIEWS OF STUDENTS AND PARENTS

Views of Students

According to the survey conducted at the local junior higher schools in Gui Zhou province, there were 163 seventeen-year-old students, who were going to take the NGEE in 2003. Among them, 24 per cent were rated as distinction students, 43 per cent had satisfactory scores while 35 per cent were classed as low-grade students.

Ninety-eight out of 163, which is about 60 per cent, indicated that they would not consider a private institution after graduating from high school. Only 28 students out of 163 said they were not sure about their choice, which infers that maybe they may or may not consider enrolling in a private college, or it depends on their parents' decision. The remaining 37 students intended on enrolling in a private college.

Views of Parents

Background information of Respondents

Eighty questionnaires were collected from the parents of the same students mentioned above, 45 male and 35 female. The majority of them were between 30 to 50 years old. Three of them were over 50. None were younger than 30. More than half of them (53%) had no tertiary education background. Forty-three per cent of them had graduate or postgraduate degrees. Twenty-one respondents did not answer the question about their annual income. The respondents with annual income of below AU\$ 4,000 were slightly more than the respondents with annual income of over AU\$ 4,000. This amount is about the average annual income of most employees in Gui Zhou province currently.

The Intention of Enrolment

The answer to the question of whether they would enrol their children in a private college, and the reason for parents' choice, are stated as follow. About 42.5 per cent of them indicated that they would not enrol their children in a private institution, while 53.8 per cent said it would "depend". Only three parents would enrol their children in a private education institution, one because he is too busy to look after his child. The others claimed that the private colleges paid more attention to the overall development of children. A third person stated that private colleges met a different demand, without indicating the potential of MGEEEd.

There are several reasons mentioned by parents for the decision of "will not enrol in a private college." Firstly, there is a perception that teaching in the private institutions is of an inferior standard, and there is a high turnover of lecturers. Generally, there are no prestigious professors at private colleges. Concerns about the quality of academic staff in private institutions were the major reason why surveyed parents stated that they would "not send children to private college". Furthermore, parents thought that the majority of students in private colleges were failures, because they were filtered out by the NGEE, and that they would be a bad influence on their children. In addition, six parents stated that the comparatively higher tuition fees stopped them from enrolling their children in a private college. Some parents also mentioned elements such as prestige, profit earning, trust, and inadequate facilities.

Parents' Opinion about Tuition Fees

There were 74 per cent of parents who regarded the tuition fees of private tertiary institutions as too high. Just 4 out of 80 thought it was not high. As many as forty-six per cent of parents indicated that they did not know about the tuition fees of private institution and whether they were reasonable.

A substantial number of parents have no idea about the advantages and disadvantages of private institutions (20% and 15% respectively). Besides, parents cited seven advantages and eight disadvantages. High tuition fees account for the main disadvantage, while more autonomy represents the major advantage of a private college in the view of parents. Secondly, "no guarantees for academic quality" and "not stable" were also concerns of the parents as disadvantages of private colleges. In contrast, "it fosters the independence of student" was cited as one of the advantages. Two parents talked about the social status of a private college as one of the disadvantages. Another two parents mentioned the problem of recognition from society; while two worried that some degrees were not accepted by industries. In addition, funding and facilities, ease of enrolment, environment, more attention to students and rapid development were also stated by parents as advantages of private higher education institution.

The Existence of Private Education

Although parents mentioned a number of disadvantages of private colleges, 83.8 per cent of parents believed that private education should exist. As it is indicated in Figure 2, just 5 parents did not think so. Eight parents were unsure. Fifty-three parents thought that private colleges should exist, with 19 giving reasons for their choice. Stimulating competition and helping to satisfy the need for tertiary education were the two main reasons. Among the five parents who thought private colleges should not exist, 4 mentioned the reason that education is so important for the future of the country, that it should be funded and scrutinised by government.

Generally, a minority of parents did not complete high school. Most of them had an annual income over AU\$ 4,000. A majority of parents gave a neutral response in their evaluation of private institutions. Most parents would not intend to enrol their children in a private institution.

Similarly, most of the students would not plan to attend a private college in the future. Concerns about the quality of private colleges were the main factor for this trend. The majority of parents regarded tuition fees for private college as excessive. Parents identified this as the main disadvantage of private colleges. Although parents were aware of the demerits of private colleges, most of them believed private colleges should remain in existence. Promoting competition and satisfying the demand of tertiary education were the main arguments supporting the retention of private higher education. To summarise, although private colleges were perceived by parents as inferior than public universities, private colleges were regarded as a necessary component of higher education. The main issue inferred from the responses of parents and students is that private colleges need to improve to better satisfy social demands for higher education.

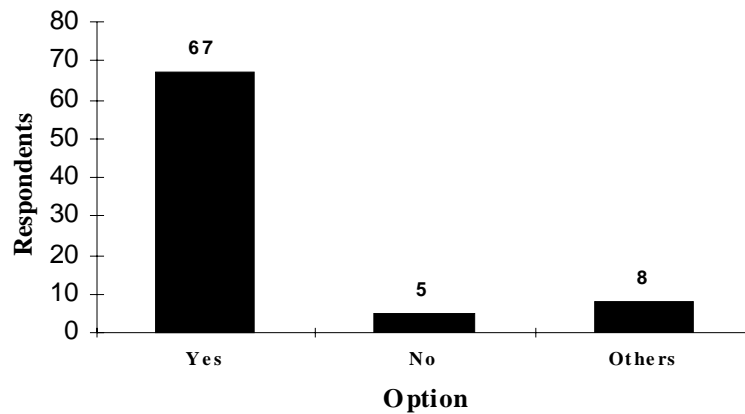


Figure 2. The Response of the Existence of Private Education

CONCLUSION

Even though the number of private higher institutions has continued to increase in recent years, they still cannot compete with the public universities' quality and reputation. In addition, the overall standard of private colleges varies significantly in different regions. The common phenomenon is that, in the relatively developed provinces, private higher institutions, in general, are in better condition, such as Bai Yun Vocation Technical College in Guang Dong province. In Gui Zhou, for example, a relatively under developed province, there is just one private college with minimal enrolment. The enrolment levels are less in private colleges than in public universities. Usually private higher institutions have a lower proportion of academic staff with higher qualifications, such as professors. Private universities rely heavily on the resources of public universities.

In terms of the social acceptance, private higher institutions in China today have comparatively lower social status, according to high school graduates, as was mentioned in the results of the survey. This perception is felt even more strongly by the students' parents.

Although the development of private education in China in recent years has increased dramatically, the quality of the Chinese private higher education and perception of the reputation of Chinese private higher education is not at a level where enrolment numbers are sufficient for the universities to be economically self-sufficient. This makes government support critical for the development of Chinese private higher education. In addition, government supervision is highly necessary to maintain the quality and the development of private higher institutions. Madeleine (1997) stated that with the expansion of enrolments, quality and efficiency would have to be more proficiently monitored. A better legal system and accreditation system for the university should be set up.

REFERENCES

- China Education and Research Network. (2001). *The Number of People-Run Higher Educational Institutions and the Enrolment*. [Online] <http://www.edu.cn>.
- Feng, X., Dai, Q., Lu, Y.A. and Shi, K. (2003). The Research of the Development Strategy of Gui Zhou People-Run Education. *China's Education Daily*, 17th March.
- Madeleine, G. (1997). *Transforming Higher Education, View From the Leaders Around the World*. London: Oryx Press.
- Marginson, S. (1997). Imagining Ivy: Pitfalls in the Privatisation of higher education in Australia. *Comparative Education Review*, 41(4), 460.
- Mok, K.H. (1998). Merging of the Public and Private Boundary: Education and the Market place in China. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 18(3), 255-267.
- Mok, K.H. (1999). The Cost of Managerialism: the Implications for the 'McDonaldisation' of Higher Education in Hong Kong. *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*, 21(1), 117-127.
- Mok, K.H. and Chan, D. (1996). The Emergence of Private Education in the Pearl River Delta: Implications for Social Development. *Social and Economic Development in South China*. [Online] <http://www.edu.cn>.
- Smolicz, J.J. (1999). Privatisation in Higher Education, Emerging Commonalities and Diverse Educational Perspectives in the Philippines, Australian, Poland and Iran. *Development and Society*, 28 (2), 28-35.
- The World Bank. (1996). *Vietnam: Education Financing Sector Study*. Washington, DC: The World Bank.
- Urton, R.G.N. (1992). *The Encyclopaedia of Higher Education*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.
- Ximei Xie. (2002a). *Case Study of Guang Zhou Bai Yun Vocation Technical College*. Unpublished Report, Shanghai Education Science Research Institution.
- Ximei Xie. (2002b). *Case Study of Nan Hua Industry and Business College*. In *The Report of Research of Chinese People-Run Education*. Unpublished Report, Shanghai Education Science Research Institution.
- Yang, D. (2001). *Educational Evolution in China (1),2002*. Chinese Education and Research Network. [Online] <http://www.edu.cn>.
- Yee, A.H. and Lim, T.G. (1995). *Education Supply and Demand in East Asia: Private Higher Education*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Graduate-Entry Medical Student Variables that Predict Academic and Clinical Achievement

Ian Blackman

Flinders University ian.blackman@flinders.edu.au

I Gusti Ngurah Darmawan

School of Education, Flinders University

Pendidikan Nasional University, Bali, Indonesia

A hypothetical model was formulated to explore factors that influenced academic and clinical achievement for graduate-entry medical students completing their third year of university studies. Nine latent variables were considered including the students' background, previous successes with their undergraduate and postgraduate studies and their assessed ability to study graduate-entry medicine based on their scholastic aptitude and their interview selection scores. The academic and clinical achievement of 99 graduate-entry medical students were estimated by measuring their performance on two separate assessment procedures, a 150 item multiple choice examination and a 20 item objectively structured clinical evaluation (OSCE) test. These two assessments were taken across two years (to include two student groups) and were equated using Rasch scaling procedures. Models identifying causal pathways leading to academic and clinical achievement were tested using Partial Least Squares Path Analysis (PLSPAT). The study's results suggest that medical student achievement can be predicted by variables, which account for 6 to 22 per cent of the variance of scores that assess academic achievement and clinical performance at the third year level respectively. The most significant predictors and those which had direct influence on graduate-entry medical student achievement were: (a) student gender, undergraduate grade point average scores, type of undergraduate studies undertaken, and where those studies were carried out that were related to the OSCE scores, and (b) whether or not the graduate-entry medical students had pursued other studies prior to undertaking the medical course and age that were both negatively related to achievement on the multiple choice examination. Measures of performance at interview and student scores for GAMSAT that were used in the selection process were not related to the performance outcomes assessed.

Rasch scaling, partial least squares analysis, graduate-entry, medical students, scholastic aptitude, scores, interview selection

INTRODUCTION

Three Australian university medical schools (Flinders University in South Australia, the University of Queensland and the University of Sydney) just over ten years ago changed their traditional six year conventional undergraduate medical course to a four year graduate-entry medical program on the grounds that they wanted to broaden the academic basis for student admission and acknowledge the student's past performance in tertiary education (Aldous, Leeder, Price, Sefton and Tuebner, 1997). Another catalyst for the change was a widely held perception that secondary school results on their own did not allow university faculties to identify the potential students most motivated and suited to medical studies. There were demographic

inconsistencies also, with universities tending toward accepting metropolitan students rather than rurally based students into their medical programs (Field and Gordon, 2000). Other forces were pressing for the need to change the way Australian medical education was being managed. Medical science and technology were advancing at a rapid rate, giving rise to avenues of medical treatment that were unheard of before. Simultaneously, public expectations were also changing with patients wanting to be more informed and have greater engagement in their own treatment. In order to satisfy these demands and expectations while simultaneously wishing to prepare future medical practitioners more effectively, the graduate entry medical program was devised. Its charter was to help instil in medical students a commitment to lifelong learning, where the students make a greater contribution towards their own learning, become more self directed and employ a problem based approach to learning (Wing, 2003).

This paper examines whether different graduate-entry medical student characteristics could be used to predict academic and clinical achievement in the third year (penultimate year) of medical studies. Graduate-entry medical students are assessed in their knowledge, their skill acquisition and apply their abilities to medical reasoning to clinical scenarios using two different but related assessment methods: completion of a 150 item multiple choice examination paper, and the successful execution of 20 different clinical skills scenarios, called OSCEs (Objectively Structured Clinical Evaluation).

Figure 1 gives, in diagrammatic form, the path model for the latent variables shown in oval-shaped boxes with the directions of hypothesized causal influence being shown by the path arrows. Since several of the latent variables were not directly observable, the manifest variables used to observe the latent variables are shown in Figure 1 as rectangular boxes. Not all possible causal paths are shown in Figure 1, and only those hypothesized to be of sufficient magnitude to have recognizable influences are drawn. However, it should be noted that in testing the model, all possible causal pathways were examined.

With reference to Figure 1, it is hypothesized that achievement in the student's third year of medical study (latent variable 10) is directly influenced by the student's capacity at interview (latent variable 9) and overall achievement in undergraduate studies (GPA) (latent variable 6) and involvement in post-graduate study (latent variable 7). It is also hypothesized that achievement could be indirectly influenced by the student's age (latent variable 2) as students who held post-graduate awards would be older than students who held an undergraduate degree only. Latent variable numbers 4 and 5 (place and type of undergraduate study) are thought to influence medical student achievement indirectly, particularly through scores obtained at interview given by the assessors of the interviews. In order to obtain a sufficient numbers of students for sound analyses this study had to employ two cohorts (students commencing in 1998 and 1999 depicted as latent variable 3) and it was argued that this variable would not have a direct influence on achievement but could influence the student's aptitude test score (latent variable 8) and interview score (latent variable 9) because it was assumed that aptitude tests and interviewing procedures for course admission could change from year to year.

It was argued that factors influencing student success in medicine would be best tested by employing a path analysis model, involving latent and manifest predictor variables. It was further hypothesized that any variability in performance in Year 3 of the medicine course could be attributed to differences in variance associated with these predictor variables.

BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

While there is very little information cited in the literature about medical student characteristics and admission to graduate medical programs, there is a great deal of literature examining the

different factors that explain the undergraduate medical students' ability to achieve both in multiple choice examinations and in the clinical setting.

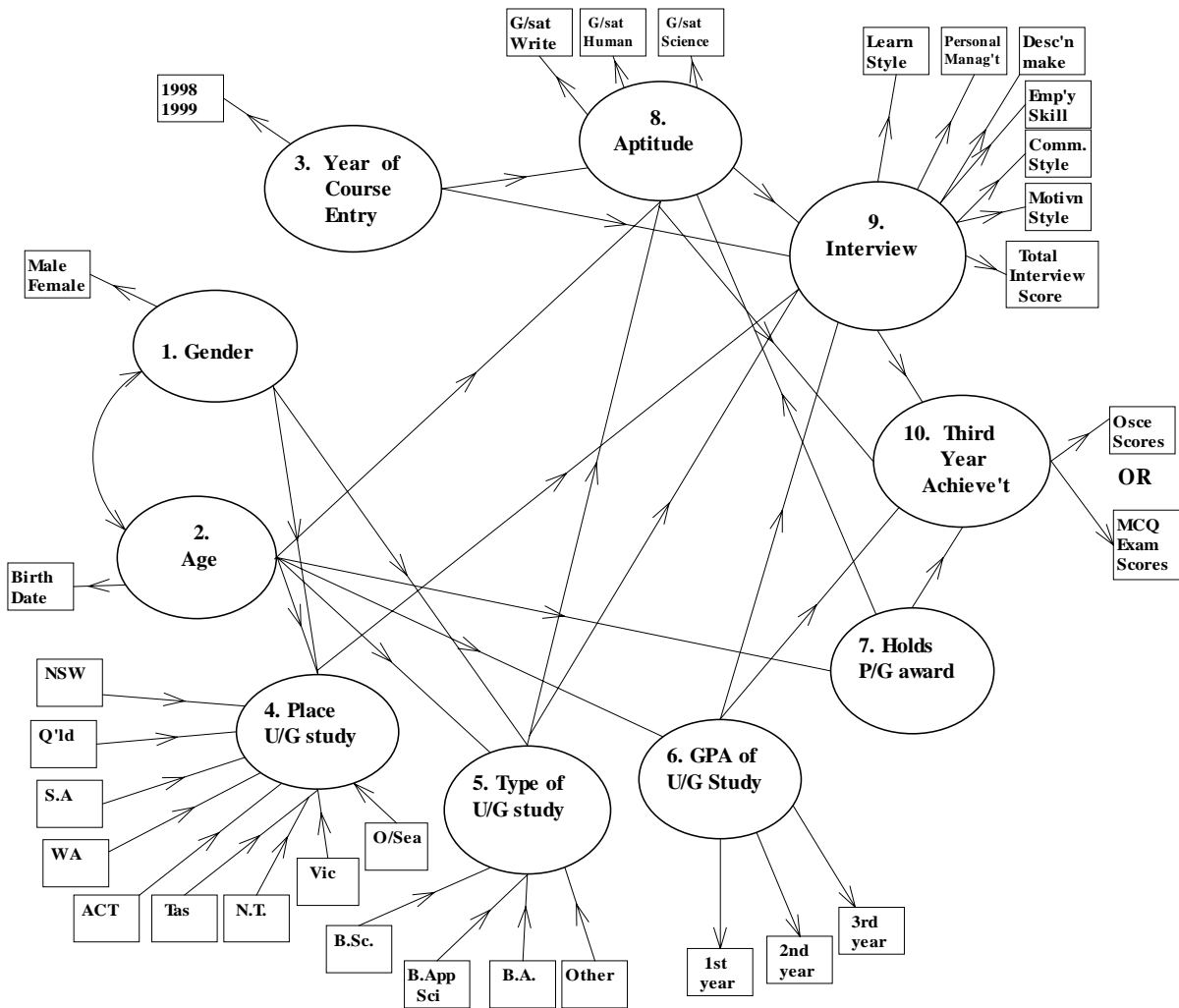


Figure 1. Predicted relationships between manifest and latent variables to achievement in the graduate entry medical program.

Different psychological tests have been used to predict medical student achievement. Psychiatric assessment of medical students has been used as a determinant of success in graduating from medical school but has proved to be unreliable particularly when involving such variables as the student's personality, interest and attitudes (Aldrich, 1987). However, when combined with a profile at course entry involving student's success in a previous degree, achievement at high school and grade point average such tests might be useful, as predictors of success in the non-clinical aspects of medical studies (Green, Peters and Webster, 1993; Hoschl and Kozeny, 1997; Shen and Comrey, 1997).

The medical student's age has been found to have effects both for gaining access to medical courses and for defining achievement during the medical program. Older students in several studies, did less well in reasoning in the sciences and tended to be graded with lower scores at the beginning of their courses, up to and including the first year of their medical studies (Aldous, Leeder, Price, Sefton and Tuebner, 1999; Huff and Fang, 1999; Kay, Pearson and Rolfe, 2002). Medical student ratings as given by their clinical supervisors were not significantly influenced by student age, yet another recent English study suggested that the older and mature aged medical students did achieve better overall, when compared to their younger counterparts (Rolfe, Pearson, Powis, and Smith, 1995; James and Chilvers, 2001).

Student gender seems to have some influence on medical student achievement also. Scores achieved by male students on medical course admission tests for GAMSAT (Graduate Australian Medical School Admissions Test) were higher than those achieved by female medical student applicants (Ramsbottom-Lucier, Johnson, and Elam, 1995; Aldous, Leeder, Price, Sefton and Teubner, 1999; Chaput de Saintonge and Dunn, 2001). While on course, female medical students were seen generally to be at a greater risk of experiencing difficulties with their studies compared to their male counterparts (Huff and Fang, 1999). However, if female medical students already possessed an honours degree while undertaking their medical courses, problems with achievement were less likely (James and Chilvers, 2001).

There has been much debate about the advantages of using grade point average scores (GPA) as a determinant for medical course access. GPA scores are said not to be consistent determinants of success in the early years of undergraduate medical studies (Blue, Gilbert, Elam and Basco, 2000). However, matriculation and higher undergraduate science scores were better predictors of success for the very beginning medical students' achievement (Hall and Stocks, 1995; James and Chilvers, 2001) and for predicting the student's eventual access to a medical specialty area on graduation (Pringle, and Lee, 1998). Used on their own, GPA scores are not considered to be consistent predictors for medical course achievement especially for students who came from cultural minority groups (Lynch and Woode, 1990), or for students who used English as a second language (Chan-Ob and Boonyanaruthee, 1999), or for predicting medical students' ability to interact with patients, or of estimating their performance requiring clinically related skills (Hall and Stocks, 1995; Poussaint, 1999; Reede, 1999).

The Graduate Australian Medical School Admissions Test (GAMSAT) modelled on the North American Medical College Admissions Test (MCAT) seeks to evaluate medical student abilities and skills developed through prior experience and learning. This includes the student's understanding of basic science, general problem solving skills, critical thinking skills and writing ability (ACER, 1998). One recent Australian study showed that male applicants scored more highly on GAMSAT in reasoning in the humanities and reasoning in the sciences than female medical students, and that older students did less well in reasoning in the sciences. However, improvement in written communication occurred with age (Aldous, Leeder, Price, Sefton, and Teubner, 1997).

The type of first degree studies undertaken by students has been found to have a strong influence on GAMSAT performance particularly for arts and social science students who did well with reasoning in the GAMSAT humanities test and written communication, and with science degree students doing better in reasoning in the GAMSAT physical sciences test. Honours students did better overall on GAMSAT scores than students holding just the bachelor degree (Aldous, Leeder, Price, Sefton, and Teubner, 1997). Although much research has been done into factors influencing performance in traditional medical school courses, very little research has been undertaken into the examination performance of students in graduate entry medical programs.

METHODS OF INVESTIGATION AND ANALYSIS

Participants

A retrospective sample of 99 (consisting of two groups of 51 and 48 students) Australian graduate entry medical students who had completed their third year of medical studies was chosen for this research study. The two groups of students who were selected for the study, comprised those who commenced their four-year graduate medical program in 1998 (occasion 1) and those who started a year later in 1999 (occasion 2). Just over half of the medical students were males (57%) and with an age range from 23 years to 47 years of age (mean, 29 years and sd 6.0).

Upon commencement of a medical course, the predominate undergraduate degree held by students (62%) was a science degree, followed by an applied science degree (22% of students) and with a Bachelor of Arts award accounting for 12 per cent of the student group. Four students held other qualifications such as a Bachelor of Engineering. Well over half of the group held postgraduate degrees (62%) in addition to their undergraduate qualifications. Most students gained their initial qualifications in South Australia (40%) followed by Victoria (16%), New South Wales (12%), with Queensland, Western Australia and Tasmania having almost equivalent but small numbers of students. Very small numbers of students came from the Northern Territory, the Australian Capital Territory and from Australian students obtaining their undergraduate degrees overseas.

Data Collection

With full recognition of confidentiality issues, information about student admission variables was obtained from past student records. Admission scores obtained for the study's use included the Graduate Australian Medical School Admissions Test (GAMSAT) scores for applicants, their grade point average scores achieved in their undergraduate studies and the student's interview scores obtained prior to course admission.

Student achievement information in their third year of medical studies was gained from a retrospective audit of student records documenting results on a 150 multiple-choice examination, which tested different aspects of medicine in various domains including obstetrics and gynaecology, surgery, paediatrics and general practice. In addition the scores recorded in a 20 task objectively structured clinical evaluation (OSCE) were obtained. The foci of these so-called clinically simulated tasks included history taking, counselling skills, pharmacological understanding, physical examination practices and clinical dexterity in medical procedures in several medical domains. It should be noted that some of the multiple choice examinations and the objectively structured clinical evaluation tasks differed between the two occasions, but as some common items were used on both occasions, this allowed for the equating of the instruments over both time periods.

Data Analysis

As the student scores obtained for both the multiple choice examination and the OSCE assessments were estimated using classical test theory (or true-score theory), any analysis of those student test scores is confined to information about item difficulty and item discrimination and some overall estimate of the test's reliability. This feature has serious limitations (Yen and Edwardson, 1999) in equating scores over time. These problems can be overcome by the use of item-response theory (Rasch scaling analysis) which allows an estimation of the student's underlying ability to be undertaken by examining the student's performance on a set of test items, after allowance has been made for the difficulty of the item and how well the items are matched to the student's ability level (El-Korashy, 1995; Ludlow and Haley, 1995). The program used for this part of the analysis was done using the RUMM software (Andrich, Luo and Sheridan, 2001).

As previously mentioned, the items of the multiple choice examinations and the OSCE assessments differed over the two years in which the study was conducted, and the sets of scores needed to be equated before the analysis could proceed. Data from the two different medical student examinations were therefore combined, as there were sets of common items linking the tests together over two occasions (Wright, 1993; Luo, Seow, and Chew, 2001). The analysis provided a calibration, standard error and fit statistic for every student and all test items involved in the testing. Misfitting items were eliminated in the calibrations (Andrich, Sheridan and Luo, 1998). However, since a weak correlation between the students' scores arising from the multiple-choice examination to the clinical assessments was obtained ($r=+0.30$). It was not possible to combine the two different types of scores to form a single outcome measure.

After test equating was completed, the Partial Least Squares Path Analysis (PLSPAT 3.01) program (Sellin, 1990) was used to test the separate models of variables that were hypothesized to influence academic achievement and clinical performance in medicine at third year level. The analysis would predict and identify which relationships between the variables and achievement might or might not exist (Noonan, and Wold, 1985). The PLSPAT procedure is highly appropriate for analysing and predicting relationships between educational data as it can deal with data that are not normally distributed and that would be excluded in other analytical approaches. Additionally, PLSPAT can deal with relatively small numbers of cases and yet remain very robust especially in situations where not all the relevant variables are known to be normally distributed or where the relationship between the latent variables (theoretical constructs) and the manifest variables are unknown or speculative (Falk, 1987). PLSPAT is also the modelling method of choice as it can account for influences hypothesized to act by using causal models because it is clearly impossible to administer randomised controlled conditions to assess causality in such educational settings (Keeves, 1988). In the presentation of the findings of the analyses of the data collected in this study, the estimated path models are shown in diagrammatic form with only a brief discussion of the procedures involved in their estimation. However, only the causal paths of particular interest in the prediction of medical student performance are discussed although a more detailed report has been prepared for consideration of interested readers (Blackman, 2004).

RESULTS

Multiple-Choice examination

Figure 2 shows the estimated path model for the prediction and explanation of the multiple-choice examination scores.

The effects of educational status of the medical student

The variable that describes whether or not a student entered medicine course with an award greater than an ordinary undergraduate degree (LV7) has a negative pathway (-0.19) on the achievement variable for the multiple-choice examination. This co-efficient indicates that the post-graduate group did significantly worse in the multiple-choice examination than students holding only an undergraduate award.

The effects of the age of the medical student and success

With respect to the relationship between the age and achievement of the multiple-choice examination, it can be seen that a negative path co-efficient (-0.16) exists between age and the achievement variable. This indicates that the younger students did significantly better on the multiple-choice achievement test than did older students.

These are the only two variables that are estimated to influence directly the multiple choice examination scores, and a large residual path of 0.97 (representing unexplained variance) is recorded for the achievement variable (LV10) in Figure 2, since only six per cent of the variance of this outcome is explained.

Clinical assessment scores

Figure 3 shows the estimated path model for the prediction and explanation of the objectively structured clinical examination scores.

The effects of GPA scores

With reference to Figure 3 it can be seen that the grade point average scores obtained by students in their undergraduate studies (LV6) has a direct influence on their subsequent achievement on the clinical assessment tasks. A positive path coefficient exists between these two variables (0.17) which indicates that students with higher grade point averages in their undergraduate studies overall achieve at a higher level on the clinical examination in their third year of medical studies. The loadings for the GPA scores obtained in the first (0.88) second (0.92) or third years (0.78) of study are an indication that there is little difference between the contributions to OSCE performance made by the different years of prior study.

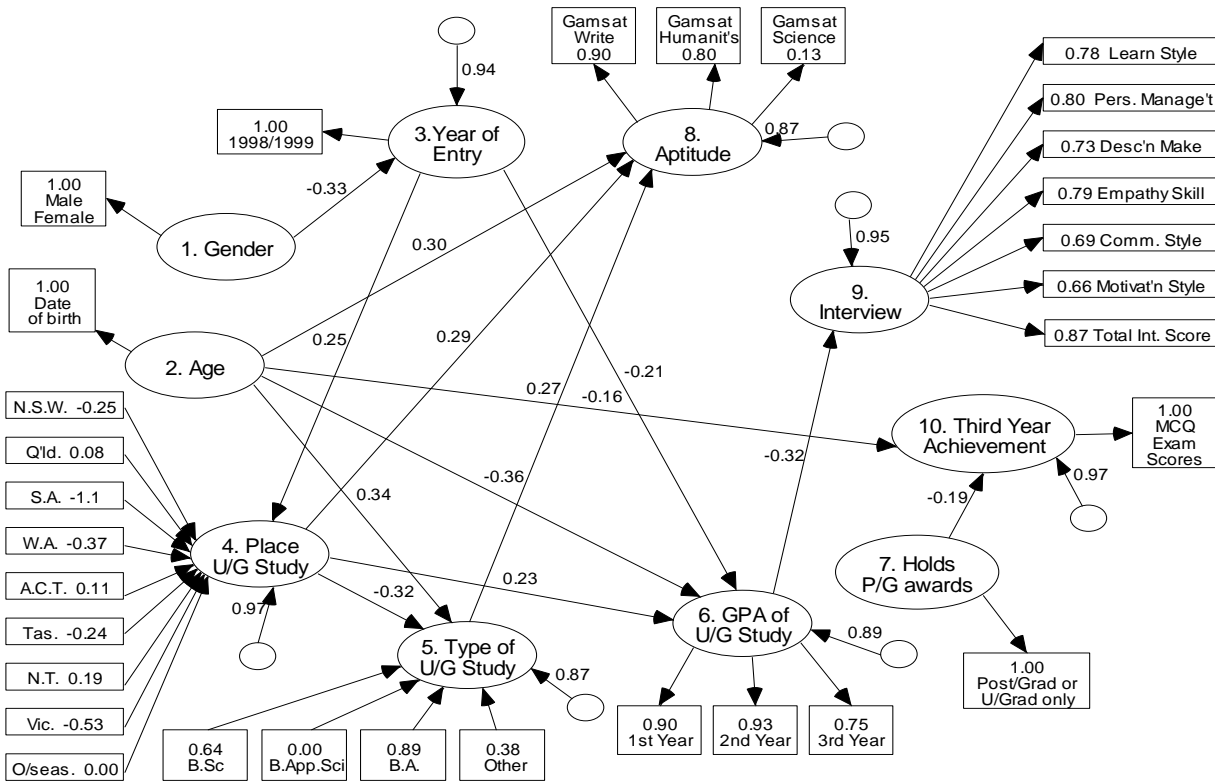


Figure 2. Final model for predicting achievement in the multiple-choice medical examination

The effects of the type of undergraduate studies

A path co-efficient of 0.21 exists between the clinical examination variable and the variable that describes the type of undergraduate study (LV5) taken by the student prior to entering medical studies. A positive pathway indicates that students with a science type of undergraduate degree (0.85) achieve better than students with an Arts degree (0.71), any other degree (0.40) or an applied science degree (0.0). Graduate entry medical students who held an applied science degree were coded as zero and employed as a dummy variable in the analysis. Students who held degrees in applied science did significantly worse than other students in particular clinical examination tasks involving history taking, interpretation of objective medical data and the specific management of external fixation devices to limb fracture.

The place of undergraduate studies undertaken

Between the achievement variable and the variable associated with where students undertook their undergraduate studies (LV4), a path co-efficient of 0.25 is recorded. This positive pathway suggests that students from certain undergraduate study sites did better than others in their

medical examinations. This is particularly true for students who studied for their undergraduate degrees in Western Australia (-0.10) and South Australia (-0.56) who ha significantly lower clinical examination scores compared to their counterparts who studied in Queensland (0.49).

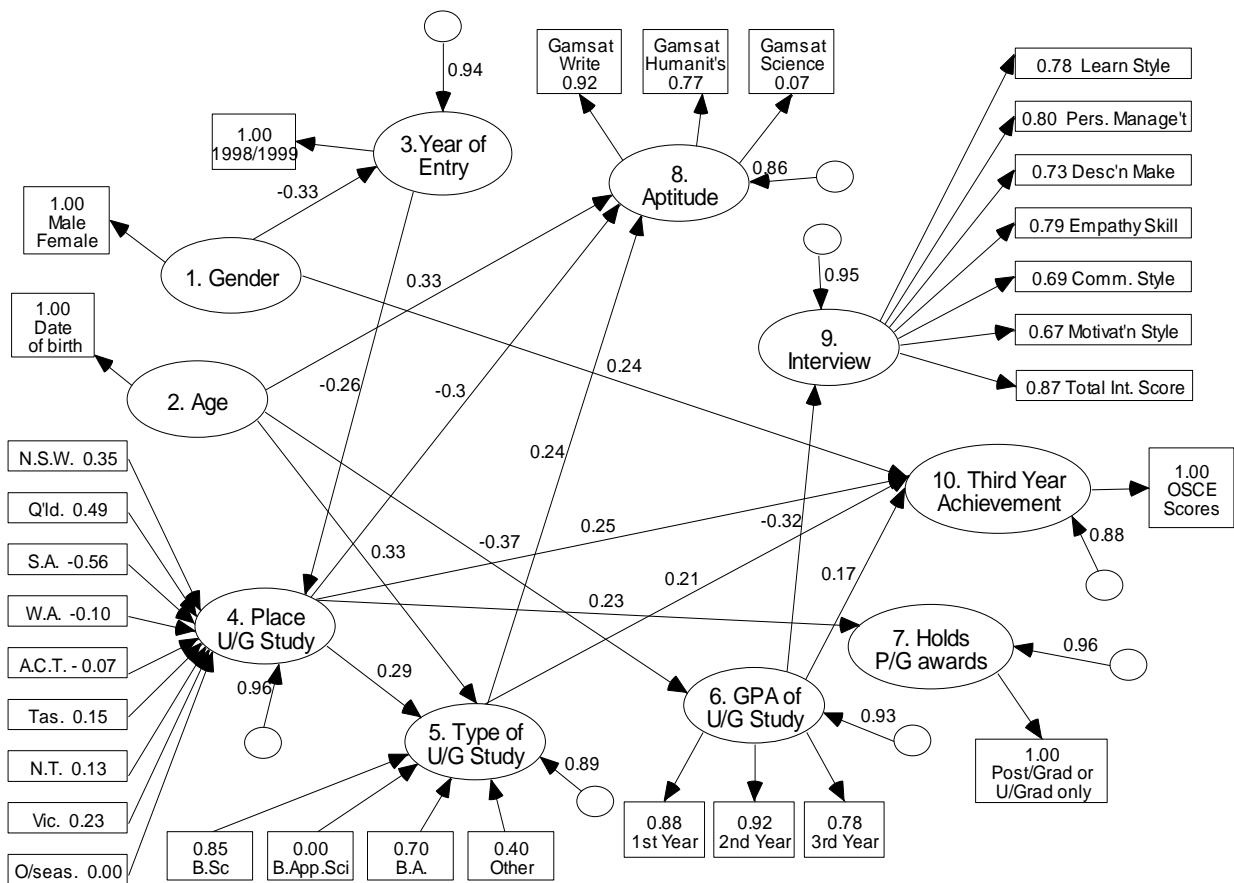


Figure 3. Final path model for factors influencing achievement clinical medical examination

The effects of gender on undergraduate students

A positive path co-efficient exists between the student gender variable (LV1) and the achievement variable (0.24). This indicates that female students did better than male students overall in their clinical assessments. A residual path of 0.88 exists after the effects of these four variables on the OSCE scores have been estimated, since 22 per cent of the variance of the outcome variable was explained.

Discussion

Gender and achievement

Although there were more male students in the 1998 group than female medical students and more female students than male students in the 1999 group, gender was not a significant predictor of achievement in the multiple-choice examination, but it was for achievement in the clinical assessments.

It is difficult to provide a strong explanation for the clinical achievement difference in favour of female students without further study. However, it might arise because the content of some of the OSCEs could favour female students over male students. Differential item functioning (using Rasch scaling) of the OSCE assessments did show that female students did significantly better than male students on certain clinical content areas such as infection management and paediatric

assessment. Alternatively, clinical ability might differ between female and male students because of what the OSCE examination was actually asking the medical student to do (namely, counselling and interpreting data) and hence female students might be more successful than the male students with respect to particular affective or psychomotor skills. It could also be due to the fact that female students interact differently with their learning environments than do male students and that motivation for clinical achievement differs according to whether the student is female or male (Chaput De-Saintonge, and Dunn, 2001).

Student age and achievement

A significant negative co-efficient exists between the multiple choice examination variable only, and the medical student's age. This finding indicates that older students are less successful than younger students when taking the multiple-choice examination. This finding is consistent with other studies that have found that older student did less well in reasoning in the sciences (Aldous, Leeder, Price, Sefton, and Teubner, 1997) and were more at risk of having difficulties with academic work in general (Huff, and Fang, 1999). In terms of clinical performance, however, age was not a significant predictor with one study suggesting rather that the clinical achievement of older students was influenced significantly by when the clinical experience was offered. (Ramsbottom-Lucier, Johnson, and Elam, 1995).

Place of undergraduate study and achievement

The graduate-entry medical program is offered in South Australia, Sydney and Brisbane and students involved in this study who were from New South Wales and Queensland would have been able to apply to gain access to their own State's graduate medical program but instead came to South Australia to study. While students from Queensland and New South Wales achieved higher scores in their clinical assessments, further study is required to examine how students in other schools of graduate-entry medicine are performing.

Type of undergraduate award and achievement

It was hypothesized that the type of initial degree that the student possessed would only indirectly influence achievement. It was thought that this variable would have its strongest influence on the interview and GAMSAT scores. It has been historically acknowledged that students with high scores in science type topics traditionally do well in medicine and this model has shown such a relationship exists since those students with a science degree perform better than students with an arts degree or another degree except an applied science degree. Students with an applied science degree do noticeably worse than their counterparts with other degrees.

GPA scores and achievement

This study has shown that GPA scores are significant predictors of the clinical focus examination. This pathway was predicted in the initial hypothesis and this finding concurs with other studies that acknowledge that undergraduate GPA scores can predict medical school performance (Blue, Gilbert, Elam, and Basco, 2000).

Post-graduate award status and achievement

Medical students who hold awards in addition to their undergraduate degree are not achieving as well as medical students who hold an ordinary degree in the multiple choice examination model. This was not predicted in the initial hypothesis, which proposed that such students would achieve better scores as a result of their further studies. One reason for this negative co-efficient could be that the multiple-choice method differed significantly from the way the students were assessed when they undertook their own post-graduate studies, whereas students who held an ordinary

degree only, were more likely to have had recent experience with written examinations, possibly including the multiple choice format.

GAMSAT scores and achievement

The GAMSAT scores in this study do not have any direct or indirect influence on student achievement in medical studies. The GAMSAT scores are influenced by the student age, where they undertook their studies and the type of undergraduate studies previously undertaken, but the continued GAMSAT scores as such, are not able to predict clinical or multiple choice examination performance. This is a consequence of the fact that the different components of GAMSAT do not combine effectively together and should be separated in further analyses and subsequent studies.

Success at interview and achievement

This study has been unable to identify a significant link between medical course achievement and scores obtained from a pre-course interview that was initially hypothesized. Admission performance has been linked to achievement in undergraduate medicine but only for the first year of medical studies according to Hall and Stocks, (1995). There is much debate about whether an interview should form part of the medical student admission process (Smith, 1991), whether the interview panels are accurate in their assessment of medical student applicants (Owen, Hayden, and Connors, 2002) and whether interviews should actually be linked to other admission testing processes (Edwards, Maldano, and Calvin, 1999). The seven domains used for student selection in this study are working well together as a construct to derive a combined score for course admission. A continuing effort to develop objective criteria for interview screening would appear to be required, especially if this process could further identify the medical students' capacity for working in a team and detect levels of student self-confidence (Powis, Neame, Bristow, and Murphy, 1988; Powis, 1998).

CONCLUSION

Differences in the achievement of graduate-entry medical students during their third year assessment can be explained by different student variables, depending on the type of graduate entry medical student assessment used. Undergraduate grade point average scores seems to be a significant indicator for predicting clinical achievement, the student's gender, the type of undergraduate studies undertaken and where they studied previously, and all have a direct influence of the clinical achievement variable. Examination scores are directly, but negatively influenced by the age of the student and whether or not they had undertaken further studies in addition to their undergraduate award. While interview and GAMSAT scores on there own, do not add to the explanation of student achievement in this study, they are themselves strongly influenced by other student variables particularly those related to the student's previous study. Most predictors of performance in college and medical school leave relatively large amounts of variance of performance unexplained, because a highly selected sample of students is under investigation with greatly reduced variance. Traditional estimates using school records, GPA scores, information about ethnicity and gender, result in prediction equations with a maximum of 30 per cent of variance explained, (McGanny and Ganoo, 1995). Further studies to increase the predictability of achievement scores could arise from the inclusion of additional variables such as the student's specific ethnic group, types of clinical experience undertaken and other non-cognitive student factors, such as study habits, self image, degree of family support, as well as other non-academic activities, such as employment, hobbies and length of time in commuting to clinical learning areas. A mutli-level analysis which could simultaneously explore not only student variables but also learning institution variables (such as class sizes, timetabling, teaching

and learning practices) could also be employed to measure prediction and explanation of achievement in graduate-entry medicine.

Authors Note

For his critical support our thanks are extended to Professor John P. Keeves. The authors would also like to acknowledge the support given by Professor David Prideaux, Dr Tony Edwards and Ms Jenny Savage.

REFERENCES

- ACER (1998) *Graduate Australian Medical School Admissions Test (GAMSAT) Practice Test*. Melbourne: Australian Council for Educational Research.
- Adams, R and Khoo, S. (1996) *Quest: The interactive test analysis system-version 2.1*. Victoria: Australian Council for Educational Research.
- Aldous, C., Leeder, S., Price, J., Sefton, A. and Teubner, J. (1997) A selection test for Australian graduate-entry medical schools. *Medical Journal of Australia*. 166, 247-250.
- Aldrich C. (1987) Psychiatric interviews and psychological tests as predictors of medical student success. *Academic Medicine*. 62, 658-664.
- Andrich, D., Sheridan, B. and Luo, G. (2001) *RUMM: Rasch Unidimensional Measurement Model*. Perth: Rumm Laboratory.
- Blackman, I. (2004) *Predicting graduate entry medical student achievement*. Unpublished Thesis. Adelaide: Flinders University.
- Blue, A., Gilbert, G., Elam, C. and Basco, W. (2000) Does institutional selectivity aid in the prediction of medical school performance. *Academic Medicine*. 75, 31-33.
- Chan-Ob, T. and Boonyanaruthee, V. (1999) Medical student selection: which matriculation scores and personality factors are important? *Journal of Medical Association of Thailand*. 82, 604-610.
- Chaput de Saintonge, M. and Dunn, D. (2001) Gender and achievement in clinical medical students: a path analysis. *Medical Education*. 35, 1024-1033.
- Edwards, J., Maldano, F. and Calvin, J. (1999) The effects of differently weighting interview scores on the admission of under-represented minority medical students. *Academic Medicine*. 74, 59-61.
- El-Korashy, A. (1995) Applying The Rasch model to the selection of items from a mental ability test. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*. 55, 753-763.
- Falk, R.F. and Miller, N (1992) *A Primer for Soft Modelling*. Ohio: The University of Akron Press.
- Field, M. and Gordon, J. (2002) *New Pathways into Medical School "Down Under"*. [Online] http://www.studentmj.com/back_issues/0900/editorials/305.html
- Green, A., Peters, T. and Webster, D. (1993) Preclinical progress in relation to personality and academic profiles. *Medical Education*. 27, 137-142.
- Hall, M. and Stocks, M. (1995) Relationship between quantity of undergraduate science preparation and pre-clinical performance in medical school. *Academic Medicine*. 70, 230-235.
- Hoschl, C. and Kozeny, J. (1997) Predicting academic performance of medical students: The first three years. *American Journal of Psychiatry*. 154, 87-92.
- Huff, K. and Fang, D. (1999) When are students most at risk of encountering academic difficulty? A study of the 1992 matriculants to U.S. medical Schools. *Academic Medicine*. 74, 454-460.
- James, D. and Chilvers, C. (2001) Academic and non-academic predictors of success on the Nottingham undergraduate medical course 1970-1995. *Medical Education*. 35,1056-1064.

- Kay, L., Pearson, S. and Rolfe, I. (2002) The influence of admission variables on first year medical school performance: A study from Newcastle University, Australia. *Medical Education*. 36, 154-159.
- Keeves, J.P. (1988) Longitudinal research methods. In J.P. Keeves, (Ed) *Educational Research Methodology and Measurement: An International Handbook*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.
- Ludlow, L. and Haley, S. (1995) Rasch model logits: Interpretation, use and transformation. *Education and Psychological Measurement*. 55, 6, 967-975.
- Luo, G., Seow, A. and Chin, C. (2001) Linking and anchoring Techniques in test equating using the Rasch model. [Online] <http://www.lbro.ac.uk/service/ltd/flicca/conf2001/pdfs/hi.pdf>
- Lynch, K. and Woode, M. (1990) The relationship of minority students' MCAT scores and grade point averages to their acceptance into medical school. *Academic Medicine*. 65, 480-482.
- McGanny, M. and Ganoo, S. (1995) Non-cognitive factors and performance predictions. *Academic Medicine*, 70, 1-2.
- Noonan, R.H. (1985) Partial least squares Analysis. In Husen, T. and Postlethwaite, T. (eds) *The International Encyclopaedia of Education, Research and Studies*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.
- Owen, J., Hayden, G. and Connors, A. (2002) Can medical school admission committee members predict which applicants will choose primary care careers? *Academic Medicine*. 77, 344-349.
- Poussaint, A. (1999) Clinical experience and minority group medical students. *Clinical Orthopaedics and Related Research*. 362, 78-84.
- Powis, D., Neame, R., Bristow, T. and Murphy, L. (1988) The objective structured interview for medical student selection. *British Medical Journal*. 296, 765-768.
- Powis, D. (1998) Select medical students (How to do it). *British Medical Journal*. 317, 1149-1151.
- Pringle, R. and Lee, J. (1998) The use of learning and study strategies inventory (LASSI) as a predictor for success or failure on part1 of the National Board of Chiropractic Examiners Test. *Journal of Manipulative and Psychological Therapeutics*. 21, 164-166.
- Ramsbottom-Lucier, M., Johnson, M. and Elam, C. (1995) Age and gender differences in students' pre-admission qualification and medical school performances. *Academic Medicine*. 70, 236-239.
- Reede J. (1999) Predictors of success in medicine. *Clinical Orthopaedics and Related Research*. 362, 72-77.
- Rolfe, I., Pearson, S., Powis, D. and Smith, A. (1995) Time for a review of admission to medical school? *Lancet*. 346, 1329-1333.
- Sellin, N. (1989) *PLS Path Version 3.01 Program Manual*. Hamburg.
- Shen, H. and Comrey A. (1997) Predicting medical students' academic performance by their cognitive abilities and personality characteristics. *Academic Medicine*. 72, 781-786.
- Smith, S. (1991) Medical school and residency performances of students admitted with and without an admission Interview. *Academic Medicine*. 66, 474-476.
- Yen, M. and Edwardson, S. (1999) Item response theory: Approach in scale development. *Nursing Research*. 48, 234-238.
- Wing, L (2003) *Course booklet for first year medical science*. Adelaide: Flinders University.
- Wright B. (1993) Equitable test equating. *Rasch Management Transactions*, 17 (2). [Online] <http://www.rasch.org/rmt72q.htm>

The Design and Development of a Simulation to Teach Water Conservation to Primary School Students

Lee Campbell

Flinders University camp0182@flinders.edu.au

Information and Communications Technology (ICT) plays a dominant role in enhancing teaching and learning. Similar advances have been made in the use of multimedia in the classroom. These advances are coupled with newer developmental tools and techniques.

This paper examines the design and development of a simulation on water conservation. Science concepts taught through traditional methods are brought to life through animation and multimedia. The paper examines the underlying instructional design and pedagogy for developing useful simulations. It also highlights the support provided by currently available authoring tools.

The paper concludes with how the effectiveness of simulations can be examined, and discusses issues around the use of simulations and learning objects in the primary classroom.

ICT, multimedia, water conservation, science education, evaluation

RESEARCH STUDIES ON SIMULATIONS

In traditional education, the science curriculum did not encourage teachers to teach information in meaningful contexts. Instead, they were encouraged to teach in isolation, without relating new information to real-life situations (Linn et al., 2000). More recently, the value in linking information with real-life situations has become apparent and teachers are continually looking for ways to practise this in their classroom. The Warriparinga Wetlands simulation has been designed to assist teachers in this area by demonstrating a real-life example of water conservation, through the use of multimedia and animations.

ICT in the classroom

ICT provides an opportunity for progression from the traditional method of delivery to an environment where student learning is self-directed and they can solve real-life problems. This self-directed learning allows teachers the freedom to act as a facilitator, which can give more time for them to work with individual groups and tailor their information to the requirements of individuals (Linn et al., 2000).

It is important for children to learn how to use new technology for several reasons (International Society for Technology in Education 1998). Firstly, Parents want their children to gain skills that prepare them for either the workforce or higher levels of education. Secondly, Employers want staff who are computer literate, and finally, communities want schools to teach children to be productive in a technologically advancing world.

The International society for Technology in Education (1998, p.2) states that:

The most effective learning environments meld traditional approaches and new approaches to facilitate learning of relevant content while addressing individual needs. The resulting learning environments should prepare students to:

- Communicate using a variety of media and formats
- Access and exchange information
- Compile, organise, analyse and synthesise information
- Draw conclusions and make generalisations based on information gathered
- Use information and select appropriate tools to solve problems
- Know content and be able to locate additional information as needed
- Become self-directed learners
- Collaborate and cooperate in team efforts
- Interact with others in ethical and appropriate ways.

A significant benefit of using simulations and learning objects in the classroom is that they are versatile. The Australian Education Systems Officials Committee (AESOC 2001) states that they can be used as:

...components of learning sequences or in exploration of topics, or as elements in units of study. Teachers can construct their own learning sequences, making their decisions about what works for their students as a group, in small groups or as individual learners, which suit their particular classroom situation.

Rather than being taught in isolation, technology should be used as an integral tool for student learning within the existing curriculum (International Society for Technology in Education 1998). According to the BJP Consulting (2003) web site, there are three stages of ICT infusion. The first is the initial use of technology: computing is separated from other learning and is usually taught in computer labs by specialists. The pedagogy of learning is about teaching technology. The second is the integration of technology: technology is integrated into the curriculum, however its use is optional. It is taught with traditional tasks and the pedagogy of learning is about teaching the same tasks with new tools. The third is infusion of technology: this is where technology is seamlessly infused into the curriculum. It involves both student and teacher initiated activities, using ICT. Tasks are impossible without technology and students work collaboratively on self-directed learning, complex thinking and communication. The teaching pedagogy is about student-centred learning using new methods with new tools.

Figure 1 shows a model depicting the dynamics of ICT in education as a two way process between teaching and learning. Instructional design is initiated by both teachers and students and involves various teaching media and methods. Learning is self-paced and is assessed by both teachers and students. Evaluation of teaching methods and media used is done by students and teachers and can be used for assessment, reporting and for teachers to evaluate their own needs in professional development.

There is a government initiative designed to integrate learning objects into the classroom called The Learning Federation (AESOC 2001). The Initiative's aim is to develop interactive curriculum content online. This content is delivered to students in the form of learning objects designed to support teachers in enhancing student learning, specifically for Australian and New Zealand schools. The framework applied in the development and evaluation of learning objects for use by the Initiative, only gives consideration to some parts of the above model. It concentrates on curriculum content, teaching, learning and technical standards. However, it is missing the elements of instructional design, assessment, evaluation, feedback and professional development.

The Warriparinga Wetlands simulation aims to cover all of the elements in the ICT Teaching Model. It is a tool for student-centred learning, allowing the teacher to become a facilitator, free to

observe students' activities and provide individualised assistance. Students are empowered by having control over their own learning and can be given the opportunity to come up with their own educational activities stemming from the research conducted while completing the simulation. Students submit their answers to research questions contained within the simulation to a database through an online questionnaire (see Description for more detail). Questions can be added to the questionnaire and teachers can use the resulting database to assess students' knowledge, skills and attitudes towards the environment. The database can also be used to provide feedback to students and parents. The whole package lends itself to provide professional development to teachers on many facets of ICT infusion in the classroom, including how to teach topics using learning objects and simulations, what activities can be used in conjunction with learning objects and simulations, how to create movies, and use databases.

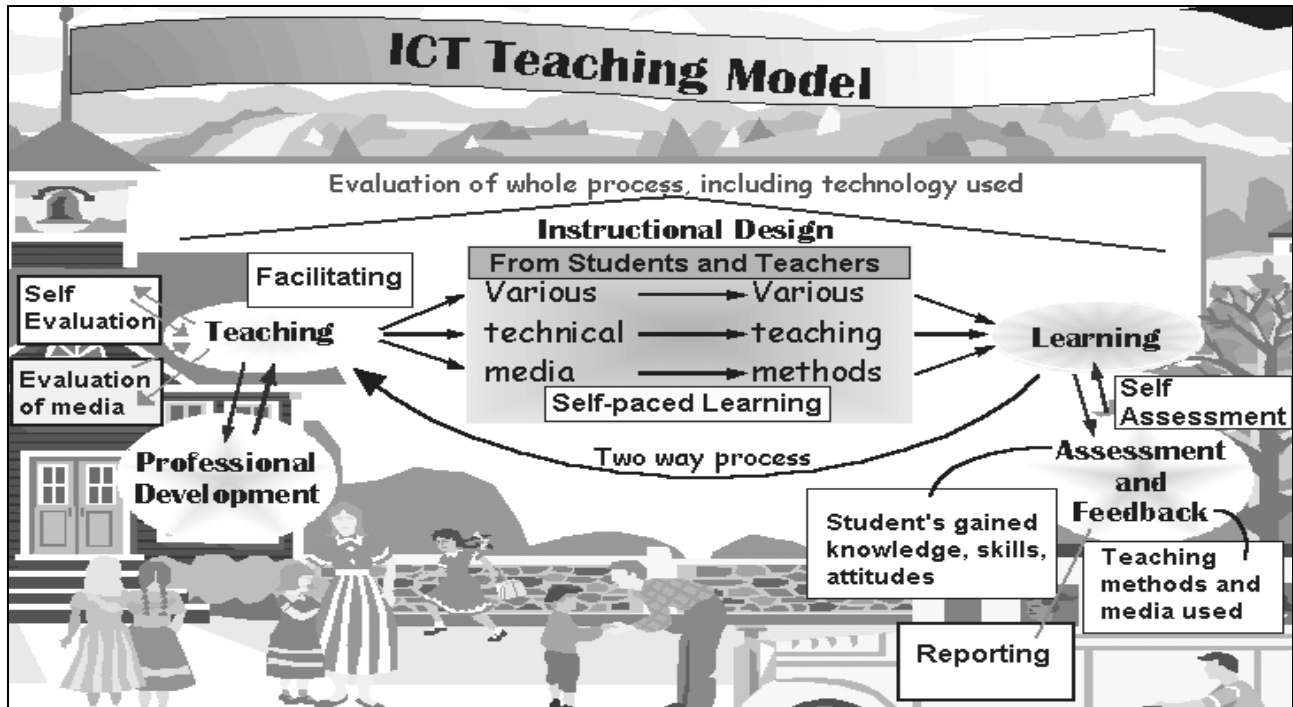


Figure 1. ICT Teaching Model

The Warriparinga Wetlands simulation can be infused with many educational activities on water conservation and ICT. For Society and Environment, students could create their own movies on some aspect of the environment and go on an excursion to the Warriparinga Wetlands (or some other environmental outing), taking digital photos of the main features for use in their own project or movie. In English, they could write a script for their movies and keep a digital journal of their learning and creations. In the Arts, they could make their own graphics for their movies and journals, create a storyboard for their movies, practise acting techniques and produce their own background music. In Health, they could look at how the issue of water pollution effects the health of the community. Extension activities could entail a whole class commitment to a Water Watch project (South Australia Central 2001), a project using HyperStudio on a river of their choice, an animation using Kid Pix or PowerPoint.

DESIGN

When designing the simulation, several considerations needed to be taken into account. The first was to create something which would be interactive so that students could control their own learning and teachers could become facilitators of that learning. With this in mind, questions were incorporated into the project so that student learning would be directed in the area of water

pollution. Students typed their answers into an online questionnaire and submitted this to a database for the teacher to assess their understanding of the topic. Later, to aid in interactivity, the simulation was interfaced with PowerPoint so that students could control the pace of their learning (see Description of Warriparinga Wetlands Simulation for more detail).

Secondly, the video footage of the processes involved in water conservation at the Warriparinga Wetlands needed to be explained to students. In order to give a powerful visual demonstration of this, Macromedia Flash animations were integrated. These animations gave simple explanations and demonstrated the flow of water and filtering out of pollutants. Macromedia Flash was used to create these animations because it was attractive, compelling and widely available for most ICT users (Macromedia 2000). The design capabilities of Flash are unlimited – novices can use it to create simple animations and experts can produce high quality publications.

Thirdly, it was important to create interest for students in order to increase their motivation to watch the simulation. Various visual stimuli were introduced to assist with this. Written information was integrated with Macromedia Flash animations and Video footage. In the animations, the character of a water droplet was created to appeal to students. Sound was also included to create ambiance and add interest.

Fourthly, the information needed to be presented in a logical sequence. The two questions focused on the issue of water pollution and what students could do to assist with this issue. The movie then built on this gained knowledge by showing the Warriparinga Wetlands as an example of what the community doing to protect our waterways.

Lastly, in order to make this simulation a highly useful classroom resource, it needed to be adaptable. This is another reason it was interfaced with PowerPoint as teachers are able to adapt the PowerPoint slides to give different instructions if desired. They can also add slides with extra activities for students.

DEVELOPMENT

In the development of the Warriparinga Wetlands simulation, several software programs were used. To put the whole thing together into Quicktime Movie format, iMovie was used. This program was very easy to use and all transitions, music, sound effects and titles were inserted using it. Microsoft PowerPoint provided the means for including written information and as mentioned previously, Macromedia Flash was used to create the animations.

While it was highly useful to be able to include all of these programs with iMovie, they were not all compatible. Therefore, problems occurred while converting some of the formats so that they could be used with iMovie. Microsoft PowerPoint did not present any problems as slides could be converted to JPEG format, which was compatible with iMovie. However, the Macromedia Flash animations needed to be converted to DV format using Quicktime Pro. This proved to be more difficult, but with the support of Len Szablinski (the technician at Flinders University), was quite easily achieved. Len provided all the technical support necessary and with his help, all of the considerations mentioned in the design phase were able to be realised. Len taught me how to use all the equipment needed such as techniques for using the video camera and tripod, recording the sound effects (eg bird sounds), and using iMovie.

DESCRIPTION

The Warriparinga Wetlands simulation was interfaced with PowerPoint. This is useful because slides could be set up with instructions for students so that learning could be student-directed and self-paced. Teachers were then free to act as facilitators. The other benefit of presenting the

simulation in this way was that teachers could alter the instructions listed underneath the movie and add in any questions for students, as shown in Figure 2.

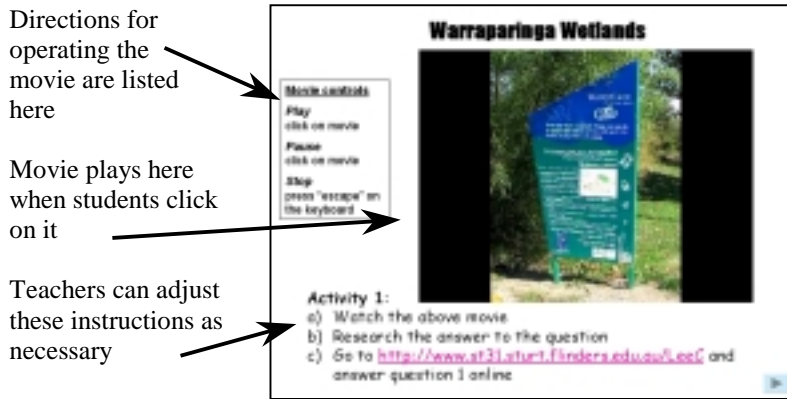


Figure 2. The Warraparinga Wetlands movie is displayed in the centre of the slide with instructions underneath and on the left hand side

The simulation was split into three parts. The first part presented the titles and various photos taken at the Warraparinga Wetlands. Then the first question was displayed in Figure 3.



Figure 3. Question number one: PowerPoint was used to create this effect

Students can research the answers to this question on the Internet and record them in an online questionnaire, which is submitted to a class database. The questionnaire can be altered and extra questions added as shown in Figure 4. The database created provides an opportunity for a whole class discussion of the research results, feedback to students and parents and assessment of learning.

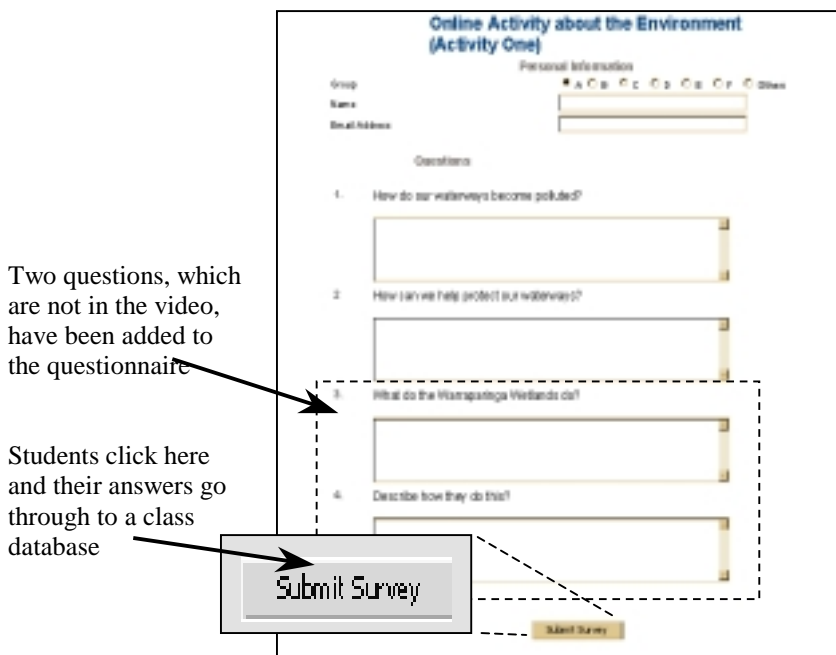
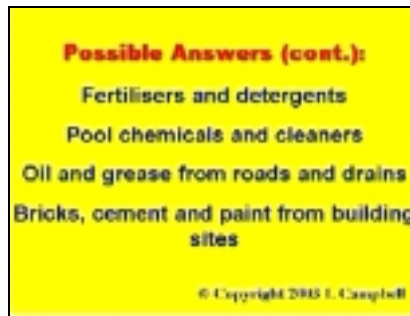
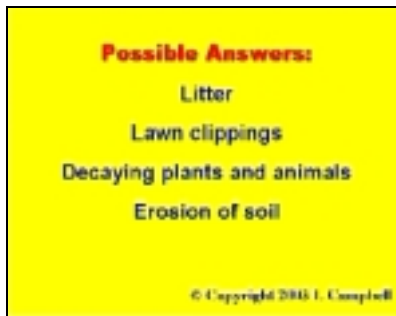


Figure 4. Questionnaire where students record their answers to the research questions in the video and any other questions the teacher might like to add

After recording their research findings, students return to the simulation, which lists possible answers to the question and shows video footage illustrating these points. These are presented in Figures 5, 6 and 7.



Figures 5 and 6.

List of possible answers to question one

Figure 7.

Video footage of a building site

Next the simulation displays question two, which is, “How can we help to protect our rivers and lakes?” The simulation stops here and students research this question and record their answers in the same format as before. The possible answers and video footage are displayed as seen in Figures 8 and 9.



Figure 8. List of possible answers to question number two

Figure 9. Video footage demonstrating proper disposal of lawn clippings

The next part of the simulation is about how the Warriparinga Wetlands work to clean the water from the Sturt River. Macromedia Flash animations demonstrate the various processes involved in filtering out pollutants in the water. Each animation then flows into actual footage of the Warriparinga Wetlands. Following is a brief description of the process.

The water flows down the Sturt River and is diverted through a tunnel and into the Warriparinga Wetlands through a large fallen log (Figures 10 and 11). The water passes through nets, which trap debris and litter (Figures 12 and 13). It then flows out into four ponds. Water moves very slowly through the ponds and finer pollutants settle out into the clay at the bottom (Figure 14 and 15). Finally, the water passes over a rock riffle and then flows back out into the Sturt River (Figures 16 and 17).

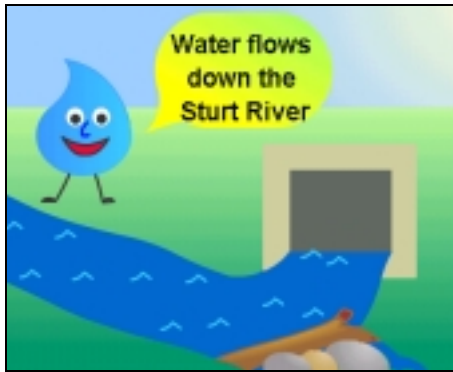


Figure 10. Animation demonstrating the water being diverted into the Wetlands



Figure 11. Transition from animation to footage of the process

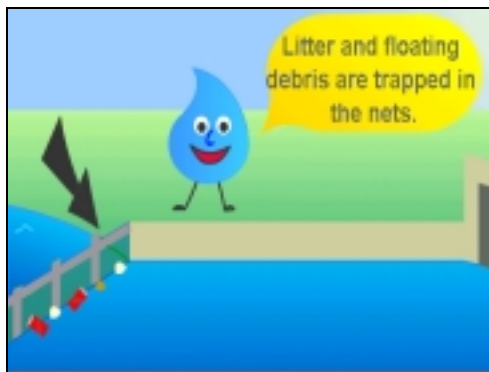


Figure 12. Animation demonstrating the nets which trap litter and debris



Figure 13. Transition to video footage of the nets shown in the animation



Figure 14. Animation depicting finer pollutants settling out of the water in the ponds



Figure 15. Transition to footage of ponds demonstrated in the animation



Figure 16. Animation depicting water flowing over the rock riffle



Figure 17. Transition to footage of the rock riffle demonstrated in the animation

EVALUATING MULTIMEDIA SIMULATIONS AND ANIMATIONS

Teachers know that the wise use of technology can enrich learning environments and enable students to achieve marketable skills. It is still critical that educators analyse the potential benefits of technology for learning and employ it appropriately (International Society for Technology in Education 1998, p.2).

According to Dowle (nd) and Perry (2000) there are several categories that need to be looked at when evaluating multimedia for use in the classroom.

- Teachers need to consider several factors about the **content** of the program. Is the content current and accurate? Does it include a sufficient amount of information to educate students? Does it enhance the delivery of the topic?
- We need to think about the **instructional design** of the program. Is information presented in a logical sequence? Are the learning activities and instructions clear and easy to understand? Is the program easy for students to use? Is the way in which information is delivered interesting and/or innovative?
- Consideration should be given to student **motivation** from the program. Does the program create interest and engage the student through novelty, humour or surprise? Are learners shown how the topic relates to real world situations?
- Teachers need to examine the use of **media** in the program. Is the media varied (eg video, animation, music, narration, sound effects, and special visual effects) and does it effectively illustrate the concepts and content being taught? Does the various media used complement rather than compete with each other?
- We need to look at the *tone* and **aesthetics** of the program. Is the educational material aimed at the appropriate level for the intended audience? Is the appearance easy to look at (eg no bright colours, can text be easily read)? Does the sound create ambiance or is it too loud?
- Teachers should consider **interactivity** and **navigation**. Do students interact with the program and have the opportunity to input information? Does the program encourage problem solving and do the activities teach by questioning the students? Is navigation easy for students? Are the instructions provided on activities clear?

Evaluation of the effectiveness of the Warriparinga Wetlands simulation

The simulation is currently undergoing evaluation. During this process, the following aspects of student learning will be considered.

Intrinsic motivation

It is generally accepted that there are two categories of motivation: extrinsic, which stems from external rewards and intrinsic, which comes from within the students. Intrinsic motivation is the most effective way to learn because students complete activities because they want to, rather than feeling like they have to (Jenkins and Visser, date unknown). As one of the reasons for using ICT, like the Warriparinga Wetlands simulation, in the classroom is to create interest for learning, it is important to evaluate the effect the simulation has on this aspect. The tool to be used for assessing students' intrinsic motivation is the Intrinsic Motivation Inventory (IMI). This is a collection of questions that aim to assess students' experiences relating to a particular activity (Deci and Ryan 2003).

Multiple Intelligences

There are a broad variety of theories on how the human brain functions and the consequential preferred methods of learning. Gardner of Harvard University discusses this in terms of multiple intelligences and states that there are many that he has not yet identified. He has, to date, identified nine different types of intelligence. They are Visual/Spatial, Verbal/Linguistic, Logical/Mathematical, Musical/Rhythmic, Intrapersonal, Interpersonal, Naturalist, Kinesthetic and Existentialist. The intelligences are of substantial importance when designing educational programs because teachers can accommodate individual students more successfully if they can target each intelligence (McKenzie 1999). Students will be given a questionnaire prior to completing the activities in the simulation. This questionnaire will be adapted from an example found online (Como Secondary College 2002). After completing the simulation, students will be tested on their knowledge and comparisons will be made with their preferred multiple intelligences.

Higher-order learning

After completing the activities in the simulation, students will be tested on their knowledge. The questions will be based on Bloom's Taxonomy and the categories in the cognitive domain. In particular, the focus will be on whether students have gained knowledge in the higher categories of analysis, synthesis and evaluation. According to Hoffman (1994-2003) and Krumme (2001) analysis is where information is broken down into its component parts and examined to develop conclusions, synthesis is where students combine the information they have learned in order to create a new whole and evaluation is where students make judgments on the value of the information they have learned, based on certain criteria.

IMPLICATIONS FOR RESEARCH

This study should contribute significantly to several areas of knowledge. First, it will provide useful information about factors to be taken into account when designing software, simulations and learning objects. Secondly, it will give insights as to how to optimise the use of learning objects in the classroom, taking into account Gardner's Multiple Intelligences and higher-order learning. Thirdly, the study will give details on how to enhance and support all learner types through the Multiple Intelligences. Fourthly, it demonstrates that simulations and learning objects can provide authentic experiences for learning, where real-life situations are not available. Fifthly, it will provide useful information on how intrinsic motivation can be achieved using learning objects in the classroom.

Feedback from this study will be used to readdress the ICT Teaching Model and the design of the Warriparinga Wetlands simulation. Evaluations completed by teachers will be used to look at the appropriateness of the content for the year level, its correlation with the science curriculum, the appropriateness of the research questions asked, the tests conducted for assessment of knowledge gained by students and the overall appeal to students. This evaluation will be used to modify the simulation if necessary.

The use of the simulation in the classroom will be examined for whether it allows the teacher to act as a facilitator of learning, whether the answers given in the database provide sufficient feedback to teachers on student learning, whether students found learning more interesting using the technology, whether they felt they had control over their own learning and whether teachers can use it for professional development. Both the simulation and ICT Teaching Model may need to be modified according to evaluations completed by teachers and the students' reaction to and learning from the simulation.

CONCLUSION

The simulation and database have been designed with the ICT Teaching Model in mind. Students and teachers learn together about ICT and water conservation, using the simulation and associated Internet research. The elements of facilitation, student-directed learning, assessment, evaluation and professional development have all been considered during the design phase of the simulation.

While developing the simulation, there was a lot for me to learn about the software programs I was using. However, this experience was made easier by the ability to find solutions both within the software programs and on the Internet. For example, to learn how to use Macromedia Flash, I used a tutorial built into the program as well as tutorials available on the Internet. With some of the difficulties I had in converting between formats, I was able to find the answers on the Internet – in fact, there are many downloadable free programs available for converting between formats.

The software programs used in the development of the Warriparinga Wetlands simulation are easy to use, flexible, available across platforms and allow interactivity for both students and teachers. As a result of this, other teachers can create their own learning objects and simulations using these programs and can use the Warriparinga Wetlands simulation in their classrooms.

Simulations and learning objects such as the Warriparinga Wetlands are a useful tool in the classroom. They allow the students to learn at their own pace and the teacher to facilitate learning. The Warriparinga Wetlands simulation raises the bar for learning by teaching students to be informed and effective learners. This is facilitated through self-paced learning, teaching students how to research information themselves and giving students the opportunity to work in groups, helping each other to learn.

ICT is an important tool for student learning and should be integrated with all subjects within the existing curriculum. Its use in education is as a two way process between teaching and learning, whereby instructional design is initiated by both teachers and students. ICT should be seamlessly infused into the curriculum, giving students the opportunity to work collaboratively on self-directed learning, complex thinking and problem solving.

REFERENCES

- AESOC (Australian Education Systems Officials Committee) (2001) *The Learning Federation homepage*. [Online] <http://www.thelearningfederation.edu.au/tlf/newcms/d2.asp> [2003, December 4].
- Como Secondary College (2002) *Multiple Intelligences Questionnaire*. [Online] http://www.como.wa.edu.au/external/LA/learning_tools/mi/MI_ques.html [2003, Sept 25].
- Deci, E. and Ryan, R. (2003) *Intrinsic Motivation Inventory*. University of Rochester. [Online] <http://www.psych.rochester.edu/SDT/measures/intrins.html> [2003, October 6].
- Dowle, S. (nd) *Multimedia Evaluation*. University of Alberta. [Online] <http://www.ualberta.ca/~sdowie/multimedia.htm> [2003, December 7].
- Hoffman, B. (editor) (1994-2003) *Encyclopaedia of Educational Technology*. [Online] <http://coe.sdsu.edu/eet> [2003, October 24].
- International Society for Technology in Education (June 1998) *National Educational Technology Standards for Students*. Eugene, USA.
- Jenkins, J. and Visser, G. (Unknown) *Make Learning Fun*. [Online] <http://www.imaginal.nl/learningFun.htm> [2003, October 24].

- Krumme, G. (2001) *Major categories in the taxonomy of educational objectives*. University of Washington. [Online] <http://faculty.washington.edu/krumme/guides/bloom.html> [2003, October 24].
- Linn, MC. Kessel, C. Lee, K. Levenson, J. Spitulnik, M. Slotta, J (2000) *Teaching and learning K-8 mathematics and science through inquiry: Program reviews and recommendations*. EnGauge Resources. USA. [Online] <http://www.ncrel.org/engauge/resource/techno/k8.htm>. [2003, September 8].
- Macromedia (2000) *Flash Player for developers and publishers*. [Online] <http://www.neostudios.com/WhyFlash.pdf> [2003, December 11].
- McKenzie, Walter (1999) *It's not how smart you are – it's how you are smart: Howard Gardner's Theory of Multiple Intelligences*. [Online] <http://surfaquarium.com/mi.htm> [2003, October 24].
- Perry, Terrell L (2000) *Evaluating Multimedia*. Coastal Training Technologies Corp. [Online] http://www.coastal.com/WhatsNew/online_multimedia.html [2003, December 7].
- Porter, B (2003) *Bernajean Porter Consulting: Organising Technology for Student Results*. [Online] <http://www.bjpconsulting.com> [2003, September 8].
- South Australia Central (2001) *Waterwatch SA*. [Online] <http://www.sa.waterwatch.org.au> [2003, November 5].

What's Really Wrong with Ethnography?¹

Grant Banfield

Flinders University grant.banfield@flinders.edu.au

In asking the provocative question: 'What's wrong with ethnography?' Hammersley draws attention to what he sees as the conceptual and methodological confusion arising from two competing strands of practice: 'naïve realism' and 'relativism'. As a solution, he offers 'subtle realism' to steer a path through and beyond the confusion. This paper presents an analysis of Hammersley's work, drawing attention to some of its shortcomings. These centre on two closely related issues. The first is Hammersley's conflation of ontology and epistemology. This results in a shallow realism that ignores the ontological status of structure and its relation to human practice. In contrast, Bhaskar's critical realism is offered as an appropriate under labourer to ethnographic theory and practice. The second is Hammersley's quick dismissal of orthodox Marxism as a viable theory for critical ethnography. Drawing on the critical realist ideas of stratification and emergence, the paper argues that Marxism is essential to any worthwhile critical ethnography.

Ethnography, Critical Realism, Marxism, Philosophy of Science

INTRODUCTION

In an edited collection of papers Hammersley (1992) asks the provocative question: 'What's wrong with ethnography?' According to Hammersley, ethnography (and qualitative research more broadly) is bedevilled by ambivalence: caught in a conceptual and methodological confusion surfacing in two competing strands of practice. Hammersley identifies these as 'naïve realism' (or positivism) and 'relativism' (for example, various forms of constructivism and poststructuralism). He advocates a 'subtle realism' to steer a path through and beyond the ambivalence².

This paper begins with a description and an analysis of Hammersley's work. While supportive of his project to clear the conceptual ground for effective ethnographic practice, this paper draws attention to its shortcomings. These centre on two closely related issues. The first is of a general nature. It notes Hammersley's avoidance of ontology in favour of epistemology. Here Roy Bhaskar's critical realism is offered as an under labourer to ethnographic theory and practice. In particular, the ontological status of structure and its relation to forms of human practice are taken seriously. The second centres on Hammersley's quick dismissal of orthodox Marxism as a viable theory for critical ethnography. Drawing on the critical realist ideas of stratification and emergence, and their affinities with Marxist materialism, the paper argues that Marxism is essential to any worthwhile critical ethnography. Contrary to Hammersley, a Marxist inspired critical ethnography is not only possible but can stand as an example of emancipatory social science.

¹ I wish to thank and acknowledge Glenn Rikowski, Dave Hill, Peter McLaren, Helen Raduntz, and Peter McInerney for their comments, advice, and critical comments on an earlier draft of this paper. All errors and omissions remain mine.

² While Hammersley's collection of essays was first published in 1992, it has since been reprinted three times. The last reprint was made available in 2001. On this basis, I take it that Hammersley still considers both his question and his advocacy for a subtle realism to hold contemporary relevance.

HAMMERSEY'S CHALLENGE: SUBTLE OR SHY?

Hammersley introduces his collection of essays by asserting its title to be intentionally ambiguous. By posing the question: 'What's wrong with ethnography?' confronts, what Hammersley considers to be, ethnography's current state of ambivalence.

On the one hand, in many fields it has achieved recognition so that the question of what is wrong with it may be interpreted rhetorically as implying its acceptance as one legitimate approach to social research amongst others. On the other hand, the emergence of some fundamental criticisms of ethnographic method suggests that the question ought to be interpreted in a more literal way. Hammersley (1992, p.3)

Hammersley's project centres on the latter interpretation of his question. With increasing acceptance of ethnography as a legitimate approach to social research, he contends that the new (and welcomed) challenges to its practice emanate from broader debates in social science and cultural inquiry. In general, these debates have served to problematise the status of science and draw into question the very nature of scientific inquiry. Specifically, this translates for Hammersley into taking seriously the relation of ethnographic practice, and the assumptions underpinning it, to positivist science. His solution is to offer a subtle realism as a kind of third way theory between 'naïve realism' and 'relativism'.

Hammersley's realism contains three key elements. The first two represent epistemological and ontological claims while the third refers to the application of those positions to ethnographic practice. His ontological claim is a straightforward realist one: phenomena exist independent of human knowledge of them. Against constructivist accounts of social reality, the social world contains objects whose existence does not depend upon what we think about them. However, against the over-inflated epistemological confidence of 'naïve realism' there is always the possibility that we could be wrong about things. Accordingly, the epistemological dimension of Hammersley's subtle realism emphasises the fallibility of human knowledge.

In outlining the problems confronting contemporary ethnography and defending his subtle realism, Hammersley identifies two particular issues that ethnographers must confront: the problems of validity and practical relevance. This section begins with a consideration of those challenges.

The Problem of Validity

Hammersley constructs the problem of validity as an anti-realist challenge. He sees ethnographers confronted with the problem: "To what degree can ethnographic accounts legitimately claim to represent an independent social reality?" (Hammersley, 1992, p.2). This question presents a double-edged challenge. One blade cuts to the ontological claim that an objective social reality exists independent of human knowledge of it. The other edge probes to scrutinise the veracity of epistemological claims that such reality can be known and represented. The double-edged anti-realist challenge exposes a tension in what Hammersley identifies as the two competing strands of ethnographic practice. Against the naturalism embedded in 'naïve realist' beliefs that reality can be discovered through immersion in authentic experience rubs the relativism of 'constructivist' understandings that take the ethnographer's interpretations of the world as no more valid than any other. In arguing for his subtle realism, Hammersley rejects counterpoising 'naïve realism' to 'relativism' in a simple dichotomous relation. He insists that relativism is not the only alternative to naïve realism.

We can maintain a belief in the existence of phenomena independent of our claims about them, and in their knowability, without assuming that we can have unmediated

contact with them and therefore that we can know with certainty whether our knowledge of them is valid or invalid. The most promising strategy for resolving the problem ... is to adopt a more subtle form of realism. Hammersley (1992, p.50)

Suggesting that there is a subtle way out of the naïve realist – relativist bind, Hammersley is promising ethnographers that they will no longer have to choose between one or the other pole of the dichotomy. Essentially, Hammersley's approach is to collapse realism and anti-realism in a kind of smorgasbord approach to the production of theory. The proposal is that social researchers can be free to select and nibble the best from all plates. This most promising strategy has its problems and these are evident throughout Hammersley's defence of his subtle realism. To take one example, while choosing from constructivist fare, Hammersley recognises that an ethnographer's representation of reality

... must always be from some point of view which makes some features of the phenomena represented relevant and others irrelevant. Thus there can be multiple, non-contradictory and valid descriptions and explanations of the same phenomenon. Hammersley (1992, p.51)

While, on the surface of things, this may appear self-evidently true, it gives little help to understand **why** certain descriptions and explanations come to be taken as valid (or invalid). Might relevance itself be a structured phenomena? I am sure Hammersley would not disagree. Indeed, in a footnote to the above, Hammersley offers a tentative taste of structure:

I do not believe that reality is structureless. In constructing our relevances we must take account of what we know and can discover about that structure if we are to get the information we need to serve our purposes ... Hammersley (1992, p.55)

Once again, this is still not very helpful to the practising ethnographer. It is one thing to declare cautiously that reality is **not structureless** but it is quite another matter to directly assert that reality **is structured**. The latter brings with it some compulsion to answer questions like: What is structure? How does it relate to, for example, human action? Are social structures and human action qualitatively different kinds of things, or are they one of the same? These are ontological questions. They are also beyond the scope of Hammersley's subtle realism with its interest in epistemological questions, namely, how we can know and represent reality?

In the end, 'structure' has a rather mysterious existence within subtle realism. This is not surprising as Hammersley presents a realism that is ontologically shy. Rather than avoiding dichotomous theorising, Hammersley allows for easy slippage between structure and agency, realism and relativism. By not taking ontology seriously, his idea of 'subtlety' spirals into judgmental relativism where understandings of structure slide easily into voluntarist constructivism. Put simply: structure becomes construction³.

In effect, and contrary to his assertions, Hammersley does not present the ethnographer with anything new. Nor does he provide a realistic alternative to the dichotomous thinking he claims to reject. Subtle realism turns out to be just another example of what Archer (1995) describes as a conflationist theory. Such theorising is not difficult to find in sociology. It is replete with attempts to conflate qualitatively different social objects to others. For example, in the idea of 'downward conflation' of Durkeimian and Parsonian sociology individuals and small groups are taken as simple expressions of larger societal structures. Conversely, in the idea of 'upward conflation' found in the interpretivism of Weberian sociology or the voluntarism of Giddens' structuration theory, structural arrangements are reduced to the actions of individuals and small groups (see

³ I am indebted to Helen Raduntz for this point.

Archer, 1995 and 1998). Upward and downward conflationism share “the same homological premises about there being no more, no less and or different properties characterizing different levels of society” (Archer, 1995, p.8). Not recognising, for example, social structures and the actions of people as (ontologically) different kinds of things leads Hammersley down self-confessed contradictory paths. These surface starkly in his consideration of practical relevance of ethnographic practice.

The Problem of Relevance

For Hammersley, the problem of relevance brings into focus the relationship between contemporary ethnography and other forms of social practice. Arising here is a direct challenge to positivist ethnography where “questions about the relationship between facts and values, and between researchers and practitioners” (Hammersley, 1992, p.2) surface. However, as Hammersley correctly asserts, relevance is not simply a practical matter. Navigating the thorny terrain between facts and values leads, ultimately, to the exploration of the purpose of research. This demands the use of theory. While theory is something to which ethnographers often express commitment, Hammersley (1992, p.33) observes that there is “little discussion of the nature of theory used in ethnographic work”. Indeed, he is critical of ethnographers who, in general, “display a primary concern with describing social events and processes in detail, and a distaste for theories which, as they see it, ride roughshod over the complexity of the social world” (Hammersley, 1992, p.32).

While noting his position against a-theoretical description, Hammersley is quick to stress that a rejection of naive empiricism is not to admit a dogmatic theoreticism. He warns that philosophical discussion and theoretical debate “can easily become a distraction; a swapping of one set of problems for another” (Hammersley, 1992, p.43). Hammersley’s solution to this seeming impasse is to advocate a cautious acceptance of positivism. But this is still not satisfactory. Although attracted to the realism that positivist science brings to social research, Hammersley remains equivocal. He acknowledges what he correctly identifies as some troubling criticisms of positivist ethnography.

The first of the troubling criticisms that haunt Hammersley relates to the issue of explanation. He stresses that adequate explanation in ethnography is, and must be, contextually dependent. For Hammersley, this means understanding explanation as a pragmatic matter:

What should count as an adequate explanation of a phenomenon does not depend solely on the nature of that phenomenon and/or on the current state of relevant theory. It also depends on the particular purposes for which and context in which the explanation is being developed. Hammersley (1992, p.39)

Interestingly, Hammersley contends that adequate explanation in social science need not be directed by what a particular piece of research is **about**, nor necessarily informed by relevant theoretical abstractions. Leaving vague what is to be taken as context and purpose gives Hammersley space to shadow box anti-realist challenges. Behind his screen of pragmatism, Hammersley casts a shadow-image of nuanced subtlety floating freely between realism and anti-realism; positivism and relativism; structure and agency. He is able to do this because he leaves vague the ideas of context and purpose. However, as we will see, his actual uses of these terms are far from vague and serve to throw considerable light on where Hammersley’s fight is really directed.

Hammersley’s second concern with positivism is closely related to his first. He accepts as valid, criticisms of social research that attempt to generate law-like theories of the kind claimed in natural science. He insists, correctly I believe, that theories developed from social inquiry must be

more tentative or, as he puts it, probabilistic. However, this is a somewhat discouraging realisation for Hammersley. He laments that such tentative assertions “undercut the very possibility of the sort of theorising I ... have argued is a priority in the social sciences” (1992, p.41). Almost apologetically, he concedes:

I argued that some of the criticisms of the positivist model ... are misdirected, but that there are at least two that raise difficult questions about the validity of ... ethnographic studies and their assessment. These are the pragmatic character of explanation and the quasi-law-like character of social science theory. At present I see no obvious resolution to these problems. What is clear, though, is that what solutions we adopt to deal with them could have profound implications for the practice of ethnographic research. Hammersley (1992, pp. 41-2)

It is undoubtedly true that whatever solutions are embraced, they will have profound implications of some kind. But this level of generality is cold comfort to ethnographers wanting more concrete answers to the questions Hammersley poses. Simply put: his subtle realism is inadequate for the job and he seems to recognise this. All Hammersley’s subtlety offers is ambiguity with endless possibilities for the epistemological shopper who is free to select abstractions and generate explanations of the social world to fit fashionable or practical purposes.

However, Hammersley’s uncertainty and subtle shadow boxing evaporate when he turns to a consideration of applied ethnography. He registers serious doubts as to the legitimacy and practical relevance of any ethnography directed to improve professional practice or contribute to political activity. What Hammersley has in his sights here is the ‘action research’ and participatory forms of research expounded by the likes of Carr and Kemmis (1986) and Peter McLaren (1984)⁴. Indeed, Hammersley balks at the possibility that research could, or should, be overtly political or, presumably, committed to social values like egalitarianism. It seems that while research is to be understood as a social activity, particular forms of human action are to be quarantined from its bounds and certain social ideals rejected. The separation of ethnographic practice from other forms of social activity smacks of scientism as a positivist illusion: “an ideology of technocratic expertise and managerial authority” (Bhaskar, 1986, p.272). In arguing for his subtle realism Hammersley insists that

... what is appropriate in general is a more limited and remote relationship between research and other forms of practice that advocates of applied or practitioner ethnography demand. Hammersley (1992, p.202)

Hammersley’s target here is what he understands as Marxist inspired critical ethnography. His rejection of critical ethnography (or rather Marxist theory and practice) rests on three pillars. The

⁴ Hammersley’s argument with McLaren’s critical theory is based on two mid-1980s pieces of work (see McLaren 1986 and McLaren 1987) As McLaren himself acknowledges, powerfully different intellectual currents from that of 15 years ago now carry his work. For example, in the third edition of *Schooling as Ritual Performance*, he regrettably notes that “in the first two editions of the book, I did not pay enough attention to the regime of production. My work since then has underscored the social relations of production and has been more critical of postmodern theorizing ...” (1999, p. xlv). In a recent interview, McLaren is even stronger. He identifies postmodern theory and his ‘critical postmodernism’ as “reactionary” and that he was “haunted by the realization” he had failed to engage with the work of Marx (McLaren, 2003). For a sample of McLaren’s recent Marxist inspired work see: McLaren (2000); Allman, McLaren and Rikowski (2003); Hill et. al. (2002).

While it is doubtful that that Hammersley would be impressed with McLaren’s greater emphasis on Marxist theorising, this is not the point. Along with the fact that Hammersley repeatedly spells McLaren’s name incorrectly (i.e. ‘McClaren’) and that these errors have not been corrected after three reprints reflects, what seems to be, a lack of familiarity with McLaren’s work. Hammersley’s disregard and dismissal of Marxism as historicist, determinist and teleological is equally off-hand. He does not provide any reference to, or engagement with, Marx’s own work – only selective interpretations of Marx and Marxism. I am not advocating here that the good word can be found in some gospel or in the utterances of great individuals. The point is that the *in toto* rejection of an entire corpus of work requires serious engagement with its ideas.

first concerns the nature of social reality or, as Hammersley puts it, the “highly implausible” Marxist view of history. The second can be captured under the well known sociological problematic of structure and agency. Hammersley characterises this in terms of the theory-practice relation. He claims that the objective of Marxist practice, and that of critical ethnography, is to bring “reality in line with theory” (Hammersley, 1992, pp.111 and 119]. This assertion is an extension of Hammersley’s first concern that Marxist theory is based on teleological, determinist, and reductionist views of social reality and human history. His third pillar is methodological and centres on issues of causation and the existence of causal laws. Here he presents what is basically a rehearsal of the Popperian critique of Marxism (namely, orthodox Marxism claims to produce naturalistic laws of social motion that, in the end, aren’t open to refutation). In short, Hammersley sees Marxism and its partner in crime, critical ethnography, as positivist, unscientific and prime exemplars of naïve realism.

The next section will contrast Hammersley’s subtle realism with the critical realism of Bhaskar. It will be argued that critical realism provides a depth ontology sorely missing from Hammersley’s account of things. Attention will be drawn to the affinities of critical realism and, what Hammersley rejects as, orthodox Marxism.

THE CHALLENGE OF CRITICAL REALISM: DIGGING DEEP

... for empiricism, science *collects* discrete bits of knowledge and accumulates them in its mental bucket; for relativism, scientific changes are like *gestalt switches*, ‘coming to see the world differently’. Both of these metaphors have their place, but if transcendental realism is right, the metaphor of digging deeper catches far more essential features of the process. Collier (1994, p.50)

Collier points to the crucial differences between critical realism and the ontological assumptions that found the likes of positivism, empiricism and postmodernism. As a transcendental realism, critical realism not only accepts concrete objects as real (i.e. as in the case of empirical realism) but it also holds to the existence of underlying structures and mechanisms. The metaphor of digging deep suggests the possibility of a realist methodology that probes to ontological domains beyond those of the directly observable. For transcendental realists, like orthodox Marxists and critical realists, the existence of unobservable mechanisms and structures are established by means of transcendental argument⁵. For instance, in one of his early works: *The Possibility of Naturalism*, Bhaskar sets out to argue the possibility of a realist social science by asking the transcendental question: “What properties do societies possess that might make them possible objects of knowledge for us?” He outlines his argument as follows:

I argue that social forms are a necessary condition for any intentional act, that their *pre-existence* establishes their *autonomy* as possible objects of scientific investigation and that their *causal power* establishes their *reality*. The pre-existence of social forms will be seen to entail a *transformational* model of social activity. [...] I show how it is, just in virtue of these emergent features of societies, that social science is possible. Bhaskar (1998, p.25)

⁵ Bhaskar directs attention to Marx’s transcendental credentials as follows:

Marx’s analysis in *Capital* illustrates the substantive use of a transcendental procedure. *Capital* may most plausibly be viewed as an attempt to establish what must be the case for the experiences grasped by the phenomenal forms of capitalist life to be possible ... Bhaskar (1998, p.51)

Ontological Depth

It is because critical realism holds to a **depth** ontology that it can be transformative. For his transcendental realism Bhaskar describes three inter-related and ordered ontological domains: the Real, Actual and Empirical. He outlines these (along with their relations to mechanisms, events and experiences) as presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Ontological Domains (Bhaskar, 1978, p.13)

	Domain of Real	Domain of Actual	Domain of Empirical
Mechanisms	√		
Events	√	√	
Experiences	√	√	√

Table 1 shows the domain of the Real consisting of underlying structures, mechanisms and relations, as well as events, actions and experiences. The hierarchical ordering of elements within the domain of the Real indicates a causal relation between them (namely, structures, mechanisms and relations generate events from which experiences are derived). In contrast, the domain of the Actual consists only of events, actions and experiences. Here, structures and generative mechanisms are not recognised. The Empirical domain consists of simply what is experienced and observed. In other words, transcendental realism understands the Empirical as a part of the Actual, which is itself a part of the Real. As such, the claim of critical realism to present a depth ontology rests on its recognition of all three domains. All domains are real. It is true that the Actual and the Empirical provide partial or even distorted understandings of sociality. For example, within capitalism the relation between worker and capitalist appears as one of free exchange. However, in reality, “free labour is a construct of liberal ideology, the lived expression of oppression under capitalism” (Banaji, 2003, p.91). Or, as Marx put it, the essential complement to the capitalist and the means of production is the wage labourer “who is compelled to sell himself of his own free will” (Marx, 1976, p.932). However, taking understandings of lived experiences as partial and distorted is quite different from claiming that such thinking represents the work of ‘false consciousness’: an idea incorrectly attributed to Marx (see Allman, 2001). For Marx, ideologies are one-sided ideas and practices that are no less real or false. Hammersley’s own distorted representation of Marxism serves an eagerness to present, as obvious, the irrelevance of Marxism and its “critical model”:

It is an essential assumption of the critical model that there is a single set of values that everyone would agree on if it were not for the effects of ideology on our thinking. This is, of course, one of the areas of sharpest disagreement between Marx and Weber. Hammersley (1992, p.112)

While deep structures and generative mechanisms are not readily apparent, they can be observed and experienced through their effects. In critical realist terms, structures are social relations and not the events, actions or behaviours they generate. Accordingly, the objects of social research are those

... persistent *relations* between individuals and groups, and with the relations between these relations. Relations such as between capitalist and worker, MP and constituent, student and teacher, husband and wife. Now such relations are general and relatively enduring but they do not involve collective or mass behaviour. Bhaskar (1989, p.71)

Not only is it possible to know things as they appear but also to have knowledge of deeper enduring social relations from which appearances emerge. Unlike the straightforward claim of subtle realism that social objects exist whether they are known or not, critical realism recognises that something may be real without it appearing at all. Critical realism is trans-phenomenological

acknowledging that structures may have unexercised causal powers. Like the causal powers pertaining to combustible fuel are only activated under certain conditions (that is, in the presence of heat, fire or a spark), the powers of social forms are realised under certain socio-historical conditions. There are no guarantees, for example, that the emancipatory potential of the working class will be realised in socialist revolution. Nor can the disappearance of class be deduced from predictive failures of social theory. Events are not determined by mechanisms and causal laws are not predictions. Explanations generated by ethnography, or the work any social science, refer to mechanisms that may or may not be active at any point in time.

In this critical realist light we can see the limits of Popper's (and Hammersley's) criticism of Marx's view of history. Both hold to Actualism (i.e. there are no enduring structures, only states of affairs) and both are empirical realists (i.e. claim that theories are falsified by counterfactual occurrences). Popper (like, Hammersley), charges Marx with being "guilty of the misguided and noxious view that history has a pattern and a meaning that, if grasped, can be used in the present to predict the future" (McLellan, 1991, p.239). However, theories whose objects exist in open systems cannot be falsified by either failed predictions or evidence of counter examples: "theory is never disconfirmed by the contradictory behaviour of the uncontrolled world" (Bhaskar, 1978, p.119). This is not to insulate them from scrutiny but to recognize the fact that concrete social reality is multiply determined. It is the job of social science to establish the relationships between co-determining mechanisms (be they realised or unrealised)⁶.

Counter-Phenomenality

In addition to its trans-phenomenological status, critical realism is also counter-phenomenological. It understands that while knowledge of deep social forms can provide explanations of appearances, it can contradict them. In other words, the apparent world can be shown to be a distorted expression of underlying structures. Surface realities may actually serve to conceal mechanisms generating alienating and exploitative relations of power. Here we see a clear affinity with the Marxian distinction between essence and appearance⁷. It is well known, as Collier reminds us, that

Marx thought it was the capacity of science for counter-phenomenology which made it necessary: without the contradiction between appearance and reality, science would be redundant, and we would go by appearances. [...] Its capacity for counter-phenomenology is what makes science a force for human emancipation. Collier (1994, pp.6-7)

Unlike a phenomenology of surface appearances, critical realism proffers a theory of hierarchical stratification and ontological emergence. Social reality is understood to comprise the concurrent operation of multiple mechanisms that are rooted in, and emergent from, lower ontological strata.

⁶ It is clear that the meaning of 'law' as employed by Marx and Bhaskar is far removed from those drawn from mechanistic accounts of society. Laws are the raw materials and transitive products of the work of science (Bhaskar, 1978).

⁷ While Marxism and critical realism share widely acknowledged affinities, significant differences also exist between them (see, for example: Brown, Fleetwood and Roberts 2002). One such difference lies in the methods of abstraction each employ. Ollman, for example, points to Bhaskar's ambiguous philosophy of internal and external relations. Indeed, he argues that "critical realism should adopt Marx's process of abstraction and its underlying philosophy of internal relations" (Ollman, 2001, p. 291). Similarly, Roberts (2002) identifies the failure of Bhaskar's method of 'retroduction' to provide a discriminating critique of human emancipation. Unlike historical materialism, retroduction is seen to operate at a high level of abstraction inadequate for locating change within the historical conditions of existence. It is well beyond the scope of this paper to explore in detail such tensions between Marxism and critical realism. However, it is important to note that the position taken here is that critical realism does not replace historical materialism (i.e. what I take Hammersley to mean when he refers to 'orthodox' Marxism). Rather, as Roberts has put it, critical realism seeks to "develop the theoretical categories of historical materialism themselves rather than incorporate concepts and categories incompatible with historical materialism" [Brown, Fleetwood and Roberts 2002, p. 16].

However, emergent forms cannot be reduced to, or explained away by, lower order strata. They have relative causal autonomy. Just as the properties of water cannot be reduced to the separate properties of hydrogen and oxygen the qualities of emergent social phenomena are not predictable from lower level properties.

Importantly, mechanisms simultaneously pre-exist and depend upon human agency. Critical realism recognises the “vexatious fact” of society (Archer, 1995) that social reality is as it is because of its human constitution. It is thus the task of social science to establish the necessary structural conditions given for conscious human activity. In addition, it is especially important in (critical) ethnography where research is directed to the study of human interaction in everyday causal contexts that the latter cannot be reduced to the former:

In their conscious human activity, [people] for the most part unconsciously reproduce (or occasionally, transform) the structures that govern their substantive activities of production. Thus people do not marry to reproduce the nuclear family, or work to reproduce the capitalist economy. But it is nevertheless the unintended consequence (and inexorable result) of, as it is also the necessary condition for their activity. Bhaskar (1989, p.80)

Mechanisms co-determine **actual** events. Bhaskar refers to “multiple mechanisms” as strata that are layered and ordered. Importantly, it is mechanisms and not events that are stratified. History does not move to the pulse of events or the actions of great men. Concrete events and human action do not exist in an ordered or relational manner. This was exactly Marx’s point when outlining his method for the critique of political economy. He described the concrete as “the chaotic conception of the whole ... a rich totality of many determinations and relations. Likewise, events and actions according to Bhaskar are to be conceived as conjunctures where

the predicates ‘natural’, ‘social’, ‘human’, ‘physical’, ‘chemical’, ‘aerodynamical’, ‘biological’, ‘economic’, etc. ought not to be regarded as differentiating distinct kinds of events, but as differentiating distinct kinds of mechanisms. Bhaskar (1978, p.119)

The error of Actualism lies in its attribution of causal powers to events and the denial of ontologically deep mechanisms that may, in fact, codetermine a range of events. Theories that empty the social world of any enduring structural dimension project, what Bhaskar refers to as, “flat ontologies” that simply reflect and accommodate “the new and rapidly changing surface features of contemporary capitalist society” (Bhaskar, 1989, p.2). They provide only partial accounts of reality.

Flat ontologies, like those of subtle realism, collapse ontology and epistemology. Bhaskar identifies the failure to maintain the distinction between ontology and epistemology as the fundamental error of contemporary social science. It results in two fundamental errors. The first of these is the “ontic fallacy” where “what is known” is reduced to “what is”. It is the naïve realist position described by Hammersley and rests on an empiricist bypass of epistemology. Knowledge is determined by a pre-given reality that results in its “ontologization, naturalisation, or eternalization ” (Bhaskar, 1991, p.141). It is the fallacy into which Hammersley erroneously claims that Marx and Marxist inspired critical ethnography fall. The second error Bhaskar refers to is the “epistemic fallacy”. Here “what is” collapses into “what is known”. This is the relativist position outlined by Hammersley. The epistemic fallacy results in the ultimate neglect of ontology where reality collapses into text and all claims to truth are equally valid. Resting on the idealist assumptions that there is nothing beyond epistemology and “that we create and change the world along with our theories” (Bhaskar, 1989, p.11) the only way to settle disputes is through the “practical exercise of power” (Scott, 2000, p.14).

Through a consideration of the epistemic fallacy we can see Hammersley's pragmatism. While he claims to escape the traps of relativism, his own subtle realism ensnares him. The only way out for Hammersley becomes an idealist route: cost of which is a neglect of ontology or, as Collier (1999) puts it, a loss of so-called "aboutness" that is a fundamental characteristic of anti-realist idealism. Rather than offering a realistic alternative to naïve realism and relativism their problems become compounded in their subtle conflation. Hammersley's ontological shyness and unstated social conservatism work against him exploring more fruitful paths offered by transcendental realism of which orthodox Marxism and critical realism are examples.

CONCLUSION

The aim of this paper has been to establish the possibility of a transcendently realist ethnography. Hammersley's attempt to overcome persistent and well-known problems related to the theory and practice of ethnography was used a vehicle to do this. It was shown that his solution, subtle realism, was inadequate for the job he set it. The limitations of subtle realism arose from its conflationism and ontologically shyness. In offering critical realism as an alternative to subtle realism the importance of distinguishing ontology and epistemology was emphasised.

If this paper has been successful in arguing for a depth realism (of which Bhaskar's critical realism and Marx's materialist view of history are examples) to under labour ethnography, then what confronts critical ethnographers is what this might mean for practice. The following list is offered to begin to draw out implications for methodological practice. It is not intended to be exhaustive.

- Holds to a stratified emergent ontology with a materialist view of history as its foundation.
- Takes structures, generative mechanisms as their objects of inquiry.
- Advocates a "standpoint epistemology" (McLaren 1998, p.459).
- Acknowledges the fallibility of knowledge.
- Accepts the openness of the social world.
- Understands events as the outcome of multiple causal processes.

However, as Bhaskar insists, reclaiming reality requires not just exposing ideologies that deny it but retrieving it from the effects of those ideologies. After all, following Marx, the point is not simply to interpret the world but to change it. Bhaskar continues:

What should be done with this reality once it is reclaimed? It should, I suggest, be used, nurtured and valued in an ecologically sustainable and humane way for human emancipation, happiness and flourishing. Bhaskar (1991, p.144)

Here Bhaskar points to the possibility, if not the necessity, of an emancipatory social science of which critical ethnography would be part. Contra to Hammersley's desire to separate ethnography from other forms practice like political action a transcendental realism would see radical transformative practice worthy of ethnography.

REFERENCES

- Allman, P. (2001) *Critical Education against Global Capitalism – Karl Marx and Revolutionary Critical Education*. Westport: Bergin and Garvey.
- Allman, P., McLaren, P. and Rikowski, G. (2003) After the Box People: The Labour-Capital Relation as Class Constitution and its Consequences for Marxist Educational Theory and Human Resistance. In J. Freeman-Moir and A. Scott (Eds) *Yesterday's Dreams – International and Critical Perspectives on Education and Social Class*. Christchurch: Canterbury University Press.

- Archer, M. (1995) *Realist Social Theory: The Morphogenic Approach*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Archer, M. (1998) Realism in the Social Sciences. In M. Archer, R. Bhaskar, A. Collier, T. Lawson, and A. Norrie (Eds) *Critical Realism – Essential Readings*. London: Routledge.
- Banaji, J. (2003) The Fictions of Free Labour: Contract, Coercion, and So-Called Unfree Labour. *Historical Materialism*, 11 (3), 69-95.
- Bhaskar, R. (1978) *A Realist Theory of Science*, (2nd. Edn). London: Harvester.
- Bhaskar, R. (1986) *Scientific Realism and Human Emancipation*. London: Verso.
- Bhaskar, R. (1989) *Reclaiming Reality: A Critical Introduction to Contemporary Philosophy*. London: Verso.
- Bhaskar, R. (1991) *Philosophy and the Idea of Freedom*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Bhaskar, R. (1998) *The Possibility of Naturalism* 3rd Edn. London: Routledge.
- Brown, A., Fleetwood, S. and Roberts, J. (Eds) (2002) *Critical Realism and Marxism*. London: Routledge.
- Carr, W. and Kemmis, S. (1986) *Becoming Critical: Education, Knowledge and Action Research*. Lewes: Falmer.
- Collier, A. (1994) *Critical Realism: An Introduction to Roy Bhaskar's Philosophy*. London: Verso.
- Collier, A. (1999) About Aboutness. *Alethia*, 2 (1), 2–5.
- Hammersley, M. (1992) *What's Wrong With Ethnography? – Methodological Explorations*. London: Routledge.
- Hill, D., McLaren, P., Cole, M. and Rikowski, G. (Eds) (2002) *Marxism Against Postmodernism in Educational Theory*. Lanham: Lexington
- Marx, K. (1976; 1867) *Capital - A Critique of Political Economy*. Vol. I, London: Penguin.
- McLaren, P. (1986) *Schooling as Ritual Performance*. London: Routledge.
- McLaren, P. (1987) Schooling For Salvation: A Review of Peshkin's "God's Choice". *Journal of Education*, 169 (2), 132 –139.
- McLaren, P. (1998) Revolutionary Pedagogy in Post-Revolutionary Times: Rethinking the Political Economy of Critical Education. *Educational Theory* 48 (4), 431– 62.
- McLaren, P. (1999) *Schooling as Ritual Performance – Toward a Political Economy of Educational Symbols and Gestures*. 3rd Edn. Lanham: Roman and Littlefield.
- McLaren, P. (2000) *Che Guevara, Paulo Freire, and the Pedagogy of Revolution*. Lanham: Roman and Littlefield.
- McLaren, P. (2003) Toward a Critical Revolutionary Pedagogy – An Interview with Peter McLaren (by Michael Pozo). *Dissident Voice*, December 8 [Online] http://www.dissidentvoice.org/Articles9/Pozo_McLaren-Interview.htm.
- McLellan, G. (1991) Historicism. In T. Bottomore (Ed) *A Dictionary of Marxist Thought*, 2nd. Edn. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Ollman, B. (2001) Critical Realism in Light of Marx's Process of Abstraction. In J. López and G. Potter (Eds) *After Postmodernism – An Introduction to Critical Realism*. London: The Athlone Press.
- Scott, D. (2000) *Realism and Educational Research - New Perspectives and Possibilities*. London: Routledge.

Gifted Primary Students' Knowledge of Self Directed Learning

Penny Van Deur

Flinders University penny.vandeur@flinders.edu.au

Gifted students are often described in the literature as being self-regulated, self-directed learners. Ten gifted primary students were interviewed in order to clarify the concept of self-directed learning in students of primary age. The students provided information on their knowledge of self-directed learning, explanations of the self-directed learning process, self-directed learning at school and out-of-school, learning preferences, and their attitudes to self-directed learning. Gifted students' views were compared with those of ten randomly selected students and four students identified as having learning difficulties in classroom work.

For gifted students, understandings of self-directed learning included internal influences such as initiative, effort, and persistence, and external influences included time management strategies, working with others, and using resources.

The paper introduces a model of self-directed learning in primary students. The model includes motivation, learning strategies and the nature of the school context.

Gifted primary students, self-directed learning, inquiry,
self-regulated learning, motivation, learning

INTRODUCTION

Recently there has been an emphasis in curriculum documents on self-directed learning for all students in South Australian primary schools (DETE, 2001). Gifted students who are regarded as efficient autonomous learners could provide a clearer understanding of the concept of self-directed learning in all students. This paper discusses the following questions.

1. What is self-directed learning in primary students?
2. What do gifted students know about self-directed learning?
3. In what ways can the information gained from interviewing gifted students contribute to the construction of a model of self-directed learning in primary students?

Gifted students have been referred to as independent workers who are self-motivated (DECS, 1996) and self-sufficient (Clark, 1992). In 1975, Treffinger described self-directed learning as an outcome to be strived for by the gifted. Self-directed learning for gifted students was described by Treffinger in terms of students managing instructional decisions and defining projects to accomplish self-initiated goals and objectives. Sternberg (1997) also emphasised self-management when he referred to gifted students as good mental self-managers because they are able to combine analytic, synthetic and practical giftedness. These descriptions suggest that there are internal and external influences on gifted students when they are learning in a self-directed way.

SELF-DIRECTED LEARNING AND GIFTED STUDENTS

There are few descriptions of self-directed learning in primary age children, though there have been discussions of the importance of self-directed learning for gifted students. In 1975 Donald Treffinger described self-directed learning and argued that a goal of gifted education should be self-directed learning because research suggested that gifted students are critical, independent in thought and judgment, as well as self-starting, and perseverant. Treffinger (Maker and Nielson, 1995) emphasised the importance of creating an environment in which learners can manage and direct their efforts towards the attainment of specific goals.

Treffinger described self-directed learning in terms of the process of moving from teacher prescribed class activities, to providing choices and options to students, and then to the learner controlling the choices while the teacher provides the resources and materials. Treffinger emphasised that both cognitive and affective processes are involved, and that the skills of self-directed learning are acquired through planned instructional experiences. Maker and Nielson (1995) argued that the skills of self-management and self-direction will enable gifted students to do in-depth investigations of real problems.

Internal influences on self-directed learning

In the psychological literature there are discussions of internal influences on learning. Dispositional beliefs effect the way students approach learning and the strategic orientations that are employed as they learn. They create an internal context and influence the self-management strategies students choose when learning (Schoenfeld, 1985). Self-regulation has been described as a reflection of the student's knowledge of their own learner characteristics and the task demands (Palinscar and Brown, 1989).

Self-regulation (metacognition)

Metacognition involves the knowledge and regulation or control of cognitive processes (Schoenfeld, 1985) and influences the strategies students use in their learning. Gifted students have been described as possessing greater metacognitive knowledge indicating that they know more about their own mental activities than other children (Schwanenflugel, Stevens and Carr, 1997). Self-regulation is part of metacognitive knowledge and is important in working on learning tasks, as students need to make a variety of decisions in order to understand the task, plan a course of action, select strategies to carry out the plans, monitor the execution of activities while the strategies are being implemented, evaluate the outcome of plans and strategies and revise or abandon non-productive strategies and plans (Garafalo and Lester, 1985). A positive motivation for learning is also needed to make the effort to carry out the self-regulatory actions to manage these processes.

Motivation

Treffinger's description of self-directed learning assumed that children will learn better if they are involved in their learning and that they will be more motivated to learn. Motivation is a key element in goal-directed behaviour such as learning and depends in part on students believing that they are competent to learn. Motivational knowledge possessed by students influences their learning by determining the tasks they select to do, their temperament while working on tasks and their persistence when striking difficulty (Winne, 1991). Gifted students can achieve high levels of learning competence because of their high motivation, persistence, commitment and wanting to do well (Braggett, 1997). Motivation can exert an influence on the attributions made by students for success or failure in learning and on their feelings of self-efficacy for learning.

Self-efficacy

As students monitor their engagement with tasks internal feedback occurs (Butler and Winne, 1995) which is interpreted with reference to their beliefs about their learning. Causal attributions and self-efficacy beliefs may be seen as components of internal feedback from learning. Winne (1991) defined self-efficacy as a person's belief about his or her own competence, ability and power to achieve specific goals. Self-efficacy explains how judgements people make about their capabilities can lead to success or failure and can affect the amount of effort they are prepared to invest in order to succeed (Bandura, 1992). Self-efficacy beliefs exert an influence on dispositional beliefs, which influence student motivation for learning. Schunk (1998) described self-efficacy as influencing choice of activities, effort expenditure, persistence and achievement.

Causal attributions

Causal attributions are explanations of outcomes and are commonly concerned with the role of ability and effort in learning (Ames and Ames, 1984). Attributional processes explain who or what was responsible for success or failure on a task. Students who make attributions about success to internal factors such as ability or effort believe they can control their learning and be successful (Berliner and Gage, 1988). This leads to a positive self-concept in relation to achievement. Students who expend a considerable amount of effort and attribute their successful performance on a task to the strategies selected and their effort on the task will have high motivation for learning as effort attributions encourage students to persist on future tasks (Ames and Ames, 1984).

The motivational state of students influences the strategic orientations which are employed as they select strategies for learning. Students need to be motivated to choose a mastery orientation toward learning which influences them to manage their learning in certain ways (Prawat, 1989). A mastery orientation favours complex learning strategies such as planning, monitoring, checking, and evaluating, and can empower students to respond pro-actively as opposed re-actively in various in-school and out-of-school contexts (Prawat, 1989). In order to develop a mastery orientation students need to be equipped with the strategies for learning on their own, to be self-regulating and to be motivated to use the strategies for learning. These considerations are particularly important when students are learning in a self-directed way.

THE INTERVIEW STUDY

The aim of the interview study was to seek the views of self-directed learning of gifted primary school students and to use these views to contribute to the construction of a model of self-directed learning in primary students.

Interviews with 24 primary school students were carried out as part of a larger study to clarify the concept of self-directed learning in primary school students. In the larger study questionnaires about self-directed learning were completed by 12 school staff, 22 parents and 80 students in one primary school.

The following research questions were designed to achieve the aims of the interview study.

1. 1. What are the views about self-directed learning of gifted students that can be used to clarify the concept of self-directed learning in primary children?
2. How do the views of self-directed learning given by gifted students compare with those of randomly selected students, and students with learning difficulties?

3. In what ways can the information gained from interviewing gifted students contribute to the construction of a model of self-directed learning in primary students?

Method

The interview responses of ten gifted students are discussed in detail in this paper. The students had been identified as gifted (125+IQ) using the Slosson's Intelligence Test. Six boys and four girls were interviewed. Six of the students were in Year 5, two students were in Year 4, and two students were in Year 6.

The interview was developed in order to gather information from the students about their knowledge of self-directed learning.

The researcher interviewed each student in a quiet room at the school site. The interviews were tape-recorded. Prompts were available for most of the interview questions. Few of the gifted students required the prompts to assist them to answer the questions. The responses to each interview question were transcribed and categorised. They are discussed below.

Knowledge of self-directed learning

Q1 What do you think self-directed learning is all about?

Self-directed learning was described as a solitary activity by most of the gifted students. The gifted students described self-directed learning in terms of teaching yourself, learning by yourself, and wanting to learn as well as being about not getting help.

G5. I think it's about where somebody if they want to learn something they will go on their own path and do it instead of getting help or something.

Q17. Are you good at being self-directed as you work on some activities, and why?

All of the gifted students agreed that they were self-directed on some activities especially school projects. School related activities like language, spelling, and mathematics were cited. Two of the gifted students referred to effort and wanting to learn as the reason why they were self-directed on some activities.

G4. Um yeah. Projects. I'm better on other things. Probably because its much more free-er because say are working on the topic and you use the internet or look in the book. You've got more choice.

Q21. Do you know anyone who is really good at self-directed learning? Can you say what the person does?

Most of the gifted students answered this question by saying that they did not know anyone who is really good at self-directed learning though most were able to describe the actions of a person they believed was self-directed.

G2. My friend is pretty good at self-directed learning. He's independent, very independent, he likes to find out stuff on his own, looking at his own reference books before going into the asking someone else.

Self-directed learning at school

Q2. How do you get to be a self-directed learner?

The gifted students were able to describe how a person becomes a self-directed learner in terms of taking initiative, doing things alone, teaching themselves and finding their own way. Two students made motivational comments in their descriptions of wanting and trying to learn.

G3. *Um you start to kind of teach yourself and just keep going.*

Q3. When you are at school and you want to work out how to do something what do you do?

The answers to the question about finding out about things at school indicated that most gifted students believed that they would initially try to work out a problem alone, though they mentioned asking the teacher for help or asking another person for help. Four students answered that they would work out how to do something at school by looking it up in a book.

G7. *I'd read about things that I want to know about.*

Q7. What about when you make a mistake at school, what do you do about it?

The gifted students indicated that they would handle mistakes at school by asking the teacher or someone else or by coping with it alone.

G8. *I sort of think about what I've done wrong and then I try to fix it.*

Self-directed learning out-of-school

Q4. When you are not at school and you want to work out how to do something what do you do?

In the answers to the question the gifted students placed a strong emphasis on asking their parents or other people to help work out what to do as well as using resources such as the library, the internet and reading books. Two of the students made motivational statements when they mentioned effort attributions in comments about trying to work out how to do something.

G6. *I first try myself and then if I can't get it I just ask my mother.*

Q5. What do you think makes someone good at working out how to learn about things at home?

The answers to the question about what makes a person good at working out how to learn about things at home indicated the view that motivation and resources are important. The strategy of asking people was mentioned, as was the strategy of not asking other people.

G4. *Um sort of wanting to do it and using as many resources as possible.*

Q6. If you are working on something at home and you make a mistake, what do you do about it?

The majority of answers given suggest an independent view of handling mistakes. The students indicated that at home they would respond to mistakes by fixing or correcting them or trying again. Four students mentioned the strategy of telling or asking someone as a way of handling a mistake at home.

G2. *Um probably you try and correct it you know, don't cry over spilt milk but you just work out what the mistake was and fix it.*

Comparison of self-directed learning at school and out-of-school

Q8. Are there differences in the way you learn about things at school and the way you learn about things at home?

All but one of the gifted students answered that there are differences in the way they learn about things at school and the way they learn about things at home. At school students described

learning as involving working alone as well as depending on other people, being directed by the teacher, having more resources, and being focused on learning at school.

The characteristics of learning about things at home were described as doing activities alone, thinking for yourself and using your own brain and resources, not having computers or the internet to use as well as not having a big library, and having more time to do things.

G2. Yes because normally at school you're directed by your teacher to what you are actually learning but at home you um think for yourself on a project it's partly directed by your teacher say in homework but you use your own brain to find it out like your own resources.

Q16. Are you usually more of a self-directed learner at home or at school, and why?

The majority of the gifted students answered that they were usually more self-directed at home. The reasons given for this were that the students liked working by themselves and using their own resources, that it was easier to learn at home because there were fewer people to be distracted by, they were not rushed, and that there were more books and the internet to use at home.

G4. At home mainly. Probably because I like to learn about that stuff. I just normally just get taught at school and I normally just learn that stuff at home.

Q19. Is self-directed learning important for learning at home or at school?

All of the students answered that self-directed learning is important both at home and at school. Half of the students mentioned that self-directed learning is important because they wanted to be able to learn, while three students explained that self-directed learning would be important for them in the future.

G4. Both. It just makes you better educated so when you're an adult you can learn. You can be self-directed when you're young and when you're an adult when you want to find out about things you can do that. When you're an adult you know the skill.

Preferred way of learning

Q9. When you need to find out about something, what works best for you, to do it on your own or with friends and why?

Most of the gifted students answered that they would prefer to find out about something by asking friends. They explained that friends have more knowledge and ideas and can give advice. Two students answered that they would prefer to find out about things on their own because they could get more ideas alone, and they could use their own ideas.

G3. Well I usually work stuff out for myself at home and friends help me.

Q10. Do you have a favorite way to learn about things?

All but one of the students expressed positive views about their attitude to learning. The students gave a variety of explanations of their favorite way of learning about things, with half of the students included reading in their explanation.

G5. I actually like to read books and learn stuff.

Explanations given by the gifted students of the self-directed learning process

Q11. If you were being self-directed in learning about something, what sorts of things would you do?

Most of students mentioned self-directed learning actions involving inquiry. They described thinking and asking questions as well as using resources such as the computer, encyclopedia, reading books, and looking for information on the Internet. Three students described the process in terms of teaching themselves a strategy, trying to figure out an answer, and setting goals. The answers implied an effort orientation to self-directed learning.

G1. You'd be talking about it, you'd be thinking it through probably writing it down and once you'd finished thinking about it you put all your ideas together and create what really is what you were learning.

Q12. Do you think a self-directed learner would check what they are doing?

The majority of the students recognised that self-directed learners would check what they are doing with the most frequent explanation being that they would proof read the work or ask another person to proof read it. Three students mentioned self-directed learners using books to check their work.

G2. Maybe get a parent to proof read what they are doing or spell check if you're doing it on the computer and they do it themselves if they have a good sense of what they are doing and how to correct it.

Q13. Do you think a self-directed learner would plan how they will use the time they have to find out about a topic?

Nine of students agreed that self-directed learners would plan how they will use the time they have to find out about a topic. One student answered no and explained that a self-directed learner might not plan but use their time carefully. One student answered that a self-directed learner would plan the use of time at school but not at home. Another student indicated a motivational orientation in the answer to the question, by saying that if a person is motivated to be a self-directed learner he/she would want to plan in order to find out about other topics.

G9. I reckon you could, like you have to want to be a self-directed learner and you have to want to find out about other things.

Q15. What could help you get better at being self-directed?

All of the gifted students were able to suggest ways they could get better at self-directed learning. Most suggested a motivational orientation in their answers, which described getting better in terms of wanting to learn and encouraging themselves.

G6. Encouraging yourself and saying to your mum if I ask you this just don't tell me what it is cos I want to be self-directed and things like that.

Q20. When you have finished learning about something, do you usually think about what you did and what worked well as you were learning?

Eight of the ten students answered that they would reflect on what they did in learning about a topic and the process of learning about it. Explanations described thinking about mistakes and thinking about what was done and how that could be used on subsequent learning.

G6. Yeah and then you can use that sequence that you worked well in to do something else properly.

Attitude to self-directed learning

Q14. Do you think you can get better at being self-directed?

All of the students answered that they believed that they could get better at being self-directed.. Experience in being self-directed was mentioned as a way of improving as well as trying, taking initiative and encouraging oneself.

G1. You can get better by starting to do things by yourself and once you've done one thing try another one and then a few more and then after that you definitely become a self-director. I'm much better than at the beginning of the year.

Q18. Do you think self-directed learning is important?

The majority of the students said that they believed that self-directed learning is important. The students described it as important in being independent and mentioned a future orientation in their answers by saying that self-directed learning would be important when they were older. Three students mentioned wanting or needing to be self-directed.

G7. Yes because you need to be able to do it later.

Q22. Is there anything else that you would like to say about self-directed learning?

Five students made further comments about self-directed learning. Most of the comments were about the importance of self-directed learning for life in the future:

G9. I think it's a good idea because once you leave school you're independent and you need to know what to do.

DISCUSSION

All of the gifted students were able to provide a description of self-directed learning. They described self-directed learning in terms of teaching oneself, learning alone and seeking help from others. Most of the students described being self-directed as related to working on projects. The gifted students described self-directed learning at school in terms of taking initiative. They said that at school they would try to work out something by trying to do it alone and then asking someone for help. If they made a mistake at school the gifted students indicated that they would ask the teacher or someone else for help. Motivation was mentioned in terms of trying to learn.

The gifted students gave a view of self-directed learning out-of-school as an independent process though they emphasised asking other people for help and using resources. They had an independent view of coping with mistakes out-of-school. This was shown in comments about handling mistakes by making an effort and persisting as well as fixing or correcting them alone. Motivation was mentioned in answers about wanting or trying to learn. The gifted students agreed that there were differences in the way they learnt about things at home and at school. They described learning at school where they were required to do things and there were resources for learning. They described learning at home where they chose their own activities, made an effort, persisted and used their own resources. They believed that they were more self-directed at home because they had more control over the situation. All of the gifted students agreed that self-directed learning was important at both school and home and emphasised its benefit for the future.

The gifted students expressed positive attitudes to self-directed learning and agreed that they would prefer to find out about things with friends. Motivation was mentioned in comments about trying to do activities alone. They described the self-directed learning process in terms of inquiry. They said that they would check what they were doing by proof-reading, they would plan the way they would use time when working on a topic, and that they would reflect on their learning. They described self-directed learning as finding out about things, asking questions, checking their own work, planning the way time was used, and reflecting on finished activities. They also described reflecting on their learning and thinking about what they did and how they might use that learning

to help them learn other things. Motivation was mentioned in comments about wanting and trying to learn.

The gifted students expressed positive attitudes to self-directed learning and its importance for their future. They all said that they believed they could improve in being self-directed, and many students mentioned having experience as the way to improve. Motivation was mentioned in comments about getting better at self-directed learning by trying or encouraging themselves to learn.

The answers of the gifted students showed that they knew about self-directed learning. Motivation was mentioned in the responses to most of the questions. They described differences in self-directed learning at school and out-of-school. The answers given implied that most of the gifted students had little choice in the activities they did at school, while at home they could try more things, take their time, do activities by themselves and think for themselves. The students emphasised the social dimension of learning in working with friends, and asking others for help both at school and out-of-school as well as using resources such as the library, the internet and reading books.

Comparing the views of self-directed learning given by gifted students with those of randomly selected students and students with learning difficulties

As well as the interviews carried out with ten gifted primary school students, interviews were carried out with ten randomly selected students and four students identified as having learning difficulties in classroom work. The responses given by each group showed that all students knew about self-directed learning, though there were some differences in the responses given by the students in each group.

The answers given by the randomly selected students showed that their views of self-directed learning were mainly school oriented. They mentioned motivation especially in relation to learning at school. The small group of students identified as having learning difficulties in the classroom indicated that they viewed self-directed learning as mainly related to learning at school and being directed by the teacher. They mentioned motivation in relation to self-directed learning at school and in comments about fixing up mistakes. Though they expressed the view that they liked to work with friends, the students with learning difficulties indicated that they would handle mistakes alone at school.

Students in the three groups described self-directed learning as learning alone while agreeing that they prefer to work with friends and that they would seek help from others at home. Students in the three groups showed positive attitudes to self-directed learning and the possibility of improving self-directed learning. The gifted group gave greater emphasis to the importance of motivation in self-directed learning. They referred to internal or self-regulated learning strategies as well as motivational concerns and external or self-directed strategies where resources are sought in the environment.

A model of self-directed learning in primary students

The interview responses were interpreted in relation to the views given in questionnaires by 80 primary school students, 12 school staff and 22 parents. The model of self-directed learning in primary school students summarises these views and is shown in Figure 1.

The model of self-directed learning in primary students proposes that self-directed learning includes internal influences such as dispositions which influence the way students approach tasks, as well as initiative, effort, and persistence. Self-regulatory strategies of planning, checking and

reflecting are also internal influences. Motivation is recognised as important through the processes of self-efficacy which is the judgement made about one’s capabilities to work on a task, and causal attributions which explain who or what was responsible for success. A positive motivation for self-directed learning would enable a student to make an effort to carry out self-directed learning strategies to find resources and to persist when running into difficulties. The external influences include strategies used to direct and impose a structure on an overall learning activity in order to reach goals. These strategies include finding resources in the environment such as books, electronic sources, and other people, as well as time management, and being able to work with others.

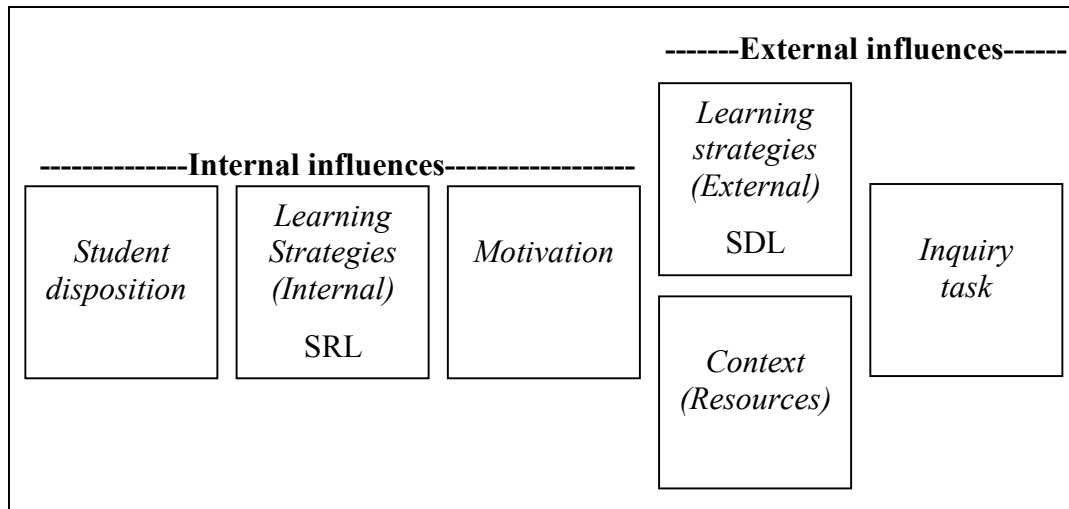


Figure 1. Self-directed learning in primary students

The model of self-directed learning in primary students includes motivation, self-regulated and self-directed learning strategies and the nature of the school context in terms of the resources that can be accessed to carry out an inquiry.

CONCLUSION

This paper discussed questions related to clarifying the concept of self-directed learning in primary school students by asking gifted students what they know about self-directed learning. The views of these students and others as well as those of school staff and parents contributed to the construction of a model of self-directed learning in primary school students. The model describes internal and external influences on self-directed learning. Self regulation is described in terms of regulating oneself, while self-directed learning is based on self-regulation and is described in terms of directing oneself to learn or reach goals using resources in the environment. The gifted students emphasised motivation in their interview responses. According to this model a student could be self-regulating but not motivated to be self-directing. The model of self-directed learning is based on student dispositions, self-regulation and motivation. These influences operate in classrooms where students are able to be self-directed as they engage in inquiry-based learning.

REFERENCES

Ames, R. and Ames, C. (1984) *Student Motivation*. New York: Academic Press.
 Bandura, A. (1992) Exercise of personal agency through the self-efficacy mechanism. In R, Schwarzer, (Ed.) *Self-Efficacy: Thought control of action* (pp.3-38). Washington, D.C.: Hemisphere.
 Berliner, D. and Gage, N. (1988) *Educational Psychology* (4th Edn.) Dallas: Houghton Mifflin.

- Butler, D. and Winne, P. (1995) Feedback and self-regulated learning: A theoretical synthesis. *Review of Educational Research*, 65 (3), 245-281.
- Braggett, E. (1997) *Differentiated programs for primary schools*. Cheltenham: Hawker Brownlow Education.
- Chan, L. (1996) Motivational orientations and metacognitive abilities of intellectually gifted students. *Gifted Child Quarterly*, 40 (4), 84-193.
- Clark, B. (1992) *Growing up Gifted: Developing the potential of children at home and at school*. (4th Edn.), New York: Merrill.
- Department of Education and Children's Services. (DECS). (1996) *Understanding Giftedness: A guide to policy implementation*. South Australia: Graphic Print Group.
- Department of Education Training and Employment (DETE) (2001) *SACSA framework*. South Australia: DETE publications.
- Garafalo, J. and Lester, F. (1985) Metacognition, Cognitive Monitoring and Mathematical Performance. *Journal for Research on Mathematics Education*, 16 (3), 163-176.
- Hannah, C. and Shore, B. (1995) Metacognition and High Intellectual Ability: Insights from the study of Learning Disabled Gifted Students. *Gifted Child Quarterly*, 39 (2), 95-109.
- Maker, C.J. and Nielson, A.B. (1995) *Teaching Models in Education of the Gifted* (2nd Edn.). Texas: Pro-Ed.
- Palinscar, A. and Brown, A. (1989) Instruction for Self-regulated reading. In L. Resnick and L. Klopfer, (Eds.) *Toward the Thinking Curriculum: Current cognitive research*. Alexandria, Virginia: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Prawat, R. (1989) Promoting access to knowledge, strategy and disposition in students: A research synthesis. *Review of Educational Research*, 59 (1), 1-41.
- Schoenfeld, A. (1985) *Mathematical Problem Solving*. New York: Academic Press.
- Schunk, D.H. (1998) Teaching Elementary Students to Self-Regulate Practice of mathematical Skills with Modelling. In D.H. Schunk, and B.J. Zimmerman, *Self-Regulated Learning: From teaching to Self-Reflective Practice*. New York: The Guilford Press.
- Schunk, D.H. and Zimmerman, B.J. (1998) *Self-Regulated Learning: From teaching to Self-Reflective Practice*. New York: The Guilford Press.
- Schwanenflugel, P., Stevens, T. and Carr, M. (1997) Metacognitive knowledge of Gifted children and Non-identified children in Early Elementary School. *Gifted Child Quarterly*, 41 (2), 25-35.
- Sternberg, R.J. (1988) *The triarchic mind*. New York: Viking Penguin.
- Sternberg, R.J. (1997) A triarchic view of giftedness: Theory and practice. In N. Colangelo, and G. Davis. *Handbook of Gifted Education* (2nd Edn.). Needham Heights, MA: Allyn and Bacon.
- Tittle, C. (1994) Toward an Educational psychology of assessment for teaching and learning theories, contexts and validation arguments. *Educational Psychologist*, 29 (3), 149-162.
- Treffinger, D.J. (1975) Teaching for self-directed learning: A priority for the gifted and talented. *Gifted Child Quarterly*, 19 (1), 46-59.
- Winne, P. (1991) Motivation and teaching. In H. Waxman, and H. Walberg, (Eds.) *Effective teaching: Current research*. New York: McCutchan.

Critical Thinking: Teaching Foreign Notions to Foreign Students

Sandra Egege

Student Learning Centre, Flinders University sandra.egege@flinders.edu.au

Salah Kutieleh

Student Learning Centre, Flinders University salah.kutieleh@flinders.edu.au

The internationalisation of Australian universities presents a double challenge for student support services, to provide academic support programs that address perceived culturally based academic differences and to provide support programs which are culturally sensitive, inclusive and which contribute to the success of international students. Critical thinking is a paradigmatic case. Universities insist that critical thinking is a requirement of quality academic work while academics bemoan the lack of a critical approach to study by international students in general, and Asian students in particular. The challenge for transition programs is how to incorporate critical thinking within their framework without adopting either a deficit or assimilationist approach. This paper will discuss the difficulties inherent in this challenge and put forward a possible approach adapted from a strand of the Introductory Academic Program (IAP). However, questions are raised about the overall value of teaching critical thinking in this context.

International student, critical thinking, assimilation, deficit, academia

BACKGROUND

One of the outcomes of the continuing internationalisation of Australian universities is that academics are being exposed to an increasingly diverse student population from increasingly diverse language-speaking cultures. In Australia, this has meant extensive exposure to students from the South-East Asian region who make up over 80 per cent of the international student body (DETYA, Selected Higher Education Statistics, 1999). Problems arise for academics when they are confronted with what appear to be academic differences between this cohort of students and mainstream or local students. Any discrepancy between the academic standards and expectations of the academic and those of the international student will have an impact on the potential success of that student. If those discrepancies really do exist, then the institution has a responsibility to address them.

Both international students and academics tend to identify language proficiency as the major problem and, hence, addressing the language proficiency of international students as a means of resolving the difficulties (Murray-Harvey and Silins, 1997). One cannot dispute the importance of this focus. The need for bridging programs to support language programs for international students is well documented (Baker and Panko, 1998; Choi, 1997; Kinnel, 1990; Macdonald and Gunn, 1997) and Macdonald and Gunn (1997) found a significant relationship between the level of English proficiency and psychological distress for international students at one British university.

However, research findings have revealed that the problems are much deeper than just language proficiency. Academics identify more extensive areas of conflict such as learning styles, participation, collaboration, independence, plagiarism and structured/non-structured learning. In particular, South-East Asian students are commonly stereotyped as passive, non-critical rote-learning students who do not engage in deep learning (Ballard, 1995; Mills, 1997). Even when the problems are identified as stemming from different learning styles and attitudes, these are seen as a reflection of different learning capacities and, hence, as a deficit that needs correcting by additional teaching strategies. As a consequence, bridging programs designed for international students have tended to focus on both language proficiency and perceived inadequacies in students' background knowledge and skills (Samuelowicz, 1987; Fraser, Malone and Taylor, 1990).

According to Biggs (1997), the problem with this approach is that it stems from what he terms 'conceptual colonialism'. Basically, one takes one's own limited cultural or, in this case, teaching experience as the paradigmatic case. As a consequence, the differences manifested by international students are identified as deviations from that norm, which become problems to be resolved. The solution is seen as bringing all students up to scratch with one's own standards and models of teaching. Many academics reflect this attitude and most of the current support programmes offered to international students are devised with this objective in mind.

An alternative approach is to acknowledge the existence of equally legitimate culturally relative differences to academic study. This approach recognises differences in attitudes to knowledge acquisition as stemming from different cultural perceptions and understandings. No single cultural perspective is seen as more valid than another. An attempt is then made to teach students from within their own cultural parameters. Although this latter position is seen as an improvement on 'conceptual colonialism', and is currently seen as the only politically correct one, it is not without its problems (Biggs, 1997). It is extraordinarily difficult to understand and work effectively within an alternative cultural paradigm. At the same time, focusing on culturally specific differences tends to not only exaggerate differences (rather than similarities) but may actually identify some cultural differences as being educationally or cognitively significant when this may not be the case. It can also create what can be called the 'alien' syndrome. An over-emphasis on difference could lead either side of a supposed cultural divide to an inability to relate to each other as fellow human beings. Hypersensitivity to perceived differences could then become a potential obstacle to understanding and productive interaction, rather than a means to enable understanding and positive interaction.

There is some evidence that cultural differences in approaches to educational learning do exist, in particular with students from a Confucian-heritage Culture, although we need to be cautious about what we can draw from this (Mills, 1997). Even so, students from South-East Asia are not an homogenous cultural group and differences between them are quite marked. Some Asian groups reflect only a few or, in some cases, none of the characteristics identified as problematic by academics (Smith, 2001). There is also evidence that rote-learning per se is not a good indicator of surface rather than deep learning, that passivity has more to do with what students feel is culturally appropriate in particular environments and that often collaboration, rather than independent learning, is valued more highly in some cultures than individual achievement (Kiley, 1998).

It is easy for academics and advisors to become fixated on the differences between South-East Asian students and the local student population. Biggs (1997) argues that any perceptions of academic difference need to be treated with caution. Firstly, there is an assumption that if certain students are unable to cope in a particular learning environment, then the problem lies with the student rather than the teaching methodology. Secondly, it is not evident that the differences

identified between student cohorts of differing nationalities do exist and, even if they do, that they represent a learning deficit that needs correcting. He further claims that any such differences can be accommodated within good, flexible teaching methodologies.

CULTURAL SENSITIVITY AND LEARNING

If we are to accept that there are significant enough differences in learning styles and attitudes between different cultural groups to be problematic, then these need to be addressed or accommodated in order to facilitate successful transition. Yet it would appear that both 'cultural colonialist' and 'culturally relativist' models are equally problematic. In addition, some researchers claim that universities have displayed a lack of appreciation of the 'depth of the cultural...shift needed for students to successfully adjust to the new environment' (Rosen, 1999, p.7). Ballard and Clancy (1988; cited in Beasley and Pearson, 1998, p.14) argue that to become literate at university means "a gradual socialisation into a distinctive culture of knowledge". Therefore, bridging programs should not only address language and academic proficiency, but the cultural and social transition of students into the Australian university context.

An extension of this view is presented by Perry (1999). He claims that international students must become adept in the culture of the host country as well as the university they find themselves studying in, in order to develop their levels of thinking. There is some limited support for this statement (Hird, 1999). However, this again reflects a form of 'cultural colonialism' and an insistence on assimilation or integration to achieve success. It is debatable to what extent international students should be expected to accommodate the two cultures, and to what extent they should be encouraged to critique and resist dominant models and norms. At the same time, students who resist or fail to adopt the institutions standards or practices may very well be academically and socially disadvantaged.

In relation to this issue, Macdonald and Gun (1997) probed the views of a number of international students through informal interviews. They found that students, in the main, resented the notion of having to integrate into the new culture to achieve academic success. This expectation has been variously described by them as patronising, demeaning and unjustified. Similar research findings have emerged in relation to Indigenous and Maori students (Farrington, DiGregorio and Page, 1999; Gorinski and Abernethy, 2003). If institutions want to improve the satisfaction levels of international students, then they need to ensure that the students feel capable and included. It is, therefore, contingent on any transition program aimed at International students to try to induct students into the expectations of their particular institution, without making the student feel academically or culturally deficient. Programs need to familiarise the student with the academic requirements of their institution while ensuring the student engages positively with the university without feeling that their own cultural and academic values are compromised. This is particularly challenging when it comes to teaching something like critical thinking.

THE ROLE OF CRITICAL THINKING

Critical thinking is considered the most distinguishing feature separating University academic standards from Secondary Schools and the one academic area not overtly addressed at high school. In fact, academics often complain about the paucity of critical thinking skills in commencing students' work. Although critical thinking has always been viewed as a necessary attribute of all successful tertiary students, there has been an increasing emphasis in recent years on the overt acquisition or teaching of critical thinking skills, with most academic disciplines now making this requirement explicit. There is no longer an assumption that students will acquire the skill in the normal course of their academic degree. Subject topics specify the need for a critical approach or evidence of critical thinking by including the role of critique, critical reflection, or

critical analysis in their course outlines. Essay questions clearly state that critical analysis and evaluation will be a part of their grading. It is becoming increasingly common for academic staff to request sessions on critical thinking for first-year students, (it is part of the Flinders Accelerated program), and it has even been included as a component of most university postgraduate training programs.¹ Critical thinking is considered such a crucial skill that it has become a marketable asset. Each university advertises a list of generic graduate attributes that they claim their students acquire as part of their degree. Critical thinking and related areas such as problem-solving skills, argumentation and text analysis skills, figure prominently in those lists.²

In regards to international students, a critical thinking capacity has been picked out as an important distinguishing feature between Western academic models of study and non-Western or Confucian-based learning systems (Biggs, 1997; Cadman, 2000; Mills, 1997). In line with this finding, South-East Asian students are generally perceived to be non-critical in their approach to academic texts and are considered to lack an understanding of the requirements of analysis and critique. Coupled with this is the demand itself from International students. They have heard of critical thinking, are concerned about critical thinking and express an interest in finding out about it. In their courses, they are often disconcerted by critical thinking language; what it means and what it entails.

Given the demand from the University, the academic staff and the international students, it is clear that critical thinking needs to be incorporated into any transition program. Yet, as Macdonald and Gun (1997) show, international students can feel patronised by the attitudes of academic staff and transition programs that work from a deficit model, or which focus heavily on assimilation. This outcome is particularly likely when dealing with the overt transmission of an intellectual skill which is largely viewed as essential to academic inquiry, is seen as self-explanatory within the culture, and is seen as predominantly lacking in South-east Asian students. The challenge is how to familiarise students with the concept of critical thinking in a way that is neither assimilationist nor working from a deficit model, and to do it in a way that can avoid the reaction that Macdonald and Gun highlight.

PROBLEMS WITH THE CRITICAL THINKING CONCEPT

First, it needs to be acknowledged that the teaching of critical thinking is not without its problems anyway, regardless of *who* we are teaching it to. Even though we may all have an understanding of what critical thinking entails, in a broad sense, it is not always clear what the concept encompasses. This can be seen by the various ways it is defined. According to the National Council for Excellence in Critical Thinking Instruction (Scriven and Paul, 2003), critical thinking is “the intellectually disciplined process of actively and skilfully conceptualising, applying, analysing, synthesising or evaluating information gathered from or generated by, observation, experience, reflection, reasoning, or communication as a guide to belief or action”. Others describe it variously as “self-directed, self-disciplined, self-monitored and self-corrective thinking” (Paul and Elder, 2000) or “the process of analysing, evaluating and synthesising information in order to increase our understanding and knowledge of reality” (Sievers, 2001). It is also viewed as purposeful, involving “the use of those cognitive skills or strategies that increase the probability of a desirable outcome” (Halpern, 1997).

Although these definitions are fairly typical, they are very broad and non-specific, giving no clear indication of what needs to be taught. Likewise, there is seldom a clear enunciation of or general

¹ All universities' Research Training Programs can be viewed on their websites.

² Again, graduate attributes are listed on all university websites under that title or under teaching and learning outcomes. Similar graduate attribute lists appear on University of Nottingham and University of Sheffield advertising material.

agreement between academics across disciplines in regards to what they believe critical thinking is. Rather, there is an assumption that all academics, from whatever background, can reliably ascertain the presence of or lack of critical thinking skills in a piece of work. Yet what counts as evidence of critical thinking is rarely shared with the student. The lack of clear guidelines makes it difficult for students to know what the requirements entail in practice and also makes the general teaching of critical thinking problematic. If we are not clear what we are teaching, we are unlikely to have clear goals in place and a clear set of student outcomes to measure. This also makes reliable evaluation of both the student and the topic difficult. If the teaching of critical thinking is to be made explicit, this uncertainty needs to be resolved.

CRITICAL THINKING AS A CULTURAL CONCEPT

There is, however, a far more interesting issue that emerges from the conceptualisation of critical thinking, which is particularly relevant to the teaching of international students. If one examines the definitions outlined above, they appear to represent a kind of 'ideal' model of thinking. All the definitions rest on the assumption that the kinds of thinking illustrated are not only desirable, beneficial and attainable but they are universally valued. Critical thinking is seen as the epitome of good thinking. This widely-held perception is clearly illustrated by the National Council for Excellence in Critical Thinking Instruction (2003) who claim that,

In its exemplary form [critical thinking] is based on universal intellectual values that transcend subject-matter divisions; clarity accuracy, precision, consistency, relevance, sound evidence, good reasons, depth and fairness.

It is clear that critical thinking is seen as a skill that is both objectively valuable and self-evidently useful. According to Angelo and Cross (1993, pp.65-66), a critical thinking approach should be applied to “virtually all methods of inquiry practised in the academic disciplines” and is a key goal of the liberal arts and general education courses. On the other hand, how can one do good science without using reasoning and logic or without using a critical thinking, problem-solving approach? If this assumption is true, then cultures which do not adopt this approach cannot do (or cannot be doing) good science. The students from those cultures cannot be learning good academic thinking skills. As a consequence, international students who do not master this method of thinking will be at a distinct disadvantage; not just because they do not know what this university requires of them but because all good thinking relies on this method.

The problem with this position is that it assumes two things; that good reasoning is exemplified by the critical thinking skills illustrated and that it should be universally valued in that form. It fails to acknowledge that our understanding of what critical thinking entails, is heavily influenced by our academic history and traditions. A reasoning capacity may very well be something that all humans have; it may be a generic cognitive capacity. This does not entail that good reasoning is universally valued in all cultures or that it is valued in the same way. Even if good reasoning skills are considered desirable by most people, in most cultures, what counts as evidence of good reasoning is not universal. What Western academics recognise as evidence of reasoning, the tools used to reason with, the language and structure of the argument, actually represent a cultural, rather than a universal, method. This is important to acknowledge and understand.

First, the concept and practice of critical thinking comes from the discipline of Philosophy. Australian academic traditions have evolved from the British university system, where, right up to the 1950s, the study of Philosophy was a necessary component of a good quality university education. As a discipline Philosophy incorporates both formal and informal logic, epistemology, metaphysics and ethics. Critical thinking techniques are a necessary component of each of these areas, with strict criteria of what constitutes acceptable reasoning, evidence, analytic techniques

and argumentation. These standards have traditionally been incorporated as the basis for academic rigour in all disciplines.

Second, the critical thinking tradition adopted from Philosophy, exemplified by the use of analysis, logic, argument structure and the scientific method, is very much a Western cultural product (Lloyd, 1996). As stated, the methodology and resulting constraints on what counts as good reasoning are dictated by philosophic tradition. The Western philosophic tradition stems from the classical Greek tradition epitomised by Socrates, Plato and Aristotle, which was revived by the Jesuits in the Middle Ages in Europe and was successfully adopted by British scientists of the 18th century. The Greek tradition was based on competitive discourse and dialogue using a range of argumentation skills, which are still used today. Providing proof or justification was essential and depended on using linguistic analysis and a linear logic epitomised by mathematical proofs. Status was gained by destroying an opponent's argument, through detailed critical analysis, and by constructing a convincing argument of one's own as a rival point of view. This is in strong contrast to the classical Chinese tradition that relies heavily on analogy and circular reasoning (Lloyd, 1996).

This indicates that what counts as critical thinking in the West, the type of reasoning techniques used, and the style of written critiques expected within Australian universities is not something universal, even if reasoning itself is. Critical thinking, as we know it and expect it from our students, is part of a rich cultural tradition going back to the ancient Greeks. The following section illustrates how this acknowledgement and understanding can help teach critical thinking to international students in a culturally sensitive way.

IMPLEMENTATION OF CRITICAL THINKING FROM A CULTURAL PERSPECTIVE

For the last two years, critical thinking and argumentation skills have been included in the Flinders Introductory Academic Program (IAP), to address the demands of both academics and international students. The approach adopted acknowledges the cultural academic tradition, which has led to the critical thinking model practiced in the West. It incorporates aspects of the process used in the Australian Culture stream; making explicit the cultural assumptions and expectations of Western Academia.

Paris and Winograd (1990) suggest that a concept of learning that embraces socio-cultural and cognitive aspects of the students' experiences provides a more appropriate model for learning than solely behavioural or information processing models of learning. A socio-cultural and cognitive model implies a direct relationship between the students' perception of learning and the strategies used for learning specific tasks. Student learning is then mediated through the students' social, cultural and individual background characteristics and the learning situation that the students find themselves in (Gordon, Cantwell and Moore, 1998). Biggs (1997) puts forward a similar concept. He claims that teachers should be developing teaching methodologies which are adaptive in their structure and which allow students to negotiate their learning objectives, preferred learning styles and methods of assessment.

The IAP for International students at Flinders University attempts to address these problems. The approach involves making Australian cultural assumptions, attitudes and practices explicit, rather than just presenting them as desirable modes of behaviour that students should adopt. International students are expected to observe and recognise different modes of behaviour and to gain knowledge about their underlying rationale from within a very specific social/cultural context. This enables students to make their own judgements about what behaviours they need to incorporate in order to be able to operate successfully in an alien culture. Such behaviours are thus not seen as representative of a dominant culture that requires them to assimilate but instead, are

seen as coping mechanisms, which ensure their ability to move freely within the culture with the least possible anxiety or sense of alienation.

Student feedback has indicated that the students involved in the program feel better informed about the culture, feel more at ease about operating within it, and did not feel that their own values or cultural practices were compromised. The program also made it easier for international students to make their own cultural values more explicit. Not only does this process give students a choice about what parts of cultural practice they might adopt but it also leads to empowerment. If one's own cultural perspective is explicit, it can be more readily reflected upon. This facilitates recognition of where cultural differences exist between the student, the institution and the staff. Acknowledgement and reflection on academic and socio-cultural differences enables a space for possible negotiation between them.

These principles have been incorporated into the teaching of critical thinking. The first step in teaching critical thinking to international students was to make them aware of the history and to explore the cultural assumptions behind the legacy. We felt it important to acknowledge that critical thinking, as we know it in the West, is not universal. It arises from a very specific set of historical, political and social conditions. As such, it needs to be placed firmly within that context. A discussion of those conditions and its evolution to its present-day status within the Western university is a necessary step in creating an atmosphere of cultural understanding and mutual respect. Students generally have found the history interesting and have become aware that the concept represents a cultural perspective that they may not be familiar with.

The second stage was to acknowledge that there are culturally different approaches to knowledge acquisition, of which critical thinking is one. The Greek method of critical philosophical discourse was underpinned by the pursuit of knowledge. However, alternative methods of knowledge acquisition were used effectively in different cultures. The Chinese method, for instance, was driven by pragmatism (Lloyd, 1996). The method involved trying to incorporate anomalies within the tradition through accommodation rather than adversarial argument. It is useful to be aware of these differences and to point out where the differences lie. This enables the student to perceive critical thinking as just one means to a common end. It becomes one technique among many. It also legitimises their cultural tradition. At the same time, it is important to point out why and how critical thinking is useful to their university study. In this way the student can see that its acquisition is a necessary condition for success at a Western university, without feeling academically deficient.

The third stage was to illustrate the techniques and mechanisms expected within a Western critical thinking approach. This requires a self-conscious reflection on the process of critique and the subsequent construction of knowledge claims using a specific kind of argumentation. This is the transmission of content. Students participate in workshops where they are expected to recognise, assess and construct arguments by using the analytic techniques taught. It is hoped that by presenting the material in this way, students will understand the role it plays within the university and understand the criteria needed to successfully implement a critical approach in their own work that reflects the academic expectations of the university.

STUDENT FEEDBACK

To date, critical thinking and argumentation workshops have been presented to four consecutive cohorts of international students, using the above method. The program introduces the concept of critical thinking to students by describing its historical roots and the very particular social and political forces and events that led to its current status. At the same time, we illustrate the rationale for its inclusion, the advantages of the approach and the outcomes that can be achieved

by adopting it. It is important to make it clear that critical thinking is beneficial to students. However, this is couched in the context of learning any new skill, like learning how to use a computer or drive a car. The point we want to emphasise is that such skills are relevant or useful in certain particular situations.

Student evaluation of critical thinking so far has been very positive. However, the standard questionnaires do not reveal to what extent the teaching of critical thinking had successfully met the challenge initially outlined, namely, to teach it in such a way that the students did not feel culturally or academically compromised. In order to evaluate this aspect, four students from the July 2003 IAP cohort were interviewed to ascertain their views of the critical thinking component. The students were from the Philippines, Papua New Guinea, Kenya and Indonesia. The interviews were open-ended with students free to talk about the sessions, as they wanted. However, each student was prompted, if necessary, to elicit how or in what ways they found the critical thinking sessions useful, whether or not they found the material difficult, whether they were familiar with the concept, and in what ways the topic could be improved.

Primarily, the feedback shows that the students had a positive response to the topic. All respondents iterated the following points.

- They were unfamiliar with the concept prior to the sessions.
- The sessions gave them a clearer understanding of what critical thinking was.
- They perceived the sessions to be useful.
- They felt it was widely applicable.
- They felt academically challenged.

Second, their comments show that they see the sessions as particularly useful within the context of Australian academia. This indicates that they recognise it as a skill they need to adopt or learn in order to succeed in the university environment.

...the professors here are not so particular about your English grammar but more about your reasoning so I think it follows that critical thinking is what this university is looking for especially in the way you critique...

...it is the way here. We need it for evaluating.

...and knowing, knowing that is what you are expected to do, with that knowledge you are able to explore further and to actually think of some criticism.

What was particularly interesting was that they also felt that critical thinking was relevant outside of study as illustrated below:

...it's very relevant. I will be able to use it in all situations, both in academics and in work situations at home.

Good to introduce to students, as it is important in everything you do, helps in making wise decisions.

...this is why I was so interested in the process because I know when I go back to my country it will be useful in my profession.

As expected, all of the students said they had received no critical thinking instruction at their own universities. However, they each said that now, on reflection, they believed they did critical thinking at home without being aware of it: “critical thinking I would suppose now, was sort of part of debate but the critical thinking was really different thing” and, “back at home we did not know you had to do critical thinking or we did critical thinking without knowing exactly that is

what we are doing". This response is extremely encouraging. The students did not feel they were deficient in some way or that critical thinking was something they didn't do, that it was purely a Western prerogative. What affected them, and what they appreciated, was the way the concept was unpacked. As one student said, "...it's sort of a system or process. It is systematically taught that...for instance in your subject you discuss about the ways of critical thinking, the words and the techniques on how to argue..." This method they found challenging, rather than patronising or demeaning. It made them feel they were learning something new and something intellectually in line with their academic level.

Overall, the responses were very encouraging. The students interviewed felt challenged and engaged but did not appear to feel academically deficient or culturally compromised. Even though they found the critical thinking concept unfamiliar and the techniques of argument analysis and justification difficult, this was in line with their academic expectations. International students are more likely to feel patronised if they are not challenged or confronted with new skills. In addition, their comments show that they recognise critical thinking as a particular approach which they are free to embrace or not, outside of academia. On the whole, they recognised it as an explicit, systematic enunciation of implicit good thinking techniques that they all practice to a greater or lesser extent.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

It is often difficult to uncover and make explicit one's own cultural assumptions, biases and values. This is even more the case within an academic environment in which we are addressing what are perceived to be generic abilities or universally valued academic skills like the capacity to think critically. However, this needs to be done if we want to be successful at teaching foreign notions to foreign students without cultural bias.

The above represents one approach to dealing with the dual challenges outlined in this paper. The main focus has been on an acknowledgement of cultural differences and similarities within academic traditions, while explicitly outlining the university's academic expectations. It has tried to avoid either an assimilationist or deficit approach. Work on effectively incorporating critical thinking into the transition program is ongoing. However, as illustrated, the feedback is very positive and is a good indication that this kind of approach can be effective.

Critical thinking is a vital part of teaching students how to think and write at university. Increasing demand for critical thinking teaching across the university means that there will be increasing demand for teaching centres to incorporate it into their academic support programs, particularly transition programs. This presents a new challenge for educators and teachers of critical thinking. Much as the above approach may facilitate the free enculturation of ideas, it is not clear how effective it is in teaching critical thinking itself. Acquiring critical thinking skills is a process that requires more than one introductory session to be effective. It is also debatable how effectively, if at all, critical thinking can be taught abstracted from academic content or outside of the discipline, as in the IAP. At the same time, how do we know we have facilitated the acquisition of critical thinking? What measures do we use? These problems are additional to the ones addressed in this paper. Yet they are broadly relevant to all students. As such, they will need to be addressed in the near future. Critical thinking skills are in demand and support centres will be expected to play an increasingly important role in the teaching of them.

REFERENCES

- Angelo, T.A. and Cross, K.P. (1993) *Classroom Assessment Techniques: A Handbook for College Teachers*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Inc.
- Baker, W. and Panko, M. (1998) Staff development needs on an international campus. *Research and Development in Higher Education*, 21, 15-26.
- Ballard, B. (1995) Some Issues in Teaching International Students. In L. Conrad and L. Phillips, (Eds.), *Reaching More Students*, pp. 107-114. Queensland: Griffith Institute for Higher Education.
- Beasley, C.J. and Pearson, C.A. (1998) Facilitating the learning of transitional students: Strategies for Success. Paper presented at *the Third Pacific Rim Conference*. Auckland, New Zealand.
- Biggs, J. (1997) Teaching Across and Within Cultures: The Issue of International Students. In R. Murray-Harvey and H.C. Silins (Eds.), *Learning and Teaching in Higher Education: Advancing International Perspectives*. Proceedings of the Higher Education Research & Development Society of Australasia Conference, Adelaide: Flinders Press.
- Cadman, K. (2000) Voices in the Air: Evaluations of the learning experiences of international postgraduates and their supervisors. *Teaching in Higher Education* (5) 4, 475-491.
- Choi, M. (1997) Korean students in Australian universities: International issues. *Higher Education Research and Development*, 16 (3), 263-282.
- Department of Education, Training and Youth Affairs (1999) *Students 1999: Selected Higher Education Statistics*. Canberra: DETYA.
- Farrington, S., DiGregorio, K. D. and Page, S. (1999). The Things That Matter: Understanding the Factors That Affect the Participation and Retention of Indigenous Students in the Cadigal Program at the Faculty of Health Sciences, University of Sydney. Paper presented at the *Joint Annual Conference of the Australian Association for Research in Education (AARE) and New Zealand Association for Research in Education (NZARE)*, Melbourne.
- Fraser, B.J., Malone, J.A. and Taylor, P.C. (1990) Tertiary bridging courses in science and mathematics for second chance students in Australia. *Higher Education Research and Development*, 9 (2), 85-100.
- Gordon, M., Cantwell, R.H. and Moore, P.J. (1998) Developing understanding: International student explanations of how they learn. Paper presented at the 1998 *Australian Association for Research in Education Conference*, Adelaide, Australia.
- Gorinski, R. and Abernethy, G. (2003) Maori Student Retention and Success: Curriculum, Pedagogy and Relationships. *7th Pacific Rim: First Year in Higher Education Conference*, QUT, Brisbane.
- Halpern, D.H. (1997) *Critical Thinking Across the Curriculum*. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Hird, B. (1999) English for academic purposes: Cultural impediments to academic objectivity. *Prospect*, 14 (1), 28-43.
- Kiley, M. (1998) Expectation in a Cross-Cultural Postgraduate Experience, In M. Kiley and G. Mullins (Eds.) (1998) *Quality in Postgraduate Research: Managing the new agenda*. The University of Adelaide, Adelaide.
- Kinnell, M. (1990). The marketing and management of courses. In M. Kinnell (ed.), *The Learning Experiences of Overseas Students*. Buckingham: The Society for Research into Higher Education.

- Lloyd, G.E.R. (1996) *Adversaries and Authorities: Investigations into ancient Greek and Chinese science*. Cambridge: CUP.
- MacDonald, I., and Gunn F. (1997). A model for change in tertiary teaching: Combining education research, tutor training, and reflective practice to create teaching communities. *ASERA*, Adelaide.
- Macdonald, I.D.H. and Gunn, F.M. (1997) A model for change in tertiary teaching: Combining education research, tutor training, and reflective practice to create Teaching Communities. Paper presented at ASERA Conference, Adelaide, [Online] <http://www.hed.swin.edu.au/cleas/publications/Pub2.htm>.
- Mills, C. (1997). The lived-in realities of internationalisation. In R. Murray-Harvey and H.C. Silins (Eds.), *Learning and Teaching in Higher Education: Advancing International Perspectives*. Proceedings of the Higher Education Research & Development Society of Australasia Conference, Adelaide, (pp. 91-114): Flinders Press.
- Murray-Harvey, R. and Silins, H.C. (eds) (1997) *Learning and Teaching in Higher Education: Advancing International Perspectives*. Proceedings of the Higher Education Research & Development Society of Australasia Conference, Adelaide: Flinders Press.
- Paris, S.C. and Winograd, P. (1990) How Metacognition can Promote Academic Learning and Instruction. In B.F. Jones and L. Idol (Eds.), *Dimensions of Thinking and Cognitive Instruction*, (pp.15-55).
- Paul, R.W. and Elder, L. (2000) *Critical Thinking Handbook: Basic Theory and Instructional Structures*. New York: Foundation for Critical Thinking.
- Perry, W. (1999) *Forms of ethical and intellectual development in the college years*. California: Jossey-Bass.
- Rosen, R. R. (1999) Academic transition into university culture or what are we teaching our students. *Aries*, 1 (1), 7-21.
- Samuelowicz, K. (1987) Learning Problems of Overseas Students: Two Sides of a Story. *Higher Education Research and Development*, 6 (2), 121-133.
- Scriven, M. and Paul, R. (2003) Defining Critical Thinking: A draft statement prepared for the National Council for Excellence in Critical Thinking Instruction. [Online] <http://www.criticalthinking.org/University/defining.html>.
- Sievers, K. (2001) How do you know that...?. *Critical Reasoning Handbook*, Philosophy Department, Flinders University, Adelaide.
- Smith, N. (2001) Approaches to Study of Three Chinese National Groups. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 71, 429-441.

Exploration of Instructional Strategies and Individual Difference within the Context of Web-based Learning

Hesham Alomyan

University of South Australia hesham.alomyan@postgrads.unisa.edu.au

Wing Au

University of South Australia wing.au@unisa.edu.au

Individual differences have been identified as important factors that might have significant impact on students' learning. This study investigated the effect of student's cognitive styles, achievement motivation, prior knowledge, and attitudes on student's achievement in web-based learning. A web-based course was designed for second year university students in an educational psychology class. Cognitive Style Analysis (CSA), Achievement Motivation Scale (AMS), and Attitude Scale (AS) were administered to a sample of 71 second-year university students enrolled in the educational psychology class. Findings of the study revealed that no significant differences (0.05) in achievement between field-dependent and field-independent students. Also, students with different characteristics learned equally well in web-based learning. The students enjoyed the convenience of web based learning. Competition and high expectation were the motivating forces in web based learning. Prior knowledge and motivation seemed to be the only significant factors that explained more than 25 per cent of student achievement measured by class grade.

Individual differences, web-based learning, instructional strategies, educational computing

INTRODUCTION

The advent of the World Wide Web has changed the ways that teaching and learning have been conducted. Educators are now relying more and more on the Web as a platform for delivery, communication and interaction. One advantage of this new platform is that it takes into account the individual differences among the learners in different learning settings. One aspect of individual differences is cognitive styles. Riding and Rayner (1998) stated that identifying students' cognitive styles could help educators understand how people organize and represent information.

Chen and Macredie (2002) suggested that Witkin's field dependence/independence has emerged as one of the most widely studied cognitive style in different educational settings. Witkin and Moore (1974) used the term, field independence, to describe individuals who are individualistic, internally directed and accept ideas through analysis. On the other hand, field dependent individuals prefer working in groups, are externally directed, influenced by salient features and they accept ideas as presented. Research shows that field independent learners outperform field dependent learners in various learning settings owing to their different characteristics mentioned above (Ford, 1995; Ford & Chen 2000). As an instructional design sequence Witkin, Moore, Goodenough and Cox (1977) theorize that field dependent learners and field independent learners may perform equally well when learning materials are highly organized. They added that field

dependents might learn most efficiently when given guidance that emphasizes key information and draws attention to necessary cues.

As another individual difference, achievement motivation has always been reported to be an important factor in students' learning. Bandura (1986) defined motivation as a goal-directed behaviour that was instigated and sustained by expectations concerning the anticipating outcomes of actions and self-efficacy for performing those actions. Motivation was found to be the best predictor of student achievement in two studies, which investigated factors influencing student achievement in learning the Japanese language through the medium of satellite television (Shih, Ingebritsen, Pleasants, Flickinger & Brown, 1998). In his study on motivation, learning style and achievement, Shih (1998) found that motivation was the only significant factor in web-based learning that accounted for more than 25 per cent of student achievement.

Prior knowledge is also an important aspect of individual differences. It can be defined as the knowledge, skills, or ability that students bring to the learning process. Prior knowledge has been found to have a strong influence on learning (Jonassen & Gabrowski, 1993). Research shows that 30 per cent to 60 per cent of difference in performance could be explained by prior knowledge. Perhaps learners with salient prior knowledge are able to employ highly effective acquisition strategies such as organisation, chunking and elaboration, and so become able to process and assimilate relatively high levels of information input without suffering overload effects whereas learners with low prior knowledge are unable to use such strategies (Alexander, Murphy, Woods, Duhon & Paker, 1997; Tobias, 1994). As compensation, different effective instructional strategies have been identified to help students with low prior knowledge to activate their existing knowledge. Such strategies might include brainstorming, general discussion questions and graphic organizers.

Based on the previous discussion, it seems that cognitive styles, achievement motivation and prior knowledge may have an effect on students' learning. However, more research is needed to help understand the nature of this effect and if there is any interaction among these variables within the context of web-based learning. Thus, this study is meant to:

1. Investigate the effect of students' cognitive styles, achievement motivation, prior knowledge and attitudes on achievement in a web-based learning environment.
2. Examine the ability of web-based learning in accommodating different cognitive styles and enhancing students' learning.

METHOD

The initial sample of the study consisted of 71 second-year university students enrolled in an Educational Psychology course offered by the School of Education, the University of South Australia. Richard Riding's Cognitive Style Analysis (CSA) computer-based test was only administered to 53 students to determine their cognitive styles; either as field dependent or field independent learners. Riding and Rayner (1998) recommendations are that scores below 1.03 denote field dependent individuals; scores of 1.36 and above denote field independent individuals. An online survey was designed by the researcher and included two scales. A five-item motivation scale ($\text{Alpha}=0.69$) was selected from the Motivation Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ) developed by Pintrich and his colleagues at University of Michigan (Pintrich, Smith, Garcia & Mckeachie, 1991). The students were asked to rate themselves according to how well the statements described them by using a five-point scale with response options ranging from (1) Not at all typical of me to (5) Very much typical of me. A six-items attitude scale ($\text{Alpha}=0.86$) was developed. Some items were taken from a questionnaire which was used in Shih's (1998) study on assessing biology students' attitudes towards web-based learning. The five-point Likert-

type scales had response options ranging from (1) Strong Disagree to (5) Strong Agree. The final examination grades of the two online topics were used as a measure of achievement. Students' achievement in a previous educational psychology course was used as an indicator of their prior knowledge.

A web-based course was designed for the educational psychology students focusing on two topics: Psychology of Science and Psychology of Reading and Writing. Owing to the fact field independent learners outperform field dependent learners in various learning settings due to their different characteristics (Ford & Chen 2001; Ford, 1995), we, in our design, have taken into account field dependent learners preferences by applying several techniques in an attempt to help them interact comfortably with the learning material and to minimize disorientation problems. Navigational cues and concept maps were used both to guide students through the material and give field dependent students a global picture on the topic and show relationships among concepts. In addition a graphic-based overview was used at the beginning of each topic in an attempt to activate students' prior knowledge especially of field dependent learners.

The study went through several steps. Initially, the CSA was used to classify students' cognitive styles as field independent or field dependent. Subjects were then asked to log on the website to undertake a questionnaire that measured their achievement motivation and then they proceeded to study the online course material. After going through the material they were asked to undertake another questionnaire, which measured their attitudes towards the web-based learning. Students were given a period of two weeks to use the website before they started their final examination. In the final examination, which was a paper-based examination, students' marks on the two topics mentioned were used as an indicator of their academic achievement. Data were analyzed with the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). Analyses of data included, means, standard deviations, t-tests, Pearson correlations and regressions. A significance level of $p < 0.05$ was adopted for the study.

RESULTS

One-way ANOVA was run in order to test whether student's achievement motivation differed significantly with respect to their cognitive styles. As shown in Table 1, the analysis yielded non-significant difference ($p > 0.05$, $F = 0.05$, $df = 1$) in student's achievement motivation.

Table 1. ANOVA Test the Effect of Students' Cognitive Styles on Their Achievement Motivation

Achievement Motivation	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	0.47	1	0.47	0.05	0.82
Within Groups	462.29	52	8.89		
Total	462.76	53			

Level of Significance is at 0.05

As shown in Table 2, no significant difference ($p > 0.05$, $F = 0.50$, $df = 1$) was detected between field dependent and field independent students on achievement.

Table 2. ANOVA Test the Effect of Students' Cognitive Styles on Their Achievement

Achievement	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	3.84	1	3.84	0.50	0.48
Within Groups	396.18	52	7.62		
Total	400.02	53			

Level of Significance is at 0.05

Moreover, student's attitudes towards web-based learning did not differ significantly ($p > 0.05$, $F = 2.2$, $df = 1$) by being field dependent or field independent, as presented in Table 3. Overall, students showed positive attitudes towards web-based learning. They positively responded to

statements related to the convenience of web- based learning (mean=4.19), the ability to control the pace of learning (mean=4.13), opportunities for learning provided by web-based courses (mean=3.35) and enjoying learning from the web-based lessons. The mean score of students' attitudes toward web-based instruction was 3.57 (sd=0.81).

Table 3. ANOVA Test the Effect of Students' Cognitive Styles on Their Attitudes Towards Web-based learning

Achievement	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	32.31	1	32.31	2.20	0.15
Within Groups	528.01	52	14.67		
Total	560.32	53			

Level of Significance is at 0.05

A Pearson correlation was conducted in order to test whether there was a significant relationship between the variables of the study and the results are presented in Table 4. The analysis detected a significant correlation between achievement and both motivation and prior knowledge ($r=0.496$, $r=0.476$, $p<0.05$) respectively. In addition, a negative significant correlation was found between student's attitudes and their achievement. Meanwhile, the analysis detected non-significant relationship ($r=0.013$, $p>0.05$) between achievement and cognitive styles.

Table 4. Pearson Correlations between Students' Achievement and Their Cognitive Styles, Achievement Motivation, Attitudes and Prior Knowledge

		Achievement	Cognitive Styles	Achievement Motivation	Attitudes	Prior Knowledge
Achievement	Pearson	1	0.013	0.496**	-0.296*	0.476**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.938	0.000	0.039	0.000
	N	71	53	71	71	71
Cognitive Styles	Pearson	0.013	1	0.028	0.185	0.044
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.938		0.873	0.354	0.812
	N	53	53	53	53	53
Achievement Motivation	Pearson	0.496**	0.028	1	-0.233	0.399**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.873		0.108	0.002
	N	71	53	71	71	71
Attitudes	Pearson	-0.296*	0.185	-0.233	1	-0.132
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.039	0.354	0.108		0.422
	N	71	53	71	71	71
Prior Knowledge	Pearson	0.476**	0.044	0.399**	-0.132	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.812	0.002	0.422	
	N	71	53	71	71	71

Note: 53 students out of 71 undertook Cognitive Style Analysis test.

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Pre-post paired sample T-test was conducted to test the effectiveness of the web-based learning package. The analysis as shown in Table.5 yielded a non-significant ($p>0.05$, $t=-1.427$, $df=58$) difference.

Table 5. Pre-post Paired Sample T-Test

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (.2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Mean Error	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Pre-post	-0.186	1.00	0.130	-0.447	0.075	-1.43	58	0.159

Level of Significance is at 0.05

Further, we compared the pre-post test scores of students who used the package with those who did not use the package, by using One-way ANOVA, a significant ($p<0.05$, $F=5.81$, $df=1$) difference on the post-test scores was recorded but not on the pre-test scores ($p>0.05$, $F=3.32$,

df=1). Students who used the website had a mean score of 13.20 on the post-test whereas the mean score of the students who did not use the package was 11.63. One possible explanation for this result is that the use of the web-based learning package at least was effective in maintaining the achievement level of the students who used the website on the post-test comparing with the other students who did not use the website.

A regression analysis was conducted to determine the amount of variance in students' achievement explained by selected variables. The regression model was loaded first with the overall motivation mean score, which explained 10 per cent of the variance in achievement. Student's standardized pre-test scores were entered second into the regression model. This variable explained 15 per cent of the variance in student achievement and then the attitude and cognitive style variables were entered, explaining a very small proportion of the variance in achievement. Prior knowledge and motivation would seem to be the only significant variables that explain for the variance in achievement scores.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The results of the current study seems to support what is asserted in literature, namely, owing to its features, hypermedia is more effective in reaching all types of students, and reducing differences in the academic performance among different student cognitive styles. Therefore we can confirm that web-based learning can accommodate a wider range of cognitive styles. Witkin et al. (1977) suggest that, in comparison with field independent people, field dependent people have more difficulties dealing with confusion, complexity, and dimensions that are often present in hypermedia systems. Thus, extra guidance may be useful in assisting field dependent people in hypermedia learning. Hence, it was our expectations that using a variety of instructional strategies in our design, such as presenting graphic organizers of content, concept maps, and salient navigation cues, would advantage field dependent students and help them to perform as well as their counterparts.

Furthermore, this study showed that students who used the website performed on the post-test better than those who did not use it. It might be the case that students who used the website spent more time studying the online course material besides the lecture notes. Another possible explanation is that the students might have found the material on the website more organized and much easier to follow especially when concept maps were used as an instructional strategy. One of the comments that we received from the students was that "this site has been an excellent help in the study process, and it would be excellent if all the lectures were available in this format as it helps to put the information into a clear context". Another student commented that "the concept map idea was helpful, because I could see how information was related".

In this study prior knowledge and achievement motivation explained 25 per cent of student's achievement. Prior knowledge has always been reported to have a significant effect on learner's performance. Statistical meta-analysis indicates that prior knowledge could explain up to 42 per cent of variance in performance (Dochy, 1992). It appears that prior domain knowledge is an important factor that can explain differences in students' performance. The importance of prior knowledge seems to be the resources it provides the student. Therefore, it is of considerable value for students to be equipped with relevant knowledge, and to have this knowledge activated at the very moment when learning is to occur (Yates & Chandler, 1991). Consequently, Web instructional designers should consider instructional strategies that can be used to activate student's prior knowledge. One way to do so is to provide concept maps or advance organizers that can activate their exciting knowledge and link it with new information being learned. Another approach is to allow students to share knowledge in small-group discussions prior to beginning a new and possibly unfamiliar task.

Motivation also appears to play a very important role in web-based learning. Instructors should understand the importance of motivation in web-based learning so as to enhance student achievement. In addition they should take into consideration strategies that can encourage students to become active and motivate learners in online learning where the ability of an instructor to influence motivation is greatly reduced because of the lost face-to-face contact with learner. Such strategies might include integrating Lepper and Hodell's (1989) four characteristics of tasks (challenge, curiosity, control, and fantasy) that promote individual intrinsic motivation. Another strategy could be using Web capabilities to facilitate communication among participants, such as using discussion board and videoconferencing, in order to provide opportunities to carry out cooperative and competitive strategies.

REFERENCES

- Alexander, P.A., Murphy, P.K., Woods, B.S., Duhon, K.E. and Paker, D. (1997). College instruction and concomitant changes in students' knowledge, interest, and strategy use: A study of domain learning. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 22, 125-146.
- Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Chen, S. and Macredie, R. (2002). Cognitive styles and hypermedia navigation: Development of a learning model. *Journal of The American Society for Information science and Technology*, 53 (1), 3- 15.
- Dochy, F. (1992). *Assessment of prior knowledge as a determinant for future learning*. Utrecht, London: Lemma BV/Kingsley Publishers.
- Ford, N. (1995). Levels and types of mediation in instructional system: An individual difference approach. *International Journal of Human-Computer Studies*, 43, 243-259.
- Ford, N. and Chen, S. (2000). Individual difference, hypermedia navigation, and learning: An empirical study. *Journal of Educational Multimedia and Hypermedia*, 9 (4), 281-311.
- Jonassen, D.H. and Grabowski, B. (1993). *Individual differences and instruction*. New York: Allen and Bacon.
- Lepper, M.R. and Hodell, M. (1989). Intrinsic motivation in the classroom. In C. Ames and R. Ames (Eds.), *Research on motivation in education*, (3), 73-105. San Diego: Academic Press.
- Pintrich, R., Smith, D.A.F., Garcia, T. and McKeachie, W.J. (1991). Reliability and predictive validity of the motivated strategies for learning questionnaire (MSLQ). *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 53, 801-813.
- Riding R. and Rayner S. (1998) *Cognitive Styles and Learning Strategies: Understanding Style Differences in Learning and Behaviour*. London: David Fulton.
- Shih, C., Ingebritsen, T., Pleasants, J., Flickinger, K. and Brown, G. (1998). Learning strategies and other factors influencing achievement via web courses. *Proceedings of the 14th Annual Conference on Distance Teaching and Learning* (pp.359-363). Madison, Wisconsin.
- Tobias, S. (1994). Interest, prior knowledge, and learning. *Review of Educational Research*, 64 (1), 37-54.
- Witkin, H.A. and Moore, C.A. (1974). Cognitive style and the teaching learning process. Paper presented at the *Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association* (59th, Chicago, IL, April 1974).
- Witkin, H.A., Moore, C.A., Goodenough, D.R. and Cox, P.W. (1977). Field dependent and field independent cognitive styles and their educational implications. *Review of Educational Research*, 47, 1-64.
- Yates, G. and Chandler, M. (1991). The cognitive psychology of knowledge: Basic research findings and educational implications. *Australian Journal of Education*, 35 (2), 131-153.

Emotional Labour and the Permanent Casual Lecturer: Ideas for a Research Project

Steven Barrett

University of South Australia *steven.barrett@unisa.edu.au*

Like most other parts of the Australian public sector, Australian universities have been required to do more with less over the past decade. A key strategy in reducing costs has been the increased casualisation of teaching. This paper uses a hard/soft model of Human Resource Management as a framework within which to argue that increased casualisation of university teaching has increased the emotional labour associated with casual teaching. The intensification of emotional labour is usually accompanied by increased workplace stress. Furthermore, this emotional labour is neither recognised nor valued by university managers, hence it is unremunerated. This paper briefly reviews the concept of emotional labour and then identifies a range of issues that are contributing to the intensification of the emotional labour that is being performed by casual teaching staff. The paper concludes with a call for a more systematic investigation of the issues identified here.

emotional labour, psychological contract, human resource management

INTRODUCTION

The Dawkins *White Paper* (Dawkins, 1988) initiated the movement from an elite to a mass higher education system in Australia. These reforms have not only stimulated growth in the number of university students, it has also restructured the Australian student body, which is much more diverse than it was 20 years ago. Likewise, the Dawkins reforms have also restructured the teaching staff of Australian universities. Since the late 1980s, public funding for Australian undergraduates has not kept pace with the growth in student numbers. Hence, *per capita* funding, in real terms, has fallen steadily, a trend that has gathered pace since 1996.

A key strategy employed by Australian universities to help offset the fall in funding has been to increase the casualisation of their teaching activities. It is therefore not surprising that the National Tertiary Education Union (NTEU) argues that the university sector now has the second highest rate of casual employment of any industry in Australia, second only to tourism and hospitality. The NTEU also argues that casual staff now conduct 70 per cent of all first year classes. It is therefore not surprising that as part of the current round of Enterprise Bargaining Agreement negotiations with all three South Australian universities that the union is attempting to place a cap on casual teaching.

Teaching is a form of emotional labour. Furthermore, the methods by which the casualisation of teaching has been implemented at Australian universities has intensified the emotional labour aspects of teaching for both “permanent” and casual lecturers. However, there a number of other factors that are operating in Australian universities that are also leading to the intensification of the emotional labour performed during teaching, which is detrimental to the staff members involved. However, it will be argued in this paper that university managers do not appear to acknowledge the existence of this problem, which is further intensifying the problem.

Furthermore, it will be argued that increased casualisation of teaching reduces the effectiveness of universities.

This paper commences with a brief review of the concept of emotional labour. The third section briefly outlines the key factor intensifying the emotional labour associated with casual teaching, the violation of the psychological contract. The fourth section briefly outlines a number of factors that are leading to the intensification of emotional labour. This paper is based largely on the casual observations of the author undertaken in all three South Australian economics or business schools. Hence, all the relevant issues may not have been identified and they may not be relevant to other parts of the university sector. The purpose of this paper is to conduct a preliminary review of the issues associated with the emotional labour associated with casual teaching. The factors that are intensifying the emotional labour of university teaching affect both “permanent” and casual academic staff. Nevertheless, casual lecturers are the focus of this paper. This paper is therefore the first step in a much broader study into this topic. The paper concludes with a call for a more systematic investigation of the issues identified here.

What is Emotional Labour

The term “emotional labour” refers to the management of human feelings that occur during the social interaction that takes place as part of the labour process (Hochschild, 1983, 1993). This is clearly different to “emotion work”. During emotion work, the feelings of employees are managed in order to maintain an outward appearance and to produce particular states of mind in other people for private purposes. Hochschild (1983, p.37) identifies two forms of emotional labour, where employees induce or suppress their feelings, or emotions, as part of the labour process. First, surface acting involves pretending “to feel what we do not ... we deceive other about what we really feel but we do not deceive ourselves”. Second, deep acting means to deceive “oneself as much as deceiving others ... we make feigning easy by making it unnecessary”.

Furthermore, Taylor (1998) identifies three characteristics that define emotional labour and hence distinguish it from emotion work. First, feelings management is performed as part of paid work. Second, emotional labour is predominantly undertaken during social interaction within the workplace. The product of emotional labour is often a change in the state of mind or feeling within another person, most often a client or a customer. The cognitive processes of assimilation and accommodation that students perform during learning activities are very similar to the changes in the state of mind that Hochschild refers to. Third, there must be some attempt to prescribe or supervise and measure employee performance. The various processes that universities are increasingly using to under take student evaluations of teaching and learning activities of casual lecturers seem relevant here.

The intensification of emotional labour among casual lecturers is a problem for university managers at two levels. First, increased emotional labour is associated with higher levels of workplace stress (Adkins and Lury, 1999), with its associated negative impacts on employee health and well-being. Second, the increasing level of emotional labour that is being performed by casual lecturers is unrecognised and hence it is not valued by university managers. Consequently, it is unremunerated (Adkins and Lury, 1999). This in turn can have a negative impact on the recruitment and retention of teaching staff, both casual and “permanent” staff. The key factor that is operating to intensify emotional labour among casual lecturers is the violation of the psychological contract between employers and employees, at least in the business/economics departments of the three South Australian universities that are the focus of this paper. This issue is expanded upon in the following section. The fourth section discusses a number of less important, yet still significant causes of the intensification of emotional labour among career casual lecturers.

VIOLATING THE PSYCHOLOGICAL CONTRACT

Introduction

The increased casualisation of university teaching has been justified largely in terms of scientific management and comparative advantage. These concepts run like a unifying theme through the *Green Paper* and the *White Paper* (Dawkins, 1987, 1988). That is, casual teaching allows the planning and development of teaching programs to be separated from the actual doing of teaching. It is asserted by university managers that this will allow universities, or at least the three faculties on which this discussion is based, to exploit the economies of scale on which the *Green Paper* and the *White Paper* (Dawkins, 1987, 1988) were premised. There may well be economies of scale in higher education, but this question is not the focus of this paper. Rather, this section will analyse the effects of separating the planning and development of teaching from the actual doing of teaching using a Hard/Soft model of Human Resource Management (HRM) as an analytical framework.

Hard or Instrumental HRM “stresses the rational, quantitative aspects of managing human resources. Performance improvement and improved competitive advantage are highlighted” (Stone, 2002, p.10). This approach is usually reserved for the management of peripheral employees, invariably those who are engaged in the actual production of goods and services. These employees are viewed as just another variable cost that needs to be minimised in order to reduce production costs and improve competitive advantage. On the other hand, Soft or Humanistic HRM recognises the need for the interaction of human resource policies and practices with the strategic business objectives of the organisation, while emphasising employee development, collaboration, participation, trust and informed choice (Stone, 2002, p.10). This approach is usually reserved for the management of those core employees that are viewed as an asset as they provide the organisation with its competitive advantage through the development of new products, processes or markets.

The planning and development of teaching programs is almost exclusively conducted by a group of core academic staff that enjoy all the benefits of the standard form of employment relationship. This core group of employees is at best static in size, in South Australia, if not shrinking as older and more experienced academics take advantage of early retirement and generous state government funded superannuation schemes and voluntary separation packages. These staff members invariably return to work the next working day following their “retirement” as adjuncts. Their salaries shifted from the university payroll to a superannuation fund, which is financed out of State Government consolidated revenue. These people may indeed undertake teaching activities for the university on a casual basis following their “retirement”, but they remain part of the core group of employees. Such casual staff are qualitatively different to the vast majority of casual staff. Due to their status as part of the core group of employees, despite the fact that they are no longer employed, they get to pick and choose what teaching they want to do. Hence, they invariably undertake rewarding postgraduate teaching and supervision; never, the unrelenting, demanding and unrewarding first year teaching and marking. Furthermore, they are the source of the new ideas, products and process that Australian universities require in order to gain and retain their competitive advantage in an increasingly competitive global market for education services. Hence, these core staff fit nicely into the Soft HRM framework.

Whereas, the bulk of university teaching, the unrelenting, unrewarding, emotionally draining, hack work of first and second year undergraduate teaching and marking, is increasingly being conducted by a rapidly growing group of people employed in various non-standard forms of employment. Indeed, the methods by which universities have responded to funding constraints have given rise to a new group of academic employees, career casual lecturers. The working

conditions of this group of people are being further eroded by the continual intensification of the emotional aspect of this type of work. This group of people are treated as if they were yet another factor of production whose cost needs to be minimalised in order to maximise profits. Or in the case of undergraduate teaching, whose costs are to be minimalised in order to cross-subsidise latter year undergraduate subjects and postgraduate courses. Hence, these peripheral staff fit nicely into the Hard HRM framework.

The casualisation of university teaching can also be analysed in terms of the historical model of the development of HRM developed by Dunphy (1987). It can be argued that prior to the reforms that accompanied the release of Dawkins *Green Paper* and *White Paper* (Dawkins, 1987, 1988) the Australian university sector fitted quite nicely into the defender category. The two key features being the relatively stable and predictable external environment and the limited range of services provided by Australian universities (Dunphy, 1987). However, over the past decade and a half, the Australian university sector seems to have made the transition to the analyser category. The two key features being the increasingly dynamic, turbulent, uncertain and unpredictable nature of the external environment and the increased variety in the products and services offered by Australian universities (Dunphy, 1987). From the perspective of the Dunphy model, the core academic employees of universities are not just the planners and developers of the teaching programs. They are the source of the new ideas, products and process that Australian universities require in order to gain and retain their competitive advantage in an increasingly competitive global market for education services.

The Hard/Soft models of HRM and the historical model of the development of HRM complement each other as explanations for the increase in the casualisation of university teaching. Regardless of the process that is driving the casualisation of the university workforce, university teaching is becoming increasingly casualised. Furthermore, there are a number of factors that are operating that are intensifying the emotional labour aspect of university teaching. Moreover, these factors are not recognised by managers to the detriment of both the universities in South Australia and the teachers concerned. This section will briefly discuss the key factor leading to the intensification of the emotional aspect of university teaching, the violation of the psychological contract.

The psychological contract

Smithson and Lewis (2000, p.681-682) argue that the psychological contract relates to the expectations of both the employer and the employee that operate over and above the formal contract of employment. The psychological contract was identified and labelled by Rousseau;

The term psychological contract refers to an individual's beliefs regarding the terms and conditions of a reciprocal exchange between the focal person and another party. Issues here include the belief that a promise has been made and a consideration offered in exchange for it, binding the parties to some set of reciprocal obligations (Rousseau, 1989, p.123).

Furthermore, Hiltrop (1995, p.287) argued that;

Psychological contracts are, by definition, voluntary, subjective, dynamic and informal, it is [therefore] virtually impossible to spell out all detail at the time a contract is created. The dynamic character of the psychological contract means that individual and organisational expectations mutually influence one another. People fill in the blanks along the way, and they sometime do so inconsistently. Yet these 'additions' are a reality that has many implications for the success of the organisation.

That is, it is the perception of the different parties to an employment relationship of which each party owes the other. Central to the psychological contract are the beliefs, values, expectations and the aspirations of both the employer and the employee. In particular, the psychological contract reflects the implicit social contract that underpinned the standard form of employment relationship. That is, full time, secure and remunerative employment in a formal sector organisation. Hence, employees view hard work, security and reciprocity as being linked (Cabrera and Albrecht, 1995). Employees develop the expectation that hard work will inevitably lead to secure employment and reciprocity from their employer. Such expectations reflect the experiences of previous cohorts of employees. However, such expectations may not reflect current realities.

The psychological contract has two key components. First, the transactional aspect, which contains the terms of exchange between the employer and employee that have some pecuniary value, that is the wages and conditions of employment. Second, the relational aspect contains those terms that may not be readily valued in monetary terms and which broadly define the relationship between the employer and the employee.

Violating the psychological contract

The increased casualisation of teaching has violated the psychological contract by emphasising the transactional aspect and downplaying the relational aspect. Indeed, it would appear that many local managers have totally abrogated their responsibilities regarding the relational aspect of the psychological contract. Furthermore, although casualisation of teaching now emphasises the transactional aspect of the psychological contract, local managers take extraordinary steps to avoid their financial obligations to casual employees. All three South Australia universities have Enterprise Bargaining Agreements (EBAs) that specify casual pay rates and working conditions. Yet, in the brave new world of HRM in South Australian universities, local managers, such as heads of schools and departmental heads now have HR responsibilities. This gives them the authority, or at least the space, to use a wide variety of techniques to circumvent the relevant EBA and avoid paying casual staff what they are entitled and hence further erode their conditions of work. Hence, EBAs which, at least in South Australia, are increasingly incorporating features to protect the interests of casual employees are best ignored and at worst treated with contempt.

The myriad of strategies that local managers use to avoid their EBA obligations send two clear messages to casual teaching staff. First, the university does not value teaching in general and second, the university does not value your teaching in particular. The downward flexibility of pay and conditions, in contravention to the terms and conditions of the various EBAs essentially means that payment for a teaching task, such as conducting a tutorial, are spread over a larger number of hours. Two common strategies are to require tutors to attend lectures for which they are not paid, or to undertake marking duties that extend beyond the scope of the conditions of the EBA. Hence, these strategies essentially reduce the hourly pay rate for teaching below what many tutors feel reflects their true worth. This violation of the transactional aspect of the psychological contract devalues teaching and further enhances the emotional labour of teaching.

The demographics of the casual teaching staff in South Australia have changed markedly over the past decade or so. Granted, there is still a sizeable proportion of casual staff that are postgraduate students who undertake casual teaching to gain teaching experience or to extend their inadequate scholarships or indeed as a substitute for a scholarship. However, there is a growing number of career casual lecturers in South Australian universities that stitch together a livelihood from snippets of casual, part-time and short-term contract work with a variety of employers. The career path followed by these people is not associated with promotion up the so-called, "greasy pole" of the formal sector internal labour market career structure of the university. This is the preserve of

the fortunate few in the core group of employees. The career structure for career casuals is the enterprise of self.

The career casual lecturer is a creation of university HRM policies designed to reduce teaching costs. However, local managers do not appear to recognise the existence of this group of employees. Their mindsets about casual teaching are deeply rooted in their own experiences as postgraduate students. Hence, they cannot empathise with the problems that career casual lecturers face. The day-to-day experience of career casual lecturers is one of a constant collision between their work and their lives. How do career casual lecturers balance all of the competing demands placed on their limited time and energy, such as children, partners, parents, social commitments, study, sport and other part-time or casual employment, when their employers do not allow them to plan their working lives. The failure of local managers to make commitments to casual lecturers that allow them to make realistic expectations about their working lives is a primary cause of the work/life collision (Pocock, 2003). The observation that casual employment as a tutor or lecturer is no longer a pathway to an academic career reflects the abrogation of the relational aspect of the psychological contract discussed above. Yet, local managers refuse to take any responsibility for the problems that they have caused by allowing casual staff to develop unrealistic expectations about future standard employment. This lack of acknowledgment of the lifestyles that career casuals endure intensifies the emotional labour of university teaching.

Insecure employment, combined with a HECS debt, increases the difficulty that career casual lecturers have in gaining access to financial services. In the short-run this increases the difficulty of obtaining car loans and mortgages. However, the long-term impact on the life choices of people in insecure employment can be significant (Smithson and Lewis, 2000). It is not unrealistic for career casual lecturers to earn a reasonable income, but the combination of insecure employment and HECS debt may prevent them obtaining a mortgage. This can lead to the deferment of key life goals, such making plans to get married or start a family. The deferment of such key lifetime milestones can lead to sense of social exclusion. This in turn can intensify the emotional labour of casual teaching. This is another example of the abrogation of the relational aspect of the psychological contract.

There is a sizeable employment relations literature relating to the violation of the psychological contract. This literature argues that the violation of the psychological contract may lead to a range of negative behavioural or attitudinal responses, which include reduced organisational commitment, reduced job satisfaction and increased cynicism (Robinson and Morison, 1995). Dean *et al.* (1998) and Pate *et al.* (2003) define cynicism as a negative attitude that involves the belief that the organisation lacks integrity, which fosters negative emotions about the organisation and promotes the tendency for employees to engage in critical behaviour of their organisation. Not surprisingly the targets for cynicism are senior executives, the organisation in general and organisational policies and procedures. Violating the psychological contract may also break the relationship between employers and employees, leading to reduced employee effort, loyalty and commitment. Consequently, violating the psychological contract may have negative implications for both the employee and organisational performance. However, no studies have been undertaken into the effect of violating the psychological contract in the Australian university sector.

OTHER FACTORS INTENSIFYING EMOTIONAL LABOUR

Introduction

The previous section discussed in some length the key factor driving the increased emotional labour associated with being a career casual lecturer, the violation of the psychological contract. This section will briefly review four other less important, but by no means insignificant, factors

that are acting to intensify the emotional labour of casual university teaching. Individually each may only be a minor contributor to the problem of increased emotional labour. However, in the schools/faculties on which this study is based, it was observed that these three factors act together to some extent and hence reinforce each other. The four factors that are discussed in this section and the one that was discussed in the previous section do not present a comprehensive coverage of all the factors that are intensifying the emotional labour of university teaching, for both permanent and casual staff. Consequently, a more thorough investigation of this topic needs to be conducted, at both the theoretical and empirical levels, in order to identify these factors. Nevertheless, the four factors that are discussed here are important and need to be briefly reviewed.

Frontline work

Increased competition in the market for both local and international students is encouraging a stronger customer focus in Australian universities. The need to “keep close to the customer” reflects the new growth in consumer sovereignty (Frenkel *et al.*, 1999, p.6). Consequently, frontline workers, being those employees who operate at the interface between the organisation and its customers or clients, are becoming increasingly important. Frenkel *et al.* (1999, p.7) identify the defining features and implications of frontline work:

1. Frontline work is people oriented. Employees are required to interact constantly with customers in ways that are advantageous to the organisation’s goals. Workers are “on stage” undertaking tasks that involve emotional labour (Hoschild, 1983).
2. Frontline work is rarely completely routinised. Because social interaction is part of the product or service being supplied, workers are usually given some discretion to tailor their behaviour to customer requirements.
3. Frontline work is especially sensitive to changes in internal and external organisational environments. Variations in demand for products ... and in supply ... often affect front-line employees strongly and unpredictably. These employees are expected to “go with the flow”, to display emotional resilience and flexibility. There are usually no buffers to protect front-line workers from these “spikes”.
4. Frontline work is often strategically important. This reflects the position of front-line employees at the organisation-public interface. As boundary spanners, frontline workers are often required to generate revenue through selling and to perform an intelligence-gathering role, in effect, helping to develop a customer knowledge base for future innovation.

The increased importance of frontline work in Australian universities has some important implications for the organisation of the work of casual lecturers. Work tasks require increased customer, read student in this context, knowledge. Products, procedures and processes change frequently. Organisational revenue becomes directly linked to employee, that is lecturer, behaviour. Furthermore, intense market competition encourages managers to continuously reduce costs. The most insecure employees of the organisation become increasingly vulnerable to reduced hours, wages or working conditions or all of the above. All these factors acting together “results in employment restructuring and changes in work regimes, including demands for more worker flexibility and greater employee commitment” (Frenkel *et al.*, 1999, p.9). The rise and rise of frontline work in Australian universities leads to further growth in non-standard forms of employment. As argued above, increased employment insecurity leads to increased emotional labour.

Increased isolation

The “traditional model” of casual university teaching created space for considerable interaction between casual and tenured staff. In the past, casual staff, who were usually postgraduate students in the Department in which they taught, were required to attend regular tutor’s meetings and have some consultation time with students. These additional teaching activities were either paid for separately or undertaken *in lieu* of marking tutorial papers. Nevertheless, these activities brought casual staff into regular, if not frequent, contact with other staff members. This regular contact allowed casual lecturers to develop networks that not only reduced their social and professional isolation, but provided friendship and professional support and created a sense of belonging to the organisation.

Staff meetings and consultation times are no longer a feature of casual university teaching. Regular meetings have been replaced with an induction meeting at the start of the semester, where contract details are sorted out and teaching materials are distributed. Staff may not meet again until the end of semester when examinations scripts are distributed. Consultation time is now the responsibility of permanent staff or casual staff who have been engaged specifically for these duties. Meetings times and other opportunities to interact with other staff have been replaced with marking as the sole responsibility of the directed duties of casual staff. Consequently, it is much more difficult for casual staff to develop the supportive networks that they require to be effective teachers. Hence, casual lecturers are becoming increasingly isolated from each other and other staff members of the school or faculty. Isolation from other staff members is compounded by the physical isolation from the workplace that results from the necessity for many casual lectures to work from home as universities are facing increasingly binding space constraints. Such isolation not only directly increases the emotional labour of teaching, it also indirectly intensifies emotional labour by helping local managers to create the space they need to intensify the emotional labour of teaching by violating the psychological contract.

On call 24:7

The previous sub-section explained how regular meetings and consultation time in the past provided casual lecturers with the opportunity to develop supportive networks. Furthermore, these fixed time commitments prescribed the out of class time commitments of casual lecturers. Hence, there was a clear distinction between home and work. However, things have changed markedly in the last decade or so. In particular, the distinction between home and work has become increasingly blurred. All three South Australian universities provide casual lecturers with email accounts. This allows students to contact them at any time of the day or night, which is not a problem in its own right. However, university netiquette policies require that student emails be responded to promptly, that is within 48 hours. Furthermore, at least one South Australian business/economics school requires casual lecturers to provide their students with an out of hours telephone contact number. Consequently, in a very real sense, casual lecturers are increasingly feeling as if they are on call 24:7. This in turn further blurs the distinction between home and work, which further intensifies the emotional labour of casual university teaching. Furthermore, this is not recognised by local management, which further intensifies the emotional labour of casual university teaching.

A constant stream of emails and telephone calls means that more out of class time is devoted to teaching. That is, the work associated with any given set of lectures or tutorials has additional out of hours work attached to it. However, there is no extra remuneration forthcoming. Hence, being on call 24:7 intensifies work by spreading the duties associated with a set number of lectures or tutorials over a longer period of time. That is, work is extensified. These additional out of class duties further reduce the effective per hour rate of teaching. Further violating the transactional

aspect of the psychological contract and hence intensifying the emotional labour associated with casual university teaching.

Much of the discussion about the budgetary effects of using casual staff to reduce teaching costs is related to reducing the variable costs of the organisation, that is reducing wages. However, increased use of casual lecturers also allows universities to reduce their fixed costs, or at least not to increase them as much as if they employed an equivalent number of full-time contract or continuing staff. Casual staff require office space in which to work. However, universities do not provide the same level of office accommodation for casual lecturers as they do for lecturers employed on a contract or continuing basis. Casual lecturers are usually provided with access to a sessional staff room. However, limited space, limited furniture and the demand for space that exceeds the number of desks means that desks are essentially hot-seated. Consequently, casual lecturers have to do the majority of their out of hours work, that is preparation and marking, at home in offices that they have to provide at their own expense. This further blurs the distinction between home and work. The necessity to work from home also intensifies feelings of isolation and exclusion. All of which intensifies the emotional labour of being a casual lecturer.

Unproductive investment

The factors discussed in the previous two sub-sections all lead to an effective reduction in the hourly pay rate of casual teaching by extending the amount of out of class work associated with any given teaching or learning activity. Indeed, the effective hourly rate of casual university teaching may be as low as \$12 to \$15 per hour. Traditionally, casual lecturers managed the risk of effectively low per hour pay rates by investing heavily in teaching preparation by developing teaching resources that could be reused in the future. This means that the first class requires lot of preparation, but subsequent classes can be taught with the minimum of preparation. Consequently, the investment in developing teaching resources can be amortised over a number of teaching periods, which effectively increases the hourly teaching rate when these teaching resources are reused. However, this strategy is only effective if the subjects taught do not change for a few years at a time.

However, in recent years this system has broken down. The need to constantly develop new teaching programs means that new subjects are constantly being developed, and old subjects are retired. Furthermore, it is apparent to most casual lecturers that first year teaching is not valued among the core group of academics nor is it recognised as a teaching speciality in its own right. Hence, first year subject coordinators change with monotonous regularity. Each new subject coordinator invariably means some change to the curriculum or the textbook or the tutorial program or the assessment activities or all of the above. This constant state of flux means that there is no incentive for casual lecturers to invest heavily in teaching preparation as there is little or no prospect of a return on the investment over the required number of future semesters or years that would make this sort of investment worthwhile. This represents yet another form of work intensification and hence another source of increased emotional labour. Furthermore, less teaching preparation reduces lecturer effectiveness.

CONCLUSION

The increased casualisation of the university teaching workforce, especially in high-enrolment first and second year subjects, has contributed to the intensification of emotional labour for casual teaching staff. These staff members are increasingly 'career casuals' who are often highly skilled and experienced workers, who have replaced workers who previously worked under standard forms of employment. The viability of university teaching, especially in big first and second year subjects, increasingly depends on the skills and experience of these workers Yet new forms of

HRM fail to recognise their contribution, the burden of casual work, or the dependence of the organisation on the skills and expertise of these workers. This is an area of educational research that has been largely ignored, but which has potentially significant ramifications for the higher education sector. Two initial strands of research warrant further investigation. The first is to document the extent of the casualisation of the university teaching workforce. The second is to document the extent of the experiences described in this paper.

REFERENCES

- Adkins, L. and Lury, C. (1999) The Labour of Identity: Performing Identities, Performing Economies. *Economy and Society*, 28(4), 598-614.
- Cabrera, J. and Albrecht, C. (1995) *The Career Manager*. New York: Adams Publishing.
- Dawkins, J.S. (1987) *Higher Education: A Policy Discussion Paper*. Canberra: AGPS.
- Dawkins, J.S. (1988) *Higher Education: A Policy Statement*. Canberra: AGPS.
- Dean J.W., Brandes, P. and Dharwadkar, R. (1998) Organisation Cynicism. *Academy of Management Review*, 23(3), 341-353.
- Dunphy, D. (1987) The Historical Development of Human Resource Management in Australia. *Human Resource Management in Australia*, 25(2), 40-48.
- Frenkel, S.J., Korczynski, M., Shire, K.A. and Tam, M. (1999) *On the Front Line: Organization of Work in the Information Economy*. Ithaca: Cornell University Press.
- Hiltrop, J.M. (1995) The Changing Psychological Contract: The Human Resources Challenge of the 1990s. *European Management Journal*, 13(3), 286-294.
- Hochschild, A. (1983) *The Managed Heart*. Los Angeles: University of California Press.
- Hochschild, A. (1993) Preface. In S. Finman (ed) *Emotion in Organisations*. London: Sage.
- Pate, J., Martin, G. and McGoldrick, J. (2003) The Impact of Psychological Contract Violation on Employee Attitudes and Behaviour. *Employee Relations*, 25(6), 557-573.
- Pocock, B. (2003) *The Work/Life Collision: What Work is Doing to Australians and What They are Doing About it*. Sydney: The Federation Press.
- Robinson, S.L. and Morison, E. (1995). Psychological Contracts and the OCB: The Effect of Unfulfilled Obligations on Civic Virtue Behaviour. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour*, 15(3), 245-259.
- Rousseau, D.M. (1995) *Promises in Action: Psychological Contracts in Organisations*. Newbury Park: Sage.
- Smithson, J. and Lewis, S. (2000) Is job Insecurity Changing the Psychological Contract? *Personnel Review*, 29(6), 680-698.
- Stone, R.J. (2002) *Human Resource Management fourth edition*. Brisbane: Wiley.
- Taylor, S. (1998) Emotional Labour and the new Workplace. In P. Thompson and C. Warhurst (eds), *Workplaces of the Future*, pp.84-103. Basingstoke: MacMillan Business.

Teaching Processes and Practices for an Australian Multicultural Classroom: Two Complementary Models

Carlene Winch-Dummett

Flinders University aspwinch@netspeed.com.au

Which pedagogical processes and practices that target the recognition, value and sharing of world views in teaching and learning can be identified as strategies for learning to live together in an Australian multicultural classroom? The question is addressed by this paper, which presents two discrete but complementary pedagogical models that display the successful teaching processes and practices of teachers in Australian multicultural classrooms. These processes and practices accord with the Delors Report recommendations that education for the future should be organised around the four pillars of learning, namely, learning to be, learning to do, learning to know and learning to live together.

The two complementary pedagogical models are informed by research in two primary schools in a multicultural urban area in NSW. The implications of these two models in respect to the lesson and syllabus outcomes, and the contribution of parental involvement to education are also examined.

pedagogy, Delors Report, teaching practice, multicultural, Australian, classroom

INTRODUCTION: THE QUESTION

The question, 'Which pedagogical processes and practices that target the recognition, value and sharing of world views in teaching and learning can be identified as strategies for learning to live together in an Australian multicultural classroom?' invites an analysis of its components. The first part of the question refers to pedagogical processes. These pedagogical processes are teaching processes and practices. The teaching processes are addressed in the synchronic analysis of the observed lessons. The teaching practices of two observed teachers of excellence are described, explained and appraised through a categorical analysis informed by educational pedagogy and anthropological assumption. The recognition, value and sharing of world views are represented in the acknowledgement of ways of being, ways of seeing, ways of knowing, and ways of learning which respond to the Delors Report's recommendations that education should target the four pillars of learning which are: learning to be, learning to do, learning to know and learning to live together. Ways of learning to be, learning to see, learning to know and learning to live together reflect the broader anthropological context of identity, worldview, and relevance of knowledge acquisition; and the educational strategies focused on syllabus outcomes which, simultaneously, address children's learning needs and experiences.

The second part of the question specifies an Australian multicultural classroom. An examination of successful teaching processes and practices in a multicultural classroom were undertaken in two primary school classes in New South Wales. They were situated in an urban area with a population of 57,000 reflecting a broad range of multicultural backgrounds according to the 2001

census by the Australian Bureau of Statistics. The migrant settlement in this area has been ongoing since the 1950s but with surges following the opening of a large industrial complex in the early 1960s and the attendant service industries, and in the increases in general migration of the 1980s to the present. The relevant school populations consisted of children of mainly third phase non-English speaking background.

METHOD

The Pedagogical Processes and Practices Identified

The research focused on the teaching processes and practices in the two primary schools, SchX and SchZ, and the identified teachers of those schools, SchXTA and SchZTA. SchXTA and SchZTA were identified by senior officials of the NSW Department of Education as teachers of excellence whose teaching processes and practices addressed the recognition, value and sharing of world views in teaching and learning. The lessons of SchX were recorded as handwritten observations, which were validated by SchXTA and the principal of SchX. The lessons of SchZTA were recorded by handwritten notes, photographs, audio-tapes and videotapes from which transcripts were made. The transcripts and copies of all the written, taped and photographed material were made available to SchZTA and the principal of SchZ for validation.

The notes and transcripts were copied to QSR N4 software program for categorical analysis. Tables derived from the N4 program were imported to Excel to be converted to Excel tables and charts.

The Schools: SchX and SchZ

Teaching processes and practices of individual teachers are determined to some extent by the schools in which they teach. Schools differ in a number of ways including size, social composition of the community, programs, parental participation, staffing and student needs and abilities. Therefore in order to identify those teaching processes and practices of SchXTA and SchZTA it is important to review the structure and organisation of the schools in which they undertook their teaching duties.

Both SchX and SchZ are primary schools situated about two kilometres apart in the more recent satellite city development of an urban conglomerate. However, in the response of each to its local community they constitute two entirely different approaches to education. In 2002, SchX could be described as a proactive model of school education. SchX encouraged parents and teachers to address educational goals through specific programs such as the teacher for learning difficulties: a reading recovery program, English as a second language program, and the daily developmental play program in which parents were encouraged to participate. Lesson times and classes were determined by a central school timetable. There was regular contact between SchXTA (the ESL teacher) and the other teachers of the same children in their home classes, in this case SchXTB and SchXTC, concerning syllabus outcomes and student progress. Many staff members had been teaching at the school for a longer number of years so there was an ethos of stability and predictability in the school.

On the other hand, in 2002 SchZ could be described as a reactive model of school education. The social composition of the neighbourhood and the proximity of a school for children with special needs whose students attended classes at SchZ, constituted a broadly diverse student body. The school was required to integrate and adapt to this diversity through programs such as extra classes, or places in classes, and programs for children with physical and intellectual needs; special ESL support lessons; a reading recovery program; a student welfare policy with a behaviour management program and a drug education program; and a program which provided the

opportunity for teenage mothers to learn childcare. Parents were encouraged to participate in general school activities such as canteen and road crossing duties as well as the home reading program. The broad range of educational requirements demanded several part-time teachers and teachers more recently appointed to address the current school needs. Consequently the complexity of staffing made a centralised organisation of lessons times unmanageable. Lesson times and length of lessons were devolved to the teachers of the individual years and subject areas.

The Classes Taught by SchXTA and SchZTA

Just as the organisation in schools influences the teaching processes and practices of teachers, so too does the type of class. Classes are formed for a variety of reasons, and every class demands some degree of flexibility by the teacher to meet its needs. However, it may be accepted that although teachers develop a range of skills, which they may modify for certain teaching requirements, they maintain a consistency in the basic structure of their lessons and the strategies that they adopt. SchXTA and SchZTA taught classes which were markedly different in purpose and composition but both teachers adapted their teaching styles to address successfully the NSW syllabus outcomes while maintaining processes and practices that addressed the Delors designated four pillars of learning.

The observed class of SchXTA was a Kindergarten or Early Stage 1 English as a Second Language (ESL) class of nine students. Of these nine students, eight students participated in the research. Of these eight students, three were in the home class of SchXTB and five were in the home class of SchXTC. The ESL lessons were held with SchXTA on four mornings per week from 9.00am until 10.30 am. These lessons were focussed on incremental language acquisition and were unequivocally structured to that end. The lessons were observed twice a week at three weekly intervals in Term 2, 2002 and with follow-up visits at three weekly intervals in Terms 3 and 4, 2002.

The observed class of SchZTA reflected the integrative constitution of SchZ. SchZTA taught a composite Years 1 and 2 at the level of the NSW syllabus outcomes levels of Year 1 and Year 2 English and Creative Arts, but mainly of the Year 1 level. The class of approximately 23 students included 3 ESL students. Two of these students took reading recovery lessons with a special teacher. SchZTA also gave in-class ESL lessons to students and took another for withdrawal ESL lessons during the observation period, including one of the children in her Year 1/2 composite class. She did not take a designated ESL class of several children. The five classes observed for the comparative analysis of teaching practices and processes were: reading and creative writing (07.08.02 and 28.08.02); craft (29.08.02); English written expression following an in-school excursion (25.09.02); and English expression – procedural text (14.11.02). The length of lessons ranged from 20 minutes for individual students to 1 ½ hours for the Years 1/2.

Two Models for Teaching in an Australian Multicultural Classroom

These classes of SchX and SchZ and the teaching processes and practices demonstrated by SchXTA and SchZTA, present two education models. These may be described as an integrative model and a continuum model.

The Integrative Model

As an integrative model the two classes present separately but the underlying expectation is that children from an ESL class will return to the integrated classroom at a designated time or when they have acquired sufficient skills in the use of English to be able to participate in the lessons. SchXTA presents the ESL learning situation segment of this model. In this model children leave

their home classes for ESL lessons and return for the remaining lessons. The focus of the lessons is the outcomes described for English for the level at which the children have entered into the particular class and all effort is directed at improving the standard of English of the students. SchZTA presents an example of the integrated segment of this model. In the integrated classroom children are all encouraged to achieve their potential but since the class also may include children with other needs such as reading recovery, the teaching focuses on the immediate outcomes of the lesson, but with a recognition by the teacher that the language level of the students needs to be considered and included as a developmental skill in all areas as well as English lessons.

The integrative model provides for both teachers to address the four pillars of education. However, in this model informed by the teaching of SchXTA and SchZTA, the exercise of this aspect of the teaching and learning experience may be approached differently. In the ESL segment of this model the teacher encourages children to feel confident about their identity, world view and learning experiences through acknowledging and sharing their various cultural backgrounds and, wherever possible, including their parents in this cultural exchange. This practice develops a child's self-confidence and acceptance and tolerance of others.

In the integrated classroom segment of this model, SchZTA presents a classroom where all children are treated equally, where any differences, be they of culture, appearance, ability, physical capacity or otherwise, are accepted without mention. The teacher maintains as much contact with the parents as possible in monitoring the child's development, but otherwise the focus of the lessons is on the subject matter, which reflects current skill acquisition or designated topics such as the local environment. The resources, materials, and language of the teacher reflect this subject matter. This is a culturally neutral classroom but one which has its own culture of acceptance and harmonious interaction between students, and teacher and students.

The Continuum Model

In this model SchXTA and SchZTA and the classes that they taught in the observation period represent two ends of a continuum. The highly structured ESL class is one extreme and the fully integrated class is the other extreme. This model is accessible to all teachers because all classes will fall somewhere along this continuum and therefore the teaching processes and practices of SchXTA and SchZTA may be modified and adapted to any classroom situation.

The integrated model and the continuum model together form a powerful resource for teachers either in specialist teaching areas or in general classrooms to access teaching practices and processes that have proven successful in multicultural classrooms. The degree to which teachers will access any of these teaching practices and processes will depend on the extent to which they feel confident enough to integrate all, or some, of the cultural inclusions of the backgrounds of the children or whether it is better for them and their classes that these acknowledgements by the teacher remain without comment so that no child feels different. It is one thing to be among a number of children of diverse backgrounds in a multicultural ESL class, but it is another to be the one of a very few, or indeed, the only child of a different cultural background from other children. This situation requires the sensitivity demonstrated by SchZTA in her integrated classroom.

ANALYSIS

In order to determine the successful teaching processes and practices of SchXTA and SchZTA two approaches were undertaken. These were:

- (a) a synchronic analysis of a series of lessons by SchXTA and SchZTA; a diachronic analysis of five lessons of SchXTA and a comparative analysis of five lessons of SchZTA; and

(b) a categorical analysis of communication and teaching strategies of SchXTA and SchZTA.

The outcomes of these analyses are merged as five topics which incorporate both teaching processes and teaching practices within their scope. These five topics are:

- (a) lesson organisation,
- (b) lesson outcomes,
- (c) teacher communication,
- (d) teaching strategies, and
- (e) cultural inclusion.

Synchronic Analysis

Lesson Organisation

Lesson organisation refers to both time and space. Time refers to both the organisation of the lesson in its synchronic form and also the organisation a series of lessons over an extended period of time. The synchronic analysis of the lessons of SchXTA and SchZTA indicates a basic structure used by each teacher, which remained constant over a series of lessons. This consistency in structure was a significant instrument of both teachers in establishing a predictable routine and in so doing maintaining the focus of the children. The similarities in the synchronic structure of the lessons are demonstrated in Table 1.

Table 1. A comparative synchronic analysis of the lessons of SchXTA and SchZTA

SchXTA	SchZTA
Entering the classroom	
Speaking and Listening	Commencement of Lesson / News
Greeting	Introduction
Date	Vocabulary
Weather	
Revision of vocabulary	Explanation/ Demonstration
News	
Writing	Activity
Explanation	writing
Writing the date	craft
Preparation for writing	
New word for creative writing	
Creative writing	
Lesson closure	Lesson closure

Both SchXTA and SchZTA organised their lessons into three main sections – the teacher and student interaction component at the commencement of the lessons; the explanation and demonstration section; and the writing or activity student focused section. Both teachers used the classroom space to enhance their lessons. For the first section of the lesson the children in both classes sat on the floor in an area about one quarter the space of the room while the teacher sat on a low chair close to them. In the demonstration and explanation section SchXTA always stood before the children so that her actions would be visible. In the case of SchZTA, depending on the lesson, the children might remain seated on the floor for this section while the teacher remained seated on the low chair, or otherwise were seated at their desks while SchZTA stood in front of the class. In the third section of the lesson the children of both classes always worked at their desks while SchXTA and SchZTA monitored their work or responded to questions.

The lessons of SchXTA were more intricately structured than those of SchZTA. SchXTA maintained a tight interconnection between the skills introduced in the first section of the lesson

such as the morning greeting the date, the weather vocabulary, and spoken expression (News), and the application of these skills in the writing section of the lesson. SchZTA taught a variety of subjects including English spoken and written expression, art and craft, and natural science so the children's News stories were not used in the activity section of the lesson as was the case with the students of SchXTA. The News provided an opportunity for children to practice their speaking skills and was a means of focussing the children's attention to the teacher and lesson.

Both SchXTA and SchZTA used the demonstration and explanation section of the lesson as an opportunity for imparting the required skills for the lesson. For SchXTA this was a development from the previous lesson while for SchZTA this could be a discrete lesson with no follow-up. This was followed by the activity section of the lesson in which both SchXTA and SchZTA worked in a one-to-one interaction with the children.

Syllabus Outcomes

The lesson outcomes of both SchXTA and SchZTA were ascertained by comparing the long term goals and short term goals of each lesson to the New South Wales Board of Studies, *English K-6 Syllabus Outcomes for Early Stage 1* (BOSNSW, 1998). The lessons of SchXTA were informed by the English Syllabus outcomes of *Talking and Listening* and *Writing*, and the lessons of SchZTA were informed by the English Syllabus and the Creative Arts Syllabus (BOSNSW, 1998).

The synchronic and diachronic analyses of the lessons of SchXTA confirmed that the long term goals for Kindergarten outlined in the *Syllabus Outcomes for Early Stage 1* were accumulatively addressed in each lesson through the scaffolding of each skill upon the previously learned skill. SchXTA exhibited an intricate but logical interlacing and extending of skills within a lesson and the transformation of each new learned skill into a building block for the next skill to be learned in follow-up lessons.

SchZTA did not scaffold the lessons incrementally but, instead, addressed specific skills outlined in the *NSW Syllabus Outcomes*. Any particular lesson outcomes reflected the requirements of the syllabus for *Creative Arts*, *English*, or any other subject being taught, but the teaching of skills did not demonstrate the intrinsic coherence of that of SchXTA. This is not to say that the skills development was not incremental, but the irregular teaching requirements of SchZTA as a part-time teacher, and the broad subject area that she was required to teach, demanded an observation of the skills of the class in general and a choice of which skills would be included as an outcome for any lesson.

Categorical Analysis

Teacher Communication

The forms of teacher communication analysed, consisted of (a) verbal communication including assertions, commissives, directives, effectives, effective-expressives, and verdictives; (b) non-verbal communication, in this case being facial expression, gesture and conversational and social space; and (c) paralanguage including vocal volume and pitch and tone.

Verbal Teacher Communication: The verbal communication of both SchXTA and SchZTA was measured against the variables of the domain communication verbal (cv), at a frequency of five occasions. The collective cv observations are depicted in Table 2.

Table 2. Collective cv variables scores from five observations of SchXTA and SchZTA

	cv-as	cv-co	cv-di	cv-ef	cv-efex	cv-ex	cv-ve
SchXTA	5	0	32	0	3	8	1

SchZTA	0	17	10	5	1	5	9
---------------	---	----	----	---	---	---	---

The unit scores in Table 3 were derived by dividing the category scores in Table 2 by five for the five observations of both SchXTA and SchZTA.

Table 3. cv variables unit scores of SchXTA and SchZTA

	cv-as	cv-co	cv-di	cv-ef	cv-efex	cv-ex	cv-ve
SchXTA	1	0	6.4	0	0.6	1.6	0.2
SchZTA	0	3.4	2	1	0.2	1	1.8

Figure 1 demonstrates the relative frequencies of each of the variables of cv. It indicates the points of close convergence of the variables and the points of divergence.

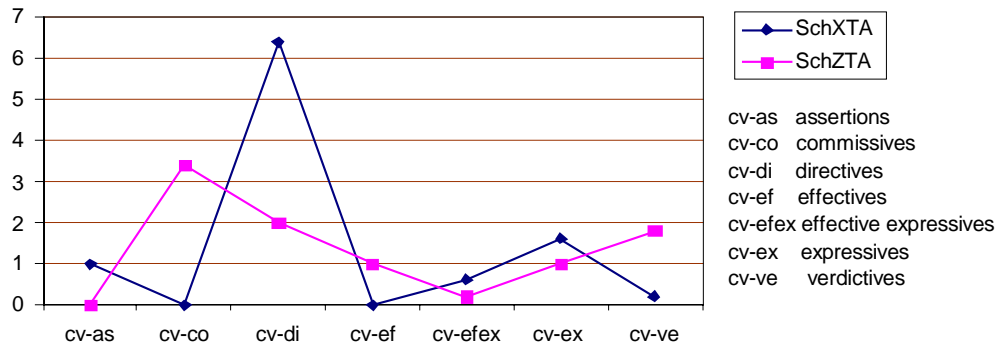


Figure 1. Comparative cv variables unit score values of SchXTA and SchZTA

SchXTA who limited vocabulary to expressions and vocabulary that she had imparted in her incremental skill development, used directives as her most common form of communication. She avoided conversational techniques such as assertions, effective expressives and verdictives. SchZTA, who used language as a means of establishing a friendly rapport with her students and also taught several subjects other than English, resorted to the use of commissives and verdictives as these styles of communication were more persuasive than instructions. Expressives were occasionally used but assertions and effective expressives were rarely used. She included directives as instructions where guidelines were to be followed, for example in completing a proforma.

Non-Verbal Teacher Communication: Non-verbal communication consisted of facial expression, gesture and the use of conversational and social space. SchXTA would not agree to being recorded by audio-tape or video-tape. However, her teaching requirements contraindicated the need for any associated facial expression. On the other hand, SchZTA permitted frequent recordings of her lessons, which allowed for a detailed analysis of her use of facial expression, gesture and voice. In accordance with her endeavour to encourage a sense of friendly joint purpose in her class, SchZTA used facial expression economically on occasions in association with exclamations such as a positive response to a child's work. Both SchXTA and SchZTA used gesture for reinforcing explanation and demonstration, and conversational or social space depending on whether they were addressing a single child or the whole class.

Paralanguage Teacher Communication: Paralanguage was used by both SchXTA and SchZTA but differently. SchXTA repeated instructions while maintaining a pitch and volume of voice that were designed to impart information without emotional connotation and to maintain consistency in expression to avoid ambiguity of meaning. SchZTA used her voice as a significant teaching tool to maintain the interest of children in the information she was sharing. Her use of voice pitch, volume and expression was a consistent strategy to capture and maintain the interest of the children.

Teaching Strategies

An examination of the learning environment of SchXTA and SchZTA indicates that both teachers were aware of the importance of holistic learning and the benefits of scaffolding. According to Siraj-Blatchford and Clarke (2000, p.9) “It is widely recognized that an integrated, holistic and developmental approach is needed to learning, teaching and care with children from birth to 7”. But these writers also acknowledge the important contribution of scaffolding and include Elliot’s assessment of the characteristics of scaffolding (Siraj-Blatchford and Clarke, 2000, p.25) “making instructional goals explicit, actively monitoring learner progress, providing immediate and educationally oriented feedback, and creating an environment that is task oriented but relaxed. In addition, other characteristics of scaffolding should include providing social, cultural and linguistic relevance”. This assessment of scaffolding accords with Hammond and Gibson (2001, p.6), who describe scaffolding as the “ongoing interaction between teacher and student”.

In the case of SchXTA, holistic learning was addressed through the structure of the lesson that used the News section to draw on children’s home experiences thereby providing an opportunity for children to discuss their experiences while the teacher assisted with the development of their vocabulary and grammar through questioning, modelling, and immediate reinforcing feedback. This spoken section of the lesson provided the framework for the development of the written section of the lesson. SchZTA used the speaking and listening section of the lesson to develop concepts, ideas and vocabulary and to practise speaking and listening as a group activity that would be re-addressed through another medium in the activity section of the lesson.

Both teachers used scaffolding as a method by which skills addressed in the speaking and listening section of the lesson were instrumental in providing the knowledge to complete the written section of the lesson and, in the process, were reinforced. SchXTA also used the incremental form of scaffolding, described by Hammond and Gibson (2001), such as program goals and the selection and sequencing of tasks that are informed by graduated long term outcomes. Each section of any lesson such as the morning greeting, the etiquette for the presentation of News, the writing of the date or the description of the weather provided an opportunity for the development of social conventions, verbal expressions, grammar and vocabulary.

Since most classes are positioned on the continuum model between the highly structured ESL class and the fully integrated class, the choice of learning and scaffolding should be tempered with an understanding of the needs of individual children. The case of SchXStuC and SchZStuG are cases in particular. SchXStuC was the child who made the least progress in the class of SchXTA. By the end of the year he had not mastered the ability to link phonemes together to make words and he was therefore unable to write down his ideas with any legibility. Yet in his home class he demonstrated that he learned kinetically such as measuring height physically by standing between children who were shorter and taller than himself. His standard of creativity using a construction set was superior to that of most children in the class during developmental play. Children such as SchStuC could benefit from an environment that embraces holistic learning in its broadest sense, that is, including learning through multiple intelligences.

SchZStuG was in a fully integrated Kindergarten class at school SchZ. He was withdrawn from class once a week for an individual speaking and listening English lesson with the ESL teacher, SchZTA. Both his home class teacher and SchZTA had concerns with his spoken English, which they described as similar to ‘gobbledygook’. However, when the videotape of his lessons were transcribed into speech it became apparent that SchZStuG was struggling to verbalise his ideas but the fluency of his speech was broken by stammering as he repeatedly attempted to correct his own grammar, and also by his incorrect pronunciation. A structured language program, that is, a

scaffolded incremental program, with modelling and repetition, could correct and strengthen his English language acquisition.

The main teaching strategies invoked by SchXTA and SchZTA within the holistic and scaffolded teaching environment were the delivery and extraction of information and the development and reinforcement of skills. The main teaching strategies used by both SchXTA and SchZTA are: classroom organisation, questioning and feedback.

Classroom Organisation: The classroom organisation of students in both case studies was socio metric; that is, the children could sit with their friends. In both case studies children were encouraged to share their work with other children or to assist each other. In the class of SchZTA, a composite class, this interaction occurred both within and across grades.

Questioning: Questioning was a significant strategy used in both case studies. The strategy of questioning of both SchXTA and SchZTA was measured against the variables of the domain questioning (qu) at a frequency of five occasions. The collective observations are depicted in Table 4. In the case of SchXTA the questioning of the eight individual students was collectively measured over the five lessons to provide the initial collective total.

Table 4. qu variables collective scores of five class observations of SchXTA and SchZTA

	qu-co	qu-ct	qu-hi	qu-lo	qu-op	qu-pr	qu-re	qu-se
SchXTA	8	5	4	4	8	5	5	5
SchZTA	11	18	0	13	6	10	2	16

The unit scores in Table 5 were derived by dividing the category scores of SchXTA and SchZTA by five to reflect the five observations of SchXTA and the 5 observation periods of SchZTA.

Table 5. qu unit scores of SchXTA and SchZTA

	qu-co	qu-ct	qu-hi	qu-lo	qu-op	qu-pr	qu-re	qu-se
SchXTA	1	0.625	0.5	0.5	1	0.625	0.63	0.63
SchZTA	2.75	4.5	0	3.25	1.5	2.5	0.5	4

Figure 2 demonstrates the relative frequencies of each of the variables of qu. It indicates the points of close convergence of the variables and the points of divergence.

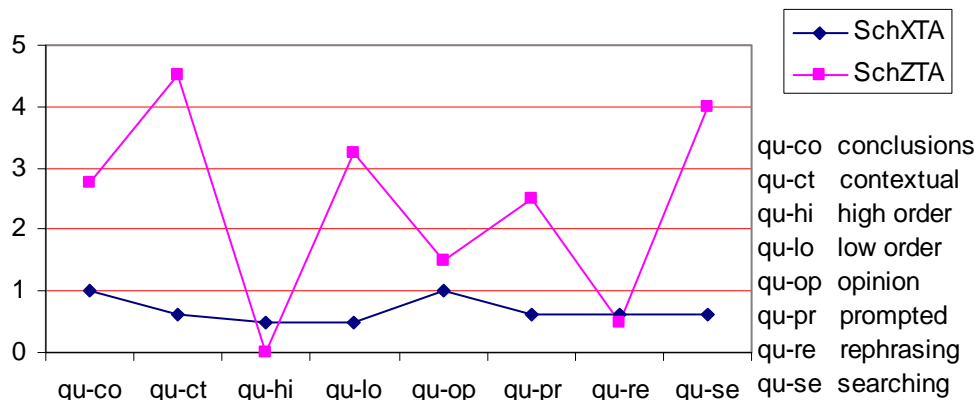


Figure 2. Comparative qu unit score values of SchXTA and SchZTA

Both SchXTA and SchZTA used questioning as a key teaching strategy. The frequency of types of questioning used reflects the teaching requirements of the relevant classes. The diagram indicates that SchXTA used all the described types of questioning equally with a slight increase in questions that drew conclusions and high order questioning. In practice SchXTA used questioning in the News, that is, the speaking section of the lesson, to improve the children's ability to recall and converse in English but also to provide each child with a verbalised personal experience, or

story, to bring to the written recount section of the lesson. As a consequence of this purpose, the questioning would always tend to be in the context of the child's experiential recount and would reflect the child's ability to recall, to respond to questions and to convert ideas into spoken form that focused on the ideas that would form the core of their written work. Therefore, the questioning used by SchXTA was responsive to the individual needs of children and since the children represented different levels of language acquisition and expression, the questioning varied accordingly.

Questioning in the case of SchZTA reflected the lesson subject matter and the type of lesson. For example, in the case of the Craft demonstration and practice lesson, SchZTA provided instructions and did not use questioning at all. In the Speaking and Listening lesson and the Creative Writing lessons, questioning was used for reasons similar to that of SchXTA, that is, to encourage children to convey their ideas in English, to provide ideas on a topic and to expand on these ideas, and as preparation for the creative writing process. Since the larger class of SchZTA precluded the opportunity to expand the contribution of each individual child, SchZTA focused on questioning that led to corporate conclusions such as the steps that would be used to make a sandwich in the Procedural Text lesson, or the prompted answers for multiple choice responses for a narrative recount (the story about the Frog who turned into a Prince). The type of questioning most commonly used by SchZTA reflects these corporate needs and consisted mainly of contextual questions, searching questions, prompted questions, opinion generating questions and questions that led to conclusions. In fact, all of these types of questions are incorporated by SchZTA as an inductive teaching strategy to produce specific conclusions.

Feedback: Feedback was a significant strategy used by both SchXTA and SchZTA. Feedback refers to the teacher's response to student effort. In the two case studies, feedback was used as a reinforcing tool applied when children were undertaking a skill or piece of work, and as a consequence, could incorporate positive or negative connotations depending on the individual teachers' usage. The strategy of feedback of both SchXTA and SchZTA measured the seven variables of the domain feedback (fb). The collective observations are depicted in Table 6.

Table 6. Collective fb scores from six observations of SchXTA and of five of SchZTA

	fb-co	fb-im	fb-ne	fb-po	fb-re	fb-sa	fb-sm
SchXTA	9	14	0	7	13	0	3
SchZTA	26	13	0	14	32	0	1

The unit scores in Table 7 were derived by dividing the category scores of SchXTA by six and SchZTA by five to reflect the six observation periods of SchXTA and the five observation periods of SchZTA.

Table 7. fb unit scores of SchXTA and SchZTA

	fb-co	fb-im	fb-ne	fb-po	fb-re	fb-sa	fb-sm
SchXTA	1.5	2.33	0	1.17	2.17	0	0.5
SchZTA	5.2	2.6	0	2.8	6.4	0	0.2

Figure 3 demonstrates the relative frequencies of each of the variables of fb. It indicates the points of close convergence of the variables and the points of divergence.

The use of feedback was a major teaching strategy of both teachers. Moreover, feedback was used as a positive teaching tool to recognise and reinforce correct responses. Negative feedback or sanctions were never used by either teacher. The use of immediate feedback of both teachers converged.

Immediate feedback refers to an acknowledgement by the teacher to the work of any individual student and the feedback is directed to that student. Continuous feedback refers to ongoing general

responses to correct work of individuals or the class. It is designed for all students in the class. SchXTA who spoke only when providing specific information, instructions, questions and feedback presented a low level of feedback but it was used as a tool for immediate correction or acknowledgement of a child's work or as a reinforcement of correct responses. SchZTA who used a conversational style of interaction with her students to maintain their interest used continuous feedback by drawing attention to children who were achieving the correct results but she also used it specifically in lessons such as speaking and listening to recognise the efforts of individual children. The most frequently used form of feedback by SchZTA was continuous and reinforcing feedback and was a feature of all lessons whether in class or individually in ESL lessons. Moreover, SchZTA used positive feedback as encouragement for individual children. Self-monitoring was encouraged but was not a significant tactic mainly due to the early level of education.

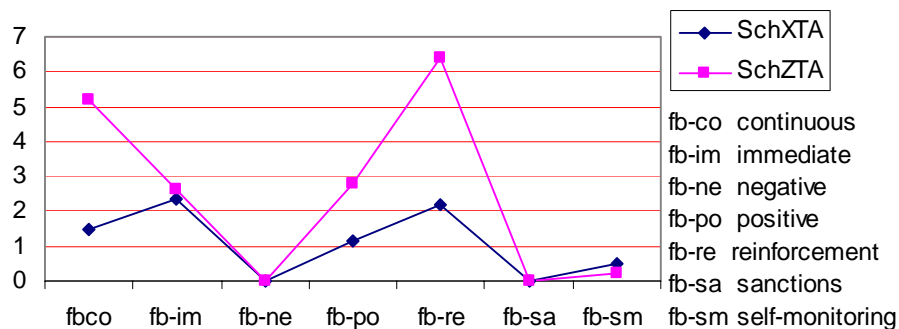


Figure 3. Comparative fb unit score values of SchXTA and SchZTA

Cultural Inclusion

The study validated the importance of the recognition of the cultural backgrounds of the students. Not all parents were active in the school education of their children so the onus fell upon the teachers to communicate with parents. Both teachers contacted parents by approaching them in the school grounds when they brought their children to school or by notes or messages sent through the children or their older siblings.

Although both teachers were conscious of the cultural backgrounds of their NESB children and addressed their special needs in the lessons, the circumstances of the two different types of classrooms indicated that this should be dealt with differently in practice. In the case of the ESL classroom of SchXTA, the classroom environment could provide an uninterrupted transition between the home culture and the Anglo school environment. Through a commitment by SchXTA to a positive recognition and sharing of the different cultural backgrounds of the children, their confidence in mixing with other children and taking risks with learning English was strengthened. This confidence spilled over into their home classes where all the children demonstrated improvement in self-confidence and performance over the year, and two children gained the highest marks in their home class, one for English, the other for maths.

In the case of SchZTA the integrated nature of the class advocated a more subtle recognition and approach to NESB children that did not differentiate them from the other children in the classroom. In cases such as this where the NESB child is in a small minority, curriculum programs that address multicultural topics in a positive way are more appropriate. This was the case in SchZ which included cultural studies in the overall curriculum and which included extra individual ESL lessons for students in the form of lesson assistance within the classroom, or speaking and reading in a withdrawal situation. Since other programs were operating in the school for children with special needs of varying types, these children did not appear to be singled out for extra attention because of their cultural differences.

The resources in SchZ did not address the multicultural composition of the school. SchX included posters and displays of children's work on cultural themes and SchXTA included some examples of cultural knowledge relevant to her students such as the Cyrillic alphabet, the word 'welcome' in several languages, and a poster of foods from different countries.

In terms of values, both teachers managed their classes with commitment to the NSW Department of Education recommendation of equity for all students.

Parental Involvement

The research indicated that there were three levels of parental involvement in the schools observed, and this would hold true generally as indicated by Siraj-Blachford and Clarke (2000, p.108). The three levels may be described as: peripheral, participation and partnership.

Peripheral Level: The peripheral level of parental involvement includes parents who contribute to school fund raising and who assist their children with homework and other activities to be completed at home and with minimal school attendance by the parents except for exceptional meetings and so on. The participation level includes parents who become involved in school and class activities that assist their children but do not participate in general educational philosophy or curriculum development. The partnership level includes parents who are proactive in their contribution to school and class activities that assist their children and who are vitally interested in the promotion of educational philosophy or methodology.

The performance of the eight children of the Kindergarten class of SchXTA in meeting the recommended outcomes of the K-6 English Syllabus (BOSNSW, 1998), demonstrated that where parents and teacher were jointly involved in a child's education, the better the chance that child had of fulfilling his or her potential in accordance with the four pillars of learning.

CONCLUSIONS

The research indicates that for a child to grow according to the four pillars of learning, namely, learning to be, learning to do, learning to know and learning to live together, it is essential that the child's unique sense of who he or she is, the social position of that child and the ramifications of religious, ideological and other cultural factors, the knowledge needed for that child in his or her socio-economic environment, and the ability to integrate with people of diverse backgrounds, need to be addressed. Although teachers may address these four pillars of learning, as demonstrated in the analysis of successful teaching processes and practices, in addition to requirements of the school structure, management and curriculum, the first point of education and socialisation is the home. Since the cultural experiences of children entering school are diverse, then the involvement of parents in their child's education, especially at this early stage, can establish this connection in a child's education and assist the teacher with the child's ongoing needs.

REFERENCES

- BOSNSW (1998) *K-6 Educational Resources*. Sydney: New South Wales Board of Studies. [Online] <http://www.bosnsw-k6.nsw.edu.au>.
- Delors, J. (1996) *Learning the Treasure Within*. Paris: UNESCO Publishing.
- Hammond J. and Gibbons, P. (2001) What is Scaffolding? In J. Hammond (ed) *Scaffolding: Teaching and Learning in Language and Literacy Education*. (pp.1-14) Sydney, Primary English Teaching Association.
- Siraj-Blachford, I. and Clarke, P. (2000) *Supporting Identity, Diversity and Language in the Early Years*. Buckingham: Open University Press.

The *Including Studies of Asia in Curriculum* Professional Development Program: Who's doing it and why?

Doug Trevaskis

Flinders University, School of Education doug.trevaskis@flinders.edu.au

This paper aims to provide a general overview of the cohort of teachers who undertook a major professional development program Including Studies of Asia in Curriculum in South Australia in 2000. As the program was the principal vehicle for introducing South Australian teachers to Studies of Asia, ensuring its ongoing relevance was critical. The only source of data about the program itself was an earlier national evaluation based on the 1995 deliveries of the primary version in most states and territories. What was needed, therefore, was an up-to-date picture, based specifically on the contexts and needs of South Australian teachers.

Accordingly, participants were invited to complete a 'Participant Profile'. This study examines participants' responses, including their motivations in undertaking the program. Based on the responses, the course was able to be adapted for subsequent delivery, and advanced training courses were developed in line with the needs of the target group.

Studies of Asia, professional development, teacher motivation, curriculum in South Australia

INTRODUCTION: KNOW YOUR ELEPHANT

In a study examining the use of image and metaphor by teachers and teacher leaders in relation to professional development, a number of respondents drew on the image of an elephant (Groundwater-Smith, 1998). On the one hand, a teacher conceived the professional development product as an elephant, explaining that "... you don't know exactly what it will do when you get hold of it. You hope it will be a good experience and will yield positive results, but you can't be certain". On the other hand, a professional development provider saw the elephant as a metaphor for professional development participants, suggesting that "moving teachers is like trying to shift an elephant with one hand. You touch the tough outer skin, it makes a small dent, but basically the elephant only moves when it wants to!". In terms of ensuring engaging and productive professional development, the underlying message was to know your elephant in all its forms.

This paper focuses on a substantial professional development program, *Including Studies of Asia in Curriculum* and the teachers who undertook the program in 2000. Echoing the metaphor of the elephant, the study examined what lay beneath the 'outer skin' of the teachers who participated in the program, what had made them decide to 'move' and participate in the program and what they thought they were 'getting hold of' in participating.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Ismat (1996) sees the implementation of more effective professional development as involving a struggle against a situation where decisions are usually made by state, district and building administrators. Accordingly, a central consideration is what teachers consider important for engaging and valuable professional development. In looking at what staff developers need to know, take into account and do in order to provide effective professional development, Killion and Harrison (1997) stress that an appreciation of the individual participant element is critical and that professional development cannot be effective without the cooperation and goodwill of teachers. Bents and Howey (1981, p.31) also make this point very clearly; “individuals are members of an organisation, yet, they remain individuals ... what is happening to the individual specifically and collectively must be taken into account”. They identify a range of needs and interests that participants are likely to bring to professional development, such as the quest for knowledge, desire for new experiences, new skills and understandings to apply to their classrooms, personal goals, and the need for recognition and confirmation. It therefore seemed important to seek information from *Including Studies of Asia in Curriculum* participants, which would enable the individual element to become apparent.

The general professional development literature provides some insights into particular types of information it would be useful to obtain. Bents and Howey, for example, raise the concept of adult development as a continuous process and examine developmental age theories and developmental stage theories about how adult development occurs. They argue that adult development levels have implications for participants' motivation to undertake particular kinds of professional development and their receptivity to such programs, summing up with “staff development programs must be responsive not only in the context of curriculum issues or teaching approaches, but also in terms of the personal and professional development of the teacher”. Goodson (1993) suggests that so-called, ‘critical incidents’, involving either planned or unanticipated events in a teacher’s life and career, can also influence teachers’ decision making and practice.

Sikes, Measor and Woods (1985) identify career phases, paralleling in many ways the adult age development theories, as well as reiterating the importance of critical incidents. In *Teacher Careers*, Sikes, Measor and Woods differentiate between ‘bureaucratic’ notions of career, progressing in an orderly way through a succession of jobs of increasing prestige, and an ‘individual’ viewpoint, a so-called moving perspective, in which people see and interpret their lives and the things that happen to them. In either case, the view is subjective and involves a picture over time. In considering their careers, individuals may have an altruistic outlook, an instrumentalist one, or some combination of the two. The implications for professional development are that “as a result of meeting new circumstances, certain interests may be reformulated, certain aspects of the self changed ... and ... new directions envisaged”.

In compiling a list of elements considered by teachers to be integral to effective professional development, the American Federation of Teachers (2002) highlights the need for an emphasis on deepening and broadening both knowledge and pedagogy. Natalicio, Hereford and Martin (1973), identify other factors likely to have a bearing on teachers’ decisions to undertake particular professional development programs. These include teachers’ openness to new experience, their attitudes to change and their perceptions of themselves as both resources and modellers of learning, all of which are connected to teachers’ perceptions of what it is to be a teacher. In terms of teacher motivation, Ellis (1984) suggests that teachers are “primarily motivated by intrinsic rewards”, such as a sense of accomplishment and opportunity for learning, rather than by extrinsic factors, such as monetary reward.

In terms of literature specifically pertaining to the *Including Studies of Asia in Curriculum* professional development program, *Changing Teachers: Including Studies of Asia in Primary Curriculum* (Halse, 1996) reports on a national evaluation of the eight primary courses delivered across Australia in 1995-96 (one in each state and territory). The national evaluation had a much wider focus than this study, in that it collectively looked at what occurred during the courses and the effects on the teacher participants as a result of undertaking the courses. However, there were a number of areas that invited comparison or further investigation. Among other aspects, the evaluation included a section that provided a range of insights into the nature of the teacher cohort undertaking the program.

The teachers participating in the 1995-96 course are portrayed as learners on the one hand, but the importance of the “knowledge and understandings, skills, attitudes, values and beliefs” they bring to the course is also recognised (Halse, 1996, p.5). A number of questions in the pre-course questionnaire aimed at establishing what that knowledge and understanding and those skills, values and beliefs might be. As Halse (1996, p.6) points out, however, the likelihood of any given teacher embracing a new experience or practice is dependent on “the perceived benefits compared with the effort and potential risks involved”; on their motivation level, in other words.

Given the particular focus of the evaluation, only one question touched on what it was that motivated participants to take part in the course in the first place, and the responses to that question are not developed in the report. The question of motivation to undertake the course was addressed more fully in the subsequent qualitative study *Cultures of Change: teachers' stories of implementing studies of Asia* (Halse, 1996). Through case studies of seven teachers, it drew on the literature relating to teachers as people to elicit both the personal and professional reasons that motivated participants to undertake the *Including Studies of Asia in Curriculum* course. From the teachers' stories, one interesting thread which emerged consistently and which seemed well worthwhile to pursue, was that many of them had previously had

favourable personal experience with Asian cultures and societies at various points in their lives and the resonances of such encounters were central in shaping their decision to participate in the course (Halse, 1996, p.22).

BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

The *Including Studies of Asia in Curriculum* program was developed initially under the auspices of the Asia Education Foundation. Its explicit aim was to encourage and support practising teachers to incorporate studies of Asia into their teaching and learning programs. The program was delivered for the first time in South Australia in August 1995, with 65 primary school teachers participating. Trial deliveries of the program had already occurred in Tasmania and New South Wales in late 1994, early 1995 and, in late 1995, early 1996, in addition to South Australia, subsequent deliveries occurred in Queensland, Australian Capital Territory, Victoria, Western Australia and the Northern Territory. These deliveries were the focus of the national evaluation referred to above. In early 1996 a program for secondary teachers was developed, and a version of that program was first delivered in South Australia later that year. As delivered in South Australia, both the primary and secondary programs commenced with a three-day intensive course, followed by two in-school meetings and then a final two-day intensive course. The intensive courses comprised a blend of core sessions and elective workshops. By the end of 1999, the *Including Studies of Asia in Curriculum* course designed for primary teachers had been delivered in South Australia on five occasions, involving 435 participants, while the course designed for secondary teachers had been delivered on four occasions, involving 302 participants.

My own interest in the *Including Studies of Asia in Curriculum* program stemmed from my role at that time as the Asia Education Foundation State Advisor for South Australia. I was involved in

the national development of the program, participated in the trial deliveries in Tasmania and New South Wales and coordinated the initial and subsequent deliveries of the program in South Australia. At the beginning of 2000, the delivery of all major Studies of Asia professional development in South Australia was entrusted to Flinders University under a formal agreement with the Department of Education and Children's Services and I was appointed to Flinders University as Manager of the new program, including responsibility for the ongoing delivery of *Including Studies of Asia in Curriculum*.

Having been responsible in my former advisory role for the development, delivery and evaluation of a wide range of professional development programs, large scale and small scale, I had become increasingly convinced that, as the 1989 OECD Report averred, "teachers are at the heart of the educational process" (cited in Day, 1999, p.2) and that, accordingly, any successful educational change hinged strongly upon the opportunities available to teachers to acquire the motivation, skills and knowledge to implement that change. Likewise, I was becoming increasingly intrigued by the individual teacher dimension of professional development, especially in relation to some of the literature relating to teachers' lives and careers, such as Goodson (1992) and Day (1999). Thus, the *Including Studies of Asia in Curriculum* program was of interest as a particular entity, and also in regard to its relationship to teacher professional development in a broader sense.

However, the only hard data available about who it was that was undertaking the program remained the 1996 study. It seemed timely, therefore, to conduct a study to determine whether various findings of that research, based on a national context and limited to primary teachers only, remained applicable some five years later to a specifically South Australian context, comprising both primary and secondary teachers. It also provided an opportunity to investigate some dimensions raised in the general professional development literature but not forming part of the earlier study.

OVERVIEW OF THE CURRENT STUDY

The study was intended to provide information in regard to aligning future delivery of this particular program to the client group, an issue that was particularly relevant given the South Australian context at the time. Whereas in most other states and territories the *Including Studies of Asia in Curriculum* program had ceased to be delivered after only one or two years, in South Australia the program had established a strong track record and this momentum needed to be maintained, especially in the light of the decision to outsource all major Studies of Asia professional development in the state to Flinders University.

The study was also intended to provide more general insights into the attitudes and expectations of teachers in regard to professional development and their own careers. Such understanding was particularly relevant at the time, as the Department for Education and Children's Services had introduced a requirement that all teachers in government schools must complete 37.5 hours of professional development in their own time during each year. One implication of this requirement was that an increasing number of teachers without a specific prior interest in studies of Asia could be seeking professional development opportunities that offered both a quality experience and a substantial number of professional development hours. The study also had the potential to be of assistance in devising other studies of Asia related courses and pathways for teachers who had completed the *Including Studies of Asia in Curriculum* program, in keeping with recommendations for advanced courses and the like made in *Changing Teachers* (Halse, 1996).

The focus of the study was on the cohort of teachers who undertook the primary and secondary *Including Studies of Asia in Curriculum* professional development courses conducted in South

Australia in 2000. For the primary course there were 108 participants and for the secondary course there were 80 participants.

The principal instrument used for acquiring data was a 'Participant Profile', seeking brief written responses answers to the following questions.

1. What was the general profile of the participants, in terms of gender and age?
2. What was the general profile of participants' teaching background, in terms of length of service, sector, type of school, qualifications and perceived specialisations?
3. What was participants' prior knowledge of Asian societies and cultures, and how was it acquired, including: pre-service and in-service studies; in-country experience; the main sources of their perceptions of Asia and Asian peoples; and their main contacts in Australia with people of Asian background?
4. What was the current level of inclusion of Asia-related elements in participants' own teaching and learning programs?
5. How did the participants become aware of the *Including Studies of Asia in Curriculum* course?
6. Why did the participants decide to undertake the course?

As a basis for comparison between national and South Australia specific contexts and to see whether changes were apparent over the five-year intervening period, Questions 1 to 4 were similar in many respects to those covered in the section 'Who are the Participants' in the 1996 national report. However, elements of Questions 1 and 2 such as those relating to participants' age and length of teaching service were also included as a basis for considering the possible relevance of developmental age and career phase concepts (Bents and Howey, 1981; Sikes, Measor and Woods, 1985). Questions 3 and 4 aimed to establish the levels of existing relevant knowledge and pedagogical skills which participants brought to the program and were incorporated in recognition of the importance attributed to these elements in professional development related literature such as *Professional Development Guidelines* (American Federation of Teachers, 2002). While the information obtained was largely of a quantitative nature, some of the questions sought personal insights, in line with Killion and Harrison's (1996) emphasis on taking cognisance of the individual participant element. This particularly applied to the question asking participants to explain their reasons for undertaking the course, whereby ideas about teacher motivation such as those of Ellis (1984) could be considered.

The request for information for the 'Profile' was issued to participants when they registered on the first day of their respective courses and they were asked to complete it later that morning. Of the 188 teachers who undertook the courses, 164 (87%) completed and submitted a 'Profile'. Participant responses were collated and entered into an Excel spreadsheet, and SPSS (Version 10) was used to examine the data. Responses to some questions were further distilled into categories.

THE STUDY

In this section, the results of the study are examined and explanations for the patterns are suggested, together with possible implications for the design and delivery of the course in South Australia given the profile of the South Australian participants.

As Table 1 indicates, while the overall gender distribution was identical to that of the 1995 national cohort, there was an even higher ratio of females to males in the primary teacher group. For the secondary group, the predominance of females was still considerable, although less

pronounced. In terms of age, although the percentages of participants in the 21 to 30 year and 41 to 50 year age groups are almost identical, in the 2000 cohort there were significantly fewer in the 31 to 40 year age group and significantly more in the 51 to 60 year age group. Overall, the teacher cohort undertaking the course in South Australia in 2000 was actually an older one than the 1995 national cohort. This situation was particularly in evidence in relation to the secondary component, where the average age of participants was about three years above the average age for the primary participants. These findings are consistent with the report *Australia's Teachers: Australia's Future* (DEST, 2003) where the continuing trend to an increasingly aging teaching force is confirmed and South Australia is identified as having the highest percentage of teachers aged 45 years or over. In the short term, at least, the implications for future Studies of Asia professional development programs in South Australia are that additional research into appropriate ways of attuning program subject matter, activities and delivery to suit the particular age and gender profile of the participant group would be beneficial.

Table 1. General Profile of Participants

Profile		2000 SA Cohort	1995 national cohort
		%	%
Gender	Primary – Female	85	NA
	Secondary - Female	74	NA
	All - Female	80	80
	Primary - Male	15	NA
	Secondary - Male	26	NA
	All - Male	20	20
Age	21 – 30 years	19	20
	31 – 40 years	20	32
	41 – 50 years	39	39
	51 – 60 years	22	9
Type of School	Primary	60	87
	Secondary	20	9
	Combined Prim/Sec	20	4
Sector	State	57	NA
	Catholic	21	NA
	Independent	22	NA
Teaching Experience	0 – 5 years	14	13
	6 – 10 years	15	19
	11 – 20 years	35	46
	21 – 30 years	28	21
	31 – 40 years	8	1
Years at Current School	1 – 5 years	64	NA
	6 – 10 years	21	NA
	11 – 15 years	10	NA
	16 – 20 years	4	NA
	21 + years	1	NA
Teaching Specialisation (s)	Society and Environment	29	NA
	Primary (junior, middle, or upper)	25	NA
	LOTE	19	NA
	English	17	NA
	Arts	10	NA
	Science	7	NA
	Technology	7	NA
	Literacy	6	NA
	None	13	NA

Given the fact that the earlier national report was based on courses designed for primary teachers, it was to be expected that there would be a higher representation of secondary teachers in the 2000 cohort. Of interest was the much higher percentage of teachers from combined primary and

secondary schools. This may be attributed to the prevalence in South Australia of Area Schools catering for students from Reception to Year 12 in many country districts, as well as an increasing number of combined primary and secondary schools in the Adelaide metropolitan area. Future Studies of Asia courses therefore need to cater for teachers from such schools.

Figures for sector representation were not available in the national report, so the data from this study provided a reminder of the cross-sectoral appeal of the program and the importance of continuing to try to include participants from all sectors. For this course, through an arranged allocation of funded places, the spread was consistent with the overall size of the respective sectors, raising the question of what was likely to occur in a non-funded environment.

The participants had quite a range of teaching experience, from seven participants who were in their first year of teaching, to two participants who had been teaching for 37 years. While the figures for participants who had been teaching ten years or less were very similar in both studies, as might be anticipated from the age distribution a significantly greater proportion of teachers in the 2000 cohort had been teaching for more than 20 years. Future deliveries of Studies of Asia programs therefore need to take cognisance of the fact that the majority of participants are likely to be very experienced teachers, with the implication that, while some may be coasting or experiencing burn out, many are likely to be confident of their own teaching ability.

A question about length of service in current school was included in this study to provide an indication of continuity. In a South Australian context this was important, as teachers in state schools are forcibly transferred after ten years at a particular school. Around 25 per cent of the respondents were in their first year of teaching at the same school, with 64 per cent having been at their school for from 1 to 5 years. The maximum period any participant had been in their current school was 27 years and that was in a non-government school. Accordingly, these data suggested that professional development programs for Studies of Asia teachers need to provide participants with a range of ideas for implementing Studies of Asia programs in schools, to allow for the fact that in many cases the participants will be coming to terms with operating in new or relatively new school contexts.

Most participants responded to the question about their perceived teaching specialisations in terms of curriculum learning areas, although primary participants were just as likely to indicate a particular level of primary teaching. Around a third of all respondents considered themselves to have a single specialisation, while around half considered that they were specialists in two areas. Primary teachers were the most likely to indicate no particular specialisation. The most common learning areas identified were largely to be expected given the emphasis on those areas in the Commonwealth-funded National Asian Languages and Studies in Australian Schools (NALSAS) strategy. A number of so-called 'specialisations' related to across curriculum perspectives (concepts which could apply across a number of learning areas) rather to key learning areas, but there was little commonality here, except for the area of literacy. Only two participants saw themselves as being Asian Studies specialists (that is, teachers whose main area of knowledge and skill was Asian societies and cultures) and they were both in the primary group. This suggested the need for elective workshops to be offered in subsequent courses, catering for the most commonly identified areas of specialisation and illustrating ways in which studies of Asian societies and cultures can be incorporated into those specialisations. Table 2 presents information on academic qualifications for the total group that is also subdivided into primary and secondary sub-groups.

As can be seen from Table 2, a four year pattern was the most common at undergraduate level, although this was much more prevalent among the secondary group, where four year training courses have been the norm for a longer period. Where a degree was held, in the case of primary

respondents, it was almost universally in Education or Teaching, while for the secondary respondents, it was most commonly in Arts, with some in Education and a few in Science. A significant number of respondents, mostly primary, were three year trained only. While around one in five secondary participants had an Honours degree, very few of them had a Masters degree. In the case of primary participants the incidence of Honours or Masters degrees was negligible. Although not indicated in the Table, a range of Graduate Diplomas or Certificates was held across the group, the most common being in TESOL, Counselling, Library Studies and Theology. The fact that many three year trained teachers had not upgraded their initial qualifications and that few teachers had Honours or Masters degrees is likely to reflect the lack of incentives to do so in the South Australian education system. Teachers who obtain higher-level degrees are not rewarded with higher salaries, for example, nor is such a qualification a specific requirement for leadership positions. It may also arise because such degrees in the past have been research rather than coursework degrees, involving a more sustained commitment in terms of time. In terms of establishing a Studies of Asia professional development pathway involving accredited postgraduate courses, an implication of the study was that attention would need to be paid to convincing teachers of the worth of the courses and making the course manageable for them to study.

Table 2. Academic Qualifications

	Primary	Secondary	All
	%	%	%
GENERAL			
Undergraduate Level			
3 year trained – Diploma of Teaching only	32	14	24
4 year trained – B Ed or B Teach	18	14	16
– Degree + Diploma	26	62	40
Honours/Postgraduate Level			
Honours degree	5	17	10
Masters degree	5	6	5
ASIA-RELATED			
Asia-related content in undergraduate training			
	Some – 20	Some – 33	Some – 26
	None – 80	None – 67	None – 74
Formal Asia-related study since commencing teaching			
	Some – 17	Some – 20	Some – 18
	None – 83	None – 80	None – 82
Specific Asia-related qualification			
	2	3	2

The term ‘Asia’ may be defined in various ways (Asia Education Foundation, 2000). In the interests of consistency for this study, participants were asked to treat the term in accordance with the definition of Asia provided in *Studies of Asia: A Statement for Australian Schools* (Curriculum Corporation, 2000, p.7); that is, the area encompassing the regions of North East Asia, South East Asia and South Asia. Asia-related aspects encountered in participants’ undergraduate studies were very limited indeed. Of those who had studied something, it was an aspect of Asian history in about two-thirds of the cases, with the history of China, India and Japan being the most common, in that order. Apart from history, there were a few respondents who had studied an Asian language (about 10% of the total cohort), while a limited number had had some experience in Asian religions or philosophies, Asian arts, or Asian cultural studies. A similarly limited picture emerged in relation to Asia-related study since commencing teaching. Where some such study had been undertaken, it was most commonly an Asian language, frequently Indonesian or Japanese, with a smattering of studies of historical, cultural or religious topics. A few misunderstood the question and referred to their involvement in professional development activities, such as those delivered through the Access Asia schools program. Specific Asia-related undergraduate or postgraduate qualifications were virtually non-existent. In terms of future deliveries of Studies of Asia professional development programs, a strong need is thus apparent in the area of knowledge of Asian societies and cultures.

Formal learning is not the only way of acquiring knowledge, informal learning is equally important (Hara, 2001). Connor (2003, p.26) describes informal learning as a “lifelong process whereby individuals acquire attitudes, values, skills and knowledge from daily experience and the educative influences in his or her environment...”. In order to establish what participants had already learned informally about Asia and Asian peoples, participants were first asked whether they had visited or lived in the Asian region. Given the lack of formal study of Asia it was pleasantly surprising to find that around two thirds of respondents had visited or lived in at least one Asian country, as presented in Table 3. Collectively, over 23 Asian countries had been visited with South East Asian destinations the most common. Participants often stated a particular city or island in these countries rather than the country itself; for example, Bali rather than Indonesia, Bangkok rather than Thailand and Penang rather than Malaysia, indicating a fairly strong tourist orientation to the visits. Japan had not been widely visited, perhaps a reflection of the higher cost of travel there. Five countries had not been visited by anyone in the group, those being, Bangla Desh, Bhutan, Cambodia, Laos and North Korea, possibly due to the perceived difficulties of accessibility and issues of security.

Table 3. Asia In-Country Experience

	Primary %	Secondary %	All %
Never visited/lived in an Asian country	43	26	36
Visited/lived in at least one Asian country	57	74	64
Visited/lived in more than one Asian country	42	47	44
Most frequently visited countries			
Singapore	31	26	29
Indonesia	28	17	23
Malaysia	22	18	21
Thailand	21	15	19
China	17	8	13
India	15	11	13
Hongkong	13	11	12
Japan	0	9	8
Average number of Asian countries visited/lived in	2		
Average length of stay per visit	20 days		
Average number of days spent in Asia	40 days		
Recency of Visits			
	% of Total Visits		
1 – 5 years ago	30		
6 – 10 years ago	24		
11 – 20 years ago	28		
21 – 30 years ago	11		
31 + years ago	4		
Unspecified	3		

Around 6 per cent of the total group had lived in Asia for long periods, ranging from four years to 49 years. This group was removed from the calculation of average length of stay in Asia to avoid distorting the result. While around a third of visits had occurred within the previous five years, in a large number of cases respondents’ impressions of particular countries were likely to have been dated, as the visits had been made many years ago. Nonetheless, given the value of in-country experience in motivating teachers to know and teach more about societies and cultures of Asia (Halse, 1999), the in-country experience of participants would appear to offer a foundation on which to build in terms of Studies of Asia professional development.

In order to ascertain other insights into the sources from which participants had derived their perceptions of Asia and Asian peoples, participants were asked to choose from a list, the source that they considered to have had the greatest impact on them. Table 4 presents the sources of influence and shows that the most frequently indicated source was ‘Personal experience’, namely,

direct contact with Asian countries and Asian people, followed by ‘Television and films’, and then ‘Magazines and newspapers’. Books did not appear to have a wide influence. It would seem important therefore to provide opportunities for participants in Studies of Asia professional development courses to share and build on their personal experiences as well as to undertake activities developing their skills of critical literacy.

As a further way of identifying participants’ prior informal knowledge of Asian societies and cultures, participants were asked to indicate the nature of their main contacts in Australia with people of Asian background. The strength of the response to the ‘School community’ category reflects the presence of students of Asian background in many schools, while the response to the ‘Visitors and exchange students’ category showed that ‘Sister school’ relations were quite widespread, particularly at secondary level. Around one fifth of participants had mainly superficial contact, as the ‘General community’ category was a broad one, which could include such locations for social interaction as Asian restaurants and Asian shops. One strategy to help overcome this would be to ensure the inclusion of presenters of Asian background in future professional development delivery teams.

Table 4. Sources of Perceptions and Contact

Source		%
Principal Source of Perceptions of Asia and Asian people	Personal Experience	58
	Television and Films	17
	Magazines and Newspapers	12
	Stories told by others	7
	Books	6
	Other	1
Main Source of Contact in Australia with People of Asian Background	School Community	38
	Family and Friends	31
	General Community	17
	Visitors and Exchange Students	11
	Other	3

When asked what aspects of Asia participants were already including in their own teaching and learning programs, 68 per cent of respondents claimed to be including something, while 32 per cent were not yet including anything about Asia whatsoever. Table 5 presents the extent to which participants were already teaching aspects of Asia. When the responses were grouped by learning area, the heaviest concentration was in the SOSE learning area, with a considerable gap to English and The Arts, and a further gap to Health and Physical Education. A number of Asian language teachers also referred to ‘cultural elements’ within their language programs. The range of topics listed was quite disparate, reflecting on the one hand a lack of specific guidelines about the inclusion of Asia-related content in the South Australian curriculum and on the other hand the provision of a specific range of what might best be described as entry level topics and approaches, such as Festivals, Folk Tales, Asian cooking and the ‘study of an Asian country’. The dearth of Asia-related historical and geographical studies at primary level appeared to be an area that could benefit from attention in subsequent Studies of Asia professional development.

In relation to how they found out about the program, a majority of respondents (63%) identified sources within their own school. In about one third of these cases the response was non-specific, but where respondents were specific, the two most common in-school sources were ‘colleagues’ and ‘the principal’. About 20 per cent of the total group identified their schooling sector as the source of their information, usually referring to a letter or fax sent to the school and sometimes to the sector newsletter. Apart from these two major sources, participants also referred to professional networks, such as a language teacher association, an Access Asia Schools network or an ESL teacher network, or to personal networks, such as family, friends or previous participants (from another school). The most enterprising response came from the teacher who had ‘initiated

my own enquiry'. The strong implication from this was a continued need to develop effective strategies for disseminating information about Studies of Asia courses through multiple avenues.

Table 5. Asia-related elements included in teaching program

		Primary	Secondary	All
		%	%	%
Already including something		64	74	68
Not currently including anything		36	26	31
By Learning Area	Society and Environment	44	89	68
	English	29	33	30
	The Arts	22	23	23
	LOTE	20	12	17
	Health	12	8	10
By Topic	Asian culture	16	18	17
	Study of an Asian country	11	14	12
	History	1	20	9
	Folk Tales	9	6	8
	Asian cooking/food	8	6	7
	Geography	4	11	7
	Festivals	14	2	9

At first sight, responses to the open-ended question seeking participants' reasons for undertaking the course seemed widely varied. Table 6 presents the participants' reasons for undertaking the course. On further sorting it became apparent that despite different wording, there were similarities between a number of the responses. As can be seen from Table 6, participants' reasons fell into three major categories; professional, personal and what I have termed 'pragmatic'. Within each category a number of sub-categories were able to be distinguished and they have been listed in order of frequency of responses.

Table 6. Participants' reasons for undertaking the course

	% of responses
1. Professional	34
1.1 Improve own teaching (either particular learning area or 'integrated')	
1.2 Help other teachers	
1.3 Develop own school's curriculum (introduce a new area or broaden an existing one, such as 'multiculturalism')	
1.4 Understand/assist students better (especially students of Asian background, residents or exchange students)	
2. Personal	48
2.1 Improve own knowledge (acquire new knowledge or expand existing knowledge)	
2.2 Gain an academic qualification in the field	
2.3 Pursue/further develop an interest	
2.4 Belief in the importance of studies of Asia for Australian students	
2.5 Family connections	
2.6 Other people's recommendations made the course sound really worthwhile	
3. Pragmatic	18
3.1 Further own career	
3.2 Part of school's commitment in order to obtain a grant	
3.3 To build up professional development hours, in line with employer requirements	
3.4 No fees charged	

The strongest area of response occurred in the personal category, especially 2.1 (improve own knowledge). As one respondent put it, he or she participated because of "a passion to learn about other cultures". Professional reasons closely followed the personal ones, with a fairly even split, although 1.1 (improve own teaching) was most consistently expressed in this category. One teacher's concern to meet the needs of the clientele was evident from the comment that he or she wanted "to understand where our community is at". Pragmatic reasons were not advanced as frequently and, when they were, it was often in addition to a personal or professional reason. The most frequent response in this category was 3.1 (further own career). Some comments in this area

were forthright, such as a desire to “open new areas of opportunity”, while other comments were more ambiguous, such as, “a persuasive principal”.

CONCLUSION

In terms of the existing literature relating to the *Including Studies of Asia in Curriculum* program, this study contributed updated insights as well as a range of new dimensions. These insights and dimensions were able to inform subsequent deliveries of the program and other Studies of Asia professional development programs. Some of the updated insights included an even stronger female to male gender imbalance for the South Australian primary cohort in 2000 when compared to the earlier national primary cohort recorded in *Changing Teachers* (Halse, 1996). The average age of participants was higher and participants had generally been teaching longer. There was a much higher representation from combined primary and secondary schools, reflecting a higher proportion of such schools in South Australia.

Another area where some direct comparison was possible between the 1996 study and this study was in relation to Asia in-country experience. In *Changing Teachers* (Halse, 1996), one of the findings was that only a minority of teachers had visited Asia and therefore, teachers lacked the intimate experience of Asia gained through in-country experience. However, as indicated earlier in this paper, almost two-thirds of participants in the 2000 cohort had visited or lived in at least one Asian country, with over two-fifths having visited more than one country. The average length of stay in each country visited was around three weeks. Collectively, therefore, the 2000 cohort appeared to have a higher level of direct in-country experience in Asia than their 1995 counterparts. In *Cultures of Change* (Halse, 1996, p.14), the importance of prior favourable Asia-related experiences was highlighted as a “strong factor motivating people to undertake the course”. This study reinforced that finding. Sometimes the favourable experience involved visits to Asian countries, sometimes it was family related and sometimes it involved meeting or hosting guests from Asian countries in Australia. But in all cases it was apparent that the experiences had proved to be highly motivating for the participants concerned.

In terms of new dimensions, information specifically relating to secondary participants became available for the first time. While there were some similarities to the primary cohort, the secondary cohort was different in a number of respects. For example, the gender imbalance was not quite as stark, the secondary participants were older on average than the primary participants, and they were more likely to be four-year trained and to consider themselves particular learning area specialists.

Both *Changing Teachers* (Halse, 1996) and *Cultures of Change* (Halse, 1996) stressed the importance of recognising that teachers come to professional development courses as learners on the one hand and bearers of knowledge, skills, attitudes and the like on the other. This study clearly illustrated that in the main participants coming to the 2000 *Including Studies of Asia in Curriculum* program were highly experienced in terms of teaching as a craft. They were not undertaking the program, therefore, to learn how to teach, but rather how to add a further element to their teaching.

What the majority of participants did **not** bring to the program was up-to-date, in-depth knowledge of Asian societies and cultures, certainly not in any formal sense and often not in a general sense either. While many participants had acquired some degree of knowledge of Asian societies and cultures from personal experience, such as a visit to an Asian country, it was also apparent that in many cases their existing knowledge and perceptions were limited and derived largely from media sources. It was also apparent that in many instances the topics teachers were already including in their teaching and learning programs tended to be entry level, focussing on

exotic or stereotypical elements of the societies and cultures concerned. Participants generally recognised their current limitations in regard to specific knowledge and identified the desire to acquire such knowledge as a primary motive for their decision to participate.

In relation to general literature on professional development, this study also provided some interesting contributions. The view of Bents and Howey (1981, p.57) that “individuals are members of an organisation, yet, they remain individuals” was very evident in the responses made by participants about their reasons for undertaking the course. It was the personal reason of, “improve own knowledge”, which was most commonly advanced, closely followed by the professional reason of, “improve own teaching”, both of these reasons having an individual, rather than an organisational, dimension.

Some of the responses given by participants to the question of motivation to undertake the course appeared to be consistent with developmental age and stage theories and concepts of teacher careers, within the limitations of the data, while others did not. Some participants in the 21 to 30 year age range, for example, were looking to “improve their own teaching”, in line with attributes ascribed to early career teachers, while some teachers in the 41 to 50 year range were more intent on “building up their professional development hours”, which could be interpreted as being consistent with notions of coasting. However, reflecting the somewhat tentative nature of such theories, there was insufficient evidence to draw definitive conclusions.

A further area to provide pause for thought related to the issue of teachers’ ability or otherwise to see themselves as individuals on the one hand and professional teachers on the other. In Sikes, Measor and Woods (1985, p.227), reference is made to the concept of ‘true identity’ and the question is raised as to whether the ‘real me’ is different from or the same as the ‘teacher me’. Participant responses in this study demonstrated that it would appear to be quite difficult for teachers to distinguish between the two. For as quickly as an observation was made which might be considered personal, another which was clearly professional followed. At the level of actual practice, as a result of this study changes were made relating to both the primary and secondary versions of the *Including Studies of Asia in Curriculum* course and to the professional development pathway available as a part of the Flinders University Studies of Asia Professional Development Program.

The findings of the study indicated that the nature of the target group was remaining relatively consistent, and that there appeared to be a continuing market for the *Including Studies of Asia in Curriculum* program. A decision was thus taken to maintain delivery of the program for the foreseeable future. However, in order to meet the needs of the large number of teachers from combined primary and secondary schools, it was decided to rename the ‘Secondary’ course as an ‘R to 12’ course. The main change resulting from this broadening of emphasis was the inclusion of additional elective workshops suitable for both primary and middle school contexts, such as ‘Integrating Japanese Cultural Aspects in a range of Learning Areas’ and ‘Using Picture Books as part of a Literature Program’.

The fact that the vast majority of participants had little to no prior academic background in the societies and cultures of Asia, reaffirmed the suitability of the introductory level thrust of the current course. The emphasis placed by respondents on furthering their knowledge of Asian societies and cultures led to a decision to strengthen the knowledge component of the courses and to remove or revise sessions that had a general curriculum focus rather than a specifically Asia-related focus. This enabled the first two days of Intensive Course A to be reduced to a single long day, virtually constituting an Asian societies and cultures immersion process, comprising sessions such as a keynote address by a noted Asian Studies scholar, discussions on ‘Why Study Asia?’ and ‘What is Asia?’, a cultural performance and a guest speaker.

Given the fact that participants appeared to have been attracted to the course largely by a closely interconnected mix of personal and professional reasons it was decided that future delivery of the program and associated marketing would therefore focus on these needs, rather than on more pragmatic aspects or system needs. A key strategy to achieve this was to involve more directly practising teachers in the core sessions as well as the elective workshops. So, for example, a session which had previously focussed on educational change in general and been delivered by an Education Department officer was revamped to deal specifically with Studies of Asia, as an example of change process in schools, and was delivered by a team of experienced Studies of Asia school coordinators. Similarly, it was decided to build on participants' in-country experience and the enthusiasm generated by such experience through the inclusion of a session entitled 'Teacher In-Country Experience: Some Reflections', led by teachers who had previously been on study tours to Asia. An elective workshop 'Cross-Cultural Understanding' was also added to the elective workshop offerings.

To enable participants to bring to bear their generally well-developed teaching skills, it was also decided to incorporate additional sessions introducing Asia-related resources and sharing ways of using them effectively in classroom contexts. Thus, a different bookseller was invited to mount a resources display for each day of the intensive courses and a new core session 'Studies of Asia: Critical Literacy' was introduced.

The responses to the study also revealed that, while sector level advertising had a place in promoting the program, it was the in-school distribution and interpersonal referral networks, including recommendations of colleagues, which were of particular importance. Accordingly, it was decided to ask all future participants to supply their email addresses so that details of subsequent Studies of Asia professional development programs could be sent to them for their own information and further dissemination.

In terms of a professional development pathway, the lack of formal studies of Asia qualifications by participants on the one hand and their thirst for new knowledge and understandings seemed to augur well for the possibility of attracting clientele into relevant postgraduate programs. A Graduate Certificate of Education (Studies of Asia) program was thus established, offering a selection of professional development modules relating to the Society and Environment, English and Arts learning areas and with a strong emphasis on the acquisition of social and cultural knowledge. It was also decided to investigate the possibility of introducing an additional level, which would enable participants to complete a Master of Education (Studies of Asia). Considering the level of uptake of formal postgraduate courses in studies of Asia in South Australia since 2000, this conclusion has shown to be well founded.

REFERENCES

- American Federation of Teachers. (2002). *Professional Development Guidelines*, Washington: American Federation of Teachers.
- Asia Education Foundation. (2000). *Studies of Asia: A Statement for Australian Schools*, (2nd edition). Melbourne: Curriculum Corporation.
- Bents, R.H. and Howey, K.R. (1981). Staff Development – Change in the Individual. In B. Day (ed) *Staff Development – Organisation Development*, (pp.11-36). Alexandria, Virginia: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Connor, M.L. (2003). Informal Learning. *Ageless Learner, 1997-2003*. [Online] <http://agelesslearner.com/intros/informal.html> [2003, December 17].

- Day, C. (1999). *Developing Teachers: The Challenges of Lifelong Learning*. London: Falmer Press.
- DEST (2003). *Australia's Teachers: Australia's Future*. Canberra: Department of Education, Science and Training.
- Ellis, T.I. (1984). *Motivating Teachers for Excellence*. Washington: ERIC Digests, Office of Educational Research and Improvement, US Department of Education.
- Goodson, I. F. (1992). *Studying Teachers' Lives*. London: Routledge.
- Goodson, I.F. (1993). Sponsoring the teacher's voice: Teachers' lives and teacher Development. In M. Fullan and A. Hargreaves (eds.). *Understanding teacher development*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Groundwater-Smith, S. (1998). *On Elephants and Supermarkets: Images and Metaphors of Teacher Professional Development*, Paper presented at the Australian Association for Research in Education Conference, Adelaide. [Online] <http://www.aare.edu.au/98pap/gro98042.htm> [2003, October 24]
- Halse, C. (1996). *Changing Teachers: Including Studies of Asia in Primary Curriculum*, Kingswood: University of Western Sydney (Nepean).
- Halse, C. (1996). *Cultures of Change: teachers' stories of implementing Studies of Asia*, Kingswood: University of Western Sydney (Nepean).
- Halse, C. (1999). *Encountering Cultures*, Melbourne, Asia Education Foundation
- Hara, N. (2001). *Formal and informal learning: Incorporating communities of practice into professional development*. Paper presented at the American Educational Research Association Annual meeting, 10 – 14 April, Seattle.
- Ismat, A.H. (1996). *Making time for teacher professional development*. Washington: ERIC Digests, Office of Educational Research and Improvement, US Department of Education.
- Killion, J. and Harrison, C. (1997). The Multiple Roles of Staff Developers. *Journal of Staff Development*, 18 (3), 34 – 43.
- Natalicio, L.F.S., Hereford, C.F. and Martin, G.N. (1973). *The Teacher as a Person*. Dubuque: Brown.
- Sikes, P.J., Measor, L. and Woods, P. (1985). *Teacher Careers*, Lewes: Falmer Press.

Values: Taught or Caught? Experiences of Year 3 Students in a Uniting Church School

Alison Hunt

University of Adelaide [hunata@annesley.sa.edu.au](mailto:hunta@annesley.sa.edu.au)

This study investigated whether values were taught or caught in the experiences of Year 3 students in a Uniting Church school for boys. Research indicates the need for values education particularly for boys (Lovat and Schofield, 1998), the importance of the home and family in establishing a values foundation (Astill, 1998a, 1998b) and the role of schools in supporting the development of values (Fallon, 1995). Using a Humanistic Sociology conceptual framework and methodology, a prescribed Values Education program was taught and Student Personal Statements and Parent Questionnaires were analysed. Prior to the teaching of the unit the students had caught a narrow understanding of the value as it applied to themselves and their immediate classroom setting. After the program had been taught the students' experiences developed beyond themselves to their family and community perspectives. Their language used more positive meanings and more abstract forms.

Values, Religion and Values Education (RAVE), Boys education,
Humanistic Sociology, Core Values

INTRODUCTION

My Research Project topic in Values Education has arisen from a long standing personal interest in Religion and Values Education (RAVE) and the implementation of a new RAVE curriculum at my school, Prince Alfred College, an independent Uniting Church school for boys. Prince Alfred College was founded by a group of Wesleyan Methodist ministers and laymen in 1865 (Gibbs, 1984, 1986). From its Wesleyan Methodist beginnings and through the formation of the Uniting Church in 1979, Prince Alfred College has maintained its strong church heritage. During my 20 years of teaching at Prince Alfred College the approaches to RAVE teaching and the RAVE curriculum have undergone some regular reforms. The most recent change has been the implementation of the five strand RAVE curriculum developed by Dr Vardy. Several independent schools in Australia have implemented the Religion and Values Education curriculum (PAC 1999) developed by Dr Vardy, an educationalist, philosopher and theologian from Heythrop College, University of London. In South Australia Prince Alfred College and Seymour College, a Uniting Church Girls' School, have worked collaboratively since 1998 to plan units of work within the five-strand approach.

The five strands of the Religion and Values Education approach, suggested by Vardy (1997, pp.3-4) encompass:

1. an appreciation of the Bible and knowledge of the Christian tradition;
2. a values education within a broad religious framework;
3. an introduction to central areas in Philosophy of Religion;
4. an appreciation and understanding of alternative faith perspectives; and
5. an appreciation of the value of silence.

The Prince Alfred College RAVE Curriculum expands upon the following Values.

- Reception/Year 1: love, belonging, caring, sharing, fairness, helping;
- Year 2/3: helping, forgiveness, fairness, courage, honesty;
- Year 4/5: compassion, truth, respect, caring, fairness, family values, school values;
- Year 6/7: truth, core Christian values of love, justice, faith, hope, forgiveness, empathy, personal values, justifying the adoption of certain values.

It is my contention that a greater range of Values should be explicitly taught at Prince Alfred College, particularly at my year level (Year 3) without the repetition of others. While family and school values (Year 4/5) and personal values (Year 6/7) may address a wider range of values, explicitly naming, exploring and experiencing key universal values at a younger age may contribute to the students choosing, applying and justifying family, school and personal values at an older age.

LITERATURE REVIEW

UNESCO (1998) has been involved at the forefront of Values Education through various global initiatives. Jacques Delors, was chairman of the UNESCO International Commission on Education for the Twenty-first Century that issued the report, *Learning: the Treasure Within*. The report recommends four pillars of education (Delors, 1996):

- (a) Learning to know: acquiring the instruments of understanding;
- (b) Learning to do: acting creatively in one's environment ;
- (c) Learning to live together: participating co-operatively in all human activities; and
- (d) Learning to be: developing one's personality to act with greater autonomy, judgement and responsibility.

The fundamental principle that underlies the Committee's report is that "Education must contribute to the all-round development of each individual – mind and body, intelligence, sensitivity, aesthetic sense, personal responsibility and spiritual values" (Delors, 1996, p.94).

The Living Values Education Program (LVEP 2001), another UNESCO endorsed program and the program chosen for this Research Project, grew from an initiative in 1995 to celebrate the 50th Anniversary of the United Nations. From the theme 'Sharing Our Values for a Better World', and focusing on 12 universal Values together with the framework of the Convention of the Rights of the Child, the Living Values Educational Initiative developed materials (Tillman 2000, Tillman and Hsu 2000). The 12 universal Values are: Peace, Respect, Love, Tolerance, Happiness, Responsibility, Co-operation, Humility, Honesty, Simplicity, Freedom and Unity (Tillman and Colomina 2000).

The University of Newcastle Faculty of Education, with researcher Morrison under Professor Lovat, is currently evaluating trials of the LVEP in Australian schools by quantitative data collecting methods using control groups and intervention groups at the Year 5 and Year 6 levels. Former research in Values Education at the University of Newcastle includes Professor Lovat and Dr Schofield's empirical study on Values Formation in Citizenship Education. The researchers found that the teaching of values can make a difference to underlying moral attitudes. A second conclusion was that the focus should be on the school related environment of the child rather than more abstract moral dilemmas beyond the world of the child. A further significant finding was the pronounced gender differences with the greater moral maturity of girls at this age and grade levels. The researchers believe it emphasises the need for values education and moral decision-making, particularly for the moral development of boys (Lovat and Schofield 1998).

In South Australia another Values Education forum is to be found in the research of Dr Knight and Collins at the University of South Australia who work within Philosophy and Education and are the Professional Development Coordinators for the South Australian Association for Philosophy in the Classroom. Their perspective in Values Education is helping students discover a method for determining what is morally right and wrong using the rules of rational inquiry.

The Commonwealth Government has recently commissioned a study to improve values education in Australian schools. The funding is currently supporting 71 schools in both the government and non-government sectors in Action Research Case Studies. These studies will provide information about the values that the Australian community expects schools to foster, the current values of educational practice in Australia as well as a review of research in the field. This will lead to the development of principles and frameworks to guide and inform future improvements in Values Education outcomes (Nelson, 2002).

A particularly relevant thesis is Fallon's (1995) *Christian values and the vision of the Uniting Church for its schools in Victoria*. The educational setting and qualitative methodological approach are comparable to my research project. Results showed that the vision of the Uniting Church for its schools involved the presence of a Christian ethos in the schools comprising values, particularly the overriding Gospel value of love, which can be expressed in the values of justice, reconciliation, peace and service and through the presence of Christian staff (Fallon, 1995).

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The conceptual framework and methods chosen for my research project lie in Humanistic Sociology (Smolicz 1979; Secombe and Zajda 1999). Humanistic Sociology has been developed by the Polish-American Florian Znaniecki (1968, 1969, 1998). Humanistic Sociology considers cultural and social phenomena from the insider's viewpoint, the point of view of the participants who are actively involved. All social and cultural activities are viewed from the standpoint of the actor and not just the outside observer. Human values and activities are considered as facts, as human agents view them.

Znaniecki differentiated between natural objects or 'things' and cultural objects or 'values'. A value gives content and meaning for the particular cultural group and its members. A thing exists and has content but no meaning for the cultural group. The full meaning of a value needs to be understood by considering the role it plays in a cultural system.

The methodology used by Znaniecki in Humanistic Sociological research involves the use of human documents to give an account of individual experience, which reveals the individual's actions as a human agent and as a participant in social life. In *The Polish Peasant in Europe and America* (Thomas and Znaniecki 1958), Znaniecki used letters and life histories, or memoirs as well as other human documents including court records, newspaper accounts, church parish records and records of social agencies (Blumer, 1939).

RESEARCH METHODS EMPLOYED

The research methods selected for this project utilise Humanistic Sociology, with its interpretation of values and attitudes and its methodological approach centring on the use of human documents and qualitative analysis to interpret the data (Tuckman 1972; Meighan 1981; Cuff, Sharrock and Francis 1992; Kellehear 1993; Krathwohl 1993; Cohen and Manion 1994). To this end, I have used the stated core values of the school, Prince Alfred College, with students and parents in order to compare their experiences with the group values of the school. The second component of the project involved asking the same question, "How have your experiences at Prince Alfred College matched these values?" both "before" and "after" implementing the Living Values Education

Program. The third component of the data collecting incorporated using a parent questionnaire to support the memoirs or personal statements.

CORE VALUES RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

During Term 1, 2002, students and parents were asked to respond to the open-ended question “How have your experiences at Prince Alfred College matched these core values?” Each of the five core values stated in the school’s Strategic Plan, *Princes Towards 2010* (PAC 2001b), was listed, in order to elicit the personal statement responses. The five core values are:

1. An appreciation of Christian faith and values.
2. A determination to achieve excellence.
3. A passion for learning.
4. A willingness to be innovative.
5. Respect for oneself and others.

The whole class of 23 students completed responses. There was a 52 per cent response rate from the parent group, with 12 parents from the class of 23 responding. The student and parent responses to the five Core values have been categorised into statements relating to curriculum or other responses and are present in summary form in Tables 1 through 5, respectively.

Students were very familiar with the Core Value #1 ‘An appreciation of Christian faith and values’, presented in Table 1. Many students understood its application in the classroom in RAVE lessons and in the wider school context through attendance at weekly Chapel services. Some students were able to apply its meaning in their social interactions with others, putting the Christian message into practice. Parents were very accepting of Core Value #1. They indicated evidence of this Core Value in the curriculum areas of teaching about the Christian faith and values in RAVE lessons and Chapel services and in the attitudes and behaviours of both students and staff.

Table 1. Student responses to Core Value 1 (N=23)

#1. Appreciation of Christian faith and values		Number of respondents
Curriculum	Curriculum Aspects	21
	Go to Chapel	11
	Learn about God/Jesus	10
	Celebrate/learn about Easter	3
	Celebrate Anzac	2
	Have RAVE lessons weekly	2
	Celebrate/learn about Christmas	2
	Total Curriculum responses	49
Average number per respondents		2.13
Other	Being happy	1
	Showing friendship	1
	Teamwork	1
	Helping people	1
	Total Other responses	4
Average number per respondents		0.17
Total responses		53
Average number per respondents		2.3

Students were confident in their interpretation of this Core Value #2 ‘Determination to achieve excellence’ summarised in Table 2. Most students were able to support their understanding of its application in the curriculum areas in which they nominated Handwriting, Spelling, Maths and LOTE as areas in which they were determined to achieve excellence. Motivation to achieve in these areas came from the Linking Licence certificate and the determination to score well in their weekly tests of Spelling and multiplication times tables. Parents indicated support for this Core Value in general terms through the school’s encouragement of their son to achieve and the

recognition of their achievements. The Effort Awards were one avenue of school recognition as well as at the other extreme, the recognition of outstanding Old Scholars who have achieved excellence in their field of endeavour.

Table 2. Student responses to Core Value 2 (N=23)

2. Determination to achieve excellence		Number of respondents
Curriculum	Handwriting/Linking Licence	11
	Spelling	7
	Maths	6
	LOTE	5
	Science	2
	Music	2
	Reading	1
	Art	1
	Total Curriculum responses	35
Average number per respondents	1.52	
Co-curriculum	Chess	5
	Athletics	3
	Swimming	2
	Football	2
	Sport	1
	Piano	1
	Total Co-Curriculum responses	14
Average number per respondents	0.6	
Other	Trying to complete my goals	5
	Helping people	2
	Doing my best	1
	All my work	1
	OK but I'm not brilliant	1
	Happy with my work	1
Total Other responses	11	
Average number per respondent	0.47	
Total responses		60
Average number per respondent		2.6

Student responses to Core Value #3 ‘A passion for learning’, are recorded in Table 3. Clearly, Year 3 students at PAC are passionate about learning. Many students indicated their enthusiasm about mathematics learning singling out learning times tables in particular. Science, along with mathematics, involves hands-on activity based lessons with open-ended tasks and investigations, catering to the learning styles of many boys. Parents reinforced their son’s passion for learning evidenced by their enthusiasm for the maths and science subjects in particular. Their sons share their learning at home, find learning interesting and enjoy their school.

Core Value #4 ‘Willingness to be innovative’, and the associated student responses are presented in Table 4. With a general interpretation of innovation being new things, the curriculum areas of Computing and Maths and the co-curriculum areas of Athletics, Sports Day and Cross-Country events were strong indicators of the students’ willingness, at this year level, to try new things. Parents also interpreted innovation as new things and expressed their son’s willingness to try something new or different. Encouragement of risk taking was a positive endorsement of ways in which their sons could experience this Core Value. The support for this Core Value was not as strong as the other Core values and several parents provided no comment.

Lastly, student responses to Core Value #5 ‘Respect for oneself and others’, are recorded in Table 5. There was further strong support by students for this Core Value, particularly in terms of respect for oneself. Being proud of their school uniform and consequently proud of being a PAC student was a significant response. Parents believed self-respect was strongly reinforced in their sons. Respect for others including staff and students treating their sons with respect was also strongly

supported. The school's Bullying and Harassment Policies were endorsed as a means by which respect for others was encouraged.

Table 3. Student responses to Core Value 3 (N=23)

3. A passion for learning		Number of respondents
Curriculum	Maths/Times tables	14
	Spelling	7
	Science	7
	LOTE	4
	Art	4
	Handwriting/ Linking Licence	3
	Computing	2
	SOSE	1
	Health	1
	Music	1
	Writing	1
Total Curriculum responses		45
Average number per respondents		1.95
Co-curriculum	Sports/PE	3
	Chess	1
	Football	1
	Athletics	1
	Tennis	1
Total Co-Curriculum responses		7
Average number per respondents		0.3
Other	Learn more	1
	Listen, look, don't muck around	1
	Excursions	1
	Concentrating	1
	Using my brain	1
Total Other responses		5
Average number per respondent		0.21
Total responses		57
Average number per respondent		2.47

Table 4. Student responses to Core Value 4 (N=23)

4. Willingness to be innovative		Number of respondents
Curriculum	Computing	7
	Maths/Times table	6
	Science	2
	Writing	1
	Handwriting	1
	Reading	1
	Total Curriculum responses	
Average number per respondents		0.78
Co-curriculum	Athletics/Sports Day	9
	Cross Country	4
	Swimming Carnival	1
	Tennis	1
	Chess	1
Total Co- Curriculum responses		16
Average number per respondents		0.69
Other	Learning new things	2
	Helping people	1
	House teams	1
Total Other responses		4
Average number per respondent		0.17
Total responses		38
Average number per respondent		1.65

Table 5. Student responses to Core Value 5 (N=23)

5. Respect for oneself and others		Number of respondents
Oneself	Wear my uniform proudly	17
	Work well/neatly/quietly	6
	Listen well	2
	Be nice	2
	Not call out	2
	Look after my belongings	2
	Sit nicely	1
	Try to get my Linking Licence	1
	Be happy	1
	Put my rubbish in the bin	1
	Total Oneself responses	35
Average number per respondents	1.52	
Others	Help someone if they are hurt	11
	Help others	6
	Look after other people's things	4
	Look after school things	2
	Try not to offend/hurt people	1
	Let other people play	1
	Total Others responses	25
Average number per respondents	1.08	
Total responses	60	
Average number per respondent	2.6	

PERSONAL STATEMENTS RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Peace Personal Statements

During Term 2, 2002, students were asked to respond to the open-ended question, “How have your experiences at Prince Alfred College matched these values?” Students were asked to write personal statements about Peace prior to the teaching of a term’s unit of work on the universal value. After the unit had been taught the students were again asked to write personal statements about Peace. The whole class of 23 students completed responses. The pre-teaching and post-teaching responses have been categorised into statements according to their frequency of occurrence and are both presented in Table 6.

During the pre-test, there were 40 different responses given by the 23 students, contributing 92 personal statements with an average number of four responses per student, as shown in Table 6. The highest recorded response of 18 students was ‘Don’t fight’. Eight students responded with ‘Don’t say bad words’ and six students equally referred to attending Chapel or Assembly. A reference by three students to ‘Don’t jeer or leer’ is explained by the weekly spelling pattern of “eer” being taught that week and the vocabulary discussion that followed. There were 25 different statements with one response each.

During the post-test, there were 102 personal statements by the 23 students with an average number of 4.43 responses per student, an increase of 12 personal statements over the pre-teaching peace responses. As with the pre-test responses there were 40 different post-test responses by the 23 students that are recorded in Table 6. The highest recorded response of 12 students was ‘No wars’. Nine students responded with ‘No conflict’, eight students with ‘Quietness’ and six students equally referred to ‘Relaxing’ and ‘Love’. There were 22 different statements with one response each.

Generally after the teaching of the unit there was an increase in quantity of responses with more statements per student and students were able to contribute more experiences of this value. Prior to teaching the unit the highest response statement of ‘Don’t fight’ pertained to the goal of peace

for the self. After the unit had been taught the highest response rate of 'No wars' related to the goal of a peaceful world. While 'Don't fight' was common to both before and after responses, it was significantly less frequently stated after the unit was taught. 'No wars' was a new statement after the unit was taught. Students were able to think beyond themselves to a wider understanding of world peace.

Table 6. Pre-teaching and Post-teaching Peace Responses (N=23)

Pre-Teaching Statements	Frequency	Post-Teaching Statements	Frequency
Don't fight	18	No wars	12
Don't say bad words	8	No conflict	9
Attend Chapel	6	Quietness	8
Attend Assembly	6	Relaxing	6
Don't be mean	4	Love	6
Don't tease	3	Happiness	5
Don't argue	3	Friendship	5
Don't jeer/leer	3	Singing songs	4
During relaxation time	3	No fighting	4
Work quietly in class	3	Calmness	4
Do what teachers ask	2	No swearing	3
Be kind	2	Respect	2
Sit quietly on the floor	2	Caring	2
Solve arguments	2	Playing music	2
Be nice	2	In a family	2
Don't throw things	1	Peaceful places	2
Don't push	1	Under my bed	2
Don't pull clothes	1	Freedom	2
Help people to make peace	1	Making choices	1
Don't talk when working	1	Good luck	1
Listen to teachers	1	No hurting	1
No violence in school	1	No name calling	1
Don't spy on people	1	No rudeness	1
Care about others	1	Opposite of loud	1
Be good	1	Trust	1
Have fun	1	Closing your eyes	1
Don't kneel	1	Co-operation	1
Be trusting	1	Sharing	1
Cross your legs on the carpet	1	Peaceful world	1
Help people	1	Somewhere nice	1
Be generous	1	A quiet house	1
Be fair	1	Relaxing poems	1
Show respect to others	1	Imagining good thoughts	1
Say sorry	1	Colourful places	1
Talk about problems	1	Resting	1
Play with my friends	1	Harmony	1
Help my mates	1	Showing manners	1
Have good friends	1	Bright colours	1
Not always when I'm working	1	Warmth	1
Not when I have a headache	1	Compassion	1
Total responses	92	Total responses	102
Average number per respondent	4.0	Average number per respondent	4.43

The positive meanings used increased in quantity significantly after the unit was taught showing an increased awareness of peace. While some positive statements were common to both before and after responses there was a considerable increase in the number of new positive statements indicating a broader understanding of peace. More students presented entirely positive statements after the unit was taught.

There was a substantial increase in the use of abstract meaning after the unit was taught contributing to an increased awareness of Peace. While some abstract statements were in common

to both before and after responses there was a significant increase in the number of new abstract statements showing a broader understanding of the idea of Peace.

Peace statements were further classified according to the fulfilment of the goals of the unit, being 'Peace for the self', including home and school, 'a Peaceful world' and 'Peaceful methods of resolving conflict'. Most responses both before and after teaching the unit related to 'Peace for the self'. There was an overall increase in the number of statements pertaining to 'Peace for the self' after the unit had been taught. There was also a large decrease in the number of students whose statements after the unit were entirely focussed on 'Peace for the self'. The goal of a 'Peaceful world' had no responses prior to teaching and increased comprehensively after the unit had been taught. There was a decrease in the number of students who referred to 'Peaceful methods of resolving conflict' after the unit of teaching. No students referred entirely to the goals of a 'Peaceful world' or 'Peaceful methods of resolving conflict' either before or after the teaching. However, there was a greater spread of responses across the three goals after the unit had been taught.

Respect Personal Statements

During Term 3, 2002, students were asked to respond to the open-ended question, "How have your experiences at Prince Alfred College matched these values?" Students were asked to write personal statements about Respect prior to the teaching of a term's unit of work on the universal value. After the unit had been taught the students were again asked to write personal statements about Respect. The whole class of 22 students completed responses, one less than in the previous term's study as one student had left the school. The pre-teaching and post-teaching responses from students have been categorised into statements according to their frequency of occurrence and are presented in Table 7.

There were 40 different pre-test responses by the 22 students, contributing 87 personal statements with an average number of 3.95 responses per student as presented in Table 7. The highest recorded response of 15 students was 'Wear your uniform proudly'. Seven students each responded with 'Help others learn' and 'Work quietly at your table'. Four students each stated 'Listen to teachers' and 'Respect teachers'. Three students each stated 'Help people', 'Don't copy' and 'Look after people's things'. There were two students for each of the following statements of, 'Don't shout in chapel', 'Respect boys', 'Sit nicely on the mat', 'Encourage people', 'Help people who are hurt', 'Let people play my game', 'Tidy up after myself' and 'Show respect for my things'. There were 22 different statements with one response each.

As in the pre-teaching personal Respect statements, the post-teaching statements can also be further classified into the negative and positive meanings used by the students, the concrete and abstract meanings use, and the depth of understanding of the components of respect.

Table 7 presents 90 personal post-test statements with an average number of 4.09 responses per student, an increase of three personal statements over the pre-teaching Respect responses. There were 47 different statements by the 22 students, an increase of seven statements. The highest recorded response of 11 students was 'Helping people'. Seven students responded with 'Respect is received by giving respect', six students with 'Respect is for the environment' and five students stated 'I know I am unique'. Four people equally stated 'Caring about other people' and 'Love'. Three students equally stated 'Putting rubbish in the bin', 'Knowing my qualities' and 'Sharing with others'. Two students each wrote 'Knowing I am valuable', 'No fighting', 'Knowing others are valuable', 'Knowing I make a difference', 'Being nice' and 'Taking polluting things out of the environment'. There were 32 different statements with one response each.

Table 7. Pre-teaching and Post-teaching Respect Responses (N=22)

Pre-Teaching Statements	Frequency	Post-Teaching Statements	Frequency
Wear your uniform proudly	15	Helping people	11
Help others learn	7	Is received by giving respect	7
Work quietly at your table	7	For the environment	6
Listen to teachers	4	I know I am unique	5
Boys respect teachers	4	Caring about other people	4
Help people	3	Love	4
Don't copy	3	Putting rubbish in the bin	3
Look after other people's things	3	Knowing my qualities	3
Don't shout in chapel	2	Sharing with others	3
Boys respect boys	2	Knowing I am valuable	2
Sit nicely on the mat	2	No fighting	2
Encourage people	2	Knowing others are valuable	2
Help people who are hurt	2	Knowing I make a difference	2
Let people play my game	2	Being nice	2
Tidy up after myself	2	Taking polluting things out of the environment	2
Show respect for my things	2	I will show respect	1
Be good	2	Comes from people	1
Show respect for my friends	1	Is in a school	1
Treat people the way you would like to be treated	1	Different respects: self- respect; respect for others	1
Don't make uniform muddy	1	To give respect you need self-respect	1
Help people carry their things	1	Respect property by not drawing on the table	1
Help teachers	1	Respect my words by what I say to people	1
Help people when they go	1	Not harming my body	1
Share	1	No-one gets hurt	1
Respect people at school	1	Knowing I am special	1
Be quiet in class	1	Listening to other people	1
Listen to others	1	Being kind to other people	1
Be nice despite their House Team	1	Is for people	1
Be generous	1	Opening the door for people	1
Go to Assembly	1	Is in a family	1
Stay out of trouble	1	Giving a Christmas present	1
Don't call out	1	Is for the world	1
Look after school property	1	No-one lives in conflict	1
Don't be annoying	1	Knowing everyone is unique	1
Don't pull clothes	1	Protecting others	1
Let others learn	1	Don't leave rubbish on the floor	1
Be kind	1	For people's belongings	1
Show new boys around	1	By not being greedy	1
Play nicely	1	Self-respect is to look fantastic	1
Help people cross the road	1	I will receive respect	1
		Is good for you	1
		Is a quiet person	1
		Respect teachers by crossing your legs	1
		Not touching other people's things	1
		Respecting others means they'll respect you	1
		Respect my choices by standing by what I say	1
		I respect everyone's choices	1
Total responses	87	Total responses	90
Average number per respondent	3.95	Average number per respondent	4.09

As in the Peace statements there was generally an increase in quantity of responses with slightly more statements per student after the unit had been taught and with students able to contribute more experiences of this value. Prior to teaching the unit the highest response statement of 'Wear your uniform proudly' pertained to the goal of respect for the self. After the unit had been taught the highest response rate of 'Helping people' related to the goal of increasing knowledge about respect, including respect for others. While 'Helping people' was common to both before and after responses, it was significantly less frequently stated before the unit was taught. 'Wear your

uniform proudly' was not repeated after the unit was taught. Students were able to think beyond themselves to a wider understanding of respect.

There was a significant increase in the amount of positive meanings used after the unit was taught, demonstrating an increased awareness of Respect. While some positive statements were common to both before and after responses, there was a substantial increase in the number of new positive statements indicating a broader understanding of Respect. There was a small decrease in the number of students who presented entirely positive statements after the unit was taught and a similar small decrease in the number of students who presented a mixture of both positive and negative statements after the unit was taught. While this was inconsistent with the Peace result findings, it was only a small decrease and is outweighed by the broader range of responses.

There was a comprehensive increase in the use of abstract meanings after the unit was taught contributing to an increased awareness of Respect. There were no abstract statements in common to both before and after responses. After the unit was taught there was a substantial increase in statements that used entirely abstract meanings.

Respect statements were further classified according to the fulfilment of the goals of the unit, being 'Respect for the self', including home and school, 'increasing knowledge about Respect', including Respect for others and for the environment and 'building respect relationship skills'. As in the Peace personal statements, most responses both before and after teaching the unit related to 'Respect for the self'. There was an overall increase in the number of statements pertaining to 'Respect for the self' after the unit had been taught, but with a decrease in the number of responses. The goal of increasing knowledge about respect increased significantly after the unit had been taught. As with the Peace statements, there was a greater spread of responses across the three goals after the unit had been taught.

VALUES EDUCATION PARENT QUESTIONNAIRE

Parents indicated co-operation, Respect, Responsibility, Honesty and Tolerance were very important values in Prince Alfred College's philosophy and ethos. Parents indicated that Honesty was the value most often demonstrated by their sons. When parents ranked the list of LVEP values in order of importance, Love was at the top of the list, followed by Honesty and Happiness and Simplicity ranked at the end of the 12 values.

Evidence of their son demonstrating the value of Peace produced most responses in the category of 'Peace for the self', a similar trend to the student responses. Evidence of their son demonstrating the value of Respect produced most responses in the category of 'increasing knowledge about Respect', a different emphasis than that of the student responses. The teaching of the values of Peace and Respect were seen by all but one respondent as being useful. The negative response referred to the child's readiness for understanding and applying the values. In suggesting other values which should be explicitly taught there was an even spread of support for any from the given list to specific suggestions of Freedom, Love, Honesty and Happiness. A similar number of respondents made further suggestions including Patience and Patriotism.

Of the parent group represented, most were female and in the age bracket 41 to 45 years. Most parents visited the classroom three times a week with the main purpose being to check their son's progress. The largest represented church affiliation was with the Uniting Church and most did not indicate their level of church involvement. Most of the families represented had two children who were spread evenly between two sons or one son and one daughter. Most brothers represented, attended Prince Alfred College and most sisters attended Seymour College. Citing reasons for their son attending Prince Alfred College, no parent indicated that PAC being a Uniting Church

school was the reason for their choice of schools. The main reason for their choice by the largest group of parents was the school's Christian basis including its Christian traditions and values.

VALUES: TAUGHT OR CAUGHT?

It is apparent from the data collected on the experiences of Year 3 boys at Prince Alfred College that values are both taught and caught. The results support earlier research in the field of values education on the influence of the home and family in establishing values (Farrow 1986; Hall 1994; Astill 1998; Heenan 2002) and the schools in supporting the home influence through implementing values policies and programs (Birchall 1981; Squires 1981; Lenten 1985; Hill 1990; Wilton 1990; Hill 1991; Fallon 1995; Hill 1996; O'Brien 1996; Marshman 1997; Oentoro 1997).

The students brought with them to the task their home influences and personal interpretations of the universal values of peace and respect. Generally this was of a limited and narrow understanding focusing on the value as it applied to themselves and their immediate classroom setting. Their language of expression was negative and their description of their experiences tended towards the concrete.

After the units had been taught there was an increase in their knowledge about each value. Their viewpoint developed to consider the wider applications of the values beyond themselves to family, community and world perspectives. It also expanded and deepened their application of the values to themselves. They were able to express their understanding using more positive meanings and in a form beyond the limitations of the concrete to the abstract. Their experiences were broader and deeper after the units had been taught.

The implication for Prince Alfred College using the Vardy RAVE Curriculum is that the recommended values stated for each Year level should be explicitly taught. However there is a need to review the overlap of certain values, namely Fairness (Years R/1; 2/3; 4/5), Helping (Years R/1; 2/3) and Caring (Years R/1; 4/5). From the LVEP list of universal values, three values are common to the Vardy RAVE curriculum. These are Respect (Year 4/5), Love (Years R/1; 6/7) and Honesty (Years 2/3). Respect in particular, being a stated core value of the school should be explicitly taught at this level. Addressing other universal values from the LVEP list of Peace, Happiness, Freedom, Responsibility, Tolerance, Co-operation, Humility, Unity and Simplicity, from Reception to Year 7 would allow for a greater range of experiences across the school years. This solid foundation of universal values would also contribute to the students more readily choosing, applying and justifying core Christian values, together with family, school and personal values when they are addressed in the older years.

It is also apparent that Prince Alfred College's core values were similarly both caught and taught. The core values, displayed in glossy poster form in each classroom, form a focus for students and teachers. The core values were strongly evident and upheld by both the parent body and student representatives. This was particularly manifested in the core value of 'An appreciation of Christian faith and values' where the main reason for choosing PAC for the largest parent group was the school's Christian basis, including its Christian traditions and values. 'A determination to achieve excellence', 'A passion for learning' and 'Respect for oneself and others' were equally powerfully endorsed and abundant experiences of these core values were quoted by both parents and students.

The evidence supporting the core value of 'A willingness to be innovative' was not as strong as for the other core values. The implication for Prince Alfred College is that the profile of this particular core value needs to be consciously raised. The paper prepared by the Deputy Headmaster for The Australian Quality Schools Awards, *An Innovative School: Meeting the*

Needs of Boys (Tutt, 2002), suggests that highlighting the school's achievements would be a positive move in this direction.

Similarly, while each core value may not require explicit teaching in the classroom, raising the profile of the statements through publications in the *School Handbook* (PAC 2001a), school newsletter editorials, *Chronicle* articles, or in addresses at Assembly, Chapel or Speech Night would reinforce the core values to the whole school community of students and parents.

Further directions for research within the topic of values education could centre on the remaining ten values from the LVEP. Longitudinal studies with the same group of students and parents could follow over the course of the students' progress through the school. Further research could follow after the recommended changes to the Vardy RAVE curriculum were implemented to measure whether the students were more readily choosing, applying and justifying core Christian values, together with family, school and personal values. In terms of the school's core values, after implementing the recommended raising of the profile of each core value the school could measure how successfully the students and parents experiences matched each core value compared to the current data qualitatively collected.

REFERENCES

- Astill, B. (1998a) *Influences on the social values of students in Year 12: A South Australian study*. South Australia: Unpublished Ph.D. Thesis, Flinders University.
- Astill, B. (1998b) Yes! Christians Are Different; But Are Their Schools? *Journal of Christian Education*, 41(2), 27-44.
- Birchall, G. (1981) *A critical analysis of the inculcation and cognitive developmental approaches to values education in schools*. Australia: Unpublished M.Ed. Thesis, La Trobe University.
- Blumer, H. (1939) An appraisal of Thomas and Znaniecki's *The Polish Peasant in Europe and America*. *Critique of Research in the Social Sciences*, 44.
- Cohen, L. and Manion, L. (1994) *Research Methods in Education*. London: Croom Helm.
- Cuff, E., Sharrock, W.W. and Francis, D.W. (1992) *Perspectives in Sociology*. London: Routledge.
- Delors, J. (1996) *Learning: The Treasure Within*. Paris: UNESCO Publishing.
- Fallon, F. (1995) *Christian values and the vision of the Uniting Church for its schools in Victoria*. Melbourne: Unpublished M.Ed. Thesis, University of Melbourne.
- Farrow, F. (1986) *Parent and teacher views relating to the teaching of moral values in schools: A pilot study conducted in 20 school communities in the northern area of the Education Department of South Australia*. Adelaide: Unpublished M.Ed. Thesis, University of Adelaide.
- Gibbs, R.M. (1984) *A History of Prince Alfred College*. Adelaide: Peacock Publications.
- Gibbs, R.M. (1986) *Prince Alfred College: Some Aspects of its History*. Adelaide: Uniting Church Historical Society.
- Hall, B. (1994) *Values Shift: A Guide to Personal and Organizational Transformation*. New York: Twin Lights Publishing.
- Heenan, J. (2002) Building Character Through Cornerstone Values. *Cornerstone Values Education*, [Online] <http://www.cornerstonevalues.org>
- Hill, B. (1990) A Time to Search: The Teaching of Values. *Journal of Christian Education*, 9, 49-57.

- Hill, B. (1991) *Values Education in Australian Schools*. Melbourne: Australian Council for Educational Research.
- Hill, B. (1996) Mainstreaming Values and Issues in Education. *Journal of Christian Education*, 39(1), 7-16.
- Kellehear, A. (1993) *The Unobtrusive Researcher: A Guide to Methods*. Sydney: Allen and Unwin.
- Knight, S. (2003) [email communications]
- Krathwohl, D.R. (1993) *Methods of Educational and Social Science Research: An Integrated Approach*. New York: Longman.
- Lenten, T. (1985) *The integration of aesthetic, moral and social values in the curriculum*. Australia: Unpublished M. Ed. Thesis, La Trobe University.
- LVEP (2001) *Living Values: An Educational Program*. [Online] <http://www.livingvalues.net>
- Lovat, T. and Schofield, N. (1998) Values Formation in Citizenship Education. *Unicorn*, 24(1), 46-54.
- Marshman, R. (1997) *Verbal Harassment: Clarifying Discipline Values in the Culture of a Boys' Independent School*. Adelaide: Unpublished M.Ed. Thesis, University of Adelaide.
- Meighan, R. (1981) *A Sociology of Educating*. London: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Morrison, K.(2003) [email communications]
- Nelson, B. (2002) *Values in our Schools*. [Media Release] Australia: Commonwealth Minister for Education, Science and Training.
- O'Brien, T. (1996) *An investigation of the values of middle adolescents in Catholic secondary schools in the Archdiocese of Melbourne*. Australia: Unpublished M.Ed. Thesis, Australian Catholic University.
- Oentoro, J. (1997) *Total transformation education: A case study analysis of Sekolah Pelita Harapan*. Australia: Unpublished Ph.D. Thesis, Griffith University.
- Prince Alfred College (1999) *Religion and Values Education Curriculum*. Prince Alfred College, Adelaide.
- PAC (2001a) *Prince Alfred College Handbook 2001*. Adelaide: Prince Alfred College.
- PAC (2001b) *Princes Towards 2010: Prince Alfred College's Strategic Plan*. Adelaide: Prince Alfred College.
- Smolicz, J.J. (1979) *Culture and Education in a Plural Society*. Canberra: Curriculum Development Centre.
- Secombe, M. and Zajda, J. (Eds.) (1999) *J.J. Smolicz on Education and Culture*. Melbourne: James Nicholas Publishers.
- Squires, D. (1981) *Some criteria for the validation of a moral education curriculum for New South Wales primary schools*. Australia: Unpublished M.Ed. Thesis, University of New England.
- Thomas W.I. and Znaniecki, F. (1958) *The Polish Peasant in Europe and America*. New York: Dover Publications.
- Tillman, D.G. (2000) *Living Values: An Educational Program (Activities for Children Ages 8-14)*. Florida: Health Communications.
- Tillman, D.G. and Colomina P.Q. (2000) *Living Values: An Educational Program (Educator Training Guide)*. Florida: Health Communications.

- Tillman, D.G. and Hsu, D. (2000) *Living Values: An Educational Program (Activities for Children Ages 3-7)*. Florida: Health Communications.
- Tuckman, B.W. (1972) *Conducting Educational Research*. London: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.
- Tutt, K. (2002) *Prince Alfred College, Adelaide: An Innovative School-Meeting the Needs of Boys*. Unpublished paper prepared for The Australian Quality Schools Awards, Adelaide: Prince Alfred College.
- UNESCO-APNIEVE (1998) *Learning to Live Together in Peace And Harmony*. Bangkok: UNESCO Publishing.
- Vardy, P. (1997) Towards a New Approach to Religious Education. *Incorporated Association of Registered Teachers of Victoria*, Occasional Paper No. 53.
- Wilton, J. (1990) *Investigating ethos*. Adelaide: Unpublished M.Ed. Thesis, Flinders University.
- Znaniecki, F. (1968) *The Method of Sociology*. New York: Octagon Press.
- Znaniecki, F. (1969) *On Humanistic Sociology*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Znaniecki, F. (1998) (Halas, E. ed) *Education and Social Change*. Frankfurt: Peter Lang.

The Changing Nature of the Role of Principals in Primary and Junior Secondary Schools in South Australia Following the Introduction Local School Management (Partnerships 21)

Abdul Sahid

Muhammadiyah University, Mataram–Lombok (NTB)–Indonesia sahidinid@yahoo.com

This paper discusses the changing nature of the role of principals following the introduction of local school management (Partnerships 21) in South Australia. The study reports the series of interviews with primary and junior secondary principals with regard to their roles in several areas namely; instructional leadership, teachers' professional development, teacher selection, staff supervision, supervision of students, decision making, budgeting and school finances, curriculum, school council and the parents of the students and major challenges of the principal's role. The findings suggest that there are not great changes in the role of primary and secondary school principals as a result of the introduction of local school management (Partnerships 21). However, the study indicates that the workload of school principals following the introduction of local school management (partnerships 21) in South Australia has increased. In addition, the role of the school principal has also increased in association with the emerging role in working with the governing council and the parents of the students and in relation to decision-making and school budgeting and finances.

Partnerships 21, principal's role, school management, decision making, leadership

PROBLEM

Has the role of a principal changed in primary and junior secondary schools in South Australia as a result of the introduction of Partnerships 21?

INTRODUCTION

Partnerships 21 was the South Australian model of local school management that involved parents and community members in schools and preschools through School Councils and preschool management committees. The idea of introducing Partnerships 21 was based on the work of a Ministerial Working Party on local school management established by the Minister of Education, Children's Services and Training, the Honorable Malcom R. Buckby, and chaired by Associate Professor Ian Cox. Partnerships 21 was launched by the Premier of South Australia and the Minister for Education, Training and Employment on 20 April 1999. It was based on the general guidelines from the Ministerial Working Party Report (Kilvert, 2001). According to the Department of Education, Training and Employment (2000), Partnerships 21 was a unique model of local school management for South Australia. Its main purpose was to improve the quality of education for all children and students in South Australia. Through Partnerships 21 all schools

would have greater freedom and authority with regard to the decisions of the school that were in line with the students' needs.

This new model of local school management addressed three important issues: (a) partnerships that were built among the school community, the government and the community as a whole; (b) quality improvement integrated into three-year school strategic planning, which specified the improvement target that had to be achieved; and (c) resource flexibility that gave a greater authority and responsibility for the school to allocate and use the budget based on the school's needs (Kilvert, 2001; Kilvert, Tunbridge and Dow, 2001).

This study of the changing nature of the role of the principal is driven by the following research questions. These ten research questions formed the conceptual framework for the study. The conceptual framework was built from a review of literature and the research findings in related fields.

1. Has the role of the principal changed with respect to instructional leadership?
2. Has the specific role of the principal in relation to teachers' professional development changed?
3. Has the role of the principal changed in relation to teacher selection?
4. Has the role of the principal changed with respect to staff supervision?
5. Has the principal's role changed with respect to the supervision of the students in the school?
6. Has the role of the principal changed with respect to decision making?
7. Has the role of the principal changed with respect to budgeting and school finances?
8. Has the nature of the principal's role changed with respect to the curriculum?
9. Has the role of the principal changed in relation to the school council and to the parents of the students?
10. If the principal's role has changed, what are the major challenges in the implementation of the principal's new role?

METHOD OF INQUIRY

This study was designed using the descriptive method based on a case study approach. The technique for the data collection in this study is through in-depth interviews with selected principals in South Australia with regard to the changing nature of the role of school principals in primary and junior secondary schools following the introduction of local school management (Partnerships 21).

It was decided in this initial study to conduct the interviews with only four school principals in order to examine the information available in considerable detail. It was thought that the analysis of information provided by a larger number of respondents would be both very time consuming and complex, and as a consequence much of the detail of interest would be lost in the report prepared.

Four respondents from four public schools in South Australia, two in metropolitan and two in rural areas, with two males and two females, were chosen to represent a population of principals. The participants, the school sites and the detailed information provided in the interviews remained confidential and anonymous as had been stated in the letter of introduction from the researcher's supervisor to the four school principals. The researcher also informed the interviewees that their

names would not be revealed in the report of the study as had been stated in their confidentiality agreement. Anonymous names are used in this report for the school principals; namely, Principal A, Principal B, Principal C and Principal D.

FINDINGS

This section discusses further the findings from the study of four school principals. The findings from the study were categorized within each of the ten aspects of the conceptual framework that was identified as being likely to change following the introduction of Partnerships 21. The ten themes addressed were:

- (a) instructional leadership,
- (b) teacher professional development,
- (c) teacher selection and supervision,
- (d) supervision of students,
- (e) decision making processes,
- (f) budgeting and finances,
- (g) curriculum,
- (h) school council and the parents of the students, and
- (i) role challenges.

Instructional leader

With regard to role change in Partnerships 21, Principal A noted that the role of school principal had changed in terms of the availability of funding and resource flexibility so that the school principal could seek new ideas and innovations in delivering education and exercising leadership. This could be done simply because, under Partnerships 21, the government provided schools with ‘bucket of money’ to support the programs and activities that the school implemented. In contrast, Principal B believed that instructional leadership still remained a main part of the principal’s role. There were not any shifts in a principal’s role in instructional leadership under Partnerships 21. He noted that “the role has not changed in terms of the instructional leadership; that is a major part of the role of school principal”. Moreover, Principal C argued: “I believe that the focus has always been on being an instructional leader ... I think fundamentally it hasn’t changed”. Similarly, Principal D acknowledged that the role of principal as instructional leader was still bound to issues in relation to teaching and learning. She indicated: “I’ve spent a lot of time working in the middle school and working ... with staff so it’s been curriculum, teaching, learning still being a very big part of my job”.

Under Partnerships 21, a school principal received a greater amount of money and the school had resource flexibility and was able to utilize its resources to facilitate the professional growth of teachers with regard to instructional processes. However, the role of school principal in relation to instructional leadership under Partnerships 21 remained the same as prior to Partnerships 21 where a school leader had also focused on teaching and learning in the classroom, provided curricula and ensured that the learning needs of the students were met. Thus the nature of a principal’s role had in instructional leadership had not changed greatly following the introduction of Partnerships 21.

Teachers’ professional development

With respect to role change in professional development in Partnerships 21, Principal B argued that supporting and developing teachers’ knowledge through the training and development of teachers had become a part of a principal’s role prior to Partnerships 21. He noted: “I’ve always felt, even prior to Partnerships 21 ... that we need to be sure that our teachers keep on developing

their skills and their knowledge ... then we need to support their professional development". Moreover, Principal D argued that the change was "not directly as a result of Partnerships 21; it's more a response to lack of government funding for teachers' professional development in the first place". In addition, Principal C was concerned with providing training and development for teachers and that task was part of the responsibility role. Principal C commented: "We're more responsible for ensuring staff have the appropriate training and development and that they get the training and development they need so we're always responsible for that". In contrast, Principal A stated that under Partnerships 21 the school received a greater amount of money and he could utilize that money for searching for creative and innovative ways for undertaking professional development. The main idea in professional development under Partnerships 21 was the school principal could support many professional developments activities that just could not be done previously. Principal A noted:

We've always had a professional development program that's been pretty good but because of the big bucket of money and the flexibilities that come with it, we provide opportunities for teachers that we wouldn't have been able to provide before; we could have but we just didn't have the head set, we never used to think about it so what Partnerships 21 has done is actually [to] expand... and...come up with new ideas.

The principals' role in teachers' professional development remained largely unchanged as following the introduction of Partnerships 21. However, a principal could develop greater innovation and creativity in seeking new ideas and a new vision of conducting professional development through a greater flexibility in government funding. A principal could encourage teachers to undertake professional development in many different forms such as seminars, conferences, classroom observation, action research and workshops to increase their learning and teaching skills.

Teacher selection

With respect to Partnerships 21 in the selection of teachers, Principal B noted: "I don't think there's been any real gains in terms of quality of staff and the say that I get selecting staff". Similarly, Principal D commented that the role of the school principal with regard to teacher selection had not changed. She acknowledged: "Most of the staff coming to this school come as contract teachers first of all and, if they like it and want to be here, they apply for a school choice vacancy and get permanency". However, Principal C noted: "We have [a] little bit more say over [the] selection of staff than we used to". Moreover, Principal A admitted that the role of school principal with respect to staff selection had changed. He commented: "When Partnerships [21] came ... there was the attempt to increase the amount of selection that principals had in their staff". He further argued that under Partnerships 21, the Department of Education, Training and Employment had increased the selection of staff. However, because Partnerships 21 had been stopped, the amount of staff selection remained little. He noted: "Partnerships 21 has now been stopped, the processes, the industrial processes that are [exist] now, mean that our schools have very little selection any more, virtually none".

The principal's role in teacher selection under Partnerships 21 was a major issue that principals faced and in which they had little or no voice in the selection of new teachers because it was determined centrally. The role of principal had not changed following the introduction of Partnerships 21. However, a principal had some voice with regard to the selection processes for new staff particularly for leadership positions such as coordinators, assistant principals and deputy principals. Moreover, a principal also had a voice with respect to the selection of contract teachers.

Staff supervision

With respect to role change in staff supervision under Partnerships 21, Principal D noted some changes. The role of Principal D was to ensure that teachers not only engaged in learning and teaching in classrooms but also, from a broader perspective, ensured that teachers monitored and supervised students with respect to their educational development. In contrast, Principal B noted that the role of school principal with respect to supervision of staff has not changed. He noted that in relation to staff supervision, “the processes that were run prior to Partnerships 21 continue today so that has not changed”. Moreover, Principal A commented that there have not been any changes with respect to staff supervision. She concurred: “I think a lot of what we did about staff supervision has been in place for a long time”. Similarly, Principal C acknowledged that there has not been a real change in staff supervision in relation to Partnerships 21. The only change occurred in a philosophical sense and related to accountability. She noted:

It’s a change in general philosophy [about] being much more focused and accountable anyway and Partnerships 21 has been a part of a bigger accountability move I believe, so now we are more focused and expecting outcomes from our people in terms of performance management but Partnerships 21 doesn’t do it alone.

The role of the principal in staff supervision was unchanged following the introduction of Partnerships 21. A principal supervised staff in terms of giving assistance in dealing with the classroom teaching, providing teachers’ learning needs and visiting classrooms. These activities aimed to monitor the progress and the development of classroom teaching. Meaningful and constructive feedback would be given either for poor or good performances that were shown by classroom teachers.

Supervision of students in the school

With respect to role change in the supervision of students under Partnerships 21, the principal’s role had not changed. Principal B noted: “Supervising students is one of the key parts of the role and that’s not changed because of Partnerships 21; that’s remained the same”. Similarly, Principal C argued that supervision of students within the school was part of the principal’s role and “in terms of Partnerships 21 it hasn’t made a lot of difference”. Moreover, Principal D noted that there is no change with respect to students’ supervision under Partnerships 21 “because Partnerships 21 is about financial management and that’s quite remote from the work that we do with students”. Similarly, Principal A admitted that Partnerships 21 had no relationship with the supervision of students. He commented: “Partnerships 21 had very very little direct impact on students. It has on programs but not on students”.

The role of the principal in the supervision of students in the school under Partnerships 21 had not changed. However, Partnerships 21 had brought new ideas and insights of conducting staff supervision in the school. For example, students who were involved in the students’ representative body undertook training in leadership and participated in determining the programs and activities that were run by the school.

Decision making process

With respect to role change in decision making in Partnerships 21, Principal B noted: “I have always been very open in my decision making processes and have always tried to be highly inclusive of all the groups within the school”. Similarly, Principal D commented that the role of the school with respect to decision-making had not changed. She noted: “I believe all the time about involvement of parents, involvement of students, involvement of community and of course a lot of staff as well so I think it was—all those things were always there”. Moreover, the role of

school principal in the decision making process had not changed. Principal A noted: “It has with some issues about staffing and it certainly has with respect to parents and decision making but probably not within the school”. In contrast, Principal C commented that the role of school principal with respect to decision-making had changed, particularly decision making with regard to budgeting and financial issues. Every decision that had to be made with respect to money spent had to be consulted with staff, the parents of students, students and the school council.

The principal’s role in decision making had changed under Partnerships 21 in which the school principal exercised more democratic and open door decision making processes that involved all the elements of the school community and the community as a whole. Teachers were not only the party who were involved in the decision making process, but non- teaching staff, namely, ancillary staff, who were also members of the school community; therefore they also had the right to be involved in decision making processes.

Budgeting and school finances

In relation to role change in budgeting and school finances under Partnerships 21, the role of school principal had changed particularly with regard to the training needs of staff with respect to this issue. Principal B admitted: “I’ve had quite an amount of training and development in terms of understanding the budgetary process and the accounting system”. Moreover, Principal D commented: “Now you watch every dollar ... you’re much [more] aware of the financial makeup of your school”. Principal C noted: “I am more accountable now for what I spend. Under the old system it was very hard to go broke because everything was managed centrally”. Moreover, Principal A admitted that the school had responsibility for monitoring and for the operation of the whole budget. Principal A acknowledged that in the past the school was funded by the parents of the students, but under Partnerships 21 the school would receive a global budget that covered all the expenditure that the school had, including teachers’ salaries and facilities. He noted: “Now we have responsibility for the whole global budget including salaries, facilities and resourcing utilities, whereas before we only had the parent funding to control and look after”.

There were great changes in the principal’s role in school budgeting under Partnerships 21. The principals focused their role both on leadership and administration as well as taking responsibility for management. There was a great shift in the management of the school under Partnerships 21 with regard school budgeting and finances in which the school received a global budget and had greater flexibility due to the particular conditions that the school faced.

Curriculum

With regard to role changes in curriculum, Principal D noted that under Partnerships 21 the role of the school principal had not changed. It changed “through becoming principal ... I think it’s more a factor of how big your school is ... what I have to do here, is work with students through students action council and that way I meet the students regularly and keep in touch and visit lots of classrooms”. Similarly, Principal A noted that there was a change with regard to curriculum. However, he admitted that the change had no relationship to Partnerships 21. He argued that the role of the principal has changed “in terms of thinking about education and teaching than it has with curriculum”. In contrast, Principal B noted that there had been changes with regard to curriculum under Partnerships 21. He commented: “There has been a positive shift in that there has been more focus on learning programs and in particular the way those programs are delivered to maximize the learning for kids”. Moreover, Principal C argued that under Partnerships 21 the school had gained greater accountability “for what we teach with students, more accountable for the outcomes, more accountable for things like attendance and retention than we were before”.

The role of principal with respect to the curriculum had not changed under Partnerships 21. However, each principal had some flexibility in delivering the curriculum and this depended on the creativity of the classrooms teachers, because they were the persons who understood and knew well the learning needs of their students. For instance, the classroom teacher, in collaboration with the governing council and school principal, developed a curriculum that addressed recent issues that were being faced by the young people such as drug addiction and sex education.

School council and the parents of the students

In relation to role change in Partnerships 21, Principal B noted that the role of school principal had changed with regard to the school council and the parents of the students. He commented that the role changed in terms of greater empowerment for parents. He noted: “I think they [governing council] would be more empowering for parents in terms of strengthening their role with the school community”. Principal C argued: “Under Partnerships 21 ... there is a stronger emphasis on making sure that they’re involved, and that they’re involved at policy level and a big picture level [and] influence the strategic directions of the school than there was under the previous model”. Moreover, Principal A acknowledged that there was a wider role played by the school council and the parents of the students with regard to establishing school policy and strategic direction. He noted: “Before Partnerships 21 we had school councils ... they had no real power they were just purely advisory. Now we have a governing council and the governing council has the joint responsibility with the principal to set policy and strategic direction”. Principal D also highlighted that there had been changes with respect to the role of the school principal in relation to the school council and the parents of the students. There was a greater role for parents, particularly Aboriginal parents, to be involved in the governing council. She indicated that:

The other area that I’ve worked in is in involving Aboriginal parents on governing council—in the past there was an ASSPA—Aboriginal Student Support Parent Committee and I’d encourage those people to be members of governing council so, for example, two Aboriginal people working in the school also have kids in this school and are also on governing council. We’ve looked at it flexibly, kind of around the rules in that we’ve got two places for aboriginal parents on our governing council but it’s not necessarily the same parent all the time; it’s anyone from that ASSPA committee who will come along on the night and that’s actually worked because we now have Aboriginal parents being involved.

The role of principal with regard to the school council and the parents of the students has changed greatly under Partnerships 21 and the school council is now involved in shaping the policy of the school, providing policy direction and in policy development. Principals together with the governing council develop a new curriculum that is in line with students’ needs. They played a major role in overseeing monitoring the school budgeting and finances; and they are involved in every part of the decision making within the school.

Major challenges of the principal’s role

Principal A believed that the workload of the school principal following the introduction of local school management had increased. He noted, “There’s too much to do sometimes”. Similarly, Principal C felt that her workload had increased. She stated, “Sure it is a long day and all kinds of thing”. However, in relation to principals’ workload, she perceived it in a positive way by stating, “You need to manage the job rather than the job manage you”. Moreover, Principal B noted that principal’s workload has increased significantly following the introduction of Partnerships 21. He commented that “initially the workload did increase quite significantly, probably 20 per cent I would say prior before 21 [Partnerships 21]”. He also noted the workload increased:

Probably another five or so hours a week in terms of just understanding the financial aspects of running a school. That, to me, created the bulk of the workload, ensuring that the monthly reports were checked and accurate ... all of that took time and needed to be followed up consistently so that did increase the amount of time.

Principal D raised the same issue. She commented that her workload and teachers' workload had increased and she worked up to 80 hours a week. She commented:

Always, always, 80-hour weeks. That's why you ask yourself, for how many more years will I keep doing 80 hour weeks because I have for the last eight, or ten years and so have most of my colleagues. So yes, that's a huge issue. So too [are loads] for my teachers. 1992 was the first year of the implementation of increased class size and cutbacks particularly on secondary teachers.

The issues in relation to a principal's workload had also been discussed by several authors. They perceived that the role of principal has become overloaded (Fullan, 1992; Hoyle, 1988; Caldwell, 1998). The research on perception and preferences of principals with respect to the new role in Schools of the Future in Victoria found that the "work load of principals has increased since the base-line survey in the pilot phase in 1993, rising from a mean of 57 hours per week to 59 hours per week" (Caldwell, 1998, p.3). Fullan (1992, p.89) pointed out that the principal's activities were overloaded because their "priorities are a mixture of political and educational merit".

IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSION

It is obvious from this study that there have not been great changes in the role of the school principal in primary and junior secondary schools following the introduction of local school management (Partnerships 21) in South Australia. However, the study has indicated that the workloads of school principals under Partnerships 21 have increased substantially and they work more than 59 hours per week as suggested by Caldwell (1998). Moreover, school principals have many different levels of expectation, particularly expectations from students, parents, and community toward the schooling provided. In addition, the role of the school principal has also increased in association with their new emerging role in working with the governing council and the parents of the students and in relation to decision-making and school budgeting and finances.

Implications

This study has a number of implications for educational practitioners and policy makers. However, due to the limited scope of the study, this can be viewed a potential source of ideas for conducting a further investigation in the field of school leadership and educational management.

For school principals, it is essential to rethink and reshape their roles in an ever-changing world, particularly in the area of teachers' professional development through the introduction of new learning technology within the school curriculum. It is believed that in the near future, the educational system in a local, national and global context must rethink the needs of the integration and the embedment of information and communications technology into the school curriculum as the new challenge in the field of education. Therefore, it is a principal's role and responsibility to create and build a positive environment and cultural awareness for teachers and provide a continuing and enduring support for them to improve their knowledge and skills. Moreover, school principals should develop a new learning forum within schools so that teachers could share new learning experiences in a collegial manner. This forum functions as the basis for the implementation of theory into real practice.

Furthermore, school principals must exercise their leadership in an open and democratic manner in relation to the management and administration of education in which all stakeholders are actively involved and participate in policy making, policy direction and policy development. The findings in this study have highlighted the needs of school principals to implement democratic decisions in all aspects of school programs, school activities and school policies. This greater involvement and participation does not mean that the community and the parents of students take over the role and the responsibility of principals as well as the control of schools but rather that they want their voices to be heard and they want to play a participative and responsible role in the education of their children.

There are implications for policy makers which relate to establishing policy in education. This includes substantial changes in approaches to education, and new programs from the Department must be valued and supported to meet the needs of schools. Moreover, there need to be new policies that involve the greater authority and responsibility being given to school principals in relation to staff recruitment and selection. The Department, in collaboration with schools, should redevelop and re-design the procedures and processes of staff selection, and each school must be given greater authority to select and appoint its staff. Finally, any newly established policy from the Department of Education, Training and Employment should be implemented with the full knowledge of the parents of the students and the community as a whole.

Concluding comment

Research in school leadership and educational management is a continuing and ongoing process, particularly the shift in management of the school from the central office to the school level. Thus, the greater shift in management of schools, particularly in South Australia, coincided with a major movement in terms of accountability and the devolution of authority and responsibility to local sites. With regard to this major shift, current issues must be addressed. They embrace the inclusion and equity for all children to receive better schooling and greater access to school resources and facilities. All students must have equal rights to participate actively in school programs. Moreover, discrimination with regard to issues of ethnicity, religion and social background should be addressed, particularly in the State of South Australia, which is comprised of a multicultural society that highly respects the issue of freedom of speech and choice. In addition, the demand for schools to move towards market and business oriented practices without the abandonment of the main mission of schooling itself, should be examined in order to survive in a highly competitive world. The school leaders should create innovative thinking pertaining to school funding by offering programs and activities that financially benefit the schools in order to sustain the important tasks of providing children with a high quality education.

Furthermore, the issue of curriculum change and curriculum development should be continually addressed particularly in areas related to information and communications technology and new learning organizations. This can be done through an intensive examining and analysing of the needs of students and the needs of the market place. Finally, the high demand placed on the community to control the school's curriculum and programs, as well as school activities, should be addressed. Community involvement in schools' programs and activities are highly welcomed but this participation must comply with the guidelines, regulations, and clearly defined roles and responsibilities that have been previously agreed upon.

These issues will continue to occur in more complex forms with respect to the management of schools in South Australia. They are the recurrent issues that need to be addressed because they are part of conflicting and demanding issues that practitioners and decision makers must consider. Neglecting and abandoning these major issues would create an unstable environment and further endanger the sustainability of the running of educational organizations. As a consequence, there

needs to be a strong commitment that is built among all the parties involved. These parties need to work continually together in a respectful manner and they must be committed to change.

REFERENCES

- Caldwell, B.J. (1998). Strategic leadership, resource management and effective school reform. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 36 (5), 445–461.
- Department of Education, Training and Employment. (2000). *Partnerships 21: Shaping the future*. Adelaide: Department of Education, Training and Employment.
- Fullan, M.G. (1992). *Successful school improvement*. Philadelphia: Open University Press.
- Hoyle, E. (1988). Leadership and mission. In R. Glatter, M. Preedy, C. Riches and M. Masterton (Eds.), *Understanding school management*. Philadelphia: Open University Press.
- Kilvert, P. (2001). Partnerships 21. *International Education Journal*, 2 (1), 1–9.
- Kilvert, P., Tunbridge, H. and Dow, A. (2001) Looking backward, looking forward: The first 18 months of local governance and management in South Australia. *International Education Journal*, 2 (3), 148-153.

Are the Learning Styles of Asian International Students Culturally or Contextually Based?

Joseph Kee-Kuok Wong

University of South Australia joseph.wong@unisa.edu.au

One of the issues that relates to Asian international students' perceptions about the quality of higher education is with regards to the difficulties and problems they face while studying in an Australian university. A survey was conducted with 78 First Year to Fourth Year Asian international undergraduate students undergoing a range of programs and courses at a South Australian University to determine their perspective of quality in higher education. Further interviews were carried out with nine Asian international students to gain insights into their difficulties and learning experiences. Based on these interviews, the three main difficulties highlighted by Asian international students are: different learning styles, cultural barriers and language problems. This paper seeks to highlight the initial problems faced by Asian international students in terms of learning styles and how they strive to overcome these difficulties through discussions and practice. These findings present implications for the use of appropriate teaching strategies with Asian international students.

Learning styles, culture, Asian international undergraduates, learning difficulties,
higher education

INTRODUCTION

Some literature seems to hold the view that students' learning styles are predetermined by their culture. This culture-based learning styles' approach (Neuman and Bekerman 2000; Spizzica 1997) has contributed some important knowledge but it also has limitations. It has limited our ability to understand the complexities of the international students' experience, and hence has limited our ability to conceptualise a quality education for these students. My personal experience has led me to believe that one can be flexible in one's learning practices. Having been brought up in a traditional Chinese family, I could say I used to be a 'passive recipient' in education. Learning was, at that stage, one in which I played a very passive role, merely accepting and absorbing everything the teacher said. However, this changed with exposure to other methods of learning and I now enjoy the constructivist approach in learning. However, up to this moment there is still very little literature exploring the possibility of flexibility in changing learning styles or adding new styles to one's repertoire. This research will explore the possibility that Asian international students are able to be flexible and may challenge the common view that their cultural background is some kind of a stumbling block for quality learning in a western higher education system.

This study (stage 2 of a three stage project) was based on the findings of the pilot study, which surveyed 78 First year to Fourth year Asian international undergraduate students enrolled in a range of programs at a South Australian University. The aim of the first stage was to examine the students' perspectives of quality in higher education. Although most of the Asian students came from a background of teacher centred learning, Study 1 has shown that the students' most preferred styles of teaching and learning are lecturing and group discussion (29% each) followed by project, research and self study (13% respectively) (Wong, 2003). A tutorial can be either

teacher centred or student centred; depending on how it is conducted. By grouping lecturing as a teacher centred style of teaching and learning, and project work, group discussions, research projects, self study and workshops as more student centred styles of teaching and learning, it is obvious that the majority (70%) of the students taking part in this study preferred student centred styles of learning, that was the style of teaching and learning used by their university. This might explain why most of the students (58%) had above average level of satisfaction with the teaching and learning style of their university. Only 12 per cent of the students were not happy with the teaching and learning style that they were experiencing here.

When students were asked about the way they could learn best, most of them (65%) indicated that they learnt best when learning by themselves with little or no assistance from the lecturers. Some of them (21%) believed that they learnt better when most of the information was given by lecturers. Only 14 per cent of the students preferred being spoon-fed by the lecturer. This finding further confirmed that Asian international students predominantly preferred a student centred style of learning.

When separate data were used to analyse the preferred style of learning for first and second year's students compared to third and fourth year's students, the results showed that the preferred style of teaching and learning changes with the length of time spent in their program. When Asian international students began their study in Australia, initially more of them (33%) preferred the lecturing style but as they moved in to their third and fourth year of study this preference seemed to lessen. This was evidenced by the fact that only 23 per cent of the third and fourth year students preferred this style of teaching and learning.

The overall results have shown that Asian international students preferred a more student centred style of teaching and learning despite their previous educational and cultural background. Asian international students regarded the change to one comprising of more discussions, independent learning and critical thinking as the strengths of their programs. There seemed to be a preference for a more open and global type of learning experience. This paper reports the results of further in-depth study with several Asian international undergraduates. In particular, it focuses on the students' learning experiences in their home country and Australia and the impacts on their education.

INTERCULTURAL DIFFERENCES IN LEARNING

Transmission of knowledge

According to Chan (1999) Western educators still lack the understanding of Chinese students who are generally less spontaneous and more likely to conform to their teachers. Kirkbride and Tang (cited in Chan, 1999) stated that Chinese students preferred didactic and teacher centred style of teaching and would show great respect for the wisdom and knowledge of their teachers. The fear of loss of face, shame and over modesty made the Western participative style of learning less acceptable to them. However, Biggs (1996, p.59) believed that "Chinese students were more active in one-to-one interaction with the teacher as well as engaging in peer discussion outside the class". Although it was believed that Chinese lecturers are authoritative and highly respected by students (Biggs, 1996), the mode of teaching might not be through simple transmission of knowledge. It actually occurs in a complex and interactive environment. Stevenson and Stigler (cited in Biggs, 1996) stated that Chinese and Japanese teachers had much lighter teaching loads than Western teachers enabling them to have more time with students outside the class. According to Bond (cited in Chan, 1999) Chinese students were generally quiet in class and were taught not to question or challenge their teachers. Teachers were regarded as having the authority and

knowledge to teach and students readily accepted the information given by teachers. A Chinese student was therefore less likely to express his/her opinion, unless being asked.

Rote Learning versus Meaningful Learning

Chan (1999) believed that the style of Chinese learning was still very much influenced by Confucianism that is dominated by rote learning and the application of examples. However, Biggs and Moore (cited in Biggs, 1996, p.54) highlighted that there was a distinction between rote and repetitive learning. According to them rote learning was generally described as learning without understanding, whereas repetitive learning has the intention to understand its meaning. They believed that the influence of tradition and the demands of the assessment system had affected Confucian Heritage Culture (CHC) students' choice of using a repetitive strategy in learning. The Western student's learning strategies starts with exploration followed by the development of skills. Chinese learners believed that skill should be first developed to produce an acceptable output which would then pave the way for creativity to flow (Biggs, 1996, p.55). Flynn, Sue and Okazaki (cited in Biggs, 1996, p.48) argued that CHC students performed better than their Western counterparts and that such a high level of achievement could not be obtained through rote learning. This led Biggs (1996, p.63) to believe that CHC students were deep learners who in fact preferred high-level meaningful learning rather than rote learning. Westerners believed that Asian learners used the rote-learning strategy because of their practice of memorization, which did not enhance understanding. Marton, Alba and Kun (1996, p.70) however, argued that there were two types of memorization, namely, memorization with understanding and mechanical memorization. They concluded that Asian students could perform better in their level of achievement than the Western students because they had memorized with understanding. Yu and Atkinson (cited in Kirby, Woodhouse and Ma, 1996, p.142) on the other hand stressed that the less fluent students, tended to rote learn for subjects, which required high language skills because they lacked the vocabulary to write on their own. However, the study conducted by Kirby et al (1996, p.148) had shown that even less-proficient students also use some forms of deep approaches to learning.

Creativity or Lack of it

Chinese children learnt well through concrete examples. They usually did better in concrete subjects but were weak in abstract thinking and lacked creativity and originality (Salili 1996, p.100). The Chinese authoritarian education system, which demanded conformity, might not be conducive to the development of creative and analytical thinking. Furthermore, Chan (1999) claimed that Chinese students were being assessed mainly by examination with little emphasis on solving practical problems. Smith (cited in Couchman, 1997) believed that the Taiwanese students' learning styles stressed reproduction of written work, and factual knowledge with little or no emphasis on critical thinking. Ballard and Clanchy (cited in Kirby et al, 1996, p.142) agreed that the Asian culture and education system stressed the conservation and reproduction of knowledge whereas the Western education system tended to value a speculative and questioning approach. These differences in attitude to knowledge might affect the assessment of Asian students by Western lecturers. Spizzica (1997) believed that different cultures value different types of knowledge and skills differently. The ways to acquire these knowledge and skills might also differ from one culture to another. The Australian education system encouraged students to be critical thinkers, often giving them opportunities to question ideas and opinions. As a result Australian institutions tended to focus on developing tools for independent learning.

Cross Culturalism and Adaptability

The views about Asian or Confucian learning style as mentioned above is predominant in the literature and give rise to a particular way of seeing the problem of international students studying

in a Western university. Several suggestions were put forward to resolve the problem. Elton and Laurillard (cited in Tang and Biggs, 1996, p.159) believed that “the quickest way to change students’ learning is to change the assessment system”. A survey conducted in Ohio by Pigge (cited in Tang and Biggs, 1996, p.164) had shown that 72 per cent of all the test items required only straight recall answers. Tang and Biggs (1996) believed that assignments, which required high-level strategies generally only addressed a topic, while examination with short answer questions, would cover wider parts of the contents of the course. However, this sort of test only encouraged surface approaches to learning.

According to Neuman and Bekerman (2000), it was important to take into consideration cultural resources before applying education theories in practice. They argued that for a community where students had been regarded as passive recipients of data, it would be difficult for the teacher to teach using a constructivist approach. They further questioned the effectiveness of implementing collaborative learning in a society promoting an individualistic ethos.

A study conducted by Volet and Renshaw (1996, p.208) however, supported the view that both Chinese and Western students approach to study were influenced by their perceptions of course requirements, instead of by the so-called stable personal and cultural features. These students perceived that different courses would require different strategies of learning. Their study also showed that both Chinese and Australian students alike were responsive to the demands and influence of new academic and institutional context in an Australian university. These findings were support by Biggs and Chalmers (cited in Volet et al, 1996, pp.210-211).

Volet and Renshaw’s (1996) study showed that Chinese students in an Australian university were able to adapt in order to fulfil the requirements in the new educational environment. This finding had contradicted the claims that Asian students’ approaches to learning were culturally bound and hence were stable in all educational contexts. In fact, Kumar’s (2000) concept of ‘Cross-culturalism and the Self’ proposed that it was possible for an individual to be flexible and to adopt new ideas and values and transcend linguistic terminology barriers in a social construct. Biggs and Watkins (1996), in contrast to Neuman and Bekerman’s (2000) cautious approach about implementing constructive and collaborative approaches to Asian students, stressed that Western educators had to understand that Asian students might have different perceptions of task requirements, and that task requirements such as acknowledging sources of information needed to be explained very clearly to them.

Therefore, in addressing this issue of helping Asian students to settle in the Western university, there was a necessity to understand the Asian student’s perception of education in general and the requirements of tertiary education in particular. What were some of the other perceptions that Asian students might have? This paper discusses this in greater detail.

THE RESEARCH DESIGN

This research study is the second stage of a three-stage research project focussing on students’ learning experiences from Asian international students’ perspectives. A qualitative approach based on grounded theory was developed for this research. It was a bottom-up approach where the study was taken from the perspective of the student rather than the researcher.

The research questions that are related to this study are as follow.

1. Are there any learning difficulties faced by international students including those from twinning programs in adapting to the Australian tertiary system of education?
2. Are students’ most preferred styles of learning determined by their learning styles in high schools or colleges in their home countries?

Method

This research study was an interview-based investigation, seeking to provide rich qualitative data about Asian international students' perceptions of their learning experiences. Interviews were carried out with nine Asian international students from different disciplines, year levels and country of origin.

The lengths of interviews were approximately one hour each. Recruitment of students had been done by direct contact at the university compound or through social contact. Some of these contacts had already been established through Study 1. All participants were taken from one particular university only.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

When Asian international students were asked about differences in their learning experiences between their home country and Australia, each of them cited several differences, but this paper focuses only on differences relating to learning and teaching styles. The comments and statements made by these students were audio taped and transcribed and are reported *ad verbatim* in this paper, with a number recorded in parentheses, identifying each of the nine students.

Home country experiences

Classroom learning experiences

Asian students generally come from a more passive learning environment, especially for non-practical subjects. This is obvious from the statements made by the students below:

You just sit there listen to what teachers said [1]

...you just sit there let the lecturers give you some knowledge [4]

The teaching style in Asian countries is more teachers centred, where the teachers or lecturers would give all or most of the information to the students. This makes the learning easier for students because they don't need to look for more knowledge themselves. This style of teaching also enables the teachers to cover a wider scope of knowledge in the allocated teaching time. Students involved in this interview regard this style of learning as spoon-feeding. They say it is...

unlike high school where most information was given [1]

it just spoon feeding ... the lecturers give exactly what they want [4]

The tutors spoon feeding you, not so much on discussion [9]

This so-called 'spoon-feeding' style of learning is even more obvious in Vietnam's higher learning institution where tutorials are not available. "*In Vietnam we don't have tutorials, we just have lectures*" [3]. The private colleges with twinning programs in an Asian country like Malaysia are usually much smaller than the universities here. With smaller class sizes, students find it easier to communicate with their teachers in class. "*The classes there were small, if we couldn't understand we can ask during the lectures*" [7].

Allocation of time to teach one topic is generally more in Asian colleges enabling the lecturers to explain a topic more clearly. This promoted a teacher centred style of teaching and learning as cited by one participant. "*In college they use 3 to 4 hours to teach one topic. Sometimes might be one week or two weeks. Everything they explain very clearly*" [7]. In addition, lecturers in an Asian country like Vietnam are claimed not to have close rapport with their students and usually maintain a distance from them.

Lecturers seem to be not as friendly as the lecturers here. Here you know lecturers as your friends and in Vietnam as your teachers. So it is hard to get close to them. In the secondary school many students are scared of the teachers. They are so serious. [3]

Rote or Repetitive Learning

From the information provided by the students during the interview, it is clear that Asian assessment systems requires students to remember all that they have learnt and to reproduce their learning in the examination in order to do well. According to one student, “...in Malaysia as long as you study and memorise what you learn you can do well” [6]. Other students reflect similar beliefs.

The most important thing in Vietnam is you have to learn hard all that your teachers say. Even if you just try to learn hard you can get the best mark. You have to learn hard too much. [3]

If you study in the college, in the exam the lecturers will give you some hints, you can prepare for it, but not here, you can't actually do the thing just memorise and memorise. You need to know how to use it and apply your knowledge in the exam. [9]

Assessment

The assessment system for Asian higher learning institution is generally more examination based. The style of teaching and learning is aimed at helping the students to pass the examination.

Yes, this is what most of the students do. It is very exam based. They only look for the information that they get then can pass. It is very exam based, they only teach you to pass the exam. Probably also the students want it that way. [8]

Before I came here...teacher will tell you everything and then you just read, memorize, and then go to the exam, that is all. Most of the students do not need to express our own opinion. [9]

The Asian twinning higher learning institutions where these students came from didn't require them to do in-text referencing for their assignment. This created the problem of plagiarism when they studied in Australia. The Australian education system required every source of information to be acknowledged and any idea they put forward needed to be substantiated.

In (college) we didn't need to do in-text referencing. But here it is very important. ... We just needed to dig out the answer, no need to discuss. [7]

...you just reproduce and you don't need to get evidence from the articles or journal. Because in the college, you just need to give information from your own opinion. Put anything you want. You don't need any evidence where you get this idea. [5]

Learning experiences in Australia

Learning conditions

The classroom experiences of these international students in an Australian university are quite different from their home countries. Due to large class size there is very little interaction between the students and lecturers in the lecture hall as indicated by this student. “*But here a lot of students in the lectures so difficult to ask*” [7].

Lectures have to depend on good sound system in order to present their lectures clearly to the students. “*Here a lecturer has a few hundred students. So the voice is not very clear*” [7].

Students in Australian universities are expected to play a more active role in tutorial. For Asian students this can be something new to them as expressed by this student. “*Here you need to talk in every tutorial. You can’t escape*” [9].

The lecture times in the Australian university are much shorter than that in an Asian higher learning institution making detailed explanations a rare occasion. Because of this, Asian students find it harder to follow the lecture here.

The lecturers here only give one-hour lecture for each topic. Sometimes they have to rush. They just simply explain, so for some parts we can’t understand. [7]

Asian students prefer the more practical oriented Australian programs here. They feel that what they learn here is more meaningful to them.

It is quite different. What you learn in ... is more based on theory. Here we are provided with more practical things to do. Which makes what you learn sound more real to you. [6]

Research and Analytical skills

Australian university programs seem to place greater emphasis on critical thinking, and students are expected to be able to discuss and voice their opinions. This was clearly commented upon by the following students who said that

In Australia, critical thinking is very important. Not like Malaysia we can memorise all the things. May be you can’t actually apply the knowledge in the exam so is not very useful. [9]

Others emphasised the importance of being able to voice one’s opinion

...here we have to discuss the questions, ...here we have to discuss whether agree or not agree. [7]

...but here they want your opinion and your knowledge. They want to know how much you understand it. [6]

Asian students coming to Australia learn to be independent in their quest for knowledge. They need to learn how to look for information themselves. They can no longer depend on their lecturers to spoon-feed them. This was appreciated by some of them who say that

...when we come here, the lecturers just give us the assignment and we have to look for information, which is pretty cool. [1]

...here they want you to research and to understand what you have learnt. [6]

Initial learning difficulties faced by Asian international students

When participants were asked to describe their initial learning difficulties while studying in an Australian university, the main problems mentioned by them are a lack in English language proficiency, cultural barriers, loneliness and different learning and teaching styles. However, this paper focuses only on the problems related to teaching and learning styles, as summarised in the following section.

You are on your own

The Asian students felt a bit lost in the beginning realising that they can no longer depend on the teacher to spoon-feed them like before. They need to learn how to study by themselves.

Epecially, during the first semester when I just arrived here, it tends to be a bit rough. In high school you are so used to teachers telling you every thing, including what will come out in the exam. When you come to university you are on your own, the lecturers will just come in lecture and they expect you to go back to do your own work. [1]

All a sudden things are not being prepared for you. Then you had to go and search... right now I am not sure what is expect of me to do. [1]

The students have to find a way to finished their assignments. The lecturers and tutors will not give you the exactly right answers. There is no right answer. [4]

Some Asian international students found it hard to see their lecturers here whenever they had problems. This is quite different from the practice in their home countries, where the lecturer will always be in the office during the office hour, unless they are having lecture.

Unlike college time, where you go to the lecturer he or she will be there in the office. Because college is smaller than the university and the time was fixed. The university is so flexible that you have to make appointment to see the lecturers. [5]

Lecture notes

The Asian international students found that it was difficult to take notes during lectures. They had to contend with several hurdles. First, they lack the experience in note taking during lecture. They found it difficult to copy the notes given by the lecturer while simultaneously trying to understand them. Second, the Australian accent of the lecturer makes it even harder for them to follow the lecture.

The hardest for me is to take down lecture notes, because I never had to do that before. Most of the time teachers would give out notes, coming here certain lectures we have to write our own notes, which is pretty hard because we are not used to it. By the time you finished writing, the lecturers are way out and you may miss part of it. That was hardest for me. [1]

Some lecturers didn't give notes. Some lecturer's notes are too brief. I would like to speak on behalf of the international students; sometimes it is difficult to pick up their accent. Sometime you don't know what is happening, and there is no note or the notes are so brief. So you can't understand, at the end you spend more time. [2]

In the lectures they (lecturers) flip the transparency and you copy like crazy. That is hard. At one hand you copy like crazy and on one hand you try to understand what the lecturers is trying to say with their accent. [2]

Assignment requirements

Asian students seldom did assignments in their home countries like here, so they are not familiar with the requirements of an assignment. They are unsure how to produce a good assignment, where to look for the relevant information, how much is enough and the format of the report. In the university here students no longer just reproduced what they had learnt. They need to know how to analyse the knowledge that they had acquired and to apply them in different situations. Generally different students in the same course will have different assignment topic except for those in the same group. Even so each group member will have different roles to play, so it is difficult for them to get help from one another in doing the assignment.

...just sometimes I can't understand the questions, the requirements of the assignments. Because different lecturers got different perceptions. For example a

lecturer asked to do the assignment in a particular formation, but the lecturer in the tutorial asked to do in another format. Sometimes we are quite confused. [5]

...in assignment, because quite short of time, I don't study from first year, I came directly from college, they expecting so high, and I can't focus in order to get better information which is more on track with the assignment. [5]

... here the assignment is more on how you analyse the thing, you have to find out the evidence, to support your assignment. Then you have to analyse the assignment which is different from other students and your friends. Every one is different. Sometimes when I was doing the assignment, I have no idea whether I am doing the right thing. Because I can't ask my friend to help to look at it, because it is different, different topics. Every one has different ways to do the assignment. But in college, everyone was doing the same thing. For example event, every body was doing the same event. So we can give advice and suggestions to each other to produce more information. But I think may be in college, it is an easy way to do the assignment, but in university you have to try to be independent. You have to know how to apply, and how to analyse the whole assignment. [5]

Like assignment what makes the differences between high distinction and distinction or credit. I don't really know what the lecturer really wants. I will only know all these when I move into the next semester. After I got back the first semester results. Then I will get better idea what the lecturers really wants. [1]

They don't realise our problems here. They just couldn't be bothered about our assignment date. They think that we can do it without anybody tell us how to do it and what they expect from the assignment. [6]

Information, whether they ask you to do some questions, so I done it, but I found it still not enough. So I don't know how much they need. [8]

Some assignments I still can't quite understand what the lecturer required. [7]

Group work

Generally, Asian students do not have much experience in teamwork. They found it difficult to work in a team especially with members that are not cooperative and unreliable. There is a preference to work individually so that they can have full control of the final product.

And also group work. I realise that here they emphasis a lot of group assignment. While in KL, mostly is individual. So is very personal workload. Whereas here, they make you work in groups. So far I found it not as effective way for me. For me the group members do affect teamwork. I find it so far not a helpful way of learning. Probably the background that I come from is very personal. [8]

...not only me, most of my friend do have this kind of problems. Mainly the group members themselves are not contributing something. [8]

...I understand that the university makes us work in groups, so that is another type of learning together, in order to build teamwork. So I am still learning. [8]

Preferred style

Asian students prefer the learning in Australia because in their home countries they always had to learn things by heart and being spoon-fed by their teachers. In Australia they can enjoy the new freedom of learning by themselves. The following students attest to that.

Some of the lecturers there are good, but I don't like the styles. They just force the students to learn by hard. [3]

Last time we were given every thing, at least now we have the freedom to do our own thing. So that is very good. [1]

According to the Asian international students, it is good for the university here to emphasise a lot on the in-text referencing. They agreed that it is necessary to acknowledge the work done by others. They believe that the university is better than the college, because in the college they are allowed to 'cut and paste' without acknowledging the source and the college also allows students to give unsubstantiated opinions.

When you do the assignments. They concern about references. In Malaysia we always use the Internet 'cut and paste'. Here they are very particular about the plagiarism. I think this is very good. [4]

But in the university you have to find out why you say like that and then you have to find out who says like that, and who is the author, every thing. But I think this is good, because at least I am not copying. Because what I am thinking is what I gain the knowledge from someone, so I have to put it in because this is not my job. Because it is other people's job so I have to put it in. And I just can't simply give any opinion or information in the assignment, because it is not true and it is not evident at all. So I find it university is better than college. [5]

Asian students agreed that it had been their culture to expect their teachers to spoon-feed them. However, they agreed that the teaching style here is better because they can learn more when they do their own work. Although searching for information has taken a lot of their time, they feel that they can learn more by doing assignment than attending lectures.

Not so many of students giving answers and ideas. I think Asian students are this kind of culture, they expect the tutors to spoon-feed them. This is why when I came here, it is totally different. Here is better. You learn more when you do your own work. [8]

Actually student centred is quite good. But as a student we will be more busy. Because we need to find out all the things ourselves. [9]

I think student centred (learning) you will learn more. If you go to the lecture, we can only listen, listen, listen. After that you can't actually get anything from there. [9]

Sometimes I found that doing the assignments is the main point for us of the course. The main point of the course. The lecture actually not so useful sometimes. They don't actually provide so much knowledge for us, only the lecture notes. It isn't really useful. [9]

They believe that searching for information and presenting it during tutorial helps to build their confidence and enable them to do better.

The presentations, make you talk and speak out, although you don't know what to talk, still have to talk. That will build up your confidence. And also the information and resources you need to look up for yourself. The information is there, but the initiative to search for it, you need to do it here. These two areas are the major one. Help you to do better. [8]

Ways to overcome these problems

Willingness to change

Asian students are able to overcome this problem because they are willing to change. They like this new style of teaching and learning.

It's quite a problem for me. But I am ready to change the style of study. Because based on so much my friends told me, you must do more workload here. Can't be like that in Malaysia that attitude of learning. I think I am coming here prepared. So far this is only my half way through in my first semester. So far I am still coping. [8]

Because I like this style, so I can adjust to it. Yes, I like to learn myself. [3]

Better understanding

The close rapport between students and lecturer has promoted better understanding between them. Students must be prepared to ask if they have any problem. Generally lecturers are helpful and are willing to guide them based on their needs.

Last semester, I felt really lost, this semester the Japanese student and I tried to talk to the lecturers how we feel, and every thing we are not happy. They become realised, it is not their fault, because they don't understand. We let them know it is not their faults. It is our problems. So they can understand now. [6]

They offer help. They become concern about our personal lives. [6]

I get more involved during the tutorial time. [6]

When we discuss topic on cultural, they will ask, what do you think? They ask about Malaysia. They try to get me more involved in tutorial or lecture. [6]

You must have the initiative to ask, then they will provide you with a lot of information. [6]

Normally they will tell you where you can find the information. Basically, the assignments come out from the textbooks, from there you know where to look for information. [6]

I discuss with my tutor. They are helpful. They gave me the information what I need to do. [7]

More practice

Although the initial time in a foreign land is fraught with learning difficulties the students soon realize that it is just a matter of getting used to the new system. When students spend more time doing the assignment or participating in discussions they inevitably will acquire the new learning skills required of them.

Although I can't speak very well, I will still participate in the discussion, because this is the chance for you to learn. May be sometimes you can't express well, if you speak more, you can actually convey your message better. [9]

Sometimes it is quite tough to look for information, but if you can spend more time you can get the thing. [9]

Asian students normally took about two to three months to adjust to the new style of learning here. *"It took about one to two months for me to get use to it. After a while you feel ok. So the first*

semester is a big rough" [1]. Another students said that he had been here for three months and he said he is "getting better, now I know what the tutor required of the assignment" [7].

CONCLUSION

Based on the results obtained in Study 1 (Wong, 2003) and the present study, it is obvious that the majority of Asian international students would prefer a more student centred style of learning. Despite the fact that these Asian international students had come from a so-called 'spoon-feeding' or teacher centred style of learning environment, they are able to adapt to the new style of teaching and learning here within two to three months. This finding seems to support those of Biggs (1996) and Volet and Renshaw (1996), that Chinese learners are highly adaptive for learning. The comparative study between First and Second Year students with Third and Fourth Year students also showed that the longer the students study in Australia the more they are likely to adapt to and adopt the style of teaching and learning here. It would seem therefore that learning styles are not culturally based but contextual. In fact these Asian international students regard the more student centred style of learning here as the strength of Australian higher learning education. There is therefore no apparent necessity for Australian higher learning institutions to adapt to the Asian style of teaching and learning but rather the authorities and personnel concerned should try to understand the initial learning difficulties faced by these Asian international students and take certain measures to support them when needed.

REFERENCES

- Biggs, J. and Watkins, D. (1996) The Chinese learner in retrospect. In D.A. Watkins and J.B. Biggs (ed.), *The Chinese Learner: Cultural, Psychological and Contextual Influences*. (pp.269-285) CERC and ACER, Hong Kong: The Central Printing Press.
- Biggs, J. (1996) Western misperceptions of the Confucian-heritage learning culture. In D.A. Watkins and J.B. Biggs (ed.), *The Chinese Learner: Cultural, Psychological and Contextual Influences*. (pp.45-67). CERC and ACER, Hong Kong: The Central Printing Press.
- Chan, S. (1999) The Chinese learner-a question of style. *Education and Training*, 41(6/7), 294-304.
- Couchman, J. (1997) Making Sense: Cross-Cultural Variation in the Organisation of Academic Texts by Taiwanese and Australian Undergraduate Students. In Z. Golebiowski and H. Borland (ed.) *Academic Communication across Disciplines and Cultures*. (pp.64-76). Melbourne: Victoria University of Technology.
- Kirby, J.R., Woodhouse, R.A. and Ma, Y. (1996) Studying in a second language: the experiences of Chinese students in Canada. In D.A. Watkins and J.B. Biggs (ed.), *The Chinese Learner: Cultural, Psychological and Contextual Influences*. (pp.141-158) CERC and ACER, Hong Kong: The Central Printing Press.
- Kumar, M. (2000) Postcolonial Theory and Cross-culturalism: Collaborative 'Signposts' of Discursive Practices. *Journal of Educational Enquiry*, 1(2), 82-92.
- Marton, F., Alba, G.D. and Kun, T.L. (1996) Memorizing and understanding: The keys to the paradox? In D.A. Watkins and J.B. Biggs (ed.), *The Chinese Learner: Cultural, Psychological and Contextual Influences*. (pp.69-83) CERC and ACER, Hong Kong: The Central Printing Press.
- Neuman, Y. and Bekerman, Z. (2000) Cultural Resources and the Gap Between Educational Theory and Practice. *Teachers College Record*, 103(3), 471-484.

- Salili, F. (1996) Accepting personal responsibility for learning. In D.A. Watkins and J.B. Biggs (ed.), *The Chinese Learner: Cultural, Psychological and Contextual Influences*. (pp.86-105) CERC and ACER, Hong Kong: The Central Printing Press.
- Spizzica, M. (1997) Cultural Differences Within “Western” and “Eastern” Education. In Z. Golebiowski and H. Borland (ed.) *Academic Communication across Disciplines and Cultures*. (pp.248-257). Melbourne: Victoria University of Technology.
- Tang, C. and Biggs, J. (1996) How Hong Kong students cope with assessment In D.A. Watkins and J.B. Biggs (ed.), *The Chinese Learner: Cultural, Psychological and Contextual Influences*. (pp.159-182) CERC and ACER, Hong Kong: The Central Printing Press.
- Volet, S. and Renshaw, P. (1996) Chinese students at an Australian university: Adaptability and continuity. In D.A. Watkins and J.B. Biggs (ed.), *The Chinese Learner: Cultural, Psychological and Contextual Influences*. (pp.205-220) CERC and ACER, Hong Kong: The Central Printing Press.
- Wong, K. (2003) What does quality higher education mean to Asian international students? Paper presented at *The Annual Postgraduate Research Forum*. Adelaide: University of South Australia.

Aspirations, Progress and Perceptions of Boys from a Single Sex School Following the Changeover to Coeducation

Shirley M. Yates

Flinders University shirley.yates@flinders.edu.au

Career and further education aspirations, educational progress and perceptions of the learning environment were measured annually over three years in primary and secondary boys from a single sex non-government school, following the changeover to coeducation. Hierarchical Linear Modelling analyses revealed the significant role played by the career aspirations of cohorts on boys' progress over time. Further education plans and perceived difficulty of schoolwork were also significant influences, with difficulty at the grade level affecting boys' progress over time. Furthermore, satisfaction with life at school at both cohort and grade levels was a significant determinant of boys' educational progress. These findings suggest new directions for research into single sex/coeducational learning environments.

boys, single-sex, coeducation, aspirations, progress, school climate

INTRODUCTION

The last three decades have witnessed a growing trend towards coeducation in many countries (see, Mael, 1998), prompted by legal, social and economic considerations (Lee and Bryk, 1986; Tyack and Hansof, 1990). However, there is little research evidence as to the efficacy of this trend. Three longitudinal studies of the changeover from single sex to coeducation have indicated no adverse effects on student academic achievement (Marsh, 1989; Marsh, Smith, Marsh and Owens, 1988; Yates, 2001a; 2001b; 2002a), academic self-concept (Marsh *et al.*, 1988; Smith, 1996; Jackson and Smith, 2000) and explanatory style (Yates, 2000). Another study found girls were uncomfortable and perceived teachers gave more attention to the boys during mathematics lessons in mixed sex classrooms (Steinbeck and Gwizdala, 1995), but whether these differences persisted beyond the initial transition period was not examined. Student perceptions of the school learning environment have not been considered in the changeover from single to mixed sex settings.

Learning takes place in social contexts both inside and outside the classroom (Hofman, Hofman and Guldemond, 2001), with the climate of the school and classroom impacting significantly on student learning (Fraser, 1994). A large body of evidence attests to strong relationships between student perceptions of the psychosocial climate of the classroom learning environment and cognitive and affective outcomes (Haertel, Walberg and Haertel, 1981; Fraser, Welch, Hattie and Walberg, 1987; Fraser, 1998). A meta-analysis of studies of 17,805 students in 823 classes in eight subject areas across four nations found student achievement to be higher in classrooms with greater Cohesiveness, Goal Direction and Satisfaction and less Disorganisation and Friction (Haertel *et al.*, 1981). Human environments have been classified into three dimensions (Moos, 1974), with Cohesiveness, Satisfaction and Friction encompassed within the Relationship dimension, Goal Direction and Disorganisation included in System Maintenance and Change and

the third dimension of Personal Development embracing Competitiveness and Difficulty. All three dimensions have been studied in many different environments (Fraser, 1998), but have not been measured at the school level following the conversion from single to mixed sex education.

Proponents of single sex education and coeducation claim various benefits for the social, emotional and educational development of students (Caspi, 1995; Mael, 1998; Woodward, Fergusson, and Horwood, 1999), but research evidence as to the efficacy of each school type is inconsistent and inconclusive (Office of Educational Research and Improvement, [OERI], 1993; American Association of University Women, [AAUW], 1998). Separate and mixed sex schools have been compared and evaluated in relation to academic achievement and attitudes, curriculum access, selection of non-stereotypical subjects, classroom discipline, social interaction, student self esteem, self concept and post school success (Mael, 1998; Jackson and Smith, 2000). Some studies support single sex education for boys (McGough, 1991; Reisman, 1991; Hawley, 1993; Watts, 1994), some single sex education for girls (Lee and Byrk, 1986; Bauch, 1989; Cairns, 1990; Lawrie and Brown, 1992; Moore, Piper and Scheafer, 1993; Petruzella, 1995; Streitmatter, 1999; Speilhofer, O'Donnell, Benton, Schagen and Schagen, 2002) some single sex education for both sexes (Finn, 1980; Lee and Bryk, 1986; Jimenez and Lockheed, 1989; Young and Fraser, 1990; Rowe, 2000; Spielhofer *et al.*, 2002), while yet others find no advantages in single sex schooling for either boys or girls, particularly once other variables have been taken into account (Willis and Kenway, 1986; Rowe, 1988; Marsh, 1989; Lee and Marks, 1990; Riordan, 1993; Brutsaert and Bracke, 1994; Marsh and Rowe, 1996; Harker and Nash, 1997; LePore, and Warren, 1997; Harker, 2000). Large scale studies of secondary schools in Ireland (Cairns, 1990) Australia (Foon, 1988) and the United States (Lee and Byrk, 1986) found adolescent achievement to be higher in single sex schools, but these academic advantages were tied to higher career and educational aspirations (Trice, Naudu, Lowe and Jaffee, 1996). Furthermore, students from single sex schools were more likely to undertake postgraduate programmes at the University level (Lee and Marks, 1990), although this latter effect disappeared once controls were applied for attendance (Haag, 2000).

The majority of single sex/coeducational studies have focussed on students at the secondary level (Mael, 1998; Pollard, 1999), with "the overwhelming preponderance of research ... focussed on females and female concerns" (Mael, 1998, p.117). There is dearth of systematic long-term studies of single and coeducational learning environments (AAUW, 1998; Pollard, 1999), particularly in relation to academic achievement (OERI, 1993), psychosocial development (OERI, 1993) and the socio-emotional effects of school type (Mael, 1998). Such studies need to take individual, group and school level differences into account (Mael, 1998; Rowe and Rowe, 2002) using statistical procedures such as Hierarchical Linear Modelling (HLM; Bryk and Raudenbush, 1988; 1992) in which the effects of change can be assessed as a function of multiple levels. HLM is also eminently suited to longitudinal designs (Von Eye, 2001). It has been suggested that within-type differences such as the characteristics of the student body, teachers and school may be more important than between type differences (Bone, 1983; Kenway and Willis, 1986; Richardson, 1999; Rowe, 1999).

The present study took place in a single campus non-government school with a long tradition of 'boys only' primary and secondary education. The changeover to coeducation was phased in over a two-year period, with girls enrolled in Grades 7 to 12 in the first year (Time 1) (T1) and Grades 3 to 6 in the second year (Time 2) (T2). Career aspirations, further education plans, educational progress and perceptions of the school-learning environment were measured annually in boys during the two-year conversion period as well as the following year (Time 3) (T3). The study focused on boys present in the school in the first year of the introduction of co-education and examined cohort and grade level effects over the three years T1, T2, T3.

AIMS

The aims of this study were twofold:

1. to measure aspirations, educational progress and perceptions of school climate in boys from a single sex school following the changeover to coeducation; and
2. to examine cohort and grade level differences in the boys' aspirations, educational progress and perceptions of school climate over time.

METHOD

Participants

Boys in Grades 3-11 attending the school when coeducation was first introduced participated at T1. The same boys were followed up in Grades 4-12 at T2 and Grades 5-12 at T3. The numbers participating at T1, T2 and T3 are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Number of boys by grade level at Time 1, Time 2 and Time 3

	Gr 3	Gr 4	Gr 5	Gr 6	Gr 7	Gr 8	Gr 9	G 10	G11	G 12	Total
T1	25	31	34	40	40	49	71	75	76		441
T2		23	27	33	40	40	48	71	76	76	433
T3			22	23	27	29	32	43	48	57	363
Total	25	54	83	98	107	118	151	189	199	133	1237

Instruments

Educational and Career Aspirations Questionnaire

This single page questionnaire (ECAQ) (Yates, 2001a) comprised students' date of birth, gender, grade, length of time at the school, anticipated length of stay at school, plans for further education after leaving school and intended occupation.

Educational Progress

Educational progress was assessed with *Word Knowledge Test 1*, *Word Knowledge Test 2* or *Word Knowledge Test 3* (WKT1, WKT2 and WKT3) (Thorndike, 1973). Each test consists of 40 word pairs, rated as the same or opposite in meaning. Thirteen word pairs are common to WKT1 and WKT2 and twenty items are common to WKT2 and WKT3. One word pair is common to all three tests.

School Climate Questionnaires

Student perceptions of the psychosocial climate of the school were evaluated with *My School Inventory* adapted from *My Class Inventory* (MSI) (see, Fisher and Fraser, 1981; Fraser, Anderson and Walberg, 1982), or the *School Learning Environment Inventory* (SLEI) adapted from the *Learning Environment Inventory* (Anderson and Walberg, 1974; Fraser, *et al.*, 1982). MSI and SLEI have three Relationship subscales of Cohesiveness, Friction and Satisfaction and two Personal Development subscales of Competitiveness and Difficulty in common. The three Relationship Dimension subscales (Moos, 1974) tapped the nature and intensity of students' interpersonal relationships, conflict, arguments and disagreements between students and contentment and happiness with the learning environment of the school respectively. The Personal Development subscales assessed competitiveness between students and their perceptions of the difficulty of their schoolwork.

Procedure

The test of educational progress and the questionnaires measuring perceptions of the school climate were administered to all boys in their classrooms at the same time on the same day in October at T1, T2 and T3 as shown in Table 2. Boys in Grades 8 and 9 completed both MSI and SLEI to provide a common group for equating purposes. Boys also completed the single page educational and career aspirations questionnaire.

Table 2. Word Knowledge Tests and School Climate Questionnaires

Grades 3-7	WKT1	Grades 8-10	WKT2	Grades 11-12	WKT3
Grades 3-9	MSI	Grades 8-12	SLEI		

ANALYSES

Boys' responses at T1, T2 and T3 were entered into a Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) file (Norusis, 1993), with data matched across occasions through an ID number. Boys' plans for further education after leaving school outlined in the ECAQ were coded from 1 to 4, with 1 representing no plans and 4 representing 4 or more years of further education. Future career aspirations were coded on a 6-point scale, with 6 representing the highest level of Professional occupations.

Reliability and validity of WKT1, WKT2, WKT3, MSI and SLEI were examined with QUEST (Adams and Khoo, 1994) and all non-fitting items deleted from each instrument (Yates, 2001b). The three word knowledge tests and two learning environment questionnaires were calibrated with the Rasch scaling procedure (Rasch, 1966) to bring them to common interval scales. A single Word Knowledge (WK) scale of educational progress was formed from WKT1, WKT2 and WKT3, with the tests linked by the common items. Scoring of WK was anchored to those students who answered all items at T1. Five separate school climate subscales of Cohesiveness, Competitiveness, Difficulty, Friction and Satisfaction were formed from the designated MSI and SLEI items, linked by responses from the Grade 8 and 9 boys who had completed both questionnaires. The combined Cohesiveness subscale contained 13 items, the Competitiveness subscale 12 items, the Difficulty subscale 14 items, the Friction subscale 15 items and Satisfaction subscale 14 items. Case estimate scores were equated concurrently for WK and five school learning environment subscales for all boys from Grades 3 to 11 at T1, and Grades 3 to 12 for T2 and T3.

Relationships between anticipated length of stay at school, plans for further education, career aspirations, educational progress and perceptions of cohesiveness, competitiveness, difficulty, friction and satisfaction were analysed with HLM5 (Raudenbush, Bryk, and Congdon, 2000) which permits examination of the direct effect of various potential predictors at both level-1 and level-2 as well as modelling cross-level interaction effects. Within group comparisons were made over time at level-1, and between cohort groups and grades at level-2. Cohort groups consist of the same students clustered by their initial grade at T1, while Grade groupings are composed of students in that grade level at T1, T2 and T3.

RESULTS

Two models were developed, with boys grouped at level-2 by cohort in Model 1 and by grade level at T1, T2 and T3 in Model 2. Educational progress was designated as the outcome variable in each model. All variables were considered in each model, but only significant effects at both levels were retained. Boys' anticipated length of stay at school, and perceptions of cohesiveness, competitiveness and friction across the school are not present in either final model, as they were not significant predictors of educational progress over time.

Figure 1 and Figure 2 present the results of significant effects for Model 1 and Model 2 respectively. Coefficients and standard errors are presented for each significant variable, which is enclosed within an ellipse. Figures 1 and 2 show that boys' further education plans (FED) and perceptions of the difficulty of school work (DIF) have a significant effect on educational progress (WK) at the student level-1. In both models DIF is negatively related to WK indicating that on average boys who perceive schoolwork to be difficult have lower scores. DIF is also a significant level-2 variable in Model 2 where it interacts negatively with Time and WK, indicating that, on average, grades with higher perceptions of the difficulty of schoolwork have correspondingly decreasing scores over time. At level-2 in both models boys' satisfaction with school life (SAT) is directly but negatively related to their educational progress, indicating that on average, cohorts and grades expressing lower levels of satisfaction with school life make better progress.

In Figure 1 the variable Time is a significant predictor of WK at the student level-1. The positive value of the coefficient of Time to WK in Model 1 suggests that overall, there are significant increases in WK scores for boys (in all cohorts) over time. However, there is an interaction between boys' occupational aspirations (OCC) at level-2, and Time influencing WK scores. Boys are progressing over time, but the rates of their progress vary from one cohort to another, depending on the average occupational aspirations of a particular cohort. Boys in cohort groups that, on average have high occupational goals, tend to have increasing scores over time and progress at rates that are significantly above the average. By contrast, boys in cohort groups that on average have low occupational ambitions, tend to have decreasing scores over time and progress at rates that are significantly below the average.

In Figure 2 the scores of boys in Grade 7 (G7) and Grade 11 (G11) have a higher increase in WK scores over time compared with the average. In this same figure, there is a consistent pattern of higher WK scores for Grade 12 (G12) on all three occasions. However, the variable Time is not a significant predictor of WK in Model 2.

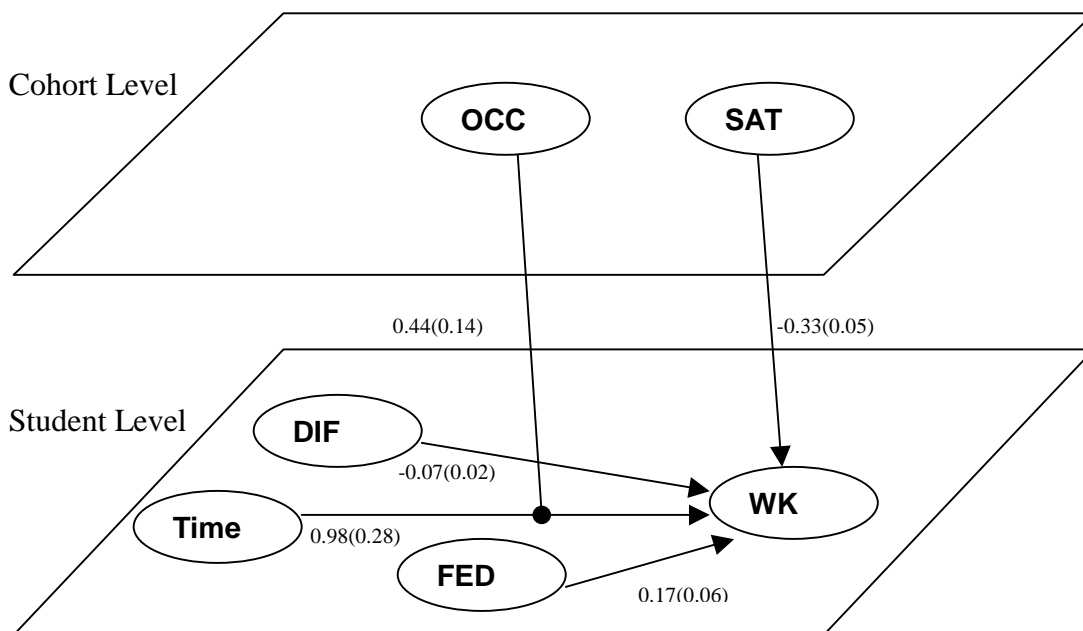


Figure 1. Two level model of word knowledge: Model 1 (grouped by cohort)

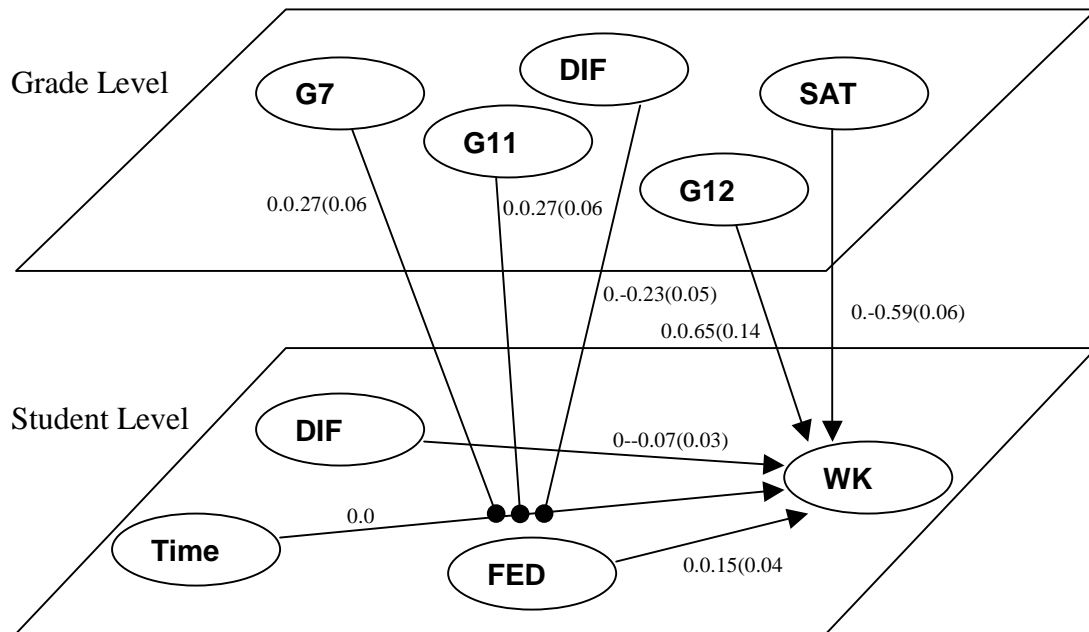


Figure 2. Two level model of word knowledge: Model 2 (grouped by grade)

DISCUSSION

The most striking result from Model 1 was the role played by career aspirations at the cohort level in influencing boys' educational progress over time, with rate of progress influenced by the average occupational aspiration of the cohort group. While the relationship between career aspirations and achievement has been well established in single sex secondary schools (Lee and Bryk, 1986; Foon, 1988; Cairns, 1990; Lee and Marks, 1990; Trice *et al.*, 1996), this study clearly indicated that the findings also hold for boys from a single sex school background at both primary and secondary levels, following the changeover to a coeducational context. The significant and influential role played by the cohort group over time became evident only when the inherent nested, hierarchical nature of the student data was taken into account (Rowe and Rowe, 2002; Rowe, Turner and Lane, 2002). The potential of multilevel analyses to reveal these hitherto hidden relationships has important implications for research in single sex/coeducational school learning environments in which differences at the individual, group and school levels must be taken into account (Mael, 1998; Rowe and Rowe, 2002). Future studies should examine whether these cohort effects are confined to boys or whether girls are equally affected.

Relationships between boys' further education plans, perceptions of difficulty of schoolwork and educational progress at the individual student level found in this study are not surprising. Trends towards boys' lower achievement (particularly in literacy), lower rates of engagement, poorer retention rates and lower participation rates in higher education have been evident in Australia since the 1980s (Cresswell, Rowe and Withers, 2002). However, results from earlier studies of classroom climate (Haertel, *et al.*, 1981) would suggest that cohesiveness and friction should have been significant factors and that the student satisfaction with school life should have been positively related to learning outcomes (Ainley, 1991; Epstein and McPartland, 1976; Fine, 1986). While structural equation modelling analyses of this longitudinal data do confirm the significant role played by these three variables (Yates, 2003), the HLM analyses indicate that over time, boys' perceptions of cohesiveness and friction in the coeducational environment are not influenced significantly by cohort and grade clustering effects. In the latter case, relationships between student satisfaction and achievement have been documented at the secondary school level. This study focussed on boys, grouped by cohort and grade, across primary and secondary

levels and tapped their perceptions of the school rather than the classroom. Previous analyses of this longitudinal data have shown boys' satisfaction with school life to decrease across Grade levels and WK scores to increase (Yates, 2001b, 2002b). In general, boys in the higher grade levels are less satisfied with school than boys in the lower grades, a trend confirmed in several studies (see, Gentry, Gable and Rizza, 2002).

The question of whether it is more effective for boys to be educated in single sex schools or within coeducational environments has been raised for some considerable time (OERI, 1993; AAUW 1998; Mael, 1998). The positive relationship evident between Time and WK in Model 1 in this study would lend support to the effectiveness of coeducation. Overall, boys' WK scores increased significantly over time, not only during the immediate period of the transition from single sex education to coeducation but in the ensuing year. However, the relationship between time and WK was influenced by the occupational aspirations of the cohort group to which students were assigned at T1. The influence of these cohort groups, emanating from a single sex educational context, clearly needs further exploration. In Model 2 there is a consistent pattern of higher achievement for boys in Grades 7, 11 and 12 on all three occasions. While the higher achievement in Grade 7 is less easy to explain, boys in Grades 11 and 12 are involved in the publicly accountable South Australian Certificate of Education. The influence of such external factors also suggests avenues for further research.

This study makes a significant contribution to understanding some of the factors that influence boys' learning outcomes following a period of educational reform. Perceptions of elements of school climate were important determiners of boys' progress in the changeover from single sex to coeducation at both the student and group level, but equally, educational and career aspirations of primary and secondary boys were significant. The use of the Hierarchical Linear Modelling analytical procedure allowed for the investigation of these causal factors operating not only at the individual student level but also at the cohort and grade levels over time. Furthermore, the measures were taken across boys at both the primary and secondary school levels within the school. The longitudinal nature of the study allowed for the factors to be measured across three years following the changeover from single sex education to coeducation.

This is a single study of a single school captured during a period of institutional change, with measurement confined to boys attending an independent school. Clearly there is a need to replicate the study with a more representative sample to determine the extent to which the findings are generalisable. In addition, further research into the effects of group level factors on school learning environments is required for boys and girls in single sex and coeducational settings.

Acknowledgments

1. Professor John Keeves for his advice and encouragement.
2. I Gusti Ngurah Darmawan for invaluable assistance with data analyses.
3. Research assistants John Harris and Dianne Harris.
4. The research was supported by two Australian Research Council Small Grants and a Flinders University Small Grant.

REFERENCES

- Adams, R.J. and Khoo, S.K. (1994) *Quest: The interactive test analysis system*. Hawthorn, Victoria: ACER.
- Ainley, J. (1991) High school factors that influence students to remain in school. *The Journal of Educational Research*, 85, 69-80.

- American Association of University Women (1998) *Separated by Sex: A Critical Look at Single sex Education for Girls*. Washington, DC: American Association of University Women Educational Foundation
- Anderson, G. J. and Walberg, H. J. (1974) Learning environments. In H. J. Walberg (Ed.), *Evaluating educational performance: A sourcebook of methods, instruments, and examples*. Berkeley: McCutchan.
- Bauch, P. (1989) *Single sex schooling and women's education*. (ERIC document 3148590).
- Bone, A. (1983) *Girls and girls only schools: A review of the evidence* (report to the Equal Opportunities Commission of the United Kingdom, Vol. 1). Manchester, England: Equal Opportunities Commission
- Brutsaert, H. and Bracke, P. (1994) *Lessons form New American Schools' scale up phase*. Santa Monica, CA: Rand.
- Bryk, A. S. and Raudenbusch, S. (1988) Toward a more appropriate conceptualisation of research on school effects: A three level hierarchical linear model. *American Journal of Education*, 97, 65-108.
- Bryk, A. S. and Raudenbusch, S. (1992) *Hierarchical linear models: Applications and data analysis methods*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Cairns, E. (1990) The relationship between adolescent perceived self-confidence and attendance at single sex secondary school. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 60, 207-211.
- Caspi, A. (1995) Puberty and gender organization of schools: How biology and social context shape the adolescent experience. In L. J. Crockett and A. C. Crouter (Eds.), *Pathways through adolescence; Individual development in relation to social contexts*. Mahwah, NJ; Erlbaum. pp 57-74.
- Cresswell, J. Rowe, K. and Withers, G. (2002) *Boys in school and society*. Melbourne: Australian Council for Educational Research.
- Epstein J. and McPartland, J. M. (1986) The concept and measurement of the quality of school life. *American Education Research Journal* 13, 15-30.
- Fine, M. (1986) Why urban adolescents drop into and out of public high school. *Teachers College Record*, 87, 393-409.
- Finn, J. (1980) Sex differences in educational outcomes: A cross-national study. *Sex Roles*, 6, (1), 9-25.
- Foon, A (1988) The relationship between school type and adolescent self esteem, attribution styles and affiliation needs: implications for educational outcome. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 58, 44-54.
- Fraser, B. J. (1994) Research on classroom and school climate. In D. Gabel (Ed.), *Handbook of research on science teaching and learning*. (pp. 493-541) New York: Macmillan).
- Fraser, B. J. (1998) Science learning environments: Assessment, effects and determinants. In B. J. Fraser and K. G. Tobin (Eds.), *The international handbook of science education* (pp. 527-564). Dordrecht, The Netherlands: Kluwer.
- Fraser, B. J., Anderson, G. J. and Walberg, H. J. (1982) *Assessment of learning environments: Manual for Learning Environment Inventory (LEI) and MY Class Inventory (MCI)* (third version) Perth: Western Australian Institute of Technology.
- Fraser, B. J., Welch, W. W., Hattie J. A. and Walberg, H. J. (1987) Syntheses of educational productivity research. *International Journal of Educational Research*, 11, 147-252.
- Fisher, D. L. and Fraser, B. J. (1981). Validity and use of My Class Inventory. *Science Education*, 65, 145-156.
- Gentry, M., Gable, R. K. and Rizza, M. G. (2002). Students' perceptions of classroom activities: Are there grade-level and gender differences? *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 94(3), 539-544.

- Haag, P. (2000) *K-12 Single-sex education: What does the research say?* ERIC /EECE Document EDO-PS-00-9.
- Haertel, G. D., Walberg, H. J. and Heartel, E. H. (1981) Socio-psychological environments and learning: A quantitative synthesis. *British Educational Research Journal*, 7, 27 -36.
- Harker, R. (2000) Achievement, gender and the single sex/coed debate. *British Journal of Sociology of Education*. 21, (2), 203-218.
- Harker, R. and Nash, R. (1997) *School type and the education of girls: Coed or girls only?* Paper delivered at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Chicago, IL.
- Hawley, R. (1993) The case for boys schools. In D. K. Hollinger and R. Adamson (Eds.), *Single sex schooling: Proponents speak*. Washington, DC: US Department of Education. pp 11-14.
- Hofman, R. H., Hofman, W. H. and Guldemond, H. (2001) Social context effects on pupils' perceptions of school. *Learning and Instruction*, 11, (3), 171-194.
- Jackson, C. and Smith, I. D. (2000) Poles apart? An exploration of single-sex and mixed sex educational environments in Australia and England. *Educational Studies*, 26, (4). 4090305-56983972188.
- Jimenez, E. and Lockheed, M. E. (1989) Enhancing girls' learning through single sex education: Evidence and a policy conundrum. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 11, (2), 117-142.
- Kenway, J. and Willis, S. (1986) Feminist single-sex educational strategies: Some theoretical flaws and practical fallacies. *Discourse*, 7, 1-30.
- Lawrie, L and Brown, R. (1992) Sex stereotypes, school subject preferences and career aspirations as a function of single/mixed sex schooling and the presence/absence of an opposite sex sibling. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 62, 132-138.
- Lee, V. E. and Bryk, A. S. (1986) Effects of single-sex secondary schools on student achievement and attitudes, *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 78, 381-395.
- Lee, V. E. and Marks, H. M. (1990) Sustained efforts of the single-sex secondary experience on attitudes, behaviors and sex differences. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 82, (3), 588.
- LePore, P. C. and Warren, J. R. (1997) A comparison of single sex and coeducational Catholic secondary schooling: Evidence from the National Educational Longitudinal Study of 1988. *American Educational Research Journal*, 34, (3), 485-511.
- Mael, F. A. (1998) Single-sex and coeducational schooling: Relationships to socioemotional and academic development. *Review of Educational Research*, 68, (2), 101-129.
- Marsh, H. W. (1989) Effects of attending single-sex and coeducational high schools on achievement, attitudes, behaviours and sex differences. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 81, 70-85.
- Marsh, H. W. and Rowe, K. (1996) The effects of single-sex and mixed-sex mathematics classes within a coeducational school: A re-analysis. *Australian Journal of Education*, 40, 147-162.
- Marsh, H. W., Smith I. D., Marsh, M., and Owens, L. (1988) The transition from single-sex to coeducational high schools: Effects on multiple dimensions of self-concept and on academic achievement. *American Educational Research Journal*, 25, 237-269.
- McGough, M. (1991) Romeboys. *The New Republic*, pp 13-16.
- Moos, R. H. (1974) *The social climate scales: An overview*. Palo Alto, California: Consulting Psychologists Press.
- Moore, M., Piper, V. and Scheafer, E. (1993) Single sex schooling and educational effectiveness: A research overview. In D. K. Hollinger (Ed.), *Single sex schooling: Perspectives from practice and research*. Washington, DC: US Department of Education. pp 7-68.
- Norusis, M. J. / SPSS Inc. (1993) *SPSS for windows base system user's guide release 6.0*. Chicago, Ill: SPSS Inc.

- Office of Educational Research and Improvement. (1993) *Single-Sex Schooling: Perspectives from Practice and Research, 1*, 17-18. U.S. Department of Education.
- Petruzella, B. (1995) *Self-esteem for adolescent girls: a study of school influences in private school settings*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Ohio: Ohio State University.
- Pollard, D. S. (1999) *Single Sex Education. WEEA Digest*. Newton, MA: Education Development Centre.
- Rasch, G. (1966) An item analysis which takes individual differences into account. *British Journal of Mathematical and Statistical Psychology*, 19, 49-57.
- Raudenbush, S., Bryk, A. and Congdon, R. (2000) *HLM5 Hierarchical linear and nonlinear modelling*. Scientific Software International.
- Reisman, D. (1991) A margin of difference; the case for single sex education. In J. R. Blau (Ed.), *Social roles and social institutions*. Boulder, CO: Westview Press. pp. 241-257.
- Richardson, C. (1999) *Stability and consistency in students' VCE achievements, 1994-1998*. Paper presented at the 1999 AARE-NZARE Annual Conference of the Australian and New Zealand Associations for Research in Education, Melbourne Convention Centre, November 29 - December 2, 1999 (RIC99670).
- Riordan, C. (1993). The case for single sex schools In D. K. Hollinger and R. Adamson (Eds.), *Single sex schooling: Proponents speak*. Washington, DC: US Department of Education. pp 47-53.
- Rowe, K. J. (1988) Single-sex and mixed-sex classes: The effects of class type on student achievement, confidence and participation in mathematics. *Australian Journal of Education*, 32, 180-202.
- Rowe, K.J. (1999) *VCE data project (1994-1998): Concepts, issues, directions and specifications*. A research and evaluation project conducted for the Board of Studies, Victoria. Centre for Applied Educational Research, The University of Melbourne.
- Rowe, K.J. (2000) Celebrating coeducation? Maybe, but not necessarily for academic achievement! An examination of the emergent research evidence. Invited keynote address presented at the second National Conference on Co-education, Kinross Wolaroi school, Orange, New South Wales, April 16-19,
- Rowe, K. J. and Rowe, (2002) *What matters most: Evidence-based findings of key factors affecting the educational experiences and outcomes for girls and boys throughout their primary and secondary schooling*. Supplementary submission to the House of Representatives Standing Committee on Education and Training: *Inquiry Into the Education of Boys*.
- Rowe, K. J., Turner, R. and Lane, K. (2002) Performance feedback to schools of students' Year 12 assessments: *The VCE Data Project*. In A. J. Visscher and R Coe (Eds.), *School improvement through performance feedback*. (pp163-190). Lisse: the nNetherlands: Swetz and Zeitlinger.
- Smith, I. D. (1996) *The impact of coeducational schooling on student self-concept and achievement*. Paper presented at the biennial meeting of the International Society for the Study of Behavioural Development, Quebec. ED 400 090.
- Spielhofer, T., O'Donnell, L., Benton, T., Schagen, S. and Schagen, I. (2002) *The impact of school size and single sex education on performance* (LGA Research Report 33). Slough: NFER.
- Steinbeck, M. and Gwizdala, J. (1995) Gender differences in mathematics attitudes of secondary school students. *School Science and Mathematics*. 95, (1), 36-42.
- Streitmatter, J. L. (1999) *For girls only: Making the case for single sex schooling*. Albany: SUNY Press.
- Thorndike, R. L. (1973) *Reading comprehension in fifteen countries*. New York, Wiley: and Stockholm: Almqvist and Wiksell.

- Trice , A. D., Naudu, A., Lowe, M. and Jaffee, H. (1996) Men's college classroom environments. *Education*, 116, (4), 572-576.
- Tyack, D and Hansof, E. (1990) *Learning Together: A History of Coeducation in American Schools*. New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.
- Von Eye, M. *Structural Equation Modelling*. (2001) Workshop presented at the 9th European Association for Research in Learning and Instruction, Fribourg, Switzerland, 27 August.
- Watts, C. E. (1994, 27 June) Citadel fights for freedom, not machismo. *Insight*, p. 37.
- Willis, R. and Kenway, J. (1986) On overcoming sexism in schooling: To marginalise or mainstream. *Australian Journal of Education*, 30, 132-149.
- Woodward, L .J., Fergusson, D. M. and Horwood, L. J. (1999) Effects of single-sex and coeducational schooling on children's academic achievement. *Australian Journal of Education*, 43, (2), 142-156
- Yates, S. M. (2000) *Student optimism and pessimism during the transition to co-education*. Presented at the annual conference of the Australian Association for Research in Education, Sydney, December. www.aare.edu.au/00pap/yat0439.htm
- Yates, S. M. (2001a) *Students' educational achievement and perceptions during the transition from single sex to co-education*. Paper presented at the 9th European Association for Research in Learning and Instruction, Fribourg, Switzerland, 29 August.
- Yates, S. M. (2001b) Students' achievement and perceptions of school climate during the transition from single sex to coeducation. *International Education Journal*, 2, (4), *Educational Research Conference 2001 Special Issue*
- Yates, S. M. (2002a) *Boys' academic progress during the reform of two single sex schools into co-educational schools*. Paper presented at the Second International Forum on Education Reform: Key Factors in Effective implementation, Bangkok, Thailand, 4th September.
- Yates, S. M. (2002b) Stepping from single sex to coeducation: Boys' progress and perceptions during the restructuring. *International Education Journal*, 3, (4), *Educational Research Conference 2002 Special Issue*.
- Yates, S. M. (2003). *Gender differences in perceptions of school climate: A longitudinal study of school reform*. Proceedings of the New Zealand Association for Research in Education/Australian Association for Research in Education Joint Conference, Auckland, New Zealand.
- Young, D. J. and Fraser, B. J. (1990) *Sex differences in science achievement: A multilevel analysis*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco.

Lessons on Plagiarism: Issues for Teachers and Learners

Regina Anyanwu

Flinders University regina.anyanwu@flinders.edu.au

While student difficulty with academic referencing is not new, it is apparent that many tertiary students are not skilled in following referencing conventions, are confused about what does and does not constitute plagiarism in the eyes of academics, and are fearful of the consequences. This paper begins by examining the cases of a number of students at an Australian university who have been suspected of academic dishonesty. It examines the students' prior instruction on academic referencing, and their understanding of the plagiarism policy of the university concerned. It also examines the feedback that staff have given the students concerned and how useful that has been from the students' perspectives. While researching this topic, issues relating to how suspected plagiarism cases are handled emerged. This paper is an initial exploration of some of the issues that arise when handling referencing and plagiarism at tertiary institutions, which affect both students and staff.

plagiarism, referencing, plagiarism policy, academic dishonesty, cultural difference

INTRODUCTION

The current climate of heightened sensitivity towards plagiarism in our universities appears to be increasing the anxiety and confusion surrounding the issue. There has been recent discussion of how universities can improve the detection rates of plagiarism, and best deal with students who plagiarise (Zobel and Hamilton, 2003). However, there has been less examination of the students who have breached plagiarism policies because of a lack of understanding about acceptable and unacceptable citation practices, the students' perceptions of plagiarism, their skill in applying referencing techniques and their reactions to being part of a plagiarism investigation at tertiary level. This study is exploratory in nature. It examines the cases of two students who were sent to an academic adviser for assistance and clarification of academic citation conventions. An Academic Rights Officer who is involved with plagiarism investigations provided a third case study as well as insight into the complexity of the issues. Finally, from interviews, academic staff members of a university department also provided other perspectives to this investigation.

An academic adviser's perspective

One aspect of every academic adviser's work is to explain and clarify academic referencing conventions. The author has been told by a number of students of their confusion about referencing and fear of being accused of plagiarism. Many students clearly do not understand the boundaries of acceptable and unacceptable use of source material when writing assignments. At the two extremes, some students over-quote but reference correctly, relying so heavily on texts that there is little or no evidence of their own thoughts on the topic, and few of their own words, while others show little understanding of the need to acknowledge sources at all, and attempts at paraphrasing are minimal.

While it is not an academic adviser's role to judge whether students have deliberately presented somebody else's work as their own or not, it is certainly the impression of this author that many students have a very poor grasp of academic referencing conventions and how to apply them. It was also apparent that the students in the case studies to follow were distressed by the investigation into their work and were keen to improve their understanding of referencing and plagiarism, improve their grades, and continue their studies. Why are students going through plagiarism investigation procedures when their problem seems clearly to indicate a lack of knowledge about referencing conventions? What effect does it have on students to be accused of plagiarism if they do not fully understand it and why is it happening?

METHOD

This paper will initially present two case studies: the first, a local undergraduate Humanities students, and the second, an international postgraduate student. Then a third case study, provided by the Academic Rights Officer, (a composite of a number of cases the officer has been involved in), will highlight some of the factors which typically contribute to the complexity of dealing with plagiarism. All of the respondents were interviewed in person, with follow-up clarification on the telephone. Face-to-face and telephone interviews were also conducted with a number of academic staff members, specifically because the school was recommended to the author as an example of a likely model that deals very thoroughly with academic referencing and plagiarism. All the interviews were conducted between July and October 2003. For the sake of anonymity and simplicity of language, all interviewees in this research will remain anonymous and be referred to as 'she'.

Case Study 1: Local Humanities Undergraduate

Student A is a second year, local Humanities undergraduate who had never before been questioned on her referencing. She was unaware of any problem until she received a formal letter from her lecturer (three weeks after submission of her paper) saying that she had breached academic conventions relating to citation, and informing her of the procedures which must ensue, as outlined in the University's Academic Dishonesty Policy; an interview with academic staff, possibly academic counselling, or other steps as deemed necessary. Two months later, Student A received a letter from the Head of Department inviting her to attend an interview in the presence of the lecturer-in-charge of the topic to resolve the issue. According to the Head of Department, it was the opinion of the assessor that the incorrect referencing was not a result of ignorance or misunderstanding of the conventions.

A week after the interview, the Head of Department sent her a letter stating that it was her opinion that the breaches were a result of ignorance and misunderstanding, and offered her the opportunity to resubmit the assignment. The Head also pointed out that the incident would be recorded on a register, which would be referred to if a further incident or accusation occurred in the future.

In Student A's assignment the following types of academic breaches were identified:

- Quotes were used without quotation marks but with accurate citation (4 instances).
- Quotes were used without quotation marks but with reference to the wrong source (18 instances).
- Quotes were taken from a source but not cited (13 instances).
- Paraphrasing was used, but without reference.
- Items were missing from the reference list.

Having been given an opportunity to resubmit, the student came to see an academic adviser to ensure that her new version met the requirements. This time, she overcompensated by referencing both within and at the end of the same sentences. Other errors suggested that this student did not pay much attention to detail when proofreading, and either did not recognise simple errors or did not proofread at all.

Of the whole process, Student A said,

It's so scary. I thought I was going to be kicked out. My tutor told me I wouldn't get kicked out, the worst that would happen would be that I'd fail the topic but I was still scared.

Despite the fact that expulsion is very unlikely in such a case, the fact that the policy states that expulsion is a possible outcome means that students may suffer severe distress as they await to hear the results of their investigation, fearing that their academic career (and plans for their future) may come to a shameful halt.

Case Study 2: International Student in Health Sciences

Student B is an international student of Asian descent in the Health Sciences. She submitted an assignment and waited for her lecturer to return it. She realised that some of her fellow students had had their assignments returned, others had not. The lecturer had said that she 'was busy'. After two months of waiting, Student B went to the lecturer's office and saw her assignment on her desk, marked 'F-plagiarism'. The lecturer then explained the referencing problems, showed Student B the University's policy on plagiarism, read part of it to her and gave her the opportunity to resubmit the paper, which she did, after seeking assistance on referencing from an academic adviser.

Student B had commenced her course a few weeks later than her fellow students and had missed out on background information about the course. She had not had any previous problems with referencing in her home country and had not realised that there were different referencing requirements in Australia. Student B said that each of her lecturers had mentioned referencing and had shown the students where to get information on it. They had not shown examples of correct practice, nor had they explained how to paraphrase. Plagiarism had been mentioned as a 'big issue' in Australian universities. Student B said she had looked briefly at the university's Academic Dishonesty Policy but had thought that she had understood what was required as she had not had any problem meeting the referencing requirements in her previous course in her home country, where (according to her) students were not required to cite sources in-text, but only supply a bibliography.

In nursing in [country withheld], the professor knows the information comes from other text books, just at the end of our paper, we make our reference list. We don't use in-text referencing...In my university's case, ... nursing should be based on text books. Nursing is a very scientific area, so we should use books from the library. This nursing course is more academic and cautious. [Our country] is more practical.

Student B's main complaint about the handling of her case was the amount of stress and extra work that the delay caused her.

I'm not upset by my mark, I'm upset by my late response. [If it had been earlier] I might have done my other assignments better. At that time I was doing another subject with the same lecturer – the problem happened with my other assignment too. I did every assignment twice...I had to do assignments all of my holidays.

Student B had to resubmit a total of five assignments due to lack of in-text referencing because her lecturer did not return her assignment promptly, nor alert her of the problems with referencing. Meanwhile, she had submitted four other assignments. Student B now understands what is expected of her regarding academic citation and believes that certain measures could be taken to help overseas students particularly

...a special lecture, compulsory for overseas students [on referencing and plagiarism]...I think there should be a time limit for lecturers to return work...students have a duty for submission, so should lecturers.

Case Study 3: Local Student from Non-English Background

Student C, a local student from a non-English speaking background was completing the final semester of her study for her undergraduate degree. At the same time, she was experiencing some very serious difficulties in her personal life. She was also in part-time employment. Student C received a letter from her lecturer to discuss an apparent breach of the university's Academic Dishonesty Policy. Student C sent a number of emails and calls to contact the lecturer but did not receive a reply so she waited, unsure of what to do next, getting increasingly stressed.

After one month of waiting, the student contacted the Academic Rights Officer, who discovered that the lecturer had experienced a personal tragedy, and had taken sudden leave, and that in the rush to reschedule lectures, delegate marking and so on, the plagiarism matter had been overlooked. The Head of Department was most apologetic, once aware of the oversight. A fortnight later, the lecturer was back at work. The Academic Dishonesty case was referred to the Head of Department as the lecturer was satisfied that:

the plagiarism (a paragraph that was indented but not referenced and was directly from a website) was a deliberate attempt to mislead the School...The meeting with the Head of School was difficult because the student felt under siege and was in an extremely distressed state as a result of the weeks of waiting, the nature of the allegations and the difficulties they were experiencing at home (Academic Rights Officer).

Perspectives of Academic Staff

The information gathered from interviews with academic staff offered new insights into the complexity of plagiarism issues. It also showed that while some authors (Briggs, 2003) see referencing as a skill that must be explicitly taught and learnt, some disciplines see it as an integral part of the profession itself. Therefore, how an Academic Dishonesty Policy is interpreted and carried out within a university may vary from department to department and from one staff member to another.

Professionalism

For some departments, academic honesty is strongly linked to the concept of professionalism. For example, law professionals are expected to be honest and to respect and uphold legal principles and policies. Law graduates are asked about their record of academic honesty before being admitted to the bar (their professional body). For this reason, some academic staff members go to considerable lengths to teach students to reference appropriately, with referencing exercises and discussions on plagiarism and the university's policy on plagiarism being incorporated into first year units so that no student can claim to be ignorant of the concepts. The university department has designated staff members whose responsibility it is to deal with suspected incidents of plagiarism that may arise. Staff members are aware of the plagiarism procedures and are required to register all instances of suspected plagiarism. Despite the above measures, there have still been

students within this department who have claimed they did not understand how to reference appropriately or understand what was regarded as plagiarism. One staff member said:

It really has been taught pretty thoroughly. ...It's hard ...to see how students could have good reason to say they don't know what plagiarism is or how it works, because if they don't understand then they are urged to ask to check with staff, and quite often, students do. (Lecturer D)

Interestingly, this lecturer expressed concern that she did not pick up as many cases of plagiarism as some other lecturers did.

There are some people it seems, who are better at picking up plagiarism than others...If people haven't referenced properly of course, I do think it is important. On the other hand, I'm more intent on picking up the content...I think also if you have a very good memory it might help. I feel a bit defensive ...picking up plagiarism is not one of my strong points, and if a student had me they might get to second year without [being pulled up]...I would hate to think that some students went on to plagiarise later [and I hadn't picked them up]. (Lecturer D)

Another lecturer reported that on occasions when she has found that students had taken shortcuts and deliberately plagiarised in the haste to finish assignments on time, her approach had been to tell them that they had now learnt something about themselves, that is, that under pressure they behave dishonestly, and that this may well be carried into their professional practice. She hopes that this will encourage students to consider seriously their actions and the possible implications for their futures (Lecturer F).

In other programs, the sense of professionalism may not exist to the same degree. Staff and students may not see upholding principles of academic honesty as being as critical to the students' future. McCabe, for example, suggests that business students are more likely to cheat than those in art or history courses. In the business culture, he says, "It's not how you achieve the result – it's whether you get the result" (Richardson, 2003, p.9). The consequences of taking risks in using someone else's work without appropriate acknowledgment may not seem so dire. Similarly, the need to teach about referencing conventions and to set out clear procedures in schools for dealing with it may not seem equally important across disciplines.

ISSUES ARISING FROM THE THREE CASE STUDIES

The following issues arise from the three case studies.

1. How could Student A reach second year before being questioned on her referencing techniques when her work exhibited more than 35 breaches of citation conventions, and she said this particular piece of work was of her usual standard?
2. Student A said that referencing had been mentioned by several of her lecturers in the past but that none had explained it at length to give her the understanding that she now knew she was expected to have.
3. How can one lecturer view the work and decide that the plagiarism was deliberate, and yet another decided that it was a result of a misunderstanding?
4. Student B made the same breaches in four more assignments because she was not made aware of the first breach until after submitting four other assignments, making her to resubmit a total of five assignments (justice delayed amounting to justice denied).
5. Student B commenced her course a few weeks late and did not receive all the necessary information given to other students.

6. Student B was referred to the university's Academic Dishonesty Policy and information on referencing but nobody spent time explaining the content in detail to her.
7. Student B had different referencing requirements in the same program from her home country and had assumed that the requirements were the same in the same in Australia.
8. The time taken to resolve cases was unduly long.
 - a. Student A waited two months after being notified of the breach by her lecturer before being interviewed by the Head of Department.
 - b. Student B's lecturer failed to notify her of any problem with her referencing, and did not return her assignment. After waiting two months for her assignment, Student B finally approached her lecturer.
 - c. Student C's case took five to six weeks to resolve because it was overlooked when her lecturer had to take sudden and unexpected leave.
9. Students may not be aware of services provided by an Academic Rights Officer or may not feel comfortable in asserting their rights as students (for example, to get assignments returned to them in a reasonable time).
10. All students talked of the stress caused by waiting to find out what was going to happen next, while Student B spent her holidays re-doing her assignments.
11. The university's Academic Dishonesty Policy allows for two possible findings concerning plagiarism.
 - a. That plagiarism is a direct result of a deliberate attempt by a student to mislead (commonly referred to as a **deliberate** finding).
 - b. That plagiarism is a direct result of the student not understanding academic conventions when it comes to referencing (commonly referred to as a **misunderstanding of academic conventions** finding).
12. There is no allowance in the Policy for a finding of understanding the citation conventions or making an oversight due to stress, haste or lack of due care, as was the case of Student C.
13. Cases are handled differently by different staff.
 - a. Student A had many breaches and was found to have deliberately plagiarised by her lecturer, and then it was found by the Head of School that the breaches were a result of misunderstanding.
 - b. Student B had many breaches but it was handled (not very promptly) at the lecturer level.
 - c. Student C clearly demonstrated that she knew how to reference but had omitted to give one citation and the matter was (eventually) referred to the Head of Department, who found that the Policy did not really cater for an oversight due to stress, and decided that of the two options, a misunderstanding of academic conventions was better of the two options for this case.

A Moral or an Educational Issue?

Whether staff see plagiarism as a deliberate immoral act or are willing to consider that inaccurate or poor citation practices may simply be evidence of a lack of understanding of citation techniques or inexperience in negotiating a position in a discourse community (Rose, 1996) is likely to affect how sympathetic they are to the students who breach policy. It would appear that academic staff often assume that it is enough to direct students to where the university's Academic Dishonesty

Policy can be found, and to where referencing information is located, rather than take the time to explain, elaborate, give examples, and provide practice in using source material, selecting quotes, or paraphrasing.

It is often then presumed by staff that students have read the university's Academic Dishonesty Policy, have understood what plagiarism is (as defined in the policy), and fully understood the purpose and techniques of academic referencing (as practiced in Australia). Therefore, it is also assumed that any students who have not referenced correctly have made a deliberate attempt to pass off someone else's work as their own. Furthermore, to complicate matters, many referencing guides simply do not provide enough information or examples to help students to make, as Rose (1996, p.35) states,

...informed choices about when, where and how to refer to which existing literature in any field of study; they also, in their attempts to be comprehensive, are limited to offering only the most generalised advice.

The matter is often further complicated when staff do not offer good modelling of referencing in their handbooks. When students are not sure what is expected of them, they are often told to refer back to their unit handbooks for guidance. However, it is not uncommon to see inconsistent referencing styles in reading lists and other work put together by staff. If, as staff members we do not pay attention to referencing details ourselves, how can we penalise students for doing the same?

Staff members "often make assumptions about students' pre-existing referencing and other skills when students do not have them or have never had the opportunity to acquire them" (Mackinnon and Manathunga 2002, p.141). It would be reasonable to assume that, for example, many mature age entry students who have been working for a long time and have been out of school environment for most of their adult life would have little knowledge of academic citation practices when they write their first assignments. Many international students come from cultures where using published authors' works is a sign of respect and there is a high degree of shared knowledge (Matalene, 1985, cited in Chanock, 2003, p.24). Student B faced problems because in her previous course, it was assumed that all information came from textbooks, and as long as the information was correct and she included a bibliography that was sufficient to satisfy her lecturers. It is not safe to assume that students magically gain an understanding of academic writing conventions when they take on the identity of a student at an Australian university. Steps must be taken to teach all students, including those most likely to fall through the gaps, such as those arriving a few weeks late, those coming in the second or third year of their courses, and so on of the expectations of university writing and citation guidelines.

The problem with the moralistic attitude underpinning policies of plagiarism is that such moralism is so institutionalised - and so easily offended - that we are prone to forget the very straightforward and obvious idea that plagiarism constitutes a learning and communication problem too. (Briggs, 2003, pp.22-23)

It should be pointed out that some academic staff members are obviously more sympathetic than others. For example, one staff member interviewed did not see first year students inadvertently breaching the university's policy on plagiarism as an issue. She saw counselling of such students as part of the educative process. For this staff member, the recording of the counselling of students was evidence of plagiarism procedures having been followed, so that staff members knew what had occurred and how it was dealt with, in case there was a future breach involving the same student (Lecturer F). However, some Heads of Department demand that all cases must be handled by them and one is cited as deliberately frightening students as a technique to stop them from doing it again, knowing that she does not intend to take the matter further (Academic Rights Officer).

We should bear in mind that recognising that appropriate referencing is a writing technique that is learned has implications for the university's responsibility to teach that technique, if the expectation is that all students will demonstrate that skill. The most effective way to ensure that all students receive instruction on these skills is to incorporate them into the pedagogical program (Briggs, 2003, p.22). Care should be taken to ensure that students who commence late or students who arrive to complete only a part of their program in Australia do not get overlooked.

Time and workload issues

Another identified factor which may account for how different lecturers deal with suspected plagiarism is the time and amount of work involved in chasing up original sources and checking students' work against the original works if they choose to adhere strictly to procedures outlined in the university's policy. Plagiarism cases tend to occur most, at times of peak pressure, when students are struggling to finish work before due dates, and lecturers are deluged with setting examination questions, marking and finalising grades. Where plagiarism procedures are clear, the whole procedure takes a matter of a few weeks. However, the most time-consuming part falls on the lecturer, who must trace the original works used by the student to determine if there is a problem with plagiarism or not. When staff are under pressure to mark large numbers of assignments, it would be easy to understand why some may choose either to ignore a minor breach or to simply deal with it individually without following strict procedure, rather than spend a week or so chasing up original sources for just one assignment (Lecturer F). Others, according to the Academic Rights Officer, prefer to pass a suspected breach of plagiarism case to their Head of Department for more formal resolution, and not risk being involved in a university scandal focusing on the mishandling of plagiarism, which may receive much media attention and which could cost them their careers.

Student reactions and their implications for staff

Many students react quite strongly to the suggestion that they have plagiarised. According to Lecturer F, some students are very angry, many are embarrassed, most deny having plagiarised, and there are many in tears.

These students are usually under great pressure. We have standards to maintain, and in that context, we try to (be) as fair and as open as possible, in terms of a supportive environment. (Lecturer F)

However, it was also suggested that in some cases, staff members who report incidences of suspected plagiarism have suffered from students subsequently giving negative feedback, affecting staff evaluations, critical to furthering an academic career.

Student attitudes towards plagiarism

It must also be appreciated that explaining the importance of appropriate referencing techniques in Australian tertiary institutions, taking time to demonstrate and giving practice exercises are not always easy, even for those staff who are dedicated to doing so. It has been the author's experience that in communication skills programs in some professional fields in which students do not generally perceive writing or communication as an important component of their future career, students tend to see the topic as boring, tedious and irrelevant. Some students switch off almost as soon as the topic is introduced.

It can also be difficult for lecturers to convey to students how seriously Australian tertiary institutions take academic dishonesty. Williams (2002, p.2) talks of the difficulty of discussing plagiarism with students in the first session with a new class.

One minute you are the caring, dedicated, nurturing teacher, the next it is the firing squad at dawn, metaphorically, if they fall foul of School policy on plagiarism.

It would be simplistic, then, to simply blame all academic staff for not taking enough time to explain the importance giving to referencing and academic honesty. Students must also be willing listeners.

CONCLUSION

In the opinion of the author, it is not reasonable for a university to punish students for breaches of a plagiarism policy if the skills required for understanding that policy have not been taught explicitly to all students, and the students provided with the opportunity to practise those skills and have them evaluated and commented upon by academic staff. It is also important for university staff to distinguish between breaches of the Academic Dishonesty Policy that are a deliberate attempt to use another person's work and to pass it off as one's own, and breaches which are a result of students' misunderstanding of citation practices and their inexperience as academic writers. Plagiarism policies need to allow for a range of reasons for breaches of policy, and to be equitable; there must be uniformity in how cases are dealt with across the university. In order to achieve this, universities must provide training for academic staff and teach students thoroughly about referencing and plagiarism as well as utilise staff within the university, such as academic advisers, who are already experienced in this area. Key staff should be identified in each university department to whom all breaches of policy can be referred so that a more uniform approach is taken. Trained staff are needed in each School who understand that academic citation practice is neither 'natural' nor 'universal' but something that must be taught and practised, and which may require a considerable shift in thinking about respect and authorship.

Staff members have an obligation to deal with cases within a reasonable time to reduce unnecessary stress on students while they await their fate. In order to reduce the considerable workload on academic staff in chasing up original works, students could be required to keep copies of their information sources until their work has been marked and returned, by which time any suspected plagiarism would have been identified, and staff could request to see cited works if required for checking.

Overall, this exploratory study has revealed how complex the issue of plagiarism is at universities. It also shows that funding must be set aside to plan and implement strategies that will address the problem in a more uniform manner across disciplines within universities, with the recognition that some plagiarism is deliberate but that much of it is done inadvertently through misunderstanding academic citation practices. We do not need to brand students as criminals when they have not fully understood the law. As has been discovered from this research, plagiarism is a very complex issue and has to be tackled on many fronts. There is clearly need for further research. The issues treated in this research are merely the tip of the iceberg.

REFERENCES

- Briggs, R. (2003) Shameless! *Australian Universities Review*. 46 (1), 19-23.
- Chanock, K. (2003) Before we hang that highwayman – The LAS advisers' perspective on plagiarism. In H. Marsden and M. Hicks (Eds) *Educational Integrity: Plagiarism and other complexities*, pp.21-29. Refereed proceedings of the Inaugural Educational Integrity Conference, Adelaide.
- Mackinnon, D. and Manathunga, C. (2003) Going global with assessment: what to do when dominant culture's literacy drives assessment? *Higher Education Research and Development*, 22 (2), 131-144.
- Rosamond, B. (2002) Plagiarism, academic norms and the governance of the profession. *Politics*, 23 (3), 167-174.
- Richardson, T. (2003) Word of warning on student cheating. *The Advertiser*, Friday November 21, p.9.
- Rose, S. (1996) What's love got to do with it? Scholarly citation practices as courtship rituals. *Journal of Language and Learning Across the Disciplines*, 1 (3). [Online] <http://wac.colostate.edu/llad/issues.htm> [Accessed 22 September 2003]
- Williams, J.B. (2002) *The Plagiarism problem: are students entirely to blame?* [Online] <http://www.initec.ac.nz/ascilite/proceedings/papers/189.pdf> [Accessed 24 September 2003]
- Zobel, J. and Hamilton, M. (2003) Managing student plagiarism in large academic departments. *Australian Universities Review*, 45 (2), 23-30. [Online] <http://www.nteu.org.au/publications/aur> [2003, August 26]

Individual Differences: Implications for Web-based Learning Design

Hesham Alomyan

University of South Australia hesham.alomyan@postgrads.unisa.edu.au

In the past ten years the Web has attracted many educators for purposes of teaching and learning. The main advantage of the Web lies in its non-linear interaction. That is, students can have more control over their learning paths. However, this freedom of control may cause, for some students problems such as disorientation, cognitive overload and control problems. To investigate these problems researchers have shifted their focus towards finding how is web-based learning used by learners with different characteristics and styles. In this paper, we outline the findings of some research on individual differences in the context of web-based learning. We also address how web-based learning systems can be adapted to learners' needs and styles. And then we suggest an adaptive web-based learning model, based on the analysis of findings obtained from these studies.

Individual differences, web-based learning, instructional strategies, education computer, learners' needs, learning style

INTRODUCTION

As a new delivery system, web-based learning is a unique hypermedia instructional program, which utilizes the World Wide Web (WWW) resources to create meaningful learning (Khan, 1997). One of the main features of web-based learning is that it allows learners flexibility to interact with each other at anytime and anywhere through synchronous and asynchronous modes. That is, it allows for self-directed learning.

Another important feature is the non-linearity where individuals have the freedom to choose their learning paths allowing them to have more control over their learning. These features and many others have increased the popularity of the WWW as a way of delivering instruction (Shih and Gamon, 2001). However, with this expansion of the use of the Web in education, educators should be more concerned with examining its effectiveness because instruction is not merely displaying information; rather it requires an integrated fit that considers the content, individual differences of learners and the delivery method to achieve success (Alexander, 1995; Martindale and Ahern, 2001).

Borgman *et al.* (1995) have claimed that investigating individual differences will allow educators both to make the transition to new innovative interfaces and to bring the systems to the users rather than the other way around. Therefore, designing appropriate hypermedia learning environments requires an understanding of the learners. Understanding their characteristics that might affect how they interact with a particular learning environment. Such characteristics may include the amount of prior knowledge of the learning domain, cognitive style, achievement motivation, age, gender, and other characteristics. Once a learner's profile is determined, hypermedia learning can be easily adapted in a way that best suits that learner.

A large body of research has attempted to define which individual differences actually influence hypermedia learning. In this paper we review some studies that investigated two types of individual differences, cognitive styles and prior knowledge. We outline and analyse the findings of these studies. Based on our analysis we suggest a web-based learning model that is adaptable to learners' needs and preferences.

COGNITIVE STYLE

Cognitive style is defined as an individual's preferred and habitual approach to organizing and representing information (Riding and Rayner, 1998). Field dependence versus field independence has emerged as one of the most widely investigated dimensions of cognitive styles in education, because it reflects how well a learner is able to perceive and restructure information based on the use of salient cues and field arrangement (Weller *et al.*, 1994).

Witkin *et al.* (1977) used the term, field independence, to describe individuals who are individualistic, internally directed and accept ideas through analysis. On the other hand, field dependent individuals prefer working in groups, are externally directed, influenced by salient features and they accept ideas as presented. Research shows that field independent learners outperform field dependent learners in various conventional and web-based learning settings due to their different characteristics aforementioned (Ford and Chen, 2000).

In the past decade, many studies have examined the significance of cognitive style in hypermedia learning systems. Some of these studies looked at relationships between:

- a) structure of hypermedia documents and cognitive styles (Chang, 1995),
- b) cognitive style, performance, and navigational style (Ford and Chen, 2000), and
- c) cognitive styles and linear and non-linear learning (Liu and Reed, 1995; Reed and Oughton, 1997).

Findings of these studies showed that learners with different cognitive styles react differently in non-linear interaction, which is the main feature of hypermedia programmes.

NON-LINEARITY

Non-linearity is a basic feature in hypermedia learning environments. This feature allows the learner to jump freely from one idea to another, without concern for a predetermined order or sequence. However, for some students especially field dependent students, giving such freedom might cause some problems such as disorientation, learner control and cognitive overload problems. In the following section, we discuss these problems in details and then we offer some solutions in the form of an adaptive web-based learning model.

Disorientation Problem

As we have mentioned earlier a hypermedia system is a very rich and flexible environment for knowledge representation. Research shows, due to this flexibility for representing knowledge and interconnections between the information, that field dependent learners are more likely to get disoriented during navigation in hyperspace, especially if there are no clear signposts as to where they are and where to go next.

Wang, Hawk, and Tenopir (2000) examined users' interaction with the Web. The *Embedded Figures Test* (EFT) was applied to determine students' cognitive styles as either field dependent or field independent. Their results revealed that field dependent individuals might experience more difficulty in navigating on the Web and might get confused more easily than those with a strong field independence tendency.

Furthermore, Palmquist and Kim (2000) investigated the effect of cognitive style on hypermedia learning. The *Group Embedded Figure Test* (GEFT) was administered to identify subjects' cognitive styles. They found that field dependent students tended to follow links prescribed by the designers and experienced more disorientation problems. As a result, they suggested that field dependent learners, especially when novices, might need special attention from the interface designers. Similar results were obtained from a study conducted by Chen and Ford (1998), in which a hypermedia program was presented with on-linear structure to give students an introduction to artificial intelligence. Riding's *Cognitive Style Analysis* (CSA) was administered in order to identify participants' levels of field dependence. The results indicated that field independent students found the structure of the hypermedia program clear. On the other hand, field dependent students experienced more disorientation problems.

It could be inferred, on the one hand, that field independents tend to take an active approach, apply their own organization on the information presented and are able to extract the relevant cues that are necessary for completion of a task. On the other hand, field dependent students tend to take a passive approach where they prefer guidance and attend to most salient cues regardless of their relevance (Chou and Lin, 1997). That is probably why they appeared to experience more disorientation problems. Once again, this suggests that field dependent learners need to be provided with instructional guidance, which can direct them to the relevant information and reduce disorientation.

Learner Control Problem

Learner control is another difficulty that faces field dependent learners in non-linear learning environments. Learner control is the amount of control an individual can exert in an instructional situation (Rasmussen and Davidson-Shivers, 1998).

Yoon (1994) conducted a study to investigate the effect of instructional control strategies and cognitive styles on students' learning outcomes. Eighty-six elementary school students were asked to learn from a computer-based instruction program. The results showed that field independent learners, who had a higher ability to engage in independent learning with analytical thought, performed better in the learner control version. On the other hand, field dependent learners, who were relatively passive and less to learn independently, performed better with the program control version.

Similarly, Ford and Chen (2000) examined student learning in a hypermedia system designed with learner control features that taught the design of Web pages with HTML. Riding's CSA was used to identify students' cognitive styles, they found no significant correlation between field dependent and field independent students and their learning outcomes. However, field dependent and field independent students preferred to use different subject categories. Field dependent students preferred to learn HTML with examples. On the other hand, field independent students preferred to see the detailed description of each HTML command.

Similar findings were also obtained by Liu and Reed (1995), who examined the different learning strategies used by thirty-three international college students in a hypermedia instructional program. The GEFT was employed to determine students as field dependent, field fixed, and field independent cognitive styles. They used a hypermedia program to teach English to international students in which learners could choose different presentation formats for supporting information about vocabulary words they were instructed to learn. They found that both field dependent and field independent students did equally well on an English vocabulary test. However, they used different types of media within the hypermedia learning system. Field independent students used more relationship options of words, while field dependent students used more video context options of words.

These studies show that field dependent individuals might gain benefit from hypermedia learning systems when less learner control and more guidance are provided. On the other hand, relatively, field independent individuals enjoy independent learning in hypermedia systems provided with high levels of learner control. These findings support what Jonassen and Grabowski (1993) concluded that field dependent individuals are influenced by structure per se while field independent individuals are less affected and often impose their own structure on it.

Cognitive Overload Problem

Cognitive overload is a serious problem that affects students learning in hypermedia learning systems. This problem emerges from the freedom of navigation that hypermedia systems offer. This freedom of navigation means confusion especially to field dependent learners. Their attention may be diverted from content and relationships as they attend to navigational decision making and disorientation may be experienced resulting in more cognitive overload. This problem also may be compounded by the vast quantities of easily accessible information, much of which may only be peripherally relevant (Paolucci, 1998).

PRIOR KNOWLEDGE

Prior knowledge is another important variable that is related to hypermedia learning systems. Significant literature review generally indicates that prior knowledge can account for a high level of variance in most learning situations (Tobias, 1994; Yates and Chandler, 1991) Individuals' prior knowledge in hypermedia learning includes previous understanding in the content area and levels of system experience appropriate to the program.

There are a number of issues related to prior knowledge within the context of web-based learning that need to be examined. One of these issues is learner control and cognitive style. Yoon (1994) found that field dependent students with low prior knowledge can facilitate their learning in program control treatment, and field independent students with low prior knowledge can improve their performance in learner control treatment whereas these strategies did not affect students with high prior knowledge. These findings echoed what Witkin, *et al.* (1977) suggested that field dependent learners perform optimally when given guidance that emphasizes key information and draws attention to necessary cues. Field independent learners are more individualistic and rule-oriented. Because field dependent students have greater difficulty imposing organization on an unstructured environment, Witkin, *et al.* theorize that field dependent and field independent learners may perform equally well when learning materials are highly organized.

Another issue pertinent to prior knowledge is navigation structure of hypermedia learning. Shin, Schallert and Savenye (1994) found that young students with high prior knowledge achieved similar scores under both a hierarchical structure, and a network structure, and managed their instruction time more efficiently, whereas low prior knowledge students achieved higher scores under the hierarchical structure than under the network structure, and finished their lesson more quickly under the hierarchical structure. In addition, they found that advisement was helpful in preventing disorientation in the network structure. Perhaps students who possess high prior knowledge are relatively capable of setting their learning paths by themselves in hypermedia programs with network structure. On the contrary, students with low prior knowledge seem to prefer to have a fixed path to follow in linear learning programs.

Further, McDonald and Stevenson (1998) studied the interaction between student's prior knowledge and their navigation behaviours while searching a text adapted to hierarchical, non-linear, and mixed structure hypertexts. The subjects were divided into high knowledgeable and low knowledgeable participants according to their knowledge of the particular subject matter, which was a psychology text.

The researchers studied the number of nodes opened, number of repeated nodes and completion time subjects needed to answer questions by searching through the text. Findings indicated that participants with high knowledge opened less nodes in mixed structure than in the hierarchical and non-linear structure and completed the tasks faster and performed better than the low knowledgeable participants. Perhaps, this may be due to the fact that high knowledgeable participants may experience fewer navigation problems because their greater grasp of the conceptual structure of the subject matter could enable them to navigate easily and find the relevant information on the Web without getting lost (McDonald and Stevenson, 1998).

ADAPTIVE WEB-BASED LEARNING SYSTEM

As discussed earlier, field dependent students and low prior knowledge students seem to meet more problems in non-linear learning within web-based learning environments. They may need special attention from instructional designers. A solution to this problem is developing adaptive web-based learning systems, shown in Figure 1, that tailor to individual users by taking into account their characteristics and learning patterns. This issue will be further discussed next.

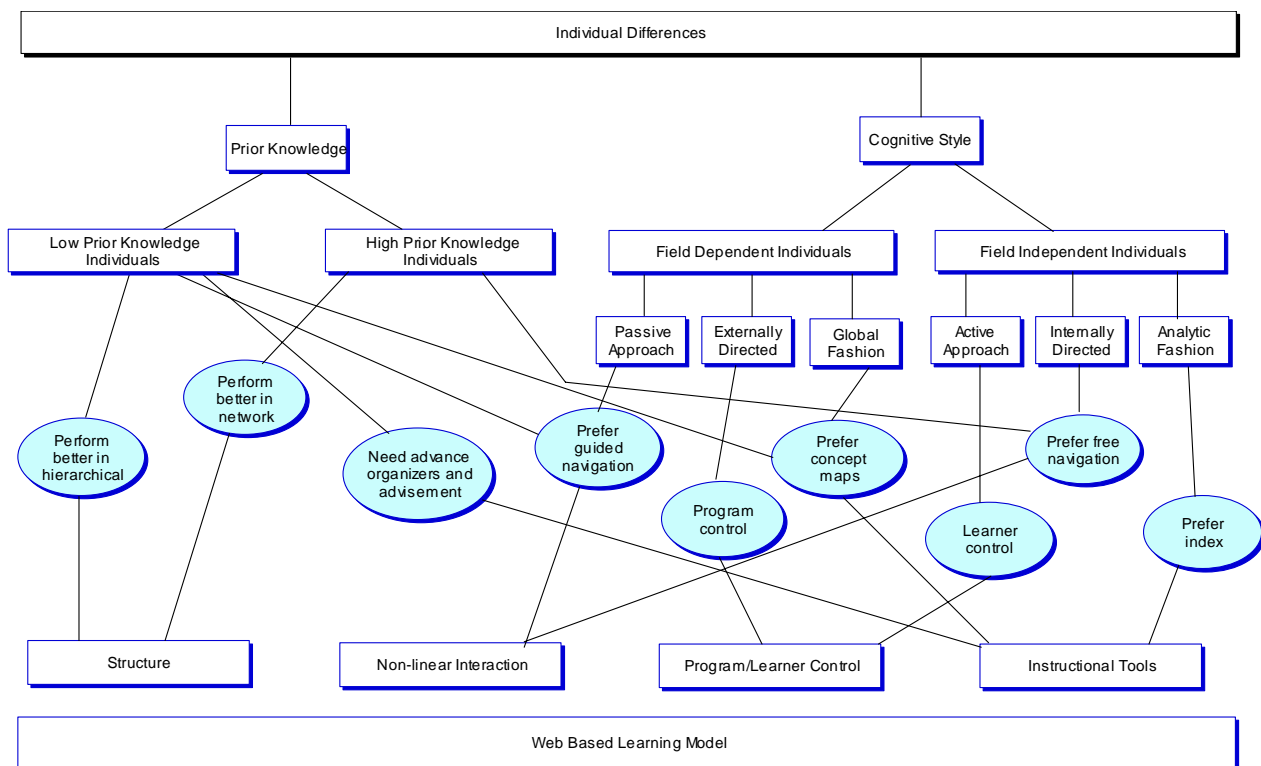


Figure 1. Adaptive web-based learning model

Adaptive Learner Control

In terms of learner control features, previous research has indicated that field independent learners prefer to have control over the system whereas field dependent learners were more comfortable with the program control (Hedberg and McNamara, 1989). However, it is possible to design hypermedia-learning systems for both field independent and field dependent learners with adaptive learner control. An adaptive learning system provides options that will allow both field dependent and field independent learners to feel comfortable with their interaction with learning programs. Since field dependent learners are externally directed, influenced by salient features, accept ideas as presented, and get decisions from others (Jonassen and Grabowski, 1993), the learner control features in the adaptive learning system should be adjusted for them by a) providing maps for orientation, b) visual material, and c) suggesting a route with instructional

cues. In contrast, as field independent learners are internally directed, individualistic, and represent concepts through analysis (Jonassen and Grabowski, 1993), providing different navigation tools in the design will help them locate specific information and exert more control over the program.

Adaptive Navigation Support

As indicated by previous studies, field dependent students experienced more disorientation problems towards non-linear learning. In this situation, several techniques can be applied to the design to minimize disorientation problems, some of these techniques might include: highlighting the context, graphic visualizations, links hiding and annotated links.

Highlighting the context

Highlighting the context is a possible approach to reduce the disorientation problems that field dependent learners might meet. Use of appropriate font sizes and colours may facilitate them to identify the part of the information being explored and the relative position in context.

Graphic visualizations

Graphic visualizations are also another possible solution to disorientation problems (Nielsen, 1995). Maps or hierarchical diagrams can be used in hypermedia learning systems to show current locations.

Links hiding

The idea of links hiding is to limit the navigation space and reduce the cognitive load by hiding all links to the nodes that the student is not expected to learn. There are two kinds of these links: links to not-ready-to-be-learned nodes and links to the nodes that are outside the users' current goal. In 'pure annotation' mode these links were not annotated. In 'hiding' mode these links are hidden: they are removed from any menus and its position in the menus is occupied by the next visible links. Hiding links can help field dependent students identify easily which concepts and nodes should be visible at the given moment, and which should not (Brusilovsky, 1998).

Annotated links

Adaptive annotation is the augmentation of links with some form of comments, which inform the user about the current state of the nodes behind the annotated links (Da Silva, Van Durm, and Duval, 1998). There are several types of annotation. Among these annotation techniques, history-based annotation can work as a means to help field dependent students to know whether a link has been visited or not. Prerequisite-based annotation can be applied to provide field dependent students with information on the background relevant to the concept being learned.

ADAPTIVE COGNITIVE OVERLOAD

Another problem students experienced in non-linear learning systems is cognitive overload. In order for field dependent learners to cope with such a cognitive load there are several techniques the interface designer can use. For example, cognitive load can be reduced by: a) reducing the number of options at any one point in the program; b) by encouraging users to externalise their thinking, by use, for example, of text annotations and place-marking; c) by 'hiding' program options not likely to be needed by most users; d) by providing strong visual clues to aid navigation; and, e) by reducing the number of hypermedia links between information nodes (Oren, 1990).

PRIOR KNOWLEDGE AND ADAPTIVE HYPERMEDIA LEARNING SYSTEM

It appears from the aforementioned research on prior knowledge that the learners with salient prior knowledge are able to employ highly effective acquisition strategies such as organization, chunking and elaboration, and so become able to process and assimilate relatively high levels of information input without suffering cognitive overload effects. In addition, more knowledgeable users may experience fewer navigation problems because their greater grasp of the conceptual structure of the subject matter could enable them to impose structure on the Web (McDonald and Stevenson, 1998).

On the other hand, less knowledgeable learners in hypermedia learning environments may experience disorientation and cognitive overload (Last *et al*, 2001). This may be due to the fact that they are unfamiliar with the subject matter of the text, so they cannot rely on prior knowledge to help them structure the text. Besides that they are unable to use effective acquisition strategies to process high levels of information. Therefore, students with low prior knowledge should be helped to use what they know to help themselves process information effectively. One way to do so is to provide advance organizers that activate existing knowledge (Shapiro, 1999). Another approach is to allow students to share knowledge in small-group discussions prior to beginning a new and possibly unfamiliar task. Advance organizers have been used successfully to augment the learning outcome for students engaged in traditional text-based learning and those engaged in hypermedia-assisted learning. Prior research has shown that this effect may occur because the organizer provides cues to prior knowledge, which is then used as an elaborative tool for the new information.

CONCLUSION

Research shows that web-based learning systems may not be always suitable for all learners as a learning environment. Educators and instructional designers must be aware of student's individual differences such as cognitive styles and prior knowledge possessed. Some learners, such as field dependent learners and learners with low prior knowledge, may need more attention and support from instructional designers, while other learners may be able to work independently in web-based learning systems. Therefore, adaptability is important in the design of web-based learning systems to allow a variety of individuals to use and enjoy the system.

In an attempt to achieve that and based on the findings of previous research, this paper has presented a learning model (Figure 1), which illustrates the effects of individual differences, namely cognitive styles and prior knowledge on web-based learning and the relationships between key ideas. This model can be applied for the design of adaptive web-based learning systems that can be tailored to match with needs and preferences of both field dependent and field independent students. Further research should elaborate and apply the suggested model to explore further the relationships between such individual differences and web-based learning systems. Consequently, it will be interesting to find whether or not adaptive web-based learning systems applying the model suggested by this paper can accommodate students' individual differences.

REFERENCES

- Alexander, S. (1995). Teaching and learning on the World Wide Web. *AUSWEB 1995* [Online] <http://www.scu.edu.au/ausweb95/papers/education2/alexander> [2003, October 9]
- Borgman, C.L. Gallagher, A.L. Hirsch, S.G. and Walter, V.A. (1995). Children's searching behaviours on browsing and keyword online catalogs: The science library catalog. *Journal of the American Society for Information Science*. 46 (9), 663-684.

- Brusilovsky, P. (1998). Adaptive educational systems on the world-wide-web: a review of available technologies Proceedings of Workshop “WWW-Based Tutoring” at 4th international Conference on Intelligent Tutoring System (ITS’98), San Antonio TX. [Online] <http://www-aml.cs.umass.edu/~stern/webits/itsworkshop/brusilovsky.html>. [2003, October 23]
- Chang, C.T. (1995). *A study of hypertext document structure and individual differences: Effects on learning performance*. Unpublished PhD Dissertation. Urbana–Champaign: University of Illinois.
- Chen, S. and Ford, N. (1998). Modeling user navigation behaviours in a hypermedia-based learning system: An individual differences approach. *Knowledge Organization*, 25(3), 67-78.
- Chou, C. and Lin, H. (1997). Navigation maps in a computer-networked hypertext learning system. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the *Association for Educational Communications and Technology*, Albuquerque, No (ED 403 882).
- Da Silva, P., Van Durm, R., Duval, H. and Olivie, H. (1998). Adaptive Navigational Facilities in Educational Hypermedia. *Proceedings of the ninth ACM conference on Hypertext and hypermedia*. Pennsylvania, United States. [Online] <http://portal.acm.org/citation.cfm?id=276664>. [2003, November 5]
- Ford, N. and Chen, S.Y. (2000). Individual differences, hypermedia navigation and learning: An empirical study. *Journal of Educational Multimedia and Hypermedia*, 9 (4), 281–312.
- Hedberg, J.G. and McNamara, S.E. (1989). The human-technology interface: Designing for open and distance learning. *Educational Media International*, 26 (2), 73-81.
- Jonassen, D.H. and Grabowski, B. (1993). *Individual differences and instruction*. New York: Allen and Bacon.
- Khan, B.H. (1997). *Web-based instruction*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Educational Technology.
- Last, D.A., O’Donnell, A.M. and Kelly, A.E. (2001). The effects of prior knowledge and goal strength on the use of hypertext. *Journal of Educational Multimedia and Hypermedia*, 10 (1), 3–25.
- Liu, M. and Reed, W.M. (1995). The effect of hypermedia assisted instruction on second-language learning through a semantic-network-based approach. *Journal of Educational Computing Research*, 12 (2), 159–175.
- Martindale, T. and Ahern, T.C. (2001). The effects of three web-based delivery models on undergraduate college student achievement. *International Journal of Educational Telecommunication*, 7 (4), 379-392.
- McDonald, S. and Stevenson, R.J. (1998). Effects of text structure and prior knowledge of the learner on navigation in hypertext. *Human Factors*, 40(1), 18-27.
- Nielsen, J. (1995). *Multimedia and hypertext: The Internet and beyond*. Cambridge, MA: Academic Press.
- Paolucci, R. (1998). The effect of cognitive style and knowledge structure on performance using a hypermedia learning system. *Journal of Educational Multimedia and Hypermedia*, 7(2/3), 123-150.
- Palmquist, R.A. and Kim, K.S. (2000). Cognitive style and on-line database search experience as predictors of Web search performance. *Journal of the American Society for Information Science*, 51 (6), 558–566.

- Oren, T. (1990). Cognitive load in hypermedia: Designing for the exploratory learner. In S. Ambron and K. Hooper (eds.) *Learning with interactive multimedia*, (pp.126-136). Washington:Microsoft Press,
- Rasmussen, K. and Davidson-Shivers, G. (1998). Hypermedia and learning styles: Can performance be influenced? *Journal of Educational Multimedia and Hypermedia*, 7, 291-308.
- Reed, W.M. and Oughton, J.M. (1997). Computer experience and interval based hypermedia navigation. *Journal of Research on Computing in Education*, 30, 38–52.
- Riding R. and Rayner S. (1998). *Cognitive styles and learning strategies: Understanding style differences in learning and behaviour*. London: David Fulton.
- Shapiro. A. (1999). The relationship between prior knowledge and interactive overviews during hypermedia-aided learning. *Journal of Educational Computing Research*, 20(2), 143-167
- Shin, E.C., Schallert, D.L. and Savenye, W. C. (1994). Effects of learner control, advisement, and prior knowledge on young students' learning in a hypertext environment. *Educational Technology Research and Development*, 42 (1), 33-47.
- Shih, C. and Gamon, J. (2001). Web-based learning: Relationships among students motivation, attitude, learning styles and achievement. *Journal of Agricultural Education*, 42 (4), 12-20.
- Tobias, S. (1994). Interest, prior knowledge, and learning. *Review of Educational Research*, 64 (1), 37-54.
- Wang, P., Hawk, W.B. and Tenopir, C. (2000). Users' interaction with World Wide Web resources: An exploratory study using a holistic approach. *Information processing and Management*, 36, 229–251.
- Weller, H G. Repman, J and Rooze G E (1994). The relationship of learning, behaviour, and cognitive styles in hypermedia-based instruction: implications for design of HBI. *Computers in the Schools* 10, 401–420.
- Witkin, H.A., Moore, C.A., Goodenough, D.R. and Cox, P.W. (1977). Field dependent and field independent cognitive styles and their educational implications. *Review of Educational Research*, 47, 1-64.
- Yoon, G.S. (1994). The effect of instructional control, cognitive style, and prior knowledge on learning of computer-assisted instruction. *Journal of Educational Technology Systems*, 22, 357–370.
- Yates, G. and Chandler, M. (1991). The cognitive psychology of knowledge: Basic research findings and educational implications. *Australian Journal of Education*, 35 (2), 131-153.

Visual Attention Span and Optometric Conditions: Is there a connection between a poor VAS and an optometric diagnosis?

Emily Carroll

Vision and Learning Institute research@visionandlearninginstitute.com.au

This paper investigates whether there is a correlation between a poor Visual Attention Span (VAS) and the child's optometric status. Convergence excess impacts most upon a male achieving a VAS-3 more than 75 per cent of the time. Fifty per cent of females with eye-teaming problems are unlikely to achieve a VAS-3 more than 25 per cent of the time. Overall children with an optometric diagnosis were unlikely to achieve a VAS-3 more than 75 per cent of the time. This indicates that children with optometric conditions are more likely to have a poor VAS ability.

Visual Attention Span, convergence excess, children, eye-teaming, optometric conditions

INTRODUCTION

Harrison and Zollner (1993) suggested that a child's Visual Attention Span (VAS) is primarily developmental. Observations by staff at a paediatric behavioural optometry clinic, however, suggest that children with convergence excess also have a reduced VAS. This study investigates whether there is a correlation between eye-teaming problems, both convergence excess and other eye-teaming problems, and a reduced VAS. To do this comparisons are made between the optometric assessment of children in a clinic population and the number of letters they can recall immediately after seeing them.

VAS is the number of high visibility letters that a child can process and recall in one glance (Harrison et al., 1996; Harrison and Zollner 1993). A VAS of three letters is considered necessary for a child to word guess one or two syllable words. The average child will develop this ability by the age of 7 years 8 months (Harrison et al., 1996). A great deal of research has been conducted into children's visual attention (Pearson and Lane 1990; Yussen 1974), and its impact on reading (Brannan and Williams, 1987; Cornelissen et al., 1991) however, very little research has been done into the impact of VAS other than that by its pioneer Harrison (Harrison et al., 1996; Harrison and Zollner 1993).

The VAS ability of each of the children included in this survey was tested using the Reading Diagnostic Program, developed by Liubinas¹. Initially one letter is flashed on to a blank screen. The child is then asked to say what letter they saw. This process is repeated until two correct answers in a row have been achieved. Another letter then appears so that two letters are shown simultaneously. The process is repeated until the maximum number of letters that the child can recall is obtained. If a child answers incorrectly they progress back a level. Another letter is then not added until they have successfully identified the letters shown twice. The use of a blank screen

¹ See Rite Pty Ltd, 133 Puckle Street, Moonee Ponds, VIC 3039

ensures that the child's visual attention is not compromised by other surrounding objects (Casco et al., 1998). Therefore the test will measure the number of letters the child can recall after visually seeing them rather than their ability to 'discover' the letter (Casco et al., 1998).

The use of a clinic population means that there will be a higher incidence of optometric problems (Schieman et al., 1996). Schieman et al., (1996) suggest that in the age range of 6 to 18 years this is in the vicinity of 8.5 times greater than for the normal population. This, however, will allow any connection to be made as a higher frequency of optometric conditions will provide more children than can be included in the survey.

In accordance with Cornelissen et al., (1991) suggestion of a connection between binocular fixation and a greater tendency for reading problems it is suggested that the children involved in this study are more likely to have learning difficulties than the general population. Solan (1981) also indicated that the optometrist is most likely to be the first practitioner to evaluate children with a learning disability. This corresponds with the anecdotal belief of staff at the practice that most children attending the practice had some kind of learning difficulty or delay. Harrison et al., (1996) also found that the performance of children who visit optometric practices is inferior to those in state and Catholic schools. This was attributed to a higher incidence of reading disabilities than the state average. This study is collecting preliminary data to establish whether there is a correlation between a poor VAS and an optometric problem, which can be assisted.

The aim in each test conducted was to optimise the child's performance. Clear instructions were given to the child prior to the VAS test indicating what they would see and should try to remember. This is in accordance with research which indicated that prior instruction to a child telling them to remember what they saw increased their visual attention to such a level that neither the belief of reward or punishment could increase it further (Yussen 1974). The VAS results are therefore likely to be a good indicator of the child's maximum Visual Attention Span.

METHOD

Data were retrospectively collated for children (younger than 18 years), who had visited the practice in late 2002 and early 2003. All of the children's ages were recorded in years and months at the time of their appointment. For analysis the months were then converted to decimals.

The same behavioural optometrist, who has been working primarily with children for the past 13 years, examined all the children. The results from the optometric assessment were used to classify each child's vision into one or more of the following criteria; no problems, longsighted, focussing, tracking, eye co-ordination problems or convergence excess (see Appendix 1). Most children are longsighted, however, children have only been classified here as longsighted if they are more long-sighted than a child of that age and it is affecting their ocular-motor skills. Although convergence excess is a type of binocular anomaly (Schieman and Wick 1994), that is, an eye co-ordination problem, children were classified, if appropriate, as either having convergence excess or eye co-ordination problems, but not both. This was done to allow the number of patients with an eye co-ordination problem that was not convergence excess to be determined. The difference, if any, on their VAS scores could then be considered.

The results from the computer assessment were collated similarly. That is patients were either classified as having a competent VAS or not. As a VAS of three letters is considered the minimum level for a child to read adequately and copy in the classroom (Harrison et al., 1996; Harrison and Zollner 1993) the children were graded according to their VAS of three. That is they were graded according to whether they could recall three letters more than 75 per cent or less than 25 per cent of the time.

The Reading Diagnostic Program was administered by a Vision Therapy assistant who had completed the Australasian College of Behavioural Optometrists Vision Therapists module related to computer programs. Children who had a computer assessment but were younger than eight years were excluded from the data because a VAS of three is not developed until the child is 7 years 8 months (Harrison et al., 1996).

RESULTS

Thirteen females and 17 males completed the VAS component of the computer assessment. As can be seen from Table 1 and Figure 1 females were more than two times as likely as males to score a VAS-3, 75 per cent of the time. However, they were also more likely than males to not be able to achieve a VAS-3 less than 25 per cent of the time.

Table 1. Percentage of each gender in that range of VAS-3 Score

Range of VAS-3 Score (V)	Males	Females
V<25%	17.7	30.8
25%<V<75%	70.6	30.8
V>75%	15.3	38.5

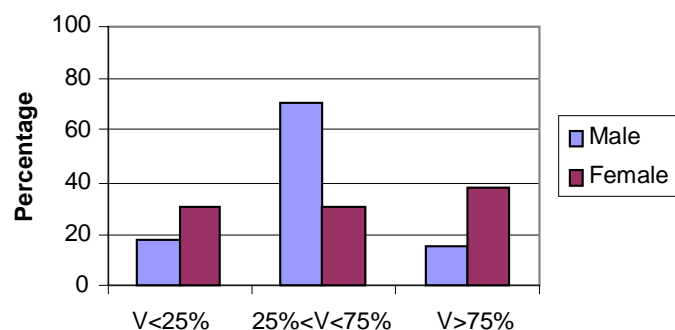


Figure 1. VAS-3 Score according to the percentage of gender in each range

Figure 2 outlines the age and gender of the participants in this study as well as those who scored a VAS-3 less than 25 per cent of the time. The children with a poor VAS were mainly aged between 8 and 9 years and therefore may be developmentally delayed in general. Some older children, however, were also unable to score a VAS-3 more than 25 per cent of the time.

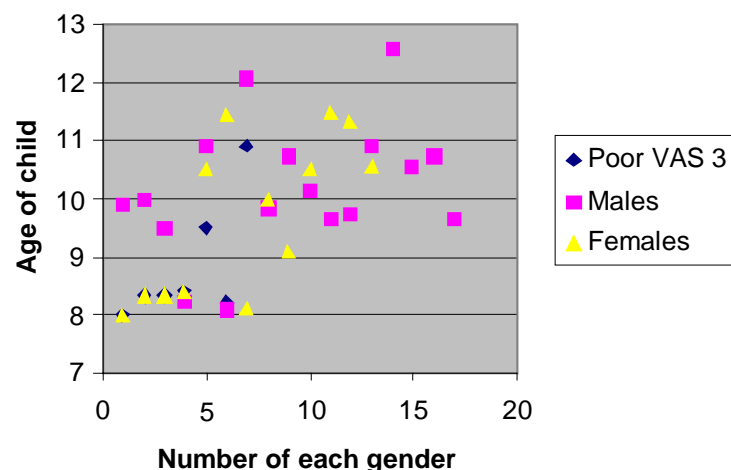


Figure 2. Age of participants in study and those with a poor VAS-3

Twelve males and eight females in the study were diagnosed with convergence excess. All except one female were also longsighted and had focusing and tracking difficulties. The female was just longsighted in addition to convergence excess. Fifty per cent of females with convergence excess

were likely to achieve a VAS-3 score 75 per cent or more of the time. This is more than five times greater than males who predominantly scored a VAS-3 between 25 and 75 per cent of the time.

Table 2. Patients with convergence excess who completed the VAS section of the computer assessment

Range of VAS-3 Score	Males	Females
V<25%	3 (25%)	1 (13%)
25%<V<75%	8 (67%)	3 (38%)
V>75%	1 (8%)	4 (50%)

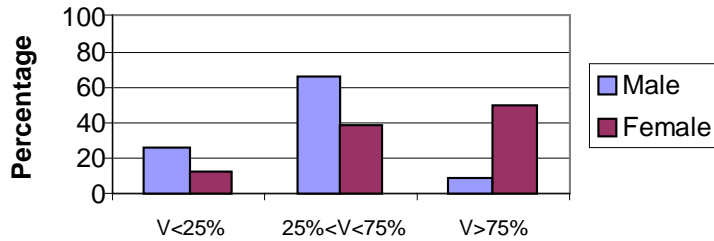


Figure 3. Subjects with convergence excess and their respective VAS-3 scores as a percentage of gender

Four males and four females were diagnosed as having eye-teaming problems that were not convergence excess. They were all considered to be longsighted and some also had tracking and focusing difficulties. As can be seen from Table 3 and Figure 3, 50 per cent of females with eye-teaming difficulties were unlikely to achieve a VAS-3, 25 per cent of the time. No males were in this situation. Twenty-five per cent of both males and females were likely to achieve a VAS-3, more than 75 per cent of the time.

Table 3. Patients with eye-teaming problems who completed the VAS section of the computer assessment

VAS-3 Score	Males	Females
V<25%	0 (0%)	2 (50%)
25%<V<75%	1 (75%)	1 (25%)
V>75%	3 (25%)	1 (25%)

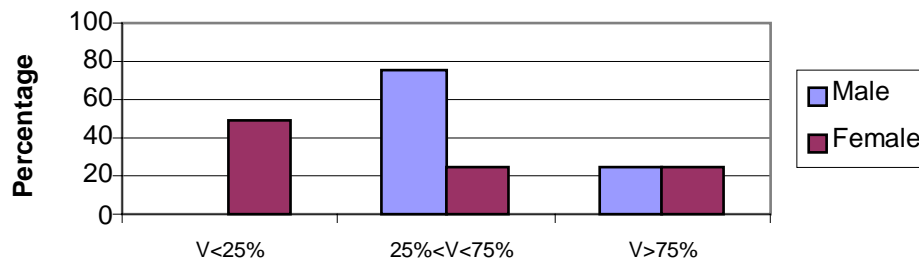


Figure 4. Patients with eye-teaming problems and their respective VAS-3 scores

One male and one female who completed the computer assessment did not have eye-teaming or convergence excess problems. They were both longsighted and had focusing and tracking difficulties. The female could not achieve a VAS-3 more than 25 per cent of the time whereas the male achieved a VAS-3 between 25 and 75 per cent of the time. Both children were in the age range of 8 to 10 years.

DISCUSSION

Cornelissen et al., (1991) suggested that children with reading difficulties also have binocular fixation problems which might cause their eyes to aim either in front or past the page they were

trying to read. It was also indicated that the children involved in that study described what was occurring on the page in terms of the letters moving and blurring together. Both of these factors correspond with the symptoms of convergence excess (Scheiman and Wick 1994). Convergence excess is a condition where the eyes focus in front of the plane. These and other symptoms of convergence excess such as burning and tearing, difficulty concentrating and sustaining reading, decreased reading comprehension over time and sleepiness when reading (Scheiman and Wick 1994) all impact upon a child's reading ability.

This study was interested in whether these factors detrimentally affected a child's VAS. A good VAS was considered important for both reading and copying work in the classroom (Harrison et al., 1996) and it was presumed that convergence excess would impact upon the VAS because the child took longer to co-ordinate their eyes to look at the letters.

The VAS-3 of males with convergence excess appeared to be affected much more than females. However, because males were most likely to achieve a VAS-3 in the range of 25 to 75 per cent of the time this might be because males tended to be at least six months behind females developmentally. Interestingly, the results of this study tended to indicate that females with eye-teaming problems had difficulty achieving a VAS-3 of more than 25 per cent of the time. This indicated that females with eye-teaming problems might have a poorer VAS than initially thought.

Overall, this study indicated some correlation between an optometric condition and a poor VAS because regardless of gender almost 75 per cent of children tested were unlikely to achieve a VAS-3 more than 75 per cent of the time. Convergence excess impacted more upon males than it did females, however, females with eye-teaming difficulties had substantial difficulty with their VAS. This indicated that children with optometric diagnosis, particularly eye-teaming and convergence excess were going to have difficulty accurately guessing words particularly in situations where speed was required. These children were also going to require more time to copy work from the board as they would only be able to see, process and recall one or two letters most of the time.

Special educators need to be aware of the correlation between optometric diagnosis and VAS as they are more likely to encounter children who are struggling with reading because of a poor VAS and optometric conditions. Harrison and Winter (1987) suggest this is in the range of 10 to 20 per cent of schoolchildren. Children with a reduced VAS score was more likely to guess words when reading because they were unable to see enough letters to decipher accurately the words.

Although this study does not indicate whether a poor VAS is the result of or exacerbated by an optometric condition, it does illustrate that few children with an optometric condition consistently achieve a VAS-3 score more than 75 per cent of the time. This study is limited by the small sample included and that the results are based on correlations. Further research is required to examine whether assistance for an optometric problem reduces the time required for a child to develop a VAS-3, or whether the development of VAS is unrelated to optometric difficulties. Anecdotal evidence suggests that a child's VAS can be improved through Vision Therapy. This, however, contradicts the theory that VAS cannot be externally stimulated or influenced (Harrison et al., 1996; Harrison and Zollner, 1993).

Acknowledgements

I would like to thank Mr Jim Kenefick for his support. Examples of this include his willingness to discuss points relevant to the paper, providing access to resources and patient information at the Vision and Learning Institute and for proof reading this paper.

Also Julius Liubinas for providing critique about the research and his assistance in providing a copy of the Reading Diagnostic Program for presentation at the 2003 Educational Research Conference.

APPENDIX 1

- Longsighted:** This means the child has to strain their eyes harder when looking at close work, however, they do not have any difficulty seeing distance.
- Tracking:** This is the child's ability to follow a line of text and then move to the beginning of the next line of text without missing letters or lines.
- Focussing:** This is the child's ability to look at an object near them then far away, or *vice versa*, and make it into one clear image within three seconds.
- Eye-teaming:** This is the child's ability to move both eyes together to look at an object.
- Convergence excess:** This is when the child's eyes turn (converge) in too far when trying to look at an object. They are therefore looking above the plane of the object and have to work their eyes much harder to force their eyes to diverge so that they can look at the object.

REFERENCES

- Brannan, J. R., Williams, M. C. (1987) Allocation of visual attention in good and poor readers. *Perception and Psychophysics*, 41 (1), 23-28.
- Casco, C., Tressoldi, P. E. and Dellantonio, A. (1998) Visual Selective attention and reading efficiency are related in children. *Cortex*, 34, 531-546.
- Cornelissen, P., Bradley, L., Fowler, S. and Stein, J. (1991) What children see affects how they read. *Developmental Medicine and Child Neurology*, 33, 755-762.
- Harrison, B., Zollner, J. and Magill, B. (1996) The hole in whole language: an analysis of the basic literacy skills of 615 students. *Australian Journal of Remedial Education*, 27 (5), 6-18.
- Harrison, B. and Zollner, J., (1993) Teaching Reading: The importance of Visual Attention Span. *Education Monitor*, 4 (1), 9-11.
- Harrison and Winter, (1987) *Visual Assessment*. Tasmania, Australia: W.H.A.T.
- Pearson, D. A. and Lane, D. M. (1990) Visual Attention Movements: A Developmental Study. *Child Development*, 61, 1779-1795.
- Scheiman, M. and Wick, B. (1994) *Clinical Management of Binocular Vision: Heterophoric, Accommodative and Eye Movement Disorders*. Philadelphia: Lippincott.
- Scheiman, M., Gallaway, M., Coulter, R., Reinstein, F., Ciner, E., Herzberg, C. and Parisi, M. (1996) Prevalence of vision and ocular disease conditions in a clinical paediatric population. *Journal of the American Optometric Association*, 67 (4), 193-202.
- Solan, H., (1981) A rationale for the Optometric treatment and management of Children with learning disabilities. *Journal of Learning Disabilities*, 14 (10), 568-572.
- Yussen, S. (1974) Determinants of Visual attention and Recall in Observational Learning by Preschoolers and Second graders. *Developmental Psychology*, 10 (1), 93-100.

Locating the Fault Line: The Intersection of Internationalisation and Competency-based Training

Heather McKay

School of Education, Flinders University heather.mckay@unisa.edu.au

This paper argues that the Tertiary and Further Education system in Australia has responded to globalisation in two paradoxical ways; the pro-active response of internationalisation and the reactive response of competency-based training. Competency-based training currently has a strangle hold on the TAFE sector and education has become a process of domestication and reproduction rather than liberation and inspiration. Using Bateson's systems model and Foucault's notions of discourse, it is argued that direct resistance to competency-based training is not an effective strategy and may even prove counterproductive. Given that internationalisation is a discourse that is allowed in TAFE in the current context, it is argued that educators can use this as a tool to critique competency-based training and gain space for education that is liberatory and constructive.

Globalisation, internationalisation, competency-based training,
technical and further education, discourse

INTRODUCTION

The institution of competency-based training in the vocational sector in Australia has led to a narrow, reproductive form of education. Many educators within the system are concerned that while this form of training may appear efficient in the short term, it would lead to stagnation in the longer term through lack of diversity and change. Direct criticism of competency-based training is difficult in the current culture because the discourse of economic rationalism, which dominates this era of rapid globalisation, constrains what may be legitimately said. This paper provides an explanation of the current circumstances, my positioning with them, and an alternative paradigm of internationalisation. This paradigm may be utilised as a tool to prune back the hegemony of competency-based training to gain space for education that is liberatory and constructive. Further, internationalisation allows the possibility for the sector to respond to globalisation in positive ways that enable a larger goal for education, namely, the development of responsible citizenship at the local and global levels.

THE NATION STATE UNDER PRESSURE FROM GLOBALISATION.

Globalisation is the "compression of the world and the intensification of consciousness of the world as a whole" (Robertson, quoted in Edwards, 1995, p.242). Through information technology, travel, migration and the media, globalisation has brought different cultures into contact with each other and through commerce has interconnected national economies. The reconfiguration of the accumulation of capital based on globalisation has led to national policy agendas being dominated by the interests of privately owned transnational business structures (Yeatman, 1993, p.3) and to the discourse of economic rationalism being foisted on policy makers and practitioners as if "There is no other way" (Thatcher quoted in McTaggart, 1992, p.73).

Lynn Hoffman (1982), following the work of Bateson (1972), says that living systems follow “ a homeostatic self-maintaining design” and that they will remain stable as long as the environment around them does not change. When new conditions arise, this puts the system under pressure and the system comes into crisis (p.16). The homeostatic tendency of the system brings on “ever intensifying corrective sweeps that get out of control” (p.17). The steep increase in the rate of globalisation has put huge pressure on many systems and nation states, in particular, are in a resultant state of crisis.

“Economic globalisation” according to Korsgaard (1997, p.15) “involves a qualitative change in which distinct national economies are subsumed and rearticulated into the system through international processes and transactions”. Rather than challenge the power of the transnational market , what appears to have happened is that national governments have reframed the problem in terms of education and training, an arena over which they are able to exert control. In the United Kingdom, for example, Edwards and Usher (1994, p.10) note that

since the Ruskin College speech by the then Prime Minister, Callaghan, in 1976, there has been an overwhelming number of reports, speeches, white papers, and media items on the failure of the education system to provide the skill necessary for the U.K to be competitive within the globally integrated markets of late twentieth century capitalism... It seems that the further the UK slips in terms of competitiveness, the more responsibility is placed on the education and training system as a major cause.

AUSTRALIA’S RESPONSE TO THE PRESSURE OF GLOBALISATION

A similar process is currently occurring in Australia with regard to the vocational education system. As a response to the perceived lack of national economic control through changes in the global environment, there has been a counter surge to reinforce control in education at the national level. People with knowledge of education have been systematically replaced with economists in the Department of Employment, Education and Training (McTaggart, 1992, p.76). Economic rationalism has become the reigning paradigm and competency-based training subsequently imposed. Edwards and Usher (1994) identify the disciplining role of competence, Jones and Moore (1993, p.392) describe the “massive extension of surveillance” and the “regulation of experts” while Collins (quoted in Beevers, 1993, p.56) contends that competency-based training is “mainly about increasing the steering capacity of the Minister...down to the classroom”. Adding weight to this theory, Stevenson (1993, p.96) in his table of “Historical Patterns of Concerns in Education” indicates that this concern with the “relevance of education” and the introduction of “control” measures has occurred in regular cycles over the past 100 years in times of economic stress. This supports the argument that competency-based training is the most recent of a series of systemic reactionary responses to threats of change in the environment.

It is my contention, however, that the Australian Technical and Further Education (TAFE) system has responded to globalisation in two paradoxical ways. While there has been the strong reactionary response of competency-based training, there has also been a pro-active response, internationalisation, that has been allowed to occur. This is because economists are concerned with a positive budget balance and international education has become a five billion dollar per year export earner for Australia. (Nelson, 2002).

Internationalisation

The Australian Technical And Further Education sector has begun the process of internationalisation in recognition that it is operating in an “emerging global environment” (Australian TAFE International National Strategic Plan 1995-97, p.12). Internationalisation is defined by TAFE as:

a process that prepares TAFE and its students for successful participation in an increasingly interdependent world. The process should permeate all facets of the work of TAFE fostering global understanding and developing skills, attitudes, and values for effective living and working in a diverse world. It should link to the multicultural reality of Australian society and contribute to the capability of Australian industry in competing in a global economy. In doing this it will open TAFE to international best practice and foster an ethos of continuous improvement and ongoing learning. (Australian TAFE International, 1996, p.4)

This internationalisation process is to be guided by the values and principles of: “client focus, cultural understanding, supporting values, a strategic investment approach and an enterprise culture”. The client focus value specifies that

if this involves international students or clients in another country it will require an in-depth knowledge of conditions in that country, cultural understanding and sensitivity and capacity to deliver products and services that are responsive to the distinctive needs of the client. (Australia TAFE International, 1996, p.5)

Competency-based training

In 1987 the ACTU report *Australia Reconstructed*, addressing the balance of payments problems, advised the government of a need for a tripartite system of negotiation between unions, employers education and training institution, those who administer training and employment programs, and community and social welfare groups. The government responded with a series of reports (Dawkins and Holding 1987, Finn 1991, Carmichael 1992, Mayer 1992) which developed the theme of the need for skills and competencies in the Australian workforce. In this context competency-based training was introduced as the “panacea to solve Australia’s skilling needs” (Southern Cross University, 1994, p.21) with a Special Ministerial Conference in 1990 agreeing to implement Competency-based Training with substantial progress to have been made by 1993 (NBEET, 1991, p.1).

The competency-based approach to training focuses on outcomes of what a person can do in the work situation as a result of training. It is concerned with the attainment, and demonstration of specific knowledge and skill and the application needed for effective performance in the work place at the required level. These skills are being defined through national competency standards, which are currently being developed for industry and occupations. (DEET, 1994, p.1)

The National Training Board defines a competency standard as “the specification of the knowledge and skill and the application of that knowledge and skill within an occupation or industry level to the standard of performance required in employment”(NBEET, 1991, p.2).

The focus of a competency-based training system is on outcomes, what an individual can demonstrate that he or she can do, rather than on inputs, in the form of prescribed periods of training. (NBEET, 1991, p.2)

A PATHWAY FOR THE ADULT EDUCATOR

As an adult educator, my own response to globalisation has been mediated by writers such as Korsgaard (1997) who emphasises the common destiny that communities share and Stevenson (1993, p.91) who suggests that a “post-industrial conservator society” is a more rational basis to build economic policy. Although I share Marginson’s (1992, p.3) concerns that globalisation has the potential for monoculturalism, I also join in his hopes that international education could provide the opportunity for learning to see through “‘other’ eyes; to expand the situated

self”(Marginson, 1999-2000, p.5). I am also persuaded by Korsgaard’s (1997) argument that working towards the establishment of global democratic structures, including organs for civil society, is the only alternative to leaving global integration to the technological and economic levels which might end democracy. I am thus attempting to develop a view of my work as ‘education for global citizenship’, based on “human centred development and a participatory society” as proposed by the *Hamburg Declaration on Adult Learning* (UNESCO, 1997). This includes a commitment to a worldwide struggle for equality of gender and race, for conservation and the more equitable distribution of the earth’s resources.

Freire (quoted in Youngman, 1996b, p.199) says that education can be for liberation or domestication. I contend that internationalisation has possibilities for the former alternative while competency-based training fits with the latter. Competency-based training has detached student-centred learning away from its traditional meaning which “involved open-endedness in learning outcomes and the space for generating alternative views, knowledges and practices” (Edwards and Usher, 1994, p.14). It has redefined student-centred learning in commercial terms as customer service in the education ‘convenience store’ where students purchase bite-sized modularised and pre-packaged learning material.

Positioning assessment as the primary function in education, competency-based training has repositioned the educator’s main role to that of assessor and relegated the educator to the status of follower and servant to industry and the bureaucrats. Indeed Collins (quoted in Payne, 1995, p.39) says that this “obsession with...technical rationality has induced modern adult education to evade serious engagement with critical, ethical and political issues. It has effectively sidelined adult education as a social movement and supports movements that tend to de-skill the practitioners pedagogical role.”

Usher, Bryant and Johnston (1997, p.40) warn of the danger of “getting trapped within utopian oppositions to the educational *status quo*”. They exhort disillusioned educators to heed the advice of Foucault and “make allowance for the complex and unstable process whereby discourse can be both an instrument and an effect of power, but also a hindrance, a stumbling block a point of resistance and a starting point for an opposing strategy”. TAFE, along with most institutions in Australia, is in the grip of the discourse of economic rationalism which dismisses idealistic notions as uneconomic. This means that the beliefs and attitudes of most educators, which were formed during an earlier era of Liberalism, are ignored by those who are now in power as they do not have value in the market place and criticalism is not allowed in this era of reproductive education. If space is to be found within the current system and educators empowered to fulfil their vision, then contestation will need to use discourses that are allowed in economic rationalism.

I would also argue, from a systems perspective, that strong direct opposition to the hegemony of competency-based training is likely to be met with more of the same as competency-based training is a reactionary response to a perceived loss of control. Direct opposition is likely to be interpreted by the system as a further attack on control and to elicit even more reactionary responses. As competency-based training and internationalisation, however, are both embraced within economic rationalism, then the contradictions between them provide a wedge for educators to gain space and power to do their work.

COMPETENCY-BASED TRAINING AND INTERNATIONALISATION: THE CONTRADICTIONS

As discussed, competency-based training and internationalisation are both discourses that are allowed under economic rationalism. However, as they are actually forces operating in opposite

directions, comparisons of them against a range of variables illuminates a variety of useful contradictions.

Scope: Education for work versus education for life

One of the most disheartening aspects of competency-based training for adult educators has been its narrow prescription of education as training for work. What is allowed within its parameters are the “specific mix of knowledge skills, and applications required for effective performance at the relevant occupational level” (NBEET, 1991, p.2). Beevers (1993, p.92) laments that this model “leaves little if any space for the learning domains of the personal, social, ethical, humanistic, emancipatory, political, economic or environmental awareness and responsibility”.

Internationalisation, however, leaves room for claiming backspace towards a wider definition of education. Australian TAFE International (1996, p.4) says that the process should “permeate all facets of the work of TAFE” and foster “global understanding” and the development of “skills and attitudes for effective living and working in a diverse world. Further, it describes the process as a response to globalisation “in all its dimensions: economic, technological, social and cultural”. Thus, while economic considerations might often be the bottom line in current practice, at least internationalisation opens the possibility of dialogue that allows wider considerations.

Time focus: Education for the past or education for the future

The locus of education in competency-based training is the past, as competences are described as the “knowledge and skill ... that are required in industry”. The process for making this determination is for industry to describe what has been done in the recent past. This past then becomes the blue print for at least five years into the future (life of a curriculum). The Australian Vice Chancellors Committee expressed concern about this process that leaves “judgement about what will be necessary in the future to the judgement of those whose knowledge and experience are grounded in present or past practice” (quoted in Blunden, 1995, p.35). Gray (1994, p.93) believes that industry has a focus on immediate needs that are often not synonymous with the long-term needs of the individual worker or of industry.

Internationalisation, on the other hand, has its vision focused on the future. It is not interested in mere replication of what has been happening in the here and now but reaches forward to an evolution to “world class performance”(Australian TAFE International, 1996, p.12) and contextualises learning in a “dynamic context of change” (p.5). This allows scope for the contestation of the power of local industry to dictate a prescription for education that assumes an outcome of self-reproduction.

The location of education: Nationalisation or the local-global nexus

It is ironic that the education system is being pushed towards nationalisation through competency-based training precisely at the time that many such as Davey (1998) and Reich (cited in Korsgaard, 1997) are predicting the demise of the importance of the nation-state and national economies as a result of globalisation. This process of national standardisation has depowered the educator at the local level in responding to local needs and issues and in being visionary in incorporating new ideas from international journals or conferences.

Edwards and Usher (1998) argue that what is becoming increasingly important is the global-local nexus and this seems to fit with Australian TAFE International’s rhetoric concerning internationalisation. It talks of the requirement of “opening TAFE to the world” (1996, p.2), developing an “enlarged sense of community ... to the world community” (1996, p.13) and the “active pursual of international best practice (National Strategic Plan 1995-97, p.11). At the same time it underlines “the critical importance of innovation at the local level of the individual

institute” (A.T.I. 1996, p.6) and the need for “TAFE institutes that are responsive to the changing conditions and requirements”(1996, p.13).

International twinning arrangements, joint projects and the clustering of students from particular countries will mean that there will be a growth in differentiation at the local level as institutes respond to internationalisation. This permission to differentiate, innovate and respond may be an avenue that can be pursued by educators to claim back some of their power as educators and to challenge their current role as, so-called ‘box tickers’ in the regime of national standardisation.

The simple versus the complex

The basis of competency-based training is standardisation of outcomes and Christie’s (1997, p.63) fears that this focus on outcomes “may bring rigidity in curriculum, pedagogy and assessment” are well founded. Wood (1992, p.5) notes that a “commonly held view” in Australian TAFE Colleges is that competency-based training is “just another name for self-paced learning” which I would argue is another name for ‘pre-packaged’ learning. This pre-packaging assumes the heterogenous learner with heterogeneous needs and interests and does not allow for a constructionist approach to learning. Internationalisation, on the other hand calls for responsiveness (ATI, 1996, p.13) and encourages those responses to be “innovative and creative” (1996, p.1).

The assumption that students can just dip into education to collect the competencies that have not been ticked off means that the whole learning process has to be standardised and compartmentalised, a “factory model of learning” (Little, 1985, quoted in Beevers, 1993, p.93).

Internationalisation however, makes this so-called ‘factory model’ of education problematic as it introduces notions of diversity, difference and change (Australian TAFE International, 1996). It recognises the social and cultural nature of competence which is in opposition to the NTB model which Beevers (1993, p.90) says is “built on positivist notions that tend to treat ‘skill formation’ and ‘competence’ as value free concepts”. This may confront the view that has been promoted by exponents of competency-based training “that skills are ‘transparent’ simple, unproblematic representations of ‘how things are’” (Jones and Moore, 1993, p.394). Such “decontextualising methods” Jones and Moore (1993, p.389) argue are “in opposition to cultural practices in ‘everyday life’”. Because Internationalisation allows for the discussion of culture, (albeit with intended reference to other cultures), it may open up the space to acknowledge the inherently cultural nature of skills and redress the neglect of issues of value, power and ideology. With its emphasis on context, internationalisation may be used to highlight the often disembedded nature of competencies and the need for recontextualising learning.

What drives the educational process: Curriculum versus assessment focus

A common analogy among teaching staff is that in the competency-based training system the “tail is wagging the dog” and by this they are referring to the “focus on outcomes”(NBEET, 1991, p.2). Even supporters of competency assessment such as Hager and Beckett (1995, p.17) have acknowledged the “rightness” of educators objecting to “technologies of measurement becoming ends in themselves” as has happened in the subtle switch from competency-based assessment to competency-based training. Edwards and Usher (1994, p.8) argue that the discourse of competence “attempts to repress knowledge and understanding” and it is a concern that in this regime of efficiency what ultimately will end up being allowed as knowledge is that which is amenable to testing in the competency framework. What competency-based training is “deliberately silent on” is “the process of learning” (Kinsman 1992 cited in Beevers, 1993, p.100). While proponents of competency-based training argue that this silence is freedom, in practice this is illusory as the unstated assumptions exert power in reducing the possibilities and thus “impose standardisation on curriculum practice” (Stevenson, 1993, p.94).

In the internationalisation paradigm, curriculum is often talked about and there is almost silence about assessment. Internationalisation of curriculum is declared as an objective, but, in my experience, there is almost unfailing, a so-called ‘glossing over’ of the process. An example is the DETE seminar held in Adelaide in 1998 on “Globalism, Tertiary Education and Cultural Diversity” which advertised a stream of speakers on internationalising curricula. On the day this session was modified somewhat to the topic “Providing Effective Learning Experiences for International Students” and the collection of papers went on tangents from that topic. Only one speaker actually mentioned internationalising curriculum, and his strategy, while valid, was limited as it involved having one overseas lecturer who gave feedback on the curriculum.

Is this a case of the ‘emperor’s new clothing’ or is it avoidance of the inevitable clash that would occur if internationalisation was put into practice in more than a tokenistic way? Certainly it has been my experience, in practice, that is often impossible to follow the directions of both paradigms at the same time (for example see McKay, 1997) and I believe that a project to explore further this intersection would be most enlightening. Hopefully it would encourage the power brokers in each paradigm to engage and thus free educators from the double bind of contradictory imperatives.

Australian TAFE International (1996, p.6) demands that internationalisation “should permeate all facets of the work of TAFE”, insists on “mainstreaming international perspectives” and plans to “develop an international perspective in TAFE curriculum”. The approach to learning has, however, in practice been one of marginalisation. Rather than tackling the problematic area of the embedded nature of knowledge, which would be necessary for a holistic approach, it has chosen instead to engage with competency-based training by negotiating the addition of an extra key competency, ‘cultural understanding’.

A Culture of Mediocrity versus a Culture of Excellence

The culture of competency-based training defines standards as a dichotomy (that is, a performance is either competent or not yet competent). Students who are able to perform at the benchmark are encouraged to move on to another competency as quickly as possible. There is no encouragement for students to aspire further than the bare pass mark and educators are actually discouraged by the system of crediting hours from indulging in such uneconomic behaviour as promoting extension of knowledge or skills. Students are locked into training for current industrial practice and there is no preparation for criticism or improvement of the *status quo* (Stevenson, 1993, p.98).

The internationalisation paradigm does not fit within the competency framework as it challenges TAFE to work towards excellence. Instead of promoting competent performance, it urges TAFE to “foster a shared vision of world class performance” (ATI, 1996, p.12) and sets as its goals “international best practice...continuous improvement and ongoing learning” (p.4). The notion of international best practice is, of course, inherently problematic as it assumes that there is one practice that is generically best regardless of context. Nevertheless, the ideology of internationalism opens up space for the consideration of qualitative difference, challenges the notion that performance may only be considered as a dichotomy and opens up the possibility that success may be other than a repetition of the *status quo*.

CONCLUSION

Korsgaard (1997, p.23) says that “to build a democratic society is an art which does not originate from the state or from the market but from the citizenship of civil society” and warns that “if the key institutions of society do not support this art, it will be destroyed”. Youngman (1996a, p.4) contends that “spaces can be found if adult educators are clear about their social goals”. I believe

that clarification of values in regards to citizenship in the global context and its implications is the first step for adult educators.

The next step is to align with the forces for change within the system, which I believe can currently be found in the paradigm of internationalisation. This alignment will need to be a cautious one because of the possibility of cultural imperialism rather than a respect for pluralism; and global competition rather than co-operation. I believe, however, there is an opening for educators to have influence in this arena as the system acknowledges that they are the resource on which the success of international programs are largely dependant.

Finally, I would suggest that adult educators harness internationalisation as a useful tool for pruning the hegemonic power of competency-based training and demanding space for education which is holistic, reflexive, responsive and creative. This they may do by subjecting competency-based training to scrutiny under a lens fashioned within the parameters of Internationalisation. As Gustavsson (citing the work of Ricouer) suggests, our task as adult educators is to “point out contradictions, bring them into conflict and through communication between them bring out something creatively new” (1997, p.248).

REFERENCES

- Australian Council of Trade Unions (1987) *Australia Reconstructed: ACTU/TDC mission to Western Europe*. A report by the mission members to the ACTU and the TDC. Canberra: Australian Government Publishing Service.
- Australian TAFE International. (1996) *A National Framework for the Internationalisation of TAFE, Guidelines for Australian TAFE Institutions*. Australian TAFE International.
- Bateson, G. (1972) *Steps to an Ecology of Mind*. New York: Ballantine.
- Beevers, B. (1993) Competency-based training in TAFE: Rhetoric and Reality. In C. Collins (Ed.), *In Competencies: The Competencies debate in Australian Education and Training*, (pp.89-108). Canberra: Australian College of Education.
- Blunden, R. (1995) The AVCC Response to CBT. *The Australian TAFE Teacher*, 29(3), 35-39.
- Carmichael, L. (1992) *The Australian Vocational Certificate Training System*. Employment and Skills Formation Council, Canberra: National Board of Employment, Education and Training.
- Davey, I. (1998) Globalisation and Internationalisation: the impact on nation state. Paper presented at the Dept. of Education Training and Employment Conference on Globalism, Tertiary Education and Cultural Diversity, Adelaide.
- Dawkins, J and Holding, A. (1987) *Skills for Australia*. Canberra: Australian Government Publishing Service
- Department of Employment, Education and Training, (1994) *Overview of Australia's Vocational Education and Training System*. Canberra: International Training and Policy Section, Department of Employment, Education and Training.
- Edwards, R. (1995) Different discourses, discourses of difference: Globalisation, distance education and open learning. *Distance Education*, 16(2), 241-255.
- Edwards, R., and Usher, R. (1998) Globalisation, diaspora space and pedagogy. Paper presented at the American Educational Research Assoc. Annual Meeting, San Diego, CA.
- Edwards, R., and Usher, R. (1994) Disciplining the subject: the power of competence. *Studies in the Education of Adults*, 26(1), 1-14.
- Finn, B. (1991) *Young people's participation in post-compulsory education and training*. Report of the Australian Education Council Review Committee. Canberra: Australian Government Publishing Service.
- Gray, J. (1994) Industry needs, Individual needs. In *Open Net Newsletter*, South Australian Department of Employment Training and Further Education, 2(4), 1.

- Gustavsson, B. (1997) Lifelong learning reconsidered. In Walter, S. (Ed.), *Globalization, Adult Education and Training: Impacts and Issues*, (pp237-249). London: Zed Books.
- Hager, P. and Beckett, D. (1995) Philosophical underpinnings of the integrated conception of competence. *Educational Philosophy and Theory*, 27(1), 1-24.
- Hoffman, L. (1982) The simple bind and discontinuous change. *Australian Journal of Family Therapy*, 1(1), 16-25.
- Jones, L. and Moore, R. (1993) Education, Competence and the Control of Expertise. *British Journal of the Sociology of Education*, 14(4), 385-397.
- Korsgaard, O. (1997) The impact of globalisation on adult education. In Walters, S. (Ed.), *Globalization, Adult Education and Training: Impacts and Issues*, (pp.15-26). London: Zed Books.
- Marginson, S. (1992) Positive economics and negative effects: economic rationalism and education. *Journal of Australian Studies*, 33, 1-11.
- Marginson, S. (1999-2000) Living with the other: Higher education in the global era. *Australian Universities Review*, 42(2), 1999 and 43 (1) 2000, 5-8.
- Mayer, E. (1992) *Putting General Education to Work: The Key Competencies Report*. Melbourne: Australian Education Council and Ministers for Vocational Education.
- McKay, H. (1997) Critical Theory and Education. Unpublished manuscript, University of South Australia.
- McTaggart, R. (1992) Confronting accountability: Resisting transnational corporate ideology. *Curriculum Perspectives*, 12(1), 72-78.
- National Board of Employment Education and Training (1991) *A Summary of Competency-Based Training Issues and Developments*. Canberra: NBEET.
- Nelson, B. (2002, December 9) *New offshore brand for Australia's \$5 billion international education industry*. Media release. Available [Online] http://www.dest.gov.au/ministers/nelson/dec02/n258_091202.htm [2003, December 16].
- Payne, J. (1995) Adult Learning in the Context of Global, Neo-Liberal Economic Policies. In M. Mayo and J. Thompson (Eds). *Adult Learning Critical Intelligence and Social Change*, (pp.262-274). London: Niace.
- Southern Cross University (1994) Training and Development Today. Course notes for Unit 1 Module B of the Graduate Diploma of Training and Development.
- Stevenson, J. (1993) Competency-based training in Australian analysis of assumptions. *Australian and New Zealand Journal of Vocational Education Research*, 1(1), 87-104.
- Usher, R., Bryant, I. and Johnston, R. (1997) *Adult Education and Post-Modern Challenge: Learning Beyond the Limits*. London: Routledge.
- Wood, G. (1992) *Competency -Based Training is where we are going...how will we know when we've arrived?* Curriculum Services Division, Department of Employment and Technical and Further Education: South Australia.
- Youngman, F. (1996a) A transformative political economy of Adult Education. In P. Wangoola and F. Youngman (Eds) *Towards a Transformative Political Economy of Adult Education: Theoretical and Practical Challenges*, (pp.3-30), Dekalb, Ill.: Leps Press.
- Youngman, F. (1996b) Towards a political economy of adult education and development in Botswana. In P. Wangoola and F. Youngman (Eds) *Towards a Transformative Political Economy of Adult Education: Theoretical and Practical Challenges*, (pp. 189-220), Dekalb, Ill.: Leps Press.

Current Trends of the Linguistic and Cultural Values of the Greek Australian Community in South Australia

Alexandra Holeva

Adelaide University alexandra.holeva@adelaide.edu.au

The paper investigates the perspectives of Greek origin people as regards their intention to maintain their ancestral culture within the Australian context of social values. This qualitative research study, influenced by Humanistic Sociology, analyses data collected through questionnaires from first and second generation parents and teachers of high school students, and identifies a shift in the cultural values of the Greek community in South Australia towards an equilibrium of shared Greek-Australian values.

The researcher aims to demonstrate that Greek origin parents, educated in Australia, have incorporated social and cultural values of the dominant culture in their ancestral cultural system and proceeded to the creation of a new personal and ethnic group cultural system, which allows them to maintain a dual identity. This shift, indicative of the need to capture the advantages both cultural identities offer, emerges the logical question:

What is the cultural prognosis for the third generation descendents of the Greek Migrants?

Greek migrants, language, education, assimilation

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK AND RELATED LITERATURE

Research about Greek migrants in an Australian and South Australia school context in particular appears to be limited. The major research efforts were conducted during the early 1970s to the late 1980s, an era, which saw interest in multiculturalism at its strongest. During this time the Australians of second generation Greek origin saw themselves evolving from a marginalized social status and sense of being a so-called 'ignorant migrant' to having a prominent status arising out of a strong ethnic community. Since then Greek migrants have continued to have a passion for proving themselves equal to other Australians in a process of natural assimilation, closely related to living in a cultural context where the dominant culture differs from their own. The authors believe that this has generated a shift in the attitudes and perspectives of second-generation migrants in South Australia. This second generation represents the parents of high school students, and it is the parents' attitudes and perspectives which will have an impact on third generation Australians of Greek origin. Specifically, this is about the latter generation's willingness to maintain or alternate, if needed, what they consider to be Greek ethnic identity and the maintenance of certain Greek cultural values, for example, the language and Greek Orthodox religion.

The research undertaken has been using the sociological framework of Humanistic Sociology to interpret and analyse the collected data. Humanistic Sociology has emphasized the need to accept

human values and activities as facts, just as the human agents themselves accept them. Znaniecki (1969, p.75) points out:

Construction of a cultural system is mere reproduction of a system already in existence when it is intended to be such by the agent and taken to be such by the other participants, even if the copy is very different from the original.

Cultural phenomena are deeply connected with human consciousness and the way people perceive specific aspects of their culture, heritage or every day life according to their personal or group values (Znaniecki, 1963). Znaniecki and later Smolicz noted that when a person as part of a pluralist society is exposed to more than one cultural system, he or she has the opportunity to adopt values from other cultural systems so as to create what Smolicz has defined as a “personal cultural system of shared values” (Smolicz, 1985). Under this cultural umbrella of shared values, a tradition or cultural heritage is usually influenced and is subjected to changes according the ethnic group’s or person’s needs and demands at a certain time and the consciousness the human actor has of those needs and demands (Znaniecki, 1963). The special value system (group and personal), specific for each cultural group, is defined as core values system. This system identifies and differentiates each cultural group from another although they reside in the same extended cultural context. Core values help each group to be a distinctive ethnic, religious or cultural community. They can also be regarded as one of the most fundamental components of a group’s culture (Smolicz, 1999, p.106). Obeying or sharing certain core values indicates membership of a certain group whereas the rejection of these values is equal to possible exclusion from the group. These core values are the basis for preserving both tradition and heritage, and as Smolicz notes (Smolicz, 1999, p.227), “as parts of the cultural process, they have to be actively evaluated by those living today”. Each generation can select a certain aspect of its heritage and evaluate, reform or adjust it to current realities. Each succeeding generation evaluates various aspects of its heritage in a new way. Some aspects of one’s heritage cease to be of interest, while others become important in terms of sentiment or aspiration. Clyne (1991) also argues that one has to view cultural values according to the terms in which they are meaningful to the group concerned. The researcher who is examining, analysing or interpreting a cultural item or expression of certain cultural phenomena such as language, religion or cultural tradition under the prism of Humanistic Sociology, although trying to be an unbiased observer, has no alternative but to participate in them in order understand how a human agent perceives a certain cultural item or its social expression. This is called the ‘Humanistic Co-efficient’, the need to interpret all social and cultural activities from the perspective of the actors themselves, not merely that of the outside observer, both Znaniecki (1969) and Smolicz (1999) emphasize.

The members of the Greek-Australian community of Adelaide included in this research study seem to follow a similar path leading to a cultural system of overarching core values, to an Australian-Greek values equilibrium. They have moved from the custom of ritually following Greek customs to incorporating in their everyday life more mainstream Australian cultural aspects and values. A prime example of this shift is the role of language. The Greek language, previously regarded as the Greek community’s core value, currently is confronted with a tension between maintenance and alteration that has arisen after the first 50 years of Greek migration to Australia. Now the resilience of the Greek community in South Australia is threatened by the voluntary abolition of both language and cultural identity. Currently, the first generation Greek migrants, who constitute the natural basis of cultural, religious and linguistic maintenance, is disappearing. Their second-generation offspring, whether Australian or Greek-born, have completed their education in Australia and increasingly perceive themselves as Australians more than Greeks, whereas their parents were proud of being known as ‘Greeks’. This perception of the second generation seeing themselves as Australians has naturally affected not only the language used in

everyday life but also the customs, which maintain Greek cultural identity. Papademetre (1994a, p.515) has earlier supported this idea by stating that:

this new identity has been undergoing a periodical modification influenced by external socioeconomic exigencies in the context of social changes, educational opportunities, and professional practices over time.

Smolicz and Secombe (1981) in their research conducted during the early 1980s proved that Greeks at that time perceived their language as one of the core values of their ethnic identity and that maintaining the language was significant in preserving Greek traditions and culture. Clyne (1991) points out that Greeks until 1996 seemed to maintain their native language at home much more than any other ethnic group that migrated during the 1950s, 1960s and 1970s. Papademetre (1994b), through the research he conducted in South Australia and Tsolakidou (1995) in her research on 'Code Switching' in Victorian Greek families, have shown that in the contemporary Greek Australian family the Greek language is now what Skutnabb-Kangas (1981) has defined as a subordinate language to English, at least as far as the second generation is concerned. They created their own idiomatic 'Greek-Australian' language. According to Papademetre this logogenesis is just a result of incorporation of English words into the Greek language and vice versa. The findings of the present research are compatible with the participants admitting that their existing knowledge of Greek is at a junior primary level and they feel restricted by the limited vocabulary needed to communicate with the first generation parents in everyday communication. The trend to code-switching and mixing languages is also apparent in their responses.

Not much research regarding the role and influence of education on the preservation of ethnic language and culture has been conducted specifically in South Australia. Papademetre and Routoulas have conducted research from 1993-1999, one of the last periods of study about Greek migrants. To the best of this author's knowledge, it is the only other study interested in parents' perspectives on their children's education, an issue that often worries many parents of Greek ancestry. In particular, the parents claim that the language currently being offered in the curriculum does not interest those who want to learn Greek at school. This was not the case ten years ago and this is due to the perpetual changing of educational policy that now favours other ethnic languages. Papademetre is aware of the shift in language learning and the ideological discourse on multiculturalism in Australia. In his study he examines the extent to which this shift affects the "personal attitudes and perspectives of bilingual and bicultural Australian born and educated parents of Hellenic background with regard to the education of their children" (Papademetre and Routoulas, 2001, p.134).

The undeniable problem about research into the teaching and learning of Greek language and culture in Australia, across all levels of state-funded education, is that research until now has focused on the socio-cultural and linguistic ambition of immigrant parents and their children to maintain their ancestral culture and language. This was a major issue during the 1970s and 1980s when multiculturalism was the aim of education policies. Twenty years later, Papademetre and Routoulas indicated that the interviewees feel "the odds are still there for the bilingual education". The present research identifies a problem in the third generation's reluctance to arrest the decline and resilience of Greek language and culture in Australia. The researcher has approached parents and teachers of students who are attending Greek language classes at state and independent schools. She is investigating the impact of parental aspirations on their children's education. Parental aspiration is extremely significant for families of Greek origin and the pressure put on children to follow a certain path was and according to the researcher's findings is still extremely serious and intense. It varies from aphorisms like "of course my child has to go to the university" to the more modest "of course I would like him or her to go to the university but I let him or her to choose profession". Marjoribanks (2002) in his latest book on family background, environmental

and individual influences on adolescents' aspirations, titled *Family and school capital: Towards a context theory of students' school outcomes*, has investigated the role of parents' concerns on whether their children intend to continue schooling or drop out. He has demonstrated that children of Greek origin are very much influenced by their school and in terms of further education-related choices are mainly influenced by their mothers. It is further proof that parents play a role in their children's attitude to education, and education-related issues are very important to Greek families.

RESEARCH AIM, METHOD AND INSTRUMENT.

The important sociological question that this research seeks to answer is: Has the Greek community in Adelaide shifted from considering language as one of its core values assisting its survival, to a different status where it believes that language is no longer a valuable cultural item and could or should be replaced by the English language? If so, does this shift indicate that another value will be the core one, for example religion, historicity or cultural awareness, or does it indicate an unreserved assimilation process that drives the local Greek community to desert its ethnic values on favor of the pluralistic society's value system, thus abolishing its ancestral identity?

This research is based on the hypothesis that since education is a significant method of enforcing the dominant culture on those educated into the system, the second generation of migrants of Greek origin will eventually lose their willingness to maintain Greek language and culture in a process of natural assimilation. Initially, the multicultural context they live in will allow cultural and linguistic ethnic characteristics to be preserved, which inevitably will fade when the first generation is gone and the second generation perceives itself as being part of the establishment. At this point the will to maintain the ancestral language and culture has no meaning should the former ethnic group live under an umbrella of cultural values shared between the constantly weakening traditional ones, and the prevailing ones in the context where a person lives and is educated by.

The researcher in this paper presents the findings of the investigation of multiculturalism and identity, language, education and careers, and bilingual or bicultural upbringing of children. The research was designed to investigate the perceptions of parents and students who are attending Greek language classes at high school and the impact of the education system, when the Greek language is offered as LOTE, on the ethnic awareness of the ethnic group. The present sample has already made the conscious decision to maintain Greek language, culture and heritage, at least at a higher level of ethnic awareness compared to those who are not attending Greek language lessons. A follow-up research study that will include students and parents of those students who are not attending Greek language classes in South Australia would be useful in supplying more knowledge about the future of the Greek language, culture and ethnic awareness.

The method used to collect data was a questionnaire. The researcher took all the necessary precautions to safeguard respondents' anonymity and answers were returned to the Department of Education at the University of Adelaide. The questionnaire included a number of questions that helped the researcher identify the group of respondents. The second part of the questionnaire included eight open-ended questions, where the respondent could outline personal perceptions and ideas. This assisted the researcher to collect valuable cultural data. An alternative strategy appeared in that those people, who were more willing to reveal their identity and not just provide a written answer, could discuss their personal views on the issues outlined in the questionnaire. The interviews were mainly conducted in English combined with some Greek Creole language, while some interviewees spoke solely in Greek. The targeted group of respondents consisted of all Greek or non-Greek parents of high school students attending Greek classes in all those Adelaide state high schools that offer Greek LOTE, and in the independent St. George College, the only private school with Greek in its curriculum. The research commenced during Term 3 in 2002 and

was completed by the end of Term 2 in 2003. The parents were approached through their children and the researcher distributed the questionnaire personally. The parents' questionnaire was distributed to over 100 individuals. Yet only 35 of them returned it and 18 more chose the interview method to communicate their ideas. This sample is not enough to justify a quantitative research approach, but as far as Humanistic Sociology is concerned it is very significant that these people, by having decided to provide insights freely, were eager to contribute. Their contribution is extremely significant because they are the human actors who play a role in social actions, which they perceive as crucial for their future in Australia. As well, those who did not respond to the questionnaire provide us with adequate evidence for a humanistic interpretation, since they are providing us with information regarding current trends and the perspectives parents have on their children's education about Greek culture and on preserving their heritage. Regardless of their individual beliefs and perspectives – the reader will be able to judge them accordingly, since they will be presented as they were uttered – we can claim that they include all the possible scenarios and they are a sample worthy of being investigated.

ANALYSIS

The Quantitative Approach: Descriptive Statistics and Their Input

To begin with, we have to admit that it is amazing yet not surprising that this small sample of those 53 parents and teachers who have responded to our request, represents the whole spectrum of people who are involved in one way or another in preserving the Greek language and culture in South Australia. These respondents are people from a non-Greek background married into a Greek family, or people of Greek origin having a spouse who is non-Greek. They are couples of first generation adult Greek migrants or children of migrants, who were born in Greece but finished their education in Australia, or they represent an Australian-born person of Greek origin. Some of them are very much interested in maintaining their heritage while some are not. Most people in our sample (89%, that is 47 out of 53 respondents) were born between the late 1950s and early 1960s. The place of their birth is not statistically significant. Forty-three per cent (23 out of 53 respondents) were born in Greece and 30 out of 53 (46%) are Australian-born. The findings are consistent with the Australian Census statistics since 1968 concerning the age and place of birth of respondents of Greek origin. Our respondents, the parents of senior high students, are in the 35-46 age group and they are either first or second-generation migrants, since their parents migrated mainly during the 1950s and 1960s. Regardless of the respondents' place and date of birth, 60 per cent come from a traditional Greek family with 3-5 children, whilst only 20 per cent belong to a two children family. A similar percentage (19%) had more than five siblings and up to ten children in the family. These findings reflect the ethos of the Greek family, namely, to have as many children as possible, since they are said to be 'a blessing from God'. In terms of the respondents' ethnographic categorization, the place of birth of their siblings is distributed similarly to their own place of birth: 43 per cent of siblings were born in Australia and 45 per cent were born in Greece. The remaining 12 per cent were born elsewhere such as Cyprus and Turkey.

Crosschecking the language used to communicate with the family (parents, siblings, spouse, children and friends) the statistics reveal the following information. The percentage of respondents communicating in Greek with their fathers was 81 per cent (that is 43 out of 53), while 83 per cent (that is 44 out of 53) of respondents speak Greek to their mothers. If their parents are alive they see them very often. The attitude that they have regarding the language they use when speaking to their parents indicates the level of the Greek language they have mastered, enabling them to communicate effectively with their parents.

Regardless of the respondents' place and date of birth, as well as their siblings' place of birth and number of siblings in the family, 33 out of 53 respondents (62%) communicate with their siblings

in English. It is also noteworthy that of the remaining 20 respondents, 12 answered that they used Greek and the remaining eight admitted that they used Greek Creole. It is further noteworthy that those who answered that they communicate with their siblings only in Greek were all born in Greece, and in fact their parents are still living in Greece. In other words they are first generation migrants with a strong connection to Greece.

However, when it came to the language used at home to communicate with their children, the ones belonging to the third generation, as many as 87 per cent admitted that they speak English or the ‘GrEnglish’ Creole language. The same percentage emerged when respondents revealed this is the language they used with their spouse if they were of Greek origin. Participants were also asked to identify their social circle and to reveal the ethnicity of their friends as well as the language used to communicate with their friends of Greek origin: 31 out of 53 (59%) spoke only English with their friends and another 19 per cent (10 out of 53) used Creole. Not surprisingly the same 12 respondents who had earlier indicated that they speak Greek with their siblings, stated that they used Greek solely with their friends. Figure 1 illustrates the language used by participants with their close family or friends of Greek origin.

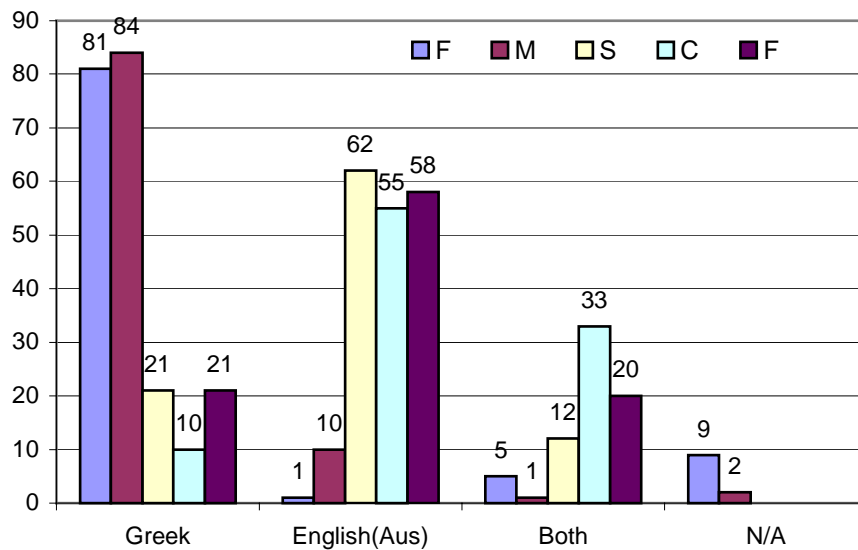


Figure 1. Language used with family/social circle

The columns in Figure 1 titled N/A refer to the answers of those participants who stated that their father or mother is deceased. Therefore they have not answered the question about them. As we can see the main language spoken by the respondents to their parents is partly Greek and partly the Creole language. It is surprising, however, that there are few people who admit that they communicate with their mothers in English and not in their mother-tongue. All these respondents are Australian-born and university graduates. This language preference is very well detailed in the literature. Skutnabb-Kangas (1981) has demonstrated that there are migrant mothers who prefer their children to communicate in the mainstream language and not in their ethnic language, so that they can excel in their studies.

The choices and preferences our respondents have shown for English is, according to the dictates of Humanistic Sociology, a significant and most important social action that leads to a reversal of the language being used. This specific act is crucial because the attitude of these representatives of the intermediate generation plays a very significant role in the preservation or otherwise of their ancestral language, culture and heritage. It must be remembered that a multicultural society such as Australia offers the freedom not only to preserve ethnic diversity but also to ensure that ethnic traditions flourish. The researcher therefore investigates in the three research leads undertaken,

first, the personal choices of the human cultural agents, second, the role of the education system and policies in forming these choices, and third, the total assimilation of migrants into the cultural values of the society in which they have been brought up. The data collected and their analysis indicates that the more the respondents have gone through the education system, the more Australianised and assimilated they have become, sharing more cultural values with the Australian Anglo-Saxon context rather than their own ancestry.

A very interesting outcome arose when the educational level of the respondents and the language they used at home was crosschecked. Those respondents (6 of 53) who have no education at all, even Greek, and have never been through the Australian education system, speak mainly Greek at home (5 of 6) or Creole (1 of 6). Those who finished primary school in Greece and were not educated in Australia (4 of 53), similarly speak either Greek (3 of 4) or English (1 of 4). This scenario changes when we discuss the findings from those who attended and finished secondary education in Australia (20 of 53). Only three out of these 20 speak Greek at home and, not surprisingly, these people had migrated to Australia when they were teenagers. Six out of the 20 spoke in Creole and 11 out of the 20, or 55 per cent of those with secondary education, communicated solely in English at home. It should be noted that the Creole language in its structure and vocabulary tends to be more English than Greek. Regarding those people who have had tertiary education (23 of 53), the critical finding is that many Greek language teachers are included in this category. Half of them (12 of 23, or 48%) speak only English at home, another 40 per cent (10 of 23) speak the Creole language and only one out of the 23 university graduates used only Greek at home. The comparison between the language spoken at home and the education level is provided in Figure 2.

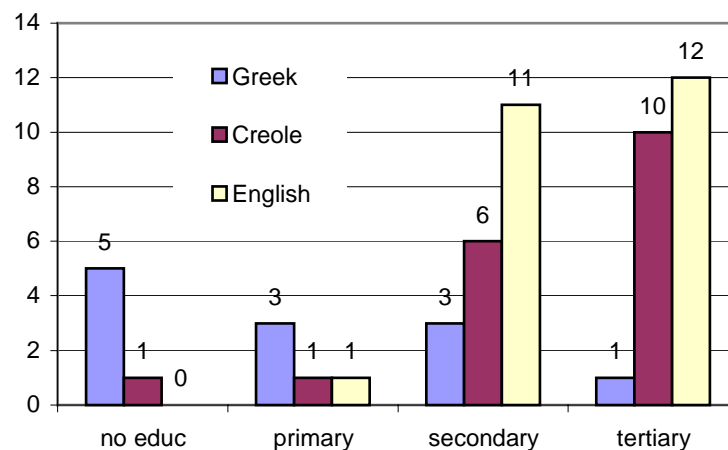


Figure 2. Educational level and language spoken at home

The importance of the language used at home as the main method of communication is very important in whether the next generation will preserve it. Should the second generation parents choose not to use Greek at home because it does not answer their needs any more, naturally their offspring are not expected to talk in Greek since they do not have the oral and aural interaction necessary to maintain what was once considered their mother-tongue. Yet we have to keep in mind that the respondents have chosen and sent their children to a school offering Greek. This has to be interpreted as meaning that in their statements they are trying to maintain Greek language and culture in their offspring. The irony, however, is that they are not endeavouring to pass it on to their children themselves.

It is also interesting that a significant number of respondents admit that when communicating with their siblings, or friends and children of Greek origin, they use the Creole language that has been created, using words where they could not recall or did not know the Greek word when they tried

to speak to their parents. Eventually, as Papademetre has proved, this need has become a living logogenesis process that has created a third language, what Smolicz refers to as an Identity language (Smolicz, 1979a). This language reflects exactly their needs and mental processes. As they revealed in their personal statements and as we will read later, this intermediate and transitional generation does not feel totally Greek or totally Australian. One respondent wrote very vividly:

I feel that I am two different people. In the morning I am dressed up in my Australian professional character and go up there, to work. When at home, I am the true me, the one who gets angry very easily and forgets the anger quickly, the one who speaks loud and swears in Greek all day long. Yet I am not Greek, I could not live there! Probably I am better here, since I have been educated here, but I cannot escape all the time. Sometimes they can tell that I am different and I have noted that sometimes at work, people who cannot pronounce my name, seem to look at me differently.

In this research it emerged that six of the participants who had not attended any schooling. Five people admitted that they followed Greek culture and traditions, while one person conceded to using a mixture of both cultures. Three out of the four followed Greek traditions while one used both cultural systems. It is not surprising that the responses about cultural maintenance are identical with the responses given about the language used at home. Of those who attended high school in Australia and responded that they used English, the same 11 people admitted that they preferred Australian culture and traditions even when celebrating Easter and Christmas. The same applies to those who finished their tertiary education. The numbers are similar. Those 12 speaking English at home enjoyed Australian culture, the ten speaking the Creole language used a Creole cultural system, and the one person who spoke Greek at home followed Greek traditions. A comparison between the language spoken at home and education level is provided in Figure 3.

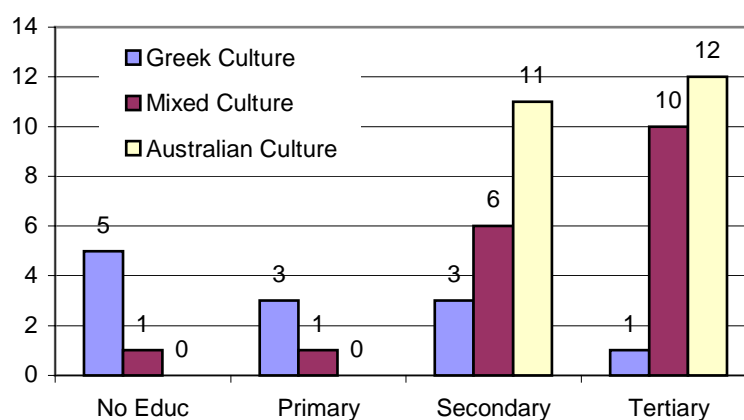


Figure 3. Educational level and cultural maintenance

In order to understand education's influence on the maintenance of their ethnic identity, participants were also asked to measure the factors they considered significant for their identity, and demonstrated what they considered more significant by numbering in importance each factor. The factors mentioned were the following: marriage and baptism according to the Greek Orthodox religion; Greek history; the people's character; the Greek language; Greek cuisine; and Greek cultural expressions such as songs and dances, whether traditional or contemporary. They had the option of naming other factors they felt they identified with. Their responses were categorized according to their education level and the results of this cross-tabulation are presented in Figure 4. The non-educated or the less educated placed a lot of weight on their 'Greekness' and the factors mentioned above. Those who were more educated, however, considered as more significant to their identity the factors of social status, social acceptance and career, to name a few.

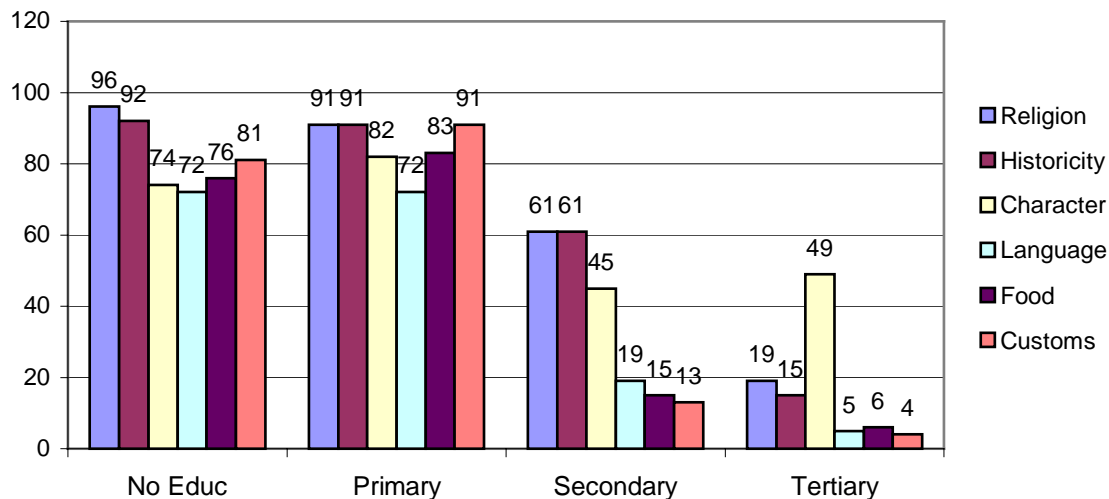


Figure 4. Cultural aspects identifying people's 'Greekness' according to education level

It is interesting that the only factor that university graduates felt identified them with any so-called 'Greekness' was their character, mentality and temperament, or in their own words, "my Greek blood".

The Contribution of the Qualitative Tradition: Cultural Data

Respondents' Self identification Revealed by Personal Statements

The respondents participating could be divided in two subgroups under the main criterion of place of birth. The first group could be categorized as first generation migrants and the other one as second-generation migrants. In both groups there were respondents who taught Greek at all the levels of education and in ethnic, state or independent schools. This made it imperative to have another category that could offer a more profound approach since it may be necessary to use the input of respondents who fit the two roles simultaneously. We will use as our first step this group's perspectives and personal statements to interpret those factors that have affected this shift in the process of teaching, learning and maintaining the Greek language.

Teachers have a say in the Greek language

The specific subgroup is able to contribute its experience as bilingual, bicultural and often bivalent participant observers in the process of teaching Greek language and culture in state and community schools. They are important Greek language teachers and parents of Greek origin who have children attending high school Greek classes. This means that more than anyone else they have an idea of the factors generating the noticeable shift to the Creole (GrEnglish) language and culture. It will ultimately lead to the Greek community being totally absorbed and assimilated into the dominant cultural system in Australia. The majority of teacher or parent respondents were first generation migrants who migrated as teenagers during the late 1960s and 1970s. They have been educated in Australia and all of them, except for a few ethnic schoolteachers, are university graduates. The few parents who insist on speaking Greek with their close family, children and friends belong to this subgroup. When they were asked the reason for the problems that Greek language and culture are facing in schools with falling student numbers at all education levels, they blamed government education policies.

Generally there is little importance placed on learning a second language in the Australian educational system. Australians seem to think that English alone is enough to see you through life, a very isolationist attitude. Also, the educational system seems

to follow the economic trend of the times. Since our trade partners are closely linked to Asia, these are the languages pushed in schools today. Not everyone is going to have a keen interest in learning an Asian language. (T3, Respondent 12)

I don't have the impression that Greek or languages for that matter have a high priority at the school I'm currently at. After Year 9 most students abandon language learning. (T16, Respondent 31)

European languages such as Greek are no longer seen as important or valuable as Asian languages are today. This is also reflected in the school curriculum. Even when such languages are part of the curriculum not enough emphasis is placed on them in terms of timetabling. (T 17, Respondent 50)

They consider the main reason for the decline in student numbers in Greek classes is the lack of practice in the language at home and the absence of any aural and oral language for the students who are keen to practice. Generally, they complained about the lack of resources and changes in the curricula. Last but not least, many language teachers were not using up-to-date teaching techniques. The lessons therefore were said to be boring and without motivation:

Overall in South Australian schools the number of students studying Greek is dwindling. The issue is changing demographics and the changing nature of the Greek community. Most of our Greek students are third generation who speak exclusively English at home; others are from mixed marriages so the desire to maintain the Greek language is not as strong as in the previous generation; that is for those students who spoke Greek at home. This affects the approach a teacher of Greek will take, when teaching Greek in the 2000s. (T8, Respondent 23)

Those students are third generation Greeks, whose mother tongue is English and who come from homes where the main language spoken is English. A consequence of this is lack of appeal of the Greek language and may be the reason why people of non-Greek origin, or third generation Greeks do not take up the language. As a result Greek fails to be one of the most common languages studied in schools today. (T 11, Respondent 26)

There are, however, teachers that have been teaching for more than 30 years and have not modified or adapted their teaching methods nor topics taught to suit these schools. Some of the lessons given by these teachers do not reflect the modern, vibrant Greece of today. This leaves students with the impression that Greece and Greeks themselves are stuck in time. (T 7, Respondent 21)

Unfortunately, the way of teaching is inappropriate. Teaching is without logic. It is not based on a proper curriculum, which is designed by non-Greeks. The Cognition and Metacognition are not even included in the curricula or they are set wrong. (T18, Respondent 51)

The cultural characteristics of the first generation migrants: Parents

The main period of Greek migration to Australia ended around the late 1970s. The group of participants in our research represents people who were first generation migrants. Young Greek-born migrants either came with their parents or by themselves, or were invited and supported by relatives in Australia, and settled and were educated and they blended in with Australia's multicultural society. It is logical and expected that they still maintain the values which are significant for language and culture preservation. The Greek Orthodox religion, family unit and structure in 2000 still had that distinctive cohesiveness that Smolicz (1979b) identified and discussed. Last but not least they had a cultural awareness that made them feel more Greek than

Australian, but they adjusted successfully. Nonetheless there were a few voices expressing the sense that they “*feel both*” and “*try to have the best from both cultures*”:

Whilst I feel Australian and am Australian I have a very close affinity with my Greekness. When I am with Australians I know I am different. Also my husband’s family is not Greek and this is another way my Greekness ‘comes out’. This is not a bad feeling; they are very comfortable with that and I am very comfortable with my Greek identity. (R5)

In my job description I feel more Greek-Australian. As I was growing up it was more Australian-Greek due to peer pressure trying to hide my identity. Now, working with Greek children and understanding true values of being Greek I wouldn’t have it any other way. (R18)

I feel more Greek as I grew up in Greece, but whenever I have gone to Greece for holiday I feel Australian as some of my thinking is influenced by the Australian way of life. When you experience both worlds you try and take the best of both. (R27)

The language they use within their social context and their family (close and extended) is Greek. Since their children are more fluent in Greek compared with third generation children, they consider learning Greek is more a professional advantage and useful for other reasons, such as communicating with relatives in Greece and travelling abroad. They do not see the language as a measure for maintaining the culture. Instead they consider Greek linguistic and cultural preservation are the anticipated outcomes of the strong and cohesive Greek family, which feels obliged to preserve their so-called ‘Greekness’:

Unfortunately I do not speak enough Greek. I only speak Greek regularly to my parents and friends and relatives of their generation. When my children were younger I spoke to them in Greek, however as they got older our topics of discussion became more complex, and they commenced answering in English. (R 9)

Until my first child went to kindy he only spoke Greek with us and it was relatively easy for me to speak Greek with him all the time. However, it became more difficult with our second child because by then his brother had started to speak English with him. In my everyday life I mainly speak in Greek. I speak to my husband in Greek, yet he answers in English. I also would speak in Greek to the children about 60 per cent of the time. They understand everything I say. The older ones find it easier to respond in Greek compared to the younger one, and this seems quite similar in most families. (R 28)

I speak in Greek with parents and my mother-in-law and children do quite well in speaking Greek with grandparents. However, all other relatives and friends of a Greek background speak in English and I have noticed that most of them also speak in English with their children. (R 33)

We speak Greek to our parents on the phone when they call from overseas. We speak to our children mainly in Greek and also Greek to our brothers and sisters, and Greek friends and relatives. We speak English to people who do not speak Greek. (R 45)

It is interesting that since these people migrated at a time when multiculturalism was at its peak, even now almost 30 years later, they still consider themselves as deprived of a ‘fair go’ and that they did not have the same chances with others due to their being Greek. They also stated that it still hurt being called a ‘wog’ as a child. In their responses it emerged that they felt the need to hide their identity.

Initially it was very difficult to grow up as wog or dago. It took a lot of patience and effort to be part of the Australian culture and fit in. Learning to speak with no minimal trace of Greek accent helped. It is not so difficult now with successful Greeks within the community. (R 4)

It did not really affect me, since I speak with an English accent and I do not look like Greek. Only my surname was a giveaway, but most people just thought I must be married to one. (R 13)

Difficult – the English language is difficult to learn and be able to communicate with the general public. A lot of people are not tolerant to people who have difficulty speaking the English language. (R 19)

The cultural characteristics of the second generation migrants: Parents

These are a bilingual, bicultural group with a dual identity and probably bivalent, yet it seems the Australian cultural system is increasingly preferred. They enjoy both cultures and speak of a third culture and a third language – an amalgam of both. Their slogan is ‘the best of both’ and recently they commenced debates about Greek-Australian culture with a Pan-Australian conference held in Melbourne in April 2004.

In the 70s the racial conflict was terrible with regards being a pupil at school or finding a job. Even when working, it was very difficult with racism. Nowadays life has changed, the country is more multicultural and have accepted the migrants more so than then. As a child and teenager I found it difficult because I knew I was different than the majority, however, there were enough of us around not to feel too isolated. As I grew older, in my mid to late teens, I began to appreciate this difference and felt proud to come from such a culturally diverse background. (R 15)

I call myself Australian of Greek parents. Being born in Australia, I’ve had the pleasure of learning about both the Australian and Greek way of life. I am privileged to be able to combine good qualities from both cultures to create a balanced life and family environment. My upbringing was very strict and structured. I see that Australians are more relaxed and laid back. In my family there are certain limits set with my spouse and children and at the same time there is more open communication, freedom and understanding which has come about from my Australian living environment. (R 41)

Having a marginalized and residual perception of Greek history, culture and language, they declared that they do not care for maintaining their ancestral ethnic identity, since they do not belong completely to it. They consider multiculturalism as a ‘given’ and that there is no more need for struggle as it has been established. They do not care for any residual knowledge of Greek culture, tradition and history, since they claim they do not need to know all this to be proud of their origins. Finally, they believe that if the children learn the Greek language they will learn Greek culture also. Otherwise they will have a residual view of both and eventually if they do not use it, they will lose it.

My allegiance is to Australia first, I feel this is the country that has given me a future, education, etc. I am of Greek parents, first generation and have always been very proud of my heritage. Yet I think I have forgotten many things about the Greek tradition, and there are many things I do not know about Greek history. Yet do the Greeks in Greece know everything I know about Australia? Of course not. I know what I need and that is enough for me. (R 15)

Even though I was born in Australia, I can feel the Greek blood in me and feel proud to have an ethnic background and especially Greek. I like the fact that I have a tradition behind me, and something that I can pass on to my children. As my husband is of Italian background, I do not want to consume my children with only Greek and wish to be fair with their ethnic upbringing. After all the multiculturalism is something people have tried very hard to establish. (R 43)

CONCLUSION

The aim of this research has been to interpret the social trend of second generation Greeks in Australia: they are moving away from Greek language and culture and creating a blended Australian-Greek culture. Will this trend of putting aside the ancestral values and living under a cultural and linguistic equilibrium continue, because it is based on the social needs of the Greek community? Or, is it a temporary sign of resilience in the face of total assimilation and could it or should it be readily replaced by English language and culture?

The target group of the second research phase was the high school students who were attending Greek classes. They belonged mainly to the third generation. A better reading of the parents' generation and their attitudes towards both Greek and Australian cultural values, their perceptions and choices regarding their cultural and linguistic heritage, are considered essential and potentially illuminating for the purposes of this project. Humanistic Sociology has one significant principal:

When a group is changing values, it simply alternates tradition and evolves cultural identity according to current needs.

This approach explains the shift happening in the Greek community. Eighty per cent of participants in the parent and teacher questionnaire claimed that since they spoke English within the family or social circle, and shared Australian customs and habits, to identify themselves as Greeks had become increasingly difficult. Those who have gone through the education system and been born in Australia do not feel to be Greeks at all. They admit, however, that they are not either completely Australians, although they have tried hard. This is why they speak for a third culture. Those who have had a limited education seem to retain more of the Greek culture and language compared to those who have finished secondary or tertiary education. Those who are educated do not care for residual knowledge of Greek culture, tradition and history. They believe that they have the best of both worlds. They identify themselves as Greek through common codes implanted in their character. They feel that the education they have gone through within the Australian school system has helped them to feel part of Australian society. Their education has influenced the mentality, attitudes and approaches they have in their social lives.

These findings present the changes that have been noticed in the second generation. It will be interesting to investigate the perspectives and opinions of the third generation. The findings of this research study about students, will also help to the extent that it will offer more data about parents, in the form of comments which students make and about their parents as far as language and cultural identity are concerned.

REFERENCES

- Clyne, M. (1991) *Community Languages: The Australian Experience*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Marjoribanks, K. (2002) *Family and School Capital: Towards a Context Theory of Students' School Outcomes*. Netherlands: Kluwer.

- Papademetre, L. (1994a) Self-defined, other-defined cultural identity: Language use and multiple-group membership in a Greek Australian sociolinguistic community. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 15(6), 507-525.
- Papademetre, L. (1994b) Discourse marking in Australian Greek: Code interaction and communicative resourcing. In I. Philippaki-Warbuton, K. Nicolaidis, M. Sifianou (eds.) *Current issues in linguistic Theory: Themes in Greek Linguistics*, (Vol.117). Amsterdam: John Benjamin.
- Papademetre, L. and Routoulas S. (2001) Social, Political, Educational, Linguistic and Cultural (Dis-) Incentives for Languages Education in Australia. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 22(2), 134-151.
- Skutnabb-Kangas, T. (1981) Bilingualism or Not: The Education of Minorities. *Multilingual Matters*, 7. England: Clevedon.
- Smolicz, J.J. (1979a) *Culture and Education in a Plural Society*, Canberra: Curriculum Development Centre.
- Smolicz, J.J. (1979b) Individualism vs. Collectivism: Social relations in Ethnic groups. *Ethnic and Racial Studies*, 3(1), 13-24.
- Smolicz, J.J. and Secombe, M.J. (1981) *The Australian School through Children's Eyes*. Melbourne: Melbourne University Press.
- Smolicz, J.J. (1985) Greek Australians: A Question of Survival in a Multicultural Australia. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 6(1), 17-29.
- Smolicz, J.J. (1999) In M.J. Secombe and J. Zajda (eds) *J.J. Smolicz on Education and Culture*. Melbourne: James Nicholas Publishers.
- Znaniecki, F. (1963) *The Method of Sociology*. New York: Octagon Books.
- Znaniecki, F. (1969) In R. Bierstedt (ed) *Florian Znaniecki on Humanistic Sociology*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.